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A TEXT-BOOK

of

MEDICAL DIAGNOSIS

By

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THIRD EDITION, ENTIRELY RESET

WITH 555 ILLUSTRATIONS, 21 IN COLORS

PHILADELPHIA AND LONDON

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PREFACE TO THE THIRD EDITION

The general plan of the previous or second edition has been retained in the present issue, and the diagnostic problems of each disease have been brought up to date. The book is believed to be complete as a practical and dependable aid to the general practitioner in his efforts to recognize disease. The work presents a more exhaustive discussion of the diagnostic aspects of medical complaints than is to be found in text-books of medicine.

Unfortunately, limitations of space necessitated the omission of the descriptive cases to be found in the previous editions. This omission has provided room to present the main diagnostic features of all newer complaints and the newer developments in methods of investigating the diseases met with by the general practitioner. Purely technical details in the study of the clinical pictures of disease, however, have been simplified as much as possible. The diagnostic tables to be found in previous editions, have been retained in the present volume, and brought abreast of present day clinical and laboratory standards, the authors having received ample assurances of their extreme helpfulness.

While our aim in the present revision of this work has been to present all practical advances, special mention should be made of the newly described diseases and conditions, and of subjects to which much material has been added. These are: Spirochæta of Syphilis; Filterable Virus; Asthma; Blood-pressure; Electrocardiograph; Hemophilia and Purpura; The Thyroid; The Thymus Gland; The Pituitary Gland; The Pancreas; Suprarenal Capsules; The Parathyroid Glands; The Pineal Gland; The Gonads; The Testis; The Ovary; Lipodystrophia Progressiva; Goetsch and Kottman Tests for Thyroid Function; Alexander's Method of Auscultatory Percussion; Transdigital Auscultation; Bronchospirochetosis; Foreign Bodies in the Air Passages; Subcutaneous Emphysema; Chylothorax; Vital Capacity of the Lung; Thrombo-angiitis Obliterans; Thoma-Levy Hemacytometer; Blood Chemistry; Erythremia; Polycythemia Vera (Vaquez's Disease); Eosinophilic Leukemia; Aplastic Anemia; Pyorrhea and Focal Infection; Abdominal Contraction Method of Diagnosis; Opaque Solution in the Bronchi in *X*-ray Studies; Fractional Gastric Analysis; Rivas' Acetic Acid Method for the Detection of Bacteria in the Blood; Kohn's Duodenal Tube in Diagnosis; Duodenal Dilatation; Ileocecal Spasm; Epidemic Colic; Estimation of Liver Function; Craigiasis; Larva Migrans; Pupil in Diagnosis; Spinal Tumors, Including *X*-ray; Opaque Solution in the Subarachnoid Space, etc.; Radiation Sickness; Sickle Cell Anemia; Food Allergy; Acute Infectious Myoclonus Multiplex; Botulism; Basal Metabolism; Granuloma Inguinal; Pseudouremia; Weil-Felix Test (for Typhus Fever); Trench Fever; Tuberculosis of Skin and Bone; Tracheobronchial Node Tuberculosis; Pulmonary Syphilis; Acute Epidemic Encephalitis; Alastrim; Wood-tick Bite Paralysis; Serum Sickness; Tularemia (Deer-fly Fever), Melioidosis, Epidemic Pleurodynia (Devil's Grip), Wolff-Junghans' Test for Soluble Albumin, and Bárány Test.

Our cordial thanks are due to Dr. A. I. Rubenstone, who furnished the material on the subject of Blood Chemistry, and Basal Metabolism; to Dr. Francis Ashley Faught, who re-wrote the subject of Blood-pressure; to Dr. Thomas M. MacMillan, who re-wrote the chapter on Electrocardiography; to Dr. Hyman I. Goldstein, for much valuable assistance and to Dr. A. M. Ornsteen for assistance in connection with the Section on Neurology.

JAMES M. ANDERS.
L. NAPOLEON BOSTON.

PHILADELPHIA, PA., *November*, 1925.

PREFACE

THE present volume is offered to the medical public at the repeated solicitations of both practitioners and undergraduate students. The special purposes of the authors have been primarily to furnish an improved method of determining the clinical features of disease, so that all of the more important symptomatic phenomena in a given case may be collected with ease and certainty, and to emphasize the importance of corollating symptoms with the structural changes on which they are dependent and their organismal etiology. It is confidently believed that a knowledge of the laws of disease thus gained, combined with personal experience, will prove the best guide to accurate diagnosis, and obviate the danger of being sidetracked by non-essential evidence. This method, which brings the entire organism under consideration, of investigating disease, as outlined in the introductory chapter of this work (vide infra), will render the question of individualization of cases, a prime requisite, free from serious difficulty. Moreover, it will provide a sure and proper basis for rational treatment.

The method herein advocated will forcibly encourage painstaking, thorough, and scientifically accurate investigation of disease, and it will more than compensate for the indifferent and embarrassing results of mere superficial observations of cases, which, be it remembered, can never carry an observer to eminence as a diagnostician. Additionally, the authors have aimed to present, consistently with a single volume text-book, the full modern resources of the art and science of medicine as related to medical diagnostics.

The new features, which it is hoped will commend themselves to professional favor, are the brief pathologic definitions of special diseases, the illustrative cases selected from those actually observed in the hospital and private practice of the authors, and the numerous diagnostic tables, designed to aid the student and practitioner in contrasting the distinguishing signs and symptoms of diseases which bear a close clinical resemblance to one another. Here should also be mentioned the sub-headings, *Summary of Diagnostic Features* and *Laboratory Diagnosis*, which occur in connection with the individual complaints described. The text is profusely illustrated with photographs and colored plates, with a view to facilitating the reader's grasp of the technic of the more refined methods of diagnosis.

Our best thanks are hereby extended to Dr. John M. Swan for kind aid rendered in connection with the task of proof-reading, to Dr. T. H. Weisenburg for preparing the section on diseases of the nervous system, and to Dr. George E. Pfahler, who furnished the subject-matter relating to Röntgenology. Finally, our thanks are due the publishers for much courtesy and kindly interest manifested while the volume was passing through the press.

JAMES M. ANDERS,
L. NAPOLEON BOSTON.

PHILADELPHIA, PA.

CONTENTS

	Page
Introduction	17
General and Special Considerations	17
Investigation of Individual Cases	23
Physical Examination	27
Bedside Observations	30

DISEASES OF THE RESPIRATORY SYSTEM

DISEASES OF THE NOSE AND THROAT

Laboratory Examinations	33
Diseases of the Nose	34
Acute Rhinitis	34
Chronic Rhinitis (Chronic Nasal Catarrh)	34

DISEASES OF THE LARYNX

Acute Catarrhal Laryngitis (Acute Endolaryngitis)	35
Spasmodic Laryngitis (Laryngismus Stridulus; False Croup)	35
Tuberculous Laryngitis	36
Syphilitic Laryngitis	37
Edematous Laryngitis	37
Chronic Laryngitis	37
Tumors of the Larynx	38

DISEASES OF THE BRONCHI, LUNGS, AND PLEURA

Methods of Examination	38
Data Obtained by Inquiry	38
Physical Examination of the Chest	41
Inspection of the Chest	47
Palpation of the Chest	53
Percussion of the Chest	56
Auscultation of the Chest	66
Râles (Rhonchi; Rattles)	71
The *X*-ray Evidence of Diseases of the Bronchi, Lungs, Pleura, and Diaphragm	76
Diseases which Increase the Transparency of the Lung	76
Diseases which Decrease the Transparency of the Lung	77
The Diaphragm	78
The Pleura	79
The Sputum	80
Collection	80
Characteristics of the Sputum in Disease	80
Microscopic Study of the Sputum	83
Chemic Study of the Sputum	90

DISEASES OF THE BRONCHI

Acute Bronchitis	90
Infectious Bronchitis	93
Bronchospirochetosis	94
Chronic Bronchitis	95
Fibrinous Bronchitis (Plastic Bronchitis; Croupous Bronchitis; Mucous Bronchitis)	98
Asthma (Bronchial Asthma)	100
Bronchiectasis	104
Bronchial Stenosis	107

DISEASES OF THE LUNGS

PAGE
Congestion of the Lungs ... 108
Pulmonary Edema ... 109
Bronchopneumonia (Capillary Bronchitis; Catarrhal Pneumonia) ... 111
Foreign Bodies in the Air Passages ... 116
Lobar Pneumonia (Croupous or Fibrinous Pneumonia; Pneumonitis; Lung Fever) ... 120
Chronic Interstitial Pneumonia (Fibroid Induration; Cirrhosis of the Lung) ... 121
Pneumonokoniosis (Anthracosis; Chalicosis; Siderosis; Silicosis) ... 122
Pulmonary Tuberculosis ... 124
Pneumorrhagia (Pulmonary Apoplexy) ... 124
Pulmonary Embolism (Hemorrhagic Infarction; Embolism of the Lungs) ... 124
Pulmonary Gangrene ... 125
Pulmonary Atelectasis (Collapse of the Lung; Compression of the Lung) ... 128
Abscess of the Lungs (Suppurative Pneumonitis) ... 129
New-growths of the Lungs ... 131
Carcinoma of the Lungs ... 131
Sarcoma of the Lungs ... 131
Pulmonary Emphysema ... 133
Interlobular Emphysema ... 133
Vesicular Emphysema (Compensatory Emphysema) ... 133
Hypertrophic Emphysema ... 133
Senile Emphysema ... 137
Subcutaneous Emphysema ... 137
Fungoid Disease of the Lungs ... 138
Pulmonary Actinomycosis ... 138
Aspergillosis of the Lungs (Pseudotuberculosis) ... 138
Pulmonary Blastomycosis ... 138
Streptothricosis ... 139
Parasitic Diseases of the Lungs ... 139
Echinococcic Disease of the Lungs ... 139
Amebic Abscess ... 139
Endemic Hemoptysis ... 139

DISEASES OF THE PLEURA

Movements of the Two Halves of the Chest ... 139
Hydrothorax (Dropsy of the Pleura) ... 143
Chylothorax ... 145
Pleurisy (Pleuritis) ... 145
Acute Plastic Pleurisy (Dry Fibrinous Pleurisy) ... 146
Primary Plastic Pleurisy ... 146
Secondary Plastic Pleurisy ... 147
Serofibrinous Pleurisy (Pleurisy with Effusion; Subacute Pleurisy) ... 148
Special Clinical Forms of Pleurisy ... 161
Chronic Pleurisy (Adhesive Pleurisy) ... 164
Dry Chronic (Adhesive) Pleurisy (Thickened Pleura) ... 164
Empyema(Purulent Pleuritis) ... 166
Pneumothorax (Seropneumothorax; Pyoneumothorax) ... 169

DISEASES OF THE CIRCULATORY SYSTEM

DISEASES OF THE PERICARDIUM, HEART, AND BLOOD-VESSELS

Methods of Examination ... 176
Data to Be Obtained by Questioning the Patient ... 176
Inquiry with Reference to Present Conditions ... 177
Symptoms Suggestive of Cardiac Disease ... 180
Topography of the Heart ... 185
Variations in Health ... 185
Landmarks ... 186
Topographic Relation of the Heart to the Lungs ... 186
Position of Cardiac Valves ... 188
The Precordium ... 189
Inspection of the Heart ... 189
Examination of the Precordium ... 189
Palpation ... 195
Pulse ... 195

PAGE

Blood-pressure ... 203
The Sphygmograph ... 222
Electrocardiography and the Cardiac Arrhythmias ... 227
Mensuration of Chest in Cardiac Disease ... 251
Percussion ... 252
Auscultation ... 252
Normal Heart-sounds ... 252
Heart-sounds of Pathologic Significance ... 256
X-ray Evidence in Diseases of the Pericardium, Heart, and Blood-vessels ... 258
The Pericardium ... 258
The Heart ... 259
The Mediastinum ... 264
Aneurism ... 264

DISEASES OF THE PERICARDIUM

Pericarditis ... 265
Acute Plastic Pericarditis ... 266
Subacute or Serofibrinous Pericarditis ... 269
Purulent Pericarditis (Empyema of the Pericardium) ... 274
Aspirating the Pericardium ... 274
Hemorrhagic Pericarditis ... 276
Adhesive Pericarditis (Chronic Pericarditis) ... 277
Pericarditis Callosa ... 277
Hydropericardium (Dropsy of the Pericardium) ... 278
Hemopericardium ... 278
Pneumopericardium (Air or Gas in the Pericardium; Pyopneumopericardium) ... 279

DISEASES OF THE ENDOCARDIUM

Endocarditis ... 280
Simple Acute Endocarditis ... 280
Ulcerative Endocarditis (Malignant Endocarditis; Infectious Endocarditis) 283
Recurrent Malignant Endocarditis ... 289
Cerebral Type of Malignant Endocarditis ... 289
Chronic Endocarditis ... 289

VALVULAR DISEASE

Aortic Regurgitation (Aortic Incompetency; Aortic Insufficiency) ... 291
Aortic Stenosis ... 298
Mitral Regurgitation (Mitral Insufficiency; Mitral Incompetency) ... 302
Mitral Stenosis ... 309
Tricuspid Regurgitation ... 313
Tricuspid Stenosis ... 317
Pulmonary Incompetency ... 317
Pulmonary Stenosis ... 319
Combined Forms of Cardiac Disease ... 319
Complications of Valvular Disease ... 320
Cardiac Thrombosis ... 320

DISEASES OF THE MYOCARDIUM

Hypertrophy of the Heart ... 320
Hypertrophy of the Left Ventricle ... 321
Hypertrophy of the Right Ventricle ... 322
Auricular Hypertrophy ... 323
Tumors of the Heart ... 323
Myocarditis ... 324
Acute Myocarditis ... 324
Chronic Myocarditis ... 325
Fatty Heart ... 328
Dilatation of the Heart ... 329
Acute Primary Dilatation ... 330
Thrombosis of Coronary Arteries ... 332
Cardiac Aneurism ... 332
Cardiac Rupture ... 333
Angina Pectoris (Stenocardia; Breast-pang) ... 333
Congenital Affections of the Heart ... 335

DISEASES OF THE BLOOD-VESSELS, MEDIASTINUM, AND THYMUS GLAND

	Page
Diseases of the Arteries	337
Acute Aortitis	337
Chronic Aortitis	337
Arterial Sclerosis (Arteriosclerosis; Angiosclerosis; Arteriocapillary Fibrosis Endarteritis Chronica Deformans; Atheroma)	338
Thrombo-angiitis Obliterans (Buerger's Disease, "Intermittent Claudication")	340
Aneurism	342
Aneurism of the Thoracic Aorta (Thoracic Aneurism; Aneurisma Aortæ)	344
Aneurism of the Abdominal Aorta	351
Aneurism of the Pulmonary Artery	352
Arteriovenous Aneurism	352
Diseases of the Mediastinum	352
Inflammations	352
Mediastinal Abscess	352
Tumors of the Mediastinum	353
Mediastinal Hemorrhage	356

THE BLOOD

Laboratory Examination of the Blood	356
Cleaning of Slides and Cover-glasses Preparatory to Making a Microscopic Study of the Blood	356
Collection of Blood	356
Study of Fresh Blood	357
Estimation of Coagulation by the Coagulometer	358
Specific Gravity of the Blood	359
Hemoglobin	360
Spectroscopic Study of the Blood	361
Von Fleischl's Hemoglobinometer	363
Sahli Hemometer	363
Blotting-paper Test for Hemoglobin	364
Counting of the Blood-corpuscles	364
Alkalinity of the Peripheral Blood	370
Lipemia	370
The Freezing-point of Blood	370
Blood Chemistry	371
Serum-diagnosis	374
Allergic Reactions	378
Agglutination Reactions	381
Reaction by Complement Fixation	385
Sero Diagnosis by Abder-Halden's method	393
Matching Blood for Transfusion	393
Study of Fixed and Stained Blood	399
Slides and Cover-glasses	399
Staining	399
Diseases of the Blood	400
Anemia	400
Polycythemia	402
Polycythemia Vera (Vaquez Disease)	403
Secondary Anemia	404
Leukocytes	408
Progressive Pernicious Anemia (Idiopathic Anemia)	411
Leukemia	415
Myeloid Leukemia	416
Lymphatic Leukemia	421
Chlorosis	422
Aplastic Anemia,	425
Pseudoleukemia (Hodgkin's Disease; General Lymphadenoma)	426
Aleukemic Leukemia (Leucopenic Leukemia)	429
Anæmia Infantum	430
Sickle Cell Anemia	431
Splenic Anemia	432
Hemophilia	433
Purpura	435

PAGE
Hemochromatosis ... 438
Purpura in Serum Disease, ... 438
Familial Epistaxis ... 439
Scorbutus (Scurvy) ... 439
Parasitology of the Blood ... 433

DISEASES OF THE DIGESTIVE SYSTEM

DISEASES OF THE LIPS, TONGUE, AND MOUTH

Herpes Labialis ... 444
Labial Eczema ... 444
Cheilitis Glandularis ... 444
Fordyce's Disease ... 444
LaPerleche Parasitic Disease of the Lips ... 445
Epithelial Desquamation of the Tongue (Geographic Tongue) ... 445
Acute Glossitis (Glossitis Acuta) ... 445
Chronic Glossitis ... 446
Tongue-swallowing ... 446
Ulcers of Frenum ... 447
The Black Villous Tongue ... 447
Acute Catarrhal Stomatitis (Stomatitis Erythematosa) ... 447
Herpetic Stomatitis (Follicular, Vesicular, Aphthous Stomatitis) ... 448
Fetid Stomatitis (Ulcerative Stomatitis; Riggs' Disease) ... 449
Ulcerative Stomatitis with Angina(Vincent's Angina) ... 450
Gonorrheal Stomatitis ... 451
Diphtheritic Stomatitis ... 451
Gangrenous Stomatitis (Noma) ... 452
Pyorrhea Alveolaris (Rigg's Disease) ... 453
Ptyalism (Salivation) ... 454
Mineral (Mercurial) Stomatitis (Salivation; Ptyalism) ... 455
Drug Eruption ... 455
Acute Pharyngitis (Pharyngitis Acuta Simplex) ... 455
Chronic Pharyngitis ... 456
Angina Ludovici ... 457
Retropharyngeal Abscess ... 457

THE ESOPHAGUS

Methods of Examination ... 458
X-ray Evidence in Diseases of the Esophagus ... 461
Diseases of the Esophagus ... 462
Esophagitis ... 462
Esophageal Hemorrhage ... 463
Acute Esophagitis ... 465
Chronic Esophagitis ... 466
Ulcer of the Esophagus ... 466
Esophageal Diverticulum (Pharyngocele) ... 466
Stricture of the Esophagus ... 467
Dilatation of the Esophagus ... 470
Spasm of the Esophagus (Esophagismus) ... 470
Carcinoma of the Esophagus ... 471
Sarcoma of the Esophagus ... 471

THE STOMACH AND INTESTINES

Examination of the Abdomen ... 472
Topography ... 472
Data Obtained by Questioning the Patient ... 475
Inspection of the Abdomen ... 477
Examination of the Stomach ... 482
Character of Evidence to Be Obtained by Inquiry ... 482
Leading Features and Their Significance ... 483
Physical Examination of the Stomach ... 494
Gastroscopy ... 502
X-ray Evidence of Diseases of the Gastro-intestinal Tract ... 502
Pathologic Signs ... 505
Gastric Functions ... 507
Gastric Contents ... 507
Microscopic Study of the Gastric Contents ... 521

DISEASES OF THE STOMACH

	Page
Foreign Bodies in the Pharynx, Esophagus, and Stomach	524
Neurosis of the Stomach	525
Neuroses of Secretion	527
Neuroses of Motility	528
Tormina Ventriculi (Peristaltic Unrest)	529
Diminished Peristalsis	529
Atony (Atonic Dyspepsia)	529
Relaxation at the Orifices	530
Pneumatosis	530
Cardiospasm	530
Pylorospasm	531
Nervous Vomiting	531
Neuroses of Sensation	531
Acute Gastritis (Acute Gastric Catarrh)	533
Toxic Gastritis	537
Pseudomembranous Gastritis	538
Acute Suppurative Gastritis (Phlegmonous Gastritis)	539
Chronic Gastritis (Chronic Catarrh of the Stomach ; Chronic Catarrhal Dyspepsia)	539
Gastric Ulcer	541
Hour-glass Stomach	548
Pyloric Stenosis	548
Carcinoma of the Stomach	548
Sarcoma of Stomach	554
Dilatation of the Stomach	554
Gastroptosis	559
Linitis Plastica (Brinton's Disease)	564
Syphilis of the Stomach	564
Congenital Hypertrophic Pyloric Stenosis	564

THE INTESTINES

Methods of Examination	565
The Feces	565
Macroscopic and Microscopic Study of the Feces	568
Diseases of the Intestines	570
Duodenal Ulcer (Post Pyloric Ulcer)	570
Duodenal Obstruction	578
Fixation of the Duodenum	579
Duodenal Dilatation	579
Enteroptosis	580
Dilatation of the Colon (Ectasia of the Colon)	582
Dilatation of Colon with Hypertrophy (Hirschsprung's Disease)	584
Intestinal Obstruction	587
Mucous Colitis	591
Diminished Peristalsis	592
Enterospasm	592
Plumbism (Lead Colic; Chronic Lead-poisoning; Saturnism)	592
Intestinal Sarcoma	597
Habitual Constipation (Costiveness)	597
Amyloid Disease of the Intestine	598
Appendicitis	598
Chronic Appendicitis	605
Recurrent Appendicitis	606
Ileocecal Spasm	606
Cholera Infantum	607
Nervous Diarrhea	608
Enteralgia (Intestinal Neuralgia)	608
Carcinoma of the Intestine	609
Cholera Morbus (Cholera Nostras; Acute Dyspeptic Diarrhea)	611
Epidemic Colic	613

DISEASES OF THE PERITONEUM

Acute General Peritonitis	613
Acute Localized Peritonitis	618
Subphrenic Peritonitis (Subdiaphragmatic Abscess)	619

PAGE
Chronic Diffuse Peritonitis ... 622
Carcinoma of the Peritoneum ... 622
Tuberculosis of the Peritoneum ... 623
Sarcoma of the Retroperitoneal Glands (Löbstein's Cancer) ... 626
Ascites ... 627
Chylous Ascites ... 630
Mesentery Embolism and Thrombosis ... 634
Mesenteric Angina (Angina Abdominalis) ... 635

THE LIVER

Methods of Examination ... 635
Topographic Anatomy of the Normal Liver ... 635
Estimation of Liver Function ... 636
Diseases of the Liver ... 638
Anomalies of Position ... 638
Infectious Jaundice ... 640
Hypertrophic Cirrhosis ... 640
Carcinoma of the Liver ... 645
Hepatic Sarcoma ... 650
Passive Hyperemia ... 650
Acute Hepatic Abscess (Suppurative Hepatitis, Hepatic Pyemia) ... 651
Distention of the Liver and of the Gall-bladder ... 654
Fatty Infiltration and Fatty Degeneration with Hepatic Enlargement ... 656
Fatty Degeneration of the Liver ... 657
Amyloid Disease of the Liver ... 657
Syphilis of the Liver ... 659
Acute Perihepatitis (Acute Syphilitic Perihepatitis) ... 660
Tuberculosis of the Liver ... 661
The Liver in Phosphorus-poisoning ... 661
Acute Non-suppurative Hepatitis ... 663
Diseases in which the Size of the Liver Is Diminished ... 663
Atrophic Cirrhosis ... 663
Wilson's Disease ... 667
Glissonian Cirrhosis ... 667
Multiple Serositis (Adherent Pericarditis with Ascites (Pick's Disease)) ... 668
Acute Yellow Atrophy (Malignant Jaundice) ... 668
Jaundice and the Pathologic Conditions of the Liver, Gall-bladder, and Bile-ducts in which Jaundice Forms a Prominent Symptom ... 670
Jaundice ... 670
Catarrhal Jaundice ... 671
Suppurative Catarrh of the Bile-ducts ... 672
Chronic Catarrh of the Bile-ducts ... 673
Hemolytic Jaundice ... 673
Cholelithiasis (Gall-stones; Biliary Calculi; Calculous Cholecystitis) ... 674
Carcinoma of the Bile-duct ... 679
Obstruction and Stenosis of the Bile-duct ... 679
Diseases of the Portal Vein ... 680
Thrombosis ... 680
Purulent Phlebitis ... 680
Icterus Neonatorum ... 681

THE PANCREAS

Methods of Examination ... 616
Diseases of the Pancreas ... 618
Acute Hemorrhagic Pancreatitis ... 618
Suppurative Pancreatitis ... 620
Gangrenous Pancreatitis ... 621
Chronic Pancreatitis ... 621
Pancreatic Hemorrhage (Apoplexy) ... 622
Pancreatic Carcinoma ... 623
Pancreatic Calculi ... 624
Pancreatic Cyst ... 625

THE SPLEEN

Topography ... 682
Diseases of the Spleen ... 682
Displacement of the Spleen ... 682

PAGE

Enlargement of the Spleen ... 683
Splenitis ... 685
Rupture of the Spleen ... 688
Splenomegaly (Type of So-called Splenic Anemia) ... 689
Gaucher's Disease ... 689
Chloroma ... 690

DISEASES OF THE URINARY SYSTEM

Topography of the Kidneys ... 691
X-ray Evidence in Diseases of the Kidneys, Ureters, and Bladder ... 691
Sweating ... 693
Examination of the Urine ... 696
Chyluria ... 697
Hematuria and Hemoglobinuria ... 697
Leukocyturia ... 698
Pyuria ... 698
Albuminuria ... 699
Specific Gravity ... 704
Reaction of the Urine ... 704
Chlorids ... 704
Phosphates ... 706
Sulphates ... 706
Sulphur ... 707
Urea ... 707
Uric Acid ... 708
Carbohydrates ... 709
Choluria ... 712
Acetone ... 712
Oxaluria ... 713
Leucinuria and Tyrosinuria ... 714
Cystinuria ... 715
Cholesterinuria ... 716
Indicanuria ... 716
Diazo-reaction ... 717
Diseases of the Kidney ... 718
Acute Nephritis (Acute Parenchymatous Nephritis; Acute Glomerulonephritis) ... 718
Acute Interstitial Non-suppurative Nephritis ... 723
Acute Epidemic Nephritis (Trench Disease) ... 723
Chronic Nephritis (Exudative) ... 724
Chronic Interstitial Nephritis ... 731
Chronic Nephritis of Children ... 736
Amyloid Disease ... 737
Pseudo-uremia ... 738
Inanition Edema ... 738
Trophedema (Meigs' Disease—Milroy's Disease) ... 739
Hydronephrosis ... 739
Pyelitis (Pyelonephritis; Pyonephrosis) ... 743
Nephrolithiasis ... 749
Perinephritic Abscess ... 755
Carcinoma of the Kidneys ... 760
Sarcoma of the Kidney ... 760

THE BLADDER

Diseases of the Bladder ... 762
Vegetable Parasites in the Urine ... 762
Bacteriuria ... 762
Acute Cystitis ... 764
Chronic Cystitis ... 766
Neuroses of the Bladder ... 768
Incontinence of Urine ... 770

ACUTE INFECTIOUS DISEASES

Fever ... 773
Acute Tonsillitis ... 776
Chronic Tonsillitis ... 781

PAGE

Tuberculous Enteritis (Tuberculosis of the Intestine; Tuberculous Dysentery; Consumption of the Bowel) ... 781
Phlegmonous Enteritis ... 782
Catarrhal Enteritis ... 783
Dysentery ... 785
Acute Bacillary Dysentery ... 786
Acute Catarrhal Dysentery ... 786
Pseudomembranous Dysentery ... 788
Secondary Pseudomembranous Dysentery ... 790
Paradysentery ... 790
Chronic Dysentery ... 790
Asiatic Cholera ... 792
Sprue (Psilosis) ... 796
Typhoid Fever ... 796
Paratyphoid Fever ... 813
Typhus Fever (Ship Fever; Camp Fever; Jail Fever) ... 814
Malta Fever (Mediterranean Fever; Undulant Fever) ... 818
Trench Fever (Five-day Fever; Febris Wolhynica) ... 820
Relapsing Fever (Febris Recurrens) ... 820
Yellow Fever ... 824
Lobar Pneumonia (Croupous or Fibrinous Pneumonia; Pneumonitis; Lung Fever, ... 827
Melioidosis ... 842
The Plague (Bubonic Plague; Black Death) ... 843
Epidemic Dropsy ... 845
Influenza (La Grippe; Epidemic Catarrhal Fever) ... 845
Epidemic Diaphragmatic Pleurodynia (Devils' Grip) ... 850
Tuberculosis ... 851
Chronic Tuberculosis ... 854
Acute Tuberculosis ... 856
Miliary Tuberculosis (Acute General Tuberculosis; Acute Disseminated Tuberculosis) ... 857
General Miliary Tuberculosis (Typhoid Form) ... 857
Acute Tuberculous Meningitis ... 858
Acute Miliary Pulmonary Tuberculosis ... 858
Acute Pulmonary Tuberculosis (Acute Pneumonic Phthisis) ... 859
Chronic Pulmonary Tuberculosis (Chronic Pulmonary Phthisis) ... 860
Incipient Phthisis ... 861
Advanced Tuberculosis ... 866
Fibroid Phthisis ... 876
Tuberculosis of Skin and Bone ... 876
Tuberculosis of the Serous Membranes ... 877
Tuberculous Meningitis ... 877
Tuberculous Pleurisy ... 877
Tuberculous Peritonitis ... 877
Tuberculous Endocarditis and Pericarditis ... 877
Tuberculosis of the Liver ... 877
Renal Tuberculosis ... 877
Tuberculosis of the Bladder, Prostate, and Ureters ... 878
Tuberculous Orchitis ... 878
Tuberculosis of the Ovaries and Fallopian Tubes ... 878
Tuberculous Arthritis ... 878
Tuberculosis of the Mesenteric Glands ... 878
Tuberculosis of the Tracheobronchial Lymph-nodes ... 878
Tuberculous Cervical Adenitis ... 879
Syphilis ... 881
Acquired Syphilis ... 884
Hereditary Syphilis ... 888
Visceral Syphilis ... 890
Syphilis of the Liver ... 890
Pulmonary Syphilis (Syphilis of Lung) ... 891
Syphilis of the Rectum ... 892
Syphilis of the Testicles ... 892
Syphilis of the Kidney ... 892
Syphilis of the Heart ... 892
Syphilis of the Arteries ... 893
Leprosy ... 893
Cerebrospinal Meningitis (Spotted Fever; Cerebrospinal Fever) ... 896
Acute Anterior Poliomyelitis (Infantile Spinal Palsy) ... 903

PAGE
Acute Epidemic Encephalitis (Encephalitis Lethargica) 908
Post-Encephalitic syndrome and phenomena 909
Scarlet Fever (Scarlatina) 912
Clinical Varieties 914
Diphtheria (Angina Maligna; Diphtheritis) 925
Tonsillar Diphtheria (Mild Diphtheria) 929
Pharyngeal Diphtheria (Adenoid Diphtheria) 929
Nasal Diphtheria 930
Laryngeal Diphtheria (Tracheal Diphtheria) 930
Wound Diphtheria 931
Measles 934
Rubella (Rötheln; German Measles) 940
Mumps (Epidemic Parotitis) 943
Whooping-cough (Pertussis) 945
Dengue (Break-bone Fever) 947
Erysipelas (St. Anthony's Fire) 950
Variola (Smallpox) 954
Alastrim 962
Vaccinia (Cowpox) 962
Varicella (Chicken-pox) 963
Hydrophobia (Rabies) 964
Tetanus (Trismus; Lock-jaw) 965
Glanders (Farcy) 969
Anthrax (Malignant Pustule; Splenic Fever; Wool-sorters' Disease, etc.) 970
Septicemia 972
Pyemia 973
Actinomycosis (Big-jaw; Lump jaw) 975
Pulmonary Actinomycosis 976
Pulmonary Blastomycosis 978
Streptothricosis 979
Thrush (Mycotic Stomatitis; Fungous Stomatitis) 980
Aspergillosis of the Lungs 982
Mycetoma 983
Granuloma Inguinale 985
Focal Infection 985
Acute Articular Rheumatism (Focal Infection) 988
Gonorrheal Arthritis 993
Probable Infectious Diseases 995
Muscular Rheumatism (Myalgia) 995
Chronic Articular Rheumatism 997
Wood-tick Bite Paralysis 998
Mountain Fever (Mountain Sickness) 999
Rocky Mountain Fever 999
Swine Fever 1000
Rat-bite Fever 1001
Tularemia (Deer-fly Fever) 1001
Milk-sickness (Trembles) 1003
Miliary Fever (Sweating Disease) 1003
Foot-and-mouth Disease (Epidemic Stomatitis; Aphthous Fever) 1004
Glandular Fever 1005
Infectious Jaundice (Acute Febrile Jaundice; Fiedler's Disease; Weil's Disease; Epidemic Catarrhal Jaundice; Spirochetosis Icterohemorrhagica) . 1005
Autumnal Catarrh (Hay-fever, Hay Asthma; Sensitization Disease) 1006
Test for Hay-fever 1007
Hemorrhagic Diseases of the New-born 1009
Epidemic Hemoglobinuria (Winckel's Disease) 1009
Acute Fatty Degeneration of the New-born (Buhl's Disease) 1010
Morbus Maculosus Neonatorum 1010
Histoplasmosis 1010
Sunstroke 1011

ANIMAL PARASITIC DISEASES

Protozoan Disease 1013
Malaria 1013
Intermittent Fever 1015
Estivo-autumnal (Malarial) Fever 1017
Malarial Cachexia 1021

PAGE
Recurrent Malaria ... 1021
Hemoglobinuria and Hematuria ... 1023
Latent Malaria ... 1023
Trypanosomiasis (Kala-azar) ... 1024
Nematodes ... 1026
Filariasis ... 1026
Schistosomum Hæmatobium (Bilharzia Hæmatobia; Blood-fluke) ... 1029
Intestinal Animal Parasites and Their Ova ... 1031
Amebic Dysentery ... 1031
Flagellata ... 1034
Balantidium Coli ... 1034
Craigiasis ... 1034
Waskia Intestinalis ... 1035
Cestodes ... 1035
Tape-worms ... 1035
Tænia Saginata (Beef Tape-worm) ... 1035
Tænia Solium (Pork Tape-worm) ... 1036
Dibothriocephalus Latus (Fish Worm) ... 1037
Hymenolepis Nana ... 1037
Hymenolepis Diminuta ... 1038
Tænia Marginata ... 1038
Dipylidium Caninum ... 1038
Tænia Madagascariensis ... 1039
Tænia Echinococcus ... 1039
Trematodes or Flukes ... 1042
Intestinal Nematodes ... 1042
Round-worms ... 1042
Ankylostomiasis (Uncinariasis; Hook-worm Disease) ... 1045
Trichuris Trichiuria ... 1047
Strongyloides Intestinalis ... 1048
Animal Parasites of the Liver ... 1048
Echinococcic Disease ... 1048
Liver Flukes ... 1050
Nematodes (Round-worms) ... 1050
Amebic Abscess of the Liver ... 1050
Animal Parasites of the Muscle ... 1051
Trichiniasis ... 1051
Parasites of the Bladder and Kidney ... 1054
Parasitic Diseases of the Lungs ... 1054
Echinococcus Disease ... 1054
Amebic Abscess ... 1056
Paragonimiasis (Endemic Hemoptysis) ... 1056
Cutaneous Parasites ... 1057
Dracunculus Medinensis (Guinea-worm) ... 1057
Larva Migrans ... 1058
Psorospermiasis ... 1059
Parasites of the Eye ... 1059
Cysticercus ... 1059
Filaria ... 1060
Myiasis ... 1060
Parasitic Disease of the Brain ... 1060

CONSTITUTIONAL DISEASES

Diabetes Mellitus ... 1061
Rachitis (Rickets) ... 1072
Myeloma (Bence-Jones Albumosuria) ... 1075
Gout ... 1077

ENDOCRINE DISORDERS

Basal Metabolism in Disease ... 1080
Routine Preparation of Patients for Obtaining a Basal Condition ... 1082
Introduction ... 1083
The Thyroid ... 1088
Myxedema ... 1088
Cretinism ... 1090

PAGE
Goiter (Graves' Disease; Basedow's Disease; Hyperthyroidism) 1093
Simple Goiter 1099
Scleroderma 1100
The Thymus Gland 1100
Thymus Hyperplasia 1101
Status Thymicolymphaticus 1103
Status Thymicus 1104
Parathyroid Glands 1107
Tetany 1110
Pineal Gland 1113
Obesity (Polysarcia Adiposa; Lipomatosis Universalis) 1114
Adiposis Tuberosa Simplex (Anders Disease) 1116
Localized Adiposity 1116
Pituitary 1117
Gigantism 1124
Acromegaly 1124
Ateliosis (Lorain's Disease) 1132
Hypophyseal Asthenia (Fliess's Disease) 1134
The Pituitary during Pregnancy 1134
Endocrine Adiposity 1136
Fröhlich's Syndrome 1136
Diabetes Insipidus 1139
Pancreas 1141
Acute Hemorrhagic Pancreatitis 1146
Suppurative Pancreatitis 1148
Gangrenous Pancreatitis 1148
Chronic Pancreatitis 1148
Pancreatic Hemorrhage (Apoplexy) 1149
Pancreatic Carcinoma 1150
Pancreatic Calculi 1152
Pancreatic Cyst 1152
Suprarenal Capsules 1153
Addison's Disease 1155
Tonsils 1157
The Gonads 1158
Testes 1158
The Ovary 1162
Lipodystrophia Progressiva Superior 1163
Parotids 1165

DISEASES OF THE NERVOUS SYSTEM

By T. H. Weisenburg, M.D.

General Considerations 1166
The Upper and Lower Motor Neurons or Systems 1168
Reflexes 1169
The Pupil in Diagnosis 1172
Sensory System 1176
The Transmission of Sensation to the Cerebral Cortex after Its Entry into the Spinal Cord 1179
Cerebral Localization 1184
The Cranial Nerves and Their Diseases 1193
The Olfactory Nerve 1193
The Optic Nerve 1193
The Oculomotor Nerve 1195
The Trochlear Nerve 1196
The Abducens Nerve 1196
The Trigeminus Nerve 1196
The Facial Nerve 1198
The Auditory Nerve 1199
The Glossopharyngeal, The Pneumogastric, and the Spinal Accessory Nerves 1199
The Hypoglossus Nerve 1200
Diseases of the Brain 1200
Epilepsy 1203
Partial or Total Paralysis 1207
Hemiplegia 1208
Apoplexy 1209

PAGE
Diplegia ... 1213
Brain Tumors ... 1217
Abscess in the Brain ... 1234
Injuries to the Brain ... 1234
Chronic Bulbar Palsy (Glosso-labio-laryngeal Paralysis) ... 1239
Diseases of the Spinal Cord ... 1242
Acute Ascending Paralysis (Landry's Paralysis) ... 1248
Chronic Poliomyelitis (Subacute Anterior Poliomyelitis); Progressive Muscular Atrophy (Progressive Spinal Muscular Atrophy) ... 1250
Amyotrophic Lateral Sclerosis ... 1252
Lateral Sclerosis (Primary) ... 1253
Epiloia ... 1255
Syringomyelia ... 1255
Posterolateral Sclerosis ... 1257
Friedreich's Ataxia ... 1259
Tabes Dorsalis (Locomotor Ataxia) ... 1261
Myelitis ... 1270
Tumors of the Spinal Cord ... 1274
Puncture of the Cisterna Magna ... 1277
Diseases of the Vertebra ... 1279
Injuries of the Spinal Cord ... 1280
Unilateral Spinal Cord Lesions, or Brown-Séquard Paralysis ... 1281
Spina Bifida ... 1282
Disseminated or Multiple Sclerosis ... 1282
Syphilis of the Nervous System ... 1284
Diseases of the Meninges ... 1288
Cerebral Pachymeningitis ... 1288
Spinal Pachymeningitis ... 1289
Hypertrophic Cervical Pachymeningitis ... 1289
Inflammation of the Pia-arachnoid ... 1290
Purulent Meningitis ... 1290
Tuberculous Meningitis ... 1291
Serous Meningitis (Meningism) ... 1293
Muscular Dystrophy ... 1296
Peroneal or Distal Muscular Atrophy (Charcot-Marie-Tooth-Hoffman-Sachs Type) ... 1299
Diseases of the Peripheral Nerves ... 1300
Diseases or Injuries of the Spinal Nerves ... 1303
Brachial Neuritis ... 1305
Brachial Palsy ... 1305
Diseases of the Lumbar and Sacral Plexuses ... 1309
Tumors of the Nerves ... 1310
Multiple Neuritis ... 1310
Alcoholic Multiple Neuritis ... 1311
Pseudo-tabes or Ataxic Multiple Neuritis ... 1312
Lead Multiple Neuritis ... 1313
Arsenical Neuritis ... 1313
Polyneuritis Due to Other Metallic Poisons ... 1313
Diphtheritic Paralysis ... 1314
Beriberi or Kakké Neuritis ... 1314
Multiple Neuritis Due to Other Causes ... 1315
Neuralgia ... 1315
Vasomotor and Trophic Diseases ... 1318
Vasomotor Diseases ... 1318
Angioneurotic Diseases ... 1320
Food Allergy ... 1320
Trophic Diseases ... 1321
Progressive Facial Hemiatrophy ... 1322
Arthritis Deformans (Rheumatoid Arthritis) ... 1322
Osteomalacia ... 1325
Osteitis Deformans (Paget's Disease) ... 1326
Tetanus (Lockjaw; Trismus) ... 1328
Tetany ... 1328
Spasms, Tics, and Motor Neuroses ... 1329
Acute Infectious Myoclonus Multiplex (Epidemic Myoclonus Multiplex) ... 1333
Myoidema (A Sign) ... 1334
Chorea (St. Vitus' Dance; Chorea Minor; Sydenham's Chorea) ... 1334
Huntington's Chorea ... 1336

PAGE
Paralysis Agitans (Parkinson's Disease) 1336
Senile Tremor 1339
Myotonia Congenita (Thomsen's Disease) 1339
Amyotonia Congenita (Oppenheim's Disease) 1339
Neurasthenia 1340
Hysteria 1343
Traumatic Neuroses 1354
General Paresis 1355
Migraine (Sick Headache; Hemicrania) 1358
Botulism 1359
Pellagra 1362
Acrodynia 1364
Serum Sickness 1365
Radiation Sickness 1365

INDEX 1367

INTRODUCTION

GENERAL AND SPECIAL CONSIDERATIONS

Diagnosis is the discrimination of diseases by their distinctive symptoms. In its legitimate scope, however, diagnosis appeals most strongly to pathology for an elucidation of morbid processes, and to general pathology—morbid physiology—for an interpretation of the symptoms or abnormality of function resulting from structural changes. Moreover, it takes account of normal anatomy, physiology, chemistry, and physics. With these varied aids, it attempts to decide the seat and nature of disease, as well as additional themes of inquiry, by establishing the connection between cause and effect—between special pathologic processes and their symptomatic manifestations. Diagnosis, therefore, inquires into many branches of medical science, and a divisional study of so complicated a subject is demanded to achieve satisfactory results.

In endeavoring to trace the clinical features of a given disease to their source, use is made of the physical signs and modern laboratory methods of investigating disease, as well as of all data relating to the anamnesis. The marks of disease are often decidedly obscure, and for their detection the diagnostician must call into requisition the various instruments of precision contributed by science, *e. g.*, the microscope, stethoscope, electrocardiograph, hemomanometer, and many others, as well as the helps furnished from the laboratory expert. A broad conception of the subject of diagnosis recognizes both clinical and laboratory methods and regards them as being equally important in the investigation of disease. While, in a given case, it may appear that the older clinical methods alone suffice for a correct diagnosis, the practical aid furnished from the laboratory renders the natural history and the clinical distinctions of the complaint in question more intelligible. Not only are knowledge and experience with chemical and biologic methods essential to the armamentarium of the broadly trained clinician, but he often finds the data available through such methods the only means of enabling him to reach an accurate conclusion, and in general they serve admirably as either aids or checks. The equipment of the present-day diagnostician, therefore, comprises trained powers of observation and abundant clinical experience,—the corner-stone upon which diagnosis formerly rested,—coupled with the necessary acquaintance with the chemical and biologic methods to enable him to interpret their results. Any attempt, however, to replace a thorough anamnesis and careful, systematic physical examination by the laboratory findings, of whatever nature, is to be strenuously deprecated.

The principal symptoms of most diseases may be allied to numerous other morbid entities, so that the correct assigning of significance to individual features presupposes a knowledge of the varied pathologic states from which they proceed. Single symptoms must, therefore, be weighed in the light of the attending phenomena and their causes, either textural or functional. The department of medicine consisting in a study

and description of the pathologic changes in disease cannot obviously be considered in this work, except brief reference to the same under the head of definition, for want of space, but it is the solid groundwork by which diagnosis is supported. With the thorough and vigorous methods to be carried forward at the bedside, therefore, studies in morbid anatomy in the deadhouse are to be constantly associated. The clinician who is at one and the same time a morbid anatomist is preëminently well equipped to clear up many obscure problems in clinical diagnosis.

A complete diagnosis also embraces the stage and variety of the disease in question and an explanation of the habits, occupation, age, and temperament of the individual. In other words, diagnosis in a broad sense discerns the status reached by the pathologic changes of the affection which has been recognized, and the complicating conditions which may be present. In this manner alone can individualization of special cases, which is the prime object of bedside diagnosis, be accomplished.

The physician is also called upon to make multiple diagnoses, in which instances it is often with exceeding difficulty that the primary and secondary affections are determined. Fortunately, the list of diseases of uncertain origin is steadily becoming smaller, thanks to the rapid advances of bacteriology, and multiple infecting microbes can be justly incriminated with causing the development of a primary and secondary affection in one and the same case. It is to be recollected that the most striking local and general features in such hybrids may be occasioned by some besetting complication, the underlying primary condition being either in great part or wholly veiled by the symptomatic disturbances set up by the secondary invaders.

To determine the primary disease in cases of mixed infection, it is helpful to recollect the fact that the process of secondary infection is often due to the streptococcus, while less commonly the streptococcus and the colon bacillus manifest their deleterious action under conditions of diminished resistance brought about by the original complaint.

Moreover, the testimony gained by a clear history, together with the data furnished by the laboratory, may suffice to put the clinician upon the right path. A critical analysis of the symptoms from the beginning, more especially if considered with reference to their histologic causes, may show two distinct pathologic conditions present, and indicate their development chronologically. In this connection it is to be observed that we are often called upon to deal with conditions presenting different pathologic forms rather than distinct pathologic entities. Facility to recognize special morbid processes, whether single or multiple, is acquired only through long, patient, conscientious study at the bedside, and the degree of success attained by the physician as a diagnostician is directly in proportion to the perfection of the technic employed, the extent of his knowledge of the scientific branches of medicine, and the proper utilization of the experience derived from previous investigations of similar diseases.

The collection of a sufficiency of data must be followed by a careful sifting of the clinically important features from the ensemble of data. Not uncommonly the experienced diagnostician evolves the diagnosis while carrying forward the details of his examination, but the deductions reached in this manner need confirmation. It is safer, and it is here recommended, to defer the final conclusions until he has the completed fund of data for inductive purposes, except in those rare diseases in which a certain diagnosis rests principally upon a pathognomonic feature. There are a number of infective diseases that usually do not recur during the life of the individual, *e. g.*, typhoid fever, measles, whooping-cough, scarlatina,

and variola. We should be guarded, therefore, in the matter of arriving at the diagnosis of second attacks of these diseases when the evidence of the occurrence of a primary attack in the past is convincing.

Hasty generalizations from partial or defective investigations of disease too commonly lead the observer to hold untenable ground in the field of diagnosis, and as certainly lead him to adopt disappointing lines of treatment. The scientific study of disease from the standpoint of diagnosis can never reach the high plane which its dignity and importance demand without receiving the continued impetus resulting from the combined application of all the known laboratory and clinical methods at our disposal.

There is demanded a close examination of the particular points—a process of thought in which the value of each symptom, sign, or laboratory finding, as the case may be, must be estimated deliberately and weighed against other features. A judicious balancing of the important diagnostics is then required preparatory to final induction by correct reasoning. After the examiner has gained a certain amount of experience in the taking of an anamnesis he can, during the process of eliciting the facts pertaining thereto, discriminate the more essential phenomena and disregard those that are of least significance, in order that the details shall not become too massive for ready inference. On the other hand, the beginner should note all data, however insignificant, lest important clues to more or less obscure conditions present be overlooked. In not a few cases the most experienced clinician, after forming a provisional judgment from the anamnesis, is forced to abandon it for another after he has noted the pathologic physical signs and obtained all the available laboratory findings.

The physician is thus competent to recognize a disease—to evolve a diagnosis—but not with certainty until, with the aid of morbid physiology, he has correlated the symptoms with the bacteriologic and pathologic causes to which they owe their origin. A diagnosis formulated and founded in the manner indicated above becomes the sure foundation of rational prognosis and effective therapeutics.

It should be an invariable rule when the diagnosis is made to still consider the possibility of the existence of a combined condition or affection, so common are complications and associated diseases. Indeed, in many cases it is impossible for the physician to form a diagnostic judgment without making a study of the distinctions between a suspected or recognized disease and others that present points of striking similarity. Under these circumstances the pathognomonic diagnostics are golden, and should be searched for diligently. This phase of our subject, known as differential diagnosis, often occasions difficulty, and it is discussed at considerable length throughout the pages of this work in connection with individual affections.

There are a few methods of investigating disease which should be considered connectedly in this place; they are the Röntgen, cultural, serum and chemical methods, and the opsonic index. Here mention of electrocardiography and vital capacity of the lungs should also be made. These subjects, however, are fully discussed in appropriate sections of this work.

The Röntgen method has become almost universally applicable, and in many cases will give the most accurate information that is obtainable in the living subject. It should, however, be looked upon simply as one of the means of diagnosis, and all other methods should first be utilized, as a rule, after which it can be used to the greatest advantage in clearing up obscure points in the diagnosis.

The greatest field of usefulness of the *x*-rays in medical diagnosis is in studies of diseases of the chest and abdomen, although the method is by no means to be confined to these regions. In practically all diseases of the lungs some new light is afforded. For example, the presence of a tuberculous lesion is not only thus detected, but also its clinical activity determined at times. Again by means of pleural annular shadows, localized pneumothoraces, which are rarely diagnosticated clinically, can be recognized. (Sampson, Heise and Brown.) By an *x*-ray study of the heart and blood-vessels, the size, shape, and movements of these organs can be observed. Roentgenographic study of the teeth is now an almost indispensable procedure.

In diseases of the abdominal organs the size, form, position, motility, and mobility of the stomach can be determined, as well as the effects upon this organ of the movements of the diaphragm and the contractions of the abdominal wall; the time required for the food to pass through the small intestine can be recorded; the size, form, and position of the colon can be observed; and any form of obstruction along the alimentary canal can be studied and much information as to its character be obtained.

Renal, ureteral, and vesical calculi can be definitely located, and under favorable circumstances biliary calculi can be also photographed.

In all diseases caused by specific organisms the isolation of the special microbe and the determination of its biologic properties is the most certain and rigidly scientific method of arriving at a diagnosis. Unfortunately, in many infective complaints the cultural method is too difficult for ordinary clinical purposes. In a considerable number of diseases an accurate diagnosis is established by the mere demonstration of the presence of the organism, *e. g.*, malaria, pulmonary tuberculosis, amebic dysentery, relapsing fever, leprosy, diphtheria, Vincent's angina, gonorrhea, and the like. In other microbic affections the specific organism must also be isolated in pure culture, as typhoid fever, the paratyphoid fevers, pneumonia, tetanus, the plague, influenza, cholera, and many others. In some cases it is further necessary to prove the pathogenicity of the organism isolated by resorting to animal inoculations, although the necessity for this step has been in great part removed by the more recent introduction of serum methods. It is sometimes more convenient to inoculate an animal with a pathologic exudate or an excretion from the body of the sick (*e. g.*, pleural effusion) than to employ an isolated organism in the same manner. The feeding of an exudate, of tuberculous origin, to animals is also of service.

Serum diagnosis (like serum therapy) rests upon a knowledge of the bactericidal substances (antibodies) developed in the blood in the presence of a bacterial excitant. The antibodies are of two kinds: namely, those that defend the human organisms against the toxins of bacteria, *antitoxins;* and those that defend it against the bacteria themselves, *agglutinins* and *lysins*. The first application of the specific serum reaction to diagnosis was in typhoid fever, and in this disease the agglutinating property of the serum develops sufficiently early to be of great diagnostic value. A similar reaction is also of the highest importance in the recognition of so-called paratyphoid fevers. In the case of other bacterial diseases—*e. g.*, dysentery, tuberculosis, the plague, lobar pneumonia, glanders, Asiatic cholera—in which the serum method has been employed, it has not attained to an assured place as a diagnostic measure, either because the reaction is not sufficiently constant or reliable, or because it appears too late to be of diagnostic significance. It must be recollected that sero-reactions are not equivalent to the direct demonstration of the specific

bacteria. On the other hand, on account of their ready application, the serum methods possess a distinct advantage over the cultural methods. But, though the diagnosis will usually have been made in these affections before a positive reaction is obtainable, the serum test, like the Röntgen rays, should be employed, even as late as the period of convalescence, to clear up dubious cases. Thus, it may serve to distinguish between typhoid fever or paratyphoid fevers and other febrile affections. The serum test suggested by Wassermann, and its modification by Hideyo Noguchi, for syphilis, deserve special mention in this connection.

The principle of the complement-fixing reaction has been adapted to the diagnosis of diseases other than syphilis, notably tuberculosis. In the latter disease, it is of sufficient value to be included in the routine examination.*

Undoubtedly, the application of the chemical methods of investigation to the determination of diagnostic indications, particularly in diseases of the kidneys, stomach, and pancreas, has been decidedly helpful. The uses of this method, in relation to diseases of special organs, will be considered hereafter in appropriate connections in this work. Our modern knowledge of diseases of metabolism rests upon the results of the earlier chemical studies of the organic functions, and in this field of chemical investigation recent deductions have taught us practical lessons of far-reaching importance. Among these are to be noted the well-established fact that an increase of urinary uric acid is not due to increased excretion of that substance, but rather to urinary conditions antagonistic to the solution of uric acid and its compounds; also that gout results from a disturbance in the metabolism of the purin bodies.

As regards carbohydrate metabolism, it may be said that chemical methods have assumed marked diagnostic importance in furnishing us the means of detecting sugar in the urine, and also those for distinguishing between sugar and other reducing bodies, as glycuronic acid, the alkapton bodies, and pentoses. Chemical methods have enabled us to appreciate the conditions resulting from a perversion of fatty metabolism. Thus, in some diseases—*e. g.*, diabetes mellitus, the acute infections, and others—certain products of the katabolism of fat, as acetone, oxybutyric acid, and diacetic acid, are present in the urine. These substances may be met with in abnormal quantities due to increased destruction of fat, and may give indications of approaching complications of a serious character, which if recognized can often be obviated by appropriate therapy. It is a matter of keen regret, however, that the facilities for the application of reliable chemical studies to the investigation of disease are not so readily available for the benefit of the general practitioner as are bacteriologic methods.

Formerly, the nervous system alone was regarded as "the essential mechanism whereby the functions of the different bodily units were harmonized" (Krehl.) More recently, it has been shown that the various other organs of the body, notably the ductless glands, mutually influence one another in a chemical way by means of their hormones. In certain endocrine affections, *e. g.* hyperthyroidism, the determination of the metabolic rate is of signal diagnostic aid. The extensive sphere of the chemical relations of the glands of internal secretion to metabolism, however, receives special consideration elsewhere in this volume.

The subject of blood chemistry in relation to diagnosis has assumed considerable importance in the recent past. The proportion of nitrogenous content, uric acid, sugar and creatinin in the circulating blood is of value

* The Schick test (diphtheria) and the Dick (scarlet fever) reactions are of service.

not only in diagnosis but also prognosis. In certain sera there are bodies which alter chemical substances, intimately related to the enzymes, without however, becoming actually destroyed. It is on account of this inhibition of the chemical action of foreign substances that unicellular organisms are destructible by the blood-serums. The chemistry of the cerebrospinal fluid is also quite important and will receive discussion in connection with the consideration of various individual diseases throughout this work. The reader will find a complete discussion of the subject in this volume.

The rôle which the opsonic theory plays in medical diagnosis deserves brief notice in this connection. It has been known that the opsonins in the serum of healthy persons or those infected with microörganisms stimulate phagocytosis by making the bacteria more readily susceptible to inclusion in leukocytes, and the relative degree of phagocytosis bears a definite relation to the quantity of these substances present. Those cases of infective disease which on repeated examination show a lowered opsonic index to any organism—as the tubercle bacilli—are supposed to be infected with that organism. In case two or more organisms are present, that toward which the opsonic index is lowest is probably the most important in causing the disease.

The opsonic index is further of practical aid in that it affords a clear idea of the patient's resisting powers and of the degree of his susceptibility to secondary infection; it thus likewise becomes of signal prognostic significance. For example, a staphylococcic infection showing a long-continued first, or negative phase gives little promise of being curable. Further improvement in the technic of determining quantitatively the opsonic power is greatly needed, with a view to diminishing the range of error, which up to the present has been rather extreme. The employment of the opsonic method by physicians skilled in laboratory methods, however, may be regarded as a certain advance in diagnosis, although it is of more value as a guide to therapy by vaccination methods. Among special biologic methods, blood culture is one of the most valuable. The bacteriologist can isolate specific organisms from the blood and thereby promptly establish an indubitable diagnosis; the method has been successfully applied to the differentiation of typhoid fever from the recognized forms of paratyphoid fever when the more usual distinctions fail. In general pneumonic infection and the various septicemic conditions, the results of blood culture may be the only available data by means of which the true nature of the condition can be established.

The most illuminating teaching of internal medicine is that which succeeds in demonstrating facts relating to the causes, symptoms, and physical signs, by laboratory study. The selective localization of bacteria as seen in focal infection of the teeth, tonsils and sinuses in septic acute and chronic arthritis, endocarditis and in exophthalmic goitre has been established by laboratory methods of investigation. This experimental method has also been applied for the verification of the physical signs of pleurisy (Opie), in the case of cardiac murmurs (McCallum and Thayer), and the accurate measurement of the blood-pressure in diseases or conditions artificially produced, *e. g.*, the exalted tension from the use of adrenalin, experimentally. There is need of more experimental laboratory work as applied to the analytic study of symptoms, with a view to supporting or refuting the conclusions based on clinical observation. The practical phases of the vitally important subject of pathologic hypertension are fully discussed in a special chapter of this work (*vide* p. 214).

One of the principal objects of this work is to furnish a reliable guide to treatment in the widest sense. To this end a proper classification of the subjects treated is of the utmost importance from the viewpoint of both diagnosis and treatment. It is diagnostically useful to know that a certain disease belongs to a group of diseases presenting marked similarity in the main pathologic changes on which the symptoms depend. Such knowledge often points the way for the conduct of a judicial consideration of the differential diagnosis of the given case. In the same line of thought, a recognized member of the infectious class of diseases, more especially if atypical, calls for the closest scrutiny with reference to other affections belonging to the same category, as a rule. For example, if we were to regard typhoid fever as an intestinal disease, the general infections most likely to be confused with it, and needing to be considered in connection with the differential diagnosis, would be in danger of escaping our attention.

A classification based upon the nature of the pathologic process involved also enlightens us respecting the line of treatment to be pursued, *e.g.*, in any existing toxemia certain leading indications demand fulfilment, but if perchance an infective disease should be classed with a group of local complaints, these indications might not receive due attention. In general terms, then, the principle holds that an appropriate classification on a pathologic basis is to be adopted for both diagnostic and therapeutic reasons.

INVESTIGATION OF INDIVIDUAL CASES

Coming now to the question of the investigation of individual cases with a view to the recognition of human diseases in their multitudinous forms, two things are essential: (*a*) Close observation and scrutiny of the symptoms and signs and the utilization of he laboratory resources, according to the most approved method of conducting an examination; and (*b*) the harmonizing inductively of the essential features and data with a mental picture of definite morbid states or entities.

(*a*) Nothing is more important for the student or practitioner than the adoption and rigorous enforcement of a method or system in taking up the study and examination of special cases. This mode of procedure insures the accumulation of the largest possible mass of clinical data and minimizes the necessity for making a diagnosis by mere inference—always an uncertain product. The clinician who, during the earlier years of his professional career, unswervingly adheres to a proper system of investigating cases will meet with a progressively smaller number in which questions regarding diagnosis must remain *sub judice*. The well-poised, calm, logical practitioner, skilled by a long process of self-imposed training, and armed with sharpened perceptivity and an extensive experience, may often infer a correct diagnosis from a limited number of essential facts, but this is a license which few have a right to enjoy. For every induction is apt to be faulty that does not proceed from full information gained by a thorough and systematic objective investigation, coupled with the result of accurate clinical observation.

While it is impossible for any busy practitioner to keep abreast with the kaleidoscopic details of chemical and biologic technic, he should, with a view to becoming a trained clinical investigator, supplement bedside observation by familiarizing himself with the use of the microscope and other instruments of precision, as well as utilizing the advantages offered by even a small private laboratory. The clinician who is a trained micro-

scopist and avails himself of the practical advantages of the bacteriologic laboratory can often make an etiologic diagnosis which no amount of clinical testimony can shake. At all events, every progressive physician must acquaint himself with the fundamental basis on which laboratory methods rest, since a ready interpretation of the results reported from public laboratories is a dominating necessity.

The method of noting down all data gained in the study of a given case is conducive to precision of results and amplitude of view. The important matter of comparing one case with another is also thus facilitated. As regards the best method of conducting an examination, it may be stated that the details of the procedure should be arranged under various heads.

It is one of the objects of this work to teach the method of conducting an examination of patients, and to that end we submit the subjoined scheme, believing that if its structural details are rigidly and systematically pursued, the results will be in a form that shall be of the greatest practical value to the examiner. The object of the plan is not merely to enable the student and physician to render a diagnosis with precision, or to quicken his intellectual acumen, but to afford them an essentially practical knowledge whereby the indications—more especially those that spring from causative conditions and agencies—for the amelioration and cure of the complaints which are recognized may be comprehended. The highest aim of diagnosis must be to furnish a key to the successful treatment of each case or disease studied. The early recognition of a disease is highly desirable, in order that the physician may be thereby enabled to forecast its probable course and issue. Besides, the physician is under obligation to act solely in the interests of his patient.

Under an appropriate schedule the examiner is sure to discover facts which will necessitate remedial action, and this information must be carefully noted and subsequently utilized. In obscure cases reëxaminations are to be encouraged and advised, such secondary exploitations often resulting in a revision of opinion. Moreover, important light is often shed upon the diagnosis and treatment by the subsequent history and course of special cases.

In taking the anamnesis it has been found impracticable to follow a definite line of procedure in all cases. Among the most intelligent classes the patient may be allowed to tell the story of his illness, being merely guided by the examiner, but in most instances it is best to obtain the major portion of the historic data by appropriate questions. It is generally conceded, however, that leading questions are to be rigorously avoided, since it is an easy matter to modify the answer by the way in which the query is propounded. This form of questioning also invites exaggerated replies, especially in the case of such familiar symptoms as pain, cough, insomnia, and the like. We must also guard against erroneous answers, either wilfully (for the purpose of deception) or unintentionally made; although if we except markedly hysterical females and an occasional malingerer among males, feigned diseases are rarely encountered in routine practice. More commonly, perhaps, the possible exciting cause, as well as the condition itself, is intentionally kept *sub rosa* by females from motives of delicacy, *e. g.*, when suffering from carcinoma of the mammary glands, hemorrhoids, and uterine disorders.

But though case-taking at the bedside in pr vate practice among patients who are extremely weak or ill is not practicable in perhaps the majority of the cases, the examiner should pursue the same general order of procedure in his interrogatories, simply omitting certain details so as

to lessen the number of replies. The physical examination may have to be briefer than seems desirable, for similar reasons.

SCHEME FOR HISTORY-TAKING, PHYSICAL EXAMINATION, AND LABORATORY FINDINGS

Name: *Address:* *Date:*

Family History. Previous History. Social History. Present Illness.

Physical Examination

General Examination:

1. Posture:
2. Age—Actual: Apparent:
3. Weight: Height:
4. Skin and Mucous Membrane:
5. Edema:
6. Adiposity or Emaciation:
7. Glands:
8. Muscles:
9. Bones and Joints:
10. Psychic State:

Local Examination:

1. Head:
2. Eyes:
3. Mouth and Pharynx:
4. Nose:
5. Ears:
6. Larynx:
7. Neck:
8. Thorax:
   - Lungs:
     - Inspection: Palpation: Percussion: Auscultation:
   - Heart:
     - Inspection: Palpation: Percussion: Auscultation:
   - Pulse:
   - Blood-pressure:
9. Abdomen:
   - Liver and Gall-bladder: Spleen: Stomach: Intestines:
   - Kidneys and Bladder: Genital Apparatus:
10. Laboratory Findings:
11. *X*-ray Findings:

For purposes of clinical teaching it is useful to record the principal complaint of, and symptoms presented by, the patient, and to note the obvious physical signs on admission to the hospital, and from these phenomena to make a provisional diagnosis. This method often enables the student to appreciate more fully the data collated by the systematic examination which is to follow. In every-day practice, as with the undergraduate student, however, final judgment must rest upon a careful grouping of all data of diagnostic value afforded by a comprehensive description.

We shall now consider in detail the different elements entering into the above schematic outline, passing over any application of the same to diseases of special organs or systems of the body, since this phase of the subject will be treated of directly in connection with the various sections of the work.

Family History.—This aims at the detection of hereditary diseases in the antecedents or members of the immediate family. It is to be recollected that true inheritance of infectious diseases is rare. It is possible, however, that the toxins of such disorders or the effects of the

growth of pathogenic organisms acting upon the germ-cells may influence the parental organism and lead to the offspring becoming modified in its development in one or other particular direction (Adami). After an individual begins its existence in utero, any modification is to be looked upon as of ante-natal acquirement.

Certain metabolic disorders, *e. g.*, gout, obesity, diabetes mellitus, and rheumatoid conditions, are probably attended with impaired nutrition of the germ-cells, thus affording an explanation of "the development and inheritance of diatheses."

Our inquiry should be extended to parents, the grandparents, brothers and sisters of the parents, and brothers, and sisters of the patient. If the patient have children, inquiry regarding them is also to be made.

Past Medical History.—The inquiry should be directed first to any infectious diseases of infancy and childhood, more especially measles, whooping-cough, scarlet fever, diphtheria, and follicular tonsillitis; next in chronologic sequence to the previous occurrence of other infections, as variola, typhoid fever, malaria, erysipelas, tuberculosis, and syphilis; chlorosis in the female. The age at which past complaints occurred, their duration, severity, complications, character of convalescence, and whether or not complete recovery ensued. Any previous illness like the present; if so, an analysis of the symptoms and the course. Antecedent injuries.

Social History.—Whether bottle- or breast-fed. Note the age, sex, married or single, profession or occupation (now and in the past), place of residence, temperament; if female, the condition of the menstrual function from the time of puberty to the present, giving details; if married, the number of pregnancies, childbed—normal or complicated, and if so, the character of the complication, and whether forceps were used; any sequelæ; version or operation (specifying), miscarriages, noting peculiarities and results; pelvic operations, if any; time and nature of same. *Habits* regarding exercise, its character and amount, whether systematic or irregular; habits of eating, as to mastication, regularity or irregularity of meal-time, character of the food employed, time allowance for eating; use of stimulants, as tea, coffee, malt and spirituous liquors, with details as to duration, quantities consumed, and hours of the day when taken.

Present Illness.—The first point of information to be gained is the date of onset; this will indicate to the mind of the examiner whether the patient is the victim of an acute or a chronic disorder. We next inquire as to what the patient thinks is the cause of the illness (catching cold, trauma, etc.), the precise mode of onset, sudden or gradual, noting first the initial symptom or symptoms, their character and order of development. The attention is apt to be directed to particular organs or systems of the body by the patient. These should be interrogated, and afterward the remaining systems in a similar manner seriatim, observing the points set forth below.

Nervous System.—Pain? Its location, nature, severity; whether constant or paroxysmal? Other sensory and motor disturbances: Headache? Insomnia? Emotional alterations? Depression of spirits? Any disturbance of the mental faculties?

Respiratory Apparatus.—Pain, its location? Excited by breathing, coughing or movements? Dyspnea, constant or paroxysmal? Induced by exertion or other exciting causes? Rate of respiration (also during paroxysm)? Cough, constant or paroxysmal? Time and duration of coughing attacks? With or without expectoration? Character and

daily amount of sputum? Its color, from admixture of blood? Consistence and other peculiarities?

Circulatory System.—Pain in precordium (left arm, neck, back)? Exciting causes of pain (exertion, mental excitement)? Palpitation, continuous or paroxysmal? Accompanied by mental apprehension, or pain, or dyspnea? Apparent excitants of paroxysms? Effect of tobacco? Effect of heavy meals? Any irregularity or intermittence (skipping) of heartbeats?

Stomach.—Pain, constant or intermittent? Precise time of onset of the pain, before or after food, or during the night? Effect of the ingestion of food on the pain? Its location, character, and radiations, if any? Appetite? Nausea, with or without vomiting? The appearance (blood, mucus, and undigested food), amount, and character of the vomitus? The precise time of vomiting, in relation to food taken? Eructations of gas or liquid (acid, bitter)?

Intestines.—Pain, its precise location, character, and particular radiation (whether downward to thigh, to back, etc.)? Constipation? Diarrhea? Number of bowel movements daily? Accompanied with pain, tenesmus? Character of the discharges (mucus, pus, blood, scybala)? Color, amount, and consistence of feces?

Urinary System.—Pain, constant or paroxysmal in region of kidney or bladder? Primary seat and radiation of pain? Approximate daily quantity of urine? Frequency of urination? Accompanied with pain or tenesmus? Naked-eye changes of the urine? Is it turbid, smoky, or bloody? Amount and gross appearance of sediment on standing? Have stones or sand been passed?

Other Features.—Weakness? Loss of weight? Fever (temperature)? Night-sweats?

PHYSICAL EXAMINATION

General Examination.—1. Posture. Sitting up, semirecumbent, or lying in bed. Decubitus (dorsal, ventral, or lateral). Whether position of body is fixed. Spine bent. Knees drawn up. Lying fixed on side.

2. Age—actual and apparent.

3. Weight and height.

4. Skin: Among the points to be noted are the state of skin with reference to temperature (see fever), dryness, or moisture. If the cutaneous surface be moist, the degree of coldness should be recorded, since a cold, wet skin is ominous, especially if prolonged. The skin may be tense or relaxed and lying in folds even (*e. g.*, in diseases attended with marked emaciation). Note the color of the skin, whether pale, sallow, yellowish (as in jaundice); gray, caused by silver nitrate; abnormally red without cyanosis; also any marks, scars, swellings, or active eruptions which may be present. Cutaneous hemorrhages, as puncta, petechiæ, and ecchymoses occur. Small hemorrhages are most apt to appear at the hair-follicles. These fail to disappear upon pressure, and are thus distinguishable from a minute area of inflammatory redness.

The condition of the lymph-glands (size, consistence, degree of mobility etc.). Bones and joints. Conditions of muscles (atrophy, hypertrophy, tonus of the muscles, trembling, chorea, athetosis); resistance of limbs toward passive movements (grasp, walking, standing, Romberg's phenomenon), reflexes (tendon reflexes, skin reflexes), condition of general nutrition (adipose, emaciation).

Psychic behavior, intelligence, consciousness (delirium, stupor, mental dullness, coma), speech (stuttering, aphasia).

Local Examination.—Head.—*Skull:* Note size and conformation; condition of hair.

Face: Expression, facial muscles, mobility of both halves, of eyelids, laughing, frowning.

Ears: Note condition as to hearing, any discharges, effect of pressure on mastoid process, and external ear.

Eyes: Conjunctivæ (color, discharges); pupils (color, pupillary changes, reaction to light, convergence and accommodation, muscular action).

Nose: Note its size, shape, any obstructions in the nasopharyngeal ring, discharges.

Mouth and Pharynx: Condition of buccal mucosa, that of pharynx, of tonsils (ulcers, scars, swellings), masticating apparatus. (Special search for focal infection of tonsils, teeth and sinuses is to be made as a routine practice), and tongue (size, whether coated, protruded, straight, with or without tremor).

Larynx: Inspection with the laryngoscope if there be hoarseness or other symptoms pointing to involvement of this organ.

Neck: Length, circumference, thyroid gland. Note any tumor-masses, scars, eruptions, pulsations (whether venous or arterial).

Esophagus: Swallowing, obstruction to passing sound. Delay in time of swallowing sounds?

Thorax.—*Lungs:* Inspection: (*a*) The appearance of the external surface, evidence of emaciation, prominences, etc.; (*b*) the shape and size; (*c*) movements and degree of expansion (diseased side takes less part in breathing); and (*d*) fluoroscopic study.

Palpation: (*a*) The principal results of inspection are confirmed; (*b*) the tactile fremitus is elicited; this should be tested over every portion of the chest occupied by the lung; and (*c*) fluctuation may be detected, though rarely.

Percussion: (*a*) Immediate percussion; (*b*) mediate percussion, which is divided under three subheads: (1) Finger percussion, (2) finger-plexi-meter percussion; (3) human-pleximeter percussion. (For the technic of these methods see Diseases of the Lungs, p. 38.) Note results of percussion with reference to pitch, volume, length or duration, and quality of sound. (It is to be recollected that when the vibrations are slow, the pitch is low and vice versa.) Comparison of apices of the lungs; respiratory changes of the lung boundaries; interpretation of sounds—normal resonance (with modifications in health, according to age, the region percussed, and associated conditions), tympany, relative dullness; respiratory percussion (the patient holding the breath at full inspiration and full expiration); auscultatory percussion; palpatory percussion; amphoric resonance; special signs—bell tympany, cracked-pot sound, Wintrich's sign, Gerhardt's sign.

Auscultation: Methods—(*a*) immediate, (*b*) mediate (for advantages of each method and technic see Diseases of the Lungs, pp. 60, 61; modifications of normal respiratory sounds (variations in vesicular breathing, bronchovesicular, bronchial or tubular, cavernous, amphoric); changes in vocal resonance—diminished or increased (bronchophony, egophony, pectoriloquy, amphoric whisper, etc.); adventitious sounds, râles (sibilant, sonorous, crepitant, subcrepitant, mucus, rattling sounds), friction rub.

Heart: Inspection: Seat quality and rhythm of apex-beat; abnormal pulsations elsewhere over chest-wall, especially over first and second intercostal spaces; epigastric pulsation; cyanosis.

Palpation: Seat, quality, and rhythm of impulse; presence or absence of thrill.

Percussion: Note area of cardiac dullness (effects of respiratory movements, effect of change of position).

Auscultation: The mediate method to be preferred; note any modifications of normal heart sounds—first and second; if adventitious sounds be audible, note their point of maximum intensity, rhythm, area of transmission and quality; auscultate—(*a*) mitral area, (*b*) tricuspid area, (*c*) aortic area, (*d*) pulmonary area, (*e*) over vessels of neck, (*f*) over body of heart, (*g*) effect of exercise, (*h*) effect of change of position.

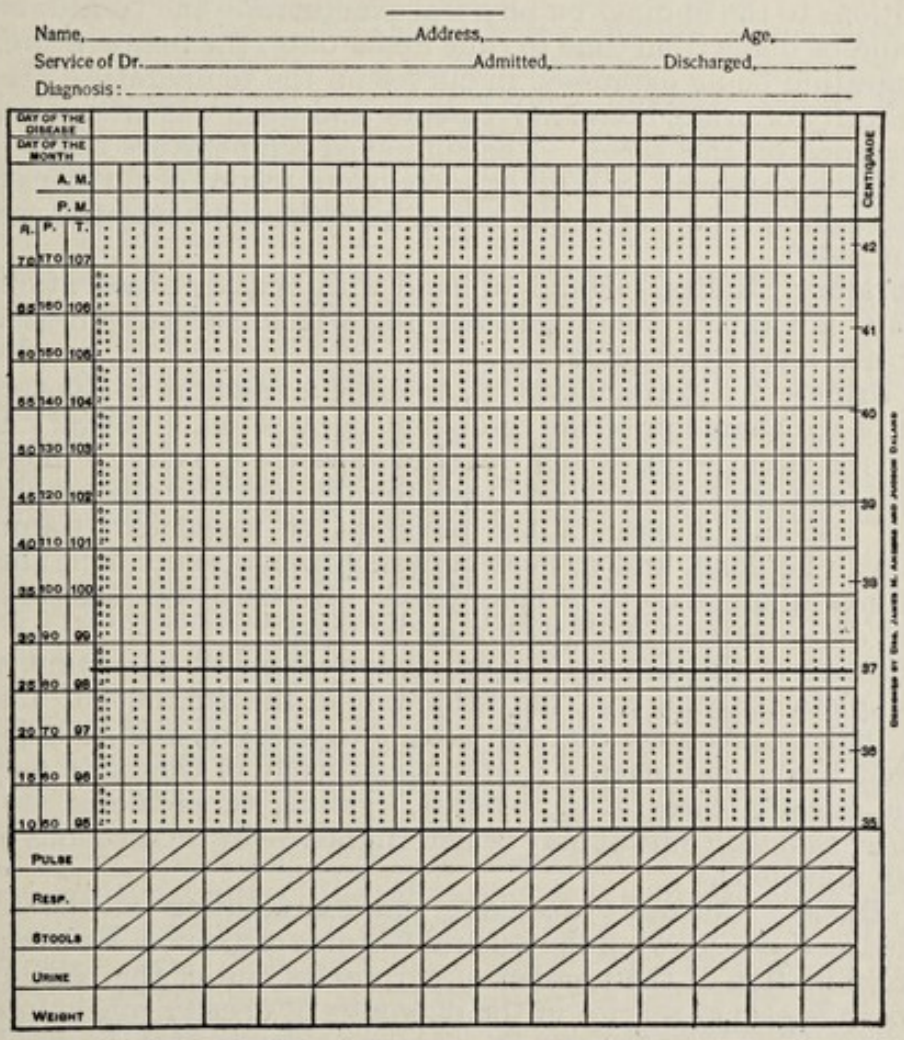


FIG. 1.

Pulse: (1) Condition of right and left radial artery (rigidity, tortuosity); (2) rate of pulse; (3) rhythm; (4) force; (5) tension; (6) size.

Blood-pressure.—Auscultatory method.

Vascular System.—(1) Arteries; (2) veins; (3) capillaries; (4) lymphatics.

Liver and Gall-bladder.—Palpation and percussion (auscultation of gall-bladder if calculi are suspected).

Spleen.—Inspection; palpation percussion.

Stomach and Bowels.—Inspection: Shape, depressions, and swellings.

Palpation: Tension, hernias, fluctuations, splashing sounds, painful spots, or diffuse tenderness.

Percussion: Variations from normal tympanitic notes (muffled tympany, dullness); size and outline of stomach (if necessary, after inflation with air or by *x*-ray examination); if necessary, stomach-tube and examination of stomach-contents; inflation of intestinal tract with air if necessary to detect tumor masses or obstructions and the like; examination of anus and rectum.

Kidneys.—Palpation and percussion of the kidneys (see Diseases of the Kidneys, p. 718); palpation and percussion over the bladder (urination, retention).

BEDSIDE OBSERVATIONS

Additions to the findings on physical examination and bedside observation should be made from time to time under date; the temperature, pulse, and respiration being expressed in curves on the temperature chart; the daily quantity of urine, bowel movements, and weight at intervals are also to be recorded on this sheet. The subjoined temperature chart (Fig. 1) will assist the physician in keeping a complete record of further observations and examinations after the initial investigations into the case have been concluded.

Laboratory Studies.—Hand in hand with bedside observations must go certain laboratory investigations, for which the subjoined scheme may serve as a practical guide.

The Urine.—An examination of the urine is essential in all cases, independent of the character of the complaint in question. In every case the quantity for twenty-four hours, reaction, specific gravity, a microscopic examination of the sediment, and tests for albumin and glucose should be recorded. Should disease of the pancreas be suspected, Cammidge's reaction can be done; and in those suffering from obscure bone affections. Bence-Jones albumose is to be considered. In suspected cases of typhoid fever the *diazo-reaction* of Ehrlich may be tried.

In diseases of the kidneys the microscope is an all-important aid. A more complete analysis, *e. g.*, the estimation of the urea output, the detection of indican, acetone, diacetic acid, β-oxybutyric acid, bile pigment, and occult blood, and even a bacteriologic study of the urine may be of value in selected cases, *e. g.*, pyelitis, cystitis, tuberculosis, etc. The *phenolsulphonthalein* output may be determined—(by intravenous or intramuscular injection).

The Blood.—Generally speaking, an examination of the blood is demanded in those showing the general features of anemia, however slight. The determination of the number of corpuscles and of the percentage of hemoglobin is also of service in the diagnosis of obesity, pneumonia, and certain other sthenic maladies. A microscopic study of the individual red cells for the existence of poikilocytosis, irregularity in size and degeneration of the erythrocytes, is of great importance, and is best illustrated by the anemia of lead-workers. Important is it *to bear in mind that the number of red cells per cubic millimeter* may exceed the normal in persons suffering from an actual anemia *when there is associated cyanosis.*

In a study of the blood the most important information is obtained by the differential leukocyte count; next in order of value is the number of leukocytes in a cubic millimeter; and next, the hemoglobin precentage. Leukocytosis is found in pneumonia and the inflammatory processes generally; leukopenia in typhoid fever, malaria, and other diseases. In pneumonia the differential leukocyte count shows an increase of the polymorphonuclear neutrophiles; in infection with animal parasites, such as ankylostomiasis and trichiniasis, eosinophilia is frequently seen.

Cultural study of the venous blood will show pathogenic bacteria in acute ulcerative endocarditis, glanders, anthrax, typhoid fever, and other complaints. In certain diseases the sero-reactions are invaluable diagnostic aids—*e. g.*, typhoid fever. The sero-reaction of Wassermann with the blood and spinal fluid, is of the greatest diagnostic importance in syphilis. In this connection, it should be stated that blood chemistry furnishes reliable data in diabetes, renal disease, cases displaying hypertension and in endocrine disorders.

Sputum.—The naked-eye appearance of the sputum is of more value than that of any one other secretion or exudate, *e. g.*, bloody sputum is fairly characteristic of congestion or hemorrhage along the respiratory tract, the exceptions being where blood is cleared from the throat and from the posterior nares. The characteristic sputum of pneumonia, pulmonary cavity, bronchiectasis, mycotic infections and other rarer conditions should be recollected. A clear watery (mucoid) sputum is fairly common in the incipient stage of pulmonary tuberculosis.

A microscopic analysis should be conducted whenever it is possible to collect an appreciable quantity of sputum. Every sputum should be stained for the tubercle bacillus. The expectoration in the pneumonias, bronchiectasis, pulmonary abscess and gangrene should be routinely subjected to microscopic examination, and in suitable cases search for Curschmann's spirals, Charcot-Leyden crystals, and elastic fibers should be made. In all obscure cases a careful search for animal parasites should be made.

Gastric Fluid.—The presence and quantitative estimation of free hydrochloric acid, the total acidity, and reactions for the presence of lactic and butyric acids are always necessary. One or more tests should be employed for the detection of blood (occult bleeding), since bleeding may be so slight as to escape detection by other methods. An estimation of the combined hydrochloric acid should be made, as a rule, and the presence or absence of acetic acid, peptone, and bile should be noted. The quantity of mucus present should be carefully observed.

A microscopic study of the gastric fluid is of value in carcinoma of the stomach where it is customary to find *sarcinæ* and the *Boas-Oppler bacillus*, and indeed other microscopic findings of clinical value may be detected (*e. g.*, pus, erythrocytes). The degree of disintegration (breaking up) of starch cells after a test-meal gives a more or less accurate estimation of the activity of the salivary glands, and also of the degree of acidity of the gastric fluid; *the more hydrochloric acid present, the less are the starch cells broken.* The fractional method—a study of gastric contents obtained at frequent, stated intervals after the test meal—is helpful in many cases. The *biliary secretion* can be most satisfactorily secured for analysis by the Meltzer-Lyon method of transduodenal drainage.

Feces.—The microscopic examination of the feces for the detection of intestinal parasites, their embryos, or their ova, and for the detection of protozoa is important. The passage of prepared meat balls through the alimentary tract to determine the destruction of nuclei of the meat cells should be conducted whenever pancreatic disease is suspected. A microscopic study for the detection of fat-globules in the feces is also necessary in the diagnosis of pancreatic disease. In typhoid fever, dysentery, gastric carcinoma, tuberculosis of the colon, gastric and duodenal ulcer, a positive reaction for occult blood is a most valuable sign. A bacteriologic study of the feces is of value in the determination of various pathogenic organisms.

Cultural studies are also necessary to recognize the bacillus of Shiga, streptococcus, staphylococcus, and other pathogenic bacteria.

Exudates.—Pus and all questionable exudates are only recognized through microscopic and bacteriologic studies. The determination of the cytologic elements of the sediment in pleural, peritoneal, and cerebrospinal fluids often gives important information. In view of our present knowledge of the modes of infection by the ankylostoma, a microscopic study of the exudate and scrapings from cutaneous ulcers may give valuable data.

Metabolic Rate.—A careful estimation of the metabolic rate is of signal diagnostic value in exophthalmic goiter, adiposity due to hypothyroidism, myxedema, cretinism, pernicious anemia, leukemia and certain febrile conditions. The subject is considered in detail elsewhere in this volume (*vide* p. 356).

DISEASES OF THE RESPIRATORY SYSTEM

DISEASES OF THE NOSE AND THROAT

LABORATORY EXAMINATIONS IN DISEASES OF THE NASO-PHARYNX

Discharges from the nose and the throat may be studied as smears or by cultural methods. For the former method the mucus or pus, removed by a sterile swab or platinum loop through a speculum, is smeared in a thin layer on a clean glass slide, and allowed to dry in the air. After being fixed by passing three times through the flame of an alcohol lamp or a Bunsen burner, the smear may be stained with Loeffler's alkaline methylene-blue, by Gram's method, or by the method of demonstrating acid-fast bacilli. For the purpose of making cultures from either the nose or the throat, Löffler's blood-serum is the most convenient culture-medium, although any of the standard media may be used. A small portion of the pathologic exudate is smeared on the surface of the medium with a sterile platinum loop or with a sterile cotton swab. Boards of Health issue outfits composed of a tube of Löffler's blood-serum mixture and a sterilized cotton swab, contained in a pasteboard box, with a slip of cardboard for the necessary clinical data. These outfits are designed especially for the bacteriologic diagnosis of diphtheria and other pseudo-membranous inflammations of the throat; but they can readily be adapted to nasal discharges.

During health few bacteria are found in the nares, but in acute rhinitis the mucus contains numerous bacteria, many of which grow readily upon culture-media. The specific action of any particular bacterium in the production of acute rhinitis remains a question. Smears show many squamous epithelial cells, leukocytes, and at times red blood-cells. In virulent types of infection the nasal discharge may be composed principally of pus and epithelial cells, together with cocci and bacilli. During the course of certain specific infections the bacterium known to be the cause of the infection may be recovered from the nasal secretion. In cases of cerebrospinal meningitis an intracellular diplococcus is often found in the nasal mucus. The bacillus diphtheriæ is frequently found here in cases of active diphtheria and in cases of latent diphtheria. Bacillus pseudodiphtheriæ is often found in cases of acute rhinitis. Bacillus lepræ is said to be demonstrable in the nasal mucus in cases of leprosy before the other symptoms are sufficiently characteristic to permit of a positive diagnosis.

In chronic rhinitis the discharge is composed of yellowish or greenish crusts which have a fetid odor, and which are composed of epithelial cells, pus-cells, bacteria, and granular débris. The diplococcus ozænæ may be found in cases of ozena, and sarcinæ are sometimes present. In diphtheria (p. 930) and pharyngeal and laryngeal tuberculosis the characteristic organisms are found.

Suppurative inflammation of the accessory nasal sinuses is usually due to staphylococcus aureus, to streptococcus pyogenes, or to some other pus-producing organism.

In the diagnosis of diphtheria little confidence is to be placed on the examination of stained smears made from the pseudomembrane.

DISEASES OF THE NOSE

ACUTE RHINITIS

Pathologic Definition.—An acute catarrh of the Schneiderian membrane. This inflammation sometimes tends to involve the adjacent sinuses and passages. It is known to the laity as "cold in the head."

Predisposing and Exciting Factors.—Exposure to drafts and the influence of atmospheric vicissitudes that are especially prevalent during the winter and spring seasons are the most potent factors. Inhalation of irritants (physical, chemical, and biologic) is also capable of exciting in flammation of the nasal mucous surface. At times the disease may display some evidence of an infectious nature, and at such times may occur in epidemics. Direct extension from other mucous surfaces may be accountable for acute rhinitis.

General Complaint.—Sensations of chilliness, succeeded by feverishness, are common complaints. Frequent sneezing, headache, and malaise are prominent features, and there are apt to be experienced in unusually severe cases muscular pains in the back and extremities. Thirst is increased, anorexia complete, and constipation often attends.

One of the most annoying features to the patient is that of a somewhat profuse watery discharge from the nose, which is later followed by reddening and at times excoriation of the alæ nasi. Lacrimation is apparently increased, and is probably due to irritation of the mucous surface of the lacrimal canals. Adjacent mucous surfaces may also become involved, giving rise to conjunctivitis, catarrhal pharyngitis, laryngitis, and, in the severe forms, bronchitis. Nasolabial herpes may be present.

(1) Sinus headache is characterized by the fact that it is worse when rising in the morning, and the pain shows gradual amelioration during the day.

(2) Change in position aggravates the pain of sinusitis; there may be tenderness over the involved sinus.

Physical Signs.—The pulse is frequent, the skin dry and unduly warm. The nasal mucosa is reddened and swollen, thus interfering with the sense of smell and taste, and with breathing. The color of the mucous surface is deepened. At first it is covered with an opaque mucus, and later with a muco-purulent secretion. As the affection progresses the secretion becomes more abundant and turbid.

Course.—In favorable cases all annoying symptoms begin to diminish from the third to the fifth days. The nasal discharge usually continues for a longer period unless controlled by medication.

Complications.—The nasal inflammatory process may extend to the pharynx, larynx, and at times to the trachea and bronchi, in which instance the signs and symptoms of involvement of these surfaces are conspicuous.

CHRONIC RHINITIS (CHRONIC NASAL CATARRH)

Pathologic Definition.—A chronic inflammatory process involving the nasal mucous membrane and consisting pathologically of two distinct forms: (*a*) *Hypertrophic,* in which there is enlargement of the lower turbin-

ated bones, together with reddening and swelling of the nasal mucosa that may be general or limited either to the anterior or posterior nares. (*b*) *Atrophic*, in which there are atrophy and appreciable thinning of both the nasal mucosa and underlying structures, which changes are followed by enlargement of the nasal cavities.

Exciting Factors.—The disease is thought to result from repeated attacks of acute rhinitis, or from acute involvement of the nasal mucous membrane that has not been successfully treated. Abel believes that the "bacillus mucosus ozænæ" is often an exciting factor in this condition. Hypothyroid function is at times given as a contributing factor.

Principal Complaint.—(*a*) In the *hypertrophic* form nasal respiration is impeded, owing to the hypertrophy of the turbinated bones. The sense of smell is not acute, and there is a muco-purulent discharge from the nares, particularly the posterior, inducing "hawking."

(*b*) In the *atrophic* form the most conspicuous symptom is the peculiar odor of the nasal secretion, and the sense of smell is greatly diminished, or may even be destroyed.

Physical Signs.—These are obtained satisfactorily by the use of the rhinoscope, which reveals the actual condition of the mucous surface of the nasal fossæ, and upon this the diagnosis is based.

DISEASES OF THE LARYNX

ACUTE CATARRHAL LARYNGITIS (ACUTE ENDOLARYNGITIS)

Pathologic Definition.—An acute catarrhal inflammation of the mucous surface of the larynx.

Predisposing and Exciting Factors.—Exposure to cold and wet, excessive use of the voice, inhalation of irritating vapors, injury, excessive smoking, foreign bodies, and swallowing of corrosive substances are potent factors. The disease may be primary, but is more commonly associated with, and frequently follows, inflammation of the nose and pharynx.

Principal Complaint.—The voice is husky or completely lost; there is a sensation of tickling in the larynx, with a frequent dry cough; and there may be a feeling of a sense of pressure over the larynx and upper portion of the chest. Laryngeal spasm may be present in selected cases (see Spasmodic Laryngitis). Dyspnea is an annoying symptom in severe types of the disease.

Physical Signs.—The surface involved may be covered with a mucous secretion and is reddened and swollen. The vocal cords are swollen and reddened and lack their normal movements.

Thermic Features.—Fever may be slight, fluctuating between 99° and 101° F.

Diagnosis.—This is based upon the history of one or more of the predisposing factors, together with the characteristic changes in the voice. A laryngoscopic examination serves as a positive means of diagnosis.

SPASMODIC LARYNGITIS (LARYNGISMUS STRIDULUS; FALSE CROUP)

Pathologic Definition.—A spasmodic affection usually seen in children during the course of acute catarrhal inflammation of the laryngeal mucous surface.

Predisposing and Exciting Factors.—Conditions that predispose to acute laryngitis are also to be considered in connection with spasm of the larynx. It is sometimes excited by strong passion or emotion, and it may be associated with tetany. Rachitic subjects are especially liable. "The spasm of the adductors that causes the urgent dyspnea is probably reflex and due to peripheral irritation" (Anders).

Principal Complaint.—Two clinical varieties are to be distinguished:

(*a*) **Nervous type:** That in which the larynx is free from inflammation. This variety is characterized by sudden brief attacks of dyspnea either by day or night. General convulsions have been noted, but there is neither cough, fever, nor hoarseness. A repetition of these attacks may be experienced during the day.

(*b*) **Spasm of the larynx** associated with mild catarrhal laryngitis. The spasmodic attacks usually begin suddenly, upon awakening from a sound sleep. Positive evidence of the affection is afforded by the croupy, ringing cough, combined with the hard, stridulous breathing. A hoarse cough is often a precursor of the approaching spasm, as is also slightly stridulous breathing during sleep. Harsh breathing (stridor) is a vibrating noise produced by air passing in and out of the larynx or trachea, when one or both of these air-passages are partially obstructed. The following table is designed to set forth the various causes for this type of breathing:

Causes within the Larynx or the Trachea	
Foreign bodies.	Rupture of caseous glands.
Plugging by mucus.	Pus.
Affections of the Walls	
Diphtheria.	Acute staphylococcal laryngitis.
Tuberculous ulceration.	Potassium iodid poisoning.
Posttyphoidal ulceration.	Syphilitic ulceration.
Acute edema.	Malignant ulceration.
Bright's disease.	Traumatic ulceration.
Acute streptococcal laryngitis.	Epithelioma of the vocal cords.
Acute pneumococcal laryngitis.	Fibroma of the vocal cords.
Stenosis after tracheotomy or cut throat.	Syphilitic stenosis.
	Epithelioma of the trachea.
Compression from Without	
Thoracic aneurysm.	Malignancy of glands in the neck.
Mediastinal new growth.	Enlarged thyroid gland.
Epithelioma of the esophagus.	Enlarged thymus gland.

Physical Signs.—The respirations are seen to be altered, the neck is short and thick, and the auxiliary muscles of respiration are brought into action. The child prefers to sit or inclines slightly forward. Cyanosis may become extreme during the spasm and convulsive seizures may be observed.

Differential Diagnosis.—Spasmodic laryngitis is to be distinguished from laryngeal diphtheria, and the distinctive features are that laryngeal diphtheria develops more gradually and persists over a longer period than does spasmodic laryngitis. Prostration is also extreme in diphtheria, and moderate fever is present. The detection of a false membrane on the mucous surface of the nose or throat goes far to support the existence of diphtheria.

Prognosis.—A fatal termination is unusual, although repeated attacks are to be expected where spasm of the larynx develops in children.

TUBERCULOUS LARYNGITIS

Pathologic Definition.—A subacute or chronic inflammation of the mucous surface of the larynx excited by the tubercle bacillus, and characterized further by congestion, edema, and ulceration.

Predisposing and Exciting Factors.—In the vast majority of instances tuberculous laryngitis develops secondary to pulmonary tuber-

culosis, certain authors regarding this form of tuberculosis as a complication of the pulmonary variety in from 18 to 30 per cent. of cases.

Principal Complaint.—The earliest symptom is that of hoarseness, which is followed by almost complete loss of the voice. After ulceration has become extensive and the surface of the epiglottis and pharynx are involved, swallowing is painful, and it is extremely difficult for the patient to take food.

Cough is decidedly painful, and may be more or less persistent. Cough is apt to be excited by talking.

Laryngoscopic examination shows the surface of the laryngeal membrane to be pale, and a variable number of broad, grayish, irregular, tuberculous ulcers are visible upon the posterior surface of the epiglottis and aryepiglottic folds.

Differential Diagnosis.—In ill-defined cases laryngoscopic examination is a necessary aid to distinguish between syphilitic and tuberculous laryngitis. The various tuberculin tests (p. 864) and the Wassermann reaction are deciding factors.

SYPHILITIC LARYNGITIS

Remarks.—A variety of laryngitis developing during both secondary and tertiary forms of syphilis. It may appear in those where the luetic taint is inherited.

Principal Complaint.—Hoarseness is persistent and aphonia and dysphagia are also likely to develop. If it develops in secondary syphilis, the lesion is probably an erythema with superficial ulceration and a variable degree of catarrhal laryngitis.

During the tertiary form of syphilis the lesion of the larynx is apt to consist in small gummata. Rather deep-seated ulceration may develop in this form of the disease and may result in more or less extensive destruction of the laryngeal tissue. Laryngeal stenosis may result from syphilitic involvement of this organ where there are extensive cicatricial contractures.

EDEMATOUS LARYNGITIS

Pathologic Definition.—An infiltration of the mucous membrane of the larynx by serum.

Predisposing and Exciting Factors.—Rarely it follows acute laryngitis, and develops during the course of erysipelas, diphtheria, scarlet fever, typhus and typhoid fever, and acute phlegmonous inflammation of the adjacent structures; during the course of syphilis, acute and chronic nephritis, and chronic heart and liver diseases. Pressure from within the thorax, angioneurotic edema, and serum reaction may also cause laryngeal edema.

Principal Complaint.—The most prominent symptom is a rapidly developing dyspnea and huskiness of the voice, increasing from the onset. The respirations become stridulous.

Diagnosis.—The diagnosis is made immediately by drawing the tongue forward, when swelling of the glottis is apparent. Laryngoscopic examination is of service in selected cases. The clinical history is of moderate value in connection with laryngeal edema.

CHRONIC LARYNGITIS

Pathologic Definition.—A chronic inflammatory process involving the mucous surface of the larynx, and characterized pathologically by thickening and congestion of the laryngeal mucosa. while in certain cases there may be a variable degree of ulceration.

Predisposing and Exciting Factors.—Chronic laryngitis follows repeated acute attacks, especially in those who speak much in public or in the open air; excessive smoking and chronic alcoholism are also potent factors in the production of this condition. Rarely it follows acute laryngitis, while nasal stenosis and chronic pharyngitis are occasional causes.

Principal Complaint.—The voice is husky, roughened, and in severe types of this trouble there is almost complete aphonia. Cough is the rule and may be either mild or severe, paroxysmal, and is usually preceded by a peculiar tickling sensation in the larynx. Pain is an occasional complaint.

Laryngoscopic examination reveals slight swelling with moderate reddening of the mucous membrane and prominence of the mucous glands of the epiglottis. Patches of superficial erosion may be detected.

TUMORS OF THE LARYNX

Among the symptoms of laryngeal tumor should be mentioned hoarseness, cough (laryngeal in nature), and aphonia. Difficulty in swallowing and urgent dyspnea are also annoying symptoms where the tumor is unusually large. Laryngoscopic examination serves as a positive means of diagnosis.

DISEASES OF THE BRONCHI, LUNGS, AND PLEURA

METHODS OF EXAMINATION

DATA OBTAINED BY INQUIRY

Probably in no other clinical division is history-taking of so great importance as it is in connection with affections of the pleuræ and lungs, and the method of obtaining clinical evidence from the patient will, therefore, be outlined.

Family History.—Heredity doubtless plays an important part, although with the advance of science the tendency at present is to regard heredity of less importance than it was considered twenty years ago. It should, however, hold first place in the findings obtained by inquiry.

It is important to know whether or not any members of the patient's immediate family have suffered from pulmonary or pleural diseases, and it is likewise equally important to ascertain whether the male or the female members of the family are the ones so afflicted. When the women of a household (particularly the one who does the cooking) are tuberculous, the disease is more likely to be conveyed to other members of the family than it is when the males are the afflicted subjects. The fact that asthma occurred in previous generations is of moderate importance, for in certain families both asthma and emphysema may exist for generations before tuberculosis becomes a family disease.

The general physique of the members of a family is quite an important fact to be ascertained, since tuberulosis and other diseases of the respiratory tract are to be expected in those cases in which narrow and contracted chests are family characteristics.

Personal History.—The patient should be questioned carefully as to his general physical condition for some years antedating his present illness, and in pulmonary affections it is of vital importance to ascertain the patient's weight during health, and whether fluctuations in weight were observed during different seasons prior to the onset of the present malady.

Should the patient's weight have been below the normal for one of his height, this should be taken into consideration and the cause for it ascertained whenever possible. A comparatively light weight with reference to height may be a family characteristic, and will then be of but little or no clinical significance. Loss of weight, especially when such loss dates from the onset of the affection and is progressive in nature, is highly significant of pulmonary disease.

Previous Diseases.—Those who have suffered from lobar pneumonia are greatly predisposed to pleurisy, bronchitis, and pulmonary tuberculosis. Rheumatism seems to bear an intimate relation to pneumonia and to diseases of the pleuræ. Intercostal neuralgia is also at times a precursor of pleurisy and of pulmonary disease. Children and even adults who have suffered from *adenitis* (glandular tuberculosis) are subject to pulmonary or other forms of tuberculous involvement later in life. Suppuration of the bones, hip-joint disease, etc., in early life are often expressions of tuberculosis. Valvular heart disease is to be taken into consideration in connection with diseases of the lung, although cardiac and pulmonary maladies occurring in the same individual are by no means common. Pulmonary symptoms (dyspnea, cough) may often be secondary to organic disease of the heart. (See p. 150.) Previous attacks of pleurisy are always suggestive of tuberculosis of the pleuræ, and are likely to be followed by tuberculous involvement of the lung substance. Tonsil disease and tooth infections may antidate pulmonary disease.

Social History.—A general outline of the patient's mode of living and of his habits and customs is of great importance, and the present health of the other members of his family is to be considered in formulating a diagnosis.

Age and sex exercise marked influence, and will be discussed at length under each particular disease.

Occupation.—It is an established fact that persons exposed to the inhalation of particles of dust, *e. g.*, stone-cutters, instrument-makers, diamond-cutters, brass-finishers, miners, glass-workers, and those employed in foundries, are especially likely to develop pulmonary tuberculosis, asthma, bronchitis, and pleurisy. Persons following indoor occupations, who do not get sufficient exercise, such as bookkeepers, barbers, clerks, seamstresses, and cooks, are also likely to contract pulmonary afflictions. Occupations that necessitate exposure to cold and wet may at times contribute toward the development of pulmonary diseases, but, as a rule, those who live out-of-doors are less likely to become tuberculous than are those who are deprived of exercise and of invigorating air.

Source of Infection.—If a patient suffering from tuberculosis has been intimately associated with other tuberculous patients, it is to be presumed that the source of infection is that of contact. In the majority of instances tuberculosis is not transmitted directly from one member of a family to another, but may be conveyed by infected members or by food that has been handled by tuberculous persons, who, during coughing, would send their sputum as a spray about the room where the food was handled. The routes through which tubercle bacilli may enter the human body are manifold, and no one particular mode of infection need be emphasized here.

Cough.—Correlatively speaking, cough is reflex in origin. The mechanism is that of a deep inspiration, which is immediately followed by closure of the glottis, when an expiratory effort suddenly follows, the glottis is forced open, and the sound is produced by the forcible escape of the air. Cough is a symptom of many pleural, pulmonary, and remote

pathologic conditions, and may also occur as a hysteric manifestation. Cough of physiologic origin is seen during the early months of gestation.

Causes.—(1) Either acute or chronic irritation of the bronchial mucous membrane is sufficient to excite cough. The act of coughing may also be a physiologic process, serving to expel mucus, pus, and any foreign substance that may have collected in the bronchi. Among diseases in which cough is an almost constant symptom should be mentioned pleurisy, empyema, pulmonary tuberculosis with cavity formation, bronchitis, asthma, and emphysema. In diseases of the larynx cough is a cardinal symptom. Pressure upon the recurrent laryngeal nerve gives rise to cough and aphonia. (See Aneurism, p. 264.)

In thoracic aneurism the cough is quite characteristic, being harsh and rasping, and having a brassy or metallic ring. The cough of aneurism may be non-productive, or, as is often the case, paroxysms of coughing are followed by copious expectoration of mucopurulent material. Mediastinal and thoracic tumors may excite cough in persons in whom the lungs and pleuræ are healthy.

In organic heart disease, the result either of valvulitis or of myocarditis, cough not infrequently occurs as the result of imperfect circulation and venous stasis in the lungs. Incorrect posture in those of lowered vitality results in hypostatic congestion at the bases of the lungs, and such congestion, in turn, is often productive of cough. This variety of cough is commonly encountered in those suffering from acute and chronic febrile and afebrile maladies. The character of the cough, as previously stated above, is equally significant in pleurisy and in lobar pneumonia. The cough of pleurisy is short, non-productive, and hacking in character, and is accompanied by extreme pain in either side of the chest. In lobar pneumonia the cough is also short and harsh, but it is accompanied by slightly blood-streaked expectoration, and severe pain is present when the pleura is inflamed.

Reflex Cough.—A lesion of the brain involving the respiratory center at the floor of the fourth ventricle is another cause for cough. The cough of hysteria is in no way characteristic, but is readily detected by the efforts of the patient to produce this symptom and by the associated phenomena. The barking cough of hydrophobia is also readily detected in a neurasthenic. Irritation of the pneumogastric nerve produces cough.

Stomach Cough.—The experiments of Kohts do not prove that a cough may occur as the result of derangement of the stomach, yet patients having a decided cough are not infrequently also afflicted with gastro-intestinal catarrh. That certain coughs are due to gastric irritation is borne out by the fact that they disappear when the latter condition is relieved. In persons suffering from gastric catarrh a similar inflammatory process generally involves the pharyngeal and laryngeal mucous membrane, and this may explain the source of the so-called "stomach cough."

Ear Cough.—During an examination of the external auditory canal the patient frequently gives a harsh, hacking cough. Foreign bodies and abscesses in the ear may also excite a short, harsh, and fairly characteristic cough.

Tooth Cough.—The irritation from a diseased tooth may excite reflex cough in the adult, and in infants, during the process of dentition, cough is quite common.

Whooping-cough.—This cough may be non-productive or accompanied by expectoration. A peculiar sound (a whoop) is heard during inspiration, and occurs generally after the child has made several rapid

attempts at coughing. The whoop is usually followed by vomiting, and there may be epistaxis and even hematemesis. In whooping-cough the attacks of coughing are paroxysmal, purely spasmodic, and excited by violent exercise, talking, laughing, and the like.

The Cough of Diphtheria, Pharyngitis, and Esophagitis.—This is really the cough of laryngitis, and occurs when the diphtheritic process extends to the vocal cords and larynx. (See Diphtheria, p. 929.) In pharyngitis and diseases of the esophagus cough may be a prominent symptom.

PHYSICAL EXAMINATION OF THE CHEST

Landmarks.—In order to examine the chest properly all clothing must be removed, or the patient's chest and abdomen exposed from the clavicle to the umbilicus. When the patient is able to sit or to stand, the method of examination is quite simple, but when the patient is confined to bed, it becomes quite difficult to obtain certain physical signs.

Certain landmarks are always to be observed, regardless of the position of the patient. When examining the front of the chest, one always starts with the superior boundary or clavicles. These curved bones separate the supraclavicular from the infraclavicular regions on each side (Fig. 4), and, owing to the fact that they traverse the chest transversely, they are used at different points to mark certain lines required to divide the chest vertically. The sternum serves as an invaluable landmark, because it divides the chest vertically (Fig. 4), and its peculiar notch, which separates the ends of the clavicles at the top of the chest, furnishes a guide that seldom, if ever, changes as the result of disease.

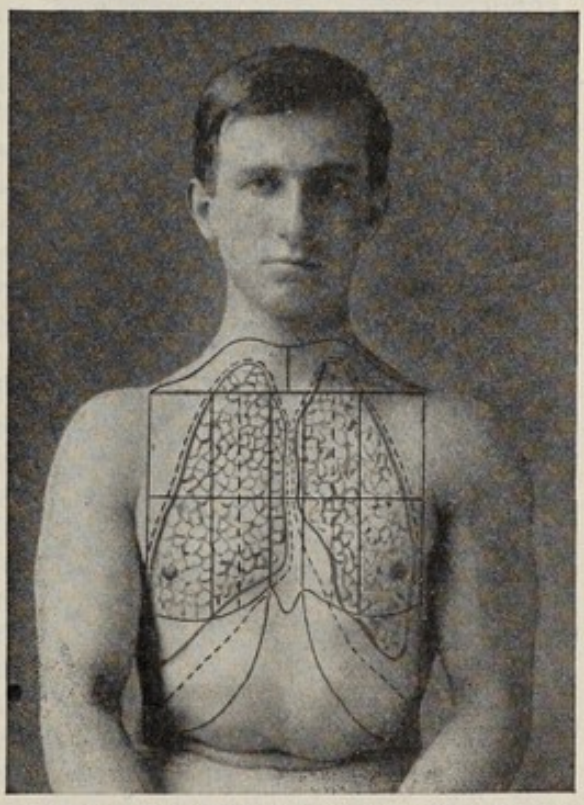


Fig. 2.—Relation of the Normal Lungs to the Pleuræ, Costal Margins, and Clavicles.

Again, it is of great importance to note that the suprasternal notch is at the level of the articular surface of the *second* and *third* thoracic vertebræ. About an inch below the suprasternal notch there is a distinct transverse ridge that marks the line of union between the first and second pieces of the sternum, and it is this sternal prominence that enables one to count the ribs.

Another method of counting is to regard the articulation between the clavicle and the sternum as the first rib. The sternal ridge is on a level with the *center* of the *body* of the *fifth thoracic vertebra*.

At the lower extremity of the sternum we observe the xiphoid cartilage. For the purpose of diagnosis the junction of the xiphoid cartilage with the greater portion of the sternum is on a level with the *articular surface* of the *ninth* and *tenth thoracic vertebræ*.

Counting of the ribs forms one of the most important steps in diagnosis, and is applicable to diagnosis both of the chest and of the abdomen. In diagnosis we often speak of a certain rib or interspace as at some particular line. These lines will be described later. Fig. 59 shows the actual relation existing between the lung, liver, and heart, and the points at which these viscera are contiguous one with another, as described by the clavicles, sternum, and ribs.

Counting the ribs is further useful in dividing the chest transversely by imaginary lines at different levels, *e. g.*, a line encircling the chest at a level with the nipples would pass through the center of the sixth intercostal space at the midaxillary line; this is the point of election in aspiration of the pleuræ for the removal of fluid. A point of great diagnostic importance is the fact that the ribs pass obliquely downward as they leave the vertebræ, so that their sternal junction is on a lower level than their vertebral articulation, *e. g.*, the *articulation of the cartilage of the third rib* anteriorly is on a level with the body of the *sixth thoracic vertebra*. When studying the articulation between the third and the seventh rib, for example, the calculation is readily made by adding four to the number of the rib articulating with the sternum; thus the seventh rib anteriorly corresponds to the eleventh vertebra.

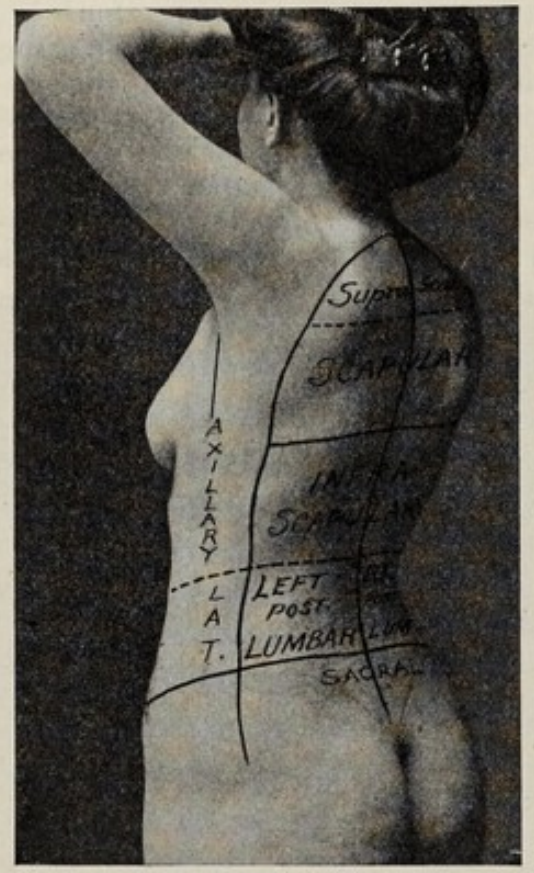


FIG. 3.—ARBITRARY DIVISIONS OF POSTERIOR AND LATERAL SURFACES OF CHEST.

Landmarks of the Back of the Chest.—1. *The Scapulæ.*—These bones are situated conspicuously at the top and back of the chest, and extend from the second to the seventh ribs inclusive. The inner end of the scapular spine is on a level with the spine of the third thoracic vertebra, and the inferior scapular angle is on a level with the spine of the seventh thoracic vertebra; consequently when the arms are permitted to hang at the sides and when both forearms are folded across the chest the seventh rib passes beneath the lower portion of the scapula.

2. *The Spine.*—The spinal column occupies the center of the posterior wall of the chest, and is outlined by a distinct groove. The spinous processes of the vertebræ are often visible as slight prominences along the column. In passing the hand from above downward over the spinal column, the processes are rendered more conspicuous and are readily palpable by directing the patient to bend forward. The tips of the vertebral spine also serve as landmarks, the one usually selected being that of the seventh cervical vertebra—the so-called "vertebra prominens." The spinous process projects obliquely outward and downward, so that the top of the spinous process is on a level with the articulating surface of the rib below, *e. g.*, the second thoracic spine corresponds with the level of the third rib. The spinous process of the tenth vertebra is materially shorter than that of the others.

A fact to be remembered is that the first thoracic vertebra is in direct articulation with the seventh cervical vertebra; consequently the ribs begin at this point. The second rib articulates with the second and third thoracic vertebræ, and this plan of articulation is continued downward to the tenth rib articulation. The eleventh and twelfth ribs articulate with the eleventh and twelfth vertebræ.

Epigastric Angle.—This angle is situated at the anterior portion and base of the chest; the apex is directed upward, and is formed by the xiphoid cartilage; its lateral boundaries are the converging cartilages of the ribs. During inspiration and expiration the degree of this angle is materially altered. At times it forms almost a right angle, whereas on deep inspiration an obtuse angle results.

Lines as Chest Landmarks.—In order to localize certain physical signs and to determine with ease certain definite points upon the chest-wall the chest is divided vertically by imaginary lines that transcribe definite arbitrary regions (Figs. 2 and 4). These are:

Anteriorly: (1) The mesosternal (midsternal) line, the middle line of the sternum. (2) The right and left *sternal lines*, corresponding to the lateral margins of the sternum. (3) The *parasternal* lines, midway between the border of the sternum and the nipple. (4) The *mid-clavicular lines*, usually passing through the nipples (these lines lead from the center of the clavicles to the middle of Poupart's ligaments), and are the most valuable lines known to chest and abdominal diagnosis (Fig. 4).

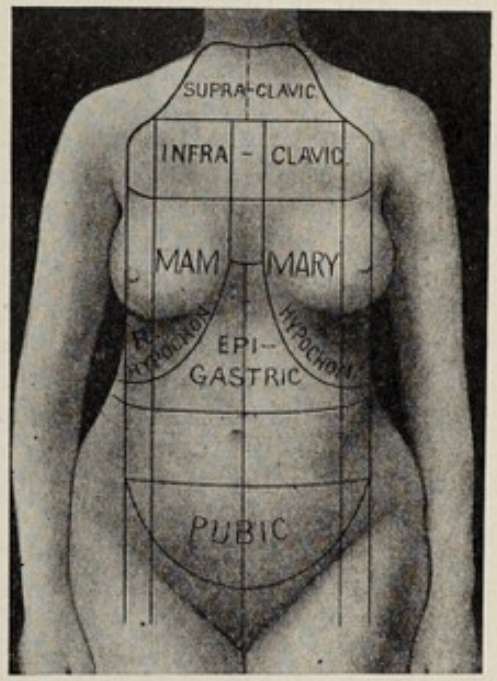


FIG. 4.—ARBITRARY DIVISION OF THE CHEST AND ABDOMEN.

Laterally, the chest is divided by three imaginary lines: (1) The *anterior axillary* lines, which cross those points where the great pectoral muscles leave the chest-wall when the arms are raised to the horizontal. (2) The *midaxillary* lines, which pass through the center of the axilla, or midway between the anterior and the posterior margins of the axilla. (3) The *posterior axillary* lines, which extend vertically through those points where the latissimus dorsi muscles leave the chest-wall (Fig. 3).

Posteriorly, but two lines are generally recognized: (1) The *scapular* lines, which pass vertically through the angles of the scapulæ when the arm is allowed to rest by the side. (2) The *midspinal* line, which is drawn to correspond to the center of the vertebral column.

Regional Anatomy.—Anteriorly, the chest is divided into regions, and the relative size, location, and form of such regions are clearly shown in the accompanying illustration (Fig. 4). Therefore we will confine ourselves to naming the various viscera known to occupy each particular region.

The Supraclavicular Regions.—On each side we find the apices of the lungs, and a short section of both the subclavian and the carotid arteries, and also the subclavian and the jugular veins. The apex of the lungs rises, as a rule, to from one-half to one and one-half inches above the upper border of the clavicle, the left lung generally extending a little higher than its fellow. A portion of the floor of the supraclavicular space is formed by

the first rib on each side. Immediately above the inner portion of the clavicle is the point at which pulsation from the subclavian artery may be felt.

The Clavicular Regions.—This region is small, and is bounded by the margins of the inner two-thirds of the clavicles. Upon each side is found the apex of the lungs. On the right and underneath the sternal articulation of the clavicle is the bifurcation of the innominate artery, and just external to this is the subclavian artery. At the left sternal articulation both the carotid and the subclavian arteries are deeply situated.

The right infraclavicular region contains a portion of the upper lobe of the right lung, and beneath the right border of the sternum are the superior vena cava and the arch of the aorta. Underneath the second right costal cartilage the right bronchus rests.

In the **left infraclavicular region** we find the upper lobe of the left lung, and at the border of the sternum, the left pulmonary artery and a portion of the left auricle.

The Mammary Region.—In this region the two sides will be found to differ widely, the right side containing the lung, the dome of the liver, the extreme right portion of the heart, and the diaphragm, which fits snugly over the apex of the liver and extends well up into the lung—fourth interspace. It is the intrusion of the superior border of the liver upon the lung that causes the lung tissue to rest superficially throughout this region, although a thin layer of the lower border of the lung extends as low as the sixth rib. The fissure dividing the upper and middle lobes of the right lung runs obliquely upward and backward from the fourth costal cartilage, while the fissure dividing the middle and inferior lobes of the lung arises at the fifth interspace (Fig. 5). The right side of the heart extends into this region, and a portion of both the auricle and the ventricle is covered by lung, and rests to the right of the sternum, between the third and the sixth cartilages.

The left mammary region contains the greater portion of the heart, which is partially overlapped by lung tissue. The outline of the heart in both health and disease is shown in the accompanying illustration (Fig. 59). A quadrilateral area of heart is uncovered by lung, and this portion corresponds to the right ventricle; the greater portion of the right auricle and of the left auricle and ventricle are deeply seated in this region. The apex of the heart ordinarily corresponds to the midclavicular line at the fifth interspace (Fig. 2). The fissure separating the superior from the inferior lobe of the left lung is situated at a point where the nipple-line crosses the sixth rib. The left lung also occupies this region.

The Inframammary Regions.—These extend downward from the sixth rib on each side to the margin of the false ribs, and from the sternum they are bounded externally by the costal cartilages. To the right of the median line we find a portion of the right lobe of the liver, the diaphragm, and, during the act of forced inspiration, the lower border of the right lung. The lower border of the liver is found by following the costal margin from the point at which the midclavicular or nipple-line crosses the costal cartilages.

The left inframammary region contains the lower margin of the left lung during inspiration, a portion of the left lobe of the liver, and the cardiac end of the stomach. It is somewhat difficult to separate the epigastric region from the two mammary regions, for many of the viscera lie in both. We have adopted an arbitrary division of the abdomen somewhat different from that ordinarily employed, thus simplifying, in a measure, the topographic anatomy of the inframammary region. The

right inframammary region contains a portion of the right lobe of the liver.

The Sternal Regions.—That portion of the thorax underlying the sternum is divided into two parts:

In the *superior sternal region* are found the inner edge of the lungs at and below the second costal cartilages, the bifurcation of the trachea, the aortic arch, the pulmonary artery, the left innominate vein, and the vena cava.

The *inferior sternal region* contains a portion of both the right and the left lung, the greater part of the right ventricle, the origin of the pulmonary artery, and the edge of the left ventricle, which is situated well

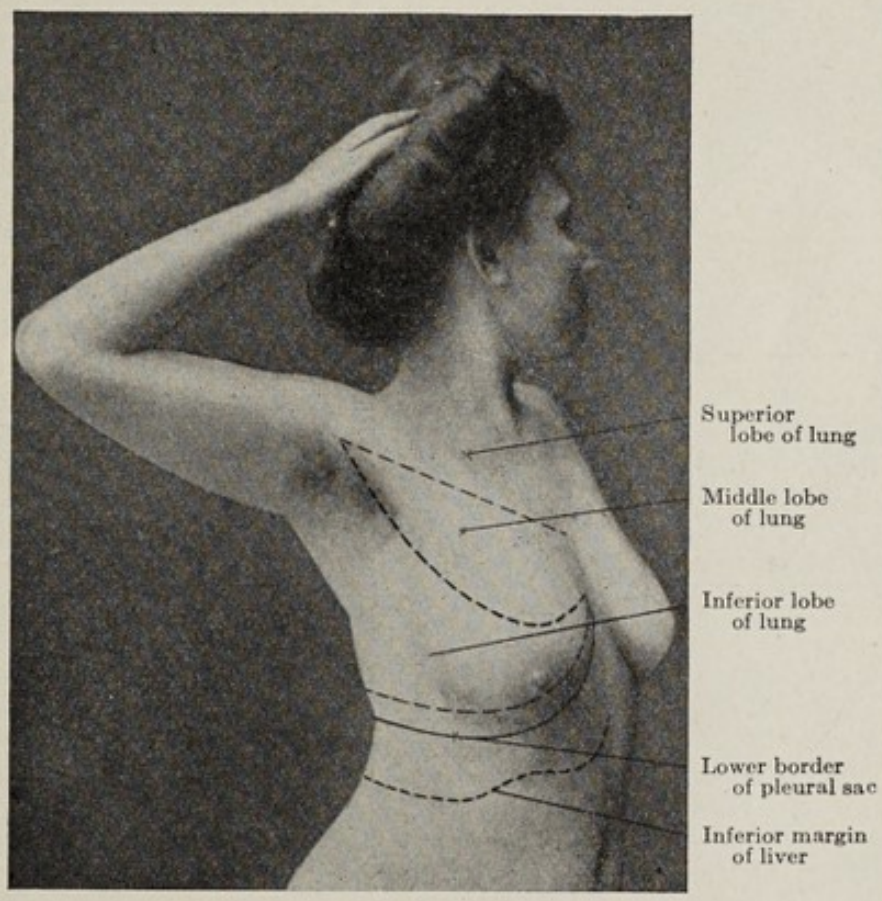


FIG. 5.—LATERAL VIEW OUTLINE TO SHOW THE RELATION OF THE RIGHT LUNG, PLEURA, AND LIVER.

posteriorly. The first part of the aorta, a portion of the right auricle, and a part of the liver are also found here, and within this area the pericardiac attachment of the diaphragm is located.

The Lateral Thoracic Regions.—*The Axillary Regions.*—These are bounded by lines that extend from the upper anterior portion of the axilla to a level with the lower margin of the mammary regions (sixth rib), and posteriorly by a line drawn from the upper portion of the axilla through the point where the latissimus dorsi muscle leaves the thorax when the arms extend horizontally from the chest (Fig. 6). Both axillary regions contain lung tissue, and, more deeply seated, the bronchi and their smaller branches are found.

The Infra-axillary Regions.—These are bounded superiorly by the lower border of the axillary regions, and below by the margin of the ribs.

Posteriorly, they are contiguous with the infrascapular regions (Fig. 6). In the right infra-axillary region the lung will be found to slope downward and backward as low as the eighth rib, at the point where it is bisected by the midaxillary line. The liver is also contained in this region. The left region contains, in addition to the lung tissue, a portion of the stomach and the spleen.

Posterior Regions.—The *suprascapular regions* (Figs. 3 and 6) contain the apices of the lungs, and it is the portion of the lung that occupies this region that is most liable to be attacked early by tuberculosis; in studying incipient pulmonary conditions, therefore, the suprascapular region should be examined most carefully.

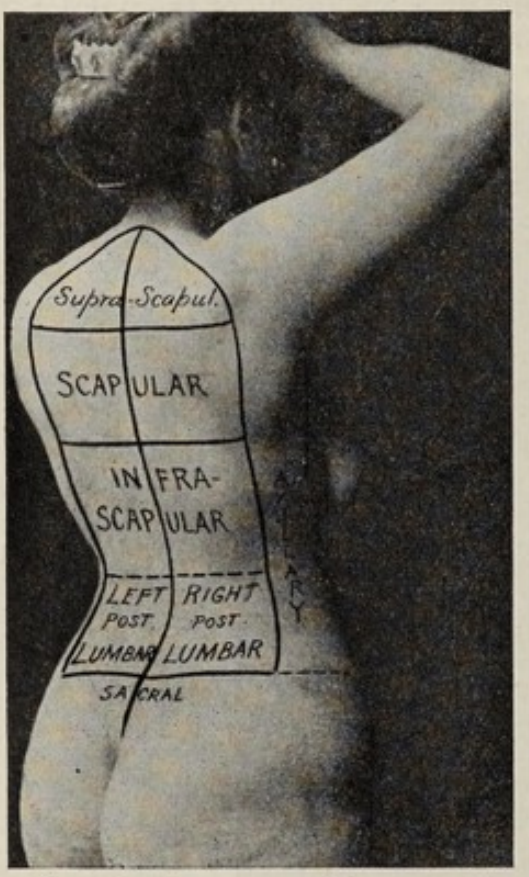


FIG. 6.—ARBITRARY REGIONAL DIVISION OF BACK WITH RELATION TO AXILLARY AND INFRA-AXILLARY, SUPRASCAPULAR, SCAPULAR, INFRASCAPULAR, AND LUMBAR REGIONS.

The *scapular regions* contain, for the most part, portions of the lungs, and the fissures dividing the pulmonary lobes are also situated in this region.

The Infrascapular Regions.—These regions are bounded superiorly by a line drawn across the inferior angles of the scapulæ, and below by the edge of the thorax, and extend in the median line downward to the eleventh vertebra. Anterolaterally these spaces are limited by the line bounding the infra-axillary region, which corresponds to the point at which the latissimus dorsi muscle leaves the chest-wall (Fig. 6). On both sides are the lungs, and their inferior margins extend downward as far as the eleventh ribs. On the right side, below the lung, is a small portion of the liver, and lying immediately in contact with the spinal column is the upper portion of the right kidney. To the left of the spine, passing from the median line outward, are the aorta, the left kidney, coils of intestines, and the spleen.

The Interscapular Region.—The size of the interscapular region may be somewhat increased by directing the patient to bend forward and to fold the arms over the chest (Fig. 31). Upon both sides of the spine are portions of the lungs. At the fourth thoracic vertebra is the bifurcation of the trachea. The bronchial glands are also situated near this point. To the left of the spine, and at the third or fourth thoracic vertebra, is the descending aorta, and in intimate relation with this are the thoracic duct and the esophagus. It is in this region one auscults when timing food on its passage through the esophagus.

The bifurcation of the trachea is nearly on a level with the third and fourth thoracic vertebræ, corresponding anteriorly to the angle of Louis or the second costal cartilage.

It must be remembered that the caliber of the right bronchus is considerably larger than that of the left, and that this canal passes in a horizontal direction immediately beneath the second rib. The left bronchus is situated slightly below the right, in the second interspace.

INSPECTION OF THE CHEST

Preparation for Inspection.—It is impossible to obtain accurate information regarding the contour and movements of the thorax unless the patient is bared to the waist. Occasionally it is necessary to modify this general rule, but whenever such modification is made, there will always be uncertainty as to whether or not the examiner has detected all existing abnormalities presented by the patient.

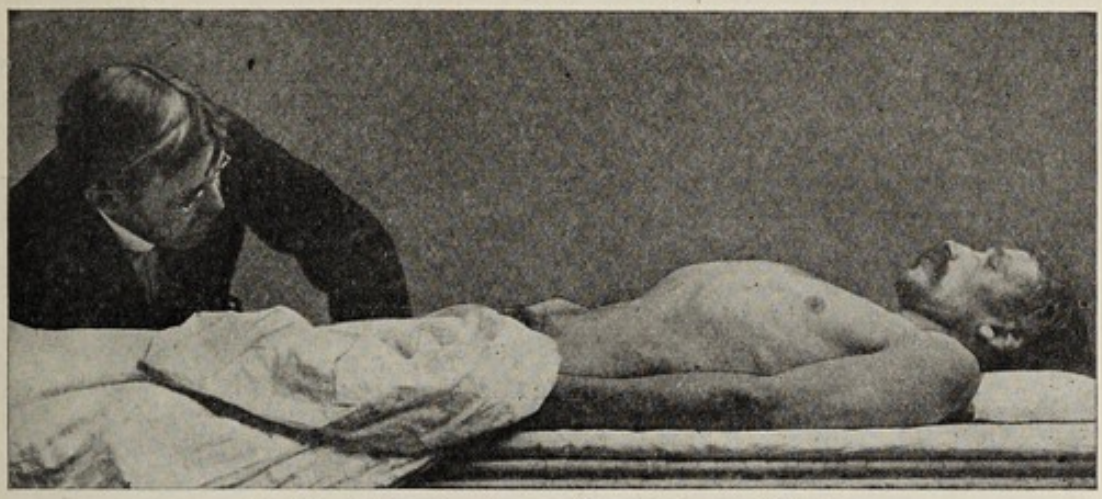


FIG. 7.—INSPECTING THE ABDOMEN AND CHEST.

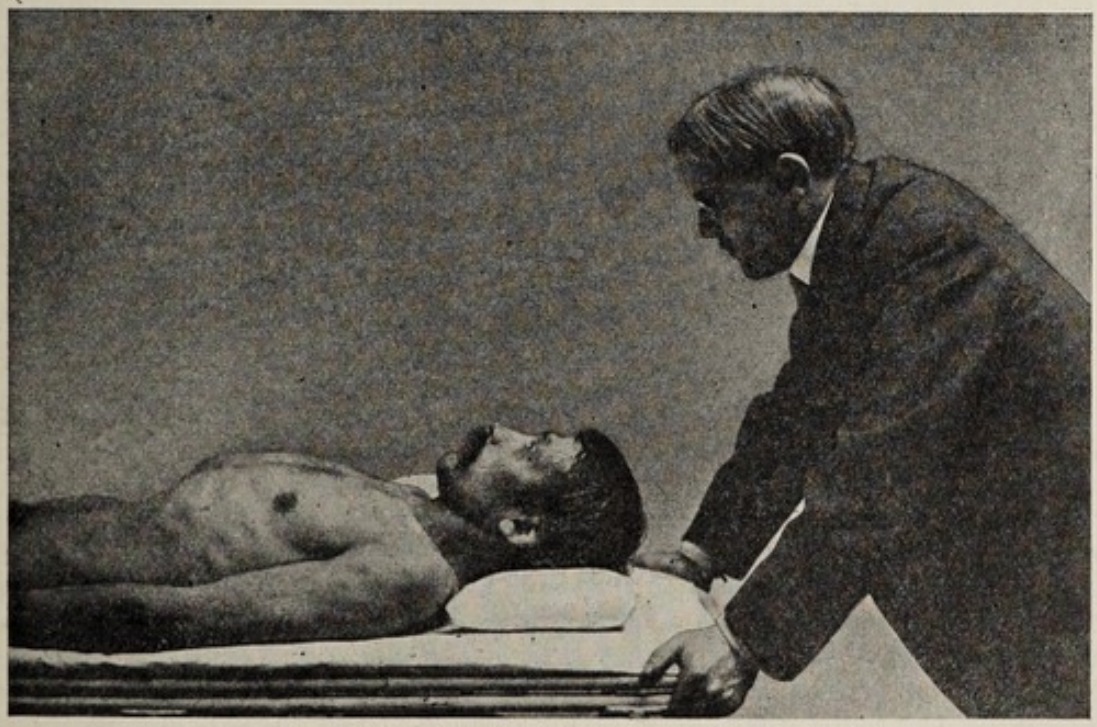


FIG. 8.—INSPECTION OF THE CHEST AND ABDOMEN.

Position of the Patient.—During an examination of the chest, the patient should preferably be standing or sitting, in order that the examiner may step from side to side and from front to back, viewing the chest from every aspect. When it is necessary to examine a patient in the recumbent posture, the examiner should stand first at the feet and then at the head of the patient, and note particularly the character of the chest movements (Figs. 7 and 8). The patient should then be turned first upon one side and then upon the other, and while this is being done the

general expression, rapidity of respirations, and the degree of lividity or cyanosis are to be noted.

The general conformation of the chest, and its influence upon the various types of respiration, which will be described later, is of vital importance.

Light.—Whenever possible, the chest should be examined by daylight; for when this is done by artificial light, shadows, due to the various curves and prominences of the chest-wall, are likely to confuse the examiner.

What is to Be Ascertained by Inspection.—(*a*) The appearance of the external surface, evidences of emaciation, etc.; (*b*) the shape and size; (*c*) movements and degree of expansion; and (*d*) fluoroscopic study.

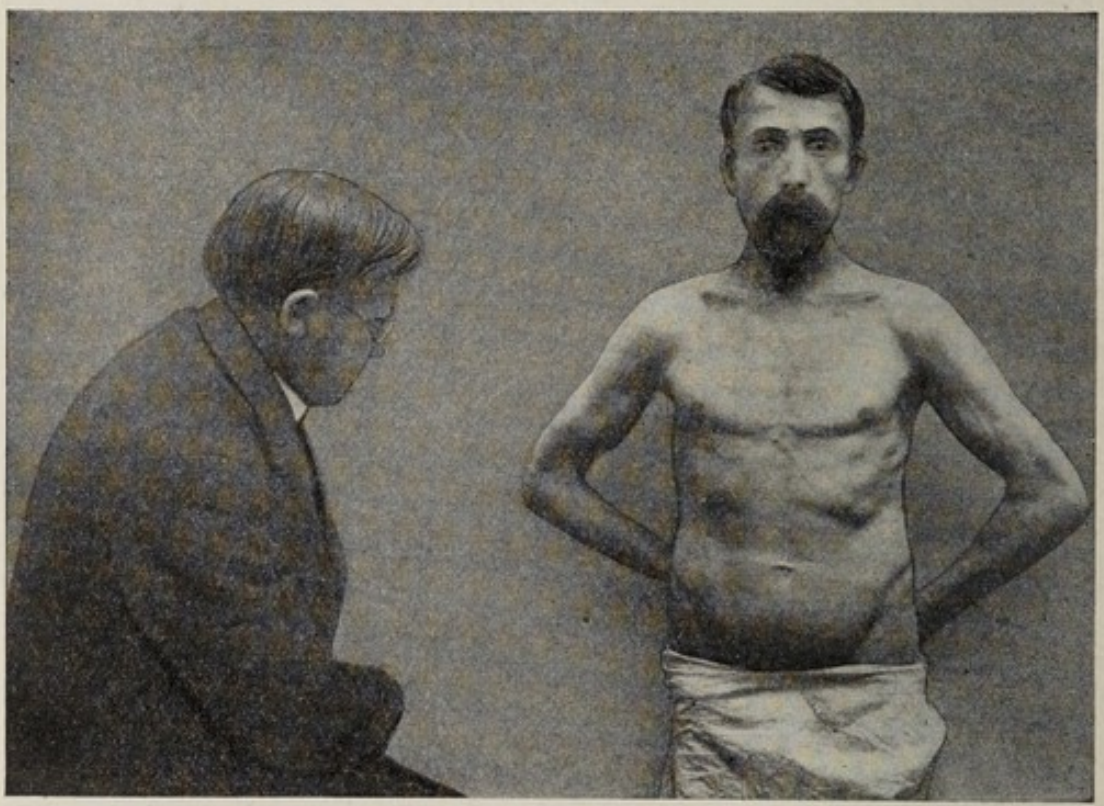


FIG. 9.—INSPECTION OF ABDOMEN (LATERAL VIEW) TO ASCERTAIN THE MOVEMENTS OF THE CHEST AND ABDOMEN.

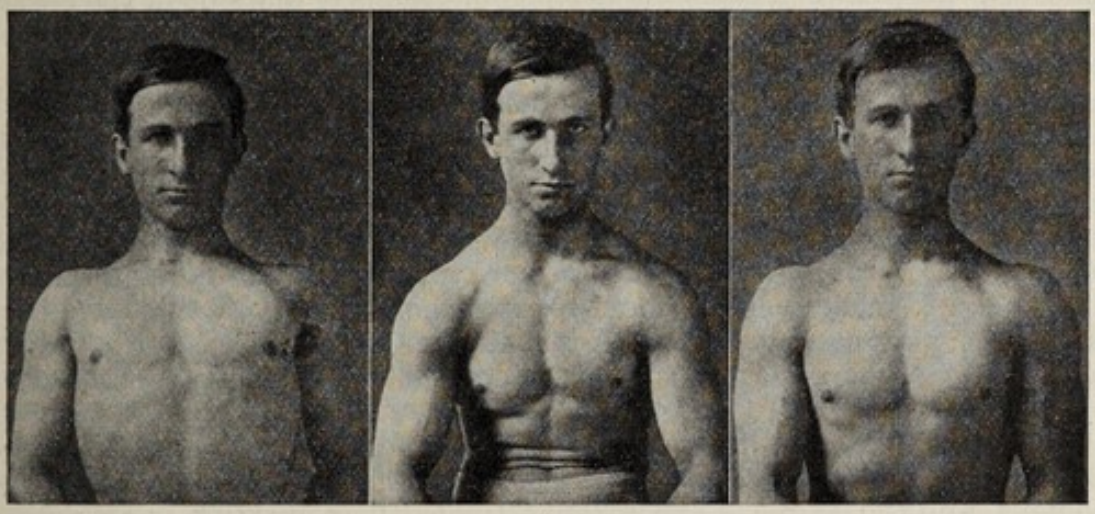
The Chest-wall.—The characteristic appearance of the healthy skin is materially altered in disease; thus it is extremely pale in all diseases associated with anemia, and in vagabondism, Addison's disease, abdominal tumors, and jaundice it is pigmented. It also becomes pigmented as the result of tinea circinata, syphilis, multiple abscesses, and the like. Distention of the veins over the anterior surface of the chest is suggestive of pressure in the thorax, as from thoracic aneurism or enlarged bronchial glands. In the female lactation is the most common cause of such distention. If the veins of the neck are enlarged, cardiac incompetency is to be suspected, and if they pulsate synchronously with the heart's action, tricuspid regurgitation is probably present. The veins over the chest-wall may also be enlarged as the result of pressure or obstruction to the thoracic vessels.

Thoracic edema is common in purulent exudates into the pleuræ. Subcutaneous emphysema may follow rupture of the lung, ulcer of the esophagus, and infection with gas-producing bacteria.

In order to estimate the degree of emaciation that has taken place the patient's present condition must be compared with that known to have existed in health.

Shape.—It is practically impossible to describe accurately the shape of the chest, and a definite knowledge of its general conformation can be acquired only by making repeated examinations of the normal chest. Indeed, it is by this method alone that one can become familiar with the various types of chests to be found in healthy men, women, and children. Characteristic alterations in the conformation of the chests are seen in persons following certain occupations, as, for example, shoemakers, blacksmiths (unilateral overdevelopment), carpenters (funnel-shaped depressions at xiphoid), coachmen (elevation of one shoulder), and those who have received training in military academies and gymnasiums (bilateral overdevelopment).

The chest in health is practically symmetric, its symmetry being due in a measure to the presence of subcutaneous fat.



a *b* *c*

FIG. 10.—NORMAL CHEST.
During: *a*, Forced inspiration; *b*, forced expiration; *c*, at rest.

The sternum projects slightly forward as it extends from above downward to the ensiform cartilage, the middle portion of the sternum being the most prominent part of the anterior surface of the chest. The ribs, upon their articulation with the cartilages that serve to connect them with the sternum, usually display a peculiar arched appearance, although not infrequently the anterior surface of the upper part of the chest is practically flat, a condition referred to as the "flat type of chest." The xiphoid cartilage may be depressed or may project anteriorly in the healthy chest.

Bilateral Abnormalities of the Chest.—In athletes the chest is greatly enlarged, but this condition cannot be regarded as pathologic unless alterations in the viscera sufficient to cause the distention are present.

In the barrel-shaped chest of emphysema (p. 133) the transverse diameter is normal or decreased, whereas the anteroposterior diameter of the chest exceeds the transverse. The clavicles and upper ribs are usually conspicuously elevated, giving the patient the appearance of having an unusually short neck. The pathologic changes necessary to produce the emphysematous chest will be discussed at length under Emphysema. As the result of the changes that produce the emphysematous chest there is also engorgement of the veins of the neck; this tends to render the cervical region thickened, and, as the result of venous congestion, it may

even pulsate. The bases of the chest may be greatly enlarged as the result of the presence of transudates or exudates into the pleural sacs and by enlargement of the liver and spleen. The development of carcinoma in both lungs may also cause an abnormally large chest.

Unilateral enlargement of the chest is the result of pathologic changes causing an increase in the size of the viscera occupying one side of the chest, or is due to a lessening of the capacity of one lung, with compensatory emphysema of its fellow; thus; for example, following fibroid (adhesive) pleurisy of one side, the opposite side becomes abnormally enlarged in order to compensate for the lost breathing space.

A large pleural effusion causes an abnormal distention of the affected side of the chest. When such effusion is present, the lung of the opposite side becomes emphysematous, and, in consequence, the entire chest is enlarged; the emphysema may be so marked as to lead one at first sight to suspect the enlargement to be the result of a bilateral pathologic condition. Adhesive pleurisy, fibroid phthisis, a pulmonary cavity, and bronchiectasis may cause a lessening in the dimensions of one side of the chest, but the opposite side rarely changes its size greatly as the result of compensatory emphysema.

New-growths of the thorax—e. g., thoracic aneurism—most often causes a prominence of the sternum, although it is not uncommon to find an aneurismal tumor protruding from the back, though the scapula, or from any portion of the chest-wall. Tumor of the mediastinal glands is a frequent cause of prominence of the sternum. Carcinoma and sarcoma of the lung and pulmonary abscess may cause unilateral deformities of the chest. The rickety chest follows rachitis, and in this condition the chest may assume almost any shape. Adenoid disease in children may cause chest deformities that somewhat resemble those produced by rickets.

Movements of the Chest.—Inspection of the chest enables us to ascertain the frequency of respiration, the rhythm, the diaphragmatic phenomena, and the degree of expansion. In health, inspiration is an active process, whereas expiration is passive. Physiologically, the act of expiration is slightly longer than is that of inspiration, and bears a ratio of six to five. There is sometimes a distinct pause following expiration. Generally speaking, it may be said that the chest expands in all directions during inspiration and diminishes correspondingly in size during expiration. The character of the expansion during health can be learned only by inspecting the chest of several normal individuals.

In the normal male the respiratory movements vary between 16 and 24 a minute, whereas the adult female breathes from 20 to 22 times a minute. Breathing is much faster in children than in adults, and during the first year the average number of respirations is from 40 to 44 a minute, while at the age of five the child usually breathes 25 or 26 times in a minute.

Posture, exercise, excitement, digestion, disease, and certain drugs increase the number of respirations, whereas posture, lack of mental excitement, and drugs diminish the frequency of the respiratory act.

Types of Normal Respiration.—*The Costo-abdominal Type.*—This is frequently referred to as the diaphragmatic type of breathing, and is characterized by the fact that while the patient is breathing quietly the chest movements are more marked at the lower half than they are at the upper half of the thorax. This form of breathing is more common in males than in females. During inspiration the sternum rises slightly, and the ribs are elevated, and at the same time extended downward,

forward, and outward. Both the anteroposterior and the transverse diameters of the chest are increased with each normal inspiration, and the epigastric angle occupying the internal between the costal cartilages at the base of the chest is changed from an acute to an obtuse angle. In the diaphragmatic type of breathing the movements of the diaphragm are conspicuous, and the muscle acts conjointly with the muscles of the thorax; thus, as the diaphragm descends, there is a corresponding swelling of the upper abdominal hemisphere. During expiration the chest gradually assumes its original shape and size.

Costal Type.—In adult females the upper half or two-thirds of the chest moves more conspicuously than the lower portion, hence this variety of breathing is usually referred to as the upper thoracic type. In the clavicular regions, the upper portion of the sternum, and as low as the third rib, there is marked expansion with each inspiration, whereas the lower portion of the chest remains almost stationary, and the results of the movements of the diaphragm are but feebly, if at all, apparent through abdominal swelling with inspiration. The costal type of breathing is also seen in children and in men during sleep.

Movements of the Chest in Disease.—The chest movements are increased in practically all forms of difficult breathing, and the frequency of the movements is quite characteristic of certain affections—thus, a marked increase in the number of respirations may result from either pulmonary disease or other maladies. In children the movements are comparatively rapid. In fever and in nervous conditions the frequency of the chest movements are, as a rule, increased, whereas in coma and in certain cerebral diseases the respirations may be less frequent; indeed, this symptom follows certain toxic poisonings. From the degree of chest expansion we learn whether the respirations are deep or shallow; as previously stated, the ratio of the act of inspiration to expiration is as five is to six; in children, in most women, and in the aged, however, we find this ratio changed to from six to eight, the act of expiration being greatly prolonged. At times, where the degree of expansion and the duration of inspiration are increased, there is some obstruction in the upper air-passages,—*e. g.*, in the trachea and larynx,—and the exaggerated expansion affects chiefly the upper part of the chest, when there is a corresponding retraction of the flexible wall at the base of the thorax.

Dyspnea.—In dyspnea, or difficult breathing, the respirations, while deeper than normal, are not always increased in frequency. They may, however, be more frequent than normal. Dyspnea is a common symptom in pulmonary disease, but it does not follow that extensive disease of the lung is always accompanied by difficult or hurried breathing. Patients suffering from dyspnea are usually reduced in weight, move slowly, and lack the normal vigor of health.

Varieties of Dyspnea with Reference to Its Exciting Cause.—Among the causes of dyspnea are:

1. Anything that lessens the normal amount of air intake required fully to oxygenate the blood—(*a*) Obstruction of the air-passages; (*b*) diminution of air-spaces from intra-thoracic (see Pleural Effusion, p. 148) and extrathoracic (see Ascites, p. 627) exudates; (*c*) interference with the action of the muscles of respiration.
2. Maladies that are characterized by interference with the circulation through the lung.
3. Primary and secondary anemias.
4. Obstruction to the pulmonary circulation—*e. g.*, pulmonary embolism, lobar pneumonia, pulmonary infarct, emphysema.

5. Interference with the nervous mechanism of respiration—cerebral tumor, cerebral hemorrhage, and the effects of uremic and other poisons upon the respiratory center.

6. A form of reflex dyspnea is occasionally seen in hysteria, gastric disturbances, serum reaction, anaphylaxis, acidosis, and asthma. (See also Orthopnea, Cheyne-Stokes respirations, below; cardiac dyspnea, p. 181).

The normal rhythmic movements of the soft parts at the base of the chest are altered in practically all types of dyspnea, and in most pathologic conditions of the lungs and pleuræ.

The act of expiration is prolonged in emphysema, and is a characteristic feature of this disease. Again, whenever the expiratory act is prolonged, the accessory muscles of respiration are brought into action, and the patient assumes a posture that facilitates emptying the lung.



Fig. 11.—Respiratory Phases in Cheyne-Stokes Respiration, Giving the Respiratory Tracing Following a Pause (Boston and Ulman).

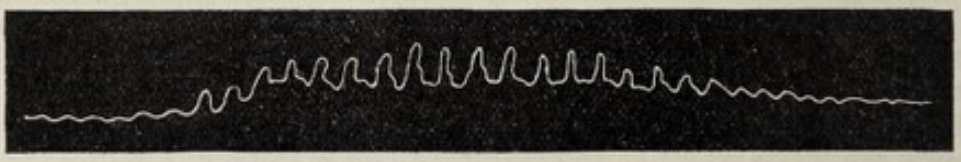


Fig. 12.—Respiratory Tracing in Cheyne-Stokes Respiration Showing Complete Respiratory Movements, Preceded and Followed by a Pause (Boston and Ulman).

Cheyne-Stokes respiration is a disturbance in the rhythm of the respiratory acts characterized by distinct pauses. The respiratory acts forming the groups before and after a pause begin with a shallow inspiration; the inspirations gradually become deeper until the maximum of depth is reached; then they become more and more shallow until they cease. Each group is composed of from 10 to 30 respiratory acts; the pause occupies from thirty to forty-five seconds.

The cycle of Cheyne-Stokes respiration, which includes the ascending and the descending phase, together with the pause, usually occupies one minute, and may be as short as one-half or as long as two minutes. This type of respiration occurs after severe surgical shock, and late during valvular heart disease and kidney affections; it has been considered a symptom of nephritis (p. 718). Tumors of the brain, injuries, and hemorrhages involving the floor of the fourth ventricle frequently manifest Cheyne-Stokes respiration as one of their cardinal symptoms (Figs. 11, 12).

Unilateral Changes in Respiration.—The movements of the affected side of the chest are diminished in pneumothorax, large pleural effusions, and, in massive pneumonia, when, as the result of overwork, the move ments of the opposite side are at the same time exaggerated. A large pericardial effusion may inhibit the movements at the base of the left chest, but here there is also exaggerated movement of the upper portion of the same side. Fibroid phthisis involving one lung causes a decrease in

movements upon one side of the chest, but movements are exaggerated on the opposite side.

Local Abnormalities of Movement.—In this connection special attention is directed to the exaggerated movements of the bases of the lungs where the apices are affected with tuberculosis. Thoracic aneurism or thoracic tumor of whatever nature may give rise to unilateral abnormalities in the respiratory movements, such abnormalities varying with the location and the size of the tumor. Where tuberculous involvement of the apices of the lung is present, expansion may be slightly delayed at the affected point. An increased expansion is apt to occur over healthy lung whenever a large portion of the breathing space has been consolidated from any cause.

Pulsation of the chest may be the result of a dilated heart, or may be due to the heart being pulled out of its normal position by pleural adhesions. Epigastric pulsation is a symptom of cardiac dilatation. In empyema pulsation may be present over the affected pleura. During phonation bulging of the intercostal space overlying the pleural effusion is rarely detected. Bulging is best produced by directing the patient to close his nostrils tightly and then partially to stop the exit of air by placing the hand over the mouth while he is speaking.

Cardiac Dyspnea.—Persons afflicted with cardiac disease usually gives a history of dyspnea following moderate exercise, even though the vital capacity of the lung may fluctuate between 70 and 90 per cent. of the normal. Cardiac patients were greatly restricted as to exercise where the vital capacity of the lung varies between 40 and 70 per cent.

PALPATION OF THE CHEST

By means of palpation most of the results obtained by inspection are confirmed. In palpation, as in inspection, more accurate results are

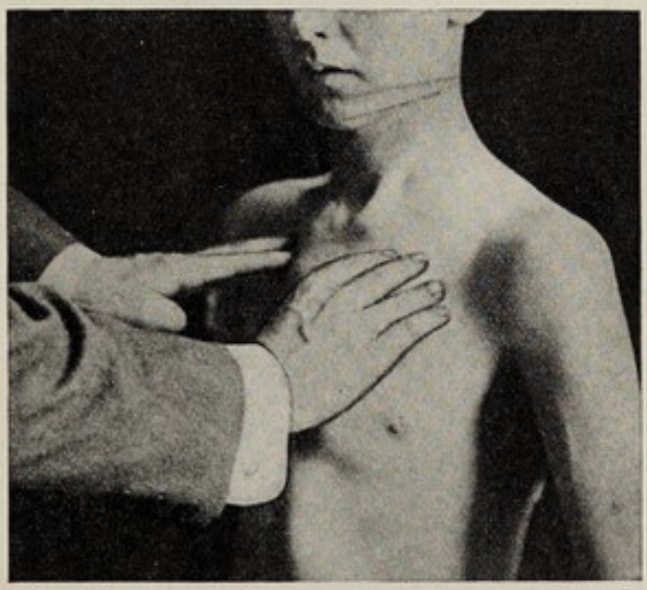


FIG. 13.—METHOD OF PALPATING OVER APICES OF LUNGS.

obtained by baring the subject's chest, although it is frequently necessary to palpate over a thin garment. Certain of the postures to be assumed by the patient and the position of the operator during palpation are shown in the accompanying illustrations (Figs. 13, 14). In palpating the chest it is most important that the tactile fremitus should be elicited over practically every portion of the chest occupied by the lungs. The two

sides of the chest must be studied comparatively, and palpation must be carefully performed over the axillary regions and bases.

Tactile Fremitus.—Generally speaking, the vibrations transmitted to the finger during the act of talking are more pronounced over the right

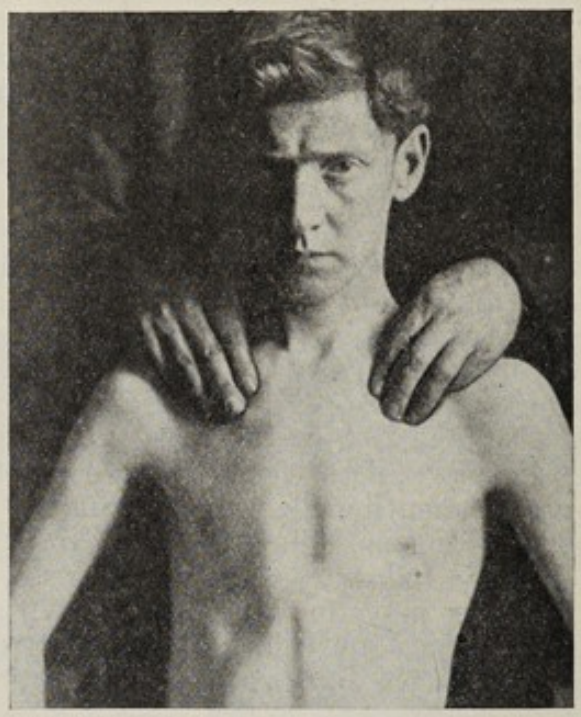


FIG. 14.—METHOD OF PALPATING APICES.

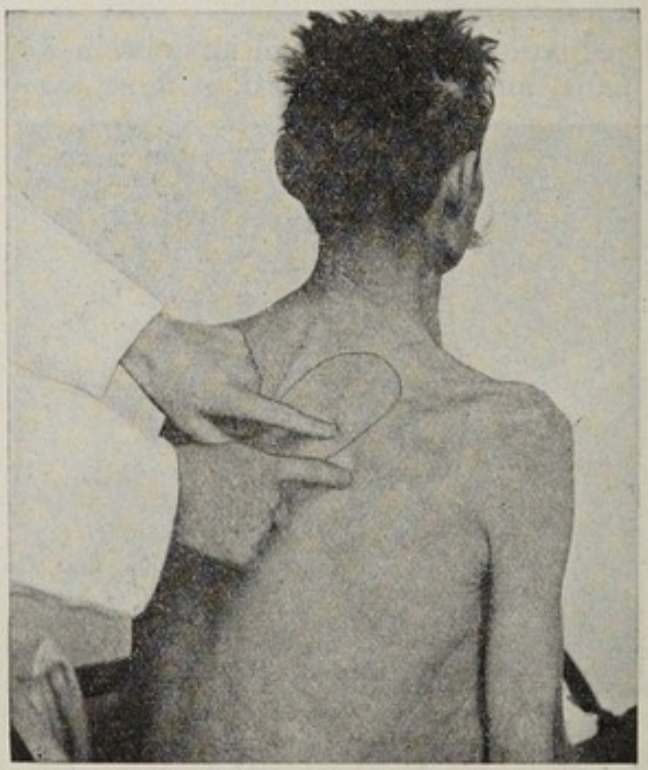


FIG.. 15.—DETERMINING THE EXACT BOUNDARY OF AN AREA OF PULMONARY CONSOLIDATION THROUGH THE DEGREE OF VOCAL TACTILE FREMITUS (Boston, N. Y. Med. Jour., Nov. 1, 1913).

The left index-finger recorded far more fremitus than did the right.

than over the left apex, and in males they are decidedly more prominent than in females. The thickness of the chest has a direct influence on

eliciting the tactile fremitus, since persons with a muscular or fatty chest-wall show an apparent diminution in the vibrations transmitted to the examining hand. Vibrations are also imperfectly transmitted in children.

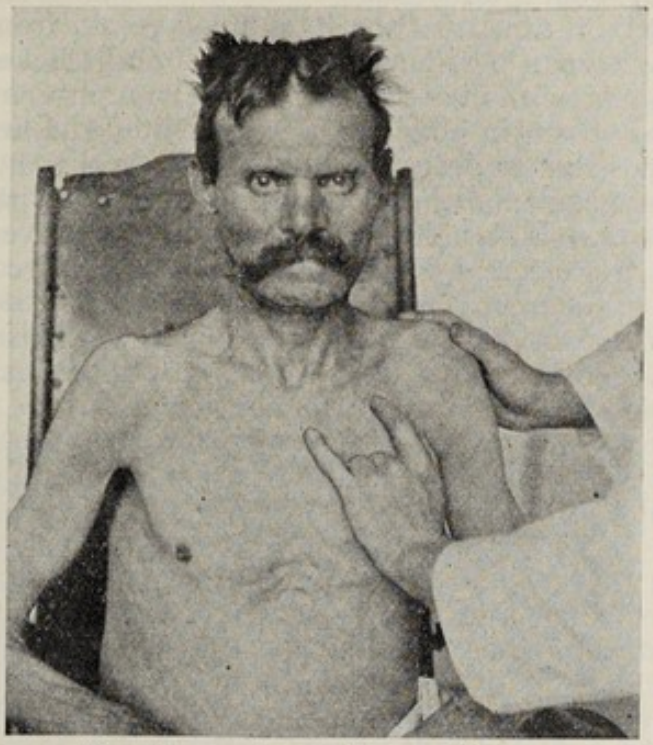


FIG. 16.—PALPATION OF TWO SMALL AREAS WHERE FREMITUS IS INCREASED (Boston, N. Y. Med. Jour., Nov. 1, 1913).

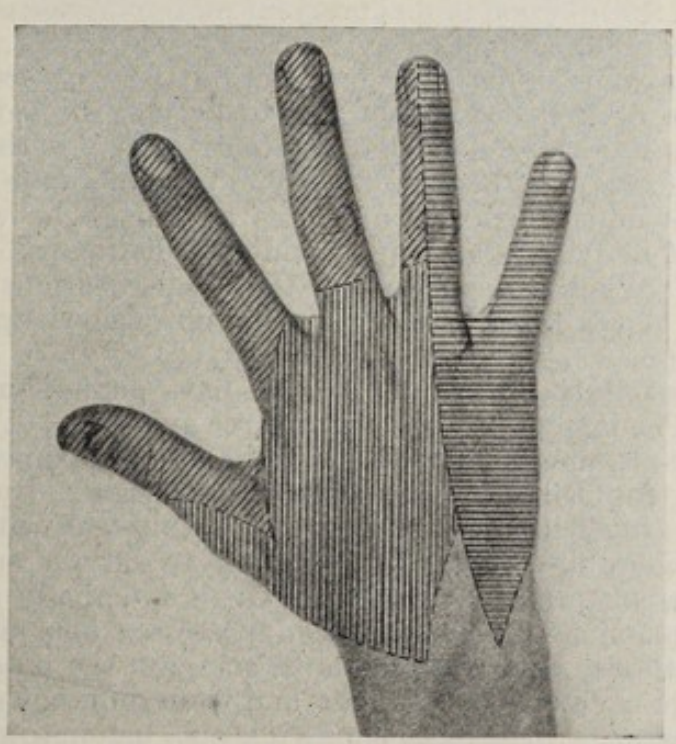


FIG. 17.—THE TRANSVERSE LINES REPRESENT THE AREAS SUPPLIED BY THE ULNAR NERVE, THE VERTICAL LINES OCCUPY THAT AREA SUPPLIED BY THE RADIAL NERVE, AND THE OBLIQUE LINES INDICATE AREAS SUPPLIED BY THE MEDIAN NERVE (Boston, N. Y. Med. Jour., Nov. 1, 1913).

Increased Tactile Fremitus.—Among the conditions that may give rise to an increase in the tactile fremitus are: (1) Lobar pneumonia;

(2) bronchopneumonia; (3) tuberculous cavity, with a dense wall; (4) tuberculous consolidation; (5) fibroid induration of the lung; (6) fibroid tuberculosis; (7) hemorrhagic infarct; (8) atelectasis, and rarely a thickened pleura and pleural adhesions.

Diminished or **absent fremitus** may result from the following pathologic conditions: (1) Pleuritic exudates and thickened pleuræ; (2) bronchopneumonia; (3) dilated bronchi; (4) emphysema; (5) asthma. Fremitus is also absent in plugging of a bronchus, and limited areas over which it is impossible to detect fremitus may overlie thoracic aneurism, tumor of the lung, pneumothorax, and enlarged bronchial glands.

Fluctuations.—Fluctuation is seldom obtained over the chest, but when present, it is of great clinical importance. The commonest cause of fluctuation is aneurism—where, through pressure, there has been an erosion of the bones of the chest, a portion of the aneurismal sac protruding beyond the bony casing (Fig. 144). In aneurismal tumor outside of the chest the opening through the bones is, as a rule, very small, the blood tumor expanding after it escapes from the chest. In rare cases fluctuation may be obtained over a large pleural effusion—a sign more common in children.

PERCUSSION

In diseases of the chest, and especially in pathologic conditions of the lung, percussion offers very valuable clinical data. This method has been practised since its introduction, by Auenbrugger, in 1761.

Percussion consists in striking or tapping portions of the body in order to elicit vibrations; from the character of these vibrations it is possible to learn the conditions existing beneath the area percussed. In order to acquire skill in this method of diagnosis far more practice is required than in any one other clinical method.

Again, it is quite impossible to describe the practice necessary to accomplish the desired end. In order to become skilled in the art of percussion it is necessary—(1) that the tactile sense of the physician be well developed; (2) that he should be able to manipulate his hands and fingers with as much dexterity and ease as though he were playing a piano; (3) that he possess an acute faculty of distinguishing the degrees of vibrations. Whenever any one of these qualifications is lacking, the physician will never be able to obtain definite knowledge through the art of percussion.

Methods of Percussion.—(1) Immediate percussion; (2) mediate percussion. The latter is divided into three subheads: (*a*) finger percussion; (*b*) finger-pleximeter percussion; (*c*) hammer-pleximeter percussion.

1. **Technic for Direct (Immediate) Percussion.**—By this method physical signs are elicited by percussing the body-wall with the finger or fingers. Considerable practice is required to obtain success by this method, but when proficiency is attained, it is equally as valuable as indirect percussion. Direct percussion possesses one great advantage over other methods, since one is able to compare the notes obtained by percussion from each side of the body and from different points over the chest and abdomen. In hospital clinics it is our custom to strip the patient and to apply this method, beginning at the abdomen and continuing upward until the clavicles are reached; the same procedure is then applied to the back. By means of these methods one is often able to detect quickly the location of disease.

2. **Mediate Percussion.**—This method consists of placing a solid body (either the finger or a wooden or metallic substance) against the

body-wall, and then striking it with the finger (Fig. 18) or with a hammer especially devised for the purpose. The medium placed against the chest-wall and between it and the object with which the stroke is made is called a pleximeter. This should be of such size and form as to fit well between the ribs. When the hammer is used to strike the pleximeter, it is called a plexor. After considerable experience the plexor can be used with satisfactory results. Some examiners obtain better results by using the finger of the opposite hand than by employing the pleximeter and plexor. By placing the finger against the body and over the area from which sounds are to be elicited we obtain additional information, since the sensation that is offered by the patient's body to the operator's finger is often of great importance, and affords the physician a double method of ascertaining data—that is, by the sense of touch and of hearing. The further technic of mediate percussion is clearly shown by the accompanying illustrations (Figs. 18, 19).

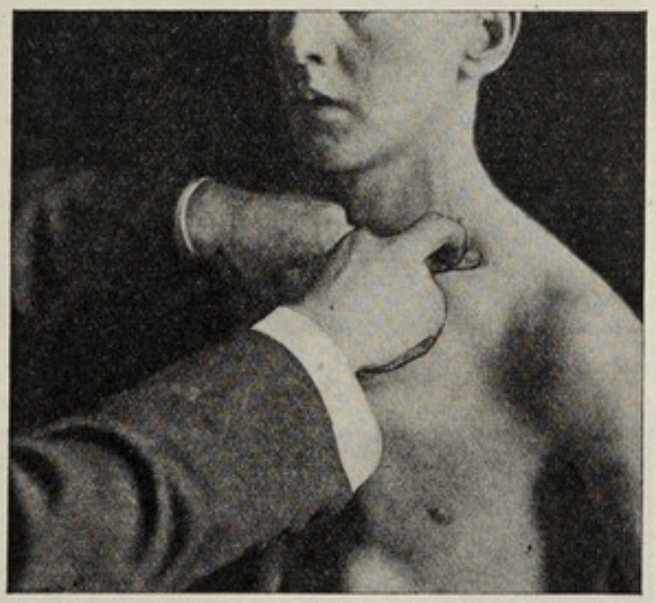


FIG. 18.—PERCUSSION OVER SUPRACLAVICULAR SPACE.

The position of the patient is an important factor in percussion. When the patient is able to stand, the examiner should insist that he stand as nearly erect as possible, and that he extend his chest to as near the normal as he can. Complete relaxation is a valuable aid in obtaining definite signs by percussion. Again, undue thickness of the chest-wall may materially interfere with this clinical observation.

In percussing the back of the chest it is well to direct the patient to fold the arms across the front of the chest, and to bend forward slightly, thus widening the space between the scapulæ (Fig. 20). The axillary region is readily exposed by directing the patient to lift both arms to near a level with his head, or to clasp his hands over his head. The patient should then direct his arms slightly backward, permitting them to hang along the posterior axillary line.

In a large proportion of cases one is compelled to percuss the chest-wall while the patient rests in bed, and it then becomes necessary to turn him from side to side. When percussing a patient in the recumbent posture, the physician must have clearly in mind the various positions the liver assumes as the result of posture. (See Diseases of Liver, p. 638.)

Analysis of Results Obtained by Percussion.—Sounds are usually distinguished by their pitch, volume, length or duration, and quality.

The pitch is higher when the vibrations are rapid, and it will be noticed that the pitch will vary greatly over different portions of the chest and over the abdomen; consequently when the sound obtained is low in pitch, the vibrations are correspondingly slow.

Volume results from the amplitude of vibrations, therefore the degree of force exerted with each stroke of the percussing finger influences directly the volume of sound produced.

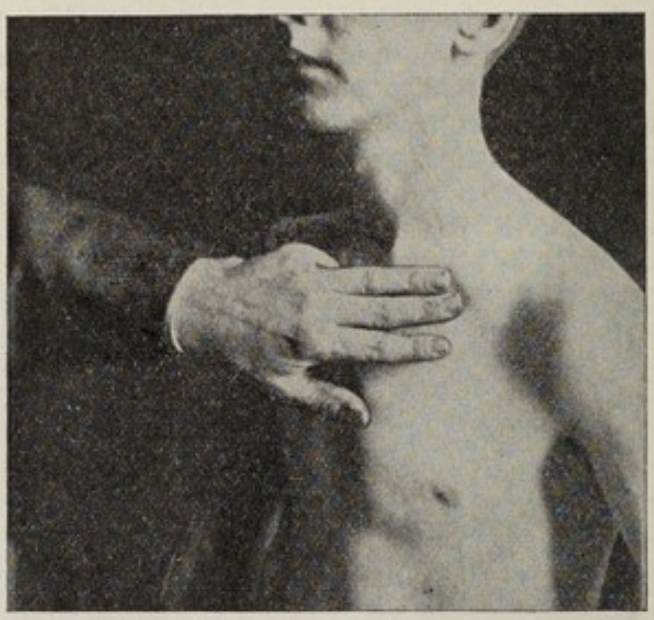


FIG. 19.—APPLICATION OF FINGERS OVER APEX OF LUNG FOR PERCUSSION.

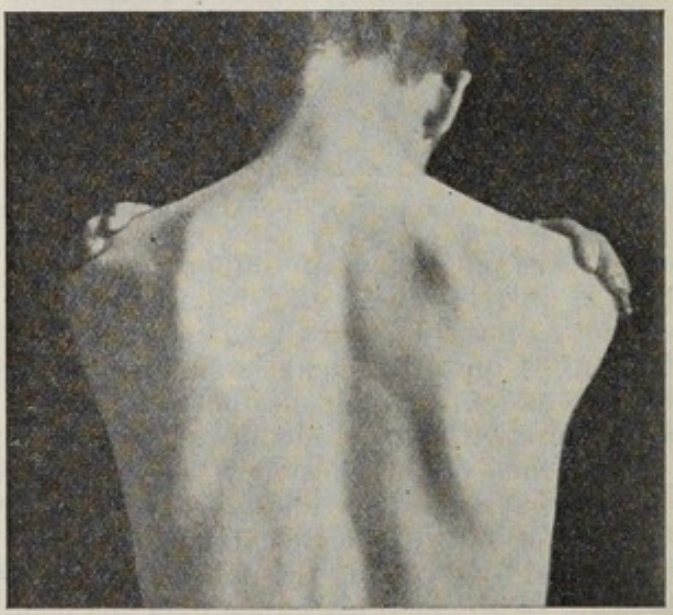


FIG. 20.—POSITION OF PATIENT FOR PERCUSSION OF BACK BETWEEN SCAPULÆ, SEPARATING THE SCAPULÆ AND THUS INCREASING INTERSCAPULAR AREA.

The accompanying illustration (Fig. 21) will serve as a diagrammatic representation of pitch.

Interpretation of Sounds.—Sounds can be correctly interpreted only after the operator has become thoroughly acquainted with the sounds to be elicited over different parts of the chest and over different organs during health. For example, it is impossible to describe with any degree of

accuracy the note of pulmonary resonance or that of gastric tympany, tympany due to distention of the colon or to that of the small bowel, and it is likewise impossible to give a clear description of the note produced by hepatic dullness.

When the ear becomes familiar with these sounds, it will readily detect any deviation from the normal, which, in the majority of instances, indicates the existence of a pathologic condition.

The sounds may vary considerably in pitch, volume, and tone during health, but such variations should never be confounded with those produced by disease. In order to detect the note of pathologic change, the examiner must first become thoroughly familiar with the sounds produced by extreme conditions during health.

Modifications in Health.—The degree of resonance is best exemplified by percussing over the upper axillary region, at the angle of the scapula and at the second rib anteriorly. At the second interspace a slightly higher pitched note is obtained on the right than upon the left side of the chest. The higher pitched percussion-note over the right than over the left apex is probably due to the larger diameter and higher position of the right bronchus. The note is again modified by the thickness and the tension of the chest-wall as the result of muscular contraction, etc. There is always a lack of clearness in tones obtained in senile individuals, whereas in children the resonance is full and clear. The examiner must be thoroughly acquainted with the various sounds elicited from different portions of the chest, bearing in mind that the note obtained over the axillary region would be pathologic if it were elicited elsewhere, and that the note obtained over the apex of the lung differs greatly from that found at the angle of the scapula. The value of the evidence elicited through percussion is dependent upon three factors: (1) The area over which a certain sound is obtained; (2) the dexterity of the operator; (3) degree of muscular tension and thickness of chest-wall.

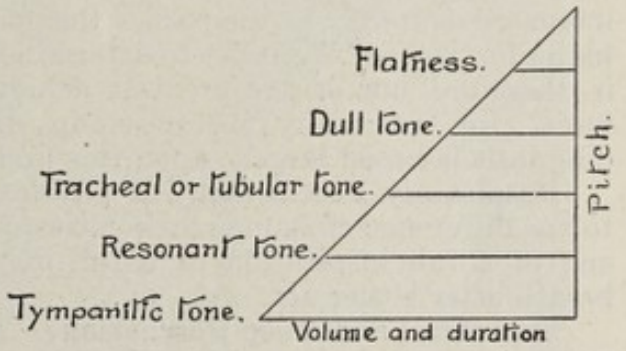


FIG. 21.—DIAGRAMMATIC REPRESENTATION OF THE CHARACTER OF SOUND.

The perpendicular line shows the pitch; the horizontal lines, the duration and volume.

Tympany.—Pure tympany is obtained over a cavity or hollow viscus with smooth walls, and that is filled with air at the time of examination. The sound elicited is one of low pitch, great volume, and long duration.

During health tympany is elicited over the area of the stomach, but it must be remembered that this sound differs slightly from tympany the result of pathologic processes in the lung, *e. g.*, a pulmonary cavity. If the hollow viscus or cavity over which tympany is produced is unusually large, the note has a peculiar metallic character, best obtained when there is free air in the pleura (pneumothorax). (See p. 169.)

Caution.—Tympany over the base of the lungs posteriorly in children under two years of age is normal.

Dullness.—This sound is obtained as the result of percussion over that portion of the heart and of the liver not covered by lung. Areas of dullness where, under normal conditions, resonance should be obtained, is of pathologic significance. The peculiar types of dullness, that is, the pitch of the dull sound obtained and its duration and tone, are more or less

intimately interwoven, so that a description here is scarcely practicable. In a word, dullness indicates that we are percussing over an organ that is practically airless, and, therefore, whenever this sign is obtained over the lung area, it signifies consolidation or an absence or diminution in the volume of air in that particular portion of the lung. Again, any deviation from the normal resonance that tends to approach the sound known as dullness shows that the volume of air in the lung occupying such area is less than that found under normal conditions.

Relative Dullness.—This type of dullness is obtained over structures that are airless, but where a portion of an air-containing viscus is interposed between the airless body and the chest-wall, *e. g.*, over that portion of the heart that is overlapped by lung tissue, relative dullnes is obtained; the same sound is obtained over the dome of the liver (Fig. 246, p. 638). Absolute dullness is outlined with great ease by any method of percussion, whereas the determination of the area of relative dullness demands increased dexterity on the part of the operator and a greater cultivation of his auditory sense. Ability to determine the exact area of relative dullness is, therefore, one of the greatest achievements known to physical diagnosis, for in many instances in diseases of the lungs a positive diagnosis is based largely upon this finding.

Respiratory Percussion.—A physical sign that is especially applied to the difference of sounds over corresponding portions of the lung at the end of a full inspiration or a full expiration, the patient holding the breath after either act.

Superficial and Deep Percussion.—These terms are used to designate the force applied to the blow given in order to elicit sounds from certain tissue. Thus, deep percussion is required to outline the relative dullness of the liver or of the heart, whereas, on the other hand, superficial percussion would be employed for outlining the areas of superficial or absolute dullness of these organs. Both superficial and deep percussion are required in an examination of the lungs, and are often of service in abdominal disease.

Auscultatory Percussion.—This physical method combines percussion with auscultation by means of the stethoscope (Fig. 22), and is by far the most practical method for the outlining of various diseased portions of the lung and for ascertaining the size of solid viscera. In determining the size of a viscus or an area of consolidation the stethoscope is placed near the supposed center of the area to be determined, and then percussion is made from distant portions of the chest toward the bell of the stethoscope, approaching the bell from all directions. Whenever the percussing finger reaches the margin of the solid body over which the stethoscope bell is placed, a change of note will be audible. It is our custom to mark upon the chest-wall the point at which the note changes in percussing toward the bell of the stethoscope. When one has percussed in this way from practically every direction, encircling the bell of the stethoscope, the sounds have been carried to the bell along the lines corresponding to the spokes of a wheel. (See also Disease of Heart, p. 184.)

By means of this method the dullness of the liver is readily distinguished from that due to pulmonary consolidation of the right base, and the distinction between the flatness of pleural effusion and the dullness due to the liver is made with equal ease. Again, when examining the left side of the chest, this method is of great importance in determining the exact area of lung consolidation, and in differentiating such consolidation from heart dullness. Auscultatory percussion has been found a valuable aid in the diagnosis of tumors of the thorax and in outlining the

heart. Lastly, better results are to be obtained through the use of auscultatory percussion by those having but limited clinical training than by any of the other methods described here.

The note obtained by auscultatory percussion over the stomach is quite characteristic, as is also that audible when this method is applied over the colon and small intestine; nevertheless auscultatory percussion should not be employed to the exclusion of ordinary percussion in determining the size and location of the hollow viscera.

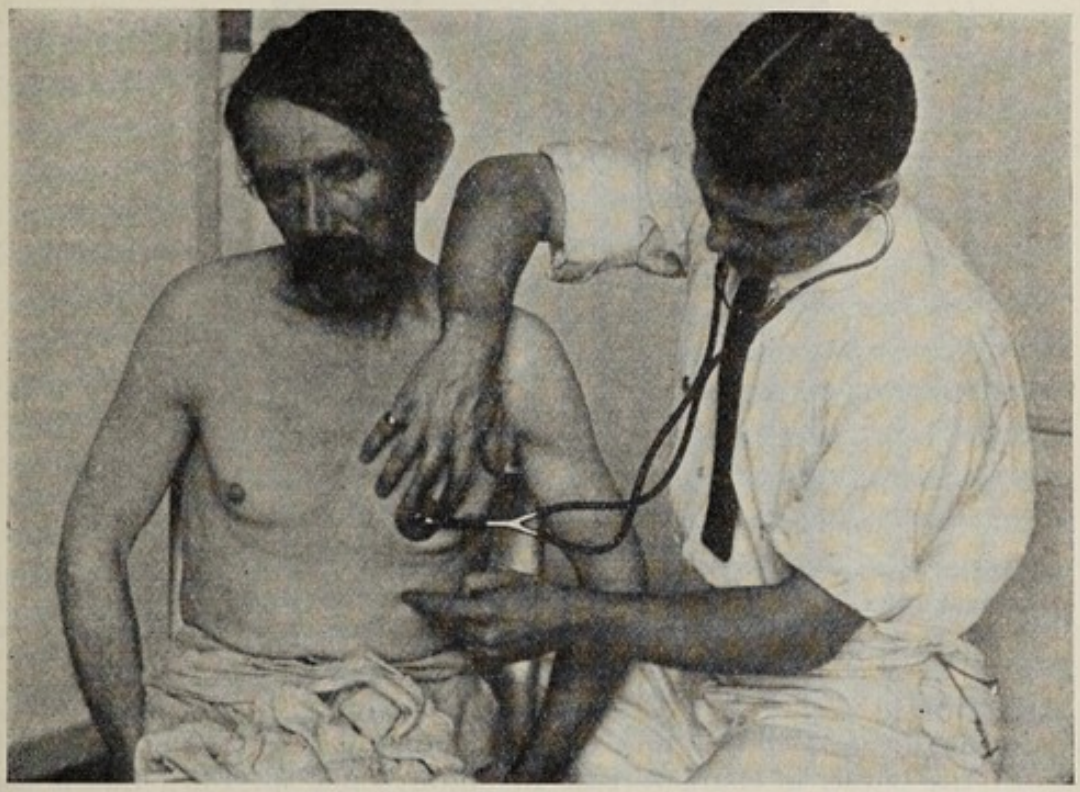


FIG. 22.—METHOD OF AUSCULTATORY PERCUSSION EMPLOYED TO OUTLINE THE HEART.

Palpatory Percussion.—This method consists in obtaining clinical evidence through two sources: (1) By an analysis of the type of sound that is produced by percussion; and (2) by an analysis of the character of sensation (resistance) offered to the finger that is placed against the chest-wall.

Alexander's method differs from the foregoing, in that a stethoscope having two diaphragms is employed. The special technique in this method is that the stethoscope is fixed firmly between the middle of the sternum and the palm of the operator's hand, one diaphragm resting against the patient's chest, the other against the hand. The fingers of the hand pressing the drum stethoscope against the sternum are placed over the apices of the lungs, and percussion is made while the hand and stethoscope are in this position, always comparing corresponding areas of the two lungs.

Through the fact that vibrations are conveyed to the stethoscope through the chest wall and also through the operator's hand, appears to make it possible for one to detect the slightest variations in change of note, and this is especially audible in changes in pitch. The stethoscope may be similarly applied over the thoracic portion of the spinal column and in the same method a correlative analysis of the notes elicited over the two lungs may be accomplished (Fig. 23).

It has been the privilege of one of us (Boston) to employ this method in the wards of the Philadelphia General Hospital, and to confirm Alexander's original claims.*

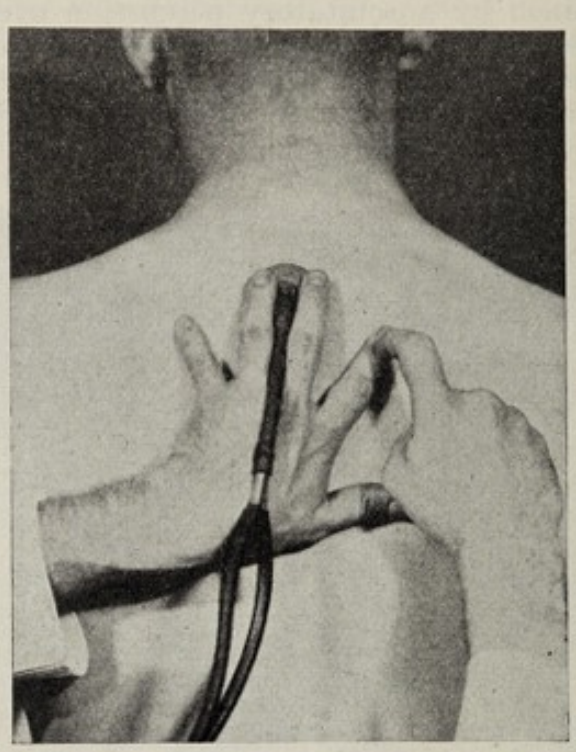


FIG. 23.—THE STETHOSCOPE MAY BE HELD AGAINST THE SPINE WHILE PERCUSSION IS MADE OVER THE CORRESPONDING AREAS OF THE LUNG. I HAVE ADOPTED THIS PORTION OF ALEXANDER'S METHOD IN ROUTINE WORK AND BELIEVE IT TO BE INDISPENSABLE.

See also Fig. 24 for a method to detect pulmonary consolidation.

Diagnostic Significance of Special Signs in Disease.—The hyperresonant note, which approximates tympany, when found over both sides of the chest, is characteristic of emphysema (p. 133), but if the tension in the lung is extremely high, the tympanitic element of the note obtained is altered, and we have, instead, a variable or modified degree of dullness (wooden tympany).

Dullness at one or both bases, from whatever cause, is usually associated with hyperresonance at the apices. Given a large pleural effusion, a skodaic note may be found in the region of the clavicle. Compensatory hyperresonance (skodaic tympany) is also found immediately surrounding areas of consolidation whenever the adjoining lung is healthy.

Dullness located at the apex of the lung deserves special consideration, since in the normal condition a variable degree of tympany—the so-called "bronchial percussion"—is present near the edge of the sternum and at the first and second interspaces. It is, therefore, necessary to percuss near the nipple-line in order to ascertain accurately the degree of hyperresonance surrounding apical consolidations. An increase in the area of cardiac dullness, when due to cardiac hypertrophy, dilatation, or the presence of pericardial fluid, may be accompanied by a hyperresonant note at the apex, in front and over the left scapular region posteriorly. This phenomenon exemplifies the important physical fact that whenever a portion of a lung is rendered incapable of functionating, either through disease of the lung itself or through intrathoracic pressure, portions of the healthy lung become emphysematous to compensate for such incapacity.

*N. Y. Med. Jour., June 30, 1917.

Tympany of the stomach has been discussed at length on p. 499. Some repetition is required, owing to the great importance that attaches itself to determining the actual boundaries of stomach tympany, which in the left anterior axillary line is a modified type of tympany at the fifth rib; when the stomach is distended, tympany may be found as high as the left fourth or even the third interspace. A localized area over which a tympanitic note is obtained signifies phthisis with cavity formation (Fig. 24), bronchiectasis (dilated bronchus), pulmonary gangrene with cavity, and pulmonary abscess with cavity. The conditions that render it easy to elicit a tympanitic note over a small cavity are: (1) A thin chest-wall; (2) a relaxed condition of the chest; (3) a cavity situated near the chest-wall; (4) a cavity communicating with the bronchus.

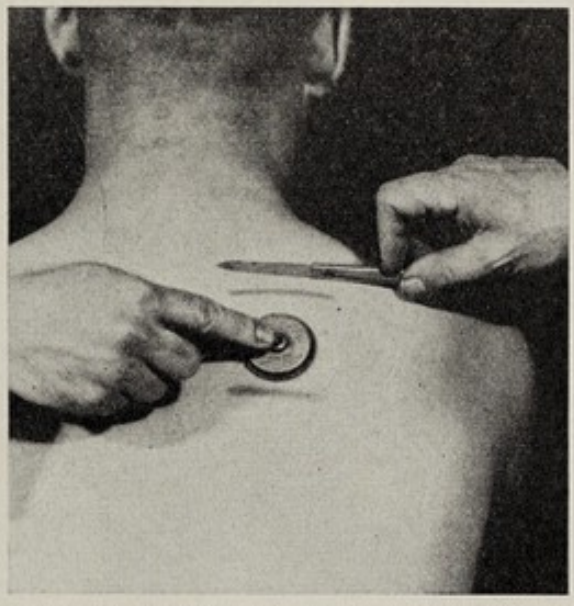


FIG. 24.—STROKING THE SKIN WHILE A STETHOSCOPE BELL IS PLACED OVER SOME PORTION OF A CONSOLIDATED AREA MAKES IT POSSIBLE TO DETERMINE THE EXACT EXTENT OF PULMONARY CONSOLIDATION AND INFILTRATION (Boston, N. Y. Med. Jr. & Rec., Sept., 1924).

Conditions exactly the reverse of those previously mentioned render it difficult to obtain tympany over a pulmonary cavity, and make forcible (deep) percussion necessary. At this point it is well to call attention to a pathologic condition that is prone to be neglected; *i. e.*, surrounding each cavity there is apt to be a thick band of consolidated lung tissue (Fig. 25), consequently upon moderate percussion dullness is obtained, whereas upon deep percussion tympany is elicited.

Amphoric resonance is the term applied to a variety of tympany to which is added a metallic quality; ordinarily it is somewhat high in pitch, but of slightly longer duration than tympany. Amphoric tympany is best obtained in pneumothorax when percussion is made over a pleura that is filled with air (p. 169). The degree of tension under which air is held in the pleura materially modifies the amphoric note obtained over such pleura; thus, when the tension is unusually high, a wooden note—the so-called "dull tympany" —is elicited. Amphoric resonance, when present over a large pulmonary cavity, indicates that such cavity rests near the ribs, has a firm wall, and that its inner surface is comparatively smooth.

Bell Tympany (Coin Percussion).—Whenever there is a suspicion of the presence of either general or localized pneumothorax, coin percus-

sion should be applied; this is accomplished in the following manner: (1) Place a coin against the chest-wall and immediately over the center of the area of tympany; (2) place the ear against the opposite surface of the chest-wall, and then tap the coin gently with another coin or with some metallic substance. (See Fig. 56.)

If there is air in the pleural cavity, an intensified metallic echoing sound is usually transmitted to the ear. Certain writers have referred to this peculiar note as bell tympany, and indeed the sound resembles that of a bell. This sound is rarely obtained over a large pulmonary cavity.

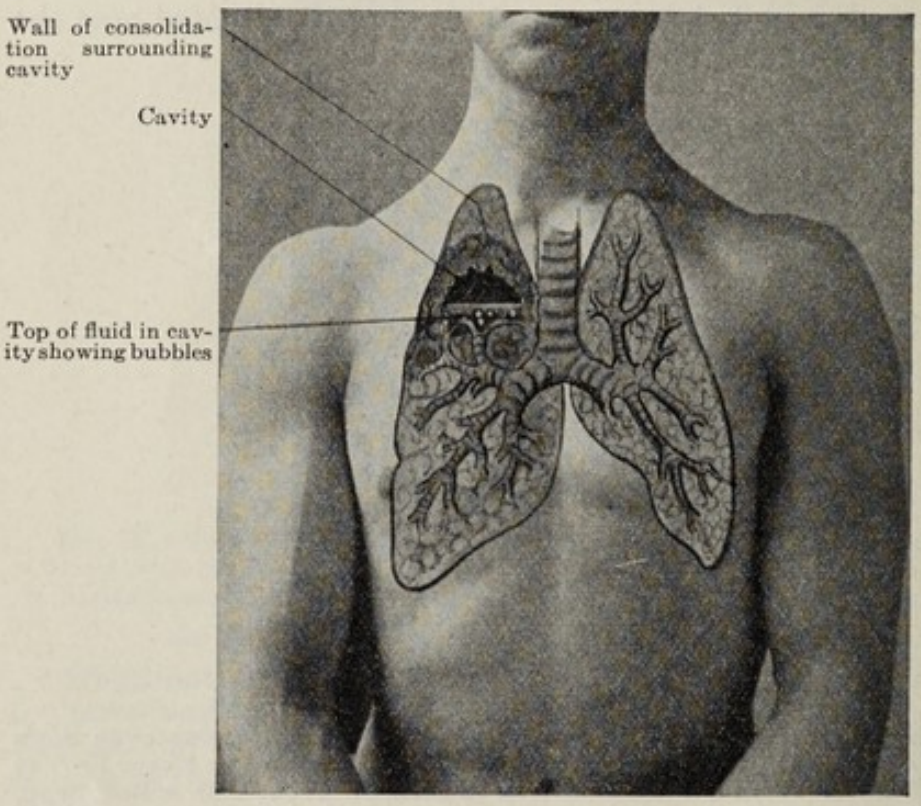


FIG. 25.—PHTHISIS WITH CAVITY FORMATION.

Cracked-pot Sound.—This is a variety of tympany to which is added a peculiar hissing and clinking sound. The clinking quality resembles that resulting from the tapping of a broken metallic vessel; hence the name, "cracked-pot sound." The hissing quality is apparently produced by air being forced through a small opening.

Caution.—In order to obtain this sound over a cavity several things are necessary: (1) The chest-wall must be relaxed and thin; (2) the cavity must rest near the surface of the lung; (3) it must be large and its wall thin; (4) the cavity must communicate with a bronchus; (5) the patient's mouth must be open; (6) the percussion strokes must be firm, but slow, giving the listener ample time to analyze each note produced. Percussion must be made during the act of expiration. Lastly, the sound is absent when a cavity is filled with liquid to a level above the communication with the bronchus (Fig. 25).

Peculiarities.—Theoretically, the cracked-pot sound should be elicited whenever the conditions just described are present, and, indeed, under such conditions this sound is obtained in the vast majority of cases. A peculiarity of this variety of tympany is that it is obtained over the chest of infants during health, and is invariably present when the child is

crying. Occasionally, the cracked-pot sound is obtained over the chest of apparently healthy adults. A localized pneumothorax may communicate through the lung with a bronchus, and the cracked-pot sound may be one of its clinical manifestations. An extremely rare condition to find is a localized pneumothorax with an opening through the chest-wall. It is asserted by some that this variety of tympany may be elicited over that portion of the lung pushed well toward the apex of the chest as the result of a pleural effusion (p. 148), and that massive pneumonia may produce the same phenomenon.

Wintrich's Sign.—Here, percussion enables us to determine whether or not a cavity communicates with a large bronchus, in which case the percussion-note becomes louder and is raised in pitch when the patient opens his mouth, elevates his chin, and protrudes his tongue. *This sign is obtained at the end of inspiration, therefore the patient must inspire lightly and continue to do so until the percussion stroke is made.* By directing the patient to inspire deeply and then to hold his breath, as is at times recommended, a louder sound is produced, but, according to H. S. Anders, this destroys much of the characteristic element of the sign.

Exception.—If the cavity in the lung is filled with fluid to above a level of its communication with the bronchus, Wintrich's sign would be absent, but by changing the position of the patient the air in the vomica would communicate directly with the bronchus, when Wintrich's sign would be present—the so-called "interrupted Wintrich's phenomenon."

Percussion over the trachea and over a dilated bronchus causes a similar note under these conditions. Wintrich's note may also be obtained by percussing over a pleura distended by air, provided there is a large opening from the bronchus to the pleural sac. To obtain Wintrich's sign percussion is first practised, directing the patient to hold the mouth open and to protrude the tongue; later he is directed to close the mouth and lips tightly, and in this manner the operator obtains the greater variation in sound. In pleural effusion, where there is decided skodiac tympany above the liquid, a sound may be obtained by firm percussion that simulates closely Wintrich's phenomenon. In robust individuals Wintrich's note may follow firm percussion over the upper portion of the sternum. This sign is occasionally found in the presence of mediastinal tumors, owing to the fact that such growths occupy all the space between the surface of the sternum and the bronchi.

Friedreich's Sign.—Friedreich has called attention to a peculiar change in the degree of tympany when cavity in the lung is present; this observer noticed that when the cavity communicated directly with the bronchus, the pitch of the note obtained was higher during and at the end of inspiration than during expiration. This sign may be of some value, but its presence is never necessary in order to determine the character of the lung condition, nor is it equally reliable with cracked-pot sound.

Gerhardt's Sign.—This phenomenon consists in a change in the pitch of the percussion sound obtained over a cavity with change in the position of the patient. Gerhardt's sign is obtained over a cavity in which one diameter is greater than the other, the cavity being partially filled with fluid. The change in the pitch of the percussion-note depends upon the alteration in shape of the air-containing portion of the cavity, as the result of change of position of fluid, and the lowest pitch is observed when the long diameter of the cavity is in the horizontal.

Biermer observed that the same phenomenal conditions observed by Gerhardt in pulmonary cavity were also present in pyopneumothorax.

AUSCULTATION

Definition.—The method of listening to various sounds produced within the human body in health and during disease. Chief among the organs giving off these sounds are the heart, the lungs, the trachea, the gastro-intestinal tract, and the impregnated uterus. Abnormal sounds may be produced over any portion of the circulatory system as the result of pathologic changes.

As in percussion, so in auscultation, there are two methods of examination—the immediate and the mediate.

Methods.—In **immediate auscultation** the ear is placed directly against the wall of the patient's body, or separated merely by a thin towel. **Mediate auscultation** is a method in which an appliance, *e. g.*, the stethoscope, is used as an aid in conveying sounds to the ear. In examining the lung immediate auscultation is far more satisfactory than the mediate method, although the latter may be of value in certain special localized conditions. In examining the heart the mediate method should be applied, since the stethoscope enables one to recognize sounds and to outline their points of greatest intensity, as well as their areas of transmission with ease.

Advantages of Immediate (Direct) Auscultation.—Among these, special mention should be given of the following: (1) It is a ready method of making a rapid survey of the chest, as is often necessary in those who are extremely ill, who are unable to sit for any length of time, and who must be examined quickly, and while they are in the recumbent posture. (2) The value of the true respiratory sounds is better appreciated. (3) Slight alterations in sound are more likely to be detected. (4) When the ear is applied directly to the chest, the bruit of aneurism is more readily distinguished from the sounds of the heart. (5) Tactile sensations, conveyed to the examiner's ear when it is applied against the chest-wall, enable him to form a clear idea of the character of the chest movements. (6) The actual harshness of friction murmurs and voice vibrations are best appreciated when the ear is applied directly to the chest. (7) The exact time of action of the chest muscles is also appreciated, and this information is of great clinical value in acute fibrinous pleurisy.

Advantages of Indirect Auscultation.—Chief among these are: (1) It enables the listener to localize the point of greatest intensity of the sounds to be analyzed. (2) A given sound may be followed over its various lines of distribution. (3) Pressure with the stethoscope over the thorax may cause certain sounds to disappear, whereas others are in this way intensified—a feature of some diagnostic importance. (4) It is possible to place the stethoscope over certain areas where it would be impracticable to employ the immediate method. (5) It is easier to obtain a knowledge of the condition of the lung in those patients who are too ill to sit while being examined. (6) It obviates direct contact with those suffering from contagious maladies. (7) In clinic and hospital work the operator may remain at a distance from his patient. (8) External sounds are excluded. (9) When combined with percussion, it serves as an excellent method for outlining viscera, areas of consolidation, tumors, etc. (See Auscultatory Percussion, pp. 60, 63; also Figs. 22, 23 and 24.)

Stethoscopic Auscultation.—While this is the most practical method for studying the condition of the heart, its field of usefulness is otherwise limited. The stethoscope does not give reliable results in examination of the lungs of children, and even in neurasthenic women. It is essential that the physician be thoroughly skilled in both the immedi-

ate and the mediate methods, and he must not use one method to the exclusion of the other.

Technic.—It is preferable that the patient sit upright during the examination. While auscultating the front of the chest, the arms should hang carelessly by the side. When auscultating behind, the patient should fold the arms and lean slightly forward (Fig. 20). Both sides should have the same freedom of movement, which is attained only when the patient is sitting or standing.

It is necessary to listen over the lungs during forced inspiration, forced expiration, and to keep the ear in contact with the chest between these acts. Whenever possible, the chest should be bared, and a thin, unstarched towel placed between the examiner's ear and the chest-wall. In those cases in which it is not practical to remove all clothing, fairly good results may be obtained by auscultating through a thin unstarched garment. The room in which the examination is being made should, of course, be quiet. The best results are to be obtained by directing the patient how to inhale, speak, cough, clear the throat, and to whisper during this portion of a physical examination.



Fig. 26.—Method of Holding Child to Percuss and Auscultate Chest.

Transdigital Auscultation.—This method was suggested by Dr. David Riesman, and has the special advantage of enabling one to study the impulse of the heart and the murmur simultaneously.

Technic.—(1) Place the tip of the index finger immediately over the apex, and at right angles to the chest wall.

(2) Flex the finger at the second phalanx.

(3) Rest the diaphragm of the stethoscope on the horizontal phalanx of the flexed finger. Cardiac murmurs are readily heard through the finger: Palpation and auscultation are accomplished over a given limited area. It is easy to determine whether the murmur is synchronous with the lifting impulse to the finger (systolic): before the lifting (presystolic): or after it (diastolic).

Transdigital auscultation is of value in timing cardiac, pericardial and arterial murmurs.

Normal Breath-sounds.—Under normal conditions there are three distinct sounds to be heard over specified areas of the chest, and if the student is thoroughly skilled in the recognition of these sounds, he will be able to detect disease of the lung or of its coverings whenever such sounds are heard over areas where they are not audible during health.

Bronchial Breathing.—This is a type of respiration heard normally over the trachea (Fig. 27), but pathologic whenever heard over the substance of the lung. By placing the stethoscope over the trachea immediately above the suprasternal notch, two distinct sounds are heard:

(1) The one during inspiration; and (2) the one during expiration. These sounds are separated by a pause which is observed immediately before the end of inspiration. The sounds of both inspiration and expiration are practically of the same length, and the quality is harsh, blowing, or, as is often stated, tubular. The sound of bronchial breathing is loud and high pitched, although this may vary somewhat between inspiration and expiration. The sound during both acts, however, shows an elevation of pitch and increased intensity. The areas over which bronchial breathing is to be found during health are shown in the accompanying illustrations (Figs. 27 and 28)

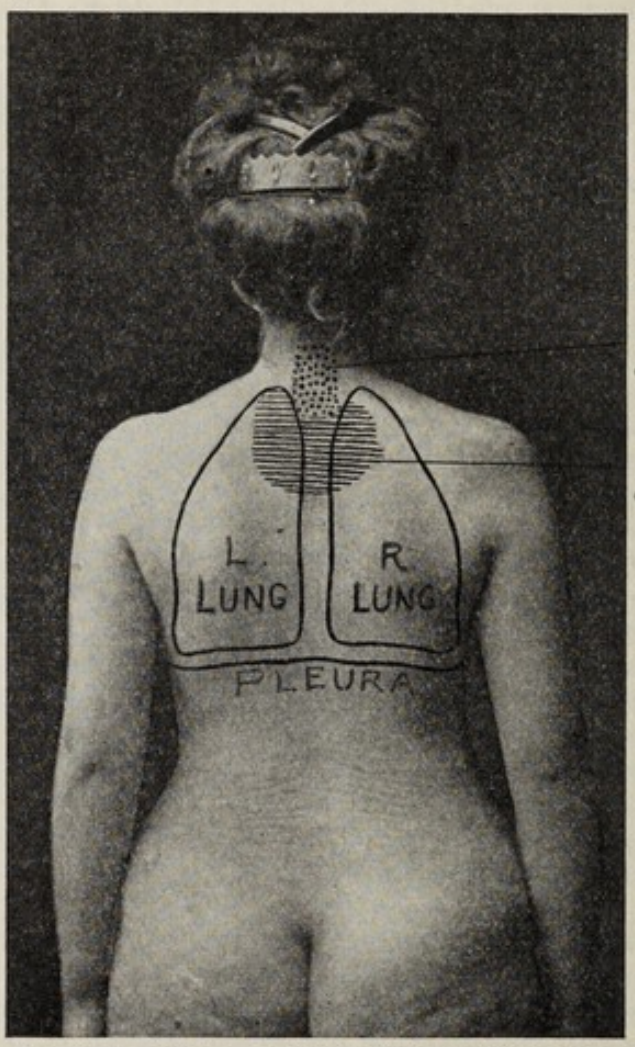


FIG. 27.—AREA ON POSTERIOR WALL OF CHEST, WHERE BRONCHOVESICULAR BREATHING IS NORMALLY PRESENT.

Bronchovesicular Breathing.—This breath-sound represents an imperfect type of bronchial breathing, as well as an exaggerated type of vesicular breathing. It is often referred to as a mixed type of breath-sound, since it displays definitely a certain amount of bronchial element, as well as an imperfect vesicular respiratory murmur. Bronchovesicular breathing is heard over a portion of the sternum, along the thoracic vertebræ, and over certain other areas of the chest, as is shown in the illustrations (Figs. 27, 28, 29 and 30). This type of breathing requires no description, for it may be obtained by auscultating the normal chest. Attention is, however, called to the fact that bronchovesicular breath-sounds are normal over the back of the chest as high as the vertebra prominens, and even to the third and fourth thoracic vertebræ. Owing to the anatomic

formation of the right bronchus, this breath-sound is heard for some distance to the right of the spinal column.

Vesicular Breathing.—This is made up of a variety of breath-sounds heard over those portions of the lungs situated away from the areas over which bronchial and bronchovesicular breathing are normally present. Vesicular breathing has been described as resembling the sound produced by a soft breeze or as slightly sighing currents of air; by some it has been compared to the gentle rustling of the leaves of a tree by the wind. It is impossible to give a correct description of this sound, but a thorough acquaintance with it should be had by every student of medicine. A characteristic feature of vesicular breathing is the peculiar, breezy nature of



FIG. 28.—BRONCHIAL AND BRONCHOVESICULAR BREATHING DURING HEALTH.

the sound, which is practically continuous; in other words, it is heard during the whole of inspiration, and is immediately followed by the shorter sound caused by expiration. Vesicular breathing is modified by directing the patient to inspire deeply or to hold his breath.

During the act of inspiration the sound is moderately intense, but of low pitch, and is relatively three times as long as the expiratory murmur. During expiration the sound may not be audible or it may be present during but a portion of the act; it is less intense and of somewhat lower pitch, although during this act there is added a slight blowing quality—merely a soft puff of air.

As has elsewhere been stated, the chest movements of inspiration and expiration are to one another in time of duration as five is to six, although the sounds of vesicular respiration bear a ratio of three to one or four to one.

Variations in Vesicular Breathing.—It is important that the variations in vesicular breathing capable of being excited through normal conditions be thoroughly understood.

Age.—Up until the twelfth year the vesicular quality that characterizes vesicular breathing (in the adult) is markedly exaggerated, and the breath-sounds are harsher and louder than after puberty. At the other extreme of life, old age, the vesicular quality while it retains this harsh sound is much more feeble than it is during early adult and middle life.



FIG. 29.—AUSCULTATION OF AXILLA FOR BRONCHOVESICULAR BREATHING.

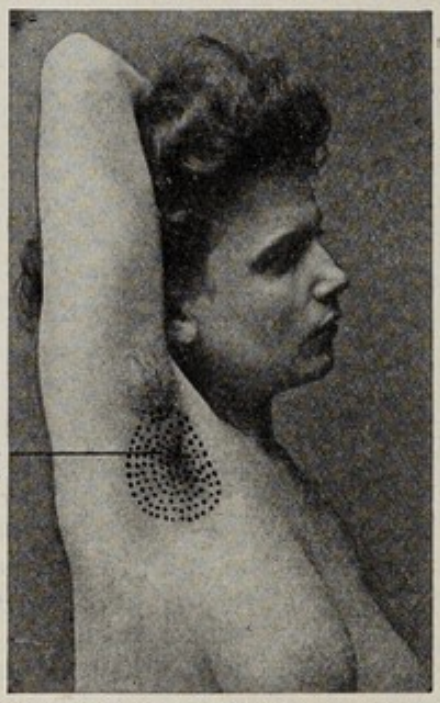


FIG. 30.—AUSCULTATION OF AXILLA FOR BRONCHOVESICULAR BREATHING.

This condition is believed to depend upon a loss or weakening of the elasticity of the lung. Inspiration appears to be shorter, whereas expiration is slightly prolonged.

Sex.—The respiratory murmur is appreciably louder in the female than in the male. Auscultating over the upper and anterior portion of the chest, the breath-sounds are much increased in intensity in women.

Certain anatomic conditions may, in selected cases, account for the softness of the respiratory murmurs in males—*e. g.*, the thickness of the chest-wall, firmness of the tissues, etc.

Regions Where Increased Sounds Are Heard.—During health the breath-sounds are slightly more distinct and louder upon the right side, and this feature is most pronounced in the infraclavicular region. The thickness of the chest-wall influences the degree of sound conveyed to the listening ear, consequently the sounds are clearer anteriorly and in the axillary and infraclavicular regions than they are over the mammary and scapular regions. These variations in the intensity of the breath-sounds may be found in doubtful pathologic pulmonary conditions.

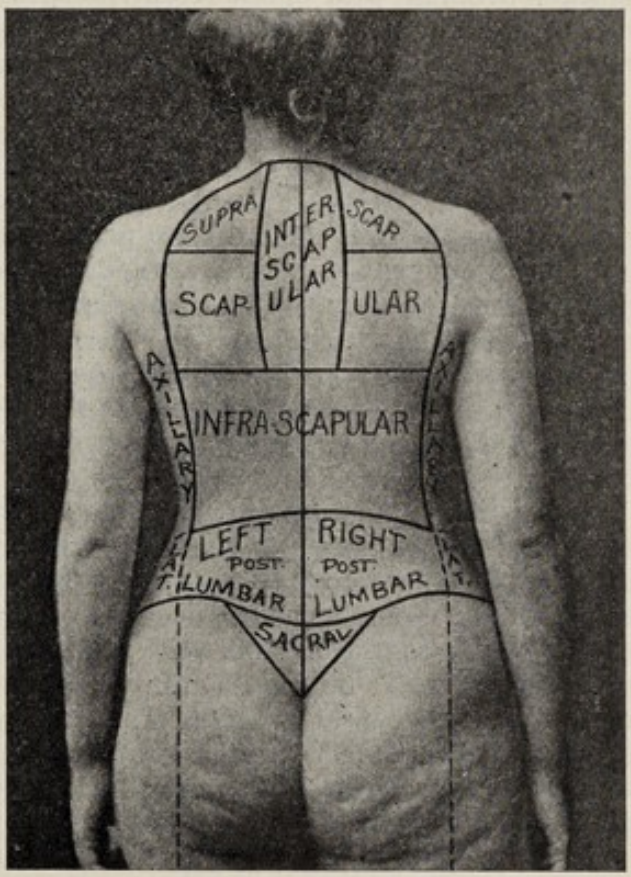


Fig. 31.—Arbitrary Division of the Back.

The appreciable weakness and almost absence of the vesicular murmur may also be physiologic when auscultating over thickened portions of the chest-wall, etc., for example, over heavy muscles, in obesity, in massiveness of the chest-wall.

Jerky (Cog-wheel) Respiration.—The so-called jerky or cog-wheel respiration is generally conceded to be an early sign of tuberculosis, but this peculiar interruption in the respiratory murmur is also an occasional feature during health. Jerky respiration when present is best seen in those who breathe slowly, and this type of respiration is, as a rule, better brought out by directing the patient to inspire deeply. This type of breath-sound is common in children while fretting and when crying, and in hysteric women. Physiologic irregularity in the respiratory murmur is audible over all portions of the lung, whereas irregularity due to incipient tuberculosis is heard only over isolated areas.

Systolic (Cardiac) Vesicular Breathing.—This respiratory murmur is characterized by a rhythmic exaggeration that is more or less jerky in character, and apparently influenced by the action of the heart. This peculiarity in the vesicular murmur is audible while the lung is expanding, and is limited to those portions of the lung overlapping the heart. The vesicular murmur gradually increases until the end of inspiration, after which there is an appreciable pause.

RÂLES (Rhonchi; Rattles)

Râles are adventitious sounds heard over the lungs. They have received various classifications, and Page distinguished three great classes: (1) The dry; (2) the moist, and (3) indeterminate forms.

Dry Râles.—Of the several varieties of dry râles, the following are the ones that must be recognized for diagnostic purposes: (*a*) Sibilant and (*b*) sonorous.

Sibilant Râles.—These are high pitched and whistling in character, occurring with inspiration or with expiration, and may be present during both acts. The sibilant râle may be produced in the larynx or in the trachea, provided the caliber of either is sufficiently narrowed, and the same physical condition serves to explain the production of the sibilant râle in the larger bronchi. They are most commonly produced in the smaller bronchi, and result from the same mechanic conditions that give rise to coarse râles or from swelling of the mucous membrane. Sibilant râles are audible during the dry stage of acute bronchitis and in asthma.

Sonorous Râles.—These are loud, low-pitched, dry râles, that accompany inspiration or expiration, and may even be heard during both acts. Ordinarily, the sonorous râle is produced in the larynx, the trachea, or the larger bronchi. Sonorous râles are produced in the larynx as the result of spasm of the glottis, hence they are a conspicuous sign in croup, whooping-cough, thoracic aneurism, mediastinal tumor, conditions that exert undue pressure upon the recurrent laryngeal nerve. A sonorous râle may originate in the trachea if this tube is either partially closed, from the pressure of external tumors and growths, or if its lumen is diminished as the result of new-growths upon its mucous surface. Inflammatory and edematous as well as cicatricial changes may also cause narrowing of the trachea.

Râles originating in the trachea are audible by the aid of the stethoscope over all portions of the lung, but are most distinctly heard nearest the site of their production. The sonorous râle may also be produced in the larger bronchi as the result of narrowing of the lumen of such pulmonary tubules, regardless of whether the condition results from external pressure, chronic inflammation, edema or spasm of the lining mucous membrane, and, indeed, the accumulation of thick, tenacious mucus may produce such râles within the bronchi. Sonorous râles are, as a rule, temporary, often disappearing after the patient coughs or clears his throat a clinical evidence that suggests that they are possibly due to a varying spasmodic condition and to vibrating mucus that is dislodged by the act of coughing. Should the condition that favors the production of the sonorous râle be a permanent one, but few râles may be audible. During bronchitis the sonorous râle may accompany the sibilant variety.

Moist Râles.—These may be produced in the larynx, trachea, a pulmonary cavity, the bronchi, and in the air-cells. The moist râles that occur in the bronchi as the result of lowered vitality are an example of this particular type, and the sound thus produced is what is commonly known as the death-rattle. Most râles are also heard over the entire surface of the chest in certain pulmonary conditions, but, as in the case of dry râles, it is possible to locate the area of their production by means of the stethoscope. In all instances where any type of râles is audible over the chest it is advisable to direct the patient to clear his throat or to cough, for in this way it may be possible to prevent temporarily the production of moist râles in the larynx and trachea.

Subvarieties of Moist Râles.—Certain subvarieties of the moist râle are at times audible over the bronchi. For diagnostic purposes these have been divided into three subclasses: (1) Mucous; (2) submucous; and (3) subcrepitant.

Mucous Râles.—The mucous râle is a rather large, moist, bubbling sound, produced in the larger bronchi, and audible during the act of inspira-

tion and of expiration. Mucous râles are materially modified by the act of coughing, and especially is this true when cough is accompanied by free expectoration. Fluid of whatever nature, when it accumulates in the larger bronchi, is likely to give rise to mucous râles; hence when a purulent, mucous, or bloody exudate exists upon the bronchial mucous membrane, such râles are present. Mucous râles frequently disappear after coughing, but may also be produced through the very act of coughing or clearing the throat. These râles may be heard over localized areas of the lung, or, as is more commonly the case, they are audible over the greater portion of both lungs.

Submucous Râles.—These are moist, bubbling râles, apparently smaller than mucous râles. They are probably produced in the medium-sized bronchi. Like mucous râles, they are heard during the respiratory acts, and are influenced by cough, expectoration, etc.

Subcrepitant (Mucocrepitant) Râles.—This variety represents the finest of the moist râles, and has its origin in the smaller bronchial tubes. This type of râle is heard chiefly on inspiration, and is not so readily influenced by coughing and clearing of the throat as are either mucous or submucous râles. This type of râle is probably caused by the inspired air forcibly separating the agglutinated walls of the finer ramifications of the lungs. In bronchopneumonia (capillary bronchitis) the subcrepitant râle is likely to be audible over the lower portion of both lungs posteriorly; it may also be a symptom of pulmonary edema, and is not infrequently detected during the stage of resolution in lobar pneumonia. The subcrepitant râle (crepitus redux) may be present in pulmonary hemorrhage, where the blood has escaped into the lung tubules, and in a similar manner pus may give rise to the subcrepitant râle. During the early stage of phthisis this variety of râle may be elicited immediately over the area of congestion, and although it is heard at other stages of the disease, when so heard it possesses less clinical significance.

Crepitant Râles.—These are produced in the air-cells, and are the only vesicular râles audible. They are characterized by an unusually fine, uniform, crackling sound, heard just at the end of inspiration. Another characteristic of the crepitant râle is that it is not influenced by coughing.

The crepitant râle is heard during the stage of congestion in croupous pneumonia. The crepitant râle may possibly have escaped notice during the first stage of pneumonia. It is absent during the second stage, while the air-cells are obliterated or filled with exudate. The râle heard in the third stage and known as the redux râle is in reality a subcrepitant râle.

Mucous Click.—This is a single, fine, high-pitched, moist, clicking sound, heard over both lungs, and but slightly, if at all, altered by coughing. The time of its appearance varies somewhat, but it is usually heard during or near the end of inspiration. The mucous click is quite commonly detected during the course of pulmonary tuberculosis, and over areas where there is incomplete consolidation.

Gurgles.—These are exceptionally large, moist, bubbling râles, probably originating in a pulmonary cavity or in an expanded bronchus that is partially filled with fluid. They vary greatly in size, and are both high and low in pitch, depending upon the size of the cavity and upon the degree of consolidated tissue surrounding it. Gurgles are heard during both inspiration and expiration, but since inspired air enters the cavity with more force than is present during expiration, the sounds are louder during the inspiratory act.

Intrapleural Moist Râles (Friction Murmurs).—The pleuritic friction-sounds at times simulate closely those described as moist, bronchial, and

vesicular râles, and some writers suggest that both the subcrepitant and the crepitant râles are intrapleural in origin. In selected cases the intrapleural murmur resembles both the mucous and the submucous râles, and it was suggested by the late J. M. Da Costa that the human ear could not always determine the origin of such râles. The following features, however, are characteristic of pleural râles: They are always localized, are audible over but one lung, are unaltered by coughing, unattended with expectoration, and strike the ear as being distinctly superficial.

"Intrapleural moist râles do not require actual inflammation of the pleuræ for their production." Alterations in the nature of a pleural exudate doubtless contribute toward the production of râles simulating other types previously described. (See also Pleural Friction-sound, below.)

Indeterminate Râle.—Under this head should be considered all other râles not included in the foregoing classification, and, generally speaking, they may be said to consist of crackling, grumbling, bubbling, and splashing sounds, that appear at first to be in part moist, partially dry, and heard during the acts both of inspiration and of expiration. These indeterminate râles are extremely frequent during the later stages of pulmonary tuberculosis, and are also a more common symptom in complicated lobar pneumonia, pulmonary abscess, and pulmonary gangrene

Friction-sounds.—These are induced through pleuritic inflammation, and their significance was described by Honoré as early as 1819. The physiologic action of the pleuræ consists in a gentle gliding of the two layers, which is dependent in part upon lubrication of the pleuræ by a serous secretion. The pleural friction-sound is heard when inflammatory or other changes of sufficient gravity have taken place in the pleuræ, and have either roughened its surface or altered the character of the fluid which lubricates these surfaces; as a consequence, during the acts of respiration the dry, roughened surface gives rise to a rubbing, more or less grating, and crackling sound.

Pleural friction murmurs are heard distinctly during inspiration, and it is possible for several friction-sounds of varying duration to be present, which gives the impression to the listener's ear that the sound is interrupted. The pleural friction murmur is characteristic of the early stage of acute pleurisy, disappears during the stage of exudate, and frequently reappears following absorption or removal of the exudate by artificial means. In selected cases of acute pleurisy the diagnosis of a friction murmur is further substantiated by the detection of a friction fremitus by palpating over the area of greatest intensity of sound.

Splashing Sound (Succussion Splash).—The method by which such sounds are produced is termed succussion, and consists in shaking the patient while the ear is kept in direct contact with the chest-wall or the abdominal wall. (See Fig. 57.) The succussion sound may also be utilized in the diagnosis of diseases of the stomach (dilatation) and in intestinal obstruction. It is practically always possible to elicit a splashing sound in the case of pyopneumothorax and of hydropneumothorax. This sound is said by some observers to be audible over a large pulmonary cavity. The splashing sound, when heard over the upper portion of the chest, is pathognomonic of either pyopneumothorax or pneumopericardium, the serous sacs involved containing a variable quantity of fluid. Cases have repeatedly been seen in which a distinct splashing sound was audible over the base of the chest in those suffering from subdiaphragmatic abscess (p. 174). A splashing sound present over

the base of the chest, and particularly over the area of the stomach, is somewhat common in the negro. Succussion splash is a common sign in pneumothorax and in dilatation of the stomach, and it may rarely be encountered in connection with other conditions. The following table will set forth the possible causes of this sign when the sound is produced within the layers of the diaphragm or within the thorax:

1. Hydropneumothorax.
2. Pyopneumothorax.
3. Hemopneumothorax.
4. Subdiaphragmatic abscess, infected by the Bacillus coli communis.
5. Pyopneumopericardium.
6. Large pulmonary cavity.
7. Pleural effusion, infected by Bacillus coli communis.
8. Gastric ulcer (perforating the diaphragm and pleura).
9. Duodenal ulcer (perforating the diaphragm and pleura).
10. Hepatic abscess (perforating the diaphragm and pleura).
11. Cancer of the esophagus (perforating the pleura).
12. Traumatism with perforation of the pleura.
13. Diaphragmatic hernia.
14. Infection of pleura by Bacillus aërogenes capsulatus.

Metallic (Amphoric) Tinkle.—A peculiar tinkling sound displaying an initial amphoric quality, and heard over large cavities having a smooth inner surface. The following serves to explain this sound in a pulmonary cavity: Given a cavity of fair size with smooth walls, partially filled with liquid, and where the bronchus communicating with such cavity opens beneath the surface of the liquid: air entering from the bronchus when passing through the liquid produces an explosion or bubble, which, owing to the smooth cavity wall, is transmitted to the ear as a metallic tinkle. This sound is also believed to be produced by vibrations of viscid and semi-liquid substances contained within a cavity. The metallic tinkle is heard oftenest during inspiration, and may be produced by forced inspiration, speaking, coughing, and laughing. It is also heard in pyopneumothorax (see p. 169), in which conditions it is frequently heard following the succussion splash which is produced by shaking the patient. (See p. 174.)

Grunt.—The act of expiration may be accompanied by a distinct grunting sound, which in well-marked cases may be audible at some distance from the patient's chest, although it is usually elicited by placing the ear over the affected side. This sound is fairly characteristic of the stage of consolidation in lobar pneumonia.

Egophony.—Egophony is a variety of vocal resonance in which the sounds resemble the bleating of a goat. It is heard usually when there is a thin layer of fluid between the lung and the chest-wall. The most common seat of its production is at the angle of the scapula in cases of pleural effusion. It is also heard over superficial areas of collapse of the lung, and occasionally in cases of croupous pneumonia.

Compensatory Emphysema.—Whenever a portion of the once healthy lung has become incapacitated from any cause, its fellow and remaining healthy portions of the same lung are forced to do extra work. In auscultating over portions of compensating lung the vesicular element is exaggerated, and the sound obtained closely resembles that characteristic of the respiratory murmur of children. When the compensating lung is in close proximity with a bronchus, the breathing is slightly more exaggerated, and is referred to as puerile respiration. This murmur, however, is usually detected over areas where bronchovesicular breathing is normally present.

Voice Sounds in Health.—By applying the ear or the stethoscope to the chest of a patient and directing him to turn his face away from the

examiner and to speak in an ordinary tone of voice, counting one, two, three, a breezy noise is heard, but articular sound is absent. This sound is obtained over areas where only vesicular breathing is heard. Voice-sounds in health are influenced, first, by the character of the patient's voice, and, secondly, by the thickness of the chest-wall. The spoken voice apparently creates more and more sound as the listener approaches a large bronchus. The sounds heard over the lung have a similar significance to the vibrations transmitted from the larynx, trachea, bronchial air-columns, and substance of the lung and chest to the examiner's hand when palpating the chest. Vocal resonance consists of a form of vibrations that are appreciable only by the auditory sense.

The peculiarities of the voice-sound and its relation to disease will be discussed at length under each pathologic condition in which they form one of the physical signs. (See Pneumonia, Pulmonary Abscess, Tuberculosis.)

THE X-RAY EVIDENCE OF DISEASES OF THE BRONCHI, LUNGS, PLEURA, AND DIAPHRAGM

By G. E. Pfahler, M.D.

General Remarks.—In general, the *x*-rays are absorbed by the tissues through which they pass in proportion to their density and thickness, and therefore will cast corresponding shadows upon the fluorescent screen or photographic plate. Any disease that will vary the density, outline, or position of tissues or organs can be demonstrated; likewise any disease which will modify the movements of an organ.

The shadows cast upon the plate or screen in any instance will vary much with the position of the tube in relation to the location of the lesion. Therefore, in order that the truest picture of the disease be obtained, it is important that the röntgenologist have some general information as to the probable character and location of the disease preceding the examination. Likewise, so far as possible, the *x*-ray evidence must be interpreted in the light of the physical signs and clinical history.

The most transparent tissue of the body is the lung. Disease may increase this transparence or render it less transparent. Any condition which will increase the air-content of the lungs (asthma, emphysema) or decrease the thickness of the chest-walls (emaciation) will render them more transparent. Any condition which will diminish the air-content of the lungs (consolidations, neoplasms, etc.) or increase the thickness of the chest-wall (great muscular development, fat, edema, tumors) will decrease this transparency. In *tuberculosis* the prognosis is favorable when there is present but little—if any—mottling, calcification in roots of lungs and at the parenchyma. There should be no diminution in the size of the heart. Whenever there is extensive fluffy mottling on the lung tissue, and decided reduction in the size of the heart, an unfavorable prognosis is warranted.

DISEASES WHICH INCREASE THE TRANSPARENCY OF THE LUNG

Emphysema.—The increase in transparency is marked unless accompanied by edema or congestion. The interspaces are wider, the diaphragm lower, and its movement less.

Chronic asthma will, of course, give a similar appearance because of a secondary emphysema.

DISEASES WHICH DECREASE THE TRANSPARENCY OF THE LUNG

Pneumonia.—In a typical lobar pneumonia the entire affected area presents a dense and almost uniform shadow, which is rather sharply outlined. At times, the consolidated area is not sharply defined, or there may be some extension of the process or congestion in the neighboring lung tissue.

At the beginning of the disease there is usually a faint shadow of consolidation in the region of the large bronchi. In a few hours, however, the shadow may extend over the entire lobe or lung and become absolutely and uniformly dense. This extension is usually from the root of the lung, but it may be from the periphery. When these early shadows are obtained, the physical signs may be entirely absent because centrally located.

When complete consolidation has taken place, the density of the shadow may be so great as to obliterate the outlines of the ribs. Ordinarily, however, the consolidated area is sufficiently transparent to make the ribs visible, and this shadow is not uniformly dense. At the time of the crisis the consolidated area increases in transparency, usually beginning at the hilus (Rieder and Steyrer), or diffusely (v. Jaksch and Ratky). This increase in transparency keeps pace with the physical signs, but even after all physical signs disappear, shadows may be found, indicating incomplete resolution lasting several weeks (de la Camp). When such shadows are found, one must think of a recurrence, chronic pneumonia, tuberculosis, empyema, abscess, gangrene, and hydatid disease, though ordinarily they disappear without any further clinical evidence.

Localized empyema will usually give a dense, homogeneous shadow, with sharp outlines, which do not follow the outline of a pleural effusion.

Abscess and gangrene give very similar pictures, and neither one can be definitely differentiated by the *x*-ray evidence alone from tuberculosis. When a cavity has formed and the evidence is weighed with the clinical findings, a diagnosis can be made and the disease definitely located if operation seems advisable.

Adhesions to the pleura, diaphragm, or pericardium, which not infrequently follow pneumonia, and which may interfere with the free movement of the diaphragm or heart, can be demonstrated upon the fluorescent screen and the photographic plate.

Bronchopneumonia gives, as one would expect, shadows of smaller areas of consolidation, and in different parts of the same lung or both lungs. These shadows are less dense and more mottled.

Miliary tuberculosis may give a picture similar to that of bronchopneumonia.

Tuberculosis can be demonstrated in the lungs because the normal air-space is replaced by a more or less solid substance, which casts a denser shadow upon the fluorescent screen or photographic plate, and the disease can be demonstrated as early as such replacement occurs. Under favorable conditions tubercular deposits an eighth to a quarter of an inch in diameter can be shown, and, as a rule, the disease can be demonstrated before definite physical signs manifest themselves.

In contradistinction to the large and dense shadow cast in lobar pneumonia, in tuberculosis we have minute shadows, which may coalesce or overlie one another, and give a large area of the lung a mottled appearance. We seldom have the degree of density nor the uniformity seen in lobar pneumonia.

In *early cases* this mottled appearance is most likely to be found at the apices, and usually more on one side than the other, but it is often found

early along the inner border or in the axillary region. As a rule, the disease is more extensive than is indicated by the physical signs. This is due to the fact that the deeper or centrally located lesions give less definite or no physical signs, while the shadows cast are equally as strong as the peripheral lesions.

Caution.—One must be cautious in interpreting the general increase in shadow at the apices as tuberculosis, for an increase in the thickness of the overlying tissue on one side (muscle, fat, enlarged supraclavicular glands) or a lack of expansion (therefore, lack of air) may give a similar appearance. In such instances the shadows are not mottled, and in the lack of expansion it is likely to be bilateral.

Enlarged bronchial glands give isolated, rather dense, round or oval shadows in the region of the large bronchi. This examination is especially important in children when tuberculosis is suspected from the clinical symptoms, even though the physical signs are absent.

One must not misinterpret the radiating, rather large shadows in the region of the large bronchi, which are produced by the large blood-vessels.

Chronic Tuberculosis.—The infiltrations of chronic tuberculosis can be clearly shown. As a rule, the more chronic the process, the more dense will be the shadow of lesions of similar size and the more clearly outlined (partly because of the surrounding compensatory emphysema). In the *fibroid* variety one sees the shadows extending radially rather than in an irregular mottled fashion.

Cavities are recognized (when not filled with fluid) by their increased transparency, and consist usually of a light area surrounded by a dark wall of consolidation. Cavities the size of a pea have been recognized.

Bronchiectasis may be demonstrated when the cavities are empty or only partially filled with fluid, and especially when they can be found filled (dark area) in one instance and empty (light area) in another. Their transparency will be similar to tuberculous cavities, but the amount of surrounding shadow will depend upon the accompanying disease.

Syphilis of the lung has been demonstrated in a few instances, but the appearances are similar to those of tuberculosis. These appearances become important only when the clinical history is that of syphilis rather than of tuberculosis.

Anthracosis gives a similar appearance in many respects to that of fibroid phthisis, but a very much more dense shadow.

Neoplasms of the lung can, of course, be demonstrated, because there is a replacement of the transparent air-space by solid tissue. If this is a metastatic process and occurs in small multiple lesions, the appearance will be similar to tuberculosis, but the lesions seem to radiate more from the mediastinal region, and each lesion seems to have a more definite outline. When the lesion is large, it is more dense, more homogeneous in its shadow, and more clearly outlined than in tuberculosis.

THE DIAPHRAGM

The Röntgen rays surely supersede all other methods in the examination of the diaphragm. Variations will occur in the outline, the position, and the movements. Here both a röntgenoscopic and a röntgenographic examination are useful.

The *normal* position and movements of the diaphragm vary very much, and statements on this subject must be accepted as general and not taken as a standard. Measured *orthodiagraphically* in a healthy young subject with firm abdominal walls, anteriorly the right side is on

a level with the upper border of the fifth rib, and the left side with the lower border of the fifth rib (Jamin). In quiet breathing the normal range of movement is 1 to 2 centimeters. With deep inspiration the diaphragm moves downward 2 to 4 centimeters. Practically, in healthy subjects, both sides should move equally, and therefore a difference in the degree of movement on the two sides will be important diagnostic evidence.

Diaphragmatic Pain.—Whenever inflammation of adjacent structures extends to the dome of the diaphragm pain is referred to the carotid regions and to other portions of the body. Involvement of the outer portions of the diaphragm gives pain at the base of the chest, and when the peritoneal surface is involved the pain may be reflected downward as far as the appendix and sigmoid regions. Pneumonia at the right base with diaphragm pleurisy involving the outer portion of the diaphragm frequently causes appendical pain and rigidity at the right inferior abdominal quadrant.

Early tuberculosis is likely to limit the degree of movement on the affected side (Williams' sign). Such limitation of the movement of the diaphragm on one sie may be due to other conditions, such as painful affections above or below the diaphragm. The pain of pleurisy will therefore limit the movements of the diaphragm, and in the absence of physical signs, or when the pain is indefinite, it may be valuable evidence of a diaphragmatic pleurisy (see p. 272).

Pleuritic adhesions will limit the movements of the diaphragm, but this limitation is likely to be localized, and is evidenced by humps or peaks in the upper curve.

Hydatid cyst, if located on the upper surface of the liver, will give a localized elevation to the curve of the diaphragm, which is smooth in outline.

Subdiaphragmatic abscess will give an abnormally high position of the diaphragm on the affected side, will usually render it motionless (on account of pain), and will likely modify its contour.

Diaphragmatic Hernia.—In this condition there is an area of abnormal transparency above the line of the diaphragm in which the lung structure is absent, if large. If small, the overlying lung will cast some shadow. This condition must be differentiated from a *localized pneumothorax*, from a large *cavity*, and from eventration of the diaphragm.

If the patient "strains" with the abdominal muscles, as if at stool, holding the breath, a hernia will increase, while a pneumothorax, a cavity, and eventration of the diaphragm will remain stationary. Further, by giving bismuth mixture one may be able to trace the food through the hernia. *Eventratio diaphragmatica*, or congenital atrophy of the diaphragm, gives it a remarkably high position, uniformity in its outline, with limitation or absence in movement. The heart will be displaced.

In these differentiations, as in all others, much will depend upon the skill and resourcefulness of the röntgenologist in eliminating error and arriving at a correct diagnosis.

THE PLEURA

The normal pleura is not demonstrable by the rays.

Thickened pleura will produce a shadow in proportion to its thickness and extent. When very thick, 2 to 3 cm., it may be confused with a *new-growth* (see p. 131). When a new-growth is single, if viewed from all sides, it should give a more definite outline. If multiple, it should

give a nodular and less uniform appearance. The thickened pleura can usually be differentiated from the shadow cast by *tuberculosis of the lung* because it is more homogeneous and fades gradually at its borders. If complicated by overlying tuberculosis, it cannot be differentiated.

Adherent pleura is recognized by its interference with the movements of the diaphragm or a portion of the lung, or when adherent to the pericardium, may interfere with the action of the heart.

Pleural effusion produces evidences according to its extent, its character, and the condition of the overlying tissue. If the lungs are congested, or the chest-walls thick, it is more difficult to recognize. Generally it can be demonstrated by the homogeneous shadow which it casts, which changes its level with a change in position, and by its displacement of the heart and diaphragm.

Pneumothorax is usually easily recognized by the very transparent area, together with the shadow of the visceral pleura and compressed lung, which is seen to be separated from the chest-wall; also by the displacement of the mediastinal organs.

Localized or interlobular pneumothorax requires great care in making a diagnosis, but usually this can be done.

Pyopneumothorax gives perhaps the most striking picture observed in diseases of the chest. One sees the very transparent area of the pneumothorax, with the thickened pleura or compressed lung on the inner side and the level of the fluid below, which waves up and down with each movement of the diaphragm. When one shakes the patient, a distinct splash can be seen, fluoroscopically.

THE SPUTUM

COLLECTION

In collecting the sputum for examination the ordinary vaselin bottle forms the most convenient receptacle. The bottle should, of course, be carefully cleansed to remove the fat-globules, and should be sterilized, if possible. This should be placed at the patient's bedside or in his room, so that when he coughs in the morning he may expectorate directly into the bottle. After the bottle is half full it should be corked tightly and wrapped in heavy paper, upon which the name of the patient should be written.

Caution!—Do not add water.

CHARACTERISTICS OF THE SPUTUM IN DISEASE

Quantity.—The quantity of sputum ejected in pathologic conditions during twenty-four hours varies between a few cubic centimeters to 500 or even 1000 c.c., and bears a direct relation to the nature of the disease in question.

Copious expectoration occurs in pulmonary hemorrhage, pulmonary edema, bronchiectasis, tuberculosis, rupture of an abscess into the lung (diaphragmatic, hepatic, mediastinal), and rarely in pleural effusions. The so-called albuminous sputum, which is associated with pulmonary gangrene, is often profuse. In acute inflammatory processes involving the lung the sputum is generally scanty.

Odor.—The odor of the sputum can be regarded as characteristic in but two conditions—pulmonary gangrene and putrid bronchitis; in these diseases it has an offensive odor. At times the sputum of bronchiectasis gives off an unpleasant odor resembling that of gangrene. Sputum having a sweetish odor is characteristic of pulmonary ulceration, bronchitis, and empyema. An odor resembling that of rancid cheese suggests the addition of tyrosin, which results only when extraneous pus enters the bronchial tract.

Fluidity and Tenacity.—The density of the sputum will be found to correspond more or less closely to the quantity expectorated. The density varies from that of a watery fluid to that of a gelatinous mass. Sputum placed in a cylindric glass will be found, upon standing, to separate into strata, there being a superior or frothy layer, a clear liquid layer, a third layer containing flocculi and particles of mucus, and an inferior stratum of rather dense, ropy material, often containing pus and blood. A creamy sputum is not infrequently seen. A liquid sputum is significant of edema of the lungs, tuberculous laryngitis, the early stage of pulmonary tuberculosis, or the perforation of an empyema or of a diaphragmatic or hepatic abscess. It also occurs in pulmonary abscess and gangrene. "Currant-jelly sputum" suggests malignancy, and "prune-juice sputum" appears where blood is derived from an edematous lung, as in adynamic lobar pneumonia.

Specific Gravity.—The specific gravity of sputum is dependent upon the general character of the expectoration, mucous sputum having a specific gravity of 1.003 to 1.010; purulent and bloody specimens, one between 1.014 and 1.025, whereas highly bloody sputum may reach 1.035.

Reaction.—Normal sputum has an alkaline reaction.

Color.—The sputum varies in color from that of a perfectly clear, transparent fluid, through the successive shades of gray, yellow, amber, orange, olive green, red, chocolate, and black. When the expectoration is entirely mucoid, it is colorless and nearly transparent.

Leukocytes render the sputum opalescent or turbid, according to the number of cells present; and, from the same cause, the color is first white, then yellow, and finally of a greenish hue. The presence of bile-pigments gives rise to a green sputum. A growth of bacteria (Bacillus pyocyaneus) may be accountable for a green color, and in cases of amebic abscess, whether hepatic or pulmonary, the sputum is chocolate colored. In paragonimus infection the sputum resembles anchovy sauce in appearance.

Black Sputum.—The sputum becomes gray after the inhalation of particles of carbon, whereas the sputum of coal-miners and of those residing in the mining districts is often dark and at times black, due to the presence of coal-dust (Plate I). Particles of iron may give the sputum a yellow or red color.

Bloody Sputum.—Sputum tinged with blood and studded with minute air-bubbles "rusty sputum"—is characteristic of lobar pneumonia. Blood gives a red color to the sputum, varying in intensity with the amount present. It is most often encountered in pulmonary congestion and ulceration (phthisis). Hemorrhagic sputum may result from cardiac insufficiency. Whenever the blood is expectorated as soon as it escapes from the vessels, it is of a bright-red color. Bloody and dark-brown sputa are also observed in pulmonary abscess and in gangrene of the lung. The various types of hemoptysis, together with their clinical classifications as to source, exciting factors, etc., are given in the accompanying table:

DUE TO PATHOLOGIC CHANGES IN THE LUNGS

1. Phthisis pulmonalis.
2. Pneumonoconiosis:
   Metal workers lung,
   Stonemasons lung,
   Coal miners lung,
   Plaster workers lung.
3. Cardiac disease, especially mitral stenosis.
4. Violent coughing:
   Whooping cough,
   Bronchitis,
   Emphysema,
   Asthma,
   Cough accompanied by vomiting.
5. Traumatism:
   Blows upon the chest-wall,
   Fractured rib,
   Exploratory punctures.
6. Lobar pneumonia (slight):
   Bronchopneumonia (slight),
   Septic pneumonia (slight),
   Pulmonary emboli,
   Hypostatic congestion,
   Abscess,
   Gangrene,
   Pulmonary thrombosis.
7. New growths of the lung:
   Sarcoma,
   Carcinoma.
8. Sporotrichosis of the lung:
   Aspergillosis,
   Actinomycosis,
   Streptothricosis.
9. Aortic aneurysm by pressure on and by rupture into the bronchial tract.
10. Parasites:
    Hydatid cyst,
    Hepatic amebic abscess (bursting through the diaphragm into the lung),
    Primary amebic abscess,
    Filiariasis,
    Paragonimus Westermani (tropical hemoptysis).

DUE TO CHANGES IN THE BRONCHIOLES, BRONCHI, OR TRACHEA

11. Acute bronchitis,
    Bronchorrhea,
    Bronchiectasis,
    Tracheobronchitis.
12. Ulceration of the trachea,
    Ulceration of a bronchus,
    Lymphosarcoma,
    Esophageal or other neoplasm,
    Invasion of a bronchus by a mediastinal sarcoma.

DUE TO CHANGES IN THE LARYNX

13. Acute laryngitis,
    Tuberculous ulceration,
    Syphilitic ulceration,
    Epithelioma,
    Sarcoma,
    Postdiphtheritic ulcer,
    Typhoid ulcer (rare),
    Traumatism,
    Variolous ulceration (rare),
    Leprosy of the larynx (rare).

DUE TO HEMIC CHANGES

14. Purpura,
    Scurvy,
    Splenomedullary leukemia,
    Hemophilia,
    Lymphatic leukemia,
    Pernicious anemia,
    Hodgkin's disease.

UNCOMMON CAUSES OF HEMOPTYSIS

15. Interstitial nephritis,
    Arteriosclerosis,
    Vicarious menstruation,
    Varicose veins of pharynx.

Mucous Sputum.—This variety of sputum is clear, sticky, tough, and, during the early stage of bronchitis, scant in quantity. In the latter stage of bronchitis pus-cells are added, which render the sputum more copious and give it a yellowish or a greenish color.

Mucopurulent Sputum.—This is a variety of sputum seen in many forms of pulmonary disease. It is of clinical value in pulmonary tuberculosis, where, in the event of cavity formation, minute ragged

clumps of mucopus, which are intimately surrounded by mucus, may be seen.

Nummular Sputum.—In this variety coin-like masses, often regarded as characteristic of cavity formation when first expectorated, float upon the surface, but the sputum may contain grayish-white masses and round or irregular particles varying in size from that of a pin's point to that of a millet-seed (caseous particles). These masses are usually precipitated from the liquid portions of the sputum, collecting at the bottom.

Serous Sputum.—A purely serous sputum is significant of edema of the lungs, and contains but few, if any, red blood-cells. When shaken, serous sputum displays a soapy froth having a faint pink hue when it is mixed with blood.

Albuminous sputum is seen in pulmonary tuberculosis, acute bronchitis, lobar pneumonia, and bronchiectasis. It may follow removal of a large pleural effusion. A highly albuminous sputum is always suggestive of pulmonary tuberculosis, even in the absence of tubercle bacilli and of definite physical signs.

MICROSCOPIC STUDY OF THE SPUTUM

Organized Constituents.—Fibrinous Coagula.—During the course of certain pathologic conditions an exudate is deposited in the smaller bronchi, and after undergoing degenerative changes, this exudate results in the formation of a complete cast of a small bronchus. During the act of coughing a small amount of this coagulum is dislodged, and appears in the sputum as a gray, white, reddish-yellow, mahogany, or bloody particle.

Detection.—Fibrinous casts may be recognized by placing suspicious particles of the fresh sputum between two slides, and making rather firm pressure upon the upper slide. Fibrinous coagula are clearly seen when brought under a two-thirds inch objective (Fig. 32).

Significance.—Fibinous casts are found in the sputum of fibrinous bronchitis, croupous pneumonia as the stage of resolution approaches, and in the presence of a diphtheric process in the finer bronchi.



Fig. 32.—Fibrinous Bronchial Cast.

Bronchial Spirals.—These bodies resemble bronchial casts (Fig. 33).

Detection.—Use the same technic directed for the detection of bronchial casts. At times it will be found necessary to use a high-power objective (one-sixth to one-eighth). Spirals appear as faint, translucent, elongated masses. A delicate white fiber runs longitudinally through the center of each spiral. Leukocytes, epithelial cells, Charcot-Leyden crystals, and, rarely, erythrocytes are entangled in the spiral mass.

Spirals are common in the sputum of asthma. They are seen in croupous pneumonia, acute bronchitis, chronic bronchitis, pulmonary tuberculosis, and valvular heart disease. Spirals are suggestive of a catarrhal process of the bronchi.

Elastic Tissue.—Fibers of elastic tissue may occur in the sputum as single threads, arranged in a more or less perfect alveolar series, or, as is most usual, in small bundles. They are demonstrated in the manner described for the detection of fibrinous coagula, a one-eighth inch objec-

tive being used. Collect the fibrinous plugs from the sputum, place them in a solution of sodium hydroxid, and boil the soda solution and its contained sputum until a gelatinous mass results. Add four times the total quantity of water; place the mixture in a conic glass, and allow it to stand for several hours. Centrifugalize the sediment, and place a portion of the second sediment thus obtained under a one-eighth or one-twelfth inch oil-immersion objective, when elastic fibers will be readily detected (Fig. 34). The presence of elastic fibers in the sputum indicates the existence of a destructive process in the lung. The true significance of these changes, however, is indicated only when they appear in the so-called alveolar arrangement, as they do in case of pulmonary cavity. Elastic fibers are rarely found in abscess of the lung, bronchiectasis, and pneumonia.



FIG. 33.—SPUTUM FROM A CASE OF ASTHMA, SHOWING CURSCHMANN SPIRALS, CHARCOT-LEYDEN CRYSTALS, LEUKOCYTES, AND NUMEROUS FREE EOSINOPHILE GRANULES (Jakob).

Animal Parasites of the Lung.—Paragonimus Westermanii.—This parasite has confined itself largely to Japan, Formosa, the Philippines, and Korea, although cases have been reported from other eastern

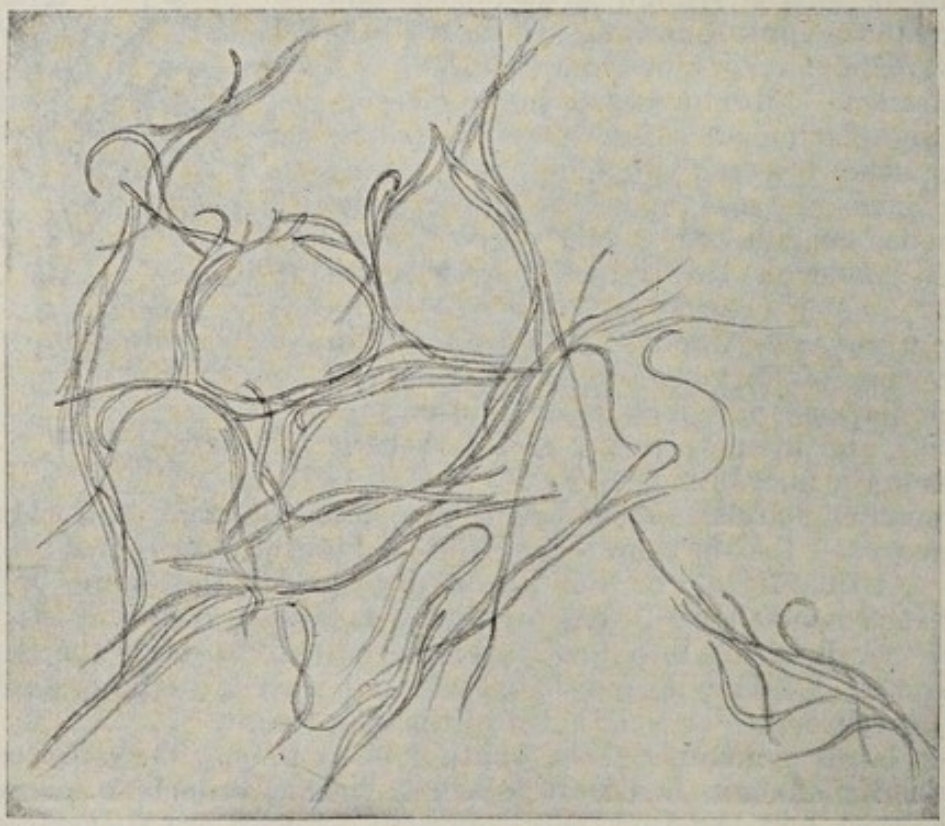


FIG. 34.—FIBERS OF ELASTIC TISSUE FROM SPUTUM IN A CASE OF PULMONARY TUBERCULOSIS OBSERVED AT PENNSYLVANIA HOSPITAL (obj. B. and L. one-eighth) (Boston).

countries. Stiles and Hassall have recently recovered this parasite from the lungs of hogs raised in the United States, and MacKenzie has reported a case occurring in man from Portland, Oregon.

Sputum.—The sputum looks bloody, but the color is due to the presence of the ova of the fluke, although more or less altered blood-corpuscles may be present. The sputum may closely resemble that of lobar pneumonia in color.

Detection.—Place a portion of the bloody sputum upon a slide, apply a cover-glass, and study under a one-fifth or one-eighth inch objective. The color of the sputum is dependent upon the presence of numerous ova and red blood-corpuscles. The ova are oval in outline and are furnished with a distinct lid.

Trichomonas.—This type of parasite (Fig. 371) has been found in the sputum of pulmonary gangrene and in that from pus-cavities.

The **Balantidium coli** (Fig. 373) has been known to invade the respiratory tract of persons residing in the tropics, but the literature on the subject appears to contain but few authentic reports.

Bilharzia.—There are numerous reliable records of cases in which the ova of the Schistosomum hæmatobium have been found in the sputum. (See Hematuria.)

Amœba Coli (Entamœba Histolytica).—The ameba appears in the sputum when an amebic abscess of the lung is evacuated into the bronchial tract, or when an amebic abscess of the liver has ruptured through the diaphragm and communicated with a bronchus. (See Amebic Dysentery.) The sputum may at first be bloody, but later it may assume a yellowish or pearl-like color. Many epithelial cells are always present, and either pulmonary or hepatic tissue may at times be seen.

Filaria.—Filaria embryos have been known to appear in the sputum of persons affected with filariasis, and it was formerly believed that there was a special type of parasite concerned (Filaria bronchialis) when these parasites were found in the sputum. It is now known that the embryo filariæ retreat to the blood-vessels of the lung in the interval of their periodicity in the blood-current. In a concurrent destructive lung disease these parasites might be found in the sputum.

Tænia Echinococcus.—Whenever cysts of the dog tape-worm communicate with the respiratory tract, both hooklets and scolices of the parasite (Fig. 389) appear in the sputum.

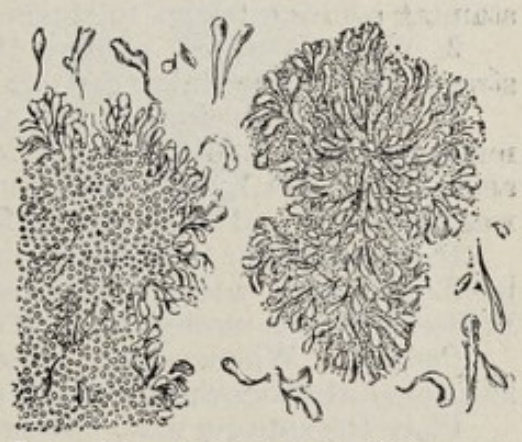


FIG. 35.—ACTINOMYCES (after von Jaksch).

Ascarides.—Both the adult parasites and their ova have been found in the sputum (Fig. 385).

Fungi.—Among the fungi that are to be regarded as of pathologic interest, the most important are the actinomyces and the Aspergillus fumigatus.

Actinomycosis.—The detection of small granules and thread-like particles (mycelia) (Fig. 35) in the sputum verifies the diagnosis of actinomycosis of the respiratory tract. Actinomycosis may also involve the buccal cavity, in which case the ray-fungus is found in the sputum. Actinomycosis of the pleuræ usually causes a perforation of the chest-wall, and pus containing the fungus escapes externally. (See a so Streptothricosis, p. 139.)

Aspergillosis.—Foreign observers have found the Aspergillus fumigatus in the sputum of those suffering from pneumomycosis. Aspergillus is

recognized in the sputum by the detection of many thread-like particles (mycelia) (Fig. 352). It is not uncommon to find sputum secondarily infected with the Aspergillus niger (Fig. 352), and it is difficult to distinguish microscopically between the mycelium of this fungus and that of Aspergillus fumigatus. This difficulty may be overcome by making a cultural study of these two fungi, when their identity will be readily discerned.

The **Mucor corymbifer** is also encountered in the sputum, and, in addition, many different molds may develop in the sputum after it has been exposed to the air.

Bacteria.—Numerous species of bacteria are present in the sputum, although in a comparatively small number of instances a definite microorganism will be found associated with a certain disease. The streptococcus, a large diplococcus, the pneumococcus, Bacillus typhosus, Bacillus coli communis, Friedländer's bacillus, Bacillus tuberculosis, and the streptothrix deserve special mention.

Microscopic Study of the Bacteria of the Sputum.—Select from the sputum small caseous or bloody particles, place them upon a microscopic slide, crush, and spread into a thin layer. All sputa should be stained for the tubercle bacillus, and special stains are also necessary when searching for certain specific bacteria. As a rule, however, the method employed for staining the tubercle bacillus will be found also to stain satisfactorily many other microörganisms.

Staining for the Tubercle Bacillus.—1. Add a few drops of carbolfuchsin (5 per cent. phenol, 90 parts; saturated alcoholic solution of fuchsin, 10 parts) to the specimen, and hold it above the flame until the staining solution begins to steam. Let this stain act for five minutes.

2. Wash in water, holding the forceps in such a manner that the stream strikes the slide near one end and then flows over the specimen.

3. Without drying, add to the specimen a few drops of Gabbett's methylene-blue solution (methylene-blue, 2 parts; solution of sulphuric acid (25 per cent.), 100 parts), and allow it to stand for two minutes; then wash in water and dry over the flame.

In searching for the diplococcus and organisms other than the tubercle bacillus equally satisfactory results may be obtained by staining with Löffler's alkaline methylene-blue for thirty seconds, washing, and drying.

Caution!—Whenever the presence of tubercle bacilli in the sputum is suspected, the following method for their detection is to be recommended:

Place the sputum in an ordinary vaselin bottle, tie three or four thicknesses of gauze tightly over the mouth of the bottle, to prevent dust from entering it. Allow it to stand for several days, and then examine for the tubercle bacillus.

A still more satisfactory method is to smear the caseous particles of the sputum on slides and dry in the air. Fix slides by passing directly through the flame. Tubercle bacilli are rarely found during acute colds, only, in those suffering from chronic tuberculosis of the lungs. Stain the fixed specimen by immersing it in a weak solution of carbolfuchsin (carbolfuchsin, ½ dram; water, 2 ounces) for twenty-four hours.

Differentiation.—Tubercle bacilli (Plate I) are to be differentiated from other acid-fast bacilli (by acid-fast bacilli are meant those that do not decolorize readily by acids or by alcohol), viz., the grass bacillus, the butter bacillus of Rabinowitch, Bacillus lepræ, and the smegma bacillus.

Significance.—Tubercle bacilli, when found in the sputum, furnish conclusive evidence of the existence of a tuberculous lesion along the course of the respiratory tract. Even a small ulceration of the bronchus

PLATE I



A. Sputum showing tubercle bacilli stained with carbolfuchsin and Gabbet's methylene-blue solution (obj. B. and L. one-twelfth oil-immersion).

B. Sputum of anthracosis, showing particles of coal-dust stained with methylene-blue (obj. Spencer one-twelfth oil-immersion). (Boston.)

may furnish a great number of bacilli, hence the presence of a profuse number of bacilli in a given sputum is no guide as to the extent of disease existing in the lung. Tuberculous laryngitis generally displays a large number of tubercle bacilli in the sputum, and the same is true of extensive ulceration and pulmonary cavities; nevertheless, a pulmonary cavity the result of tuberculosis may be present and no tubercle bacilli demonstrable in the sputum. This has been amply confirmed by us at autopsy.

Influenza.—The sputum contains slender bacilli that stain readily by the ordinary anilin dyes. In order to cultivate the influenza bacillus, a special medium is necessary. Löffler's blood-serum will be found to serve well for this purpose, after the surface has been smeared with fresh blood.

The *clinical significance* that attaches itself to the detection of the influenza bacillus is still of doubtful value in the minds of many clinicians.

Diphtheria.—During the course of diphtheria the sputum often contains the diphtheria bacillus.

Acute Bronchitis.—The sputum displays many desquamated epithelial cells, which represent the various forms common to the respiratory tract. Leukocytes are always present in small numbers, and red corpuscles may be found. Later in the course of acute bronchitis the sputum becomes abundant, turbid, and yellowish or greenish in color.

Bacteriology.—The terms streptococcus bronchitis and staphylococcous bronchitis have been suggested for different types of the disease. In streptococcous infection the sputum contains innumerable streptococci, and when the form of infection is mild, it can be differentiated from a staphylococcic bronchitis only by a cultural study.

Chronic Bronchitis.—If expectoration is profuse, that is, if the sputum is expectorated in mouthfuls, the condition is known as bronchorrhea. This sputum is yellowish or yellowish-green in color, the color depending upon the number of pus-cells present and the stage of degeneration of such cells. A profusion of bacteria is present, but they bear no clinical significance to the type of bronchitis in question.

Pneumonia.—The characteristic sputum of this disease is to be seen during the early stage of consolidation in lobar pneumonia, at which time it is scanty and tinged with blood (rusty), highly tenacious and does not flow from the side of the sputum-cup. Red corpuscles and leukocytes are present, and when stained with hematoxylin and eosin or with a polychrome methylene-blue method, show many eosinophilic cells. Alveolar epithelial cells are also found, and many of these contain pigment and oil-globules.



FIG. 36.—FRIEDLÄNDER'S BACILLUS IN PUS FROM PULMONARY ABSCESS (Boston).

Pneumococcus.—The pneumococcus is a small diplococcus that occurs in the sputum of lobar pneumonia, in which it is often the only organism present in great numbers.

The pneumococcus is well stained by Löffler's methylene-blue solution, but its characteristic contour (lance shape) is better demonstrated by the Gram method of staining. When carefully stained, each cocceus is seen to be surrounded by a narrow hyaline space, which is bounded by a faint marginal band (capsule).

Encapsulated diplococci are always detected with difficulty. They are also commonly seen in the sputum of healthy persons, and are pathologic only when present in dense aggregations.

Bacillus of Friedländer (Bacillus mucosus capsulatus).—This bacillus appears in great numbers in the bloody sputum of persons suffering from lobar pneumonia when the disease is due to the presence of this bacillus. This organism stains by the same methods given for the pneumococcus (Fig. 36). A number of encapsulated bacilli are also present in Friedländer's pneumonia. These bacilli may enter the blood, and are to be found in the pus from abscesses and from inflamed joints complicating an attack of Friedländer's pneumonia.

Bronchial Asthma.—At first the sputum is scanty, clear, grayish, or rarely reddish in color. It is always frothy, and is characterized microscopically by the presence of small, yellowish or grayish particles, "bronchial spirals" (Curschmann's spirals), Charcot-Leyden crystals (Fig. 33), and leukocytes. Many of the leukocytes show a special affinity for basic dyes, while the majority of them are decidedly eosinophilic.

Bronchopneumonia.—The sputum of this disease is not characteristic, containing many different bacteria—the pneumococcus, Staphylococcus pyogenes, bacillus of Friedländer, Streptococcus pyogenes, Bacillus pyocyaneus, Bacillus typhosus, diphtheria bacillus, Micrococcus tetragenus, the meningococcus and spirochete.

Rulmonary Abscess.—The fresh sputum from an abscess of the lung contains hematoidin crystals, fragments of lung tissue, and numerous crystals—cholesterin (Fig. 278), fatty acid, etc. Fibers of elastic tissue are not unusually present (Fig. 34).

Pulmonary Gangrene and Putrid Bronchitis.—The sputum of gangrene, when placed in a conic glass and allowed to stand for several hours, separates into strata: the inferior stratum is grayish yellow or brown and contains pus, small particles of a brown or greenish tint that vary in size from that of a millet-seed to that of a kernel of corn, and lung tissue. This sediment contains triple phosphates, leucin and tyrosin (Fig. 276, p. 715), and hematoidin crystals. Pus-cells and leukocytes are abundant, and the masses detected by the naked eye are found to be composed principally of pigment.

Elastic fibers, oil-droplets, crystals of fatty acids, and bacteria (Leptothrix pulmonalis, which stains bluish with Lugol's iodin solution) are present. The detection of particles of pulmonary tissue (elastic tissue) is the distinguishing feature between gangrene, where it is present, and putrid bronchitis.

The middle stratum of the sputum is transparent, and in it are suspended particles of mucus, while the superior stratum is usually of a dirty yellow color and is covered with a decided froth.

Pulmonary Tuberculosis.—The sputum from a case of pulmonary tuberculosis is but fairly characteristic.

Incipient Phthisis.—In this condition the sputum is scanty, grayish-yellow or whitish in color, frothy, and moderately tenacious. The larger portion is expectorated in the morning. As the disease advances the quantity increases, becoming copious and containing coin-like masses (nummular sputum) after cavity formation has taken place.

The detection of the tubercle bacillus is the only positive evidence of the existence of tuberculosis. Spirochætæ have been found in bloody sputum, although they probably have no connection with tuberculosis. Hemorrhagic sputum may form a rather dense clot, and the presence of even a small quantity of blood colors the sputum. Dark sputum is occasionally seen, and in cases in which the hemorrhage is severe, it is often difficult to ascertain its origin.

The accompanying table, modified from Boston, shows the points of differentiation between pulmonary and gastric hemorrhage:

Pulmonary Hemorrhage	Gastric Hemorrhage
1. Evidence of preëxisting pulmonary disease.	1. Referrable to the throat, stomach, liver, heart, or develops in females near the time of puberty.
2. Preceded by thoracic oppressions and a saline taste.	2. Preceded by giddiness, faintness, and nausea.
3. Blood ejected by coughing when hemorrhage is small.	3. Blood ejected by vomiting or by clearing the throat.
4. In profuse hemorrhage and when ejected immediately blood is arterial in color.	4. Blood of gastric origin dark, as a rule; blood of pharyngeal origin, bright red.
5. Alkaline reaction.	5. Gastric blood acid, pharyngeal blood alkaline, in reaction.
6. Blood mixed with particles of mucopus.	6. May contain undigested food.
7. A pronounced beaded froth.	7. Froth less marked.
8. Microscopically, tubercle bacilli and possibly fibers of elastic tissue.	8. Microscopically, Sarcinæ ventriculi, starch-granules, particles of food, and, in the case of carcinoma, large nonmotile bacilli (Oppler-Boas) and, rarely, carcinomatous tissue.

Heart Disease.—In organic heart disease the sputum may be blood-stained. Such sputum, however, is distinguished from that of pneumonia and other acute congestions of the lung by the presence of epithelial cells filled with yellowish pigment (hemosiderin)—the so-called heart-disease cells. Blood-stained sputum dependent upon cardiac disease is oftenest seen where there is a moderate dilatation of the right heart. The sputum clears with a return of the heart to nearly normal size.

Pneumonokoniosis.—This is a deposition of inorganic substances in the bronchial mucous membrane, with the appearance of such particles in the sputum.

Anthracosis.—Early in this disease, before the lung tissue has become seriously embarrassed by the deposit of dust, expectoration is slight, and takes place only upon rising and after a meal. When bronchitis is present, the sputum is copious in amount and contains large mucopurulent granules. Anthracotic sputum may present a variable degree of browning or an irregular distribution of black pigment.

The characteristic finding is small particles of coal-dust, which are readily detected under a one-fifth inch objective (Plate I).

Chalicosis.—This is a condition in which the sputum contains small particles of silica, and is present in persons who are more or less constantly exposed to such dust.

Siderosis.—The sputum in this condition resembles that of chronic bronchitis, although it may be brown or blackish. Alveolar epithelial cells and leukocytes are numerous, and brown or reddish pigment may be present. The addition of ammonium sulphid to sputum containing particles of iron turns it a blackish color, and upon the addition of hydrochloric acid and potassium ferrocyanid, the color is further changed to a Prussian blue.

Stycosis.—In this condition, which is most common in those working in plaster-of-Paris, about lime-kilns, etc., the sputum contains particles of lime. Cough and dyspnea are accompanied by free expectoration. It is more difficult to detect particles of lime than coal-dust, yet by careful

focusing of the microscope it is usually possible to discover this fine pigment in the epithelial cells and leukocytes.

Stonemason's lung is a condition that follows the inhalation of particles of stone, which are detected in the sputum by chemic reactions, such reactions being also applicable to the detection of particles of lime. A microscopic study should always be made before resorting to chemic analysis of such sputum. Generally speaking, the sputum of stonemason's lung is that seen in chronic bronchitis (p. 95).

CHEMIC STUDY OF THE SPUTUM

Organic Substances.—Proteids.—The sputa of pulmonary abscess, purulent bronchitis, croupous pneumonia, and cases in which many pus-cells are present contain peptone. As is seen in acute inflammatory processes of the lung, so too the protein element is rich in transudations, *e. g.*, pulmonary edema, and chronic passive pulmonary congestion—

Test.—(1) Place 30 c.c. of sputum in an Erlenmeyer flask. (2) Add an equal quantity of a 1 per cent. aqueous solution of acetic acid, and shake to effect mixture. (The acetic acid precipitates the mucin, while the proteins present remain in solution.) (3) Remove the mucin by filtration. (4) Add a 10 per cent. solution of ferrocyanid of potassium to the filtrate. (5) A copious precipitate indicates the existence of much protein, and suggests clinically, inflammation of, or transudate into, the lung substance. Clinically, the detection of peptone in the sputum has thus far been found of questionable value.

Serum-albumin.—An excess of serum-albumin is found in the sputum of pulmonary edema whenever the albuminous properties of the blood are expectorated (albuminous sputum).

Sugar.—Glucose is rarely detected in the sputum. (See Glucose in Urine, p. 709.)

Ferments and Fatty Acids.—Analysis for the ferments and fatty acids present in the sputum is a matter of chemic rather than of clinical value, and for the technic of this analysis the reader is referred to special works upon chemistry.

DISEASES OF THE BRONCHI

General Remarks.—Inflammatory diseases of the bronchi and those of the lung are differentiated chiefly by the wide diversity in the physical signs displayed by the two conditions. Bronchitis is an inflammation of the mucous membrane of the bronchi, either acute or chronic in character.

The inflammatory process may attack any portion of the bronchial tree—the larger, medium, or even the smallest bronchial tubes. Inflammation of the bronchial mucous membrane may be acute or chronic in nature, and may be either primary (infectious) or secondary to diseases of the heart, liver, kidneys, and lungs. It is also a symptom of certain of the acute infections—*e. g.*, measles, typhoid fever, and small-pox. (See Infectious Bronchitis, p. 93.)

ACUTE BRONCHITIS

Pathologic Definition.—An acute disease characterized pathologically by congestion of the bronchial mucous membrane, which becomes covered with mucus or mucopus. Later there are desquamation

of the ciliated epithelial cells, edema, and, in severe cases, infiltration of the mucosa with leukocytes.

Exciting and Predisposing Factors.—In the majority of cases acute tracheobronchitis results from an inflammatory process that has extended from the upper air-passages—*e. g.*, nares, pharynx, or larynx, and is secondary in nature. The bronchi may be the site of a primary acute catarrhal process, but such cases are by no means common. Mechanic, chemic, and biologic irritants that are known to act directly upon the bronchial mucous membrane may in themselves produce primary bronchitis. Vincent's organism is a cause.*

Among the predisposing factors are:

(1) **Age.**—Bronchitis is most common at the extremes of life.

(2) **Lowered Vitality.**—The debilitated are especially prone to this affection.

(3) **Occupation.**—Those exposed to the inhalation of irritating dusts (lime, foundry dust, silicates) are predisposed to bronchitis.

(4) **Climate.**—Those residing in sections where the temperature is known to fluctuate greatly within a short period are more susceptible to the disease than are those living in sections having a more stable temperature. Humidity has also been shown to exercise some influence upon the development of bronchitis.

(5) **Season.**—The greater number of cases is seen during the fall and winter months, and at periods when colds are prevalent. Epidemics of any nature appear to increase the frequency of bronchitis, and this is especially true of epidemics of influenza, measles, and scarlatina. (See Infectious Bronchitis, p. 93.) Acute bronchitis often develops as a complication of both acute infectious and chronic maladies. It is an almost constant feature of typhoid fever, small-pox, and certain other of the infectious diseases, and is a serious late complication of organic heart, liver, or kidney disease and the anemias.

Principal Complaint.—The patient usually states that he has contracted a severe cold, and that the first symptoms recognized by him were repeated chilly sensations, sneezing, moderate coryza, sore throat, and hoarseness. In children there may be a history of one or more convulsions at the onset. The patient declares that he is tired and indisposed. There is some soreness in the muscles of the back and limbs, and, at times, headache is present.

When the attack is well developed, substernal soreness is a complaint, the patient often stating that there is a raw or burning sensation beneath the sternum upon deep inspiration; in the more severe cases substernal pain is present. *Cough* develops during the first few hours following the initial symptoms, and if severe, gives rise to intercostal soreness and aching, with soreness about the diaphragm. The character of the cough is quite significant, being at first harsh and non-productive, whereas later, *i. e.*, on the second or third day, free expectoration occurs. There may be paroxysms of coughing with or without expectoration, such paroxysms often being excited by a change of postion—*e. g.*, from sitting or standing to the recumbent posture, and upon rising after a night's rest.

Thermic Features.—The temperature is somewhat irregular, and may range between 100° and 101° F.; in severe types of infection it may reach 103° F. It is highly important that acute bronchitis be recognized when it develops as a complication of other febrile conditions, since it may cause an additional rise of temperature.

Physical Signs.—Inspection.—The results of inspection are negative in adults, but in children rapid respirations are common. An examination

*Jour. Am. Med. Assoc., Dec. 6, 1924, Vol. 83, p. 1845.

of the larynx discloses the fact that the laryngeal mucous membrane is reddened and covered with an exudate. The fauces may also be congested.

Percussion.—In the vast majority of cases percussion is negative. Slight impairment of resonance is rarely observed beneath the angles of the scapulæ, and is present only when a large amount of mucus with probably partial occlusion of the bronchi exists. This sign must not be confounded with a similar impairment due to an acute pneumonic process; a feature of importance in this connection is that in pneumonia the impairment of resonance is unilateral, whereas that due to acute bronchitis is bilateral.

Auscultation.—The breath-sounds are increased in intensity, and over the anterior portion of the chest and near the apices the respiratory murmur may be harsh. Numerous râles are heard over both the apices and over other portions of the lung; some are high-pitched and squeaking in character, others being of the sibilant and sonorous variety. (See p. 72.) After a few days, both large and medium-sized mucous râles are audible. The râles may disappear after the patient clears his throat or coughs, but if he is examined one or two hours later, these moist râles will again be present. In order to distinguish between a murmur originating within the lung and one that is pleural in origin the patient should be directed to cough, and the effect upon any questionable râle carefully noted. (See Intrapleural Râles, p. 73.)

Laboratory Diagnosis.—Sputum.—At first, especially during the first twenty-four hours of the disease, the sputum, while scanty, is decidedly viscid; later the expectoration becomes more profuse and mucopurulent in character, and by the third day, in severe cases, the ejecta is pus and may be of a greenish color. Purulent sputum is usually rich in protein content. *Microscopically*, shreds of mucus and epithelial cells, a few being ciliated and others showing evidence of degeneration, are seen. Bacteria are numerous, the predominating organism varying in each particular case; thus at times it may be a large diplococcus, a streptococcus, the staphylococcus, and again the influenza bacillus. (See Infectious Bronchitis.) At least one slide should always be stained for the bacillus of tuberculosis.

Summary of Diagnosis.—A diagnosis is made from the following symptoms: (*a*) Slight fever; (*b*) cough, which is at first dry and later productive; (*c*) the character of the expectoration, together with the acuteness of the onset, which is accompanied by chilly sensations; (*d*) the undue harshness of the respiratory murmur, numerous dry râles during the first twenty-four hours, and the development of moist, bubbling râles later—all of which signs are audible over the entire chest. A history of exposure or the development of the condition during the course of a febrile or an afebrile malady always points strongly toward acute bronchitis.

Differential Diagnosis.—Pleurisy with effusion differs from acute bronchitis in that flatness is present over the base of one pleura. Upon auscultation the signs of bronchitis may be present over that portion of lung above the fluid and over the unaffected side. The fact that pleural effusion is seldom bilateral, and that even when both pleuræ are involved the signs of bronchitis are absent at the bases (patient erect), serves to differentiate these conditions. The history of a sharp, stabbing pain in the pleura is absent in acute bronchitis, as is also movable dullness.

Bronchopneumonia may follow an attack of acute bronchitis, in which event the following additional symptoms and signs appear: increase in

the number of respirations, cyanosis, frequent pulse-rate, and an elevation in temperature of one or two degrees. Here the aim is not to differentiate between bronchitis and bronchopneumonia, but rather to determine the time at which pneumonia develops.

Incipient tuberculosis is distinguished from acute bronchitis by the fact that in tuberculosis the physical signs of bronchitis are distinctly localized, and are usually found at one or both apices, whereas in acute bronchitis the peculiar respirations and types of râles are heard over the entire lung surface.

Miliary tuberculosis (**pulmonary type**) may exhibit the physical signs of acute bronchitis, but the general condition of the patient and the fact that he does not develop the characteristic sputum by the second or third day serve to differentiate bronchitis from this type of tuberculosis. (See Miliary Tuberculosis, Differential Diagnosis, p. 858.) In miliary tuberculosis a culture of the blood may disclose the presence of tubercle bacilli, which finding will serve early in this disease to make the diagnosis positive. The cutaneous reactions for tuberculosis are of service in this differentiation.

Clinical Course.—Acute bronchitis runs a varying course, depending largely upon the condition to which it is secondary. For example, if it follows direct extension from congestion of the upper respiratory tract, the course varies from a few days to two weeks, and rarely, indeed, does the disease continue for a longer period. A somewhat protracted course is commonly encountered in those who are debilitated, in the aged, and in persons suffering from either the gouty or the tuberculous diathesis. In tuberculous subjects there is at times a tendency for the bronchial congestion to extend to the finer tubules, and in these the general symptoms are severe. When bronchitis complicates one of the acute infections, its severity is more or less directly dependent upon the severity of the primary infection.

INFECTIOUS BRONCHITIS

General Remarks.—In addition to the acute form of bronchitis known to extend from inflammatory processes of the upper air-passages, and that form which develops during the course of certain acute infectious fevers and afebrile conditions that are characterized by asthenia, the disease may form one of the leading and at times chief clinical features of certain acute conditions, such as hay-fever, measles, whooping-cough, typhoid fever, influenza, acute "infectious" colds. The filterable virus of Kruse and Foster are to be considered in acute coryza and other similar infections of the upper respiratory tract. Protein sensitization may serve as the bases of vaso-motor rhinitis, bronchial asthma, etc. Drugs and chemical irritants may also contribute toward bacterialinvasion.

Hay-fever (Anaphylactic Bronchitis).—In this disease a variable degree of bronchitis is fairly characteristic, and may develop with or even antedate the coryza, which is a characteristic feature. The general clinical picture of hay-fever has been described at length, but for our present purpose attention is directed to the fact that the physical signs of acute bronchitis are invariably present, and, as a rule, their severity varies in direct proportion with the degree of irritation of the nasal mucosa. The bronchitis of hay-fever shows less tendency to terminate in early recovery than do other types of this malady, and this peculiarity of the disease warrants its classification as a disease of sensitization, often excited by pollen of the "plantago lanceolata."*

*Plantain Hay-fever and Asthma, H. S. Bernton, Jr. Am. Med. Assoc., March 28, 1925, p. 944.

Influenza.—In the respiratory type of this infection (acute infectious colds), acute bronchitis is an early and prominent symptom and was common in the "flu" epidemics of 1918 and 1919.

Laboratory Diagnosis.—Both the sputum and the nasal secretion contain bacill and cocci influenza.

Measles.—The symptoms and signs of acute bronchitis are among the earliest clinical manifestations of measles, and, indeed, may continue for days and, in unfavorable cases, even for weeks. The more severe the type of bronchitis present, the more serious is the case, and the more likely is it to develop pulmonary complications (bronchopneumonia).

The physical signs differ in no way from those detailed under Acute Bronchitis.

Laboratory Diagnosis.—The sputum is scanty at first, and free expectoration seldom occurs until the eruption begins to fade. A microscopic analysis of the sputum gives no positive information with reference to the type of infection.

Whooping-cough.—An early evidence in this disease is the onset of acute bronchial catarrh, which is at first mild, but gradually increases in severity. Acute bronchitis extends over a period of weeks before the development of the whoop which characterizes the disease. The more severe the type of bronchitis the more likely is the child to develop broncho-pneumonia. Late during the course of whooping-cough the bronchial condition assumes a subacute nature, and chronic bronchitis commonly results.

BRONCHOSPIROCHETOSIS

This infection of the respiratory mucosa was first described by Castellani, and since his original report cases have been described from practically all parts of the world, two having been reported by Levy of Galveston, Texas.* The symptoms as detailed by various observers are quire identical with those of acute and chronic bronchitis, with an occasional example where evidences of broncho-pneumonia exists.

Castellani in referring to the organism, divides the spirochete morphologically into four groups: first, spirochetes fifteen to thirty micra in length, and displaying irregular waves and pointed at both ends; second, spirocheta refrigens, displaying but few curves, and pointed ends; third, spirochetes that are thin, delicate, with numerous small uniform waves and tapering ends; fourth, extremely delicate spirochetes, thicker than the spirochæta pallida, displaying but few waves and distinctly irregular in shape.

Fantham states that this organism presents marked pleomorphism, and varies in length from five to twenty-five micra, and in width from two to six tenths of a micron. It is believed that these variations in the size of the spirochete depends upon processes of growth and division, and that the short forms (seven to ten micra) results from transverse division of the longer forms.

In fresh specimens of sputum the movements of the spirochæta bronchialis are active, but this movement is of short duration, and the motile phase of the organism is soon succeeded by a granular formation, which results in granules and coccoid forms.

Varieties.—Three distinct clinical varieties of the disease are recognized: (*a*) the acute, (*b*) the sub-acute, and (*c*) the chronic type.

*N. Y. Med. Jour., Jan. 29, 1921.

(1) The acute type is ordinarily ushered in by a chill, or chilly sensations, following which there is fever ranging from 99 to 103° F. The fever has not been well described, but ordinarily lasts from 2 to 8 days. Cough is pronounced, and the expectoration scanty and mucopurulent, and may contain traces of blood. Rheumatoid pains are distributed over the body.

(2) Sub-acute bronchitis begins either sudden or gradually, and lasts for from two days to one week. There is little or no fever. Cough is frequent, a pink jelly-like mucous is expectorated, and bloody sputum is occasionally seen. The physical signs are those of ordinary bronchitis, and practically indentical with those present in the acute forms; although in selected cases small areas of dullness may be found. Anemia is often present, following such an attack.

(3) Chronic bronchospirochetosis may follow an acute, or a sub-acute attack, and in some instances develops insidiously. The symptoms and signs are those detailed under chronic bronchitis, with the possible exception that there are times at which the patient expectorates blood stained sputum. Hemorrhage from the lung has been reported. Irregular fever displaying either a morning or an evening elevation, and slight areas of pulmonary consolidation have also been reported. A mild progressive anemia is to be expected in these cases.

Laboratory Diagnosis.—This serves as the only positive method of diagnosis. It was found in those cases reported by Levy that the sputum was at times profuse, displayed an offensive odor, and was often bloody. At certain periods the sputum is yellowish in color, and may not display an offensive odor.

Direct the patient to rinse his mouth well with water or some mild antiseptic, and then have him cough firmly to insure that the sputum examined is brought directly from the bronchus. Make smears of this sputum the same as should be done in studying for tubercle bacilli. Staining is best accomplished by a weak solution of carbol fuchsin, and by Wright's blood stain. Directions in differentiating this spirochete from other similar organisms found in the mouth are unnecessary if the sputum be properly collected.

CHRONIC BRONCHITIS

Pathologic Definition.—A chronic inflammatory process involving the bronchial mucous membrane, and characterized by the occurrence of destructive changes in the superficial epithelial layer, with thinning of the mucous membrane of the larger tubes as the result of atrophy of the muscular coat. The mucous glands are destroyed, and there are localized areas of infiltration (thickening) and dilatation of the bronchial tubes.

Varieties.—The disease is rarely primary in origin, the vast majority of cases developing as the result of preëxisting acute or chronic maladies.

(1) There is a special type, commonly seen in men past middle life, who either display a gouty diathesis or have been sufferers from emphysema, organic heart disease, general arterial sclerosis, or renal disease.

(2) Another variety is that known as **dry catarrh,** which is also observed in elderly individuals and almost always follows emphysema. This form of chronic bronchitis is characterized by a paroxysmal cough that may occur once or twice or oftener during the twenty-four hours, and is accompanied by scanty but highly tenacious expectoration.

(3) Special attention has been called to the chronic bronchitis of young females, and this type is characterized, first, by the class of individuals it attacks, and, second, by the fact that it does not materially impair the general nutrition.

(4) **Bronchorrhea** is a condition in which the leading symptoms of chronic bronchitis are present, and, in addition, there is a profuse watery and at times mucopurulent expectoration. Bronchorrhea should be considered in connection with putrid bronchitis and with bronchiectasis.

(5) **Fetid Bronchitis.**—In this condition the sputum gives off an odor resembling that of decomposing animal tissue, which forms the characteristic clinical manifestaion in this type of the disease. It should be remembered, however, that fetid expectoration is also a feature of pulmonary gangrene (p. 88), pulmonary abscess (p. 88), and dilatation of a bronchus (p. 104). In making the diagnosis, therefore, these conditions should be carefully excluded.

Predisposing Factors.—Age is not without influence, since the majority of cases occur after the fortieth year. The disease is seen, however, in children, particularly after an attack of whooping-cough or of one of those disease of childhood characterized by malnutrition.

Season.—Cold appears to predispose to attacks of chronic bronchitis, and it is common to find that those free from the disease during the summer months are again attacked as the cold weather approaches, the condition continuing until spring or even summer returns. During the autumn months the pollen of certain plants appears to excite a chronic form of bronchitis in selected cases.

Other Predisposing Conditions.—The disease frequently follows repeated attacks of acute bronchitis, and is especially likely to develop after an attack of influenza, measles, whooping-cough, small-pox, or scarlet fever.

Alcoholism, chronic rheumatism, gout, focal infection, and pulmonary tuberculosis frequently antedate chronic bronchitis. Organic disease of the heart, chronic obesity, emphysema, repeated attacks of asthma, and chronic nephritis manifest chronic bronchitis as a late symptom.

Exposure predisposes to the development of chronic bronchitis in that it gives rise to repeated attacks of the acute variety. Those exposed to irritating dusts (coal-miners, workers in foundries and factories, hat-makers) are especially likely to develop chronic bronchitis after prolonged exposure to such mechanical irritants.

Principal Complaint.—There is often a history of repeated attacks of acute bronchitis, or of the patient having at some time experienced an attack similar to that from which he is now suffering. Generally speaking, this condition resembles closely that described at length under Acute Bronchitis (p. 90), except that all the symptoms are less severe. The patient may complain of a sense of substernal constriction, but pain is rarely, if ever, experienced. Should the *cough* be pronounced, as it often is, the patient suffers from considerable discomfort and soreness about the base of the chest, and a sense of distress and even soreness is felt in the epigastrium and along the margin of the ribs. More or less cough is likely to be present continuously, but repeated paroxysms of coughing form the chief and most distressing complaint. Where expectoration is scanty and highly tenacious, cough is more severe and decidedly more distressing than where expectoration is free.

Physical Signs.—Inspection.—The neck is short and somewhat thickened, and there may be evidence of cyanosis, both of which condi-

tions result from the associated emphysema. Other signs obtained by inspection are usually due to a coexistent condition, and are not in themselves dependent upon chronic bronchitis. Should chronic bronchitis continue for years, emphysema follows.

Palpation.—A distinct fremitus may be transmitted from the larger bronchi to the palpating finger in those cases in which a quantity of mucus has collected in the bronchial tube. The respirations are often somewhat hurried, and the degree of expansion may be limited.

Percussion yields a clear and rather hyperresonant note over the entire lung. Rarely, indeed, during acute exacerbations of a chronic bronchitis there may be moderate impairment at the bases posteriorly, a sign due to pulmonary congestion or possibly to localized pulmonary edema.

Auscultation.—The respiratory murmur is less distinct than normally, and if there is associated emphysema, an appreciable prolongation of the expiratory murmur is heard. Both large and small bubbling râles or rhonchi are heard over the entire chest, and these are particularly audbile at the angles of the scapula over the bases, and at the junction of the third ribs with the costal cartilages. In the so-called "dry catarrh" the râles are often high pitched and wheezing, and at certain times may be accompanied by moist râles.

The heart-sounds are normal at first, but when the disease has continued for years, both the first and the second sound becomes altered, and there is generally accentuation of the second pulmonic sound, as the result of increased blood tension in the lung. (See Emphysema, p. 169.)

Laboratory Diagnosis.—In the ordinary type of chronic bronchitis there is cough with free expectoration upon rising in the morning, and, as a rule, one or two similar paroxysms during the day. The sputum displays no characteristics, but is a thick mucoid or mucopurulent fluid, and at times almost pure pus is ejected. In the so-called "dry catarrh" there is little, if any, expectoration.

Microscopically, the sputum will be found to contain cocci spirellæ and bacilli, but none of these is known to be pathogenic in nature. Epithelial cells from the lining of the bronchial tubules are always present, and some show evidences of degeneration. Leukocytes and pus-cells are also common, and shreds of fibrinous coagula (see p. 83) may rarely be detected. In selected cases of chronic bronchitis the sputum displays an abnormally high percentage of cells that stain by eosin. The eosinophilic granules in the leukocytes found in the sputum are not clearly outlined, as they are in the leukocytes of the circulating blood. When there is an associated asthmatic condition, Curschmann's spirals (Fig. 33) and Charcot-Leyden crystals (Fig. 33) are commonly present.

Summary of Diagnosis.—Chronic bronchitis is readily recognized from the following group of symptoms, which is unusually prominent: cough, expectoration, an absence of fever, and loss of strength and of weight. The fact that chronic bronchitis is, as a rule, a secondary condition is to be remembered, the heart, liver, lungs, and kidneys being studied carefully in order to determine the site of the primary disease. Focal infection is deserving of consideration in all cases of chronic bronchitis.

Differential Diagnosis.—Pulmonary Tuberculosis.—In those cases of bronchitis in which the disease has continued for months or even years it must be carefully differentiated from pulmonary tuberculosis. The leading differential points are given in the following table:

Chronic Bronchitis	Pulmonary Tuberculosis
1. There is often a history of chronic heart, liver, or kidney disease.	1. History of tuberculosis in family or associates common.
2. Occupation may be that of a coal-miner, glass-blower, stone-cutter, or worker in foundries.	2. There may or may not be a history of working in dust.
3. Attacks recur with the approach of cold weather, and are mild or disappear during the summer months.	3. Apparently follows an acute cold or an attack of pleurisy or influenza.
4. There have often been periodic attacks of asthma, which occur at certain seasons—*e. g.*, fall and summer.	4. Absent.
5. Sputum does not contain tubercle bacilli, but a profusion of other bacteria (cocci and bacilli) are present.	5. Tubercle bacilli present.
6. Curschmann's spirals commonly seen.	6. Rare.
7. Pulmonary elastic tissue seldom, if ever, observed.	7. Common after cavity formation.
8. Physical signs obtained over both lungs.	8. Localized to one lung or to apices, rarely at one base.
9. Absent.	9. Pulmonary hemorrhage common.
10. Moderate loss of weight and strength.	10. Progressive weakness and emaciation.
11. Absent.	11. Fever present. After ulceration there is an evening temperature of from two to four degrees, whereas during the morning hours the temperature is normal or subnormal.

Fetid bronchitis is to be distinguished from other pulmonary conditions in which the sputum emits an offensive odor. Thus, in abscess of the lung the sputum contains shreds of lung tissue, elastic fibers, crystals of hematoidin, cholesterin, and amorphous blood-pigments, all of which substances are absent from the sputum of fetid bronchitis. Again, the physical signs in abscess are localized. Fever, which is a feature of abscess, is absent in fetid bronchitis.

In **pulmonary gangrene** the odor of the sputum is one of its most prominent symptoms. Lung tissue may be present, although at times elastic fibers are dissolved by certain questionable ferments present in the sputum. Blood-pigment is also present. In gangrene the physical signs are either absent or distinctly localized, whereas in bronchitis the characteristic signs are heard over both lungs.

Bronchiectasis is seldom bilateral, consequently the physical signs are localized at one or both apices. This subject will be further discussed under Bronchiectasis. (See p. 104.)

Clinical Course.—This varies greatly in different cases, but in the majority of instances complete recovery is unusual, although there are exacerbations of the condition, followed by prolonged intervals during which the leading symptoms, cough and expectoration, subside. The majority of cases terminate, after a course of months or years, in emphysema. In those cases in which the bronchial catarrh results from cardiac, liver, or kidney disease, the course is influenced entirely by the preëxisting disease.

FIBRINOUS BRONCHITIS; (Plastic Bronchitis; Croupous Bronchitis; Mucous Bronchitis)

Pathologic Definition.—This is a rare condition, characterized by either an acute or a chronic catarrhal inflammation of the bronchial mucosa, together with the production of a fibrinous exudate and the formation of fibrinous casts of the bronchial tubules.

General Remarks.—The causes of fibrinous bronchitis are obscure. Autopsy has revealed the existence of such conditions as pneumonia, chronic pleurisy, and pulmonary tuberculosis.

Varieties.—(1) The *acute form*, in which the attacks are unusually severe and lead one to look for an almost immediate fatal termination. (2) The *chronic type*, in which the attacks are mild, but occur somewhat regularly.

Predisposing and Exciting Factors.—The exciting factor is not known, but various bacteria are often present in the sputum.

Sex.—Males are affected in 66⅔ per cent. of all cases.

Age.—Practically all ages may suffer from this affliction, but the majority of cases are seen during the second and third decades.

Season plays an important etiologic rôle, spring furnishing the greatest number of cases. Rarely, indeed, a series of cases occurs in the same locality, and Pichini regards the disease as epidemic. Chronic disease of the lung, as well as diseases of the skin (pemphigus, impetigo, and eczema), appear to predispose the patient to the development of fibrinous bronchitis.

Principal Complaint.—In acute fibrinous bronchitis the disease is ushered in by a severe *rigor*, which is directly followed by *high fever*, *urgent dyspnea*, and *paroxysmal cough*. The patient states that after severe coughing he is often able to expectorate a small quantity of material that contains one or more bronchial plugs. Following a paroxysm of coughing there is generally blood-streaked expectoration. The most dangerous symptoms are dyspnea, general oppression, a severe cough, with little or no expectoration, and a tendency toward asphyxia.

In chronic fibrinous bronchitis the attacks are less severe than in the acute variety, and an important feature is that these attacks occur at irregular intervals, varying from one week to one or more years. Rarely, cases are seen in which an attack of paroxysmal coughing with the expectoration of fibrinous exudate may occur daily for an indefinite period. Generally speaking, the symptoms of chronic fibrinous bronchitis are those seen in chronic bronchitis, with the aforementioned exceptions.

Thermic Features.—In the acute variety fever is to be expected, and in the chronic form there may be a mild febrile period. The fever is often the result of the preëxisting condition, and is but slightly, if at all, influenced by the bronchial trouble.

Physical Signs.—Inspection.—The attitude of the patient is that of one suffering from an asthmatic attack. (See p. 100.)

Palpation.—When a portion of the bronchial tree is plugged by the fibrinous exudate, it is impossible for air to enter that section of the lung, and, as a consequence, fremitus and expansion are diminished over such limited area.

Percussion over the affected area is often negative, yet there is usually a perceptible hyperresonant note over the surrounding healthy lung tissue, and in those cases in which large portions of the bronchial tree are involved, the percussion-note may be impaired over the affected section. After dislodgment of the bronchial cast, normal resonance is restored.

Auscultation.—The breath-sounds are the same as those of chronic bronchitis, and although both harsh and hurried respiratory murmurs and dry râles are heard over different portions of the lung, they are in no way characteristic of this affection.

Diagnosis and Laboratory Diagnosis.—These rest entirely upon the finding of fibrinous coagula in the sputum. Such coagula, when spread thinly on a slide and studied under a low-power objective (two-

of the bronchial tubes. In true diphtheria and in spirachetosis a fibrinous exudate may appear in the sputum, but it has seldom been formed in the bronchial tubules. Fibrinous coagula from the bronchial tubules, when teased under the microscope, will display a laminated structure, whereas the membrane dislodged as the result of infection by the Klebs-Löffler bacillus never presents this characteristic. (See Sputum, p. 80.)

ASTHMA (Bronchial Asthma)

Pathologic Definition.—A chronic condition characterized by hyperemia of the bronchial mucosa and the presence of a mucous exudate, or by a neurosis of reflex origin, with the changes peculiar to chronic bronchitis, including emphysema, hypertrophy, and dilatation of the right heart. Spasmodic constriction involving the mucous membrane of the bronchial tree is also present.

Remarks and Clinical Types.—In certain instances there appears to exist a constitutional susceptibility to spasm of the local muscular fibers. Among the conditions which appear to excite asthma and which stamp, more or less clearly, the various clinical types of the disease should be mentioned:

An idiosyncrasy (alimentary anaphylaxis) for the action of food proteins when taken in the form of foods serves as the chief exciting factor in the production of asthma, when it occurs during infancy, and before puberty. From the 15th to the 35th year practically 52 per cent. of asthmatic cases have been found sensitive to food proteins, and 23 per cent. of them show a similar sensativeness between the ages of 35 and 50 years. Patients after the age of 50 years may not be sensitive to any of the food proteins. Among 23 patients studied by I. C. Walker,* 9 were sensative to egg protein, 8 to cereal grain, and 3 to milk. Fishmeat, potatoes, berries, peaches, and other fruits, are found to be exciting factors; as are also certain bacterial proteins, among which those of the streptococcus deserve special mention.

(*a*) **Acute bronchitis,** in which there may be isolated sections of true inflammation of the bronchial mucosa.

(*b*) The **inhalation of certain irritants**—*e. g.*, gas and other vapors, tobacco smoke, dust from the street or that containing the pollen of plants—and even the odor of certain animals have been known to excite attacks of asthma.

(*c*) **Secondary Asthma.**—Periodic attacks of asthma often occur during the course of such chronic maladies as organic heart disease, nephritis, rheumatism, gout, syphilis, and emphysema, as well as in lesions located in the medulla.

The more recent research work at hand along this line tends to lessen the importance of secondary asthma.

(*e*) **Reflex Asthma.**—Asthma may be reflex in origin, as is seen in those suffering from obstruction to the upper air-passages due to nasal polypi, spurs, and disease of the teeth.

(*f*) **Gastric asthma** may follow dietetic errors. Among foods, examples of which are given under remarks, lobster, and other shell fish, fruits—*e. g.*, peaches, apples, and plums may deserve special mention, and their ingestion may be accompanied by a variable degree of anaphylaxis. It is possible in the majority of cases to ascertain what food or variety of foods when taken are followed by anaphylaxis.

*Boston Med. & Surg. Jour., Aug. 29, 1919.

The withdrawal of such foods is essential in order that treatment be accompanied by relief. Kopaczewski* reports from the Pasteur Institute that shock is produced by contact of the serum with pectin, a non-nitrogenous substance; and Schmidt later found that starch, free from nitrogen, had the same anaphylactic properties. The ultra-microscopic study of the blood shows that the toxic effect of such substances has a structural change, and that the ultimate molecular mass of protoplasm becomes agglutinated. These changes are best seen after the administration of toxic serums, and are capable of being prevented by the use of antiflaking factors. Kopaczewski believes that the flaking of the micella is probably what causes the morbid phenomena, and probably accomplishes its work through lowering superficial tension; or by increasing the viscosity of the fluids before bringing them in contact with colloidal substances. It is further believed that colloidal flaking obstructs the capillaries, and in this way suspends the vital functions.

Predisposing Factors.—Occupation.—Occupation is an important etiologic factor in instances where asthma develops in bakers who are sensitive to wheat protein; and hostlers who are sensitive to horse dandruff protein. Among the animal emanations the protein of horse hair, cats hair and feathers are the most frequent cause of asthma. In summarizing it may be estimated that one-half of the cases due to foods, are sensitive to the proteins of cereals. Eggs, fish, potatoes, and casein protein are frequently found to be exciting factors. Pollens figure as important excitant and in this connection we must consider the pollens that are found during the entire blooming season for plants. Many asthmatics are not sensitive to a certain pollen, like that of the timothy or ragweed; but both early and late seasonal pollens are capable of exciting this condition. Pollen-produced asthma is more common among the older patients, and is seldom seen in asthma before the 15th year of age. (See Hay Fever, p. 93.) Pollen of the plantain is of importance.†

Piness‡ in a careful analysis of 150 cases in conjunction with the work already done by Walker found that 19.3 per cent. of all cases were due to animal protein, and that this type of patients ordinarily suffer from asthma throughout the entire year, or are liable to develop attacks irrespective of season. Ten of his cases were excited by horse hair, 5 by cat hair, 5 by chicken feather, three by dog hair, two by rabbits, one by goat dandruff and hair, and two by wool. Many of the cases considered in the above group were also sensitive to vegetable proteins. Occupational asthma invariably depends upon some one protein that is derived through the course of a stated occupation. It is to be emphasized in this connection that eczema and asthma often have the same etiologic factors. It is conceded that approximately 28 per cent. of all cases are excited by vegetable protein. Piness found but 12 of his 150 cases to be due to ragweed, nine to golden rod, one to sage brush, salt grass two, pig weed four, timothy two, wild oats one, and but three excited by the roses.

Twenty-one of the 150 cases or 14 per cent. showed the exciting cause to be some bacterial among which the following organisms were concerned: Staphylococcus pyogenes aureus, Staphylococcus albus, Staphylococcus citreus, Streptococcus hemolyticus, Streptococcus viridans, Streptococcus non-hemolyticus, Pneumococcus, Micrococcus catarrhalis, and Micrococcus tetragenus. Of this group, eleven were sensitive to Streptococcus hemolyticus and S. viridans, and one was sensitive to

* Annales de Medecine, Paris, 1920.
† Plantain Hay-fever and Asthma, H. S. Bernton, J. A. M. A., Mar. 28, 1925, p. 944.
‡ Calif. State Jour. Med., Jan., 1921.

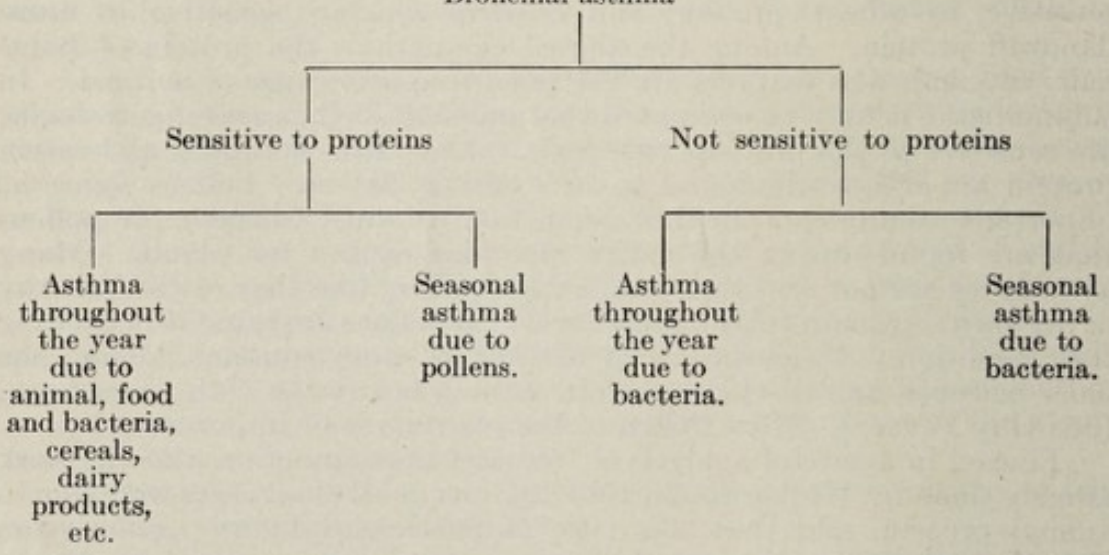
Streptococcus hemolyticus alone. Removal of foci of infection is commonly followed by relief from asthma.

Coke* believes that the skin reaction will show 50 per cent. of cases to be excited by foreign protein. Coke further suggests that hay fever, urticaria, eczema, epilepsy, paroxysmal hemoglobinuria and migrane have many features in common, and that they may one and all depend upon anaphylaxis.

Sex exercises great influence, practically two-thirds of all cases being seen in males.

Season is of special importance in those particular cases in which asthma results from the irritation offered by the pollen of certain plants; consequently the greater number of these cases occur during late summer and autumn months. Most cases of asthma, however, develop during the winter and spring months, and this is probably explained by the fact that many cases follow the excessive use of albuminous foods.†

Table modified from Rosenbloom



Principal Complaint.—In about 50 per cent. of cases the patient complains of one or more of the following prodromal symptoms: irritability of temper, mental buoyancy, or, on the other hand, mental hebetude, vertigo, dull headache, gastro-intestinal irritation (dyspepsia), and an increased frequency of urination.

Paroxysm.—This may appear at any time during the twenty-four hours, but most often attacks the patient during the night, and frequently after he has enjoyed several hours' sleep. There is a tendency for the attack to return at the same time on successive nights. The onset is frequently sudden, the patient being awakened from a sound sleep by extreme dyspnea and paroxysmal cough, although, as a rule, a certain amount of thoracic constriction and moderate dyspnea is experienced for a short time—a few hours—preceding the attack. Suddenly the patient feels that he is smothering, sits up in bed, inclines forward, grasps his knees or some firm support in order to assist him in elevating his shoulders and bringing the accessory muscles of respiration into action. During a severe attack he frequently rushes to the open window. A favorite attitude is for the patient to sit on one chair and rest his arms upon another, again endeavoring to assist respiration by the use of the muscles of the neck

* British Med. Jour., London, March 5, 1921.

† *House dust* an important factor in some cases.

and chest. On attempting to expel the air the patient gives a harsh, high-pitched, or rattling cough.

Thermic Features.—The temperature rapidly falls to below the normal and remains subnormal during the height of the attack.

Physical Signs.—Inspection.—*General.*—The patient sits inclined forward and grasps the knees or some firm object. The skin of the face is pale, whereas that of the fingers, lips, and eyelids, as the result of defective oxidation, is decidedly livid; the mucous membrane of the lips, mouth, and tongue may be cyanosed. The expression is anxious.

Local.—The chest is enlarged, and in those who have suffered from repeated attacks covering a period of months or years the chest is more or less barrel-shaped (Fig. 39, p. 136), due to inability on the part of the patient to expel the air. There is limited expansion of the chest, and the respirations number 10 to 14 a minute. A characteristic feature is alteration in the respiratory rhythm, inspiration being short, and immediately followed by a prolonged expiratory effort. The epigastrium is, as a rule, unusually prominent, due to lowering of the diaphragm. The neck is seen to be thick, and appears unusually short; the vessels of the carotid region stand out prominently, and pulsation over the right carotid region is common. The clavicles, as well as the shoulders, are elevated. The head is held in a somewhat fixed position. Speech is slow and interrupted.

Palpation.—Pulsation of the vessels of the neck is often detected, and not uncommonly there is a throbbing in the sternal notch. In those cases in which there is associated emphysema with dilatation of the right heart, distinct pulsation is detected in the epigastrium. The apex-beat may be absent, when this portion of the heart is covered by the emphysematous lung. The pulse is weak, thready, and rapid. The chest expansion is greatly restricted, and the movements, while not frequent, are jerking in character.

Percussion.—A hyperresonant note is obtained over both lungs, and in chronic cases, where there is associated emphysema, the percussion-note may be somewhat tympanitic in character. The area of absolute cardiac dullness is diminished, and if there is marked emphysema, this is absent. A limited area of impairment may be detected in the epigastrium as the result of a dilated right heart.

Auscultation.—The inspiratory murmur is short and unusually feeble, whereas the expiratory sound is distinctly prolonged and accompanied by a low wheezing that may be heard even at some distance from the patient. Numerous dry râles are audible, and the majority of these are high-pitched, squeaking, and both sibilant and sonorous in character. The character and location of certain râles may vary at any time during or after an attack of asthma, and a certain type (see Râles, p. 71) may be present for but a short time during the entire attack. As the patient's condition improves and when the attack is about to terminate, moist râles are heard over both lungs. If moist râles are heard during the paroxysm, this is an indication that the patient is suffering from an associated bronchitis.

Laboratory Diagnosis.—Early during an attack of asthma the sputum is scanty, clear, beaded with froth, and at times grayish or tinged with red, due to the admixture of blood-corpuscles. Numerous grayish, mucoid particles are visible to the naked eye, and when these are studied under a one-sixth inch objective, they display a characteristic spiral formation (Curschmann's spirals, see p. 83). Charcot-Leyden crystals (Fig. 33) are an almost constant finding, and the sputum is always rich in leu-

kocytes. Sputum stained with an alcoholic solution of eosin demonstrates that many of the leukocytes contain eosinophilic granules, whereas when stained with basic dyes, many of the white blood-cells show basic granules. (See Chemistry of Sputum.)

Blood.—Owing to the extreme cyanosis, the number of red cells in a cubic millimeter will be found to be far above the normal, ranging between 5,000,000 and 10,000,000. Because of imperfect oxidation, the color index is high, and it is usually difficult to match the true blood color with the shades of the hemoglobinometer.

During the prodromal stage the urine is increased in quantity, pale, and of low specific gravity.

Summary of Diagnosis.—The diagnosis is based almost exclusively upon the character of the paroxysm. The history of previous asthmatic seizures or of the existence of renal or cardiac disease, and a possible history of dietetic error, are also of value. The character of the sputum, which is scanty during the early stage, and the detection of Curschmann's spirals, as, also, the absence of fever, constitute valuable evidence on which to formulate a diagnosis.

Differential Diagnosis.—Laryngeal affections may be distinguished from asthma by the following clinical features: in disease of the larynx (edema of the larynx, spasm of the glottis) the voice is altered and aphonia generally ensues, both of which features are lacking in asthma. Again, the physical signs of asthma that are audible over both lungs are absent or greatly modified in laryngeal disease. In the latter condition the patient cannot inspire, whereas in asthma he is unable to expire and to rid his lung of air. Further, in laryngeal stenosis the chest is of normal size, whereas in asthma the dimensions of the chest are increased.

Emphysema is distinguished from asthma first by the fact that in the former the dyspnea is continuous, and, secondly, that in emphysema there are certain characteristic physical signs that are not observed in uncomplicated cases of asthma. (See Emphysema, p. 133.)

Clinical Course and Duration.—In mild cases of asthma there may be one or at most four or five nocturnal paroxysms, with or without cough during the day. In still another class of cases the patient suffers but little, if any, inconvenience for a period of days or weeks, when suddenly and without apparent cause he develops a paroxysm. The cough, which is distressing during and immediately after a seizure, may be more or less continuous for a few days. Dyspnea, accompanied by cough and free expectoration, is present. Even in this last class of cases paroxysmal attacks occur with a varying degree of periodicity.

BRONCHIECTASIS

Pathologic Definition.—This condition may be either congenital or acquired. The latter variety is characterized by atrophy of the various layers of the wall of the bronchus, and by both cylindric and sacculated dilatation of the bronchial tubes. Dilatation may affect either the large, medium-sized, or the comparatively small bronchial tubes, and may be more or less generalized or localized, bilateral or unilateral. In the congenital type localized expansion of the bronchial tubes is also present.

Predisposing and Exciting Factors.—Age and Sex.—Bronchiectasis is most common in early adult and in middle life, and males are more often affected than females.*

* Six children are included in Elliott, Medical Record, N. Y., Aug. 14, 1920, report of 40 cases.

Given a previously weakened bronchial wall, the extra strain of violent coughing is sufficient to produce dilatation; and however slight the dilatation, the accumulation of an exudate following such sacculation serves, by reason of its own weight, to favor the process of further dilatation. Again, as the result of the weight of the exudate in the sacculated portion and the strain of coughing, the elasticity of the lung becomes more and more impaired.

Bronchiectasis is usually a secondary condition, complicating chronic bronchitis, bronchopneumonia, and whooping-cough. Pressure of a thoracic aneurism upon a bronchus may in time weaken the bronchial wall and result in bronchiectatic expansion. Diseases of the pleuræ in which there are marked fibroid change and inhibition of the respiratory function also favor the development of bronchiectasis. A bronchus often becomes dilated in those cases in which the surrounding lung tissue has undergone fibroid changes (fibroid phthisis).

Principal Complaint.—The patient complains bitterly of severe paroxysmal coughing, which attacks him in the morning, upon rising, and probably once or twice during the day. The paroxysms are brought on by change of position, such as turning from side to side while in bed. The cough is always accompanied by the expectoration of from four fluidounces to one pint of sputum during the twenty-four hours. There is usually a history of chronic bronchitis, asthma, emphysema, whooping-cough, or chronic disease of the lungs. Extreme prostration has not been observed, nor does decided loss in weight take place.

Dyspnea is dependent upon the degree of dilatation of the bronchus, and may become extreme during paroxysmal coughing.

Thermic Features.—Uncomplicated cases of bronchiectasis run an afebrile course.

Physical Signs.—These are dependent upon three conditions: (1) The size and location of the dilatation; (2) the histologic condition of the surrounding lung tissue; and (3) the thickness and general relaxation of the chest-wall.

Inspection.—If the bronchial dilatation is large and is situated near the anterior surface of the chest, there will be an appreciable retraction of the chest-wall. The chest-wall is also retracted in those cases that have followed fibroid pleurisy and fibroid phthisis. The expansion of the chest is restricted over a large dilatation of a bronchus.

Palpation.—Tactile fremitus is increased where the surrounding lung tissue is consolidated, but where the dilated portion of the bronchus comes into direct contact with the chest-wall, fremitus may be diminished or absent. The degree of fremitus is dependent upon the amount of solid substance that lies between the chest-wall and the wall of the dilated portion of the bronchus.

Percussion.—The percussion-note is not influenced by the size or location of a dilated bronchus, but the alteration is dependent, as previously stated, upon the location of the sacculated bronchus and upon the condition of the surrounding lung tissue and pleuræ; consequently, given a markedly dilated bronchus situated near the chest-wall, the note may be hyperresonant or even cavernous in nature; whereas, on the other hand, a dilated bronchus with much partially consolidated lung surrounding it would give a decidedly dull note upon moderate percussion, but here too deep percussion will elicit a cavernous (semitympanitic) note. The percussion-note is dull when the sacculated portion of the bronchus is filled with exudate, and immediately after coughing and free expectoration a tympanitic note is often obtained over the same area.

Auscultation.—As a rule, the breath-sounds are markedly exaggerated, and in many instances bronchial breathing is audible. The various types of râles (see p. 71) are extremely common, and may display a metallic quality. Over a dilatation situated immediately beneath the pleuræ the breath-sounds, in addition to being harsh, possess an amphoric quality that is practically indistinguishable from the so-called cavernous breathing—*i. e.*, a distinct pause occurs between the inspiratory and the expiratory murmur.

Laboratory Diagnosis.—The sputum, as a rule, is grayish or brown in color and mucopurulent in consistence. At times it gives off a sour odor, and again it may be fetid. A somewhat characteristic feature of the sputum is that, upon standing, it separates into three strata: (1) a superior layer, composed of brown, frothy material; (2) a middle stratum of watery or serous consistence; and (3) an inferior layer of thick, granular débris. (See Chemistry, p. 80.)

Microscopically, the sputum contains many pus-cells, Charcot-Leyden crystals (Fig. 33, p. 84), and crystals of the fatty acids (Fig. 33, p. 84). Many bacteria (bacilli and cocci) are present. Mycelial threads (fungi) are occasionally seen. Rarely, indeed, fibers of elastic tissue are present, but their presence is dependent entirely upon destructive changes in the lung substance. In those cases in which there is actual destruction of the lung tissue with congestion or ulceration the sputum may contain red blood-corpuscles.

Summary of Diagnosis.—This is based largely upon the history of preëxisting maladies that materially favor the development of bronchiectasis, and upon the fact that there has been no decided loss of strength and of weight. When the disease is running an afebrile course, this points strongly to the existence of bronchiectasis, and excludes a diagnosis of pulmonary tuberculosis. The character of the sputum and the fact that the recurrent paroxysmal cough is not accompanied by hemorrhage from the lung strongly suggest dilatation of the bronchus. The physical signs so closely resemble those present in pulmonary disease with cavity formation that while their presence is necessary in order to establish a diagnosis of dilated bronchus, such diagnosis cannot be based solely on the existence of these signs. Clubbing of the fingers is common in young subjects.

Differential Diagnosis.—The following table sets forth the distinctive features that separate bronchiectasis, pulmonary cavity, and thoracic aneurism. Lipiodol when injected into the trachea, give a positive *x*-ray shadow.*

Bronchiectasis	Pulmonary Cavity	Thoracic Aneurism
1. History of asthma or pertussis of long standing.	1. History of tuberculosis.	1. Heavy lifting, high living, and previous attacks of acute endocarditis, rheumatism, or syphilis.
2. There is but moderate emaciation, without decided weakness.	2. Marked progressive emaciation with weakness.	2. Not characteristic.
3. Characteristic fetid sputum.	3. Nummular sputum containing tubercle bacilli.	3. Large quantities of sputum, often blood-tinged, are expectorated when the aneurism rests upon and causes partial obstruction of a bronchus.
4. Pulmonary hemorrhage absent.	4. Common.	4. Rare.

* Armand, Delille and Moncrieff, British Med. Jour., July 5, 1924.

Bronchiectasis	Pulmonary Cavity	Thoracic Aneurism
5. Physical signs of cavity without impairment of the percussion-note at apices.	5. Impairment at apices an almost constant finding, except where cavity involves the base of one lung.	5. Flatness is obtained over aneurism.
6. Dullness, which may change to a semi-tympanitic note after coughing.	6. Same.	6. Area of dullness not altered by coughing or by posture.
7. Absence of constitutional symptoms, hectic fever, and evidences of toxemia.	7. Constitutional symptoms, hectic fever, and night sweats common.	7. Absent.
8. Tubercle bacilli absent in uncomplicated cases.	8. Tubercle bacilli present.	8. Absent.

Circumscribed empyema, when it communicates with a bronchus through a fistulous opening, may somewhat resemble bronchiectasis, the differential features being that empyema is always marked, at some time in its course, by high temperature and leukocytosis, with an increase in the number of polymorphonuclear leukocytes. Emaciation, pallor and weakness characterize empyema.

Actinomycosis of the thorax may communicate with a bronchus or, less often, may perforate externally. The distinctive feature between actinomycosis and bronchiectasis is that in the former condition actinomyces fungus is present in the sputum.

Clinical Course.—This is, as a rule, favorable as to life, although a permanent cure seldom follows, the condition continuing for years without marked interference with the patient's general nutrition.

BRONCHIAL STENOSIS

Pathologic Definition.—A condition characterized by partial occlusion of the lumen of a bronchus, either as the result of disease or of foreign bodies, etc., within the bronchus itself, or, more commonly, from pressure from without, as the result of thoracic aneurism, enlarged bronchial glands, and the like.

Principal Complaint.—The most urgent complaint is that of dyspnea, which may be so pronounced as to bring into action the accessory muscles of respiration. Cough and expectoration are usually present.

Thermic Features.—Moderate fever is the rule, though by no means a constant finding.

Physical Signs.—Inspection.—In well-marked cases the skin and mucous surfaces are cyanosed. Chest expansion is unequal on the two sides, and there is often retraction of the interspaces on the affected side during the inspiratory act.

Tracheobronchoscopy.—By means of this special method it is possible, with the aid of the bronchoscope, to inspect the upper and lower air-passages and ascertain the existence of stricture and of disease of the mucous lining of the bronchial tubes. Stenosis is recognized by this method, and it is possible to distinguish between stenosis the result of external pressure and that resulting from changes in the bronchus itself. For a more detailed description of this method the reader is referred to special works upon this subject.*

* Chevalier Jackson, of Philadelphia, has published a monograph giving the technic, etc., for the use of the bronchoscope, and has also devised an instrument that has proved satisfactory in the hands of many investigators.

Palpation.—Tactile fremitus is diminished and often absent, over the area of lung supplied by the diseased bronchus.

Percussion.—During the early stages of bronchial stenosis no positive evidences are elicited by percussion, but atelectasis may occur as a late complication, and in this case dullness is obtained over the area of lung involved. A fact to be considered in connection with every case of bronchial stenosis is that the area of lung affected is often small and completely covered by surrounding healthy, but emphysematous, lung tissue, which tends to obscure the evidences of disease.

Auscultation.—The vesicular murmur is feeble over the affected area, due to the diminished volume of air entering the peripheral portions of the lung. Numerous râles, both sibilant and sonorous, are present over the site of the obstruction.

Summary of Diagnosis.—Auscultation offers the most positive diagnostic sign—the detection of sibilant and sonorous râles at a point corresponding to the position of a bronchus. A history of thoracic tumor, particularly if such tumor is aneurismal in character, should always create suspicion of the existence of bronchial stenosis. The fact that at some time the bronchus was wounded by the lodgment of foreign bodies, etc., is also of great importance in formulating a diagnosis. Retraction of the interspaces is a valuable sign in those cases in which it is possible to eliminate the preexistence of pleurisy with adhesions. Bronchoscopic examination reveals positive findings in all cases.

X-ray Diagnosis.—The *x*-ray will serve to demonstrate the presence of foreign bodies when present.

DISEASES OF THE LUNGS

CONGESTION OF THE LUNGS

Varieties.—(1) **Active congestion,** a secondary condition, which accompanies such pulmonary affections as pneumonia, tuberculosis, bronchitis, and pleurisy. Some authors claim, and correctly so, that primary pulmonary congestion, while rare, may occur, and is probably the forerunner of pulmonary edema. During pulmonary congestion the bronchial mucosa is also involved.

(2) **Passive congestion** may be present either as a general passive hyperemia of the lung tissue, mechanic in nature, or as a localized hyperemia (hypostatic congestion). In the mechanic variety of passive congestion (brown induration) the lung tissue is distended and crepitation is appreciably diminished. Even the interstitial connective tissue may be edematous, and an extravasation of blood-pigment may have taken place into the alveolar cells. The hypostatic variety seen in acute infectious diseases produces a condition known as hypostatic pneumonia.

Predisposing and Exciting Factors.—Active Hyperemia.—Generally speaking, this condition is a symptom that accompanies some form of pulmonary disease in which there is an active inflammatory process. The inhalation of irritating substances—*e. g.*, gases, foul air, flame, and hot air—may also give rise to active hyperemia. Rarely congestion follows violent exercise, such as running and other athletic feats.

Passive Hyperemia.—Mechanic passive hyperemia results from an interference with the current of blood flowing between the right and left heart through the lung. The commonest causes are mitral stenosis,

mitral regurgitation, and dilatation of the right ventricle. It occasionally follows traumatism to the head, apoplexy, and cerebral tumor.

Hypostatic congestion may develop as a complication of other febrile or afebrile maladies in which there is an appreciable enfeeblement of the heart's action, as in the aged and in such maladies as typhoid and other fevers; it may also occur as a late complication in cardiac disease, liver affections, the anemias, tuberculosis, and malignancy. Hypostatic congestion is favored in those cases in which the patient rests for a long time in one position, and particularly when he lies upon his back.

Symptomatology of Pulmonary Congestion.—The symptoms of pulmonary congestion are vague. There is *cough*, accompanied by free *expectoration*. The *sputum* is covered with a thick froth, and contains shreds of mucus. In those cases in which the degree of congestion is marked, the sputum is blood-streaked, and may contain alveolar epithelial cells in which particles of blood-pigment are deposited.

Physical Signs.—Inspection.—The respirations are increased in frequency and shallow, and movement of the nostrils is distinctly perceptible. There is cyanosis of the lips and finger-tips, mild or intense, according to the degree of congestion present, and there may be lividity of the face.

Palpation often reveals a slight increase in the tactile fremitus over the bases, and when congestion develops during the course of acute fever, this sign is most often obtained posteriorly.

Percussion.—The note is impaired over the congested area, but seldom sufficiently to be regarded as dullness. A comparative study of the upper and the lower portion of the lung is necessary in order to detect pulmonary congestion, either passive or active, since the condition is a bilateral one that attacks the bases first.

Auscultation.—The breath-sounds over the congested lung are somewhat increased (bronchovesicular), and rarely, indeed, is true bronchial breathing audible.

Summary of Diagnosis.—This is based largely upon the heart's action, a feeble heart always giving rise to a suspicion of the existence of pulmonary congestion. The presence of mitral or tricuspid disease is also of importance in formulating a diagnosis. The physical signs obtained by palpation and percussion, when sufficiently distinct, are almost positive evidence of the presence of pulmonary congestion. The frequency and character of the respirations are the only constant features, and, indeed, these may be absent when pulmonary congestion follows traumatism to the brain, paralysis, or cerebral tumor.

Clinical Course.—This is dependent almost entirely upon the pre-existing condition. In valvular heart disease pulmonary congestion often subsides after the administration of cardiac stimulants and sufficient rest. In those cases resulting from exposure to irritating gases, etc., the condition tends rapidly toward recovery. The course is likely to be more protracted in the cases of hypostatic congestion resulting from acute infectious and debilitating disease.

PULMONARY EDEMA (EDEMA OF THE LUNGS)

Pathologic Definition.—An effusion of serous fluid into the interstitial lung tissue, and an exudation of such serum into the air-vesicles.

Etiology and Varieties.—Pulmonary collateral edema is rarely, if ever, a primary condition, but is secondary to other inflammatory processes—*e. g.*, lobar pneumonia, bronchopneumonia, pulmonary infarct,

hypostatic congestion, and abscess. This form of inflammatory edema attacks only the lung tissue surrounding an acute inflammatory process, a variable degree of emphysema being adjacent to it.

General Edema.—This process usually begins at the bases, but in marked cases may have invaded the entire lung substance of both sides. The mode of production of pulmonary edema is questionable, the following conditions apparently being in intimate relation with it: (1) Increased tension of the blood-vessels of the lung, from whatever cause—mitral, pulmonary, or tricuspid disease. When aortic disease produces an obstruction to the escape of blood from the left heart, this in turn causes damming back of the blood into the lung, increasing the blood-pressure there. (2) An increase in the fluidity of the blood. (3) Disease of the pulmonary vessels—*e. g.*, impaired nutrition—may also interfere with the circulation through the lung, and this pathologic state probably explains the pulmonary edema, seen in both acute and chronic Bright's disease. (4) Pulmonary edema may develop in profound septic conditions and acute and chronic maladies in which toxic poisoning is a marked feature, the edema being due to the action of such toxins upon the heart muscle (weak heart) or upon the nervous system. (5) Pulmonary edema may also follow irritation of certain portions of the vasomotor system, which in turn encourages a relaxation of the pulmonary tissue. (6) General pulmonary edema is of common occurrence late during the course of unfavorable cases of lobar pneumonia and in all pulmonary inflammations. It may also appear as a terminal condition in both the essential and the symptomatic anemias, hepatic cirrhosis, brain tumor, cerebral hemorrhage, valvular heart disease, pulmonary tuberculosis, and acute infections in which exhaustion is prominent. (7) Acute edema may develop during or after thoracentesis, and the hypodermic use of pilocarpine and of adrenaline may rarely cause pulmonary edema.

Symptoms.—Except in well-marked cases, these are, as a rule, vague. Cough is always present, and is accompanied by free expectoration of frothy, serous fluid (bronchorrhea). The protein content of the sputum is increased both in local and in general pulmonary edema. The patient usually complains of cold extremities and of extreme dyspnea, which latter is increased upon the slightest exertion.

Thermic Features.—Pulmonary edema does not cause a rise in temperature, therefore any febrile symptoms that are present should be regarded as indicative of the preëxisting condition.

Physical Signs.—Inspection.—The skin of the face and extremities becomes livid, and the lips and tongue are distinctly cyanosed. In selected cases the skin may be covered with beads of perspiration, but this is by no means a constant finding. The movements of the chest are feeble, and the respirations are rapid.

Palpation.—The pulse is weak and rapid, and later becomes dicrotic. The skin of the extremities is cold, whereas that covering other portions of the body is clammy.

Percussion.—The note is usually impaired at the bases, and there may be a variable degree of impairment over the greater portion of both lungs. Rarely, indeed, there is dullness over localized areas of the lung surface, a feature more common in localized than in general pulmonary edema.

Auscultation.—The true vesicular quality of the respiratory sound may be absent, bronchovesicular breathing being audible in its place. Numerous small moist râles are to be heard over the entire chest, but are usually more marked as the bases of the lungs are approached. In those cases in which there is an associated bronchitis, large piping râles are heard at the

apices, along the sternal border, and are often audible at the angles of the scapulæ. The heart-sounds are increased in frequency, and an appreciable accentuation of the second pulmonic sound is heard early. Late in pulmonary edema it is not uncommon to find cardiac dilatation, in which case both the first and the second sound of the heart resemble those of the fetus.

Summary of Diagnosis.—This is based largely upon the physical signs, particularly the increase in frequency of the respirations, the weak, rapid pulse, and the presence of numerous moist râles over the greater portion of both lungs. The absence of fever is a favorable clinical feature when pulmonary edema complicates an afebrile condition.

Differential Diagnosis.—**Hydrothorax,** when it complicates valvular heart disease or pulmonary disease, may be distinguished from pulmonary edema by the fact that in hydrothorax there is flatness at the bases (Fig. 47), and the upper level of this flat note changes with the position of the patient (see Pleurisy, Figs. 49 and 51), a phenomenon that does not occur in pulmonary edema. In pulmonary edema numerous moist râles are present over the area where the percussion-note is impaired, and the breath-sounds are slightly intensified; in hydrothorax, on the other hand, no râles are audible over this area, and the breath-sounds are absent. The sputum in hydrothorax is scanty, as a rule, while in pulmonary edema bronchorrhea exists.

BRONCHOPNEUMONIA (CAPILLARY BRONCHITIS; CATARRHAL PNEUMONIA)

Pathologic Definition.—An inflammatory pulmonary consolidation, often developing secondary to bronchitis, various infectious diseases, and as a terminal infection. It is characterized by the presence of an acute inflammation of the smaller bronchi and air-vesicles, with isolated areas of consolidation in both lungs (Fig. 37). The size of the consolidated areas varies from that of a pin's point to that of a pea, and these minute consolidations may coalesce, thus causing consolidation of a variable portion of one lobe. Surrounding each area of consolidation there are evidences of an attempt at compensatory emphysema.

Clinical Varieties.—(*a*) **Suffocative Catarrh.**—This term was employed by the earlier writers to describe that type of disease, due to exposure to certain poisonous gases, in which the cerebral centers were affected and the patient remained in a somewhat stuporous condition. Dyspnea and cyanosis are constant features and increase rapidly. Cough, which may be present early, disappears as the stupor increases. The respirations become more and more rapid and very shallow. Large, moist râles are audible over the entire chest; the heart-sounds become weak, and finally acute dilatation of the right heart results, which presages a fatal termination.

(*b*) **The Primary Form of Children.**—In children under two years of age the disease frequently begins abruptly, the fever rising rapidly to from 102° to 104° F. It is possible at times to localize isolated areas of pulmonary consolidation with the aid of the stethoscope and the employment of auscultatory percussion. (See p. 60.) This type of bronchopneumonia in many respects resembles true lobar pneumonia, although its clinical course is, as a rule, somewhat different. In selected cases the physical signs are those seen in lobar pneumonia.

(*c*) **The Primary Form of Adults.**—Where the patient is seen early, the signs and symptoms are those of a severe acute bronchitis, although the high fever, racking cough, increasing dyspnea, and profound prostration

are more marked than in bronchitis. The sputum is scanty, and the general clinical picture resembles that of lobar pneumonia, differing only in the fact that definite physical signs—*i. e.*, consolidation and bronchial breathing—are lacking.

(*d*) **Bronchopneumonia with Remittent Fever.**—This type of catarrhal pneumonia is doubtless more common than is generally believed, and, because of its peculiar temperature-curve, may occasionally be mistaken for some other condition. The febrile peculiarities are more often seen in children than in adults, although they may occur in the aged. This variety is of special interest, since it serves to explain the peculiar intermittency of the temperature during the course of many chronic febrile and afebrile maladies.

(*e*) **Cerebral Type.**—In certain selected cases bronchopneumonia developing in children may be ushered in with severe nervous symptoms, such as intense headache, convulsions, delirium, stupor, or even coma. In these cases, also, gastro-intestinal symptoms, such as nausea, severe vomiting, and diarrhea, with abdominal pain, are not infrequently present. The abdominal symptoms are often so severe that bronchopneumonia may not be recognized. A careful analysis of the character of the respirations, the temperature, and the increasing rapidity of the heart's action, with a lessening in the volume of the pulse, is often necessary in order to recognize this type of catarrhal pneumonia.

(*f*) **Ordinary Type.**—Catarrhal pneumonia may develop during the course of acute, subacute, or chronic bronchitis, as well as during convalescence from such acute infections as measles, whooping-cough, scarlet fever, diphtheria, typhoid fever, and influenza, or during the course of certain chronic maladies, such as nephritis, hepatic cirrhosis, carcinoma, and the anemias. This distinctly secondary type of the disease often develops insidiously, and the first evidence of its existence is had when the patient displays an irregular type of temperature, or when the temperature that was present in the primary condition becomes higher. The clinical features of this type of disease will be discussed below.

Exciting and Predisposing Factors.—Bacteriology.—It is extremely difficult to draw deductions from the pathologic evidence found at autopsy in those dead of bronchopneumonia. Weichselbaum and other observers have found in the minute areas of consolidation, and by both the direct and cultural methods, streptococci, pneumococci, staphylococci, and the influenza bacillus. Hemolytic streptococci are commonly found in the lung at post-mortem. These and other bacteria have also been recovered from individual cases that have come under our notice. When bronchopneumonia has complicated typhoid fever, the typhoid bacillus is not an unusual finding. Colon bacilli are commonly cultivated from the area of consolidation, the rule being, however, to find more than one organism; as previously stated, this makes it impracticable to estimate the pathogenicity of any organism cultivated from the areas of consolidation in bronchopneumonia. A bacteriologic study of the sputum, therefore, will reveal a number of types of bacteria, many of which are known to be pathogenic.

(*a*) The disease may occur by direct extension of an acute inflammatory process due to the inhalation of some irritating substance, such as gas or ether. (*b*) It may follow the inhalation of particles of mucus, which not uncommonly occurs in laryngeal diphtheria and other conditions with obstruction in the larynx, producing the so-called "inspiration pneumonia." (*c*) It may arise as the result of the entrance of liquid or semiliquid food into the trachea, an accident that seldom, if ever, takes place unless

paralysis of the muscles of deglutition or impairment of sensation of the larynx and trachea is present. Inhalation pneumonia may also result from the inspiration of blood during surgical operations upon the larynx, mouth, and tonsils, and is also a frequent complication arising during the course of carcinoma of the throat and of the esophagus. In the new-born pneumonia may follow the inspiration of amniotic fluid or of mucus from the birth-canal. It has also been found that, during the administration of ether to certain selected cases,—*e. g.*, syphilitics,—there is likely to be a hypersecretion of mucus from the upper air-passages and buccal cavity, and particles of such mucus are occasionally inspired. Foreign bodies in the air passages (see pp. 116, 718) may give rise to pneumonia.

Statistics show that in hospital and private operations where anesthesia is employed, one patient in every thirty to fifty develops pulmonary complication; and one in every 150 dies from such complication. Embolism from the field of operation is regarded by Cutler and Hunt* as a common cause for post-operative pulmonary complication. Embolus following sepsis, trauma, and unnecessary mobility of the part is occasionally seen. Preexisting lung disease, however slight, is liable to be an important factor in the production of bronchopneumonia where ether is employed as an anesthetic.

Symptomatology.—Clinically, two quite distinct forms of catarrhal pneumonia may be said to exist—primary and secondary.

Primary Bronchopneumonia.—This type is found more often among adults than among children, and is characterized by a somewhat acute onset, the symptoms being those common to acute bronchitis—*i. e.*, pronounced dyspnea, severe cough with but slight expectoration, an irregular temperature, varying between 99° and 102° F., rarely reaching 104° F. In severe types of the disease the temperature may assume the continuous type for from two to four days, declining, as a rule, by lysis. The cough is always accompanied by a moderate amount of expectoration, which is at first glairy or frothy, and rather tenacious, and in occasional cases may be tinged with blood, the latter being more common when the pneumonia has been preceded by valvular heart disease.

Secondary bronchopneumonia is a catarrhal pneumonia that develops during the course of some primary malady, the symptoms of pneumonia being frequently obscured by those of the primary affection. This type of catarrhal pneumonia seldom manifests itself until inflammatory changes in the bronchial mucosa have taken place. Secondary catarrhal pneumonia is readily recognized when the physician is thoroughly acquainted with the condition of his patient, and suddenly observes that the respirations are increased in frequency and become more and more rapid until, within the course of twenty-four to forty-eight hours, they may number from 30 to 60 or even 80 a minute. The patient, as the result of the primary disease from which he is suffering, is unconscious of the development of any acute symptoms that mark the onset of catarrhal pneumonia —*e. g.*, chill, nausea, muscular pains, etc. The first manifestation observed by the patient is cough, with difficulty in breathing. Occasionally he complains that cough evokes a pain about the base of the chest, and that although he expectorates freely, he does not obtain any relief from the dyspnea.

Thermic Features.—In both primary and secondary bronchopneumonia the temperature is controlled largely by the preëxisting condition, and is in no way characteristic, although, as a rule, it continues of an irregular remittent type.

* Archives of Surgery, July, 1920.

Physical Signs.—Inspection.—In those cases in which there are numerous isolated pneumonic areas throughout the lungs the skin becomes dusky, the lips and finger-tips are cyanosed, the nostrils move quickly, and the respiratory movements are rapid, although the degree of chest expansion is somewhat limited. Extensive consolidation may follow as the result of coalescence of numerous small consolidated areas, in which case inspiratory retraction of the lower ribs and of the lower portion of the sternum has been observed, and is indicative of imperfect lung expansion.

Palpation confirms inspection as to the limited expansion of the chest. Tactile fremitus may be increased in those cases in which areas of con-

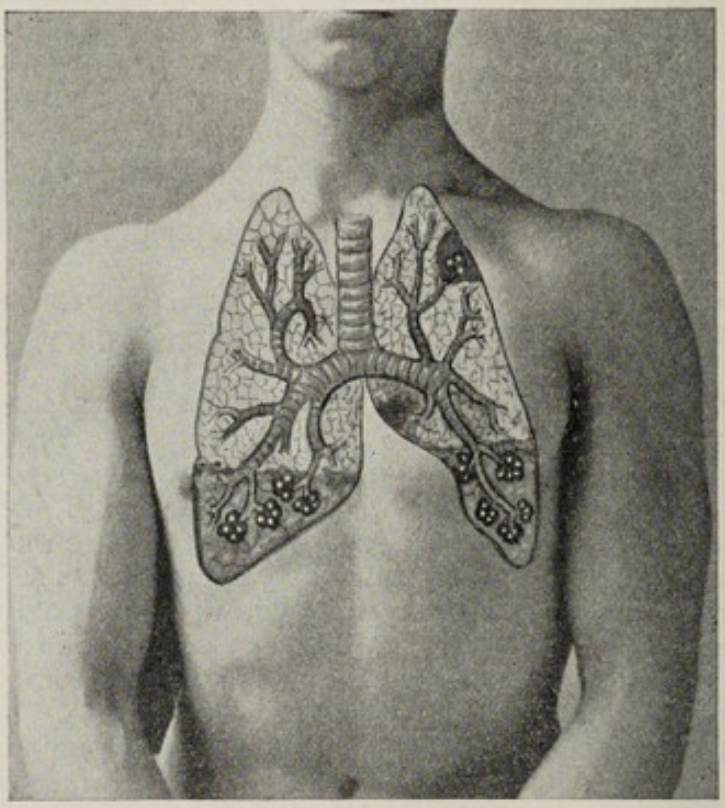


Fig. 37.—Bronchopneumonia, Showing Isolated Area of Consolidation.

solidation are situated immediately beneath the pleural surface, provided the patient's chest-wall is thin. The pulse becomes rapid during the first few hours after the onset of catarrhal pneumonia, reaching 120 to 140 beats a minute. As the disease advances the tension of the pulse is lowered, the wave becomes feeble and the rhythm irregular, and, as a late feature, the pulse is dicrotic and compressible. When catarrhal pneumonia develops during the course of certain maladies in which a pulse of high tension is a characteristic symptom, such as nephritis or scarlet fever, this change in tension and frequency may be a valuable prognostic guide.

Percussion.—The percussion-note is influenced entirely by the location and size of the area of consolidation; thus, if there are a number of small pneumonic areas near the chest-wall, the percussion-note will be hyperresonant, owing to the fact that each pneumonic area is surrounded by a zone of emphysema. On the other hand, where several of these isolated pneumonic patches coalesce to form one larger area of consolidation (Fig. 37), distinct dullness is obtained, but surrounding this large area of pneumonic lung there is also a band over which hyperresonance is

obtained. It is practically impossible to elicit impairment or dullness over a small area of consolidation unless this area is situated immediately beneath the pleura and the chest-wall is thin.

Auscultation furnishes most valuable data, revealing, as it does, the presence of numerous fine crepitant râles over the pneumonic portions of the lung. The respiratory murmur will be found to have lost its normal quality and is distinctly bronchovesicular, whereas in those cases in which several small areas of consolidation have united to form a large hepatogenous mass, true bronchial breathing is audible. Most important in connection with auscultation is the fact that alterations in the breath-sounds are always detected at the base of the chest, and occasionally at the apex, but are the same over both lungs.

Laboratory Diagnosis.—The sputum is scanty at first, but in those cases in which catarrh of the respiratory tract has previously existed, it may be profuse. As a rule, it is frothy, glairy, and, in certain instances, may be streaked with blood. The sputum is tenacious, but not to the degree observed in the sputum of lobar pneumonia. A bacteriologic study of the sputum shows the presence of numerous bacteria. The number of red cells is usually above normal, due to capillary cyanosis.

Leukocytosis may or may not be present, its presence or absence depending upon the general vitality of the patient, the nature of the preëxisting disease, and the type of organism that has excited the pneumonia process. When present, it is merely an expression of the patient's reaction against the disease. The staphylococcus may predominate in severe cases.

Summary of Diagnosis.—The diagnosis is made first from a thorough study of the preëxisting condition, or from a history of exposure to the exciting causes—(*a*) inhalation of gas, anesthesia, and operations upon the mouth, nose, and throat. (*b*) The previous existence of a disease that has had delirium as one of its clinical manifestations should always arouse suspicion of bronchopneumonia, and should encourage a careful physical examination of the chest. (*c*) While the preëxistence of bronchitis is also of importance in formulating a diagnosis of catarrhal pneumonia, in addition there must be detected isolated areas of pulmonary congestion or consolidation. (*d*) Dyspnea and cyanosis are among the most constant symptoms of this affection, and are dependent upon the number of areas of consolidation and the extent of their distribution throughout both lungs. (*e*) The somewhat prolonged duration of the course, the fact that the febrile manifestation does not terminate by crisis, and the irregular (remittent) type of fever are important factors in the diagnosis. (*f*) The heart's action, as shown by the increased rapidity and decided weakness of the pulse, is to be considered in making a diagnosis of bronchopneumonia, and there is, as a rule, a variable degree of dilatation of the right heart. Purpura when developing in children suggests the existence of pneumococcemia or a bacteriemia accompanying a profound toxemia.

Differential Diagnosis.—Occasionally bronchopneumonia may be mistaken for **lobar pneumonia** that is tuberculous in origin. The rule, however, is that tubereulous processes involve the apices rather than the bases of the lungs, but this is by no means a constant finding. Occasionally cases of so-called simple catarrhal pneumonia are seen in which the apex of one or of both lungs is involved. During the early stages it is quite difficult to distinguish between these two conditions, but as the disease advances the physical signs of a tuberculous process, including cavity formation, become distinct, and a microscopic examination of the

sputum may disclose positive evidence of the existence of tuberculosis. In acute tuberculosis the feces often contain tubercle bacilli.

The accompanying table, modified from Anders, sets forth the distinctive features between bronchopneumonia (catarrhal pneumonia) and lobar pneumonia:

Bronchopneumonia	Lobar Pneumonia
Etiology	
1. Presence of pathogenic organisms* (streptococci).	1. Presence of the Diplococcus pneumoniæ.
2. Usually secondary to bronchitis and acute infectious diseases, *e. g.*, measles, whooping-cough.	2. Usually a primary disease.
Clinical History	
3. Onset gradual, without rigor.	3. Onset abrupt, with rigor; previous health generally good.
4. Fever is governed by the extent of the inflammation, is of irregular type, and after a variable duration, declines by lysis.	4. Fever is high, of continuous type, and falls by crisis between the fifth and ninth days.
5. Sputum glairy tenacious, and in adults may be blood-tinged.	5. Sputum characteristic (rusty or prune-juice and very tenacious).
6. Dyspnea and cyanosis prominent.	6. Dyspnea and cyanosis relatively less marked; countenance anxious.
7. Physical signs of generalized bronchitis always marked, and usually preponderating over those of consolidation.	7. Signs of bronchitis generally absent; those of lobar consolidation always preponderating.
8. Consolidation commonly bilateral.	8. Commonly unilateral.
9. Duration indefinite, often extending over many weeks.	9. Duration definite, as a rule; convalescence follows crisis.
10. Consolidated areas likely to become the seat of tuberculous infection.	10. Far less likely to become the seat of tuberculous infection.
11. Herpes labialis rare.	11. Herpes common.

* The discovery of streptococci in the sputum is of questionable diagnostic value, since numerous other organisms have been found in the sputum of bronchopneumonia when streptococci were absent. The Streptococcus pneumoniæ of Weichselbaum has also been found in a number of cases of lobar pneumonia.

Clinical Course.—This is governed entirely by the degree of dissemination of the minute areas of consolidation in each lung. In those cases in which primary bronchopneumonia follows the inhalation of irritating and foreign substances the clinical course is rapid and reaches its height within from twenty-four to seventy-two hours. In the mild forms of primary catarrhal pneumonia recovery generally ensues in from seven to fourteen days.

In secondary pneumonia the clinical course and prognosis are governed largely by the preëxisting disease, and when this has been of a mild type, a favorable termination may be expected in the course of two or three weeks. In those suffering from a severe type of typhoid fever, influenza, scarlet fever, etc., the catarrhal pneumonia is also likely to be of a severe grade, and continues for three or more weeks unless a fatal termination ensues. Death occurs in from 28 to 50 per cent. of such cases. Brewer collected reports of 8432 cases with 949 deaths, or 11.3 per cent. In 2705 cases following measles there was a death rate of 42.7 per cent.

FOREIGN BODIES IN THE AIR PASSAGES

Speaking clinically the failure for the recognition of foreign bodies in the respiratory passages is chiefly due to an almost total absence of symp-

toms during the first two days to two weeks after such body has been inspired; while certain other cases show definite symptoms which cannot be misinterpreted. It is the vast scope of symptomatology and of physical signs that has prompted us to consider, somewhat at length, the features that lead to a diagnosis. All cases should be referred to the bronchoscopist for treatment.

TABLE SETTING FORTH THE CHARACTERISTIC DIFFERENTIAL FEATURES BETWEEN FOREIGN BODY IN THE AIR PASSAGES, WHOOPING-COUGH, AND LARYNGEAL DIPHTHERIA

Foreign Body in the Air Passages	Whooping-Cough	Laryngeal Diphtheria
1. History of inhalation of foreign body, or of choking and violent coughing while eating.	1. History of exposure. Has never had whooping cough.	1. May be a history of contagion.
2. Temperature normal during the first few days.	2. Normal.	2. Irregular fever.
3. Cough spasmodic and at times accompanied by profuse or bloody sputum.	3. Cough spasmodic, sputum scanty.	3. Croup the rule.
4. Laryngeal stridor when body is lodged in the larynx.	4. Stridor only during a paroxysm.	4. Stridor continuous until relief is given. Laryngeal symptoms usually disappear in from 1 to 4 days.
5. Cyanosis may or may not be present early, but appears later, and obtains for weeks or months.	5. Cyanosis during a paroxysm.	5. Cyanosis extreme for the first 2 to 4 days.
6. Limited movements of one-half of chest.	6. Negative.	6. Negative.
7. Alteration in percussion note in vicinity of foreign body.	7. Note that of emphysema.	7. Not characteristic.
8. Cultures from the throat show only the bacteria present in health.	8. In no way characteristic.	8. Positive for diphtheria bacilli.
9. Insertion of a tube in the larynx and tracheotomy gives no relief.	9. Negative.	9. Gives immediate relief.
10. Ocular phenomena not diagnostic.	10. Subconjunctival hemorrhage. Edema beneath eyes.	10. Negative.
11. Always a protracted illness.	11. Lasts from 5 to 10 weeks.	11. Is of a few days duration.
12. *X*-ray study gives positive findings where the foreign body is radio-opaque.	12. A generalized emphysema.	12. *X*-ray negative.

Foreign Body in the Larynx.—Among the conspicuous features are a history of inhalation of a foreign body, spasmodic attacks, and

apparent obstruction of the larynx. Special cases are void of local symptoms. An initial attack of laryngeal spasm, or a series of spasmodic seizures are important. Cough which may at times be severe, and of a croup-like nature, usually becomes more mild. Laryngeal symptoms may subside following a dislodgment, and the passage downward of the foreign body. A recurrence of the laryngeal spasm, and other symptoms suggest strongly that the object has become dislodged and again imbedded against the under surface of the chords. Asphyxia is to be feared in all such cases.

Pain is experienced in the region of the larynx and commonly radiates to the ears. The croup-like cough is at first unproductive. Phonation is altered and the child may be unable to speak. Dyspnea varies in degree with each selected case, and the laryngeal stridor resembles closely that of diphtheria.

Thermic Features.—The temperature is normal, except where pulmonary complications and suppuration are present.

Laboratory Diagnosis.—The sputum is commonly blood streaked and the quantity of sputum varies with the degree of irritation offered at the time the foreign body has been lodged within the larynx.

Differential Diagnosis.—Laryngeal foreign body is to be distinguished from diphtheria where a mild irregular fever obtains. It is usually possible to recognize the characteristic membrane, and a culture from such membrane will be found positive in event of diphtheria. The history of exposure to diphtheria also serves in the differentiating; while a history of the inspiration of a foreign body makes the diagnosis positive. A laryngoscopic examination is of inestimable value in separating these two conditions. An *x*-ray study may be required.

Foreign Body in the Trachea.—These consist of particles of food and articles that are too large to enter into the bronchus. Among the conspicuous features should be mentioned loud wheezing respirations; a cough which is always distressing, paroxysmal, and frequently accompanied by vomiting. Extreme dyspnea and cyanosis follows each attack of coughing.*

Foreign Bodies in the Bronchi.—There is frequently a history of a violent laryngeal spasm accompanying the entrance of such a body into the larynx, but the absence of such history must not be permitted to mislead the diagnostician. Lung symptoms following the extraction of teeth, loss of tooth fillings, and the questionable inspiration of any foreign substance, suggests the possibility of a foreign body in the bronchus. Substances inspired are divided into two classes, those radiographically opaque, and those non-radiographically opaque, which necessitates that clinical observation is not complete without an *x*-ray study of every case.

Clinically this condition may be considered under two separate heads:

(*a*) Latency is a feature where certain non-irritating metallic substances enter the bronchus, but do not completely occlude the lumen. This type of foreign body usually deludes the clinician by its interval of calm. Pathologic changes begin almost immediately after a foreign body enters the bronchus, and these changes are progressive and always lead to the production of definite symptoms.

(*b*) Symptoms develop acutely where a bronchus is completely occluded, independent of whether or not the foreign body be irritating. The inhalation of particles of nuts, particularly of the peanut kernel, is followed by evidence of a general toxemia, which is more pronounced in young children, who become critically ill during the first twenty-four hours.

*L. H. Clerf, The Laryngoscope, Oct., 1924.

The irritation excited by the presence of nut kernels results in a violent bronchitis, which Jackson has considered under the title of "arachidic bronchitis."

Pain in the chest is rather unusual; although in some cases it may be severe. The patient is often able to localize the foreign body before it has become lodged in the bronchus. A dull aching sensation through the chest is an occasional complaint, but pleural pains are uncommon.

Taste and odor are at times fairly characteristic. Where a foreign body has existed for a long time the taste of pus together with the odor produced by saprophytic bacteria, and occasionally by the colon bacillus serves as distressing symptoms. Metallic substances may cause the patient to complain of an unpleasant metallic taste.

The sputum is at first clear, and in some cases scanty, while in others it may be copious. Foul sputum emitting an offensive pungent odor induces anorexia. The sputum is frequently blood stained, heavy, purulent, and there are reported instances where hemorrhage threatened the patient's life. A bacteriologic study of the sputum reveals the presence of the usual broncho respiratory bacteria, but tubercle bacilli are conspicuous by their absence.

Dyspnea.—Dyspnea is extreme in those cases where a bronchus is suddenly occluded, and where occlusion may depend upon localized edema. Persistent dyspnea should always be regarded as a sign of serious omen. Arachidic bronchitis is frequently accompanied by dyspnea, and it is likely to be associated with much purulent sputum.

Cyanosis is an important factor, and when persistent over a long time is a grave sign. Selected cases may show but slight evidence of cyanosis; although cyanosis usually appears upon exertion. Prolonged cyanosis with dyspnea is accompanied by an ashy pallor, cold sweats, restlessness, and an anxious expression. Watch the heart closely, for upon the first evidence of cardiac irregularity or infrequency, a fatal outcome is to be feared.

Cough.—Cough may, or may not be present where a foreign body is located in a bronchus, but when present cough is a symptom of great diagnostic importance. In one case that finally came under the care of one of us (Boston) the child had had a screw in his bronchus for approximately 5 months, during which time he had been treated for whooping cough, laryngeal spasm, and once he was given diphtheria antitoxin. He finally entered the Northwestern General Hospital, and through the courtesy of Dr. Schell one of us found physical signs suggestive of an inspiration pneumonia. The *x*-ray findings disclosed a small screw in the bronchus. In this case the screw was removed by Dr. Jackson, and at present writing, two years later, the child enjoys good health.

We have observed several cases where cough was an annoying feature. Cough not typical of any other known malady should always suggest the possibility of foreign body in the air passages. Paroxysmal, asphyxiating cough, accompanied by loss of voice, have in our experience been reliable features of foreign body.

Physical Signs—Inspection.—During acute plugging of the bronchus there is seen increased respiratory effort. The auxiliary muscles of respiration are brought into action, and later there is limited expansion of the affected side.

Mensuration.—By placing a tape at the spine and a mark at the median line on the sternum, it will be found upon deep inspiration, and forced expiration, that the expansion of the involved side (bronchus plugged) is from one-half to one inch less than is that of the unaffected

side. Where foreign body has existed for a long time there is persistent cyanosis. The general appearance is that of ill health, and there is distinct clubbing of the toes and fingers in cases of long standing.

Palpation.—A distinct rhoncal fremitus is frequently palpable over the foreign body. In event of a localized pulmonary consolidation surrounding the foreign body, vocal tactile fremitus is increased, but where there is no consolidation of the adjacent lung, vocal tactile fremitus is unaltered. Fremitus is absent over the affected side in complete bronchial obstruction.

Percussion.—Acute obstruction of one bronchus gives a peculiar type of muffled tympanitic note over the lung of the affected side. The obstructing object may change its position, in which event, the abnormal percussion note of a certain area returns to normal. Secretions often accumulate in the distal air passages, and thus produce dullness. We regard increasing dullness which may progress to that of a flat note as a sign of inestimable value. Where a bronchus is but partially obstructed the percussion note beyond the location of the foreign body will vary from time to time.

Auscultation.—Place the ear within a few inches of the patient's open mouth and upon forced inspiration it is possible, in selected cases, to detect a peculiar "asthmatic wheeze." This sign when present is of great clinical value where a non-radio-opaque substance blocks the bronchus. The wheezing sound is also obtained during forced expiration, after the patient has coughed sufficiently to unload the bronchus of secretion. The wheezing murmur when but slight can be obtained by placing the bell of the stethoscope within a short distance of the patient's open mouth.

With the stethoscope bell placed on the chest wall, distal to the location of the foreign body, the respiratory murmurs will be found appreciably diminished as compared with that of the same area of the opposite lung. In event of the complete obstruction of the bronchus breath sounds are at first absent beyond the point of such obstruction. It is in this last class of cases, where edema is common, that at a later date there may be diminished or absent vocal resonance over the same area. Râles are practically always present, and in event of a rather general tracheobronchitis one detects loud, crackling, and snoring râles. Râles are usually louder on the unaffected side. When a bronchus is but partially obstructed râles may be heard at the lower portion of the affected lung. The greatest intensity of sound is obtained at the point of obstruction. Fine crackling râles are at times heard over the foreign body, and over other portions of the lung.

Summary of Signs.—Abnormal respiration, localized limited expansion, presence of ronchal fremitus, impairment of the percussion note, alteration in voice sounds, the presence of various large and small râles, the peculiar phenomena heard when the ear is placed near the patient's open mouth, and diminished voice and breath sounds beyond the possible site of obstruction, are signs which should in themselves suggest the presence of foreign body.

LOBAR PNEUMONIA

(CROUPOUS OR FIBRINOUS PNEUMONIA; PNEUMONITIS; LUNG FEVER)

Pathologic Definition.—An acute infectious disease caused by the diplococcus pneumoniæ, which produces an acute inflammation of the substance of the lung. It is characterized pathologically and clinically by three stages: (1) The stage of congestion; (2) the stage of red hepatization, and (3) the stage of gray hepatization.

CHRONIC INTERSTITIAL PNEUMONIA

(FIBROID INDURATION; CIRRHOSIS OF THE LUNG)

Pathologic Definition.—A primary or secondary, subacute or chronic disease, characterized by the overproduction of pulmonary connective tissue.

Varieties.—**Local interstitial pneumonia** is a term used to describe a condition in which but a portion of one lobe or of one lung has become sclerotic and contracted; **diffuse interstitial pneumonia** differs from the localized type only in the fact that in the latter there is an overproduction of the pulmonary fibrous connective tissue in both lungs, such fibrous growth generally involving the greater portion of the entire pulmonary tissue.

Predisposing and Exciting Factors.—Interstitial pneumonia is occasionally encountered as an apparent primary condition, but in the majority of cases it is secondary to some prolonged inflammatory process involving the lung tissue. Pneumonokoniosis, results from continuous exposure to the inhalation of certain irritants,—*e. g.*, dust, particles of steel, lime, and the like,—may produce chronic interstitial changes in the lung tissue. Localized interstitial pneumonia not infrequently complicates acute pneumonia, pulmonary abscess, and, less often, it is the result of pulmonary tuberculosis, syphilis, disease of the pleuræ, cysts of the lung, and emphysema.

Diffuse interstitial changes in the lung may occur: (1) After low-grade types of lobar pneumonia or bronchopneumonia in which resolution has been delayed. (2) They may develop as a sequel to influenza in which there have been indefinite symptoms of pneumonia. (3) They may occur in cases in which a portion of the lung becomes atelectatic, due either to disease of the lung itself or to pressure from without. (4) Interstitial changes may take place in and about the pneumonic areas of those recovering from bronchopneumonia, and after some time has elapsed the entire lung may become highly sclerotic. (5) Bronchopneumonia excited by the tubercle bacillus often shows a special tendency toward the development of fibroid changes in the lung, and this condition has been designated pulmonary tuberculosis with the production of fibroid tissue. Pulmonary fibrosis is oftenest caused by tuberculosis. (6) In certain cases of pleurisy there is a decided tendency toward the formation of connective tissue, and this pathologic change may extend from the pleura to the lung tissue, until finally the greater portion of the lung is bound down by dense, fibroid bands, or may be penetrated by fibrous tissue that extends deeply into the lung substance. (7) As a rule, both the lung and pleuræ are affected by the fibrous change, but a high grade of fibrosis of the lung may occur without coincident change in the pleura, or the reverse condition may obtain.

Principal Complaint.—There is a definite history of a continuous loss of flesh and strength, which may have covered weeks, months, or even years. The patient usually complains bitterly of cough, which grows progressively worse, and is always accompanied by a mucoid or mucoserous and, at times, bloody expectoration. If the disease is due to pneumonokoniosis, the sputum may be discolored by the substance inhaled. Dyspnea occurs upon the slightest exertion. Pain may or may not be present, but in those cases in which there are many pleural adhesions it is an annoying symptom. Owing to the high grade of interstitial change that frequently takes place, constriction of certain portions of a bronchus, with an appreciable expansion of another portion of the same bronchus,

may occur, and, as a sequence, the patient may exhibit symptoms of bronchiectasis.

Thermic Features.—The temperature is normal in uncomplicated cases of chronic interstitial pneumonia.

Physical Signs.—Inspection.—According to whether the condition is bilateral (rare) or unilateral the chest-wall is retracted, and this retraction is usually most conspicuous at the apices, although there may be basilar contractions with overdistention of other portions of the chest. Generally, however, the contour of the chest in chronic interstitial pneumonia is irregular. By inspection certain portions of the chest will be seen to expand freely, while other portions remain unchanged or expand but feebly. In those cases in which the left lung is most affected the heart is likely to be displaced upward and probably to the left. In right-sided chronic interstitial pneumonia it is not uncommon to find the heart drawn well to the right of the sternum.

Palpation confirms inspection with reference to the expansion and contour of the chest. Tactile fremitus is, as a rule, increased, and particularly is this the case over those portions of the chest-wall that have sunken as the result of fibrous pulmonary changes. Occasionally, as the result of certain changes in the pleuræ, the tactile fremitus is found to be decreased.

Percussion.—The percussion-note will vary within wide limits over different portions of the same lung; thus, dullness and almost flatness may be obtained where marked sclerotic change in the lung tissue and decided thickening of the pleura have taken place, while but a short distance away from this point the percussion resonance may be hyperresonant or even tympanitic in character, the latter note depending upon the existence of compensatory emphysema. The area of cardiac dullness may also vary with the character and degree of fibrous change present (retraction of the lung).

Auscultation.—The breath-sounds are in no way characteristic. If fibrous bands connect a bronchus directly to the surface of the chest, the breathing will often be bronchial in character, although but slight actual consolidation may be present. If a bronchus is expanded, amphoric or even cavernous breathing may be elicited. As a rule, the breath-sounds at the base of the lungs posteriorly are feeble. A friction-sound is often detected, and may be present over a period of several days or weeks. Râles are also present, but are of limited clinical significance.

Summary of Diagnosis.—A diagnosis is attained, first, from a careful analysis of any preëxisting disease of the lung and pleura. Next, the physical signs are of importance; thus deformity of the chest, marked retraction of the affected side, and irregular expansile movements are among the most positive findings of chronic interstitial pneumonia. Cough and dyspnea with moderate emaciation are additional evidence of the existence of this disease.

Clinical Course.—This is chronic throughout, the patient growing slightly, although progressively, worse for a period of three, five or more years. A fatal termination seldom results directly from interstitial pneumonia, but is due usually to an intercurrent malady.

PNEUMONOKONIOSIS

(ANTHRACOSIS; CHALICOSIS; SIDEROSIS; SILICOSIS)

Pathologic Definition.—A variety of chronic interstitial pneumonia due to the inhalation of small particles of a solid substance, both organic and inorganic such as lime, stone, iron, or coal. The various forms of the

disease derive their names from the character of the substance inhaled. Thus:

(*a*) When interstitial change in the lung follows the inhalation of coal-dust, the disease is known as **anthracosis.** A macroscopic study of the lung shows it to be brown or black in color, its pleural surface presenting a mottled appearance. Upon incising the organ the knife encounters a gritty, stone-like resistance. Microscopically particles of black pigment are to be found within the pulmonary tissue, and there may also be an increase in the fibrous connective tissue, although in those suffering from the so-called miner's asthma undue distention of the air-cells may be apparent.

(*b*) A similar pathologic condition presenting the same clinical symptoms is seen in stone-cutters, potters, plasters, porcelain workers. This is termed **chalicosis.**

(*c*) Employees of factories and foundries in which the air is laden with metallic particles often develop sclerotic changes in the lungs, the condition being known as **siderosis.**

Principal Complaint.—The symptoms develop somewhat insidiously, and within the course of a few months the patient complains of chronic bronchitis. This condition, however, does not exist until after several months or even years of more or less constant exposure to the irritating substances. After the symptoms of asthma (p. 102) have been present for weeks, months, or possibly years, the patient develops emphysema (see p. 135), which may be either localized or general, and at this time the symptoms he complains of are practically those of emphysema.

Physical Signs.—These are not at all distinctive, nor are they constant in any series of cases. Generally speaking, the physical signs of anthracosis are the same as those of chronic interstitial pneumonia (*q. v.*), the exceptions to this general rule being that in selected cases emphysema develops early, and that instead of the chest being retracted, it is abnormally distended.

Laboratory Diagnosis.—This offers the most reliable clinical evidence. Regardless of the cause of the disease in question, the sputum is copious, and each paroxysm is followed by profuse expectoration. In anthracosis the sputum may be black or brownish in color, and when studied under a $\frac{1}{6}$ or $\frac{1}{12}$ inch oil-immersion lens, small particles of coal will be seen to be present (Plate I). Not uncommonly leukocytes containing small black particles of dust are seen, and, indeed, dust is often apparently embedded within certain epithelial cells.

The sputum of those suffering from stone-cutter's disease or of those who have been exposed to the inhalation of plaster-of-Paris or of lime shows the presence of many small white or grayish particles of silica. The macroscopic appearance of such sputum, however, is in no way diagnostic. In siderosis, as in anthracosis, the sputum is characteristic, being rusty colored or reddish, and upon microscopic study presenting fine particles of metallic substance.

The sputum of pneumonokoniosis always contains many degenerated epithelial cells, leukocytes, pus-cells, and a profusion of bacteria. The tubercle bacillus is a common finding.

Summary of Diagnosis.—A history of exposure to coal, stone, iron, or metallic dusts is of great importance, and should always suggest pneumonokoniosis. The symptoms of bronchitis, the physical signs of interstitial pneumonia, and the characteristic microscopic findings in the sputum leave no room for doubt as to the nature of the condition.

Course and Duration.—This form of chronic fibroid pneumonia is of prolonged duration, the patient growing progressively worse from year to year, the condition, as a rule, terminating in pulmonary tuberculosis.

PULMONARY TUBERCULOSIS

Pathologic Definition.—An infectious disease caused by the bacillus tuberculosis. It may be acute or chronic in form, and is characterized by the formation of small tubercles in the lungs and in other portions of the body. When infection is localized to the lung, large areas of consolidation occur, which eventually break down and result in cavity formation. When general infection takes place, the so-called miliary tuberculosis results. In the latter condition microcospic tubercles may be found in the muscle tissue, choroid, and in practically all the viscera.

PNEUMORRHAGIA (PULMONARY APOPLEXY)

Pathologic Definition.—The escape of blood from the pulmonary vessels into the air-cells and connective tissue of the lung, either with or without appreciable laceration of the pulmonary tissue.

Varieties.—There are three varieties—the circumscribed, the pneumonic, and the diffuse.

Predisposing and Exciting Factors.—The most common cause of pulmonary apoplexy is **rupture of a thoracic aneurism** after it has become firmly adherent to the visceral pleura. The conditions that favor the accident are those that favor the rupture of thoracic aneurism—*e. g.*, traumatism to the chest, heavy lifting, and morbid states that increase the heart's action.

Sex is a predisposing factor, the majority of cases occurring in adult males.

Clinical Features.—As a rule, the history and physical signs of aneurism are present prior to the development of pulmonary hemorrhage, and the general clinical picture is that described under thoracic aneurism (p. 264), the most prominent characteristics of which are hemoptysis, dyspnea, cyanosis, subnormal temperature, and a tendency toward circulatory collapse.

Physical Signs.—If the patient survives the initial hemorrhage, the physical signs of pulmonary consolidation may be elicited in selected cases.

Laboratory Diagnosis.—The sputum is almost pure blood, is expelled with but slight coughing, and does not contain tubercle bacilli or fungi. Chemically the sputum is rich in albumin.

PULMONARY EMBOLISM

(HEMORRHAGIC INFARCTION; EMBOLISM OF THE LUNGS)

Pathologic Definition.—A condition caused by thrombosis or by embolism of a branch of the pulmonary artery, resulting in a wedge-shaped infarct, the base of which is directed toward the pleura. The involved portion of the lung becomes firm, airless, and dark in color. This condition may be single or multiple, the area of pulmonary tissue involved rarely exceeding the size of a walnut.

Varieties and Etiology.—(1) **Non-septic embolism** occasionally occurs during the course of chronic organic heart disease, and is said to

follow mitral stenosis and, less often, mitral regurgitation. Thrombi may also be generated in the right auricle or in the large vessels, and finally become lodged in the branches of the pulmonary artery. Venous stasis involving the pulmonary tissue also predisposes to pulmonary infarct.

(2) **Fat Emboli.**—The pulmonary vessels are plugged with emboli of fat. There may be minute hemorrhages into the interstitial tissue surrounding the lesion, and the small arteries are lined with fat.

Predisposing Factors.—Traumatism to the adipose tissue and fractures.

Symptoms.—In this type of fat-embolus are seen extreme dyspnea, cardiac failure, and temperature ranging about 102° F. Symptoms usually progress from bad to worse.

(3) **Septic emboli** are carried to the lung from septic processes elsewhere in the body, and may complicate gangrenous or suppurative conditions involving remote organs.

Principal Complaint.—In non-septic cases both the history and the general clinical features are those of valvular heart disease. Following the pulmonary embolism acute symptoms develop—*e. g.*, pain in the chest, dyspnea, expectoration of blood-streaked mucus, followed by syncope. Hemoptysis, while not a constant feature, is of clinical significance when it develops in a patient suffering from mitral disease, and when it is accompanied by severe pain and cough, is still more significant of pulmonary embolism.

Physical Signs.—Unless the area of lung involved is comparatively large, percussion and palpation are negative. If several emboli are lodged in different portions of the lungs, the character of the respiration is that of bronchopneumonia (p. 114).

By **palpation** it is at times possible to detect areas in which the tactile fremitus is increased and the **percussion-note** impaired.

Auscultation.—Moist râles are audible over the greater part of the affected lung, and the breath-sounds are intensified. When a large area of lung collapses as the result of an embolus, bronchial breathing may be audible. It must be borne in mind that the physical signs are in part, at least, the result of hyperemia of the surrounding pulmonary tissue, and, indeed, in many instances the actual condition is obscured by the emphysema which surrounds the diseased portions of the lung.

Laboratory Diagnosis.—The sputum is often bloody, the blood being equally distributed throughout. It is easily expectorated, and is always frothy.

Clinical Course.—Septic cases run a rapid febrile course, and the prognosis is that of pyemia. In non-septic emboli the course is also rapid, but the condition may exist for days or even weeks and recovery follow.

PULMONARY GANGRENE

Pathologic Definition.—A condition produced by the action of the organisms of putrefaction upon a devitalized section of pulmonary tissue. The extent of the destructive changes in the lung tissue varies greatly in different cases. The gangrenous area is surrounded by a zone of congestion.

Varieties.—(*a*) **Diffuse gangrene** is rarely seen complicating lobar pneumonia. In this condition there may be occlusion of the larger branches of a pulmonary artery. This process may be so extensive as to involve an entire lobe; cases have been reported in which an entire lung was destroyed.

(*b*) **Circumscribed gangrene** may be unilateral or bilateral. Circumscribed gangrene may follow embolus of an artery, or, as is more often the case, it may be the termination of an acute inflammatory process.

Exciting and Predisposing Factors.—(1) Gangrene occurs when the pulmonary tissue, devitalized from any cause, is attacked by the organisms of putrefaction. Pathogenic bacteria may also be present, although the part played by this class of micro-organisms is questionable. The exact degree and nature of the changes in the pulmonary tissue necessary for the development of saprophytic bacteria (organisms producing gangrenous changes) have long been the subject of controversy; suffice it to state here that both saprophytic and parasitic bacteria are likely to be present in the sputum of pulmonary gangrene. Fishberg and Kline have reported gangrene due to spirochæta bronchialis.*

(2) Acute inflammation of the lung—*e. g.*, lobar pneumonia,—bronchopneumonia, tuberculous cavity with secondary infection, acute bronchitis, stab wounds and traumatism of the lung, contusions of the throax, as well as inflammation resulting from perforation of the diaphragm or of the esophagus by carcinomatous or ulcerative processes, are all conditions that predispose to the development of pulmonary gangrene. In fact, it is by one or more of these processes that the vitality of the pulmonary tissue is lowered. Mustard gas and other gases may excite pulmonary gangrene.

(3) Pulmonary hemorrhagic infarction, emboli derived from gangrenous tissue elsewhere in the body and from purulent tissue, with the production of pulmonary abscess, may at times be the exciting causes of gangrene. Pulmonary gangrene frequently develops from an embolus that probably originated in a suppurative process in the middle ear or the mastoid cells.

(4) Foreign bodies—*e. g.*, particles of food, metallic substances, etc.—entering the lung by way of the trachea are prominent exciting factors in pulmonary gangrene. (See Bronchopneumonia, p. 114.)

(5) Thoracic tumor, either aneurismal or glandular, may, by continual pressure upon the lung, give rise to gangrene.

(6) Those suffering from certain acute infectious maladies—*e. g.*, noma—are especially likely to develop gangrene. In protracted febrile conditions pulmonary gangrene may occur as a complication, but seldom develops until convalescence sets in.

(7) In such afebrile conditions as diabetes mellitus and chronic valvular (mitral) heart disease gangrene of the lung is not of infrequent occurrence. (See Pulmonary Embolism, p. 124.)

Principal Complaint.—In those cases in which the area of gangrenous involvement is small and in which secondary infection with pyogenic bacteria has not occurred, there are few, if any, constitutional symptoms, and the patient complains only of *cough* and the *expectoration* of fetid material. In this class of cases the physical signs are negative.

In those suffering from more extensive pulmonary gangrene or gangrene following abscess-formation, pneumonia, the inspiration of foreign substances, etc., there are progressive weakness and loss in weight. *Anorexia* develops early, and continues throughout the disease. The most annoying symptom is *cough*, which is paroxysmal. The patient may cough between the paroxysms, but, as a rule, a violent spell of coughing occurs every two to six hours, particularly after awaking from sleep. During each attack of coughing a large quantity of sputum may be expectorated and emit a characteristic gangrenous odor. (See Laboratory Diagnosis,

* Archives of Int. Med., Jan., 1921.

p. 128.) In the majority of instances the patient's breath also gives off this offensive odor, although this is not a constant finding, having been absent in a case observed by one of us, in which the gangrenous process was found at autopsy to have no direct communication with a bronchus.

Pain may be present, but is seldom an annoying symptom unless the areas of lung that are involved are superficially situated and an associated pleurisy is present. *Vomiting* may be an annoying symptom, and is probably excited by the offensiveness of the material expectorated. The patient's *general condition* usually progresses from bad to worse, until finally he is unable to leave his bed. Pulmonary hemorrhage, although by no means a common symptom, may follow ulceration of the pulmonary artery, and profuse hemorrhage may rarely cause a fatal termination.

Thermic Features.—Early in pulmonary gangrene the fever becomes irregular, fluctuating between 99° and 102° F. In those cases in which sepsis becomes profound or gangrene develops secondarily to a suppurative process elsewhere, the temperature is governed largely by the preëxisting condition, and is often of the continued type; an exception to this rule is seen in pulmonary gangrene complicating pulmonary tuberculosis with cavity formation, in which there is an evening rise in temperature followed by a morning remission.

Physical Signs.—Inspection.—In cases showing constitutional symptoms there is extreme pallor, and later cyanosis of the mucous membrane, finger-tips, and feet develops. Swelling of the ankles may also occur later during the course of the process. Profound emaciation is always present in this class of cases.

Palpation.—The pulse becomes weak, rapid, irregular, and often dicrotic. These and other characteristics of the pulse are dependent on the degree of prostration. If gangrene follows pulmonary abscess or pulmonary tuberculosis, the evidence obtained upon palpation will be the same as that obtained in these conditions. (See Tuberculosis, p. 162.) Generally speaking, the tactile fremitus will be found increased whenever there is an associated consolidation of the pulmonary tissue that extends to a point near the chest-wall. Gangrenous areas that are located centrally, however, manifest no definite physical signs. The chest movements are frequent, and may be jerking in character.

Percussion gives negative results except in those cases in which there is consolidation, when resonance is impaired. A hyperresonant note may be obtained over the lung immediately surrounding the gangrenous process.

Auscultation.—The heart-sounds are weak and rapid, and there is often evidence of valvular disease, which is particularly common when pulmonary gangrene follows embolism. During the stage of consolidation the breath-sounds over the affected regions are harsh and may be bronchial in character. Both fine and coarse moist râles are audible, and late in the disease the breathing may be that heard in the presence of pulmonary cavity. If the pulmonary inflammation extends to the surface of the lung and the visceral pleura becomes involved, a pleural friction murmur may be audible. (See Pleurisy, p. 148.)

X-ray Diagnosis.—It is possible not only to locate accurately the site of the gangrenous process, but this affection gives a fairly characteristic picture. The shadow will be found to vary greatly, depending upon the size and duration of the process. (See p. 76). Bronchoscopic study may give valuable data.

Laboratory Diagnosis.—The **blood changes** are those of secondary anemia; at times leukocytosis may be present. Cultures from the venous

blood are likely to give positive results when gangrene follows septic processes.

The **sputum** is of a greenish or bloody color, and is frequently said to be "prune juice" in character. When placed in a conic glass and permitted to stand for several hours, the sputum will be found to have separated into three quite distinct strata: (1) A superior layer, which is frothy, opalescent, and of a greenish yellow color; (2) a middle stratum, which has the appearance of water; and (3) an inferior layer, which is composed of a greenish or brown sediment, showing macroscopically many shreds of mucus and necrotic tissue; rarely this layer is bloody. Microscopically, many bacteria are present, and portions of degenerated lung tissue, fibers of elastic tissue (rare), pus-cells, fungi, and both red and white blood-cells are seen. Cultural studies reveal the presence of anacrobic bacilli. Acid-proof bacilli have been found in the sputum of pulmonary gangrene, as have also spirillæ.

Summary of Diagnosis.—This is determined largely by the characteristic odor of the breath and of the sputum. The fact that the sputum separates into the characteristic layers when permitted to stand for several hours, and the detection, in the inferior layer, of lung tissue, go far toward confirming the diagnosis. Rapid emaciation and progressive prostration are prominent features in pulmonary gangrene.

Differential Diagnosis.—Fetid Bronchitis.—In this condition the sputum, while highly offensive, does not have a gangrenous odor, and emaciation and prostration are often lacking and are never profound Fever, which is common in pulmonary gangrene, is not marked in fetid bronchitis.

Clinical Course.—This is dependent, first, upon the extent of the pathologic process, and, secondly, upon whether or not such devitalized tissue becomes infected with pyogenic organisms. In those cases showing marked constitutional symptoms—*e. g.*, fever, prostration, etc.—the clinical course is rapid, extending over a period of weeks, or at most months. Repeated hemorrhages from the lung render the prognosis less favorable.

PULMONARY ATELECTASIS

(Collapse of the Lung; Compression of the Lung)

Pathologic Definition.—A condition in which a portion or the entire volume of air is removed from the air-cells of a portion of the lungs.

Predisposing and Exciting Factors.—(1) This condition is most commonly encountered in the new-born and in prematurely born infants. In either case it may be the result of feeble breathing power on the part of the child or of malformation of the respiratory tract. (2) Acquired atelectasis may follow inflammatory processes with the production of mucus in the smaller bronchial tubes. (3) Compression of the lung from whatever cause (pericardial effusion, pleural effusion, thoracic aneurism, new-growths of the thorax, and pneumothorax) may also give rise to atelectasis. (4) Enfeebled respiratory efforts markedly predispose to the development of atelectasis, and may result from cerebral hemorrhage, interference with the nerve supply to the lung, pressure upon the diaphragm from large abdominal tumors, peritoneal fluid, and tympanites. (5). Late during the course of bronchopneumonia and lobar pneumonia portions of the lung may become atelectatic, as has been shown by autopsy.

Symptoms and Signs.—As this condition is practically always secondary the symptoms and signs are those of the preëxisting disease, appreciably intensified, however, by atelectasis.

Inspection.—The movements of the chest are, as a rule, limited to the apices. Respiration is labored and unusually frequent.

Course.—The patient rapidly approaches a state of collapse, the pulse becomes weak and rapid, the skin cold and clammy, vitality diminishes, and death soon follows.

ABSCESS OF THE LUNG

(Suppurative Pneumonitis)

Pathologic Definition.—An acute localized infection in which destruction of the pulmonary tissue and a circumscribed accumulation of pus within the lung occur. Surrounding an acute abscess there is an area of consolidation, and still further beyond the pulmonary tissue is congested for a considerable distance. The abscess may communicate with a bronchus or may rupture into the pleura.

Exciting and Predisposing Factors.—(1) **Bacteria.**—Streptococci are commonly present, but are not the only direct excitant. The diplococcus of pneumonia and the bacillus of Friedländer are not infrequently seen, as are also other pyogenic organisms—*e. g.*, staphylococci, bacillus pyocyaneus, bacillus coli communis. In children the pneumococcus often appears to predominate.

(2) An **acute localized inflammation of the lung,** such as is seen in both lobar and lobular pneumonia, may terminate in abscess-formation; hence the conditions that predispose to these types of pneumonia also predispose indirectly to the formation of abscess. In 1918 there were 45 post mortems made at the Bellevue Hospital on bodies dead of influenza (Spanish Influenza complicated by pneumonia) in 16 instances pulmonary abscess was present.

(3) **Penetrating wounds of the lung** from without, perforation of the lung from ulcer or carcinoma of the esophagus, abscess of the liver, gastric ulcer, etc., are also among the exciting causes of pulmonary abscess.

(4) The **aspiration of foreign substances** that may carry with them pyogenic bacteria is also productive of abscess. During anesthesia particles of mucus may be inspired plugging the smaller air passages of the lung, and causing localized pneumonia and abscess.

(5) In **pulmonary tuberculosis with cavity formation** abscesses are common, and isolated abscesses may be found in different portions of the lung.

(6) Metastatic abscess of the lung may develop during the course of **septic processes** elsewhere in the body and during septicopyemia. Septic emboli from whatever source frequently find a lodging-place within the pulmonary tissue and give rise to circumscribed abscess there. In this particular type of infection of the lung the abscess is usually situated near the pleural surface and is often egg-shaped. This condition is rather common following the extraction of infected teeth—removal of infected tonsils—operations upon the gall bladder—stomach—suppurative appendicitis and pelvic disease.

The history is of considerable importance in making the diagnosis. Trauma to the chest may be an exciting cause. The tendency to the development of pulmonary abscess is greatly increased while a patient is under treatment for septic conditions elsewhere or for acute ulcerative endocarditis.

Principal Complaint.—*Pain* may be a prominent feature in those cases in which the abscess is situated near the surface of the lung, and consequently excites pleuritis. *Cough* may be an annoying symptom, and is usually accompanied by the free *expectoration* of purulent material. *Chills*, followed by an elevation in the temperature and later by profuse sweating, are a conspicuous feature in a fair proportion of all cases. *Prostration* is progressive, and there is also a steady loss of weight. As a rule, the patient becomes nervous and irritable, and delirium is to be expected when fever is a conspicuous factor.

Thermic Features.—The temperature is somewhat influenced by the preëxisting condition; however, an irregular fever, 101° to 104° F., is to be expected.

Physical Signs.—Inspection.—Emaciation is well marked. The skin and mucous surfaces are unusually pale, and if the abscess is large, the lips and finger-tips may be cyanosed. The movements of the chest vary greatly, depending upon whether or not the pleura is involved; in any case the respirations are increased, and if the abscess is large, the two halves of the chest may expand unequally.

Palpation shows an increase in the tactile fremitus over the consolidated areas. The heart's impulse is weak and rapid, and abnormal pulsation is often detected above the right clavicle. Unless the abscess cavity is large and superficial, palpation may be negative.

Percussion.—A variable degree of impairment is elicited over the abscess, and surrounding it for some distance there may be hyperresonance, due to compensatory emphysema.

Auscultation.—The breath-sounds may be those heard in the presence of a cavity, yet this finding is unreliable in many instances. Owing to the inflammatory changes and edematous condition of the lung, large and small moist râles are heard in the region of the affected area. Bronchial breathing is not infrequent.

X-ray Diagnosis.—Here the clinical features of pulmonary abscess are comparatively clear, and its location is possible through this means of diagnosis (p. 76).

Opaque Solutions in the Bronchi and Lungs.—Gorsch* gives the following method which, should it stand the test of clinical use, bids fair to offer assistance in pulmonary and other thoracic diagnoses. Gorsch found that by the aid of the bronchoscope, bismuth mixture can be injected into the bronchi and lungs in a living patient without danger.

Bismuth or any other equally opaque mixture after entering an abscess cavity is readily recognized, and when it is in the lobular lung structures it is seen as a dull opaque area. Bismuth mixture is ordinarily injected in quantities of 8 c.c. of bismuth carbonates, in olive oil. This opaque mixture is sterilized prior to its use, by boiling. The injection should be made slowly in order that the röntgenographic observations are not confused. Pus also diffuses into the lobular tissue and causes a pulmonary cavity to appear much larger than its real size.

Bismuth solution was first injected for the purpose of ascertaining the extent of lung abscess cavities, but this injection is claimed to also exert a beneficial effect upon patients where it has been used for diagnostic purposes.

Fluoroscopic study should be made almost immediately after removal of the bronchoscope, employed for the injection of the opaque mixture. Paroxysmal coughing has a tendency to remove the opaque solution from the diseased lung.

* Annals of Surgery, March, 1921.

Laboratory Diagnosis.—This probably furnishes the most reliable data in the diagnosis of pulmonary abscess. The sputum is purulent, yellow, or frequently greenish or brownish-yellow, in color, and at times it may be streaked with blood. The odor of the sputum is, as a rule, offensive, but at times sweetish, being distinctly different from that emitted from the sputum of pulmonary gangrene and of putrid bronchitis. Microscopically, it will be found to contain particles of lung tissue (elastic fibers), pus, red blood-cells and granular tissue débris.

Summary of Diagnosis.—(*a*) A history of the existence of some condition or an accident that predisposes to the development of pulmonary abscess is of great importance. (*b*) Diagnostic value is to be attached to the examination of the sputum and the detection of great numbers of elastic fibers. (*c*) The physical signs of cavity-formation, when present, go far toward confirming the diagnosis, but it is impossible to base the diagnosis upon the clinical history and the findings obtained by physical examination. The *x*-ray is important in this connection.

Clinical Course.—In abscesses following the development of pyemic processes elsewhere the course is rapid, and the general clinical picture is that of septicemia plus the characteristics of pulmonary abscess. Abscess arising as a sequel of lobar pneumonia may run a protracted course, terminating favorably in from six to twelve weeks.

Complications.—If the abscess is situated near the visceral pleura, it is likely to perforate the pleura, giving rise to a purulent pleuritis (p. 166), empyema, or *pyopneumothorax* (p. 169).

NEW-GROWTHS OF THE LUNGS

General Remarks.—The most common tumors of the lung are carcinoma and sarcoma. In rare cases these growths may be primary, and when this is the case, a unilateral development is observed. In the majority of instances, however, malignancy of the lung is a secondary condition, and both lungs are involved, numerous foci being seen.

Carcinoma of the Lungs

Pathologic Definition.—A carcinomatous growth, often secondary, involving the pulmonary tissue and resulting in consolidation of the organ. The carcinomatous process may extend by contiguity to the pleuræ and other thoracic structures.

Varieties.—(1) Primary pulmonary carcinoma; (2) carcinoma secondary to carcinomatous growth involving remote portions of the body (head, rectum, or extremities); this is, as a rule, bilateral. (3) Secondary carcinoma resulting from direct extension of a carcinomatous process from the esophagus, stomach, liver, or mammary gland; this is frequently unilateral.

Principal Complaint.—This will be found to vary in accordance with the location and extent of the lesion. *Pain* is an early symptom, and in those cases in which the pleuræ are involved, is agonizing. The general symptoms of bronchitis—*e. g.*, *cough*, *expectoration*, *dyspnea*—are quite constant. If the growth becomes large, symptoms referable to pressure upon the heart and upon the large thoracic vessels are also present. Late during the course of pulmonary carcinoma pressure upon the esophagus may give rise to dyspnea; and should the recurrent laryngeal nerve become involved, hoarseness and aphonia ensue. (See symptoms of aneurism, p. 264.) Pulmonary tumor may also exert sufficient pressure upon a bronchus to cause the signs and symptoms of

bronchial stenosis. (See p. 107.) Dyspnea and thoracic pain are early symptoms and serve in separating these conditions from pulmonary tuberculosis.

Physical Signs.—Inspection.—In those cases in which there may be a large new-growth in the lung the thorax will be somewhat prominent and fixed over the site of the tumor. Cases are recorded in which a carcinomatous mass protruded through the chest-wall. The interspaces are, as a rule, widened, and the cutaneous veins are distended. The right supraclavicular region is unusually prominent, and often shows decided pulsation as the result of intrathoracic pressure. Edema of the face, neck, and even of the thorax and arms is a late symptom in pulmonary carcinoma. The axillary and cervical lymph-nodes are generally enlarged.

Palpation confirms inspection as to the movements of the chest, enlargement of glands, and edema, and, in addition, reveals the fact that the tactile fremitus is altered and in many instances absent over certain portions of the lung, whereas at other points it may be normal or increased as the result of pleuritic adhesions or localized areas of consolidation. If the pleura is attacked by the carcinomatous process, an effusion into the pleura generally follows, in which case the phvsical signs of serofibrinous pleurisy (see p. 151) are present in addition to those of pulmonary carcinoma.

Percussion.—The note is impaired over all portions of the lung invaded by the tumor, and the degree of impairment varies with the degree of pulmonary consolidation present.

Auscultation.—Where there is extensive carcinomatous involvement of both lungs, the respiratory murmur may be greatly diminished, and indeed absent, over certain localized sections; but in those cases in which the tumorous growth is localized along the course of a large bronchus, bronchial breathing is audible, and, indeed, the breath-sounds may resemble those heard when a pulmonary cavity is present. Numerous large and moist râles may be present over one portion of the chest, while at other portions the breath-sounds may be absent. So varied is the evidence obtained by auscultation that this method offers but little valuable data in the study of this disease.

Laboratory Diagnosis.—Free expectoration is an almost constant symptom; at the same time, during the course of the disease, the sputum resembles currant-jelly, or again it may be bloody, or perhaps green in color, depending upon the character of the changes that have taken place in the carcinomatous tissue. The sputum commonly emits an offensive odor.

Microscopically, pus-cells, leukocytes, red blood-cells, granular débris, and occasionally clusters of epithelial cells—the so-called "cancer clusters"—are found; too great an importance should not be attached to finding the last-named elements. Crystals of hematoidin are occasionally seen.

The *hemic* changes are those of secondary anemia. (See *x*-ray Diagnosis, p. 127.) The diagnosis is usually confirmed by the *x*-ray findings, see p. 76.

Clinical Course.—Carcinoma of the lung progresses from bad to worse, terminating fatally within a few weeks or months.

Sarcoma of the Lung

Remarks.—Sarcomatous disease frequently invades the glandular tissue at the root of the lung, although secondary sarcoma of the lung proper may also be met. The diagnosis of sarcoma is based largely upon the clinical history and the preëxistence of a sarcomatous growth elsewhere.

The *symptoms* and *signs* closely resemble those of pulmonary cancer (*q. v.*). Two cases of pulmonary sarcoma have developed in patients under the care of one of us at the Philadelphia General Hospital, and both of these followed sarcoma of the knee.

PULMONARY EMPHYSEMA

Pathologic Definition.—This is a chronic disease, characterized by an abnormal thinning and loss of power of the pulmonary air-cells, with overdistention of such cells by air, and possibly escape of air into the interlobular connective tissue. The bronchial mucous membrane is usually the seat of a chronic inflammation.

Compensatory emphysema, however, is not a pathologic process, but consists in physiologic dilatation of the air-cells secondary to pathologic processes in other portions of the lung.

Varieties.—(1) **Interlobular (interotetral) emphysema** is a condition in which an air-cell has ruptured and a portion of its contained air has escaped into the surrounding connective tissue.

(2) **Vesicular emphysema** is an abnormal dilatation of the alveoli and finer air-passages. There are three varieties: (*a*) Compensatory; (*b*) hypertrophic; and (*c*) atrophic.

Interlobular Emphysema

Etiologic Factors.—These include: (*a*) Injury to the lung, penetrating wounds made by fractured ribs, violence, etc. (*b*) Paroxysmal coughing, as, *e. g.*, in whooping-cough, and the inhalation of irritating gases; indeed, this condition may rarely follow violent muscular exercise, convulsions, and labor. This type of emphysema selects by preference the upper lobes and anterior surface of the lung. Interlobular emphysema may rarely be found as an associated condition in advanced stages of vesicular emphysema.

Vesicular Emphysema (Compensatory Emphysema)

This variety is limited to certain localized pulmonary regions, and, as its name implies, occurs as the result of pathologic conditions in other portions of the viscus that prevent, or at least inhibit, lung expansion during the act of inspiration. Compensatory emphysema, therefore, is not a pathologic condition, but a vicarious one, demonstrating the capability of the air-cells in one portion of the lung to expand sufficiently to do the additional work of a diseased part. Among the diseases in which compensatory emphysema occurs are pulmonary tuberculosis, lobar pneumonia, chronic tuberculosis with cirrhosis of the lung, and extensive disease of one lung.

A good example of compensatory emphysema is seen in pleurisy with effusion, where one pleural sac is nearly filled with fluid, and in pyopneumothorax. If the greater part of one lung is incapacitated by disease, as in lobar pneumonia, the remaining portions of the diseased organ and its fellow display general emphysema. It is, therefore, seen that compensatory emphysema, while probably a physiologic process, is nature's method of obtaining compensation for the loss of a portion of lung by any pathologic condition.

Hypertrophic Emphysema

Remarks.—In this condition pathologic changes have resulted in a diminution in the retractility and elasticity of the lungs, as the result of overdistention of the individual air-cells, in consequence of which the

lungs become permanently enlarged (air-cells expanded). In those persons who develop true emphysema early in life it is fair to presume, at least, that the retractile lung energy was deficient, possibly as the result of a congenital condition.

Pathologic Characteristics.—Macroscopically, large air-cells can be distinguished immediately beneath the pleuræ, and air-sacs as large as a walnut, and even larger, may project above the lung's surface, a series of air-blebs being commonly seen at the anterior border.

A microscopic study shows that the dilatation originates in the infundibular and alveolar passages. The septa are partially obliterated; the alveolar walls are thinned and finally perforated, and in consequence of these changes the air-cells communicate with one another. The process is an atrophic one, the elastic fibers disappearing, whereas the larger ones become less conspicuous and often rupture. Following atrophic changes the capillaries disappear, and the epithelium of the air-cells undergoes fatty degeneration.

Ordinarily, the bronchial mucous membrane is the seat of a chronic inflammation. The diaphragm is appreciably lowered, and the liver and spleen are correspondingly depressed.

Physiologic Pathology.—The right side of the heart shows well-marked changes: the cavities are dilated and the walls slightly hypertrophied, owing to obstruction in the pulmonary circulation. The pulmonary artery and its branches are enlarged and the seat of an atheromatous degeneration.

Exciting and Predisposing Factors.—(1) This affection is most often a secondary one, developing during the course of other diseases of the lungs, *e. g.*, whooping-cough, chronic bronchitis, and asthma. When it develops under such conditions, emphysema is directly attributable to the mechanical influence and strain put upon the alveolar walls during the act of coughing. There is also interference with the escape of air from the air-cells and smaller bronchi. Many of these primary affections result in an increase in the intra-alveolar air-pressure, and, as a consequence, the cell itself becomes permanently expanded.

(2) In both whooping-cough and bronchial asthma the condition is at first that of a temporary emphysema, but numerous recurrences produce permanent overdistention of the lung.

(3) That *occupation* is not without influence is seen in the case of musicians who play wind instruments, glass blowers, who, not infrequently, present a variable degree of emphysema. Violent muscular exercise also tends to produce permanent dilatation of the air-cells, consequently emphysema is common in stevedores, stokers, athletes, and those who do heavy lifting. The disease is one of the working classes, and *males* are more often affected than females.

(4) *Heredity* plays quite a prominent part in the etiology of this disease, and many members of the same family may suffer from emphysema; indeed, it is occasionally seen to extend through several generations, affecting one or more in each.

(5) *Age.*—After the age of fifty the elasticity of the lung tissue is diminished, and in consequence a variable degree of emphysema develops. At the other extreme of life, as previously mentioned, congenital emphysema may be present.

Organic heart disease and any other condition that causes a permanent congestion of the lungs markedly predispose to emphysema.

Principal Complaint.—Emphysema develops insidiously, and the patient is, as a rule, unaware of his actual condition, complaining of the

symptoms of chronic bronchitis, asthma, or whatever other pulmonary disease was originally present. In those cases in which emphysema occurs as the result of occupation the condition develops slowly, but in whooping-cough the lung becomes emphysematous in the course of a few days. In the former class the history shows that the patient has suffered from a gradual loss of strength and of flesh for some years, and in many cases he is conscious of the deformity of his chest (Fig. 38).

The most marked symptom is *dyspnea*, together with paroxysmal *cough*, the severity of these symptoms varying in proportion to the degree of distention of the pulmonary air-cells. In this pulmonary condition mild dyspnea is constant, but upon physical exertion it often attains an extreme degree.

Late during the disease the patient's speech is somewhat characteristic, and his sentences are interrupted. As the disease advances the respiratory symptoms become more and more distressing, until, at length, as the result of increased blood tension in the lung, cardiac symptoms develop.

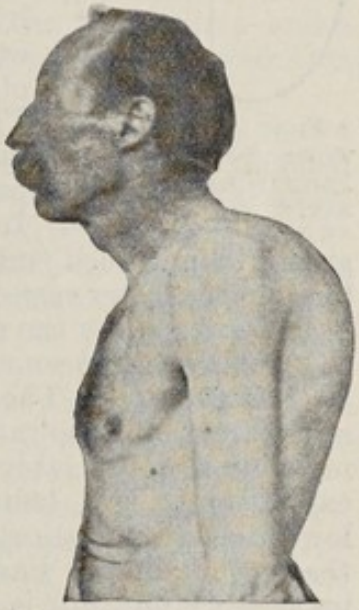


FIG. 38.—EMPHYSEMATOUS CHEST (Dr. W. H. Smith, Massachusetts General Hospital).

Cough is believed to be due to the presence of an *associated bronchitis*, and is particularly annoying during cold weather. Indeed, there is a type of emphysema that appears in young adults and affects them most during the winter months, when they display all the characteristic features of this disease.

Thermic Features.—Fever is absent throughout the entire course of uncomplicated cases of emphysema, and a subnormal temperature is by no means uncommon.

Physical Signs.—Inspection.—In advanced cases there is lividity of the skin and mucous surfaces. The contour of the chest is characteristic; it is often barrel-shaped, the antero-posterior diameter being markedly increased, whereas the transverse diameter remains nearly normal (Fig. 29). The sternum is often decidedly bulging, the neck short, the back arched, and the head tilted forward. The infraclavicular and supraclavicular regions are abnormally prominent, whereas the episternal notch is deepened. The clavicular and other accessory muscles of respiration stand out prominently, and this is responsible in part for the apparent shortening of the neck. The intercostal spaces are widened, and the ribs approach the horizontal plane more nearly than they do in health. It is not uncommon to find the external veins of the chest markedly dilated. The movements of the chest are vertical in direction, the chest moving en masse instead of displaying the normal expansile respiration, and during the act of inspiration there may be a retractile instead of an expansile movement of the base of the chest. Respiration may be more frequent than normal, although this is by no means an essential feature. The labored effort at respiration seeks to expel rather than to inspire air, whereas the rhythm is not only altered, but in extreme cases is actually reversed, inspiration being short, while expiration is greatly prolonged. (See Auscultation, p. 136.) In extreme cases the apex-beat of the heart is not discernible. Epigastric pulsation is quite common, and pulsation at the second or third interspace, in the midclavicular line, may also be

observed in selected cases, while venous pulsation is commonly seen in the right carotid region.

Palpation.—In addition to confirming the character and the degree of expansile movement of the chest, palpation reveals the fact that the tactile fremitus is markedly decreased. The apex-beat of the heart is always feeble, and in extreme cases it may be imperceptible. The *pulse*, although normal at first, soon becomes weak and thready, but is not decidedly increased in frequency even late in the disease. As the result of overdistention of the right heart, which is caused by increased blood tension in the lung, a systolic shock is often detected in the region of the ensiform cartilage, and epigastric pulsation is the rule.

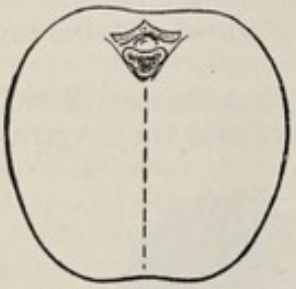


FIG. 39.—TRANSVERSE SECTION OF AN EMPHYSEMATOUS THORAX.

Percussion yields somewhat characteristic findings, since everywhere over the surface of the lung hyperresonance is elicited. The character of the hyperresonant note is controlled by the degree of expansion of the air-cells. Indeed, in extreme cases of emphysema the note may give off a wooden tone. The area over which a hyperresonant note is obtained is larger than normal, and this feature is particularly conspicuous in the clavicular regions. In advanced cases the area of cardiac dullness is greatly diminished, and the heart is often covered by emphysematous lung; in the latter case cardiac dullness is absent. The diaphragm having been depressed by the greatly distended lungs, the area of liver dullness is, as a rule, situated some distance below the normal level.

Auscultation.—The characteristics of the respiratory sounds of emphysema are that inspiration is short and feeble, whereas the expiratory murmur is appreciably lengthened, the normal ratio—inspiration, four; expiration, three—being disturbed—it may be one to one. Prolonged low-pitched expiration, accompanied by a wheezing sound, is probably the most valuable diagnostic sign of emphysema; at the same time the inspiratory murmur is often lower in pitch than the normal.

In exceptional cases the respiratory murmurs are harsh, owing to the extreme effort upon the part of the patient to expel air. As a rule, various râles are heard over practically the entire chest, and, indeed, the râles are not infrequently those heard in pulmonary asthma, chronic bronchitis, and pulmonary tuberculosis. A peculiar rubbing sound is occasionally detected, and is believed to result from friction of the large air-cells against the pleuræ. In the interlobular variety a crumbling sound is occasionally audible, and is of doubtful significance. Laënnec called attention to the presence of a sound that closely resembled the subcrepitant râle (see p. 71), but this is by no means a constant finding.

Theoretically speaking, the voice-sounds should be poorly transmitted through the distended lung tissue; but as emphysema commonly develops as a secondary condition, the transmission of the voice-sounds is of but limited clinical value in certain cases.

In advanced cases of emphysema the right heart at first hypertrophies and later dilates; when the latter occurs, a tricuspid regurgitant murmur is audible at the ensiform cartilage. Early in the disease accentuation of the second pulmonic sound is not infrequently heard.

Laboratory Diagnosis.—The sputum is practically the same as that found in chronic bronchitis. (See p. 106.)

X-ray Diagnosis.—In typical cases the most striking feature is the unusual degree of transparency that is universal through both lungs. (See p. 76.)

Summary of Diagnosis.—A history of the presence of conditions that markedly predispose to emphysema—*e. g.*, asthma, whooping-cough, and violent exercise—goes far to support a diagnosis. The typical barrel-shaped chest is positive evidence of the existence of emphysema, except in those cases in which it is associated with disease of the spine. The gradual development and prolonged duration of the condition and the typical symptoms and signs are most characteristic of emphysema.

Differential Diagnosis.—Thoracic tumor (aneurism) may produce a deformity of the chest that resembles in certain respects the deformity seen in emphysema. The distinguishing features, however, are that in aneurism the chest is not symmetrically enlarged, but an undue prominence occurs over some localized portion—most often the sternal or scapular regions. Again, aneurism gives a localized area of dullness, while surrounding this area, as the result of compensatory emphysema, a hyperresonant note is obtained. In aneurism there is likely to be a disturbance—an inequalitiy—in the pulsations of the two radials, and a bruit, as well as a marked diastolic shock, may be present over the area of consolidation.

Pneumothorax may cause an enlargement of the chest that is not unlike that seen in emphysema. The clinical features that distinguish pneumothorax from emphysema are: (*a*) Pneumothorax develops actuely, and with lancinating pain on one side of the chest; (*b*) immediately following the pain a condition of shock ensues, from which the patient rallies in from two to twelve hours; (*c*) the coin test is obtained over the affected side, and breath-sounds, if present over this half of the chest, are metallic in character; (*d*) after sufficient time has elapsed for the effusion of fluid into the pleural sac to take place, the succussion splash is present; the temperature ranges between 101° and 104° F. and is septic in character. The signs and symptoms here outlined are unknown in emphysema.

Clinical Course.—In those cases of emphysema resulting from whooping-cough recovery occurs in from three to six months. That type of the disease seen during adult and after middle life assumes a chronic course, extending over a period of several years, and showing no tendency toward improvement. After the pulmonary condition has sufficiently interfered with the circulation through the lung, cardiac embarrassment becomes evident, and the clinical picture is that of emphysema plus the symptoms of cardiac disease.

Senile Emphysema

A condition in which, as the result of advanced years, the elasticity and retractility of the lung are diminished, and atrophy of the lung tissue has occurred—the so-called *small-lunged emphysema*. As a result of the senile changes that have taken place in the wall of the alveolar cells, coalition of many of the air-cells occurs, with the production of rather large air-sacs.

In senile emphysema the volume of air in the lung is seldom above the normal, and, indeed, as a rule, the total volume of air is found to be diminished, a condition in striking contrast to that previously described under Hypertrophic Emphysema.

Subcutaneous Emphysema

Pathologic Definition.—Air sacs on the periphery of the lung rupture and the air from such sacs follows the line of least resistance traveling beneath the visceral pleura to the hilum, and then follows the reflection of the pleura on the greater vessels, thus reaching the mediastinum, and

from this point air follows along the facial planes into the tissues. Gardner and Jones have been able to demonstrate this course of the air passing from the lung to the tissues.

Pulmonary tuberculosis, mediastinal disease, and pleural adhesions favor its development.

Traumatic emphysema may result from the fracture of a rib, gunshot wounds, after exploratory puncture of the thorax, etc. Cancer of the alimentary tract, *e. g.*, esophagus, stomach, colon, and rectum are rarely complicated by subcutaneous emphysema. Operations on the air passages, especially the nose, trachea, and sinuses, and the removal of foreign bodies from the bronchi, and broncho-pneumonia may also be followed by subcutaneous emphysema.

Hysterectomy, appendectomy, and similiar so-to-speak commonplace operations are rarely followed by air escaping into the subcutaneous tissues. It has been our privelege to observe cases following gastric ulcer, empyema of the gall bladder, esophageal cancer, and tonsilar abscess. The extrapleural and peritoneal routes appear to be the course generally employed in the escape of air from the lungs and other hollow viscera into the tissues. Air-producing bacteria (B. aërogenous capsulatis) may rarely be the exciting cause.

Physical Signs.—Cases of thoracic origin display moderate uniform swelling of the neck, scalp, face, and upper portions of the chest, which swellings gradually increase, spreading downward until they may reach the pelvis, genitalia, and extend to the lower limbs. Should the emphysema involve the face, the patient is expressionless, and most cases develop delirium early.

Palpation.—Palpation over the affected tissues elicites a fine and sometimes course crepitus.

Auscultation.—Place the stethoscope over the affected area and while holding it firmly press upon the surrounding tissues, when peculiar crackling friction-like sounds are produced. Place the stethoscope over any portion of the neck, the breath sounds are much exaggerated and have a peculiar weird tone. The voice sounds are also altered. The prognosis is unfavorable.

FUNGOID DISEASE OF THE LUNGS

Pulmonary Actinomycosis

Pathologic Definition.—A chronic infectious disease, common in bovines, and occasionally seen to attack man. It is excited by the ray fungus (actinomyces), which develops in the pulmonary or pleural tissues, resulting in consolidation and possibly, later, in ulceration.

Aspergillosis of the Lungs (Pseudotuberculosis)

Pathologic Definition.—A primary or a secondary mycotic disease of the lung caused by the Aspergillus fumigatus, and characterized pathologically by consolidation with cavity-formation.

Pulmonary Blastomycosis

Pathologic Definition.—A secondary disease caused by the blastomyces, and characterized pathologically by the condition known as pneumomycosis (pulmonary consolidation).

Streptothricosis

Pathologic Definition.—A disease caused by the streptothrix, and characterized pathologically by pulmonary consolidation, caseation, and cavity-formation, with a tendency toward metastatic involvement of other viscera and of the lymph-nodes.

PARASITIC DISEASES OF THE LUNGS

Echinococcic Disease of the Lungs

Pathologic Definition.—A disease induced by infection with the dog tape-worm (Tænia echinococcus), and characterized pathologically by the presence of scolices, hooklets, and shreds of cyst membrane in the sputum. (See Parasitic Diseases, p. 1054.)

Amebic Abscess

Pathologic Definition.—This condition is caused by the Entamœba histolytica, and is usually secondary to amebic abscess of the liver. It is characterized pathologically by destruction of the pulmonary tissue with cavity-formation. (See Parasitic Diseases, p. 1048.)

Endemic Hemoptysis

Pathologic Definition.—A disease caused by infection of the lung by Paragonimus Westermanii. The parasites make small cavities in the lung tissue, and here, in a peculiar exudate, deposit their ova, which eventually escape with the sputum. (See Parasitic Diseases, p. 1054.)

DISEASES OF THE PLEURÆ

MOVEMENTS OF THE TWO HALVES OF THE CHEST

This clinical method was introduced in 1913 by Boston and Ulman, who gave a preliminary report after the study of 50 cases.

A correlative study of the pneumograms from the two halves of the chest renders immediately apparent the fact that organic lesions of the lung and pleura and both liquid and air in the pleural cavity give unmistakable evidences through this method.

Consideration.—Certain alterations of the pneumograms may result from either excessive or diminished muscular development, and also from unusual freedom of the respiratory movements; but these features do not, however, produce any difference in the writings of the two halves of the chest. This method of study has been found to be of inestimable value in all clinical forms of pleurisy, unilateral consolidations of the lung, pulmonary cavity, cardiac dilatation, cardiac hypertrophy, and diseases accompanied by increased abdominal tension. It likewise shows a distinct difference in the movements of the two halves of the chest where there is a unilateral loss in muscular tone, a feature best exemplified in hemiplegia.

Technic employed by one of us (Boston) in collaboration with Dr. Ulman:

The apparatus (Fig. 41) consists of (1) kymograph, (2) two Marcy tambours, (3) metal stand, (4) two clamps, and (5) two pneumographs (modified Ellis). The pneumograph consists of a rubber tube, 8 inches long, distended by a spiral wire spring. One end of the tube is closed, while the other end has an opening attachment to connect

with rubber tubing (6) to the tambours. A bivalve (7) is interposed between each pneumograph and tambour to prevent rupture of the rubber membrane of the tambour.

Changes in the air pressure in the pneumograph is transmitted to the Marcy tambours (2), which writes the respiratory movements upon the smoked paper on the drum of the kymograph (8), and produces the pneumograms (9).

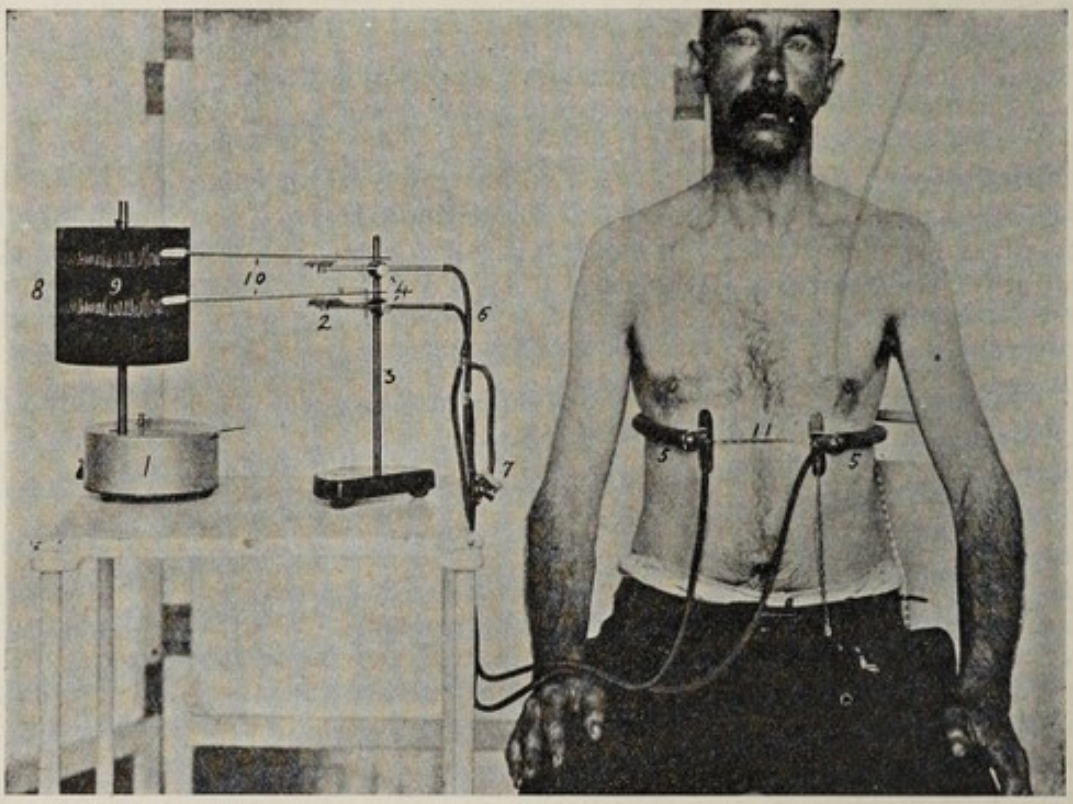


FIG. 40.—RECORDING MOVEMENTS OF THE TWO HALVES OF THE CHEST. INSTRUMENT IN OPERATION (Boston and Ulman).

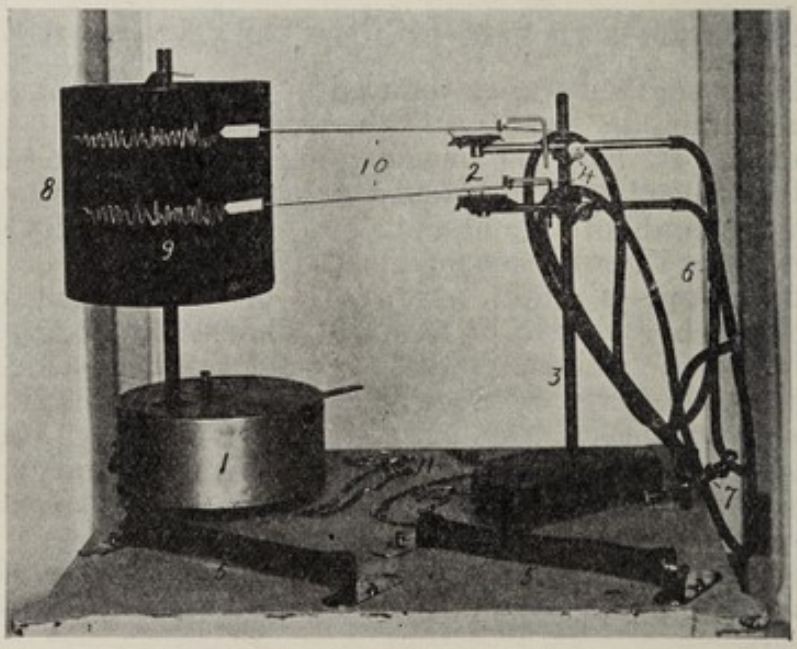


FIG. 41.—APPARATUS SHOWING SEPARATE PARTS (Boston and Ulman).
(5) Pneumographs, (11) connecting chains.

The pneumographs (5) are held in position upon the lateral parts of the chest by means of two small chains (11). One connects them across the back and the other across the front of the chest. Care must be taken not to have the chains too tight, as this will inhibit the respiratory movements of the chest. They are best applied on a

level with the sixth ribs, so that the anterior part of the pneumographs, which contain the opening for connections to the tambours, is situated about the nipple line. The distance separating the pneumographs over the back will vary greatly, depending upon the size of the chest.

The apparatus can be applied to the patient whether in the erect, sitting, or reclining posture. Have the small bivalves (7) open to prevent undue pressure on the tambours while adjusting the apparatus, preparatory to taking tracings. When ready to take the tracings these bivalves are to be closed. White glazed paper, 6 inches wide, is placed on the drum (8) of the kymograph and smoked evenly, though not too heavily, by the flame from a coal-oil lamp or a gas burner.

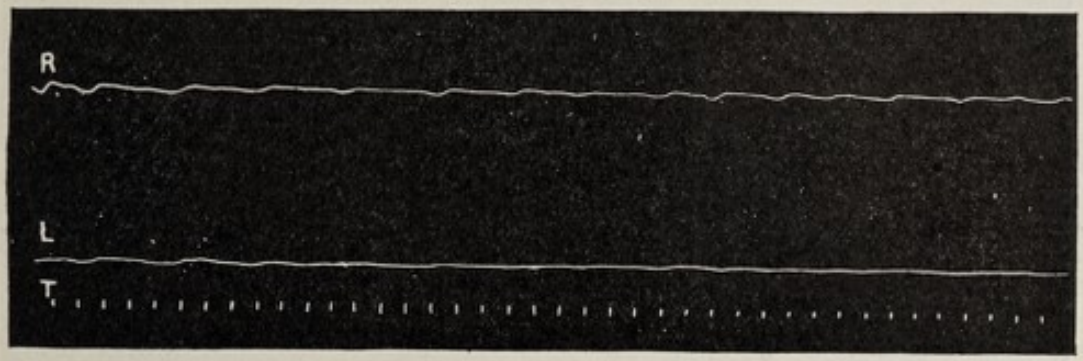


FIG. 42.—BILATERAL PNEUMOGRAM FROM A PATIENT SHOWING LARGE PLEURAL EFFUSION OF THE LEFT SIDE (Boston and Ulman).

T, Time indicator, rate 60 per minute; L, curve shows limited movements of the left half of the chest.

Be careful to bring the writing points of the two levers (10) of the tambours in the same vertical line, and with just sufficient pressure against the smoked paper, on the drum, to prevent binding. The distance between the two levers is not constant, but depends upon what type of tracing you desire to take. Usually from 1¼ to 2 inches apart will suffice. The tension of the rubber membranes of the tambours (2) must be equal. Should the patient cough (Case V), yawn, sneeze, or laugh during the taking of the record, these acts cause undue amplitude in the curves of the pneumogram. Figure 41 shows the separate parts of the apparatus.

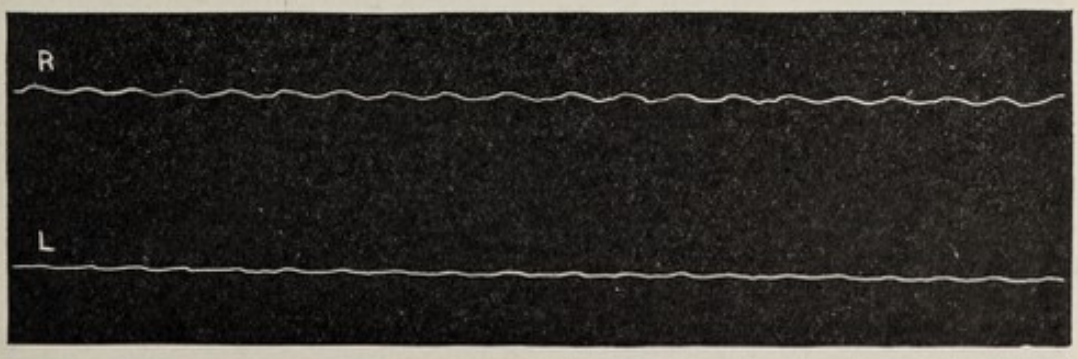


FIG. 43.—BILATERAL PNEUMOGRAM FROM A MALE AGED TWENTY-FOUR, SHOWING THE PHYSICAL SIGNS OF A LARGE TUBERCULOUS CAVITY NEAR THE APEX OF THE LEFT LUNG (Boston and Ulman).

There were also present evidences of an old pleurisy of the left side. L, Curve shows lessened expansion of the left half of the chest.

The time-marker can be placed at the base of the drum and this record may be made at the time the respiratory movements are recorded (Fig. 42). The time record may be taken after the pneumogram, but in such cases care must be taken that the speed of the revolving drum is the same as it was when the pneumogram was made.

The degree of pressure within the pneumographs is increased by inspiration (causing the downward curve of the pneumogram), while expiration lessens this pressure and corresponds to the upward curve of the pneumogram.

The accompanying bilateral pneumograms will serve to show how disease causes variations in time and amplitude of the writing of one side of the chest. The upper tracing of the bilateral pneumogram represents the movement of the right half of the chest, while the lower tracing is produced by the movements of the left side of the chest.

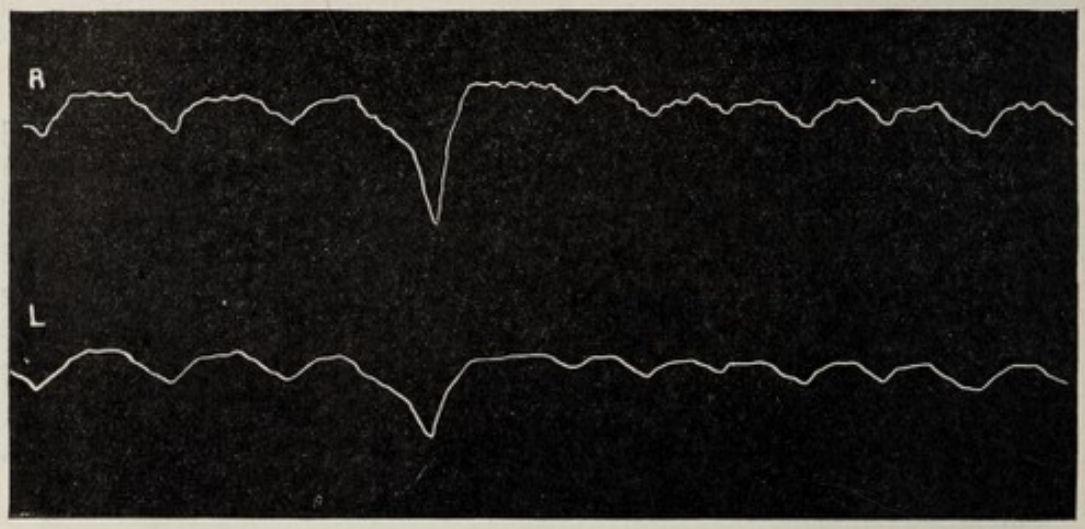


FIG. 44.—BILATERAL PNEUMOGRAM FROM A CASE OF RIGHT HEMIPLEGIA (Boston and Ulman).

Note especially the marked irregularity in curve R; probably dependent upon lack of muscular tone of the paralyzed side. The extreme downward amplitude of the curves result from forced inspiration, curve R descending much further than does curve L, a feature probably also due to diminished muscular tone of the right half of the chest.

In certain forms of pleurisy, pleural effusion, and pneumonic consolidation the movements of the affected side are greatly diminished, as compared with those of the unaffected side (Figs. 42 and 43). Again, the

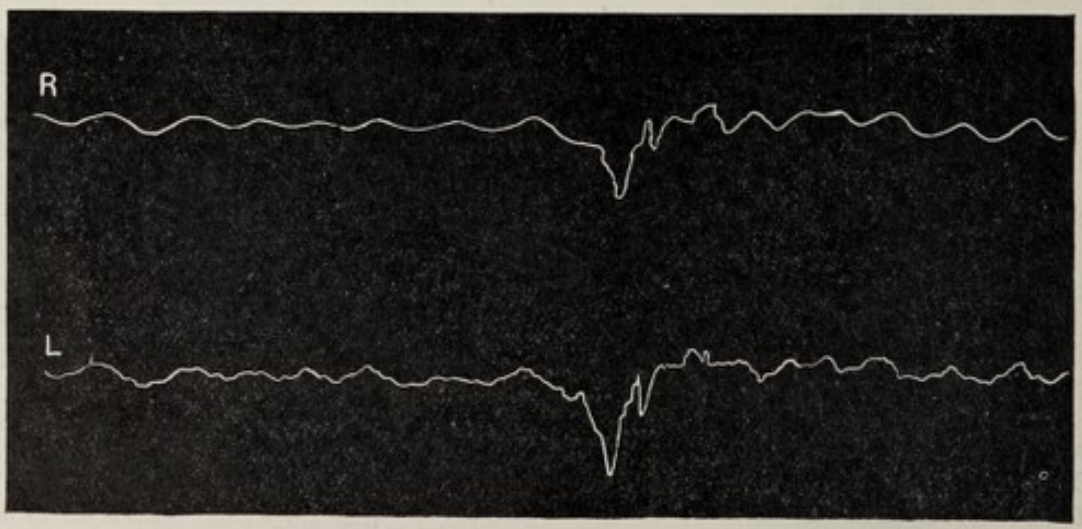


FIG. 45.—BILATERAL PNEUMOGRAM FROM A CASE OF EXTENSIVE CHRONIC PLEURISY OF THE LEFT SIDE; ALSO SMALL PULMONARY CAVITY AT THE LEFT APEX (Boston and Ulman).

Extreme downward amplitude of the curves resulted from the patient coughing.

movements may be widely different either at the upper portion or at the base of the chest, such variations depending upon the character and location of the lesion present. Unusual amplitude of both the right and left

curves are rather characteristic of fluid in the abdominal cavity. The pneumograms are also affected by pneumonia, pulmonary cavity, chronic pleurisy, hemiplegia, and conditions accompanied by dyspnea. (See Figs. 44, 45, and 46; also Mitral Regurgitation, Serofibrinous Pleurisy, Chronic Nephritis (Exudative), and Cheyne-Stokes Respiration.)

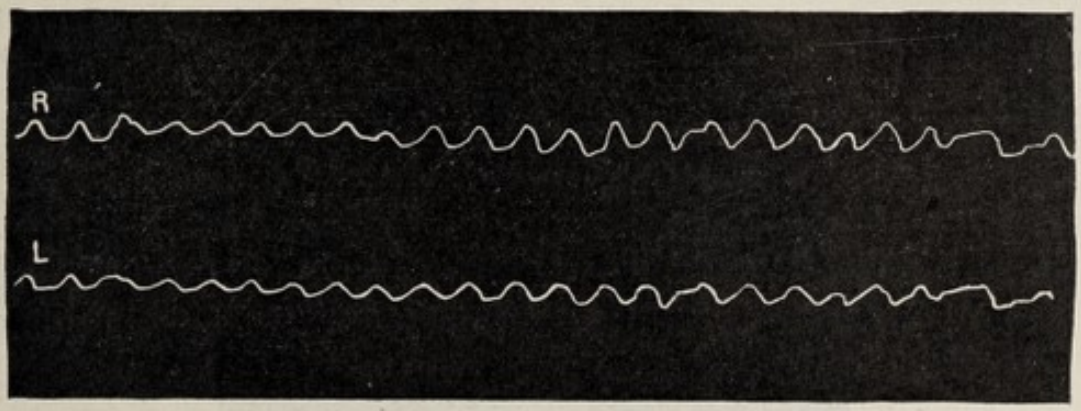


FIG. 46.—BILATERAL PNEUMOGRAM FROM A CASE OF EXTREME DYSPNEA—RESPIRATIONS 60 PER MINUTE (Boston and Ulman).

In extreme dyspnea the two curves are likely to show such differences.

HYDROTHORAX (DROPSY OF THE PLEURÆ)

Pathologic Definition.—A secondary condition in which there is an accumulation of transudate in one or both pleural sacs, without the existence of inflammatory changes in the pleuræ. Usually the condition is bilateral.

Exciting and Predisposing Factors.—Hydrothorax is in reality not a disease, but merely a symptom of a pathologic change that is remotely situated; nevertheless it is necessary to describe the clinical features of this symptom.

Varieties and Causes.—(1) **Hemorrhagic Hydrothorax.**—Under this heading are considered those conditions in which, as a result of impoverishment of the blood, a blood-stained transudate accumulates in the pleura; among these are leukemia, pernicious anemia, amebic dysentery, malignant disease, malaria, scurvy, chronic suppuration, and syphilis.

(2) **Local pathologic changes** may also give rise to the development of hydrothorax, and most of the unilateral cases belong to this class. Among the local exciting causes are: pressure upon the superior vena cava, pressure upon the thoracic duct, enlargement of the heart (dilated right auricle), thoracic aneurism, enlarged mediastinal glands, and carcinoma of the pleuræ.

(3) **Renal Changes.**—Renal disease is commonly concerned in the production of bilateral hydrothorax, and it will readily be understood that here there are two conditions that favor the accumulation of fluid within the pleura: (*a*) Increased work upon the part of the heart; and (*b*) impoverishment of the circulating blood. In hydrothorax of renal origin the diagnosis is confirmed either from a history of Bright's disease or from the laboratory diagnosis.

(4) **Cardiac disease** is a frequent cause of bilateral hydrothorax, and in those cases in which there is cardiac enlargement, which in turn exerts pressure upon the thoracic vessels, unilateral hydrothorax may result. Cardiac hydrothorax is recognized by the detection of organic disease of the heart. One of us (Anders) has reported a case of this

class.* Fetterolf and Landis have reported instances where the presenc of cardiac hydrothorax was due to pressure upon the pulmonary vein. This form of hydrothorax may at times be unilateral. Pick's disease may be associated with hydrothorax.

Principal Complaint.—This is usually dependent on the pre-existing disease, of which hydrothorax is but an additional symptom. After the fluid has accumulated in the pleuræ, there generally occurs a variable degree of aggravation of the original symptoms of the preëxisting

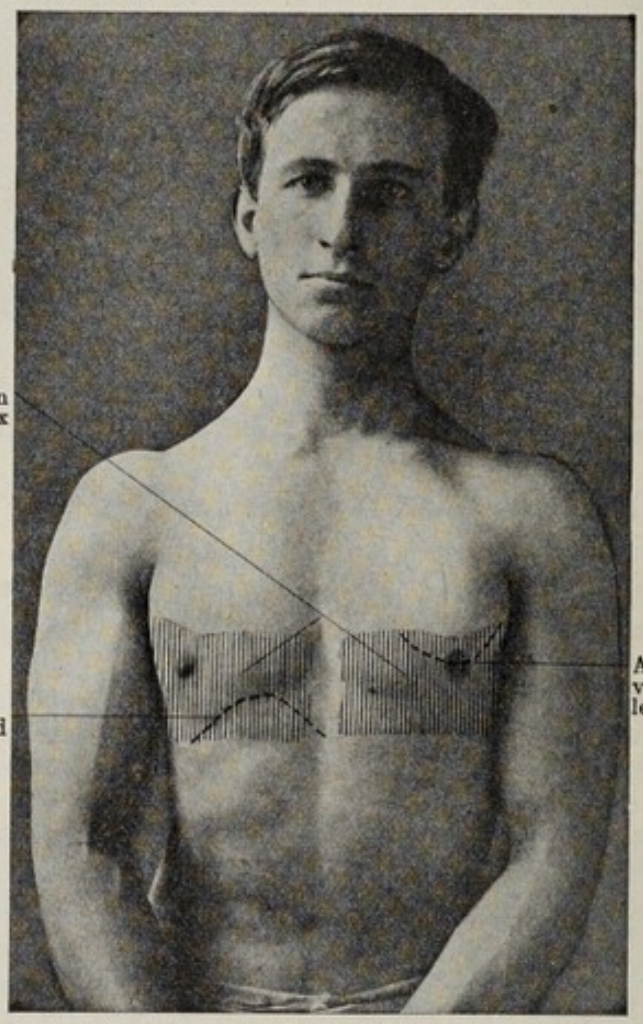


FIG. 47.—BILATERAL HYDROTHORAX.

disease. The patient complains of other symptoms certain of which are more or less characteristic of hydrothorax: Dyspnea becomes more and more marked, depending upon the quantity of fluid present in the pleural sacs, and if severe, cyanosis is present; paroxysmal coughing and asthmatic seizures are common, and symptoms referable to enfeebled circulation are apparent—*e. g.*, coldness of the extremities.

Physical Signs.—In bilateral hydrothorax (Figs. 47, 48) the physical signs are identical with those seen in pleurisy with effusion (*q. v.*), unless there is a thickened pleura, when a variable degree of dullness is found by percussion above the level of the fluid. It is important that the examiner keep in mind the fact that bilateral pleural effusions are uncommon, whereas bilateral hydrothorax is the general rule. The history of the patient will often enable one to interpret correctly the physical signs obtained in a case of hydrothorax.

*Amer. Jour. Med. Sci., 1913.

Previous Attacks.—One attack materially predisposes to subsequent seizures.

Clinical Course.—This depends upon the exciting factors, the length of time a transudate has remained in the pleural sacs, and whether or not it is possible to institute judicious treatment. In those cases due to cardiac and renal disease a prognosis of the preëxisting disease is readily made.

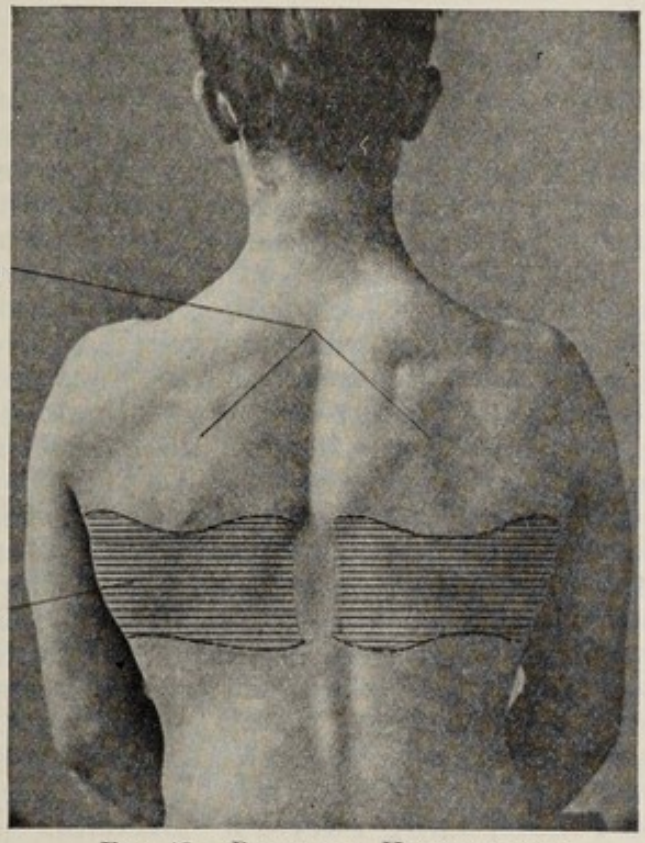


FIG. 48.—BILATERAL HYDROTHORAX.

CHYLOTHORAX

The accumulation of chylous fluid into the pleural sacs is occasionally encountered, and most often results from rupture of the thoracic duct, the result of a trauma or malignant diseases of the thorax. The accumulation of chylous fluid in the pleura is rather commonly associated with a similar condition of the peritoneal sac. (See Chylous Ascites, p. 630.)

Chylous fluid is distinguished from other discolored fluids through the fact that it contains a large amount of fat. True chylous fluid carries approximately 10 per cent.; while in pseudo-chylous effusions the amount of fat seldom exceeds 0.5 per cent. The literature furnishes but few cases of true chylous effusion into the pleura; while it does contain a rather large number of cases belonging to the pseudo-chylous variety.

Diagnosis.—The diagnosis depends upon the recovery of chylous fluid from the pleural sacs, and a chemical analysis of such fluid with reference to its contained percentage of fat.

PLEURISY (PLEURITIS)

Pathologic Definition.—A disease characterized by the presence of either a local or a general inflammatory process of the pleuræ. (See Pathology of Special Varieties.)

Varieties.—These are: Acute plastic pleurisy, serofibrinous pleurisy (pleurisy with effusion), purulent pleurisy (empyema), tuberculous pleurisy, subacute pleurisy, chronic adhesive pleurisy, diaphragmatic pleurisy, encysted pleurisy, intralobular pleurisy, cancerous pleurisy, and hemorrhagic pleurisy.

The **predisposing and exciting factors,** as well as the clinical picture of each of the subclasses, will be described at length under their respective headings.

Acute Plastic Pleurisy (Dry Fibrinous Pleurisy)

Pathologic Definition.—An acute inflammation of the pleuræ, characterized by congestion and the formation of a fibrinous exudate that covers the affected surface of the pleura. The pleura loses its normal luster, and the area involved is devoid of the normal glistening surface. Minute ecchymoses may be seen, and as the exudate accumulates upon the pleura a shaggy, roughened appearance results. Owing to the friction induced by the rubbing of the two layers of the pleura the exudate at times becomes greatly thickened, the involved surface of the pleura presenting a yellowish or reddish-gray appearance. The disease may advance to the formation of pleural adhesions; in mild cases, however, they are absent, and the products of the exudate undergo fatty degeneration and are later absorbed.

Varieties.—(1) **Primary plastic pleurisy** is said to occur when, prior to the onset of the pleuritic condition, the patient enjoyed health. Aschoff, in a careful study of 200 cases of acute plastic pleurisy, found but 41 cases in which the disease developed in previously healthy individuals.

(2) **Secondary plastic pleurisy** results from the extension of either an acute or a chronic inflammatory process to the pleura—*e. g.*, the associated pleurisy of lobar pneumonia.

Primary Plastic Pleurisy

Exciting and Predisposing Factors.—Bacteria.—In both acute and chronic pleurisy the direct cause is a pathogenic micro-organism or the toxic product of such organism. Among the bacteria commonly concerned in the production of plastic pleurisy should be mentioned the bacillus tuberculosis, streptococcus pyogenes, staphylococcus pyogenes albus, staphylococcus pyogenes aureus, pneumococcus, colon bacillus, bacillus typhosus, B. paratyphoid and hemolytic streptococci. These organisms may also be present after suppuration has taken place in the pleura, and any one of them may be the exciting cause of acute pleurisy. Other bacteria may enter the pleural cavity late in the course of dry pleurisy, or after a serous exudate has accumulated in the pleural sac. The ray fungus has been recovered from the pleura. Animal parasites—*e. g.*, Entamœba histolytica—have been known to cause acute inflammation of the pleura.

Predisposing Factors.—Primary pleurisy not infrequently follows undue exposure to cold and wet.

Sex.—The disease is slightly more common in men than in women, and is frequently seen to follow injury to the thorax.

Age figures prominently as a predisposing factor, the majority of cases developing during early adult and middle life.

Season is not without influence, the winter and spring months providing the greatest number of cases.

Rheumatism.—Those afflicted with a rheumatic or gouty diathesis are most likely to be attacked, and persons showing a predisposition to

the development of pulmonary disease, as, for example, tuberculosis, frequently develop acute pleurisy as the initial manifestation of infection. Every case of so-called idiopathic pleurisy should be studied carefully, having in mind that the great majority of such cases are either tuberculous or rheumatic in origin.

SECONDARY PLASTIC PLEURISY

General Remarks.—Secondary plastic pleurisy results from direct extension of the inflammation, hence it is associated with pulmonary abscess, pulmonary gangrene, superficial pulmonary cavity, lobar pneumonia, bronchopneumonia, hemorrhagic infarct, and hepatic, diaphragmatic, or mediastinal abscess. Plastic pleurisy may develop as a complication during the course of acute rheumatism. Conditions characterized by malnutrition—*e. g.*, chronic nephritis—are also likely to develop acute pleurisy as a complication. The pleura may be attacked secondarily by a similar inflammatory process involving other serous membranes—*e. g.*, synovial sacs, the meninges, or the pericardium.

Principal Complaint.—As a rule, the symptoms are well marked, although there are exceptional cases in which they are so mild as to be disregarded by the patient.

Pain Referable to the Chest.—The patient is suddenly seized with a sharp, stitch-like pain, generally near the nipple. This pain is increased on deep inspiration, and on movement of the arm of the affected side.

Cough is troublesome, and is accompanied by a lancinating pain.

Among the *general complaints* is that of chill or a series of chilly sensations, which may have been slight or so severe as to constitute a distinct rigor. The patient declares that he was feverish at the onset, and that he sweat profusely.

The *appetite* is poor, thirst somewhat increased, and constipation obstinate. Headache, while by no means constant, may be an annoying symptom.

Thermic Features.—In the average case the tempeature ranges between 100° and 103° F., whereas in severe types of infection it may reach 104° or even 106° F.

Nervous Symptoms.—Mild cases may run their course without developing any nervous manifestations other than those that have been previously mentioned under Pain.

Physical Signs.—Inspection.—*Attitude.*—In sitting, the patient inclines toward the affected side, his arm being clasped tightly against the chest. He may also stoop slightly forward. and there is drooping of the shoulder. Within a few hours after the initial pain the face becomes flushed. The movements of the chest are limited, the respirations are rapid and jerky in character, but on the affected side there is an absence of movement.

The *tongue* becomes coated within the first thirty-six hours, and the lips are dry.

Palpation.—Palpation confirms inspection with reference to the limited movements of the chest. A friction fremitus can be felt in a small percentage of cases.

Percussion.—Throughout the entire stage of acute plastic pleurisy the percussion-note is normal over both the affected and the healthy side. The exception to this rule is that, if the plastic exudate is extensive, moderate impairment of resonance will be detected. Percussion frequently is quite painful, however. After a patient has suffered from

repeated attacks of acute pleurisy, the pleura may be appreciably affected, and impairment of the ordinary resonance obtained by percussion will follow.

Auscultation.—A friction murmur is heard over a limited area on the affected side of the chest. This murmur is audible both by the direct and by the indirect method of auscultation. It consists of a peculiar grazing or grating sound, which is most distinct at the end of inspiration. The point of greatest intensity of the friction murmur depends entirely upon the area of pleura involved, and the murmur may be detected over any portion of the lung. With the appearance of a fibrinous exudate upon the pleura the friction-sound becomes somewhat less distinct and appears to be masked by numerous, fine, crackling râles that are heard during both inspiration and expiration. After the fibr nous exudate has accumulated a distinct friction-rub is usually audible when the patient is directed to inspire deeply. If the plastic exudate is extensive, as rarely occurs, the lung is somewhat compressed, and the breath-sounds become somewhat bronchial in character, thus making the differential diagnosis between adhesive pleurisy and pneumonia rather difficult.

Laboratory Diagnosis.—In those cases that display high fever, the urine is lessened in quantity and may contain a trace of albumin. In severe inflammation of the pleura the number of leukocytes will be above the normal.

Summary of Diagnosis.—A history of exposure to cold and wet, or of a tendency toward the development of pulmonary disorders, is of great value in formulating a diagnosis of acute pleurisy. The occurrence of a chill, followed by moderate fever, and acute lancinating pain in the chest are among the most valuable symptoms detailed by the patient. A moderate increase in the frequency of the pulse, together with immobility of the chest, further strengthens the diagnosis. The one positive sign of acute pleurisy, however, is the occurrence of a friction murmur (rub), which develops early and remains, though slightly modified, until an effusion is poured into the pleural sacs.

Average Duration.—The milder types of the disease tend toward a favorable termination in from four days to three weeks. Severe types—*e. g.*, those ushered in by a rigor and high fever—may terminate fatally. After repeated attacks there is a tendency for the pleuræ to become markedly thickened and for adhesions to form. In the latter event the patient may suffer from pleuritic pains for an indefinite period. Acute plastic pleurisy occurring during either an acute or a chronic disease shows less tendency to terminate favorably than when it attacks those in apparent health. Acute pleurisy developing during the course of pulmonary tuberculosis assumes a protracted course. It is to be remembered that in a large percentage of all cases an accumulation of serum in the pleural sacs (serofibrinous pleurisy) takes place.

Serofibrinous Pleurisy (Pleurisy with Effusion; Subacute Pleurisy)

This condition is merely the second stage of an acute pleurisy, in which a serous or a serofibrinous exudate has escaped into the pleural sac. Serofibrinous pleurisy, like acute pleurisy. may be either primary or secondary in nature.

Varieties.—Among the special varieties encountered are encysted pleurisy, partial pleurisy, and encapsulated pleurisy.

Predisposing and Exciting Factors.—The etiology of the disease is the same as that of acute plastic pleurisy (*q. v.*), since, as previously stated, serofibrinous pleurisy is but a second stage of the disease in its severer forms.

Infection with the tubercle bacillus is said to be the exciting factor in 75 per cent. of cases, and the general belief is that the tubercle bacillus attacks primarily the pleura; this subject, however, is still unsettled. That tubercle bacilli invade the pleuræ secondarily to a similar involvement of the lung cannot be doubted.

Rheumatism.—An accumulation of fluid in the pleural sac not unusually occurs as a complication of acute articular rheumatism. A similar condition may follow typhoid fever, scarlet fever, and epidemic meningitis. In lobar pneumonia the pleura of the affected side may be the seat of a serous effusion.

Bacterial Infection.—A bacteriologic study of the fluid obtained from the pleuræ is often negative, although many instances have been reported in which different bacteria have been recovered. A most satisfactory method of ascertaining which pathogenic organism is present is to inoculate an animal with a portion of the fluid; this method is almost essential in order to detect tubercle bacilli in the pleural exudate.

Principal Complaint.—The history and symptomatology are the same as those previously outlined under Dry Pleurisy. (See p. 146.) After the patient has suffered from acute lancinating pain in the side for several days, the character of the pain becomes gradually altered.

Pain.—After a copious effusion has been emptied into the pleural sac, the pain becomes of a dragging or tearing character. Its intensity is not dependent on the quantity of fluid that is present, for not infrequently we find a pleura nearly filled with fluid where a moderate amount of pain is present. When the pleura is well filled, the pain ceases to be localized, and may be absent; more or less soreness, however, is always present over the entire half of the chest. Pain along the margin of the ribs or in the midsternal region may be distressing, and is likely to mislead the physician. In those cases in which a copious pleural effusion is present and pain is not a prominent symptom, it may be excited by directing the patient to cough, to bend from side to side, or to inspire deeply. To avoid error we repeat that the acute pain of dry pleurisy diminishes with the appearance of the effusion, but that the pain may be continuous even though the pleura is well filled with fluid; conversely, this symptom is seldom, if ever, absent throughout the entire course of the serofibrinous stage of pleurisy.

Cough may continue from the dry stage throughout the greater part of the course of an attack of serofibrinous pleurisy. The character of the cough changes as the effusion accumulates, and the harsh cough, which may have been accompanied by slight expectoration, now becomes less racking and expectoration is more free. When serofibrinous pleurisy terminates in recovery, expectoration is more profuse during the stage of absorption, and the cough, which may continue for some weeks, is either dependent upon an associated catarrhal bronchitis or upon the irritation resulting from the reëxpansion of the lung.

Dyspnea, as previously stated under Dry Pleurisy, is present, and the respirations are shallow and jerking or irregular. Inspiration is often made up of a series of short inspiratory efforts, and the act may be interrupted at any time. Whenever there is a copious effusion in one pleura, or when both pleural sacs are half filled with fluid, dyspnea becomes pronounced, and the patient may be unable to rest in the recumbent posture; cyanosis is usually well marked. In those cases in which the effusion has accumulated rapidly dyspnea is more intense than in those in which a much longer time was consumed in collecting an equally large quantity of fluid. It is not uncommon to find a patient with one

pleural cavity two-thirds filled, the fluid having accumulated slowly, display little evidence of embarrassed respiration.

Gastro-intestinal Symptoms.—Anorexia, while mild during the dry stage of pleurisy, becomes well marked whenever the amount of effusion is large. *Nausea and vomiting* may occur at any time during the disease, and *constipation* is an almost constant symptom during all stages of pleurisy.

Thermic Features.—Fever is present throughout the greater portion of an attack of serofibrinous pleurisy, the temperature ranging between 100° and 103° F. Near the end of the second or third week there is generally an appreciable decline in the temperature, and by the fourth week it has often reached the normal. Not infrequently, in the more severe cases, a continued type of fever (101° to 104° F.) runs through the second and

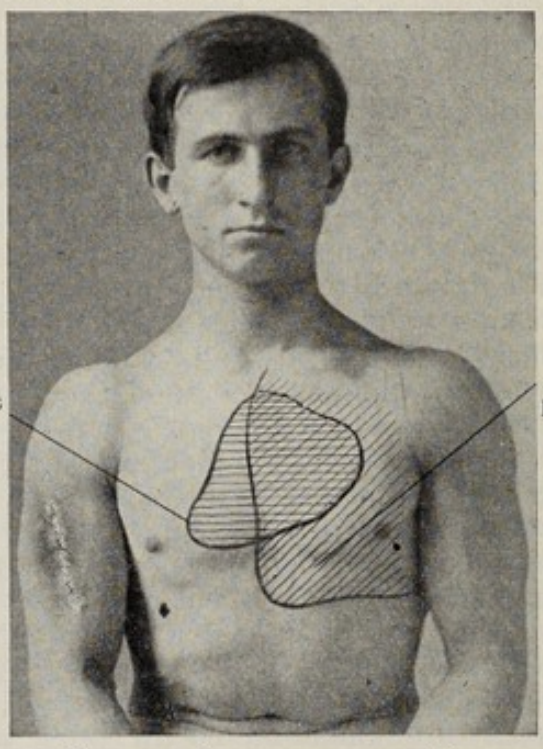


FIG. 49.—LARGE PLEURAL EXUDATE ILLUSTRATIVE OF DISPLACEMENT OF THE HEART.

third weeks of the disease. On the other hand, there are mild types of pleurisy in which the temperature never exceeds 101° F. A hectic temperature, with evening exacerbations and morning remissions, is suggestive of infection of the pleural fluid with some pus-producing organism, but it is to be remembered that this is by no means a positive sign. The axillary temperature of the affected side may be from one-half to two degrees higher than that of the opposite side, but this peculiarity of the temperature is not a constant finding, and its clinical significance is questionable.

Cardiac Symptoms.—These form so prominent a group of symptoms occurring during the course of serofibrinous pleurisy that they have been considered under a separate heading, and out of the regular order employed for their description. As soon as fluid begins to accumulate in the pleura the heart-beats increase in frequency, and as the accumulation proceeds the pulse-rate may show a corresponding increase, ranging between 100 and 130 beats a minute. If the accumulation of fluid is large and the heart is greatly displaced to one or the other side of the chest, the pulse becomes irregular both in rhythm and in volume. There is some contro-

versy as to whether this irregularity in the pulse is the result of pressure of a pleural effusion upon the heart or of pressure upon the great vessels in the thorax. In the judgment of certain observers pressure upon both the heart and the vessels is responsible for this irregularity of the pulse.

Owing to embarrassment of the heart and to torsion of the great vessels at the base of the organ (large left pleural effusion, Fig. 49), cyanosis develops and often becomes extreme. Dyspnea, as previously mentioned, may result in part from embarrassed circulation following pressure upon the heart.

Physical Signs.—These are directly dependent upon the quantity of exudate present in one or in both pleural sacs. The three factors that figure most prominently among the physical signs of serofibrinous pleurisy are: (*a*) The signs present when the effusion is at its height; (*b*) displacement of thoracic and abdominal viscera; and (*c*) the signs present during the stage of absorption.

Stage of Effusion.—*Inspection.*—If one pleural sac is only partially filled, say to the fourth rib, inspection reveals but slight bulging at the base of the chest on the affected side, and, indeed, in muscular and obese

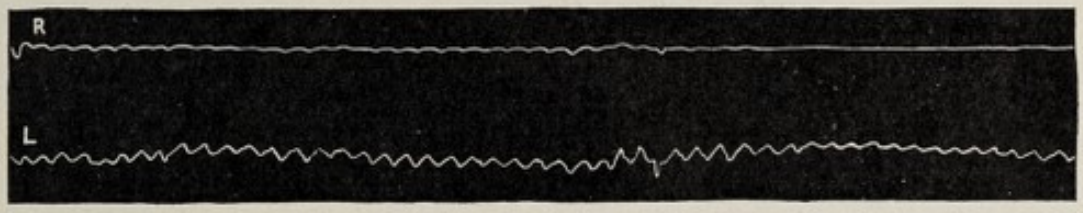


FIG. 50.—BILATERAL PNEUMOGRAM FROM A CASE OF RIGHT PLEURAL EFFUSION.

Respirations, 48 per minute. Curve R represents movements of the right half of the chest. Curve L represents movements of the left half of the chest. Note irregularity in the general course of curve L. Case studied at the Philadelphia General Hospital. (See Bilateral Movements of Chest, p. 140.)

individuals no alteration in the contour of the chest may be perceptible. If one pleural sac is filled to the third rib, a distinct bulging of the affected side is apparent, and the chest movements over such a large effusion are limited, and often confined entirely to the apex. The abdominal type of respiration becomes more and more prominent as the quantity of fluid in the pleural sacs increases, and where the effusion is large, the respirations are rapid and often shallow (Fig. 50). There may be but little difference apparent in the two sides of the chest, even though one pleura is practically filled with fluid, this condition being due to compensatory emphysema of the lung of the unaffected side.

The apex-beat of the heart is always displaced when a large pleural effusion is present. If the effusion occupies the left pleura, the heart's impulse may be seen to the right of the median line, and in extreme cases it may be observed at the fourth and fifth interspace, in the right axillary region. In right-sided effusion the heart is displaced to the left. Whenever there is but a moderate effusion in the left pleura (the sac being half filled), the apex-beat of the heart is elevated, and a distinct pulsation may be seen about the third or fourth interspace inside the left nipple-line.

Absence of the apex-beat may be dependent upon the fact that the apex of the heart is lodged behind the sternum (Fig. 49), the result of pressure from a left-sided pleural effusion; it may not, however, indicate the position of the apex of the heart, since, because of cardiac embarrassment, there is frequently undue pulsation of the right auricle.

On inspection of the base of the chest anteriorly there is noticed undue fullness at the margin of the ribs on the affected side; the epigastrium is also seen to be prominent. In the case of a large pleural effusion the prominence of the epigastrium may extend from the affected side beyond the median line. In thin subjects it is often possible to observe the outline of the lower margin of the liver when it is decidedly displaced by a large right-sided effusion.

Mensuration.—When a large unilateral effusion is present, the measurements of the affected side of the chest are increased, and its contour is altered most at its base. Inequality in the measurements of the two sides of the chest may be found during health, and in right-handed individuals the right side is slightly larger than the left; consequently, a moderate effusion into the left pleura of such an individual would not be detected by mensuration. The degree of expansion of the healthy side during the act of inspiration gives positive evidence of the existence of pleural effusion, since expansion is absent at the base of the chest on the affected side.

The horizontal measurements of the chest are also altered by fluid in one pleural sac, the distance from the clavicle to the margin of the ribs being greater on the affected side.

Palpation.—By pressing the two hands upon the chest and directing the patient to inspire deeply, the limited range of expansion of both sides of the chest may readily be appreciated. The chest-wall over a large pleural effusion is practically fixed, whereas the opposite side is observed to move more rapidly than in health. The intercostal spaces are found to be prominent over a large effusion. Rarely, indeed, the tissue of the chest-wall may pit upon pressure, and fluctuation is said to occur.

Tactile fremitus is absent over an effusion, the exceptions to this rule being in the case of an infant—*e. g.*, a child crying—and when pleural adhesions were present prior to the accumulation of the fluid, such adhesions still anchoring the compressed lung to the chest-wall. Absence of tactile fremitus is of less clinical significance in women than it is in men, and, owing to the character of the female voice, these patients should be instructed to pronounce distinctly and to assume a masculine tone of voice during chest examinations.

The impulse of the apex-beat of the heart is always displaced in large pleural effusions, and where such displacement is sufficiently great to embarrass the circulation, pulsation of the right auricle may be palpable. Pulsation at the right side of the neck and in the sternal notch may also be detected. When pushed down by a pleural effusion, the liver is felt below the costal margin (Fig. 52), and the spleen is likewise displaced downward when the left sac is well filled. Whenever either the spleen or the liver is palpable below the costal margin, it is necessary to determine, by both percussion and auscultatory percussion, whether or not the viscus in question is actually enlarged.

Percussion.—As soon as the effusion begins to accumulate in the pleura the percussion-note is impaired beneath the angle of the scapula, and with the increase in the quantity of fluid exuded, this impairment changes to dullness, and eventually to flatness, which is present over the entire base of the chest upon the affected side when the patient is standing or sitting. When the pleura is more than half filled with fluid, the area of flatness extends across the median line (paravertebral area of dullness), giving a peculiar arched-like line of flatness, extending from the upper level of the fluid to the base of the pleura, and for from one and one-half

to two and one-half inches beyond the median line (Fig. 51). The paravertebral angle is altered by the position of the patient (Fig. 51).

Second in importance is the sensation offered to the pleximeter finger, such resistance being augmented over a large effusion and where a flat note is obtained. The note obtained over the fluid is always flat, and there is a variable degree of impairment for some distance above the fluid if the pleura is half filled. One of the characteristics of pleural fluid is the change of level of the fluid (Fig. 51) with the change in position of the patient. In extensive pleural adhesions movable dullness is not present.

In those cases in which the exudate fills one pleura to the level of the third rib the note obtained by percussion over the apex and above the third rib is hyperresonant (skodaic resonance) and often tympanitic in character. Modified skodaic tympany is also found above an effusion that almost fills the pleura to the fourth rib, and a hyperresonant note is

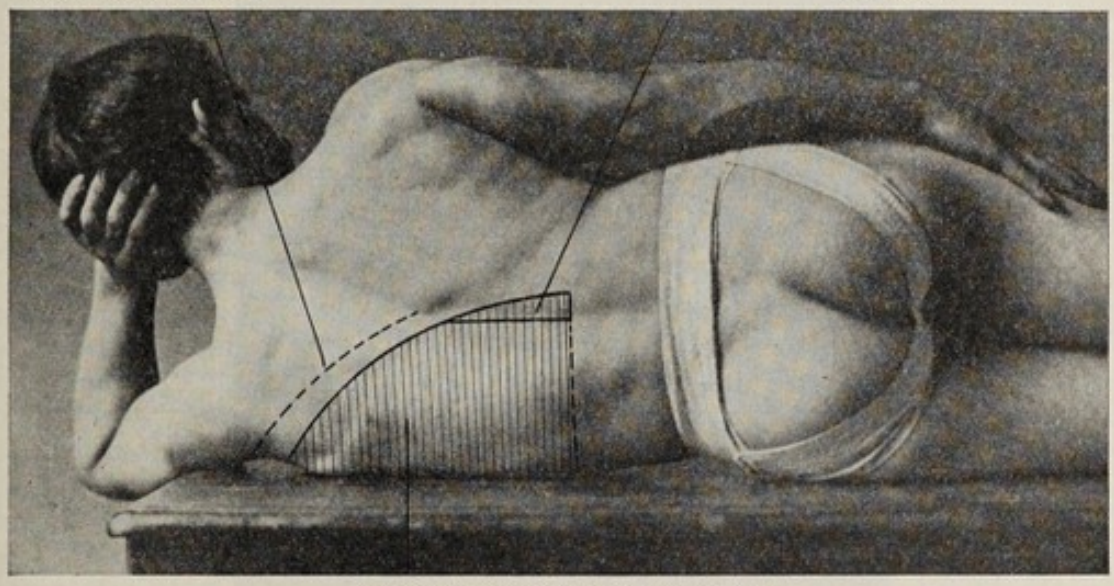


FIG. 51.—EFFECT OF POSITION OF THE PATIENT ON A LARGE PLEURAL EFFUSION.

elicited above the level of the fluid when both pleuræ are partially filled. In the case of a large effusion, in which the pleuræ is practically filled with fluid, firm percussion may elicit the so-called "cracked-pot sound;" to obtain this, however, certain conditions must exist: (*a*) The compressed lung and its bronchus must be forced against the chest-wall anteriorly; (*b*) the chest-wall must be thin and relaxed; (*c*) the patient must breathe with the mouth open; (*d*) firm percussion is required.

The upper limit of pleural fluid or the line of flatness is not horizontal when the patient is sitting or standing, but is slightly higher near the spine, and becomes gradually lower as the anterior surface of the chest is approached. If the quantity of fluid present is moderate, a reverse condition is found, and the lower level of the fluid, as indicated by the level of the note of flatness, is found posteriorly, rising highest in the axillary region, and descending slightly as we pass anteriorly. This curved line of flatness has been referred to by Garland and others as the S-line.

It is only by careful percussion and by a keen appreciation of the sensation offered to the finger (pleximeter), as well as by a careful analysis of the note produced, that the distinction between the lower border of the

pleural fluid and the upper margin of the liver can be made. Again, it must be borne in mind that, owing to the anatomic relation of the pleura to the top of the liver (Fig. 52), a certain portion of the latter must be overlapped by the distended pleural sac, which makes it necessary to employ deep percussion, and even then the height to which the top (dome) of the liver rises is difficult to determine.

A large accumulation of fluid in the left pleural sac causes an obliteration of Traube's semilunar space, and produces an alteration in the percussion-note obtained over this area.

Auscultatory Percussion.—In order to insure accuracy in determining the level at which the flatness of pleural effusion and that of hepatic dullness unite, auscultatory percussion is invaluable. This method of



FIG. 52.—AREA OF FLATNESS IN LARGE RIGHT PLEURAL EFFUSION.

combined auscultation and percussion is also of service in determining the position of the spleen when there is an effusion into the left pleura.

Auscultation.—Whenever sufficient fluid has accumulated in a pleural sac to cause a separation of the parietal and visceral pleuræ, the friction murmur described under acute pleurisy (p. 145) disappears, and the breath-sounds become weak and distant over the fluid. After the pleural sac is at least half filled with fluid, the breath-sounds over the affected side above the fluid may acquire a bronchial quality. Breath-sounds are absent over the pleural fluid except in those cases in which the patient has suffered from previous attacks of pleurisy, in consequence of which pleura adhesions are present which convey the sound from the visceral to the parietal layers of the pleura. Again, when an enormous quantity of fluid is present in the pleura and the lung is compressed tightly beneath

the clavicle, distinct bronchial breathing is audible over this compressed lung. Seldom, indeed, the bronchial quality of the breathing is heard over the entire chest on the affected side. The breath-sounds may display an amphoric quality, and, indeed, the breathing at times resembles that heard in pulmonary cavitation. Râles are also present over the affected side, and in children their presence is of but limited diagnostic value.

When one pleural sac is only partially filled, bronchovesicular breathing is audible above the fluid and over the unaffected lung, and in proportion to the quantity of fluid in the pleura the breath-sounds are exaggerated over the unaffected side.

Vocal resonance is absent over a pleural effusion, and, owing to compensatory emphysema of the healthy lung, it is also diminished over the unaffected side and above the level of the fluid. If firm pleural adhesions exist below the upper level of the fluid, breath-sounds may be altered or even exaggerated over an area where a flat note is obtained by percussion. In those cases in which there is a large effusion into the pleural sac and compression of the lung occurs, the voice-sounds may be exaggerated and simulate closely the sounds heard over a superficial tuberculous cavity.

Egophony.—By placing the ear at a point level with the junction of the fluid with the lung the voice-sounds resemble the bleating of a goat when the patient speaks (egophony). In small pleural effusions egophony is most likely to be heard over the scapular region.

X-ray Diagnosis.—Williams states that, given a large pleural effusion, the rays do not readily pass through it, and, as a consequence, the outline of the diaphragm, ribs, and solid viscera is obliterated on the affected side. By means of fluoroscopic examination it is possible to detect displacement of the heart, and Bergoine and Carrie, by a fluoroscopic study, observed the changes in the pleural fluid resulting from the position of the patient and also from the action of the diaphragm. Fluoroscopy is a method of great diagnostic value, since the heart may be markedly displaced, and yet, owing to the fact that the organ is covered by emphysematous lung (compensatory), such displacement may be undetectable by percussion. (See *x*-ray findings, p. 176.)

Paracentesis.—Aspiration of the pleural sac is of inestimable value in determining both the type of fluid contained in the sac and the variety of bacteria that may serve as etiologic factors. The operation is, comparatively speaking, free from danger if done under antiseptic precautions. Thoracocentesis not only serves as a diagnostic measure, but if the proper amount of fluid is permitted to escape from the pleura this operation re-establishes normal intra-pleural pressure.

Caution.—Always test the aspirator by removing fluid from a cup or bottle, through it, before inserting the needle into the pleura.

Technic.—The accompanying illustration (Fig. 53) will show the position in which the patient is preferably placed. Those cases where it is impossible to sit the patient erect are aspirated with decided difficulty, since it is impossible to get far below the level of the fluid. In any event the hand of the affected side should be placed on the opposite shoulder in order to widen the interspaces. The points of election are just below the angle of the scapula and in the mid-axillary line. Insert the needle in the sixth interspace on the right, and in the seventh interspace when aspirating the left pleura. In selected cases the needle may be inserted one interspace lower. Estimate approximately the thickness of the patient's chest-wall and grasp the needle firmly at a point allowing just

sufficient of it to reach the pleura. Insert the needle immediately above, and hug closely to the superior surface of the rib to avoid wounding the intercostal artery. Immediately upon having entered the pleura elevate the outer portion of the needle in order to direct its point downward and from the lung.

Stage of Resorption.—*Inspection.*—The abnormalities observed when the disease was at its height gradually disappear with the resorption of the fluid, and when a large pleural effusion has become almost completely absorbed, the chest and respiratory movements are approximately normal. After repeated attacks of pleurisy, and, indeed, rarely after a single attack, permanent retraction of the affected side may follow. During the stage of absorption the widened intercostal spaces become narrowed, the elevated shoulder of the affected side assumes its normal level or

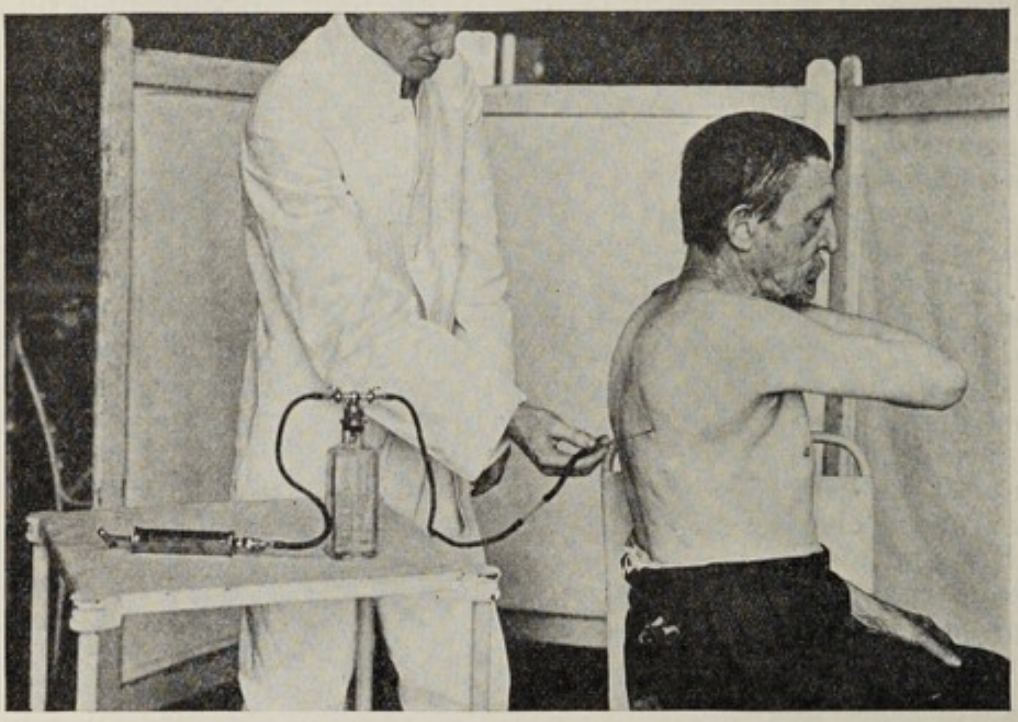


FIG. 53.—ASPIRATION OF THE RIGHT PLEURA.

droops slightly, and slight curving of the spine toward the affected side may rarely be detected. For weeks or even months after an attack of serofibrinous pleurisy the scapula of the affected side may project further from the chest than does its fellow. Permanent shrinking of the thorax may follow serofibrinous pleurisy, but such deformity is usually compensated for by abnormal expansion of other portions of the thorax. Chest deformities occurring as the result of pleurisy are discussed at length under Empyema (p. 166).

Palpation.—Tactile fremitus, which was absent over the fluid, is now discernible, and is situated at a lower and lower level from time to time as the fluid is being absorbed. There are few exceptions to this general rule, and these are dependent upon the formation of pleural adhesions and extreme thickness of the pleura. As the fluid disappears the expansion of the affected side more and more closely approximates that of the normal, although after the process of absorption is completed, the expansile movement of the affected side of the chest may show moderate restriction.

Mensuration.—Some months after an attack of serofibrinous pleurisy a limited expansion of the affected side of the chest generally occurs, and when at rest, the measurements of this half of the chest are slightly below those of the opposite side.

Percussion.—With the absorption of the pleural fluid the flat note gradually disappears, giving place to normal percussion resonance, which progresses from above downward. Normal percussion resonance is not obtained for weeks and often months after an attack of serofibrinous pleurisy. With the absorption of the fluid areas of dullness, due to displacement of the heart, liver, and spleen, gradually disappear, to reappear at their normal sites.

Auscultation.—During the process of absorption of a large effusion breath-sounds that were formerly heard only at the apex of the lung are now heard at a lower and lower level from time to time until the fluid has been completely absorbed, when they become audible at the base. As the fluid disappears the breath-sounds, which at first were extremely weak and distant (at the base), gradually assume their normal tone.

The friction-sound, described under Acute Pleurisy (p. 145), may reappear when the fluid is almost completely absorbed, and occasionally it persists for days, weeks, or even months after the patient has apparently recovered and is free from pain. In rare instances the lung does not expand sufficiently to follow the upper surface of the fluid during the process of absorption, in which case breath-sounds are heard only over the upper portion of the pleura.

The heart-sounds, which were rapid and may have been greatly altered by the presence of a large effusion, return to normal with the disappearance of the pleural exudate.

X-ray Diagnosis.—The best results are to be obtained by placing the patient in the erect posture for the plate posteriorly. This means of diagnosis is of great assistance in determining the localized areas of consolidation due to encysted pleurisy. (See *x*-ray diagnosis, p. 76.)

Laboratory Diagnosis.—While the quantity of fluid in the pleural sac is increasing, the urine becomes scanty, of high color and high specific gravity, and may contain albumin. During the stage of resorption the flow of urine is increased, and it becomes pale and of low specific gravity unless the patient is placed upon a dry diet.

Fluid obtained from the pleural sac is serous in character, has a specific gravity of 1.018 to 1.030, and is rich in albumin. Microscopically endothelial cells, leukocytes, and, rarely, bacteria (tubercle bacilli) are present. An examination of the sediment obtained by centrifugation of a pleural fluid shows a preponderance of lymphocytes if the process is tuberculous, of polymorphonuclear cells if it is septic. In order to determine whether or not a pleurisy is tuberculous in character, a healthy guinea-pig should be injected with a small quantity of the pleural exudate, when, if tuberculosis is the causal factor, the animal will develop tuberculosis in from four to eight weeks. Cultures from pleural effusions seldom show the presence of the bacillus of tuberculosis unless a large amount of fluid is used, and, indeed, such cultures usually remain free from bacteria.

Streptococcic Pleurisy.—In the so-called streptococcic pleurisy polynuclear cells that are undergoing degeneration, together with the presence of streptococci are the characteristic features. **Pneumococcic pleurisy** is also characterized by an excess of polynuclear cells. Endothelial cells are commonly numerous. but in the later stage of the disease these are diminished. Where endothelial cells are plentiful, and increase from

time to time, this is regarded as evidence of progressive improvement. The pneumococcus is commonly demonstrable by staining methods.

Typhoid pleurisy, displays endotheliosis, which endothelial cells are often found in masses instead of being disseminated through the pleural fluid, as is common in tuberculosis of the pleura. Red blood cells are frequently present in great numbers. Specific organisms, either typhoid, or members of the colon group, may be isolated from the pleural exudate.

Summary of Diagnosis.—In serofibrinous pleurisy there is a history of preceding dry (acute) pleurisy, except where malignancy extends to the pleuræ. The diagnosis is strengthened by the presence of movable flatness, the absence of breath-sounds over the affected area, and increased respiratory murmurs over the compressed lung and over the unaffected side of the chest. Cyanosis and limited movements of the affected side further confirm the diagnosis, whereas aspiration of the pleura makes the diagnosis positive, and serves as the distinguishing feature between serofibrinous pleurisy and empyema. The *x*-ray findings are also of great value.

Differential Diagnosis.—In those cases in which the patient has been seen during the attack of **acute dry pleurisy,** differentiation is easy, and is based largely upon the preëxisting condition. Pleural effusion is to be distinguished from other pathologic conditions in which the lung is *consolidated*, *retracted*, or *compressed;* and from *new-growths* of the *thorax, pericardial effusion, acute cardiac dilatation, hydrothorax,* and *lobar pneumonia*. Acute abdominal inflammations are occasionally mistaken for pleurisy: *e. g.* appendicitis and subdiaphragmatic abscess. (See p. 174.)

General Tuberculous Infiltration of the Lung.—When a large portion of one lung is involved by an acute tuberculous process that has spread rapidly from an initial pulmonary focus, the associated pleurisy resulting from such inflammatory process may point toward the existence of *serofibrinous pleurisy*. These two conditions may, however, be differentiated by the physical signs, since over a consolidated lung dullness is obtained, and not flatness, and the resistance offered to the pleximeter finger is less intense than it is over a pleural effusion. Bronchial breathing is heard over a lung consolidated from any cause, but is usually absent over fluid; the breath-sounds are also intensified over consolidation or even over a partially consolidated lung, whereas over fluid they are usually diminished or absent. Movable dullness is characteristic only of pleural effusion. The adjacent viscera—the heart and liver—are not displaced by pulmonary consolidation as they are by pleural fluid. The detection of tubercle bacilli in the sputum goes far to support a diagnosis of tuberculous infiltration.

New-growths of the pleura may compress the lung, and when this occurs, the signs of pulmonary consolidation are present; but here again the adjacent viscera are not displaced, and the measurements of the affected side of the chest are seldom, if ever, greater than those of the unaffected side.

The accompanying table, amplified from Anders, shows the leading differential points between acute **croupous** (**lobar**) **pneumonia** and **pleurisy** with **effusion.**

Pleurisy with Effusion	Primary Lobar Pneumonia
Symptoms	
1. Onset marked by chilliness persisting for a few days.	1. Onset acute, with rigor, lasting one hour or longer.
2. The pain is sharp, "stitch-like," and strictly localized.	2. Acute pain (similar), but soreness more diffuse.
3. Cough is irritating; no expectoration. or, if present, catarrhal in character.	3. Cough more marked, and accompanied by rusty or bloody, tenacious expectoration.
4. Sputum negative; tubercle bacilli rare.	4. Dense aggregations of pneumococci present.
5. Moderate fever of continuous type; decline by lysis.	5. Fever, 102° to 104° F., falls by crisis.
6. Prostration moderate.	6. Prostration extreme.
7. Herpes does not appear.	7. Herpes labialis quite common.
8. Leukocytosis absent or moderate.	8. Leukocytes number 15,000 to 40,000 per c.mm.
Physical Signs	
Inspection	
9. Unilateral distention of the thorax.	9. Absent.
10. Countenance pale and anxious.	10. Mahogany-colored flush of cheeks.
11. Limited expansion at base of chest on the affected side.	11. Degree of expansion slightly, if at all, inhibited.
12. Patient, when in bed, rests upon or inclines toward the affected side.	12. Most likely to rest upon the back.
Palpation	
13. Tactile fremitus diminished or absent.	13. Increased over area of consolidation.
14. Expansion limited on the affected side.	14. Not detectable.
15. Interspaces bulging at base of chest.	15. Absent.
16. Traube's semilunar space is usually prominent.	16. Absent.
Percussion	
17. Flatness, with great resistance to the plexímeter finger.	17. Dullness with less resistance, and sometimes a tympanitic note.
18. Shows displacement of adjacent viscera.	18. Absent in uncomplicated cases.
19. If the sac is partially filled, the line of flatness changes with the position of the patient.	19. Absent.
20. Upper level of flatness extends from the sternum to the spine (patient sitting or standing).	20. Outline of dullness irregular and usually limited.
Auscultation	
21. Diminished or absent breath-sounds over effusion the rule. Respiratory murmur diffuse, distant, and generally unaccompanied by râles. Bronchial breathing may be present over the entire affected side of the chest.	21. Harsh bronchial breathing and presence of râles in first and third stages, unless a bronchus is plugged.
22. Vocal resonance diminished or absent; egophony heard at junction of lung and upper level of fluid.	22. Bronchophony (loud), unless a bronchus is occluded.
23. Friction-sound heard in early and late stages.	23. No friction murmur; râles present.
Aspiration	
24. Serum is recovered from pleura by aspiration.	24. Negative or yields a few drops of thick blood.

Cysts of the liver or of the lung, or even abscess of the liver, may push the diaphragm and lower border of the pleura to a sufficient height to give rise to physical signs that may be confused with those of pleural effusion. The clinical history of hepatic disease differs widely from that obtained in pleurisy. In the former dullness may be extreme, and may even simulate the flatness of pleural effusion; but movable dullness is absent in hepatic disease, whereas it is constant in pleural effusion. An exploratory puncture will furnish decisive evidence in distinguishing between pleural effusion and disease of the liver.

Hydrothorax.—The physical signs presented by unilateral hydrothorax are identical with those seen in pleural effusion, except that in the former the friction murmur is absent. As a rule, however, hydrothorax is bilateral, which fact serves to distinguish it, in the majority of instances, from acute pleural effusion. Bilateral accumulation of fluid in pleurisy, while uncommon, may occasionally be found. In hydrothorax there is no history of acute pleurisy, but, on the contrary, one of cardiac, hemic, hepatic, or renal disease is the rule. Aspiration of the pleura serves as a valuable distinguishing point, since a transuded pleural effusion (the fluid of hydrothorax) is of low specific gravity,—never above 1.015,—whereas a pleural exudate the result of acute pleurisy has a higher specific gravity.

Pericardial Effusion.—A large pericardial effusion may be mistaken for fluid in the left pleura. In pericardial effusion dyspnea is a more prominent symptom than in pleural effusion. In the former the heart is not displaced to the right (Fig. 49), as in pleural effusion. In pericardial effusion percussion shows the area of flatness to be circumscribed, and to be most marked in the axillary region. Along the posterior margin of the left pleura normal pulmonary resonance is obtained, whereas in pleural effusion a flat note is elicited over this region. In pericardial effusion the heart-sounds are distant, feeble, or muffled, while in pleural effusion the quality of the heart-sounds is unaltered.

Dilatation of the Heart.—In acute cardiac dilatation the area of cardiac dullness may be sufficiently great to occupy the greater portion of the anterior and axillary surfaces of the chest, as high as the fourth rib. A circumscribed area of dullness the size of a silver dollar is often found near the angle of the scapula. On deep percussion normal pulmonary resonance is obtained on a level with the base of the pleura and near the spinal column, and relative dullness (over the portion of the dilated heart overlapped by lung) is detected anteriorly and in the axillary region. Marked pulsation of the epigastrium is a prominent sign in acute dilatation, and is but feebly manifest or absent in pleural and in pericardial effusions. The sounds of the heart are weak, rapid, irregular, and lacking in muscular element in cardiac dilatation.

Appendicitis.—In acute pleurisy, and also in pleural effusion the pain is not infrequently reflected to the region of the appendix. In such cases undue movement of the chest and an attempt at deep inspiration may at times intensify appendiceal pain. Should pain be due to pleuritic irritation pressure over the region of the appendix does not materially increase the pain; while in the case of true appendicitis such pressure is always accompanied by exaggeration of the pain.

Subdiaphragmatic Abscess.—Abscess of the diaphragm may in selected cases provide for an accumulation of gas, and pus, between the layers of the diaphragm. This accumulation of fluid and gas not infrequently compresses the lung upward, and gives the physical signs of flatness at the base of the chest; while immediately above such flat area

there is to be found a zone of hyperresonance. This broad hyperresonance zone is absent in pleural effusion. The area of flatness in subdiaphragmatic abscess does not change with the position of the patient.

Clinical Course and Duration.—These are dependent entirely upon the exciting cause. The prognosis, regardless of the causal factors, is guardedly favorable. The course is divided into two stages—the febrile stage, which corresponds to the time when the exudate is accumulating, and the afebrile, which corresponds more or less closely to the stage of resorption. Generally speaking, the febrile period continues for from seven to twenty-one days, whereas the afebrile period varies greatly in duration and is dependent upon the presence or absence of complications. In selected cases the pleural exudate appears to accumulate rapidly, and in these same individuals rapid absorption often takes place. Certain mechanic hindrances may delay absorption of the fluid, in which case the final course of serofibrinous pleurisy becomes subacute.

A fatal termination may result from extreme pressure upon the heart and upon the great vessels.

Complications and Sequelæ.—The prognosis is far less favorable in those cases in which the serous fluid becomes infected with pyogenic organisms (streptococci and staphylococci). Infection with other bacteria—*e. g.*, the typhoid bacillus, the pneumococcus, the colon bacillus, etc.—also tend to make the prognosis more grave, and will be considered at length under Empyema (p. 168). Chronic adhesive pleurisy may follow an attack of the acute serofibrinous variety, and is a complication that results in permanent lessening of the air-space of the lung on the affected side. Empyema and chronic bronchitis may be a sequel of serofibrinous pleurisy. (See p. 154.)

SPECIAL CLINICAL FORMS OF PLEURISY

Carcinomatous Pleurisy.—This clinical form of pleural irritation usually results from direct extension of malignant disease from adjacent structures—*e. g.*, the esophagus and lung.

The symptoms are quite similar to those of acute dry pleurisy, except that they continue for a longer period. A serous or bloody effusion is likely to result where carcinoma involves the pleura.

Hemorrhagic Pleurisy.—Under this heading are included all types of pleurisy in which, in addition to an exudate of serum, blood-corpuscles and hemoglobin are also present in the pleural fluid. The depth of color of a pleural exudate is entirely dependent upon the quantity of blood that has extravasated with the serum.

Etiology.—Among the conditions capable of exciting a hemorrhagic pleural exudate are: traumatism and fracture of the ribs, carcinoma of the pleura, tuberculous pleurisy (either circumscribed or general), superficial pulmonary cavity, chronic interstitial nephritis, secondary infection of the pleura in acute infectious conditions (pneumonia, anthrax), and a right-sided hemorrhagic pleural exudate may follow atrophic hepatic cirrhosis; it is also rarely seen during the course of hepatic hypertrophy. The general arterial sclerosis characteristic of old age and alcoholism is also accepted as a possible cause for the accumulation of bloody fluid in the pleura.

Hemothorax.—This is an accumulation of bloody fluid in the pleura, with or without disease of the pleura itself. The etiologic factors in this condition are practically identical with those described in hemorrhagic pleurisy.

Tuberculous Pleurisy.—Acute serofibrinous pleurisy may be of tuberculous origin, but the majority of such cases doubtless develop during the course of pulmonary tuberculosis, and are the result of direct extension from a superficial pulmonary cavity or consolidation. When tuberculous pleurisy follows tuberculosis of the lung, its development is less acute than is that of acute plastic pleurisy, and there is a tendency toward chronicity. Chronic adhesive pleurisy results in more or less obliteration of the pleural sac by a thickening of the pleura and by adhesive bands.

Owing to adhesions and to consequent retraction of the lung on the affected side, certain physical signs are observed over the affected pleura; these include retraction of the interspaces, limited expansion, abnormal tactile fremitus, and impairment of percussion. The unaffected side of the chest is unusually prominent, and may display compensatory emphysema. It is occasionally found that both sides of the chest have been affected by chronic adhesive pleurisy, in which case there are localized areas of retraction on both sides, whereas other portions of the chest are unduly prominent. Tuberculosis of the pleura, when primary, and, indeed, occasionally when secondary, is followed by tuberculosis of the pericardium. Tuberculous peritonitis is also often found as a complication.

Acute tuberculosis of the pleura is one of the common causes for the accumulation of bloody pleural exudate. (See hemorrhagic Pleurisy, p. 161.) Tuberculosis of the pleura may terminate in recovery, although a large proportion of all cases is followed by the development of pulmonary tuberculosis. If the condition assumes the chronic adhesive form, the patient may live for many years, although he is never restored to perfect health.

Pleural fluid is ordinarily characterized by an increase in the number of lymphocytes. In the very early days of the effusion, neutrophilia may exist. In tuberculosis the endothelial cells may be increased in number. Eosinophile cells are frequently observed, but are not solely characteristic of tuberculous infection. The red blood cells are, as a rule, not abundant.

In tuberculous pleurisy secondary to pulmonary tuberculosis, cells may be few and distorted. Polynuclear cells usually predominate, and these cells are much deformed and display neutrophile granules. Eosinophile cells may range from 10 to 50 per cent. of the total cellular count. In some cases the endothelial cells are numerous, but occur singly.

Malignant pleural exudate, this results from malignancy of the pleura. In our experience at the Philadelphia General Hospital, we have had three cases of sarcoma of the pleura, in all of whom we obtained bloody pleural fluid. There are frequently present many red blood cells and lymphocytes. Certain authors claim to have been able to identify malignant cells in the pleural effusion, through the fact that these cells contain glycogen and are affected by a dilute solution of iodin. Cellular elements found in this type of effusion show evidences of fatty degeneration and numerous vacuoles, which gives certain of the cells a somewhat sponge-like appearance. Some of the cells are extremely large, their nuclei displaying mitotic figures, and vacuoles. In carcinoma of the pleura, hemorrhagic pleural effusion is the rule.

Pleural Fluids.—(*a*) Smears when found to contain a large proportionate number of lymphocytes, with the presence of but few red cells, and rarely polymorphonuclears, may be taken as a strong factor favoring tuberculosis.

(*b*) Whenever pleural fluid is collected after a tuberculosis process has become infected with pyogenic organism, red cells, degenerate lymphocytes, and fragments of nuclei are present.

(*c*) In chronic heart and kidney disease, the characteristic cell present is the endothelial cell, which in morphology resembles a large mononuclear. Plaques of these mononuclear cells are always supportive of this type of effusion.

Encapsulated Pleurisy.—This is a variety of pleurisy in which the pleural exudate is held in one position by firm adhesions (Fig. 54). Anatomically, it is not infrequent to find more than one small sac of fluid that is practically isolated from the general pleural sac. Encapsulated pleural effusion may be found over any portion of the lung, and in this event the

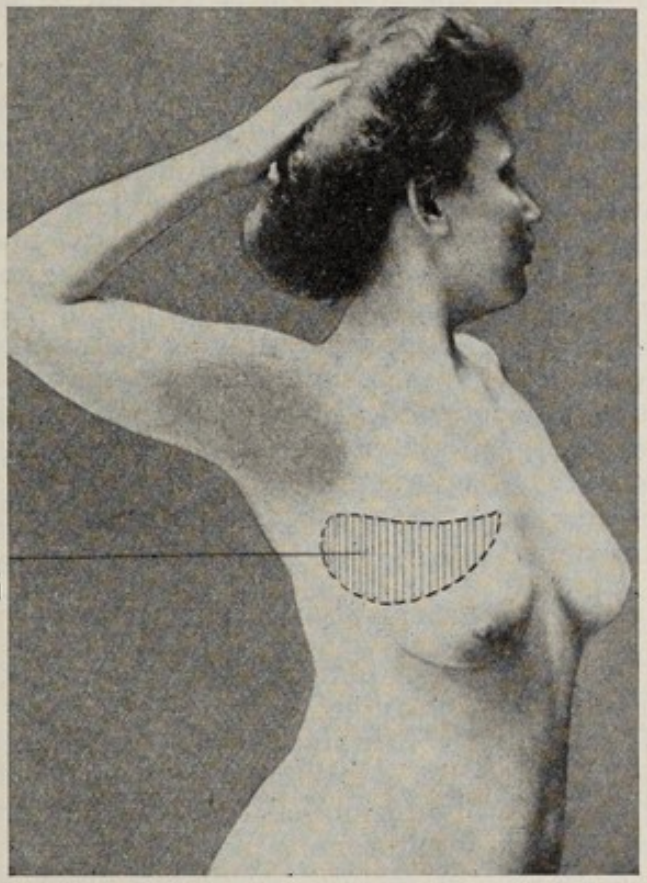


FIG. 54.—ENCAPSULATED PLEURAL EXUDATE.

physical signs are those of consolidation, although these are often so modified that the diagnosis of encysted pleurisy is made only with difficulty.

Interlobar Pleurisy.—This is a special variety of serofibrinous pleurisy in which the exudate is more or less completely encapsulated. It is due to the presence of recent or of old pleural adhesions, the pleural fluid being retained between the pulmonary lobes.

Interlobar pleurisy is more common upon the right than upon the left side, and the encapsulated fluid is oftenest found near the root of the lung, and between the superior and middle lobes. Although it usually follows acute and chronic pleurisy, interlobar pleurisy may also develop as a complication of lobar pneumonia. The encapsulated exudate may rarely become infected with pyogenic organisms, and instances are recorded in which such purulent material has gained access to a bronchus and been

ejected with the sputum. The quantity of fluid in the capsule is usually small—not exceeding a few drams or, at most, a few ounces.

Upon inspection the physical signs common to the presence of a large pleural effusion are lacking, and, on the contrary, the interspaces of the affected side are either normal or deepened, the quantity of fluid being too small to cause bulging.

It is extremely difficult to obtain a sufficiently clear history and to elicit the satisfactory physical signs necessary to make a positive diagnosis of interlobar pleurisy. In patients in whom the chest-wall is thin, a diagnosis is more readily attained.

Diaphragmatic Pleurisy.—When the inflammatory process first attacks that portion of the pleura covering the diaphragm, and if the inflammation is localized, the condition is referred to as diaphragmatic pleurisy.

Pain is a most constant feature, and extends along the tenth rib and across the upper portion of the epigastrium to the articulation of the sternum with the xiphoid cartilage. In severe cases the pain may be reflected slightly over the abdomen. Deep inspiration and movements of the chest and abdomen increase the pain. When an effusion collects at the base of the pleura, the pain diminishes and finally disappears. Nausea, paroxysmal coughing, and vomiting are occasionally seen, and the symptoms of peritonitis may be present.

Fever is always present, and is slightly higher than in the ordinary type of serofibrinous pleurisy. The effusion in diaphragmatic pleurisy is said to be more likely to become infected with pyogenic bacteria than that resulting from other forms of pleural irritation. (See Empyema, p. 166.) The physical signs, with the exception of the friction murmur, which may persist during the initial stage, are negative, unless the accumulation of fluid is large.

Chronic Pleurisy (Adhesive Pleurisy)

Pathologic Definition.—A chronic inflammation of the surface of the pleura, with or without effusion.

Chronic Pleurisy with Effusion.—This commonly follows serofibrinous pleurisy (see p. 151), although it may develop insidiously. After a moderate amount of effusion has collected the physical signs are practically those of acute serofibronous pleurisy (p. 150). This type of pleurisy differs markedly in certain particulars from the acute form, *e. g.*: (*a*) Dyspnea is but slight, owing to the slow accumulation of the fluid in the pleura; (*b*) fever is generally absent, and, indeed, a subnormal temperature is not unusual; (*c*) the accumulated fluid shows little or no tendency to disappear, and may remain for weeks, months, or even years.

Chronic pleurisy with effusion becomes more serious when it is found in those under ten years of age, for there is a special tendency for such exudate to become infected with pyogenic bacteria. (See Empyema, p. 166.)

Dry Chronic (Adhesive) Pleurisy (Thickened Pleura)

Remarks.—Reference has already been made to pleural adhesions above, and the rule is that this type of pleurisy follows the serofibrinous variety of the disease after the exudate has been absorbed. Owing to the slow absorption of the serofibrinous exudate, the fibrinous constituents of the fluid become further organized into layers of connective tissue. Further changes take place, and both the visceral and parietal layers of the

pleura become coated with the fibrinous elements of the exudate, and, probably owing to irritation of the pleura, an actual proliferation of the pleural covering occurs. In all events the pleura becomes markedly thickened. Adhesions and even thickening of the pleura are likely to be most pronounced at the base of the chest, although they may extend over the entire pleura and materially incapacitate the lung. This condition may follow empyema and instances are reported in which the pleural exudate has undergone calcareous degeneration.

Principal Complaint.—A history of one or more attacks of acute pleurisy and of serofibrinous pleurisy is usual, although many cases follow a chronic course from the onset; the latter are nearly always tuberculous in origin. There are vague and sometimes *acute pains* over the affected pleura, the patient becomes *dyspneic* and *exhausted* upon slight exertion, but there are never any definite, rational symptoms that point conclusively to the existence of this form of pleurisy.

Physical Signs.—Inspection.—The patient is usually emaciated, the chest movements are restricted, and depression of the interspaces is common.

Mensuration shows that there is atrophy of the affected side. The apex-beat is often displaced as the result of pleural adhesions, and may even be seen to the right of the median line. When there are many dense adhesions and the pleura has become markedly thickened, certain vasomotor symptoms, due to pressure upon the sympathetic nerves, are observed—*e. g.*, unilateral sweating (usually limited to the head and chest), unilateral flushing of the face, and inequality of the pupils.

Palpation.—Tactile fremitus is, as a rule, markedly decreased over the affected pleura, and most commonly at the base of the chest; but in the event of the presence of dense pleural adhesions extending from the parietal pleura to the lung, localized areas in which the fremitus is increased may be found.

Percussion may be negative, although in those cases in which there is decided thickening of the pleura the percussion resonance is greatly impaired, and a firm stroke is necessary to obtain a note suggestive of underlying lung tissue. The area of cardiac dullness may also be altered. When there are marked thickening of the pleura at its base and many adhesions, it is customary to obtain a hyperresonant note over the apex of the same lung, and if the disease is unilateral, a hyperresonant note is elicited over the unaffected side.

Auscultation.—The breath-sounds are diminished, feeble, and in some instances indistinct. A friction murmur, although not constant, is by no means uncommon; the breath-sounds may be accentuated over the apex of the lung, both as the result of exaggerated breathing and of dense pleural adhesions connecting the parietal with the visceral pleura.

X-ray Diagnosis.—A thickened pleura may be encountered both in this disease and in pulmonary tuberculosis, and is placarded by a uniform shadow of moderate density, which density is controlled entirely by the degree of pleural thickening, and an accurate interpretation of a plate made from a case of thickening of the pleura requires one thoroughly skilled, and, as put by Pfahler, "here experience alone will serve as a guide." Both an anterior and a posterior plate should be made (see *x*-ray diagnosis, p. 76).

Differential Diagnosis.—Chronic adhesive pleurisy with thickening of the pleura may be confused with serofibrinous pleurisy. The following table gives the prominent distinguishing features between the two conditions:

Thickened Pleura with Adhesions	Pleural Effusion
1. History of long standing.	1. Acute, of three to eight weeks' duration.
2. Interspaces depressed.	2. Interspaces bulging.
3. Dullness over base of pleura.	3. Flatness over base, with skodaic resonance immediately above the level of the fluid.
4. Area of dullness unaltered by posture.	4. Area of flat note changed by posture.
5. Measurements of affected side less than those of the opposite half of the chest.	5. Measurements increased on affected side.
6. Breath-sounds diminished over area where a dull note is obtained.	6. Breath-sounds absent over fluid, except when the quantity is large and the lung firmly compressed or when there are pleural adhesions.

Clinical Course and Duration.—The prognosis is favorable as to life, the majority of patients living for years. There is no known method by which the lung may be restored to its normal function.

Sequelæ.—Many of these cases terminate in cirrhosis of the lung and in cardiac disease resulting from increased pulmonary tension.

EMPYEMA (Purulent Pleuritis)

Pathologic Definition.—An acute or subacute purulent inflammation of the pleura. The pleura will be found to contain a variable quantity of purulent or seropurulent liquid. The degree of inflammation of the pleural surface is, as a rule, more extensive and more intense than in serofibrinous pleurisy. The pleura may be greatly thickened and the entire surface distinctly granular, whereas in selected cases the parietal pleura may show perforation. The so-called pleural eosinophilia may follow sepsis, and both acute and chronic infections.

Varieties.—(1) The ordinary type. (2) Traumatic empyema. (3) Empyema necessitatis (that form in which the pus escapes through the chest-wall and forms a tumor at the fifth interspace). (4) Pulsating empyema, characterized by distinct pulsation at the base of the affected side of the chest.

Predisposing and Exciting Factors.—Bacterial Infection.—A number of varieties of bacteria have been recovered from the purulent exudate obtained from the pleura; among these are: the pneumococcus (Micrococcus lanceolatus), Streptococcus pyogenes, Staphylococcus pyogenes albus, Staphylococcus pyogenes aureus, Bacillus coli communis, Bacillus typhosus, Bacillus of Friedländer, Bacillus aërogenes capsulatus, and Streptothrix pulmonalis. Fungi may also be present in the purulent pleural exudate, actinomyces having been found in quite a large number of cases. Lucke and Ray found hemolytic streptocci common in the throat of patients suffering from empyema.

Empyema frequently develops as a sequel of **acute serofibrinous pleurisy,** in which case the pleural fluid has become infected with pyogenic microorganisms.

In children, **pleurisy** is especially likely to terminate in empyema.

A pleural effusion frequently becomes purulent following **acute infectious diseases**—*e. g.*, miliary tuberculosis, pneumonia, typhoid fever, whooping-cough, scarlet fever, dysentery, and pyemia.

Malignant conditions of the lung may form a fistulous communication between a bronchus and the pleura, causing empyema, with or without pneumothorax. The extension of carcinoma from the esophagus, even if the pleura is not perforated, may be the exciting cause of empyema.

Tuberculosis of the spine or of the ribs is an occasional cause. **Traumatism** to the chest with fracture of the ribs is quite a common exciting factor among men. Rarely, empyema follows an **acute purulent endocarditis** and also **tuberculosis of the mediastinal glands.**

Principal Complaint.—As a rule, there is a history of acute pleurisy, followed by serofibrinous exudate, although such history may be obscure. The symptoms vary greatly according to the type of the case. In those cases in which empyema follows acute infections the *onset* may be sudden, beginning with a *chill*, after which the temperature rises abruptly and prostration becomes pronounced. *Pain* is nearly always a prominent symptom, and is aggravated by movements of the chest. In severe cases the typhoid state may be simulated, marked by continued fever, a rapid pulse, coated tongue, and delirium. Gangrenous changes in the pleura may take place, and when they occur, are always followed by the so-called typhoid state.

Chronic empyema is a type of this form of infection in which the symptoms develop insidiously, and the patient, in spite of the fact that he is much reduced in vitality and has a large purulent pleural exudate, still walks about. It is in these chronic cases that the diagnosis becomes especially difficult and aspiration of the pleura may be necessary to establish a diagnosis.

Complaint Referable to the Chest.—The *pain* is seldom severe in character, although more or less constant. The *cough*, which is more or less continuous, aggravates the pain, and is often accompanied by free expectoration, but neither the pain nor the cough is so distressing in empyema as in acute pleurisy. Again, there are certain cases in which both pain and cough are absent. When there is a virulent type of infection, *profuse sweating* is a prominent symptom, and, owing to the pressure of the exudate upon the sympathetics, there may be unilateral sweating.

Thermic Features.—In those cases ushered in by a *rigor* the *fever* rises rapidly to from 102° to 104° F., and may remain high, although an irregular temperature is the rule. In mild cases that have developed insidiously the temperature is irregular and may not exceed 102° F. After chronic pleurisy has existed for some weeks or even months fever may be absent.

Physical Signs.—Empyema displays all the physical signs detailed under Serofibrinous Pleurisy (p. 150), and to these are added certain signs distinctive only of this affection.

Inspection.—In addition to the bulging of the affected side of the chest, there are usually indentations and markings on the skin made by clothing, especially when the patient has been lying upon the affected side. Anemia and emaciation are apparent and palor is extreme.

Palpation.—Upon making firm pressure on the chest overlying a purulent exudate pitting of the skin is common, and especially is this true in children. Long-standing empyema may perforate through the chest-wall, when a fluctuating mass will be displayed. By placing the hand over a large purulent effusion, the chest-wall may be felt to pulsate (pulsating empyema). The causes of this pulsation are doubtful, although the following factors are said to favor its production: (*a*) A copious effusion; (*b*) forcible heart action; (*c*) relaxation of the chest-wall, with possible paresis of the intercostal muscles; and (*d*) possible association of a thoracic aneurism. Pulsating empyema differs in no way from the ordinary type described, except that pulsation is an added sign. Expansion is lessened at the base of the chest on the affected side.

Percussion.—The upper level of the area of flatness changes less readily with the position of the patient than it does in serofibrinous pleurisy (p. 51).

Auscultation.—Spoken-voice sounds are seldom heard over a large purulent exudate, and Baccelli's sign, transmission of the whispered voice sounds, is absent, although where there is a small collection of purulent exudate in the pleura, Baccelli's sign may be audible.

Laboratory Diagnosis.—Microscopically, fluid obtained from the pleura is seen to contain pus, and may show granules of blood-pigment. Stained specimens of this pus contain pyogenic bacteria. Cultures made from the pleural exudate invariably develop colonies of pyogenic organisms, cocci and bacilli. The pleural fluid may display many eosinophilic cells.

Blood.—Leukocytosis of 12,000 to 30,000 per c.mm. is present in all acute cases, but may be absent after the pus has been retained in the pleural sac for a long period and has become surrounded by a dense capsule of fibrous tissue. A differential leukocyte count shows the polymorphonuclear cells to be markedly increased—from 80 to 95 per cent. The number of red cells per c.mm. and the hemoglobin are reduced.

Urine.—The quantity of urine excreted during the twenty-four hours is approximately normal, unless there is an associated septic nephritis or a persistent high temperature, when the quantity will be diminished. The urine displays a high color, a high specific gravity, and is rich in peptone and indican. When nephritis occurs as a complication, a high grade of albuminuria and casts are present.

Summary of Diagnosis.—A history of preëxisting pleurisy or of traumatism to the chest, high irregular fever, marked prostation, palor, emaciation, leukocytosis, and the recovery of pus from the pleural sac constitute the cardinal symptoms of this affection. An *x*-ray study may offer valuable assistance (see p. 76).

Differential Diagnosis.—The only reliable method of distinguishing between a large *pleural effusion* and pus in the pleural cavity is by making an exploratory puncture into the pleura and recovering the fluid. This is best accomplished by employing a needle of unusually large caliber, which may be attached to an ordinary hypodermic syringe.

Aneurism.—Pulsating empyema may simulate thoracic aneurism, but a distinction is usually made from the fact that in aneurism pathologic changes (hardening) are present in the radials and other arteries. The radial pulses may be unequal, and the presence of bruit and thrill is characteristic of aneurism.

Clinical Course and Duration.—Empyema should be regarded as a serious disease, although the special etiologic factors present materially modify its clinical course. Rarely, spontaneous absorption of the pus takes place, but even in this event convalescence is protracted and the patient may never return to perfect health. Rupture into the bronchus, one of nature's methods of sending relief, may be followed by recovery, as may also those cases in which pus escapes through the chest-wall or burrows along the retroperitoneal tissue. In certain cases recovery follows aspiration and removal of the greater portion of the purulent material, whereas in others a purulent discharge continues for months or even years. Surgical intervention becomes necessary in quite a large percentage of all cases, and more recoveries would doubtless follow if this condition were regarded as a surgical one, whenever the diagnosis is attained. Bilateral empyema has been reported, and is an extremely grave condition. In children the outlook is more favorable than in adults, though even here recovery is followed by, at least, partial obliteration of the pleural

sac, with appreciable retraction of the thorax. The variety due to the pneumococcus often pursues a favorable course.

Complications.—Pneumothorax may result from perforation of the lung tissue, and perforation of the pericardium has been recorded. Pneumothorax may also follow infection of pus by gas-producing bacteria (colon bacillus, bacillus aërogenes capsulatus).

PNEUMOTHORAX (SEROPNEUMOTHORAX; PYOPNEUMOTHORAX)

Pathologic Definition.—A secondary condition in which air escapes into one pleural cavity. Rarely, pneumothorax may follow infection of a pleural exudate with gas-producing bacteria. (See Special Varieties, below.)

Varieties.—(1) **Seropneumothorax,** a condition in which serum and air fill the pleura. (2) **Pyopneumothorax,** a variety in which the serous exudate has become infected with pyogenic bacteria. (3) **Traumatic pneumothorax,** a form resulting from stab wounds and fracture of the ribs, with rupture of the lung. (4) An additional variety is made up of those cases in which pulmonary cavity, pulmonary abscess, pulmonary gangrene, and pulmonary carcinoma have formed a fistulous communication between the lung and the pleura. (5) Carcinoma or abscess of the esophagus may extend to and perforate the pleura, allowing air to enter. (6) **Subdiaphragmatic pneumothorax** is a variety resulting from perforation of the diaphragm and pleura by gastric or duodenal ulcer, or from a subphrenic abscess rupturing into the pleura. (7) Pneumothorax may follow infection of a serous pleural exudate by gas-producing bacteria—*e. g.*, bacillus aërogenes capsulatus and bacillus coli communis. (8) Abscess of the liver that has ruptured into the pleura may give rise to pneumothorax. (9) Rarely we encounter cases where the pleura is distended by both air and blood. Spontaneous pneumothorax and the pneumothorax of children deserve mere mention.

Predisposing and Exciting Factors.—(1) **Age.**—Pneumothorax is extremely uncommon before the tenth year, and is most frequently seen during early adult and middle life. Cummer has observed cases of recurrent pneumothorax.

(2) **Sex.**—The condition develops among males more often than among females, and is probably influenced by strenuous exercise.

(3) The commonest exciting cause (70 per cent. of all cases) appears to be pulmonary tuberculosis with cavity-formation, such cavity rupturing into the pleura. The left pleura seems to be affected in about 66⅔ per cent. of all cases. A cavity that has become partially encapsulated and undergone caseous change is also likely to rupture into the pleura. Among the other diseases of the lung that are to be considered in the etiology of pneumothorax are bronchopneumonia, pulmonary gangrene, pulmonary abscess, a suppurating echinococcus cyst, and abscess of a bronchial gland. Heavy lifting, and the like, has been known to result in rupture of the air-cells, with the production of pneumothorax; paroxysmal coughing, as in whooping-cough, and a bronchiectatic cavity, when situated near the periphery of the lung, may rupture into the pleural space and cause pneumothorax.

Thoracic aneurism, by pressure upon the root of the lung and upon the esophagus, may produce ulceration of the latter, which may communicate with the pleura. Esophageal carcinoma and esophageal abscess are also uncommon causes. Empyema of long standing may produce an erosion, with subsequent perforation of the visceral pleura. (See Empyema, p.

166.) Stab wounds of the chest, gunshot wounds, and fracture of the ribs, whenever these penetrate the pleural space from without, give rise to external pneumothorax; if the lung itself is ruptured sufficiently to communicate with the pleural space, the condition is known as internal pneumothorax.

The physical signs of pneumothorax may be *prominent* even when the pleura does not communicate either with the lung or with the external surface of the body; this is the result of infection of the pleural effusion with gas-producing bacteria. The gas recovered from such pleural sacs will be found to contain elements not present in the air—*e. g.*, hydrogen, hydrogen disulphid, or marsh-gas.

Subdiaphragmatic pneumothorax may follow a number of pathologic conditions, among which are hepatic abscess, infected echinococcus cyst of the liver, abscess between the layers of the diaphragm, ulcer or carcinoma of the stomach, ulcer or carcinoma of the duodenum, carcinoma of the pancreas, carcinoma of the liver, and, rarely, carcinoma of the colon, all of which may perforate the diaphragm.

Principal Complaint.—This will be found to vary greatly according to the exciting cause in the individual case. In those cases in which perforation of the pleura from the lung is the result of pulmonary disease or is due to traumatism from without, stab wounds, etc., the onset is sudden and *extreme pain* is one of the prominent symptoms. There is also a history of pronounced *dyspnea*, *weakness*, *nausea*, and a tendency to faint within the first few hours after air enters the pleura. The severity of these initial symptoms is in direct proportion to the volume of air that gains entrance to the pleura—the greater the volume, the more intense are the symptoms, and the more likely is collapse to ensue. The patient complains of weakness, is unable to move about the room, and has no desire for food. Within a few days symptoms referable to general sepsis arise—*e. g.*, intense heat during the afternoon hours, profuse sweating, headache, and other nervous manifestations. Constipation is likely to occur except in those cases in which some form of enteritis existed prior to the onset of pneumothorax.

Thermic Features.—Immediately following rupture of the pleura the temperature is found at normal, or even subnormal—97° or 96° F.; it is likely to remain below the normal for a period of from one-half to two hours. As a rule, within the course of from forty-eight to seventy-two hours the pleural fluid becomes infected, and the temperature rises to 100° to 101° F. As the condition progresses the fever becomes hectic in type, and an evening temperature of 103° or 104° F., with a morning decline to near the normal, is observed. The more profound the septic condition, the more continuous is the type of fever, and the patient may present the typhoid state. In that small proportion of cases in which recovery takes place the fever begins to decline in from the third to the sixth week, although convalescence is usually protracted.

Physical Signs.—Inspection.—When seen early, the face is dusky, the lips and extremities are cyanosed, the skin is covered with beads of perspiration, and the apex pulsation may be diffuse, displaced, and often absent. The neck appears to be unusually short and thick, and there is throbbing of the vessels. The patient inclines slightly toward the affected side, and the clavicle of this side is elevated; the respirations are rapid and shallow, and one side of the chest does not expand. The upper quadrant of the abdomen (Fig. 175 on p. 472), joining the affected pleura, is usually prominent. Inequality of the pupils, the result of undue pressure upon the spinal sympathetics, is quite common.

Palpation.—The skin at first is cold and clammy, but later it may be hot and at times dry; after sleep, however, as a rule, it is bathed in perspiration. Palpation further confirms inspection with reference to the movements of the two sides of the chest and displacement of cardiac pulsation. In right-sided pneumothorax the liver is readily felt below the costal margin, whereas when the left side is affected, the spleen is likewise pushed below the margin of the ribs (Fig. 55). Firm pressure over the affected side may elicit pain, although this is by no means constant.

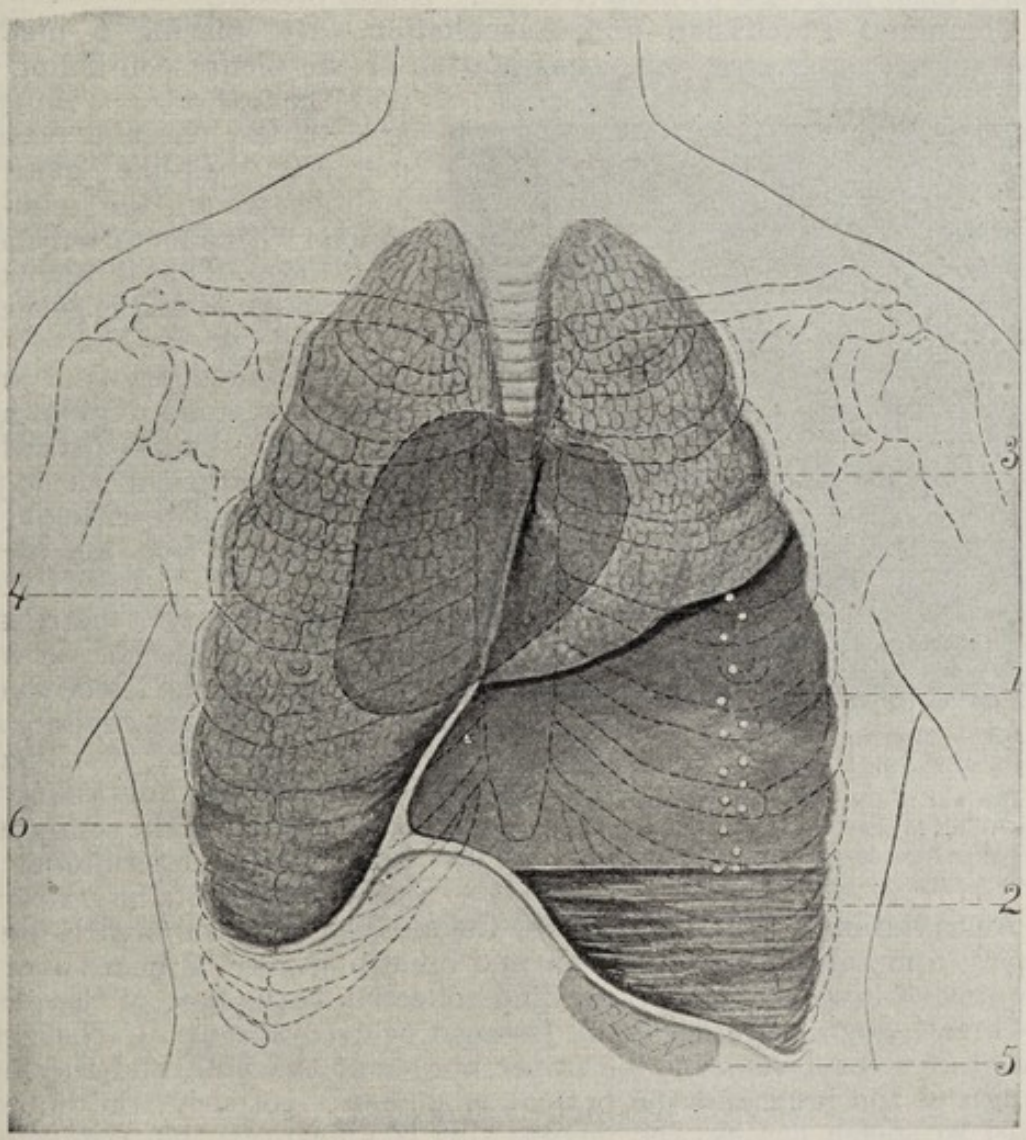


FIG. 55.—1, Air in the pleural sac; 2, fluid exudate at base of pleural sac; 3, compressed portion of lung; 4, displaced heart; 5, depressed spleen; 6, mediastinum pushed toward the right (Anders' Practice).

Percussion.—Tympany is obtained over the affected side, except at the base of the chest, where, owing to the collection of fluid (pus) (Fig. 55), a flat note is elicited. At the apex of the lung skodaic resonance is elicited. As a result of the high tension under which air is held in the pleura a wooden or almost flat note is occasionally obtained between the lower border of the lung and the upper margin of the fluid. The normal area of cardiac dullness is displaced regardless of which pleura is involved. Both hepatic and splenic dullness extend to a lower level when the pleura of their respective side of the body is involved (Fig. 55).

Owing to the fact that one lung is almost completely incapacitated, the opposite lung becomes hyperresonant. Occasionally a small area of cardiac dullness may be outlined, but it is commonly absent.

A point of much clinical importance is that the adjacent viscera are displaced to a greater degree by pneumothorax than by a large pleural effusion.

Wintrich's Change of Note.—If the air in the pleura communicates directly with a bronchus, the "cracked-pot" sound is elicited by firm percussion over the affected side of the chest, and Wintrich's sign—change of pitch in the percussion-note when the patient is directed to hold the mouth open and then to keep it closed—is also present.

Combined Percussion and Auscultation.—By placing a metallic substance, *e. g.*, a coin, over that portion of the pleura containing air, and the ear over a different area of the chest, a peculiar metallic, bell-like note is audible when the coin is tapped with a metal substance (Fig. 56). This is known as bell tympany, and is generally conceded to be one of the pathognomonic signs of pneumothorax; some writers, however, claim that it exists where there is a large superficial pulmonary cavity without the presence of free air in the pleura.

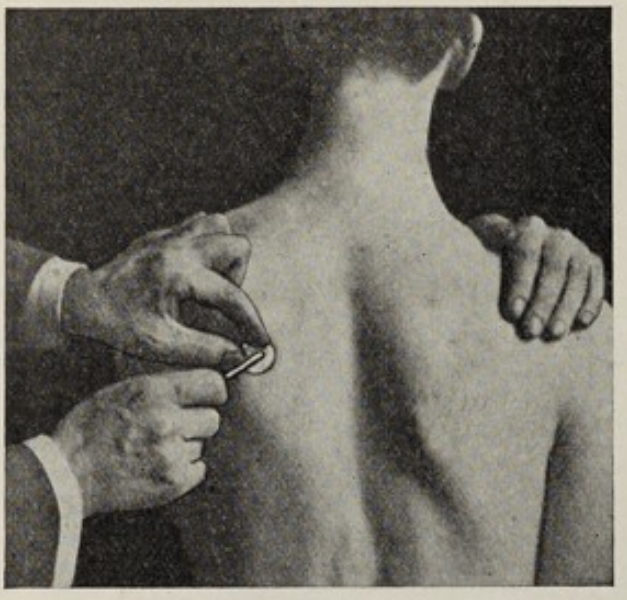


FIG. 56.—METHOD OF TAPPING TO ELICIT COIN-TEST IN CASE OF PNEUMOTHORAX.

The ear of the clinician is placed at a level corresponding to that of the coins, and on the anterior surface of the chest, while the assistant taps the coin.

Auscultatory percussion (p. 61) is a method of value in separating the lower level of the fluid from the superior surface of the liver. It is likewise serviceable in outlining the lower margin of the compressed lung, and in determining the exact outline of the heart.

Auscultation.—When heard over the affected side, the breath-sounds display a metallic quality. Bronchial breathing may be heard over the compressed lung, while over the fluid collected at the base of the pleura the breath-sounds are decidedly lessened or even absent If the ear is placed at a level between the upper border of the fluid and the lower margin of the lung and the patient is shaken vigorously, the liquid is heard to splash against the pleura; this is known as the Hippocratic succussion splash (Fig. 57; also p. 174, Causes of Thoracic Splashing Sounds). If, immediately after obtaining the succussion splash, the ear is held against the chest-wall, a peculiar dropping sound (metallic tinkle) will be heard; this was formerly believed to be produced by the dropping of the liquid from the surface of the lung into the fluid below; a later theory, however, maintains that small bubbles are produced upon the surface of the fluid, and that the metallic tinkle is the sound generated by the bursting of each bubble. Another theory is that this sound may be the reëchoing of vibrations of moist bronchial râles that are communicated to the free air in the pleura. If pleural exudate is placed in a bottle that is not tightly corked, it is possible to produce the metallic tinkle artificially.

The breath-sounds are exaggerated over the unaffected side, but may become weak, owing to extreme compensatory emphysema. The heart-sounds are rapid, and late in the disease they become weakened and irregular. Accentuation of the second pulmonic sound is present throughout the course of this disease.

X-ray Diagnosis.—See *X*-ray Diagnosis (p. 76).

Laboratory Diagnosis.—Except in those cases in which pneumothorax develops during the course of pulmonary tuberculosis, the laboratory findings are practically identical with those given under Empyema (p. 166). (See also the Laboratory Diagnosis of Pulmonary Tuberculosis, p. 863.) Fluid recovered from the pleura by aspiration is usually found to contain pus producing organisms. In selected cases the bacillus aërogenes capsulatus has been reported. In a case studied by one of us (Boston) at the Philadelphia General Hospital the actinomyces was present.

Chemically the aspirated fluid is always rich in albumen, and at times it contains the elements of the blood.



FIG. 57.—METHOD OF AUSCULTATING WHILE SHAKING PATIENT TO OBTAIN THE SUCCUSSION SPLASH.

Summary of Diagnosis.—The history of an acute onset, with severe pain in the chest, followed by marked prostration and a tendency toward collapse, should, at least, suggest the possible existence of pneumothorax. The diagnosis is confirmed by the evidence of certain physical signs—*e. g.*, bell tympany (the coin-test), the metallic tinkle, and the succussion splash.

Differential Diagnosis.—Pneumothorax may rarely be confounded with a large **pulmonary cavity** (Fig. 25). The following table points out the distinguishing features between these two conditions:

PNEUMOTHORAX	LARGE PULMONARY CAVITY
1. Develops with acute pain in the chest.	1. Absent.
2. Absence of movements of chest on the affected side.	2. Restriction of respiratory movements over the apex only.
3. Entire half of chest (affected side) unusually prominent, with bulging of the interspaces.	3. Restriction with depression of the interspaces.
4. Measurements of the affected side unchanged by deep inspiration.	4. Expansion at those portions not overlying the cavity.
5. Tactile fremitus diminished or absent.	5. Increased over cavity.
6. Note flat at base of affected side; deep and full (modified tympany) above the fluid.	6. Note may be dull, or deep percussion may add a tympanitic element, but flatness is never present.
7. Cracked-pot sound unusual.	7. Quite common when the cavity is superficial.
8. Bell tympany (coin-test) an almost constant sign.	8. Rarely seen.
9. Succussion splash an almost constant sign.	9. Absent.
10. Metallic tinkle present.	10. Absent.

Subphrenic Abscess.—This form of abscess may be infected by gas-producing bacteria, and consequently be distended by gas, which may, in extreme cases, force the diaphragm above the level of the nipple, when the signs of pyopneumothorax—*e. g.*, bell tympany, succussion splash, and metallic tinkle—may be elicited. A valuable means of differentiating between pneumothorax and subphrenic abscess is by employing the coin-test, which will not show "bell tympany" above the upper level of the diaphragm in abscess, whereas in pneumothorax it is heard as well at the apex as at the base of the chest. The history of tuberculosis or of the other exciting causes of pneumothorax should be taken into consideration in differentiating the two conditions. A feature that renders the distinction between pneumothorax and subphrenic abscess difficult is that both are likely to follow disease of the stomach and of the liver.

Diaphragmatic Hernia.—This condition may be congenital, and there may be no history of the acute symptoms of pneumothorax. Again, diaphragmatic hernia may follow injury or heavy strain, in which case the history somewhat resembles that of pneumothorax. The existence of pulmonary tuberculosis or of gastric disease strongly favors a diagnosis of pneumothorax. Differentiation is made positive only by the evidence obtained by physical examination—*e. g.*, the tympanitic area is usually limited to the median line, and it seldom, if ever, corresponds to that of an expanded pleura. Bell tympany is not obtained at the apex of the chest, or at most, will not be detected when percussion is made over different portions of the affected side. In hernia a distinct gurgling sound is heard over the tympanitic area, a sign that is unknown to pneumothorax.

Distention of the Stomach.—When the stomach is well distended by gas, the left half of the diaphragm may be elevated well above the nipple. In gastric distention bell tympany and the metallic tinkle are absent over the apex of the left lung. By passing the stomach-tube or by evacuating the bowel the tympanitic area diminishes in size if gastric distention is present. The following table shows the differential points between pyopneumothorax, subphrenic abscess, diaphragmatic hernia, and gastric distention. (See Succussion Splashes, p. 172.)

Pyopneumothorax	Subphrenic Abscess	Diaphragmatic Hernia	Dilated Stomach
1. History of tuberculosis of the lung or of disease of the stomach, *e. g.*, gastric ulcer, duodenal ulcer, etc.	1. History of dysentery, diseases of the stomach or liver, or of traumatism to the abdomen.	1. May be a history of acute epigastric pain following severe exertion and heavy lifting. The condition may be congenital.	1. History of dyspepsia of long standing.
2. Onset sudden, with acute pain in the chest or in the epigastrium, which pain may radiate to one or the other scapula.	2. Onset may be sudden or insidious, but is preceded by soreness and tenderness along the attachment of the diaphragm.	2. The patient may be unaware that there is any abnormality.	2. Negative.
3. Temperature subnormal at onset; later, 102°–104° F.	3. A temperature of 101°–105° F. the rule.	3. Temperature normal.	3. Normal.
4. Immobility of the affected side of the chest.	4. Restriction of movements at the base of the right or left chest.	4. Movements of chest normal.	4. Chest expansion normal.
5. Bulging of the affected side of the chest.	5. Bulging at the base of the affected side.	5. Negative.	5. Bulging at base of left chest and in superior left abdominal quadrant.

Pyopneumothorax	Subphrenic Abscess	Diaphragmatic Hernia	Dilated Stomach
6. Tactile fremitus absent except when pleural adhesions are present and at the apex of the affected side, when the fremitus may be normal or increased.	6. Fremitus is absent, and there is decided tenderness over the base of the chest on the affected side.	6. Fremitus absent over area of tympany.	6. Fremitus absent over area of tympany. May detect movements of the stomach in epigastric region.
7. Percussion elicits a tympanitic note over the upper portion of the affected side of the chest, while at the base there is a variable area of movable flatness, due to the presence of pleural fluid.	7. Tympany over the base of the affected side, which blends with stomach tympany. Seldom is there a variable area of dulness, which is below the normal location of the diaphragm.	7. Tympanitic note at base of chest in the median line, extending to one or the other side. Flatness absent.	7. Note of stomach tympany may rise to nearly a level with the nipple and extend well toward the scapula, or into the upper portion of the abdomen. Flatness absent.
8. Auscultation elicits bell tympany (coin-test), metallic tinkle, and succussion splash. Voice and breath-sounds are more or less constant and have a metalic element. Voice-sounds absent over the pleural fluid.	8. If the abscess wall is distended with gas, bell tympany and succussion splash are audible. Above the upper area of tympany normal breath-sounds are heard.	8. Normal breath-sounds around the area of tympany. Bell tympany imperfect where the hernia permits the stomach to rise into the thorax.	8. Absence of breath-sounds over tympanitic area. Normal breath-sounds immediately above this area. Succussion splash and imperfect bell tympany are present over stomach. Gurgling is common.
9. Aspiration over area of flatness recovers purulent fluid.	9. May detect pus by aspiration. The area of tympany diminished after aspiration.	9. Negative.	9. Negative usually.
10. Sputum usually profuse, and may contain tubercle bacilli. Leukocytosis—12,000 to 25,000 per c.mm.	10. Tubercle bacilli absent. Leukocytosis the rule.	10. Sputum and blood normal.	10. Negative.
11. Gastric contents contain normal amount of free hydrochloric acid.	11. When due to perforating gastric ulcer, free hydrochloric acid is in excess.	11. Normal.	11. Lactic and butyric acids present in large amounts. Vomiting of food eaten hours or days before.
12. X-Ray studies reveal unmistakable evidences in these conditions.			

Clinical Course and Duration.—Pneumothorax should be regarded as a serious condition, although those cases due to traumatism may terminate favorably. If pneumothorax complicates bronchopneumonia, pulmonary gangrene, or pulmonary abscess, or if it develops late during the course of pulmonary tuberculosis, the outlook is unfavorable, and, at best, the course is protracted. Those cases developing from pulmonary tuberculosis may in rare instances go on to recovery; two such cases have recently come under the care of one of us at the Philadelphia General Hospital. At times the pulmonary condition is favorably influenced by the pneumothorax. When gastric or duodenal ulcer forms a fistulous communication with the pleura, surgical intervention is demanded.

DISEASES OF THE CIRCULATORY SYSTEM

DISEASES OF THE PERICARDIUM, HEART, AND BLOOD-VESSELS

METHODS OF EXAMINATION

DATA TO BE OBTAINED BY QUESTIONING THE PATIENT

General History.—Inquiry should be made into the previous existence of any conditions that influence cardiovascular activity and tension, and that influence the workings of the cardiovascular mechanism.

(*a*) **Conditions that alternately increase and diminish the heart's action,** and, at the same time, cause the peripheral vessels to dilate and contract and thereby induce increased wear. In this connection it becomes necessary to inquire into the use of such stimulants as tobacco, coffee, tea, alcohol, narcotics, and poisons; this same effect upon the circulatory system, although brought about in a somewhat different manner, is induced by extreme physical strain (athletics) and by mental anxiety.

(*b*) **Habit** materially controls the cardiovascular wear and tear, and, indeed, dissipation acts upon the circulatory system in a manner quite similar to that of narcotics and stimulants—*e. g.*, those who at any time of life worship excessively at the shrine of either Venus or Bacchus, or of both, are especially prone to acquire cardiovascular disease, and the circulatory system of sexual perverts is similarly affected.

(*c*) **Occupations** that necessitate sudden change from a cold to a warm room at a time when the skin is already bathed in perspiration encourage cardiac disease by the sudden and extreme change effected in the tension of the peripheral vessels. Alteration in the blood tension in the *liver* and in the *kidneys* likewise results in increasing the heart's work, therefore inquiry into these matters becomes of special importance.

Continued exposure to toxic substances, as lead, arsenic, mercury, and phosphorus, not only favors, but is likely to be the exciting cause of chronic degenerative changes of both the endocardium and the arteries.

(*d*) **Age.**—The time of life at which cardiovascular disease is most likely to occur is dependent somewhat upon the type and character of the lesion or lesions present. Special mention, at least, must be made of congenital affections, but aside from these the acute inflammations are more frequently encountered during that period of life when acute infections are most common—*i. e.*, youth and early adult life. Degenerative lesions of both the heart and the blood-vessels are unusual before middle life, but exceptions to this rule may be seen in those who have suffered from repeated attacks of those acute infections known to favor the

development of vascular degeneration. It is possible, therefore, to find a man of twenty-five whose circulatory system is sufficiently degenerated to simulate that of a man of sixty or even eighty years, a condition that has given rise to the aphorism that "a man is no older than his arteries."

(*e*) **Sex** appears to exercise a decided influence on cardiovascular disease, but the fact that males are exposed more to the conditions that predispose to cardiac lesions than are females probably explains the great preponderance of cardiac maladies in the male sex. Females appear to be attacked more often by the so-called functional cardiac conditions, and those resulting from acute infections, than they are by those types of cardiac disease resulting from overstimulation of whatever nature.

Family History.—Information as to the general health and age and cause of death of the ancestors of the patient, at least, of parents and grandparents, should be obtained whenever possible, since cardiovascular disease not infrequently manifests itself in a second generation and in those whose father and mother may have been free from cardiovascular disease. Data regarding the number of brothers and sisters and the health of each not infrequently prove of value in formulating a diagnosis. A family tendency toward the so-called gouty and rheumatic diatheses is common in those suffering from cardiovascular maladies. Again, it may be found that certain members of a family have suffered from renal disease, whereas in other members of the same family the cardiovascular symptoms may have been more prominent, yet the intimate pathologic relation existing between these two conditions must not be overlooked.

Luetic infection of one or other parent or grandparent, although it may not actually influence the case under observation, should always be considered.

Clinical History.—Cardiovascular disease not infrequently develops as a complication or a sequel of certain of the acute infections,—*e. g.*, acute articular rheumatism, chorea, gonorrhea, scarlet fever, acute nephritis, pneumonia, typhoid fever, tonsillitis, epidemic meningitis,—and in such cutaneous conditions as erythema, eczema, and dermatitis.

Inquiry with Reference to Present Conditions

Precordial Pain Not Due to Heart Disease.—Pain, more or less definitely localized to the precordia, may be present. Acute pain at the fifth and sixth interspaces may result from—(*a*) neuralgia; (*b*) myalgia; (*c*) circumscribed pleurisy; (*d*) pleurodynia; (*e*) diaphragmatic peritonitis; (*f*) periostitis; (*g*) localized abscess; and (*h*) gastric disturbances.

(*a*) **Pain that is neuralgic in character** is readily differentiated from other types of thoracic pain by the fact that there are localized areas of tenderness, and that such hypersensitive points correspond anatomically to the positions at which the nerve involved penetrates the fascia. It is possible, in this type of thoracic pain to find areas of tenderness in the axilla, over the sternum, and even along the vertebral column.

Paroxysmal precordial pain is, at times, a symptom of neurasthenia, and deep-seated thoracic pain, which may radiate from the spine to the region of the heart, occasionally precedes the development of herpes zoster. Precordial pain is frequently a complaint of gouty and rheumatic subjects.

(*b*) **Myalgia.**—In this condition the pain is not distinctly circumscribed, prevents the patient from moving his chest freely, and is likely to be

relieved by uniform pressure. Again, in myalgia of the thorax other regions of the body are likely to be attacked.

(*c*) **Circumscribed Pleurisy.**—The stabbing character of the pain, together with the detection of a friction murmur that is synchronous with respiration, points to this affection (See Acute Pleurisy, p. 145.)

(*d*) **Pleurodynia.**—As in myalgia, the thoracic pain is likely to be somewhat general, and when the tip of the finger is pressed firmly against the chest-wall, the pain is increased.

(*e*) **Diaphragmatic Peritonitis.**—In this condition the pain resembles that of pleurisy in character, is distinctly localized immediately beneath the apex of the heart, and, as a rule, develops in subjects that are suffering from some abdominal malady.

(*f*) **Periostitis.**—In disease of that portion of the ribs overlying the heart precordial pain may be severe, but is distinguished from other types of thoracic pain by the facts that there are, in addition to tenderness, distinct swelling over the affected ribs, and that, by pressure upon the ribs at some distance from the site of the pain, tenderness is elicited.

(*g*) **Localized Abscess.**—Circumscribed abscess, either within the chest-wall or between the layers of the pleura or of the diaphragm, excite precordial pain.

(*h*) **Gastric Disturbances.**—If epigastric pain is severe, it is often quite difficult, at the height of the attack, to determine whether or not such pain is cardiac in origin. It has been stated that pain in the epigastrium may be the result of cardiac disease, but it is highly probable that, as a general rule, such pain follows symptoms referable to disease of the stomach. (See Gastralgia, p. 543.)

Pain Due to Pericardial Disease.—In mild cases of pericarditis mere discomfort or precordial distress may be experienced, but the rule is that during the first stage, or prior to the accumulation of an effusion into the pericardium, pain is severe. The pain of pericarditis may radiate to the left arm, less often to the spine and shoulder, and, indeed, it may radiate to the ensiform cartilage and to the abdomen. The presence of a friction murmur that is synchronous with the heart's action serves to differentiate this from other types of precordial pain.

Pain Due to Aortic Disease.—Cardiac pain may be present in acute inflammation of the aorta, and it is generally most intense along the course of the vessel, underneath the sternum, and at the spine. Both in aged and in gouty subjects this type of pain may be severe, and paroxysmal attacks are occasionally seen. It is quite difficult to designate correctly the etiologic factors in this form of pain, since in disease of the aorta morbid changes around the cardiac orifices, and particularly of the aortic leaflets, are commonly present. Substernal pain, practically indistinguishable from that just described, may be experienced during the course of syphilis, neuralgia, in alcoholics, and in those suffering from general atheroma.

Pain of Aneurism.—In thoracic aneurism pain is, as a rule, due to pressure exerted upon adjacent structures, and precordial pain is quite a common symptom. When the aneurism exerts sufficient pressure upon the bones of the thorax to cause an erosion, the pain is referred to as boring in character, and even before the bones have been seriously damaged, a dull, aching sensation is experienced. The pain of aneurism is usually increased by exercise, and diminishes when the patient is at rest.

Pain Due to Cardiac Disease.—Pericardial pain is dependent, at times, upon—(*a*) Alteration of rhythm; (*b*) paroxysmal attacks of palpita-

tion, etc., although these may exist without producing even precordial discomfort. Pain is more commonly seen in the so-called reflex palpitation, due to diseases situated elsewhere in the body—*e. g.*, anemia, Graves' disease, and the like. Pain accompanied by disturbances of rhythm, due to organic cardiac disease, is excited and intensified by exertion.

Pain occurs in connection with disease of the aortic leaflets, and may be present during endocarditis affecting the mitral valves. (See Endocarditis, p. 280.)

Pain Due to Angina Pectoris.—This pain is excruciating and gripping in character, affecting the entire chest, and results in apparent arrest of the respiratory movements. It frequently radiates to the left, and at times to the right, shoulder, and to the back, neck, and may extend down the arms to the finger-tips.

Pseudo-angina pectoris develops in those who are either anemic or display an hysteric tendency. (See p. 333.)

Palpitation.—Etiology.—This condition may result from organic cardiac disease, but is more frequently due to extracardiac conditions.

(1) Persons displaying an increased excitability of the nervous system in general are likely to develop palpitation. Palpitation is quite common at puberty and at the menopause, and in hysteric and neurasthenic individuals it forms one of the prominent symptoms.

(2) Women are subject to repeated attacks more than are men, and the condition frequently follows emotional disturbances.

(3) The use of stimulants and narcotics, such as alcohol, tobacco, tea, and coffee, may be sufficient to excite an attack.

(4) Overexertion and prolonged muscular strain appear to figure prominently as an exciting cause in young men.

(5) During the course of organic heart disease, and especially after the development of myocardial changes, palpitation is one of the annoying symptoms. (See Myocarditis, p. 324.)

(6) In chlorosis or other of the essential anemias palpitation is induced by slight exertion. In secondary anemia from whatever cause palpitation may be a conspicuous symptom.

Characteristics.—In mild attacks the patient complains of a sense of fluttering or of sinking in the region of the heart, whereas in severe types the heart is felt to be throbbing violently against the chest. On careful inspection, during an attack of palpitation, the arteries will be seen to pulsate, and the area of cardiac impulse is unusually conspicuous. The pulse is markedly increased and may reach 120 to 150 beats a minute. In palpitation occurring in neurasthenic individuals there is flushing of the cheeks, and within the course of a few hours following the attack a large quantity of urine, usually pale and of low specific gravity, is voided. The latter form of palpitation is at times relieved by moderate exercise, a point that serves to distinguish it from palpitation resulting from cardiovascular disease.

In palpitation that is not the result of cardiovascular disease a physical examination of the heart shows the sounds are normal, although the second sound is decidedly accentuated during the attack. Again, in those suffering from anemia, the presence of hemic murmurs will be detected. (See Hemic Murmurs, p. 256.) When there is evidence of organic disease of either the heart or the aorta, the clinician must determine carefully whether or not he is dealing with palpitation the result of an associated neurasthenic condition, since palpitation of cardiac disease is of serious prognostic import. The attacks vary in duration from a few minutes to several hours.

Irregularity and **intermittency** of the heart's action may occur in persons who are otherwise in perfect health, and, indeed, this condition may continue for an indefinite period without evincing any other manifestations of cardiovascular disease. (See Pulse, p. 195.) The patient not infrequently is conscious of alterations in rhythm, and such patients are usually neurasthenic; in organic heart disease, on the other hand, the irregularity is less likely to be appreciated by the patient.

In a general way the term arrhythmia implies an intermittent pulse in which one or two beats are dropped at intervals of from one-half to one and one-half minutes or even longer, the beats being, however, equal in force and in volume. Among the causes of arrhythmia are:

(*a*) A cerebral lesion situated in the medulla—*e. g.*, hemorrhage or even concussion—may cause alteration in the regularity of the pulse.

(*b*) Toxic influences, as overstimulation by tobacco, coffee, alcohol, and tea, and such drugs as digitalis, aconite, and belladonna may produce the same effect.

(*c*) Degenerative changes of the heart, with or without cardiac dilatation; atheroma of the coronary arteries, and pathologic changes in the cardiac ganglia are among other recognized causes of arrhythmia.

(*d*) Lastly, reflex influences are recognized—*e. g.*, gastric dyspepsia and pulmonary, kidney, and hepatic disease. Hyperthyroidism, exophthalmic goiter, and accompanying such somatic lesions as pulmonary tuberculosis, Hodgkin's disease, hookworm disease, chronic asthma, and chronic focal infection, are also contributing factors.

Pulsation of the Vessels.—Abnormal arterial pulsation may be detected in the region of the carotids, brachials, femorals, and abdominal aorta during the course of either primary or secondary anemia, and it is also a feature of emotional disturbances. Pulsation in the right supraclavicular region may result from tricuspid regurgitation and from aneurism. Aneurism of the arch of the aorta or of its branches, when sufficiently developed, causes pulsation of the upper portion of the chest, and may at times be seen posteriorly in the region of the scapula. Pulsation over the abdominal aorta may either be due to dilatation of the aorta or, as is quite common, it may be transmitted by diseased abdominal viscera. Epigastric pulsation is occasionally a symptom of new-growths of the epigastrium, in which case the pulsation is transmitted from the abdominal aorta through the tumor mass.

Undue pulsation in the epigastrium in cardiac disease may depend upon a dilated right heart. In cardiac hypertrophy there may be pulsation over the entire organ, and an abnormal pulsation is the rule in the region of the apex-beat. Indeed, in cardiac disease the greater surface of the area of cardiac dullness may, at times, be seen to pulsate, and this pulsation must be distinguished from that of thoracic aneurism. (See Hypertrophy, p. 320, and Aneurism, pp. 264, 342.) Pulsation over the course of the arteries is a valuable sign in aortic regurgitation (Fig. 124).

Symptoms Suggestive of Cardiac Disease

Thrombosis may develop during the course of heart disease, but is more commonly a condition resulting from disease of the blood-vessels. Cardiac dilatation also acts as a predisposing factor to thrombosis. Thrombosis of the *coronary* arteries resembles angina pectoris in its clinical course, and leads to a fatal termination.

Pulmonary Phenomena Suggestive of Cardiac Disease.—When the circulation through the lung is materially embarrassed (passive congestion), *cough* becomes a symptom. It also occurs in pathologic conditions of the heart in which there may be pressure upon a bronchus or upon the pneumogastric nerve, or in pressure the result of a large pericardial effusion. Hemorrhagic infarct and embolus of the lung (p. 124) occasionally complicate organic heart disease and give rise to cough. Following pulmonary infarction it is possible to have bronchopneumonia, but here again the cough is originally excited by the cardiac disease.

During organic disease of the heart cough may be accompanied by a bloody expectoration, a symptom most common in mitral disease. Pulmonary hemorrhage may, as previously stated, result from venous stasis in the lung, from hemorrhagic infarct, from actual rupture of the pulmonary vessels, or from localized congestion produced by pressure of either an enlarged heart or an aneurism, and in familial epistaxis and hereditary hemorrhagic telangiectasis (Goldstein).

In thoracic aneurism, whenever the recurrent laryngeal nerve is irritated, the cough is metallic (brassy) in character. (See Aneurism, p. 263.) In such cases the voice is commonly altered and the character of the cough paroxysmal.

Cyanosis may be either general or local. In advanced cases of cardiac disease it is customary to find the finger-tips and lips cyanosed, but after advanced myocardial change has taken place, a general lividity of variable degree is present.

Dropsy.—When failure of compensation, myocardial degeneration, and dilatation occur, edema of the extremities, and particularly of the feet, is present. In mitral regurgitation with secondary tricuspid regurgitation edema of the extremities is common, but it occurs less often in mitral obstruction and in disease of the aortic leaflets. Later there may be ascites and effusion into the pleural sacs.

Dyspnea.—Varieties.—(*a*) *Dyspnea Following Exercise.*—This is readily distinguished from other types of difficult breathing by the fact that the attack always follows exertion, although late in advanced cardiac disease but slight exertion is required to precipitate an attack.

(*b*) *Paroxysmal dyspnea* develops without apparent exciting cause, and may attack the patient during sleep, and, indeed, this type of dyspnea resembles somewhat that seen in uremia and in asthma, and is to be distinguished from these only by a careful study of the renal and pulmonary systems, and the exclusion of disease of both the lung and the kidney. In cardiac dyspnea the effort is made both at inspiration and at expiration, a feature that distinguishes it from asthma. Again, the remedies that relieve cardiac dyspnea are of but limited value in those cases in which the lung is diseased. (See Asthma, p. 100.)

(*c*) *Orthopnea* is a form of dyspnea in which, irrespective of the condition or conditions that have induced the symptom, the patient must of necessity remain in the erect posture.

(*d*) *Arrhythmic dyspnea* (*Cheyne-Stokes respiration*) is that form of difficult breathing in which there is a respiratory pause of from one-half to three-quarters of a minute, which alternates with a period of increasing respiratory activity consisting in twenty or more respirations. The force and depth of the respirations also vary. (See Cheyne-Stokes Respiration, p. 52.) During the pause the patient may be unconscious and the pupils contracted, but with the beginning of an increase in the frequency of the respirations the pupils usually dilate.

Vital Capacity of Lungs.—Peabody and Wentworth have established that average normal values for the vital capacity of the lungs when determined according to sex and height are as follows:

Males—height	
159.5 cm. to 173.5 cm.	= 4000 cc.
173.5 cm. to 182.5 cm.	= 4800 cc.
182.5 cm. and above	= 5100 cc.
Females—height	
154.5 cm. to 162 cm.	= 2825 cc.
162 cm. to 167 cm.	= 3050 cc.
167 cm. and above	= 3275 cc.

Vital capacity is measured by means of an ordinary well balanced spirometer of about 8 liter capacity.

To obtain the vital capacity the subject is told to take as deep an inspiration as possible and then to insert the tube of the spirometer into the mouth and give a complete expiration. The volume of the expiration is measured on the spirometer wheel.

Nervous Phenomena.—This class of symptoms is probably the result of altered cerebral circulation—(*a*) because of insufficient blood-supply to the brain; or (*b*) because the blood-supply to the brain is imperfectly oxygenated (passive congestion; cyanosis). In either event it is customary for the patient to complain of repeated attacks of vertigo, languor, and faintness. In those cases in which the cerebral symptoms are but slight, the patient's mind is dull, and he may experience a variable degree of stupor; delirium may occur late during cardiovascular disease.

In cardiac disease it is possible to have true epilepsy or epileptiform seizures, and these are, as a rule, attributable to either embolism or thrombosis. Choreiform movements may be seen, and are possibly dependent upon pathologic conditions similar to those producing epilepsy.

In those patients who exhibit extensive atheroma of the cerebral vessels and hypertrophy of the left heart, hemorrhage into the brain is quite frequent, and is accompanied by paralysis and other somewhat characteristic symptoms. (See Cerebral Hemorrhage, p. 1209.) Cerebral hemorrhage may also occur during the course of valvular disease.

Delirium.—Owing to causes probably similar to those previously outlined in connection with the nervous features of cardiac disease, there may be a more extensive atheroma of the cerebral arteries, in which case mental enfeeblement, loss of memory, and even maniacal delirium (cardiac psychoses) may be seen.

The Stokes-Adams Syndrome.—(See p. 249.)

Renal Symptoms.—Disease of the kidneys is by no means uncommon during the course of organic heart disease, and although the renal system is situated remotely, it must be considered in connection with every case suffering from cardiovascular changes. When compensation is lost, particularly in cases of tricuspid regurgitation, mitral regurgitation, or cardiac dilatation, the quantity of urine excreted is diminished, and the fluid is highly colored, rich in solids (urates), and is likely to contain albumin and casts. If the circulatory disturbance is of long duration, organic disease of the kidney will result. (See Nephritis, p. 718.)

In chronic cardiac disease in which a high grade of atheromatous change takes place in the arteries, together with sclerotic changes in the kidneys, the urine is often increased in quantity, pale in color, of low specific gravity, poor in solids, and will display a trace of albumin and a

few casts. Hematuria results from renal embolism, altogether it may follow an acute exacerbation of chronic interstitial nephritis. Generally speaking, renal disease should be regarded as quite commonly associated with cardiovascular changes, and, indeed, it is at times quite difficult to separate the symptomatology of these two conditions. Renal function tests may be of service. (See Nephritis, p. 718.)

Gastro-intestinal Phenomena.—Repeated attacks of **catarrhal gastritis** and of **enteritis** are commonly encountered, and the patient frequently complains of repeated attacks of indigestion, nausea, and vomiting. Owing to cyanotic congestion, hemorrhage into the stomach and vomiting of blood may take place. (See Hemorrhage from Stomach, pp. 515, 543.)

Flatulency is also attributable to cardiac disease, and when this symptom becomes especially annoying, it may induce palpitation and even cardiac pain. (See Palpitation, p. 195.) If gastro-intestinal symptoms become conspicuous, there is an associated passive congestion of other of the abdominal viscera, in consequence of which enlargement and pathologic changes take place in both the spleen and the liver. (See Cause for Enlargement of the Liver, p. 640.)

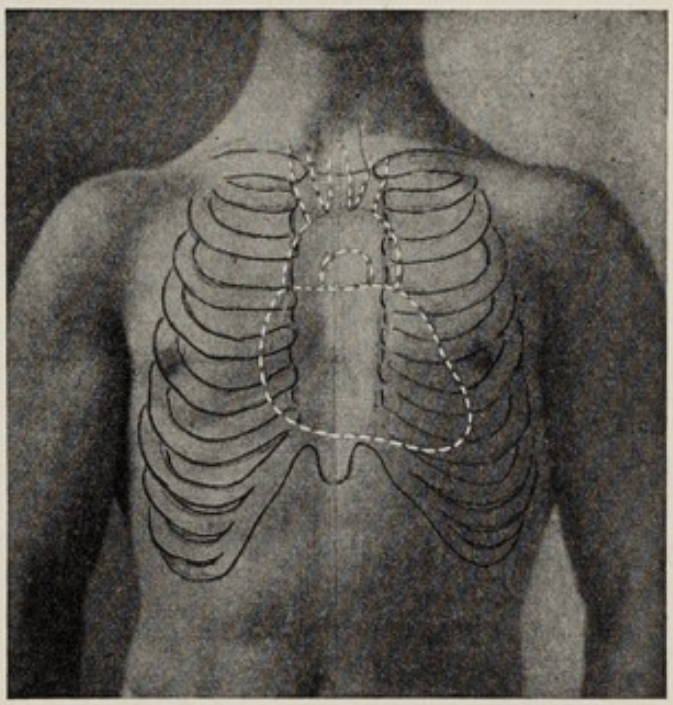


Fig. 58.—Area of Normal Heart, Aorta, and its Larger Branches.

Throat Symptoms.—Pain in the region of the throat is an occasional complaint, and, as a rule, such pain is paroxysmal and is frequently associated with angina pectoris. Thoracic aneurism, by pressure upon certain of the structures at the upper portion of the chest, may give rise to intense pain in the throat, reflected over the region of the clavicles and scapulæ. In neurasthenic individuals distress in the throat frequently accompanies palpitation.

Alterations in the voice are the result of pressure either upon the recurrent laryngeal nerve or other vital structures.

Special Symptoms Referable to Arterial Disease.—It is practically impossible to isolate this group of symptoms from those referable also to disease of the heart, owing to the fact that cardiac and vascular diseases are, as a rule, associated. Nevertheless, a brief description of certain definite symptoms that result directly from degenerative changes of the peripheral vessels may prove useful. Headache, tinnitus aurium, vertigo, photophobia, impairment of vision, and paresthesia may result either from congestion or from anemia of the brain. The latter condition is probably the more common cause, since the degenerative changes present in the peripheral arteries prevent the normal distribution of blood in the extremities, and, as a consequence, we find the hands and feet cold as an expression of disease of the blood-vessels.

Pain is absent, irrespective of the degree of arterial disease present, unless there is an aneurismal expansion of some one of the vessels. The smaller vesels are likely to rupture, causing hemorrhages into various organs—*e. g.*, into the retina. Throbbing of the vessels, as previously mentioned (p. 180), is an almost positive sign of arterial degeneration, although it is encountered rarely in neurasthenics.

The following chart for the collection of datas is recommended by the Philadelphia County Medical Society, in connection with periodic health examinations. The authors emphasize the use of these methods for estimating the diameters of the heart, in connection with the following (see Fig. 61).

SPECIAL HISTORY FORM AND PHYSICAL EXAMINATION RECORD—HEART

Name:

HAVE YOU HAD IN THE PAST, OR ARE YOU NOW, SUBJECT TO:

1. Pain in chest
2. Giddiness
3. Palpitation or "fluttering"
4. Cough
5. Shortness of breath
6. Fainting
7. Headaches — Where
8. Flushing
9. Chills or chilly sensations
10. Attacks of bronchitis
11. "Grippy spells"
12. Swellings — Where
13. "Dropped beats"
14. Are you subject to digestive disturbances
15. Any injuries
16. Any operations
17. Any sore or tender teeth or gums
18. Have you noticed any recent limitations in your ability to exercise? Describe the limitations: are they in walking, stair climbing, stooping, in your work, etc.

EXAMINATION

Pulse { Regular / Irregular — Volume — Tension — Visible Pulsations

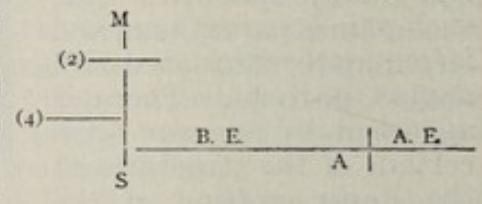
Arteries { Relaxed / Elastic — Infiltrated / Indurated

Precordial Impulse (Tender) { Circumscribed { Normal impact / Thrusting / Faint } Diffuse { Heaving impact / Thrusting / Slapping / Faint }

Thrills { Basal Systolic / Apical Presystolic / Suprasternal Dorsal

Maximum cardiac impulse — interspace — cm. to left of midsternal line

Cardiac Borders



Cardio-hepatic angle

Murmurs { Apical / Basal — { Systolic / Presystolic / Diastolic }

Transmission { Over precordium: to axilla: / To vessels of neck: along heart border:

Accentuations—A T P M

Arrhythmia { None / Disappears on exercise / Increases on exercise / Following return from exercise

Blood pressure { Brachial / Femoral — Systolic / Diastolic / Pulse pressure

Lungs—Shape of Chest — Pleural Fluid — Rales at base — Hemoptysis

Abdomen—Panniculus adiposus — Pendulous — Tension — Ascites — Engorged Veins — Edema { Tibial / Sacral

Abdominal contents

Pulse rates and exercise test:

Rates	Standing	Recumbent	Immediately after Exercise	Dyspnoea	Five Second Return						Two Min. Later (Recumbent)
					10	15	20	25	30	45	
Respiratory				None							
Ventricular				Moderate							
Radial				Marked							
Deficit?				Urgent							

TOPOGRAPHY OF THE HEART

In order to recognize the abnormalities of the heart in disease, a knowledge of its normal outline is necessary. The base of the heart, or that portion giving off the great vessels, corresponds above to a line drawn across the sternum, and continued a half-inch to the right and one inch, or possibly one and one-half inches, to the left of the sternum. (See Fig. 58.)

The base of the heart is represented by a line drawn from the upper border of the third costal cartilage, one-half inch to the right of the sternum, to the lower border of the second costal cartilage, one inch to the left of the sternum. The right border of the heart is represented by a line that starts at the upper border of the third costal cartilage, one-half inch to the right of the sternum, and ends at the apex. At first this line follows the right border of the sternum until it reaches the level of the sixth costal cartilage; then it turns and passes transversely, with its convexity downward, just above the articulation between the second and third pieces of the sternum. The upper portion of this line corresponds to the right border of the right auricle; the lower portion, to the right border of the right ventricle (Fig. 59).

The left border of the heart is represented by a line that runs from the lower border of the second costal cartilage, one inch to the left of the sternum, with a slight curve to the left, to the apex (Figs. 58, 59).

The apex of the heart is situated in the fifth interspace, three inches from the midsternal line.

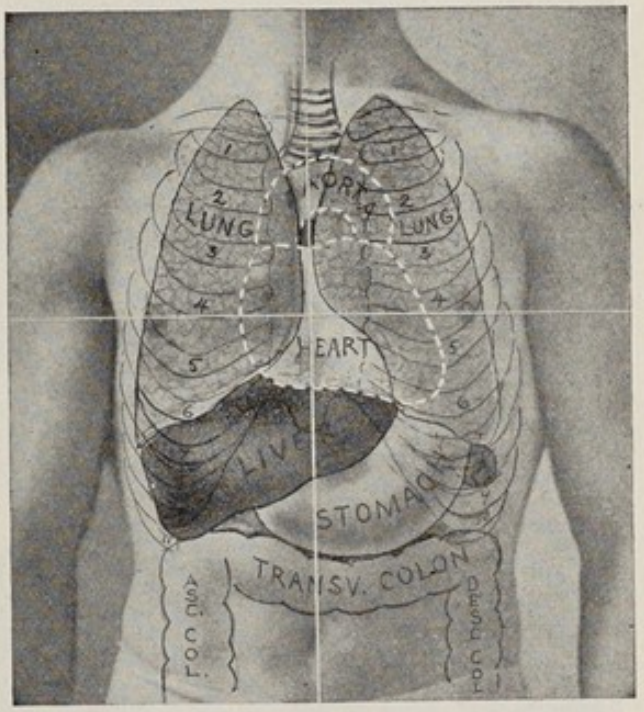


FIG. 59.—WHITE OUTLINE OF NORMAL HEART AND AORTA.

Shows also relation to other thoracic and abdominal viscera. Transverse line at nipples.

VARIATIONS IN HEALTH

In healthy persons the outline of the heart, as determined on the chest, may vary under certain physiologic conditions, *e. g.*: (*a*) As the organ swings from right to left, and from below upward, and from the sternum backward, the boundaries of the heart are temporarily changed, the outline as above (Fig. 59) being applicable when the patient is standing or sitting.

(*b*) The respiratory act, and particularly that of deep inspiration, may materially alter the left boundary of the heart, and may also depress the apex.

(*c*) If the patient lies upon his left side or upon his back, the relation of the heart to the external landmarks is likely to be altered.

(*d*) During respiration the movement of the ribs (upward and downward), as well as the rhythmic contraction of the diaphragm, influences slightly both the upper and lower boundaries of the heart, whereas in forced inspiration and expiration there may be an appreciable change in the position of the organ.

(*e*) Lastly, age is to be considered in connection with the relation of the heart to its external boundaries, and, generally speaking, during childhood the heart is situated approximately one rib higher in the chest than it is in adult life, and in most children the area of absolute dullness is proportionately greater than it is in older subjects (proportionately less of the organ is overlapped by lung). In aged subjects the heart is found at a lower level than it is during early adult and middle life, the apex corresponding to the lower border of the sixth rib, and it may reach the sixth interspace; singularly, in this connection, the portion of the heart that is in direct contact with the chest-wall does not increase in size, and may be somewhat smaller than that found in young adults.

Landmarks

As shown in the accompanying illustrations (Figs. 58, 59, and 60), the apex of the heart points downward and to the left, the base being directed slightly upward and toward the right; it is further seen that the greater portion of the organ rests in the left half of the chest, and that only a portion of the right side of the heart extends beyond the right border of the sternum.

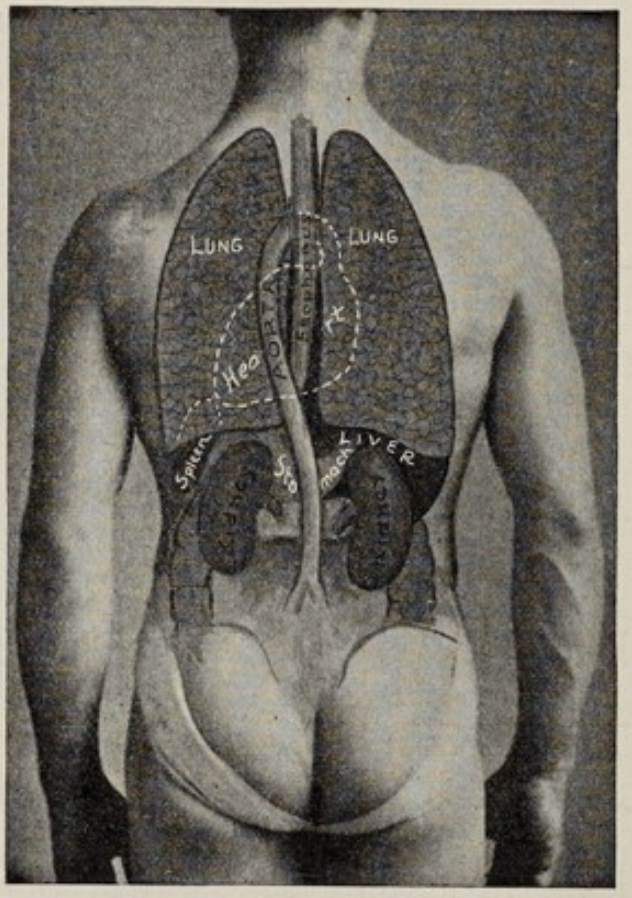


Fig. 60.—Posterior View, Showing Relation of Heart and Aorta to Lungs, Esophagus, and Viscera of Abdomen.

(1) If a needle is introduced directly from before backward and in the middle of the third, fourth, or fifth intercostal space, at a point near the right margin of the sternum, it would pass first through the chest-wall, through the parietal and visceral layers of the pleura, through that portion of the lung overlapping the auricle, and thence directly enter the right auricle (Fig. 61).

(2) A needle passing through the center of the first intercostal space and at the right border of the sternum goes through a portion of lung and then enters the superior vena cava immediately above the pericardium.

Topographic Relation of the Heart to the Lungs

Anteriorly, the entire surface of the heart, except an irregular, imperfectly triangular or quadrilateral space that corresponds to the right ventricle, is overlapped by lung tissue. On account of the indentation at the anterior border of the left lung the quadrilateral area just mentioned is not covered by pulmonary tissue (Fig. 61).

The anterior borders of both lungs descend from the apices and approach each other in the median line, at a level with the second costal cartilage (Fig. 61), and from this point descend in almost direct apposi-

tion one with the other until they reach the fourth costal cartilage (Fig. 61). At this point the anterior borders of the lungs diverge, the right passing downward and outward to the fifth cartilage and the fifth inter-

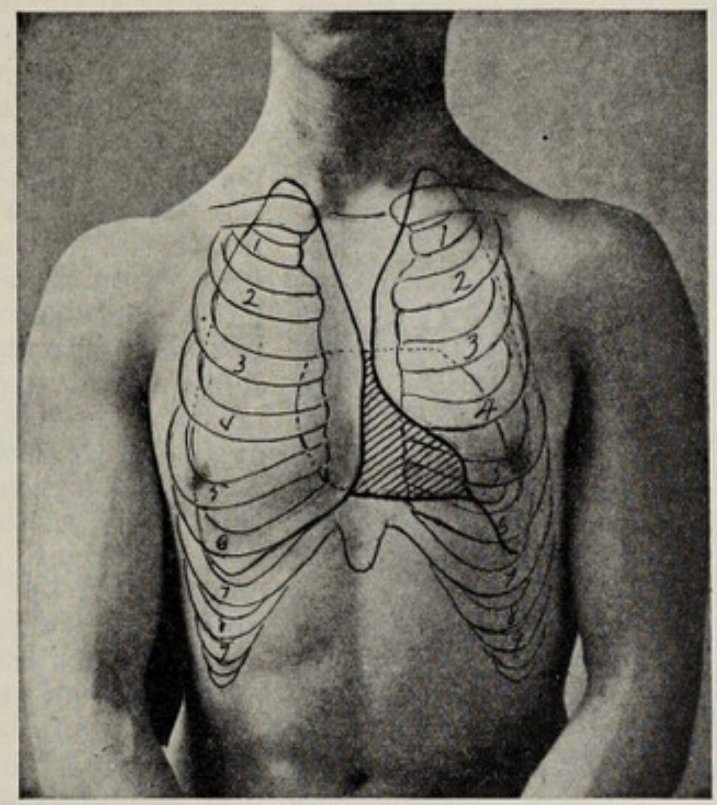


Fig. 61.—Area of Absolute Cardiac Dullness Defined by Border of Lung.

space (Fig. 61), meeting the inferior border at the sixth rib in the mid-clavicular line.

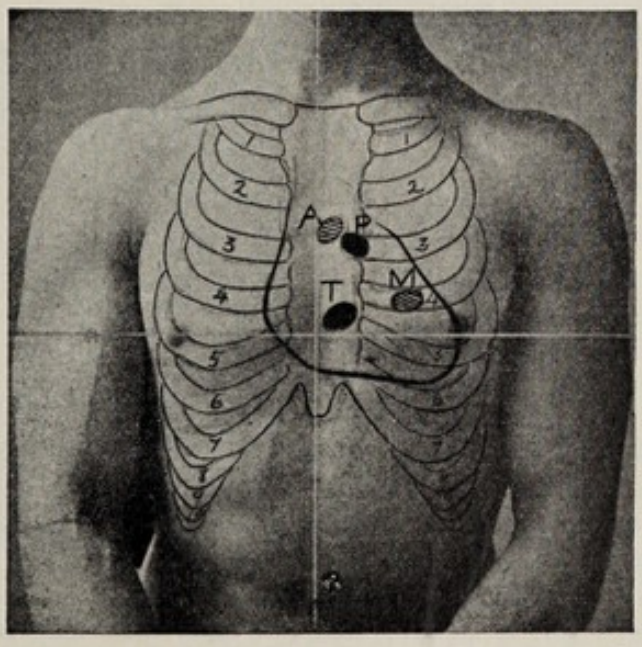


Fig. 62.—Normal Relation of Cardiac Valves to Heart and Surfaces of Chest.

At the fourth costal cartilage the anterior border of the left lung is reflected directly outward to the outer margin of the fourth costal cartilage, when it passes obliquely to the fourth interspace at the parasternal

line; from this point the lung is reflected inward and again downward and outward across the fifth rib to the fifth interspace (a course transcribing imperfectly the letter S), where it unites with the inferior border of the left lung at the sixth rib. (See Figs. 60 and 61.)

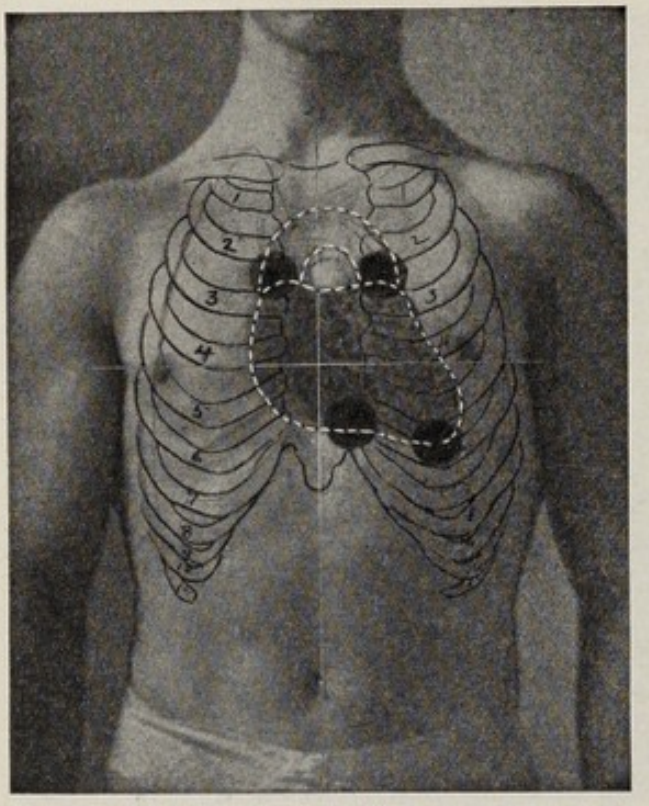


FIG. 63.—● AREAS WHERE DIFFERENT CARDIAC MURMURS ARE MOST CLEARLY AUDIBLE.

The boundaries of absolute cardiac dullness are as follows: The superior border corresponds to a line drawn along the lower edge of the left fourth rib, on the right, a line drawn from this level and the left sternal line, while the left boundary extends slightly outside of the left parasternal line, below the fifth interspace, and at a point where the heart overlaps the left lobe of the liver (Fig. 61). In those suffering from pulmonary disease, *e. g.*, emphysema, the area of absolute cardiac dullness may be gradually reduced, owing to overdistention of the lung tissue; again, in sclerotic changes in the lung there may be retraction, in which case the area of superficial dullness is increased. For practical purposes the area of absolute cardiac dullness is closely outlined in the following manner: (*a*) Draw a line to connect the lower border of the left sternoclavicular articulation with the left nipple, and divide this line into three equal parts. (*b*) Utilize the junction of the middle with the inferior third of the oblique line as the center of a circle that is two inches in diameter.

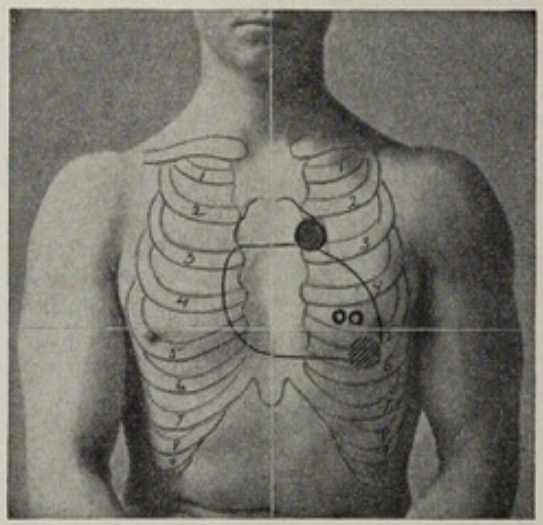


FIG. 64.—● WHERE PULMONIC SECOND ACCENTUATION IS BEST HEARD; ◎ WHERE, SYSTOLIC MITRAL IS BEST HEARD; ○○ AREAS WHERE PRESYSTOLIC MITRAL IS CLEARLY AUDIBLE.

POSITION OF CARDIAC VALVES

The valves of the heart are situated fairly close together, in the neighborhood of the third and fourth chondrosternal joints. The pulmonary valve is the most superficial; the tricuspid is posterior to it, the aortic is next in point of distance from the anterior chest-wall, and the mitral valve is the deepest. The pulmonary valve is situated behind the third chondrosternal joint; the aortic valve is located behind the left edge of the sternum, at the third interspace; the mitral valve lies behind the fourth chondrosternal articulation, and the tricuspid valve is situated in the midsternal line, opposite to the fourth interspace (Fig. 62).

The anatomic location of these valves, however, must not be confused with the points at which the clinician listens to determine the sounds made by them during a cardiac cycle (Fig. 63). These points for auscultation are determined by the nearest superficial point to which the flow of blood will conduct the sound made by the valve in question. The sounds made by the aortic valve are best heard at the second right interspace, because the aorta lies nearest the chest-wall at that point; the sounds made by the pulmonary valves are heard best at the second left interspace (Fig. 63), because the pulmonary artery lies nearest the chest-wall there; the sounds made by the tricuspid valve are heard best at the ensiform cartilage; and those made by the mitral valve are best heard at the apex (Fig. 64).

In children the heart and its valves are situated practically one rib higher, while in old age the entire organ is one rib lower than that herein given as normal.

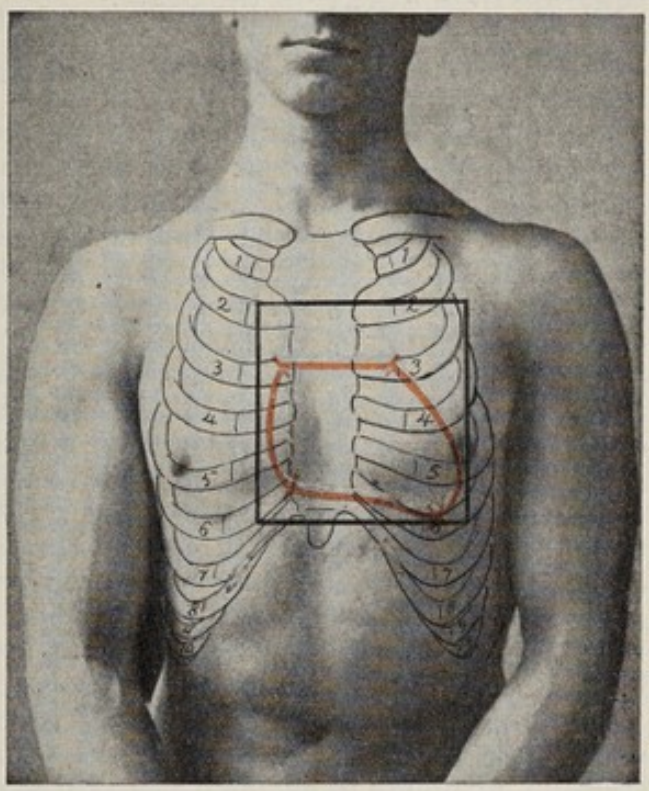


Fig. 65.—The Precordium.
Relation of heart to bony structures forming the anterior chest-wall.

THE PRECORDIUM

From the foregoing remarks with reference to the topography of the heart and the relation of the organ and its valves to definite points upon the chest-wall it becomes immediately apparent that many definite physical signs of cardiac disease are to be found within this area. For practical purposes, the precordial space may be said to form a rectangular area located on the anterior surface of the chest. It is bounded above by a line drawn along the lower borders of the second ribs; below, by a line drawn along the upper borders of the sixth ribs; on the left, by the left midclavicular line; and on the right by the right parasternal line (Fig. 65).

INSPECTION OF THE HEART

Here, as in examining the lungs, the anterior surface of the chest should be bared, and, still more satisfactory is it to remove all garments from the upper half of the body during inspection. The patient should be placed under a somewhat strong direct and oblique light, and the best results are to be obtained by inspection conducted by daylight. The patient does not need to assume any special position during inspiration, but when it is possible to change the position, it is most satisfactory to examine the patient first in a sitting or standing, and then in the recumbent, posture. Change of posture is of definite value not only in inspection, but also in performing palpation and auscultation; the variations resulting from the position of the patient, even though slight, always suggest a clinical factor that may be of importance in formulating a diagnosis. It should be the custom to examine not only the precordium and the surface of the chest in

cardiac diseases, but also to inspect the chest carefully from apex to base, the carotid regions, the temporal regions, and to follow the course of the great vessels—axillary, brachial, etc.

The condition of the fingers—whether clubbed, cyanotic, etc.—is also an important point to ascertain in connection with cardiac disease. The cyanotic complexion, the degree of lividity, the presence or absence of cyanosis of the lips and buccal mucous membrane, and prominence of the eyes (exophthalmos) are important factors. The frequency and character of the respiration and the presence or absence of localized or general edema are points not to be neglected in inspecting those believed to be suffering from disease of the heart.

EXAMINATION OF THE PRECORDIUM (Fig. 65)

In making an examination of this particular area of the chest the following points are noted: (*a*) The degree of prominence; (*b*) the impulse and general character of pulsation present, and whether or not such pulsation is synchronous with that of the cardiac systole; (*c*) the degree of prominence or depression of the interspaces, and whether such alterations are general or local, and any other changes that may be apparent either at the time of systole or of diastole.

Age is a factor that bears upon bulging of the precordium, since this region is unduly prominent in children who may have suffered from only slight cardiac disease; in rachitic subjects, however, the prominence is especially conspicuous, its character varying greatly with the location of the initial bone disease. Both cardiac hypertrophy and dilatation give rise to undue prominence of the precordium, as does also a large pericardial effusion; in the latter condition, however, both the ribs and the interspaces are unusually prominent. Thoracic aneurism may also cause bulging over this area, but whenever it attains considerable size, bulging is likely to extend beyond the precordial region.

Prominence attributable directly to cardiac or pericardial disease is usually localized between the third and seventh ribs, to the left of the sternum, although in extreme cases there may be bulging extending from the right to the left nipple. Cardiac aneurism causes a bulging in the right nipple region, where the apparent apex-beat may be observed. An example of this condition recently came under the care of one of us at the Philadelphia General Hospital, the diagnosis being confirmed at autopsy.

Extracardiac Conditions That Cause Undue Prominence.—Extracardiac conditions that give rise to undue prominence of the precordium are: (1) Localized pleural effusion; (2) a pointing empyema; (3) thoracic aneurism; (4) enlarged bronchial glands; (5) any type of new-growths of the mediastinum or chest wall, *e. g.*, sarcoma of ribs. H. I. Goldstein reported a case of sarcoma of the anterior chest-wall that looked very much like a protruding thoracic aneurism near the region of the heart (New York Medical Journal, Nov. 16, 1921).

Depression of the Precordium.—This may be either uniform or localized, and may result from some one of the following pathologic conditions: (*a*) Rachitic deformity of the thorax; (*b*) chronic pleural adhesions; (*c*) left-sided empyema, which may be followed by partial obliteration of the pleural sac and precordial depression; (*d*) chronic adhesive pericarditis; (*e*) fibroid tuberculosis of the left lung; (*f*) pulmonary tuberculosis with extensive cavity-formation in the left lung; (*g*) it may rarely be seen to follow traumatism of the left side of the thorax.

Pulsation.—Apex-beat.—The impulse normally present in the precordium is that generally referred to as the apex-beat. During health this is felt in the fifth left interspace, just inside the midclavicular line; it is due to the contraction of the left ventricle at a point from three-quarters to one inch above the apex. This normal impulse of the precordium is synchronous with the first sound of the heart, and consequently is systolic; whenever, therefore, any other pulsation in the precordium is visible, it is fair to suspect, at least, that a pathologic condition of the heart, pericardium, great vessels, pleura, or lung is present or has previously existed. After repeated examinations one becomes familiar with the normal appearance of the impulse of the apex-beat, any deviation from this being regarded as abnormal.

The Apex-beat in Disease.—The apex-beat may not be visible when extensive myocardial changes or a thick chest-wall, the result of obesity, are present. In pathologic conditions the apex-beat may be palpated and yet not be visible, and in certain cases the reverse obtains.

Displacement.—Displacement of the apex-beat is an extremely important finding in pathologic conditions, furnishing, as it does, a valuable guide to the location of the heart; when seen, it is of further clinical value, because it accords with the ventricular systole. The apex-beat may be displaced either as the result of actual change in the position of the heart from alterations the result of cardiac hypertrophy or of external pressure. Deformity of the chest is also a prominent factor in causing displacement of the apex-beat.

(1) *Displacement Upward and to the Left.*—This may result from—(*a*) A large pericardial effusion, and it is not uncommon to see a moderate amount of upward displacement in distention of the abdomen due to the presence of ascitic fluid, gas, or abdominal tumor.

(*b*) Fibroid changes of the lung and of the left pleura, such as are occasionally seen in tuberculosis and following interstitial pneumonia, may cause the organ to be displaced and the apex-beat to appear at the third interspace, or even higher upon the chest.

(*c*) If the left pleura is markedly distended by fluid or by fluid and air, the apex-beat is displaced to the right.

(*d*) Mediastinal tumor may give rise to cardiac displacement, and cases of this kind have come under our observation in which the apex-beat has been displaced to the left antero-axillary line.

Caution.—It is to be remembered that during infancy and in children under two years of age the normal position of the apex-beat is in the fourth interspace, and in or just outside the midclavicular line.

(2) *Displacement to the Left.*—Left displacement of the heart in a horizontal line is ocasionally seen in those conditions specified under Displacement Upward and to the Left, but the chief causes of horizontal displacement are: (*a*) Cardiac hypertrophy; (*b*) dilatation of the right ventricle, in which case the impulse of the apex may be seen to the left of the midclavicular line.

(3) *Displacement Downward and to the Left.*—This is a characteristic feature of—(*a*) Hypertrophy of the left ventricle, and (*b*) dilatation of the left ventricle following hypertrophy, in either of which cases it is not unusual to see the apex impulse between the sixth and eighth interspaces and in the anteroaxillary or midaxillary lines.

Downward Displacement Not Dependent upon Cardiac Disease.—(*a*) In well-advanced cases of emphysema the apex-beat may be seen at a low level, first, owing to the fact that the heart is depressed by the overdistended lung; secondly, on account of the inclination of the ribs in this

disease; and lastly, hypertrophy of the right ventricle appears to aid in lowering the apex-beat.

(*b*) Enlargement of the arch of the aorta, or even of the innominate artery, may, by pressure, depress the apex-beat.

(*c*) Mediastinal tumors of whatever nature, if occupying the upper portion of the mediastinum, displace the apex-beat below its normal site.

(*d*) Enlargement of the liver, as in leukemia, and septic conditions, as hypertrophic cirrhosis, may, by making constant traction upon the diaphragm, cause the apex-beat to be drawn downward on account of the pericardial attachment to the diaphragm.

Displacement of the Apex-beat to the Right.—This is a characteristic of —(*a*) Left pleural effusion; (*b*) left pyopneumothorax; (*c*) fibroid changes in the right lung and pleura, with adhesions to the pericardium; (*d*) tumor of the left lung.

Forcible Apex-beat.—The apex-beat may be forcible as the result of cardiac hypertrophy, but it is also a feature of pericarditis, pericardial adhesions, and acute endocarditis (early stage), and is naturally present in diseases that produce increased arterial tension—*e. g.*, chronic nephritis, atrophic cirrhosis, and pulmonary and arterial affections.

Rhythm of the Apex Impulse.—This point may be determined more satisfactorily by palpation than by inspection. Inequality of force, frequency, and intermittency all point somewhat directly toward disease of the heart muscle.

Double Apex Pulsation.—This phenomenon consists in two pulsations occurring at the apex to each pulsation of the carotid artery. One theory advanced for this unusual finding is that the ventricles do not contract synchronously; another, is that alternating weak and strong contractions of the heart occur, certain waves being too feeble to be transmitted as distinct pulse-waves.

Systolic Recession.—This condition is seldom limited to the area of the apex-beat alone, but a rhythmic depression of that portion of the chest overlying the lower portion of the heart is observed, and is a condition usually attributed to pericardial adhesions, to mediastinal tumors, and enlargement of the heart. Systolic recession may accompany *Broadbent's sign*, which consists in a similar rhythmic retraction of the eleventh and twelfth left interspaces posteriorly.

Pulsation at the Base.—There are a number of conditions capable of causing pulsation in the upper portion of the precordium. These, named in the order of their clinical importance, are: Aortic aneurism, enlargement of the heart, cardiac dilatation, pericardial effusion, retraction of the lung due to pulmonary disease, and adhesive pleurisy.

Pulsation seen at the right first or second intercostal space and near the sternal border is suggestive of the presence of aneurism. At the previously mentioned points it is seldom possible to detect true expansile pulsation, consequently other clinical signs must be searched for in order to make a diagnosis of aneurism. Expansion in this region may be due to the forcible beats of the heart, and, indeed, it not infrequently occurs as the result of the heart having been drawn out of place by pleural adhesions. These adhesions and pulmonary diseases that cause retraction of the right lung may also be the cause of precordial pulsation at the right second, third, or fourth interspaces, since in this region the right lung covers the right auricle, and whenever this portion of the heart is exposed, the pulsation becomes presystolic. Pulsation in the right third, fourth, and fifth interspaces, when it extends to the right parasternal line, is, as a rule, the result of displacement of the heart. The conditions that are capable

of causing pulsation in this area are: (1) Left pleural effusion; (2) left pyopneumothorax; (3) left subdiaphragmatic abscess; (4) left empyema; (5) right pleurisy with adhesions to the pericardium.

Sternal Pulsation.—Pulsation over the sternum is invariably indicative of erosion of the bony structures, and is a common sign, occurring during the course of aneurism of the aortic arch and of the innominate artery.

Pulsation at the Left of the Sternum.—When pulsation is detected in the left second or third interspaces, near the margin of the sternum, it is usually arterial, and may result from retraction of the lung; after exposure of the pulmonary artery, however, it is systolic in nature.

Pulsation due to exposure of the left auricle precedes the apex-beat, whereas that due to aneurism is synchronous with or follows soon after

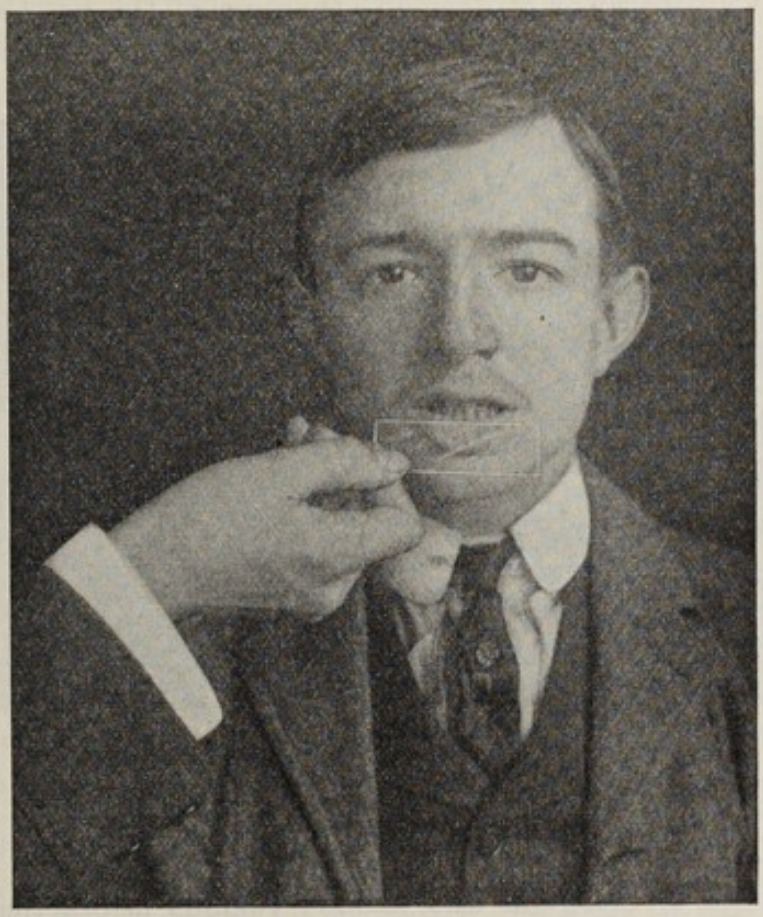


Fig. 66.—Pressure of Glass Slide over Lower Lip to Detect Capillary Pulsation.

the apex impulse. A diastolic impulse may be detected in this region during the course of profound secondary and primary anemias, and, indeed, a systolic pulsation is not impossible in these pathologic conditions.

Pulsation at the upper portion of the chest and to the left of the sternum, while suggestive of cardiac or arterial disease, should also suggest the possibility of some existing pulmonary condition.

When pulsation is prominent at the region of the third, fourth, and fifth interspaces, between the left margin of the sternum and the left parasternal line, it is, as a rule, dependent upon hypertrophic dilatation of the right ventricle, although it is strongly suggestive of displacement of the heart; such displacement may result from right pleural effusion, right pneumothorax, right subdiaphragmatic abscess, and left pleuritis with extensive adhesions to the pericardium.

Double Impulse.—An apparently double impulse, occurring more or less synchronously with each systole, is rarely observed in selected cases of mitral insufficiency.

Pulsation Outside the Precordium.—In the Supraclavicular and Carotid Regions.—Distinct pulsation in the right supraclavicular space is a feature of aneurism of the innominate and subclavian arteries, and is less often seen in aneurismal dilatation of the carotid artery. A distinct wave-like pulsation that may be prevented by placing the finger over the vein in this region is, as a rule, the result of tricuspid regurgitation. In the latter condition the pulsation may be systolic, and the wave be seen well up in the carotid region. In aortic regurgitation there may be marked pulsation of the carotid vessels.

Pulsation over the right supraclavicular and cartoid regions is usually the result of aneurism or of decided atheroma of the vessels occupying these sections. In cardiac hypertrophy there may be distinct pulsation in both carotid regions.

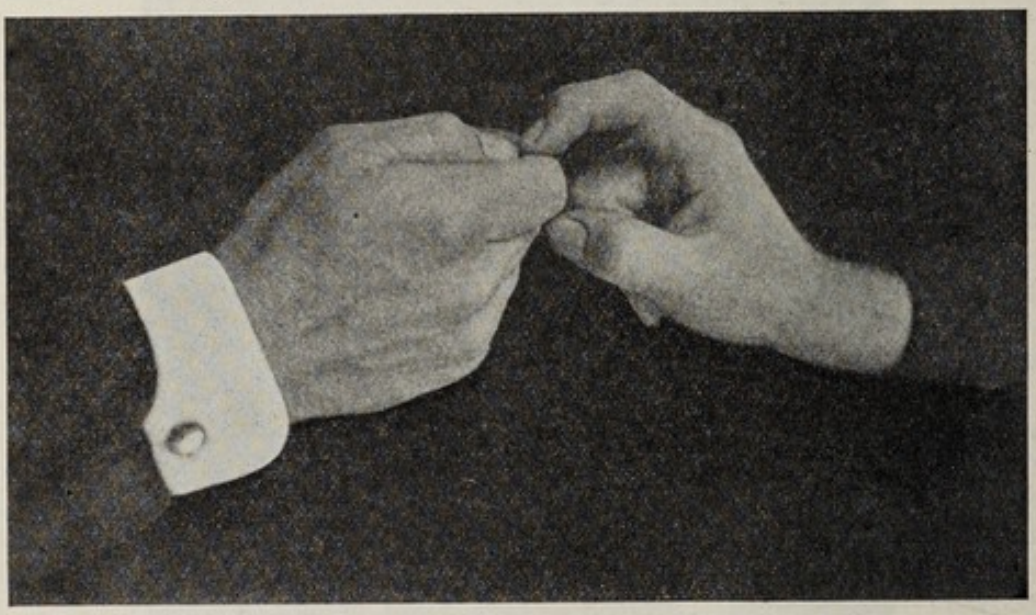


FIG. 67.—PRESSING NAIL OF PATIENT'S FOREFINGER TO DETECT THE CAPILLARY PULSE.

Epigastric Pulsation.—Pulsation in the epigastrium is most often the result of a dilated right heart, and is quite commonly seen in tricuspid regurgitation.

Pulsation in the scapular and axillary regions is practically always induced by aneurism.

Pulsation over Remote Arteries.—In aortic regurgitation with well-marked atheromatous change of the arteries distinct arterial throbbing is to be seen over the axillary, brachial (Fig. 124), radial, femoral, and temporal vessels. Upon close inspection those cases showing marked arterial changes generally display a capillary pulse of the lip and of the fingers (Quincke's capillary pulse).

Quincke's Capillary Pulse.—The patient's finger is grasped and his nail pressed gently by the thumb-nail of the examiner (Fig. 67), where, if held in a proper light, and if Quincke's capillary pulse is present, the pink line underneath the nail will be seen to advance and to recede with each pulsation of the heart.

Another expression of the capillary pulse is obtained by placing a glass slide over the lip, and exerting gentle pressure, when, if Quincke's pulse is present, it will readily be detected underneath the slide (Fig.

66). Another method of detecting the capillary pulse is performed as follows: By drawing the finger somewhat forcibly across the chest-wall it will be noticed that the skin along the track made by the finger first becomes pale, then flushed, then pale again, then slightly flushed, and finally pale, until it resumes the color of the surrounding skin. The capillary pulse is commonly seen in aortic regurgitation.

Distinct pulsation of the abdominal aorta may depend upon an aneurismal dilatation of this vessel, or the pulsation may be transmitted through a solid viscus or growth.

Attitude of the Patient.—The position assumed by the patient is of but limited clinical importance in the majority of cardiac and vascular diseases. In acute plastic pericarditis, however, and in angina pectoris, the attitude is somewhat characteristic.

PALPATION

Palpation serves, for the most part, to confirm the signs already revealed by inspection, and with reference to abnormal pulsation, detected either over the precordium or over other portions of the thorax or abdomen. In many instances it is quite essential that the signs obtained on inspection be confirmed by palpation.

So intimately connected are evidences revealed by inspection and by palpation that, clinically, both these physical methods should be employed at the same time. In examining the precordial area, palpation further acquaints us with the force of each pulsation analyzed, and determines whether or not such pulsation is expansile. Again, by palpation one is able to determine not only the degree of an impulse, but also its rhythm, and at the same time ascertain the resistance offered by the overlying tissue (the chest-wall). It is all important to detect, by palpation, whether abnormalities of the chest are the result of superficial edema or of deeper seated pathologic conditions.

In palpating to acertain the presence of cardiac disease, probably second in importance should be mentioned the recognition of thrills, the clinical significance of which will be discussed at length under each particular cardiac and vascular condition wherein they form one of the physical signs. The friction fremitus, whether pericardial, pleural, or pleuropericardial, is elicited by means of palpation; its presence is an invaluable sign in both pericarditis and pleuritis.

Palpation over the great vessels may bring to light the most pronounced clinical evidence of the existence of both cardiac and vascular disease, and is important in estimating the force of the pulse, arterial tension, cardiac rhythm, and the influence of exercise and exertion upon the circulatory system.

PULSE

Definition.—A sensation conveyed to the palpating finger as the result of the beating of the arteries, produced by the afflux of the blood propelled by the heart in its contractions.

In our opinion the tendency at present is to attach too limited an importance to a study of the pulse in disease, and to depend on other conclusive physical and laboratory methods to convey the facts elicited by the various characteristics of the pulse.

Physical Technic.—In making a study of the pulse the position of the patient must be considered, since both posture and mild exercise increase the pulse-rate and also influence, to a lesser degree, the other clinical characteristics of the pulse. The radial pulse is practically always

palpated. The patient's arms should be allowed to rest upon the side of the bed or over his chest, or, if sitting, they should lie in the patient's lap. The hand of the patient may be held by the hand of the physician while the pulse is being examined. The finger of the examiner should be placed just above and inside the styloid process of the radius, and the index-finger should be directed toward the heart. Clinicians differ as to the number of fingers that should be placed over the artery, some using only the index-finger, whereas others use the index-, second, and ring-fingers. Both radial pulses should be examined, since in certain maladies they differ in many respects. In palpating both the right and the left radial pulse at the same time it is impracticable to have the index-finger on each radial directed toward the heart, although this may be done if the physician assumes an awkward position. Palpating both radials at the same time is further necessary because of misplacement of the radial artery, or one pulse may be absent as the result of disease (aneurism).

The pressure exerted when palpating the pulse should at first be extremely light; when the pulse is full, strong, and bounding in character, pressure may be increased. (See Method of Compressing Pulse, p. 194.)

Evidence to be Obtained.—Increased Frequency.—Under normal conditions the pulse-rate will be found to vary within quite wide limits. The average number of beats for the male adult is 72 a minute, whereas in adult females it is slightly higher,—74 to 76 a minute,—although a pulse of 80 is not considered abnormal for certain females. The influence of temperament and certain personal idiosyncrasies may cause the pulse rate to fluctuate between 60 and 80 beats a minute during early adult and middle life. In the new-born and during the first year of life the pulse-rate varies from 120 to 140 beats a minute; during the third year, under normal conditions, it drops to about 100, and by the fifth or sixth year a pulse of 90 to 95 beats is normal.

A resting pulse rate of 90 or more per minute is pathological in the sense that it departs from the normal. It may have great significance, or on the other hand it may mean nothing. Tachycardia is the general term applied to all increased pulse rates. Every tachycardia should be investigated and its cause established.

The electrocardiograph has divided tachycardias into two great groups: those that are due to the contraction wave of the heart originating at some abnormal site, and those in which the rapid heart action is due simply to the rapid formation of impulses at the normal site of origin. The latter are known as simple tachycardias. The former type comprise a number of varieties: various types of paroxysmal tachycardia, auricular fibrillation, auricular flutter, etc. These are discussed in the chapter on electrocardiography.

Simple tachycardia refers to those forms of rapid heart action due simply to an increased formation of impulses at the normal site of origin. Its causes are many. It may be due to disease of the heart itself. It must be remembered that an increased rate is one of the compensatory mechanisms by which a damaged heart muscle is enabled to keep the circulation from failing. The cause may be an active infection going on in the heart. An increased heart rate often results from disease elsewhere. Various febrile diseases, tuberculosis, anemia, cancer, and hyperthyroidism are generally associated with an increased heart frequency. It may be the compensatory mechanism by which oxygen is supplied to the tissues in certain respiratory conditions that prevent proper oxygenation of the blood. Focal infections are a possible cause. Various conditions that interfere with the vagus nerve-glands compressing it for instance—are

said to cause tachycardia at times. Toxic agents such as tea, coffee, alcohol, etc., often are the underlying cause. Digestive irregularities may be responsible. It is seen in pregnancy. Then there is a large group of cases with many other evidences of an unstable nervous system, and with none of the other usual causes of tachycardia demonstrable. These are classified as Neurotic Tachycardias. To this group probably belong the tachycardias seen in Effort Syndrome. Finally it is to be remembered that increased cardiac frequency is the normal response to physical exertion, and that it is not an abnormal response to certain mental and psychic excitements.

The heart becomes decidedly irritable, and at times irregular after exertion—the so-called *"effort-syndrome"* of Lewis; and is commonly referred to as neuro-circulatory-asthenia. In this syndrome we observe breathlessness, tachycardia, palpitation, precordial pain, peripheral congestion, and the patient is totally unfitted for strenuous exercise.

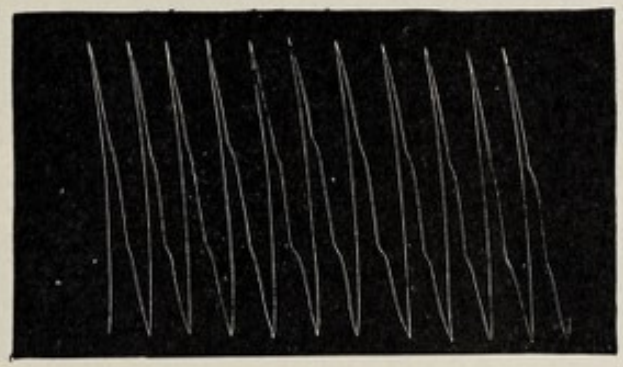


FIG. 68.—PULSUS CELER IN AORTIC INSUFFICIENCY (Riegel).



FIG. 69.—PULSUS RARUS (J. C. Da Costa, Jr.).



FIG. 70.—PULSUS TARDUS IN AORTIC STENOSIS (Strümpell).

Decreased Frequency.—*Pulsus Rarus-Bradycardia* is the term applied to various forms of slow heart action. Sixty beats per minute is the figure below which bradycardia is said to be present.

From the knowledge gained from the electrocardiograph, we divide bradycardia into that due to some abnormality in the cardiac mechanism, such as nodal rhythm or heart block, and that due simply to a depression of the rate of formation of normal impulses at the sino-auricular node. The former type is discussed in the chapter on electrocardiography. The latter is referred to as sinus bradycardia.

Sinus bradycardia is that condition in which a slow heart rate is the result of the slow formation of impulses at the normal site of origin: the sino-auricular node. Many factors can cause this type of slow heart action.

Foci of infection have been found to be an etiologic factor in periodic tachycardia, and we would advise systematic and persistent search

for the focus in such cases. Our experience has been that many of these cases start on the road to recovery within two or three weeks after surgical treatment of the infecting foci.

Decreased Infrequency.—(See Electrocardiography and Cardiac Arrhythmias, p. 227.) In making a study of cases in which the pulse is between 40 and 60 beats a minute (under Extrasystole), it becomes essential that the physician acquaint himself with the general temperament of the patient, and ascertain, also, whether or not an abnormally slow pulse is a family characteristic. As previously stated, an extremely slow pulse is found in diseases of the endocardium and of the myocardium, the former condition being best exemplified by the slow pulse of aortic stenosis, whereas the latter is seen when there is extensive myocardial degeneration (fatty degeneration), together with atheroma of the coronary arteries. It is not uncommon to find all these pathologic conditions of the heart present in the same individual, and such cases commonly display a pulse of between 50 and 30 beats a minute (Fig. 69).

Mougeot* gives the following classification of rare types of bradycardia: (1) Apparently complete auriculo-ventricular dissociation, dissipated either by atropine or epinephrine. (2) Total sinusal bradycardia—a rare form—refractory to the tests of atropine, amyl nitrite, and ocular compression. (3) The nodal bradycardia (of Mackenzie) for which this latter author suggests the presence of a total sino-auricular block.

Condition of the Vessel-walls.—By making firm pressure over the course of the radial artery it is possible to empty the vessel, and then, by careful manipulation, attempt to roll the artery under the finger-tips. If atheromatous changes are not present, it is difficult to palpate the radial artery distinctly, except in those in whom but a slight amount of extra tissue is present. If there is a moderate degree of atheroma, the artery has a somewhat cord-like or leathery feel. In marked atheroma both the radial and temporal arteries are extremely hard, and may even be pipe-stem-like in contour. There is probably no characteristic in the general clinical study of the pulse that is of greater prognostic value than an accurate determination of the degree of atheroma existing in each individual case. It may be well to add, in this connection, that where atheroma is extreme, the arteries assume a more or less tortuous course, and are seen to throb in the brachial and radial regions.

Size of the Pulse-wave and Artery.—While palpating to determine the degree of atheroma, gentle pressure is made by the index-finger as it is drawn along the course of the radial artery, and in this way an accurate determination of the actual size of the artery is readily apparent. With each pulse-beat one is at the same time forced to determine the size or volume of the pulse-wave, and since this factor depends entirely upon the myocardial systole and upon the tension of the arterial wall, it too furnishes valuable data as to the general condition of the heart.

Large Pulse.—In plethoric persons the pulse may be larger than normal, but hypertrophy of the left ventricle may give this same impression to the palpating finger. A large pulse, which, technically speaking, conveys only the size of the pulse to the palpating finger, may also result from an abnormally low arterial tension, as the result of which the radial artery is broader than normal. The best examples of large pulse are seen in cases of cardiac hypertrophy, in which there is little atheroma, and consequently the vessel-walls are flaccid and the pulse strikes a broad surface of the palpating finger. In regurgitation at the aortic valve the effect upon the artery may be similar to that just described. In acute

* Presse Med., Feb. 4, 1920.

febrile conditions, particularly during the early stage, the pulse may be bounding in character, and appears to be large to the palpating finger; atmospheric conditions—intense heat and humidity—are capable of producing, though to a less marked degree, this variety of pulse. In chronic maladies in which there is general debility there may be an unusually large pulse as the result of general weakness, with a loss in the myocardial power.

Peculiarities.—During the course of mitral regurgitation with hypertrophy of the left heart the pulse may not be of abnormal size, and, indeed, the volume of the pulse may be smaller than normal, a condition that is amply explained when we consider that with each systole not all the blood in the left heart is forced into the arterial tree, but a portion of

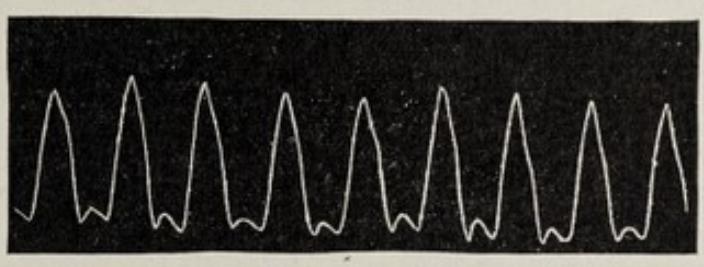


Fig. 71.—Pulsus Magnus (J. C. Da Costa, Jr.).

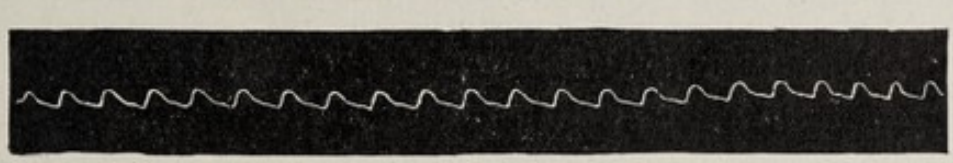


Fig. 72.—Pulsus Parvus (J. C. Da Costa, Jr.).



Fig. 73.—Pulsus Paradoxus.
E, Beginning of expiration; *J*, beginning of inspiration (Kussmaul).

it, owing to the leakage present, is returned to the left auricle. Hypertrophy of the heart may be a feature of aortic stenosis, and yet, irrespective of such hypertrophy, it is impossible for a large volume of blood to enter the aorta.

Small Pulse (Pulsus Parvus).—Both disease of the heart with progressive weakness of the myocardium and disease of the arteries may produce an abnormally small pulse; by way of repetition, mitral stenosis exemplifies that character of small pulse resulting from the left heart being unable to propel the blood to the aorta. Again, in myocarditis there is not sufficient force exerted to propel the blood to the radials. During the course of chronic interstitial nephritis and in other chronic maladies characterized by prostration the pulse may be feeble and scarcely perceptible; in these cases it is often referred to as "*thready.*" A similar effect is produced upon the pulse of one side of the body by aneurism, and the so-called thready pulse is present toward the termination of such acute febrile conditions as peritonitis, pneumonia, and typhoid fever.

Clinical Significance.—The size of the pulse-wave may give but little, if any, valuable data regarding the degree of ventricular force that is

expended with each systole. It will be seen, when arterial tension is considered, that a strong pulse is not of necessity a large one, nor is a weak pulse necessarily a small one, since both of these conditions are influenced materially not only by the force of the heart, but also by the freedom of the blood-vessels and by arterial tension.

Quick Pulse.—In this variety of pulse there is, as a rule, low arterial tension, and the pulse-wave makes a rapid ascent, but disappears almost immediately. A quick pulse is to be distinguished from a rapid pulse, the latter implying a high number of pulsations a minute. The so-called quick pulse is seen late during the course of acute febrile maladies, and is also present to a marked degree in aortic regurgitation—the so-called "water-hammer" or Corrigan pulse. (See Aortic Regurgitation.)

Rhythm.—It is when succeeding beats do not follow each other with regularity that we are dealing with some form of Cardiac Arrhythmia. Numerous disturbances cause arrhythmic cardiac action. Some are inconsequential, others are of great import. Even the slightest disturbance of cardiac rhythmicity should be investigated, and its true nature determined.

It is in diagnosing the various cardiac arrhythmias that the electrocardiograph yields its most brilliant results. A detailed description of these disturbances is given in the chapter on Electrocardiography.

Intermittent Pulse.—By this is meant that type of pulse in which the regularity of the pulse beat is disturbed by the occasional or regular absence of a pulse wave. These intermissions are due to either some form of Heart Block, in which the pulse wave is absent, because the heart fails to contract, or to some form of extrasystolic disturbance in which the heart contracts but fails to raise the aortic leaflets, and cause a pulse wave.

Irregular Pulse.—See Chapter on Electrocardiography.

Force.—The degree of force offered to the palpating finger with each impulse of the heart is a direct guide, first, as to the strength of the heart muscle, and, second, as to the condition of the arteries in rendering it possible for such forced impulse to be conveyed to the radial artery. The pulse is compressed in the following manner (Fig. 74): the index-finger is placed upon the radial artery, while firm pressure is made by another finger along the course of the artery between the index-finger and the heart; if the impulse is easily obliterated as the result of pressure, such pulse is referred to as compressible. The degree of pressure necessary to obliterate the pulse-wave is also of great clinical importance; consequently a pulse may be readily compressible or compressed with difficulty. The compressible pulse is a characteristic finding in myocardial disease, and is one of the earliest symptoms of fatty degeneration.

An abnormal increase in the force of the radial pulse may be either temporary or permanent, and in the vast majority of cases results from an exaggerated ventricular systole—a feature of cardiac hypertrophy. Pulsation may also modify the force of the pulse-wave; thus in those cases exhibiting myocardial change the pulse-wave is decidedly weakened as the result of elevating the wrists well above the level of the head, while the patient is standing or sitting, but whatever means may be employed to determine the degree of force of the heart muscle, an accurate knowledge of such strength must be obtained.

Under normal conditions the pulse tension is slightly increased by inspiration, whereas in pulsus paradoxus the tension is low at the end of inspiration, and appreciably higher at the end of expiration. In this type of pulse there is, at the same time, a converse relation of the volume of the pulse to the respiratory act; in other words, during inspiration the

volume of the pulse is lessened (the beats may be slightly more frequent and weaker than when the expiratory act is nearly completed), and during expiration it is increased.

Etiology.—This type of irregularity may be seen in the presence of a large pericardial effusion, extensive pericarditis, mediastinal tumors, and conditions that cause positive intrathoracic pressure, as well as those that constrict the great vessels near the heart and cause them to be drawn up or stretched during the act of inspiration. Venous engorgement commonly accompanies pulsus paradoxus.

Pulsus paradoxus may also be excited by conditions that increase the inspiratory pressure or prevent the air from entering the lungs—*e. g.*,



FIG. 74.—METHOD OF DETECTING INEQUALITY OF THE RADIAL PULSE.
Second finger raised to show the method of determining the degree of compressibility of the pulse.

stenosis of the large air-passages. Enfeebled heart action may also excite this phenomenon, and it is occasionally associated with a large pleural effusion. Irrespective of the nature of the condition that may excite this variety of pulse irregularity, the more vigorous the heart's systole, the less conspicuous is the pulsus paradoxus.

Alternating Pulse.—This type of pulse is best distinguished by pressing the brachial artery against the humerus at a point just above the elbow, and at the same time placing the index-finger of the operator's other hand over the radial artery. It will be found that when a certain amount of pressure is exerted upon the brachial artery, only alternate pulsations are felt at the radial pulse. This clinical feature is still more apparent by using the ordinary cuff, as is done in taking blood-pressure. After the systolic pressure is ascertained permit the degree of pressure to lessen, say five or ten points on the sphygmomanometer, and it will then be apparent that only certain of the pulse-waves are conducted beyond the cuff and felt at the radial. (See Blood-pressure, p. 203.) There are two ways in which alternation can be diagnosed; one is by the sphygmograph

—a method many workers believe to be the best. This method shows immediately an alternation in the height of alternate pulse waves. The other way in which this disturbance is revealed is the electrocardiograph. This method is not of very great aid clinically; for alternation will be shown clearly by other methods when it is not revealed by the galvanometer. Furthermore, the large deflections of the galvanometer may correspond to the small beats, as determined by other methods. The presence of this disturbance is evidence of great importance in estimating the contractile power of the myocardium. It apparently can be present in cases of marked hypertension without great impairment of the muscle; but when unaccompanied by this condition, it indicates a gravely damaged myocardium.

Dicrotic Pulse.—A dicrotic pulse is one in which the palpating finger feels two distinct impulses of the artery with each cardiac systole. The second impulse is due to an abnormally prominent recoil of blood after closure of the aortic valves, and occurs at the time indicated by the dicrotic notch on the sphygmograph. The phenomenon is observed when the arterial pressure is low.

Water-hammer Pulse; Corrigan Pulse.—In the water-hammer pulse the systolic impact against the finger is strong and the artery is full of blood; this impact immediately recedes, and the full vessel immediately empties itself. The phenomenon is characteristic of aortic regurgitation. The sudden impact is due to the force of the hypertrophied left ventricle; the volume of blood in the vessel is determined by the dilatation of the ventricle, and the sudden recession of both characters is due to the regurgitation of blood through the aortic orifice.

Effort Syndrome.—Examples of this disturbance are seen during the mental and physical stress of war; it is likewise a feature in connection with organic heart disease, over-exertion and unusual mental strain, as they occur in civilian life. The outstanding clinical features are: Fatigue, out of all proportion to the amount of effort exerted, breathlessness, precordial pain, cyanosis, cold and clammy skin—all of which may or may not be accompanied by undue rapidity of the heart.

Diagnosis.—Symptoms of cardiac disturbances as a result of moderate effort; dyspnea and cardiac pain, both of which may abate or disappear when the patient's attention is diverted. Effort syndrome is to be considered in connection with all cases of organic heart disease, arterial sorosis, and in persons suffering from profound anemia and malnutrition.

Tension.—Definition.—The degree of pressure communicated to the finger by the blood through the wall of the artery. Tension includes the estimation by the artery when it pulsates as the result of systole and during diastole. The pulse-wave itself may display an unusually high tension, but the blood-pressure during the intervals between the beats may be unusually low—features of aortic regurgitation. Tension, therefore, collectively speaking, has to do with the prolonged high-tension pulse where the blood-pressure is high between the beats, and it is this type of high tension that is also of special clinical significance. The existence of continued high pressure is ascertained when one endeavors to palpate the artery between beats and further rolls the artery from side to side underneath the index-finger, when, if the artery remains firm and is not readily compressed, the tension is high between the beats; it is this type of high tension that is also of special clinical significance.

Caution.—In estimating the pulse tension extreme care must be exercised, with a view to discriminating between true increased tension and atheromatous change in the wall of the artery. There may be fatty

atheromatous softening, on the one hand, or distinct atheromatous hardening, on the other, and should either one of these conditions be present in a given case, the influence of arterial disease upon the pulse tension must be taken into consideration. It is by an accurate appreciation of these pathologic conditions of the artery that our knowledge of the arterial tension becomes of great clinical importance.

A low-tension pulse is recognized by the fact that the pulse disappears when but slight pressure is exerted; and, likewise, a pulse of moderate tension requires moderate pressure by the index-finger to elicit the greatest impression. The high-tension pulse conveys the greatest impression to the palpating finger when firm pressure is made over the artery. The size of the artery is often of importance in connection with a pulse of high tension, but here there are many exceptions to the general rule that a small artery has a pulse of high tension, and that a large artery must display a pulse of low tension. Given a soft pulse, or one of quite low tension, it will be found readily compressible, and if a second much weaker rebound following each pulsation of the artery is also detected, the condition is known as a dicrotic regurgitant pulse. Tension is practically inseparable from blood-pressure herein considered.

BLOOD-PRESSURE

By F. A. Faught, M.D.

General Considerations.—The pressure which the blood exerts upon the vessel-walls is known as blood-pressure. Physiologically considered, there are five (5) factors concerned in the maintenance and regulation of blood-pressure, viz.:

(1) The constant activity of the vasomotor system (resistance offered to the blood as it passes through the arterioles and capillaries).

(2) The elasticity of the arterial walls.

(3) The force and frequency of the heart's action (volume of blood forced into the arterial tree).

(4) Viscosity.

(5) The total quantity of blood in the body.

In the maintenance of continuous pressure the elasticity of the arterial wall plays an important rôle. If the vascular system were perfectly rigid, the pressure would rise to a very high point during systole and fall to zero during diastole. By virtue of the elasticity of their walls the arteries distend as the heart contracts and forces its contents into the aorta. During diastole the distended arterial walls recoil, and so maintain with certain variations a continuous pressure, thus converting the rhythmic flow of blood in the arteries into a continuous flow in the capillaries and veins.

The entire energy exhibited in the vascular system arises primarily from the heart's action. An increase in the force and rate, other factors remaining the same, will cause an increase in both velocity and blood-pressure, and vice versâ.

The total quantity of blood in the body is to a certain extent of but limited importance in regard to blood-pressure. A loss of blood will cause a very transitory fall of blood-pressure, other conditions remaining the same, because under normal conditions other factors, principally vasomotor tone, rapidly restore circulatory equilibrium, so that no permanent change occurs.

Arterial Tonus.—A clinically important factor in the maintenance and regulation of blood-pressure is the normal and constant action of the

vasomotor system. We now know that the blood-vessels are supplied with motor fibers through whose activity the caliber of the vessels and, therefore, the capacity of the vascular bed is controlled.

There are two sets of fibers—the vasoconstrictors and the vasodilators. The vasoconstrictors are by far the most important. It is through these fibers that the vasomotor center in the medulla is continuously sending nerve impulses, by which the condition known as vascular tone or tonus is maintained.

Observations.—In the study of blood-pressure four estimations are recognized, viz.: Systolic pressure, diastolic pressure, pulse pressure, and mean pressure.

Systolic Pressure.—By systolic pressure is meant the maximum pressure produced by the systole of the heart.

Diastolic pressure is the minimum pressure in the artery. It corresponds in time to the diastolic phase in the cardiac cycle.

Pulse pressure is the difference between the systolic and diastolic pressures. The normal pulse pressure is said to range between 30 and 50 mm. Hg. This pressure represents the volume of blood wave sent from the heart at each systole. Pulse pressure serves as an index of the nutritive supply of the body tissues. Normal metabolism in every organ demands that such organ shall be irrigated by the blood wave. Should the pulse pressure be abnormally low, the various vital organs are inadequately supplied, and critical symptoms must follow. This condition is best exemplified in shock, where the pulse pressure may falls to 10 mm., and all the vital functions of the body are at a low ebb. Disturbed functions and vital failure supervene whenever the output of blood is decidedly above or below certain normal limits, because such limits determine the range of physiologic activity.

The Sphygmomanometer.—There are few practicing physicians who do not to-day possess some form of instrument for the determination of blood-pressure which is in more or less constant use and upon which the practitioner places a varying degree of dependence, which in turn is based upon (1) the operator's confidence in the accuracy of his apparatus, (2) his familarity with its technic and its uses and (3) his knowledge of the limitations of sphygmomanometry.

Accuracy of Sphygmomanometers.—There is little to choose between the mercury and the spring or aneroid instruments or between the many varieties of either type now on the market. The dependibility of the mercury types is obvious, while the accuracy of the spring types may be determined through the U. S. Bureau of Standards who stand ready at any time to test and certify to the accuracy of any spring instrument sent to them; they find in their recent extensive report a surprising degree of accuracy in the aneroid or spring type of instrument.

Permissible Variations.—As a matter of fact no sphygmomanometer is mathematically correct, the variations between different instruments of the same make and between instruments of different types being about the same, frequently amounting to 3 mm. Hg., occasionally to as much as 5 mm. Hg. The amount of variation in individual instruments changes at different points along the scale, some parts being accurate while others, when compared with the standard mercury instrument, show from 1 to 3 mm. Hg. variation. This is of little importance clinically unless the error is over 5 mm. Hg. The findings with the average instrument will be found no less accurate than the differences in reading resulting from the personal equation of the examiner and from the continuous slight changes due to vasomotor and other influences in the patient.

When a spring instrument fails to record properly the defect is usually obvious. The hand fails to travel smoothly and becomes jerky in its return, or the needle on the release of pressure fails to return promptly to zero if at all. Very occasionally a slight loss of accuracy develops which may pass unnoticed, for this reason some writers stress the importance of comparisons with a mercury instrument, the writer has however, never found this precaution necessary as a means of detecting inaccuracy in spring instruments.

Graduation (Scale) of Sphygmomanometers.—Mercury instruments are usually calibrated to read in millimeters of mercury the finest

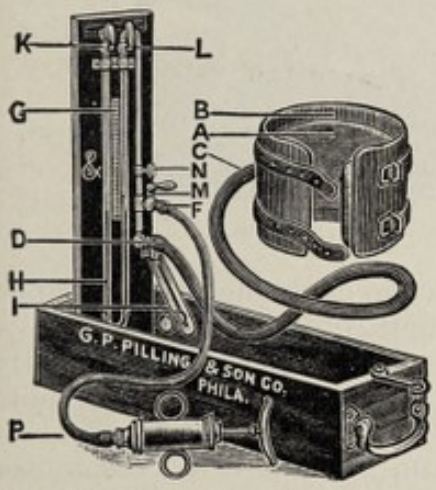


FIG. 75.—FAUGHT'S STANDARD OR MERCURY SPHYGMOMANOMETER.

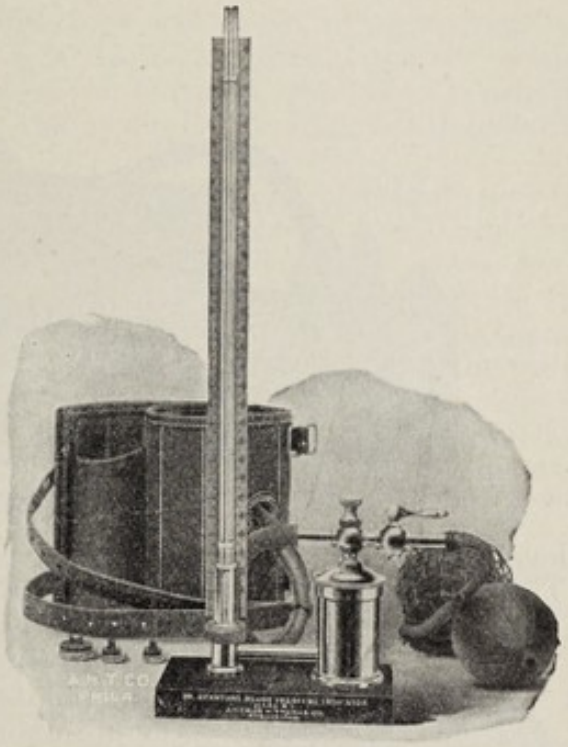


FIG. 76.—STANTON'S SPHYGMOMANOMETER.

graduations on the scale being equal to 2 mm. Hg. In spring instruments the usual interval is 2 millimeters, since practically all reports of blood-pressure are recorded by this unit, instruments so graduated are to be preferred to one having a centimeter scale. Since readings of 270 mm. Hg. and more are regularly met instruments having a range of at least 300 mm. Hg. are much to be preferred. The several types of blood-pressure apparatus mentioned above are shown in Figs. 75, 76, 77 and 78.

Method of Using Sphygmomanometer.—The method of setting up the apparatus for the determination of blood-pressure is the same for all manner of reading (visual, palpatory, auscultatory), the only difference being the proper placing of a suitable stethescope in the auscultatory method. The part selected is usually the brachial, in the arm, occasionally the leg pressure is taken, here the technic is the same, the part studied only being different. When there is no contraindication the left arm is used.

Uniformity of Technic.—A uniform technic should be adopted in order that differences due to changes in posture of the patient, etc. may be eliminated. For example, most observations can be made with the patient comfortably seated in a chair, with the muscles relaxed and the

forearm placed so that the center of the cuff may be on the same horizontal plane as the center of the patient's heart. Bedridden patients should be reclining on the back with the arm easily excessible and relaxed. The

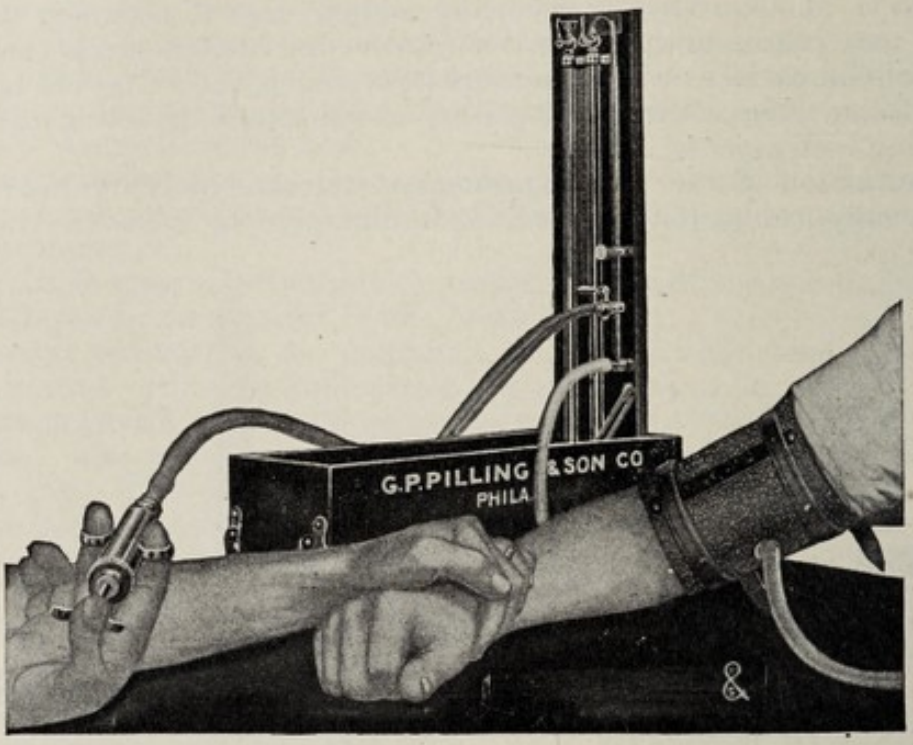


FIG. 77.—FAUGHT'S MERCURY APPARATUS IN USE.

level of the cuff being again as near the elevation of the heart as possible. The arm-hand should be snugly applied without producing pressure. A loose arm-band is easily displaced, frequently interferes with the stethoscope and requires more air to inflate, this, by prolonging the period of pressure upon the arm, may allow the vasomotor changes to alter the circulatory equilibrium of the part and so interfere with the accuracy of the reading. All tight clothing should be removed about and above the arm, the sleeve if rolled up should be sufficiently high to allow the cuff's lower border to be well above the bend of the elbow, otherwise it will interfere with the proper placing of the stethoscope. Tight clothing or several layers of material about the arm will interfere with the reading, although a single light sleeve does not modify this to any appreciable degree.



FIG. 78.—FAUGHT'S POCKET INDICATOR. ACTUAL SIZE.

The actual taking of pressure should occupy as little time as possible in order to eliminate local vasomotor changes. It is advisable to repeat the observation after a few minutes rest, since the first reading is often higher than subsequent ones. During the rest interval the pressure within the cuff should be completely released.

Visual Method.—Systolic.—The arm-band being in place and the sphygmomanometer connected therewith as directed in the instructions accompanying each instrument, the pressure is rapidly raised to a point

where no pulse can be felt at the wrist. By means of the release valve, usually situated on the pump or bulb of the apparatus, the pressure is allowed to slowly and uniformily escape; at sometime during this procedure it will be noted that the mercury column or needle will begin to fluctuate in rhythm with the pulse; the systolic reading is made at the moment this fluctuation occurs.

Visual Method.—Diastolic.—After determining the systolic pressure the air is allowed to continue to escape at the rate of 1 to 2 millimeters per pulse beat. During this process it will be noted that the oscillations will continue until at a certain point they suddenly diminish. At this moment the diastolic pressure is read.

Errors.—In many cases the pulse beat will begin to be transmitted through the cuff at a point from 5 to 15 millimeters above the actual systolic pressure, while the cessation of maximal oscillation is usually hard to determine and even when this is obvious it may not necessarily coincide with the diastolic pressure.

Palpatory Method.—Systolic.—In determining blood-pressure by palpation the same procedure is carried out as outlined above except that the operator maintains a careful watch through the tactile sense, for a return of the first pulse-beat at the wrist. This is taken to indicate the systolic pressure at which moment the reading on the indicator is made.

Palpatory Method.—Diastolic.—Continuing to observe the pulse during the continued fall of pressure in the apparatus, effort is made to note the moment at which the bounding character of the pulse, which is the result of partial compression of the artery by the cuff, disappears and is replaced by the normal sustained pulse of the individual. This is the diastolic point.

Errors.—It is not always possible to recognize the smallest increments of blood passing under the cuff so that the systolic reading may be from 3 to 8 millimeters too low, while the diastolic determination is even more difficult and by this method is rarely reliable.

Auscultatory Method.—The auscultatory method is the method of choice and should always be employed when possible, since clinical research and physiologic study have demonstrated conclusively that this method confirms with positive clinical accuracy to the readings made by the direct canular method. The only question still being discussed in reference to this method is the determination of the diastolic point and even here the difference is only a matter of 2 or 3 millimeters.

Systolic.—The apparatus is set up as indicated above. In addition the bell of a small stethoscope or better the modified stethoscope known as the sphygmometroscope (see Figs. 75, 78) is applied. The air pressure is then raised in the usual manner, while the finger is kept upon the radial pulse until this disappears. Inflation is then stopped, after which it is not necessary to further follow the pulse at the wrist. The air pressure is now gradually allowed to fall while the operator listens intently for a sharp thud which will indicate that blood has begun to pass beneath the cuff. At this instant the systolic reading is made. The air pressure is now allowed to continue to fall, during which the sounds heard will go through several variations until the loud tones heard suddenly become soft and rapidly disappear. It is customary to accept as the diastolic reading the moment of change from loud to soft tones, although very good authority advises that the diastolic point be taken at the disappearance of all sounds. The writer has always advised that the moment of change from sharp to soft tones be used in reading the diastolic pressure because the period of soft sound is variable in length and because in aortic insuffi-

ciency and occasionally in other conditions, sounds may be heard when the indicator is at zero pressure. The difference in most cases is not more than 3 or 4 millimeters.

Caution.—It should be remembered that the auscultatory method gives a larger pulse pressure than either of the preceding methods. This is because the systolic reading is several millimeters higher than the palpatory method and because the diastolic pressure by auscultation is usually from 3 to 8 millimeters lower than obtained by either the visual or the palpatory methods.

Auscultatory Tone Phases.—Korotkow in 1905 first accurately described the tone phases occurring in an artery as result of varying partial compression by a pneumatic cuff. When the artery is completely com-

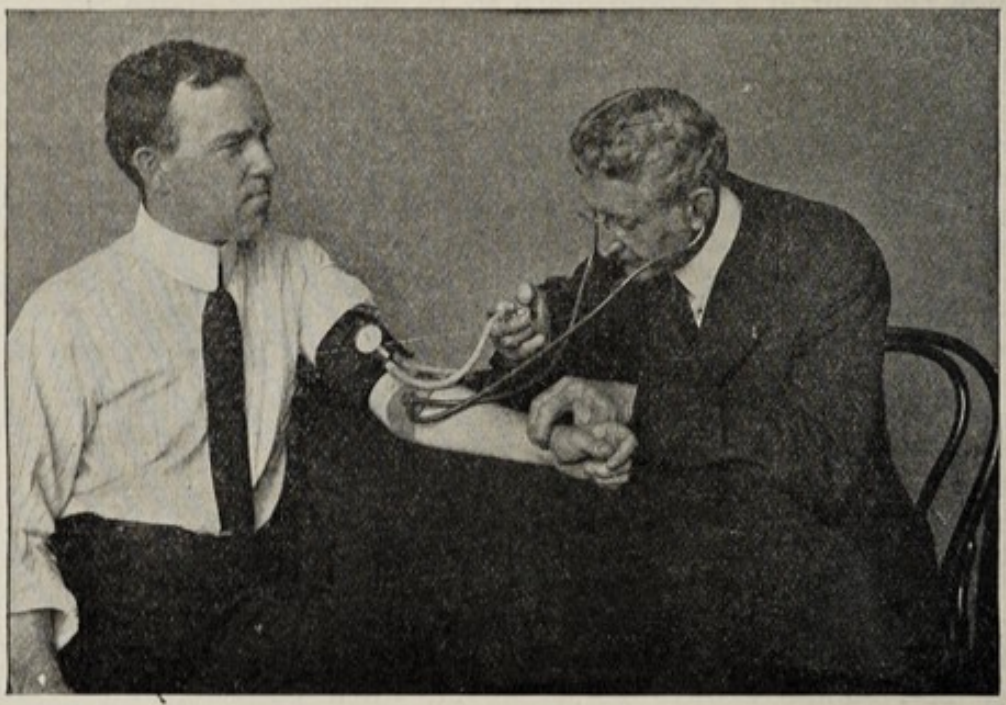


FIG. 79.—AUSCULTATORY METHOD. FAUGHT'S POCKET INDICATOR IN USE.

pressed nothing will be heard, but when the pressure in the cuff is decreased sufficiently to permit the blood to escape under the obstruction and enter the artery below the cuff, certain characteristic auditory phenomena occur. These are synchronous with each heart beat. The first sound to be heard is caused by a small increment of blood forcing itself beneath the obstruction. This is the first sound or *phase;* it is synchronous with the heart beat and is described as clear-cut, loud and snapping. As the pressure is gradually further lowered a new set of sounds develop, usually described as murmurish, often loud and rough. These sounds may be added to the sound of the first phase or may entirely replace it. The presence of the murmurish sound indicates the *second phase.* After persisting for a certain length of time the murmur suddenly ceases and is replaced by a sound resembling that of the first phase but neither as sharp nor as loud. This is the *third phase.* After a further lowering of pressure these sounds suddenly become less clear in intensity and quality. This change denotes the *fourth phase* which continues for a short interval rapidly becoming less distinct and disappearing entirely. Some authorities have called the absence of sound the fifth phase but it would seem in order to maintain a clear clinical conception of the tone phases to eliminate the so-called fifth phase.

Points and Phases.—The suggestion of Swan to separate each phase by a point is most satisfactory and should be more universally employed. Swan suggests five points each representing the moment of transition in the auscultatory phenomena thus, *point one* immediately precedes phase one, is followed by *point two* which in turn is succeeded by phase two, this rotation is carried out until after phase four, *point five* indicates

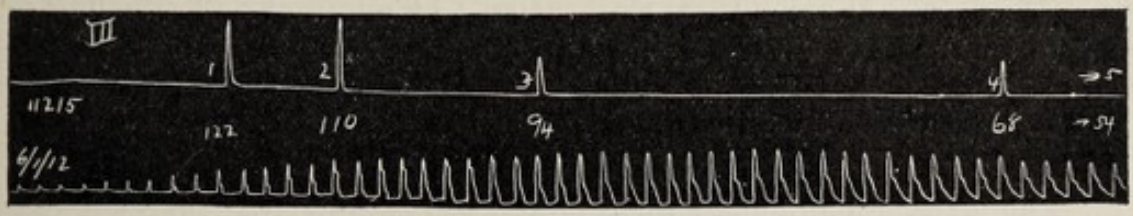


FIG. 80.—FAST DRUM. SUDDEN DECREASE IN SIZE OF PULSE-WAVE AT 4, MARKING THE CHANGE FROM CLEAR, SHARP TONE TO DULL TONE (Warfield, in Jour. Amer. Med. Assoc., Oct. 4, 1913).

the complete cessation of all sound. Applying this language to a discussion of the determination of systolic and diastolic pressure we would say that *the first point represents the systolic pressure and the fourth point the diastolic.*

Phase Lengths.—It has long been known that individual phases bear an approximately definite ratio to the length of the pulse pressure and

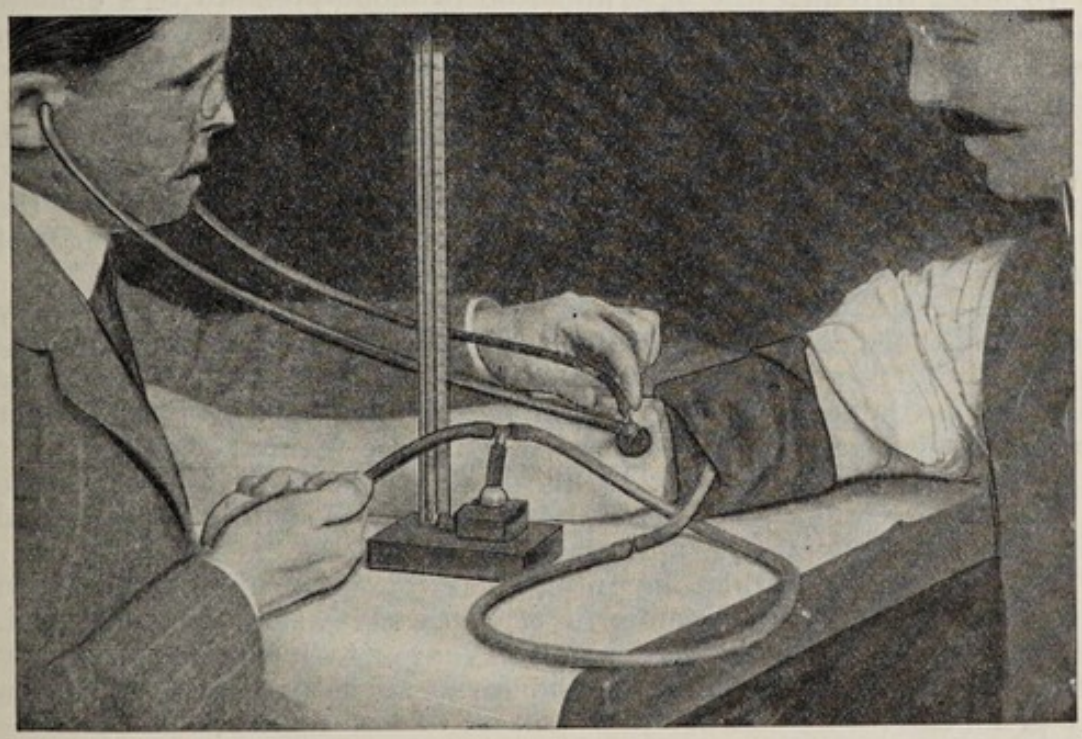


FIG. 81.—DETERMINING BLOOD-PRESSURE (AUSCULTATION METHOD). (KEARCHER'S BLOOD-PRESSURE APPARATUS IN USE.)

that in pathologic conditions changes in these ratios possess valuable clinical significance. Thus, in anemia the second phase is prolonged, and is very plainly heard; this prolongation appears to be at the expense of the third phase. The fourth phase is also frequently longer than normal. In cardiac weakness the second and third phases become shortened or may be entirely absent. The shortness of these phases being con-

sidered indicative of the degree of myocardial weakness. On the other hand, in arteriosclerosis the third phase is frequently clear and loud.

Duration of Tone Phases.—Many observers have carefully studied the relative length of the tone phases among whom Goodman and Howell have contributed the best material. Summarized, the first tone phase is usually between ten and fourteen mm. Hg., the second 15 to 20 mm. Hg., the third phase 20 to 25 mm. Hg. and the fourth phase 3 to 6 mm. Hg. It is obvious that, since normal blood-pressure is a variable factor, it is impossible to assign definite values to the tone phases. The value of these figures will be in direct proportion to the degree of alteration found in the study of any individual case.

Mean pressure is fairly accurately estimated by taking the arithmetic mean of the systolic and diastolic pressures, *e. g.*:

Systolic pressure,	150 mm. Hg.
Diastolic pressure,	110 mm. Hg.
	2)260
Mean pressure,	130 mm. Hg.

It is essential that all these observations be taken into consideration, inasmuch as any alteration in one or more of them may have a definite clinical significance.

Standard for Blood-pressure.—Mention has already been made of the expression, millimeters of mercury, in connection with this discussion of blood-pressure.

In order to reduce the determination of blood-pressure to a definite and comparable basis, it has been found advisable to adopt as a *unit of measure the standard mercury column*, and to express all blood-pressure findings in figures comparable to the weight of the mercury column. The clinical study of blood-pressure has been made practical through the development of mechanical appliances known as sphygmomanometers, which are now quite generally employed in studying conditions of the circulation, and which, with the exception of the sphygmomanometer of Potain, are graduated to express blood-pressure in mm. Hg.

Recent experimental work of Janeway, Bishop, and others conclusively show that the measure of pressure as determined by the sphygmomanometer closely represents the true pressure within the vessel, as shown by a cannula introduced directly into the vessel, and that this in the larger vessels at least closely approximates the pressure within the aorta.

Normal Blood-pressure.—Clincal observation of the blood-pressure of normal individuals has enabled us to state quite definitely the normal blood-pressure readings for a given age.

The blood-pressure, like the pulse, is subject to considerable variation within normal limits, the boundaries of which have also been established. These so-called physiologic variations may occur with surprising rapidity and should always be given due consideration in evaluating the findings in any given case.

The blood-pressure also varies in different blood-vessels, being highest in the aorta and gradually diminishing toward the periphery of the arterial tree. Observations as usually recorded are taken from the brachial artery with the subject in the sitting posture.

From numerous observations by competent observers it has been found that records obtained by the usual means, visual or palpatory, give a systolic pressure in the normal individual in early adult life between 105 and 130. The best clinical work upon this subject has been done by Woley, who has prepared the subjoined table. From this it will be

seen that pressure is modified to some extent by age and sex, and that Woley's constant factors can be used for comparison in all estimations of the normal pressure at any age.

In order to simplify the procedure of estimating the normal for any age, Faught has suggested the following formula, which can be employed as a rough guide in determining the normal average systolic blood-pressure. "Consider the normal average systolic blood-pressure in a male aged twenty to be 120 mm., and that for every two years of life add 1 mm. to 120." To determine the pressure for women subtract 10 mm. This when worked out will be found to conform quite closely with the Woley chart (Fig. 82).

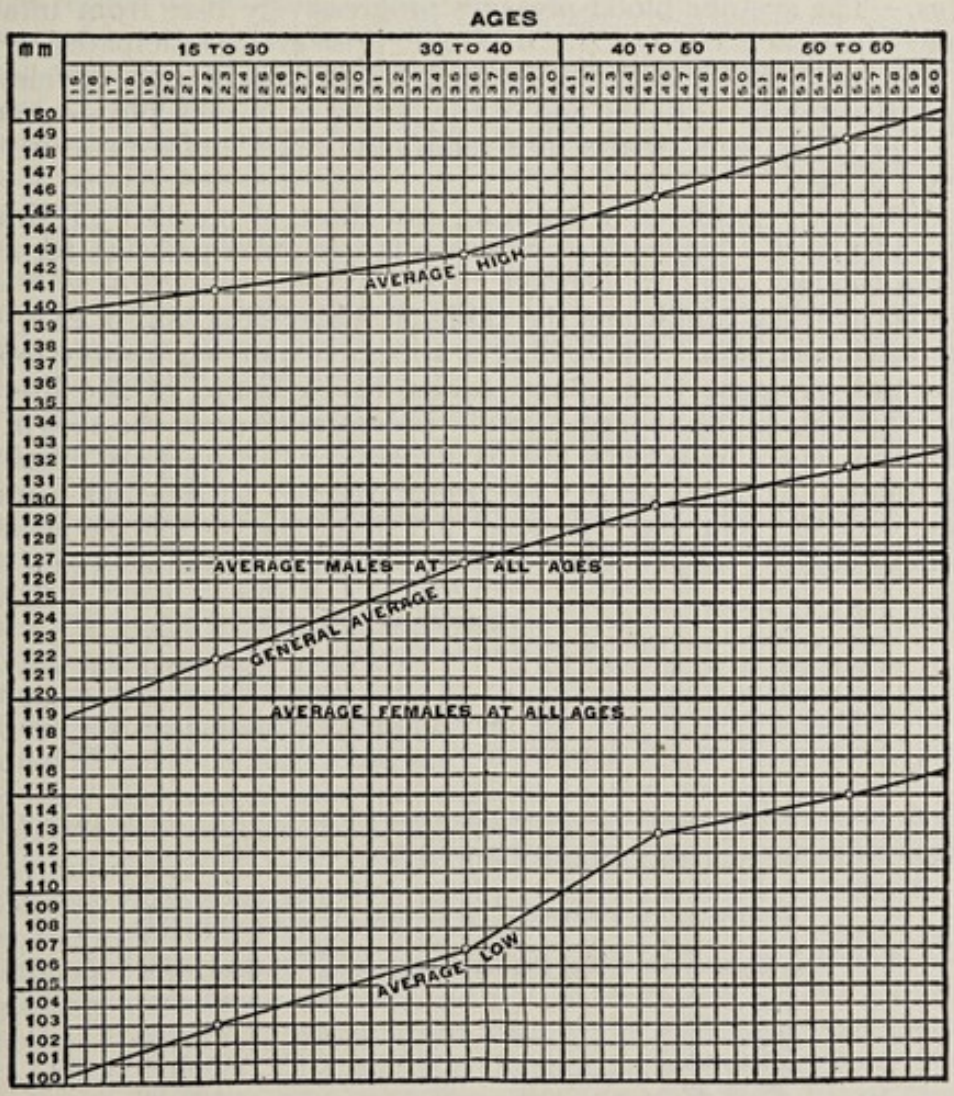


Fig. 82.—Woley's Chart Showing Effect of Age on Blood-pressure, Giving Mean, High, and Low Average, Palpatory-oscillatory Method (Jour. Amer. Med. Assoc.).

Factors Which May Physiologically Modify Findings.—1. Sex. 2. Posture. 3. Age. 4. Time of day. 5. Digestion. 6. Altitude. 7. Exercise. 8. Emotion. 9. Obesity. 10. Physical development. 11. Sleep.

Sex.—Systolic blood-pressure is lower in women of the same age as compared to that of men. Estimates of this difference vary from 5 to 15 mm. Hg. The average difference may be considered as 10 mm. Hg. The diastolic pressure level in women follows the rule of systolic; therefore the pulse pressure in women is a trifle smaller than that of men.

Alvarez states that in women before the menopause the readings of pressure in one person or in a group of persons shows less variation than in the male. During the menopause disturbances in internal glandular secretory balance gives rise to sudden often marked variations in pressure with a definite tendency toward periods of hypertension.

Posture.—In the recumbent posture in normals, the systolic pressure in the arm and leg is identical; any difference in level between the arm and leg at the time of observation will be practically equal the weight of an equivalent amount of blood, therefore the pressure in the brachial artery will be lowest in the upright posture, highest in the head-down posture, the recumbent posture being intermediate.

Age.—The systolic blood-pressure progressively rises from infancy to old age—in which change the diastolic pressure participates with the exception that the diastolic pressure is slightly slower in its elevation. From early childhood to the end of the period of normal physical activity of the individual this results in a relatively larger pulse pressure before 40 years of age.

Athleticism.—Athletes in training and those of marked physique will be found to have a higher systolic and a larger pulse pressure for a given age than the less actively inclined.

Under average conditions the table of Woley (Fig. 82, p. 211) will be useful for comparison. These figures appear to more accurately represent the normal averages than many tables to be found in the literature, one of which gives the average systolic pressure between the ages of 60–70 as 180 mm. Hg. Wilkner's (1916) figures for the aged are reliable and are as follows: 50 to 60 years—141.4 mm. Hg.; 61 to 70—150.4 mm. Hg. 71 and over 155.7 mm. Hg. Bowes (1917) finds the systolic blood-pressure in women slightly above that of men between 50 and 90 years of age.

INFANCY AND CHILDHOOD

Up to 1 year sp. 70 to 80 mm. Hg.	Up to 10 years 90 to 105 mm. Hg.
Up to 2 years sp. 75 to 90 mm. Hg.	Up to 13 years 95 to 110 mm. Hg.
Up to 4 years sp. 80 to 95 mm. Hg.	Up to 15 years 95 to 115 mm. Hg.
Up to 6 years sp. 80 to 100 mm. Hg.	Up to 17 years 95 to 120 mm. Hg.

With the establishment of puberty in normal children the pressures are usually the same as those in young adults.

NORMAL AVERAGE SYSTOLIC PRESSURE

TABLE, ADULTS, 19,339 NORMALS, FISHER, 1914

AGE, YEARS	MM. HG.
15 to 20	119.85
21 to 25	122.76
26 to 30	123.65
31 to 35	123.74
36 to 40	126.96
41 to 45	128.56
46 to 50	130.57
51 to 60	132.13
56 to 60	134.76

Time of day has a slight effect on blood-pressure, which is of little clinical significance. During sleep there is an average fall of 14 mm. Hg. the lowest systolic occurring during the early hours with a gradual rise toward[1] morning.

Digestion.[1]—The process of digestion brings about a change in the distribution of blood in the body due to an augmented flow toward

the splanchnic area. This of itself would cause a fall in peripheral blood-pressure, such a change is however rarely observed, since increased cardiac output, not only compensates for the opening up of a part of the capillary bed but also increases systolic and pulse pressure by 5 to 10 mm. Hg.

Altitude.[2]—Elevations of less than 6,500 ft. do not appreciably alter systolic pressure in normal persons, although in recent arrivals the pulse rate may be accelerated by as much as 46 per cent. Arterial pressures are higher after a given amount of work, at high (14,000 ft.) than at lower levels. The change being most marked in new-comers. The average systolic pressure rise, after a short sharp run, may equal 60 mm. Hg. while the return to normal is delayed.*

Exercise.[3]—Generally speaking the physical development, customary physical activity and age are factors which determine the degree and duration of systolic elevation of blood-pressure in the normal person following moderate exertion. The height and the persistence of the rise being less for a given amount of work in the athlete as compared with other persons.

One to three flights of average stairs at moderate speed may be expected to cause a rise in systolic pressure from 15 to 40 mm. Hg., with a return to the original level in from 1 to 3 minutes after rest. The diastolic pressure being practically unaffected, the pulse pressure will be found to be greatly augmented.

In young persons no great dependence from a diagnostic standpoint can be placed upon these findings since the same changes have been noted in persons with known compensated heart disease.

Strenuous exercise produces a gradual rise in systolic pressure and an increase in pulse pressure up to a certain point; after which no further change will occur until, if the effort be further prolonged, the systolic pressure will begin to fall, the pulse pressure to diminish and the subjects will show other signs of profound exhaustion.

Emotion and Excitement.[4]—The efficiency of the vasomotor system is the all important factor in stability of the blood-pressure, in man. An emotional or nervous individual may be found to have a systolic pressure of 180 mm. Hg. and a pulse pressure of ½ this at the time of his first examination and yet repeatedly thereafter give readings in perfect accord with the normal for his age. Such individuals often have sudden transient unexplained variations which must be carefully valued in order to avoid placing too great dependence on them.

Bilateral Variation.[5]—The possibility of persistent differences in pressure readings in the two arms should not be forgotten. Such a difference in the otherwise normal person is not uncommon in those of poor vasomotor tone. Differences of 15 mm. Hg. in both the systolic and diastolic pressure are not uncommon, while variations of from 5 to 10 mm. Hg. are usual. When the difference is little it will generally be found in favor of the arm taken first regardless of the position of the patient or the arm used first. Some observers claim that they are unable to verify these statements holding that the physiologic difference is so small that it could not be measured. From the pathologic standpoint this condition when met has usually a definite clinical significance (see below).

Altitude.—Recent clinical studies would seem to show that change from low to high altitude causes a rise in blood-pressure in normal individuals, which becomes less marked as the subject becomes accustomed to the change.[2]

*Cheley and Sisco, Am. Jour. Physiol., XL, 3–373.

Obesity.—Under ordinary circumstances this state does not materially affect the readings. The extremely obese may show subnormal pressures.

Hypertension, High Blood-pressure and Hypotension.—Clinically a definite line of differentiation should be drawn between **high blood-pressure** and **hypertension.** This will materially reduce the present confusion surrounding the many conditions in which the systolic blood-pressure is found to be above normal. The distinction should be based upon the presence or absence of permanent alteration in the arterial coats. The term **hypertension** being applied, as first suggested by Brunton (1906), to that condition of elevated blood-pressure in which the muscular tone of the arteries is exaggerated, without permanent alteration in the arterial coats. Such an elevation in pressure is capable of restoration to normal provided the toxic and irritating substances in the blood stream which gives rise to the increased vascular tension can be removed. The term **high blood-pressure** should only be used in describing a condition in which an elevated systolic pressure has existed long enough to cause a permanent pathologic change in the arterial walls. Usually it is not difficult to separate the two types of elevated systolic blood-pressure, although borderline cases may for a time be difficult to differentiate. This difficulty will be largely eliminated if the physician will remember that true hypertension being unaccompanied by permanent arterial change will usually be entirely eliminated by appropriate measures, while any systolic elevation due to permanent arterial change cannot be so influenced. As a corollary, most cases of markedly elevated systolic pressure, are when first seen, a combination of these two factors, which under appropriate management will respond by a moderate fall in systolic pressure, in part due to a reduction of the coexisting hypertension and in part to a modification of cardiac activity involving rate and volume output.

Hypotension.—A word of caution in the use of the term hypotension seems necessary, since we recognize the existence of a hypotension accompanied by the usual clinical evidence of this condition, in spite of which the systolic pressure reading remains constantly above the normal systolic for the individual. This condition will be found in those cases in whom prolonged high blood-pressure has eventually given away, through failure of the myocardium, occasioning a fall in systolic pressure, usually accompanied by a relative reduction in pulse pressure, to a point below the patient's previous maximum, but still above the patient's estimated normal. This is a **relative hypotension.** True **hypotension** may be said to be present in any case in which the systolic pressure remains constantly at or below the lowest normal average systolic pressure of the individual of a given age and in whom there has never been a demand for an elevated systolic pressure. One hundred millimeters or less is hypotension broadly speaking, although this level is modified slightly by the age of the individual.

Pathologic Variations in Blood-pressure.—For convenience in reference those conditions that usually show distinct blood-pressure changes have been arranged alphabetically instead of in the customary grouping of previous editions.

Albuminuria of Bence-Jones.—Seven cases reported by Miller and Baetjer (1918) all had a systolic pressure above 150 mm. Hg. while two averaged 180 mm. Hg.

Albuminuria, Orthostatic.—The chief characteristic is a small pulse pressure without marked change in systolic pressure. The small pulse pressure being considered by Mason and Erickson (1918) to be the cause of the albuminuria, since in five cases reported by them the albuminuria

varied inversely as the pulse pressure regardless of the posture of the patient.

Amyloid Disease of the Kidney.—Hirose (1918) reports fifteen cases in which blood-pressure studies were made. The systolic was found to be normal or below in all but one.

Angina Pectoris.—The systolic blood-pressure is variable; between attacks it is rarely above normal unless associated with general arterial change or nephritis or both; during the attack a systolic rise of from 15 to 20 millimeters may be met.

Aortic Insufficiency.—An absolute diagnosis of aortic insufficiency may be made with the sphygmomanometer, even when a murmur cannot be heard and the pulse rate is normal. In no other known condition does the pulse pressure approximate the systolic pressure. In this disease, systolic pressures of from 125 to 160 mm. Hg. with diastolic pressures of from zero to 40 mm. Hg. are the rule. It has been stated that simultaneous readings made upon the arm and leg, with the patient recumbent, show a higher systolic pressure in the leg than in the arm, while the diastolic pressure is not greatly modified. Contradictory evidence by reliable investigators makes this assertion of doubtful accuracy. Williamson (1921) states that there is no evidence yet presented to show that the difference in arm and leg readings usually encountered, is the result of this disease, and that repeated comparative observations will show that this difference in a given individual may vary from time to time while in a certain percentage the arm reading will be found equal to or higher than the leg pressure.

Arteriosclerosis.—It should be remembered that pathologic changes occurring in the arteries include atheroma which is a degenerative process and sclerosis which is a proliferative or hyperplastic process. Many authorities believe that atheroma is the final change occurring in sclerosis, however, this may be, it is common to find atheromatous patches at autopsy in the vessels of persons known to have had a normal blood-pressure shortly before death. Generally speaking the systolic blood-pressure in arteriosclerosis is increased while the diastolic pressure remains stationary or tends to follow the systolic but to a less extent, thereby, producing an increased pulse pressure. The effect of arteriosclerosis upon blood-pressure depends upon the extent and distribution of the arterial change. Localized peripheral sclerosis may not appreciably influence the reading, while a generalized sclerosis may give rise to systolics of from 200 to 280 mm. Hg. or over and to pulse pressures equalling one-half of the systolic. It should be borne in mind that the majority of high pressure arteriosclerotics eventually show heart strain and diminished kidney function, each of which have their influence upon the blood-pressure findings. Inequality on the two sides are common in this disease. Bowes (1917) reports this inequality in 75 per cent. of 150 cases studied.

Arthritis, Chronic.—The toxemias and infections leading to the production of chronic arthritis rarely fail to leave their mark upon other structures, so that myocardial, arterial and nephritic degenerations usually coexist. For this reason studies in blood-pressure as bearing upon the arthritic process are unimportant. In a series of seventy cases studied by Swett (1917) the average systolic pressure was 152 mm. Hg.

Auricular Fibrillation.—When the irregularity is great neither the systolic nor the diastolic pressure can be accurately determined; in less severe cases the systolic will vary between normal and 185 mm. Hg. while the diastolic varies between 60 and 110 mm. Hg. In the majority of cases owing in part at least, to the small systolic output incident to the

cardiac delirium the pulse pressure will be found to be small. No relation has yet been established between changes in blood-pressure and the onset of fibrillation. The presence of valvular lesions, arteriosclerosis and diminished kidney activity must always be taken into consideration in determining the importance of the blood-pressure findings.

Coronary Thrombosis.—In the absence of generalized arterial disease or chronic nephritis the systolic blood-pressure is not elevated, but is usually found to be below the normal with the pulse pressure diminished. In unfavorable cases the systolic pressure and the pulse pressure tend to become progressively smaller (see p. 332).

Dilatation of Arch of the Aorta.—The systolic pressure is always elevated, frequently above 200 mm. Hg. while the pulse pressure is always increased although less so than in aortic insufficiency.

Exophthalmic Goitre.—The systolic blood-pressure is rarely below normal except in the presence of extreme tachycardia. Systolic readings range between 130 and 160 mm. Hg. with a persistent increase in pulse pressure which may equal 50 per cent. or more or the systolic. Taussig (1916) reports a persistent difference of from 22 to 56 mm. Hg. between the leg and arm readings, while in non-toxic goitre this difference is absent.

Heart Block.—See Auricular Fibrillation (p. 238).

Infections, Acute.—In all acute infections of which grippe and the exanthemata may be taken as types, the systolic pressure tends to rise during the invasion, remaining above normal during the febrile stage if short, tending to return to or fall below normal, if this period is prolonged. The diastolic pressure follows the systolic although to a less marked degree, This gives rise to an early increase in pulse pressure. A persistently increased pulse pressure even with a fallen systolic should be considered a favorable indication pointing towards recovery, whereas on the other hand a low systolic and a high diastolic are frequently of bad omen (see below). During convalescence the pressures rapidly tend to return to normal.

Menopause.—A vascillating hypertension involving the diastolic pressure is usually seen at this time, although some authorities are inclined to believe that, apart from the changes due to vasomotor instability any definite alterations in blood-pressure met are due to preexisting or concomitant determinable causes. Systolic pressures of 160 mm. are frequent, while pulse pressures very often equal 50 per cent. of the systolic, even where there is little change in the average systolic level, the pulse pressure is large.

Nephritis, Acute.—In acute nephritis an unexplained rise in systolic pressure may be the first evidence of the onset of the disease, especially is this so when the kidney involvement develops in the course of an acute infection. The systolic averages in the early stages are usually between 135 and 180 mm. Hg., while with convulsions it may reach 200 or more. Diurnal variations are marked; at times amounting to as much as 60 mm. Hg. The peak of pressure is usually reached in the evening and a sudden fall in systolic pressure may occasionally be so great that an effect resembling the crisis of pneumonia is produced. The hypertension frequently precedes the evidence of impaired renal function as indicated by functional tests. The duration of elevated blood-pressure in a successfully treated case rarely exceeds ten days after the beginning of treatment, although the development of permanent kidney damage may prevent a return to normal. The onset of uremia is usually preceded by

a further rise in systolic pressure, but it should be remembered that definite alterations in blood-pressure may not necessarily bear a relation to the urinary findings, the severity of the disease or the possible supervention of uremia.

The diastolic pressure follows the systolic pressure but to less extent, the resulting pulse pressure may equal 50 per cent. or more of the systolic. In fatal cases the systolic pressure tends to fall and the pulse pressure is greatly diminished shortly before death. In children these variations are similar while the actual figures are of course smaller.

Nephritis, Chronic.—It is difficult to assign definite values to blood-pressure findings in chronic nephritis because of the various types of this disease met and because of the great frequency of coincident arterial and cardiac involvement. The more nearly the nephritis corresponds to the diffuse or parenchymatous type in which the involvement is chiefly tubular, the less will be the blood-pressure changes, while the more nearly the renal pathology approximates the arteriosclerotic kidney, the higher will be the systolic blood-pressure reading. This latter type of kidney is usually met in persons of advanced years. The arteries are hard and tortuous, compensatory cardiac changes are present; the urine will rarely show more than an occasional faint trace of albumin and very few casts, while the systolic pressures are usually over 200 mm. Hg. In spite of which these patients usually live to old age. The association of cardiac impairment usually modifies the systolic rise, on the other hand the coincidence of generalized arteriosclerosis further elevates systolic pressure. In this type pressures of 280 and even 300 mm. Hg. may be met.

The diastolic pressure tends to rise and in the majority of even moderately well developed cases of chronic contracted kidney remains persistently above 100. The greater the arterial involvement, other things being equal, the larger will the pulse pressure be. Many fatal cases may show relatively low pressure. These probably belong to the type of secondary hypotension with which the readings previously have been higher but where at the time of observation cardiac changes have advanced sufficiently to modify the renal effect upon the blood-pressure.

Pregnancy.—There is a tendency to depend too greatly upon blood-pressure variations for evidence of the presence or absence of toxemia in pregnancy. Competent opinions still differ as to the danger level, some authorities placing the high safe systolic pressure at 130 mm. Hg., while others are willing in the absence of any other evidence to place the limit at 160 mm. Hg. The only safe ground is to consider the blood-pressure finding as one of many valuable signs which, even when the systolic is elevated, may or may not point toward the development of or the existence of a toxic condition. The average systolic pressure compiled from the averages reported by a number of observers for women during pregnancy is 115 to 120 mm. Hg. systolic. The diastolic pressure is slightly in excess of the usual 1:2:3 ratio. Generally speaking a systolic pressure between 100 and 130 may be considered normal and anything above or below this, if repeatedly met, should be looked upon with suspicion, although a pressure above 130 may have no significance, especially if occurring in a woman over 30 years of age who has already borne children, neither does a systolic pressure below 90 necessarily carry a serious import. A gradually rising systolic pressure is of more importance than one remaining throughout pregnancy near the upper limit, although it should be borne in mind that during a normal pregnancy there is a tendency for

the systolic pressure to gradually rise 10 or 15 millimeters during the last six weeks. After delivery there is an immediate fall in systolic pressure in which the diastolic participates. This fall lasts for some hours, to be followed by another rise. In cases of toxemia these same variations occur with the addition that the secondary rise may exceed normal, and, if there has been only moderate temporary kidney alteration will remain up for two or three weeks. A definite nephritis may cause an elevation lasting for several months. The edema occurring in pregnancy is entirely independent of blood-pressure level. The rise in systolic pressure in toxemia usually precedes the development of other symptoms. It should be remembered that certain types of toxemia, probably of liver origin, may show no elevation; indeed there may be a decided fall in systolic pressure. There is no definite relation between albuminuria and systolic pressure level during pregnancy, it being generally believed that a rising systolic is a better indication of toxemia than the presence of a trace of albumin.

The highest pressure recorded in toxemia without convulsions is 225 mm. Hg., and the lowest 80 mm. Hg. The highest pressure recorded in toxemia with convulsions is over 300 mm. Hg. In eclampsia with efficient treatment, with or without evacuation of the uterus, a favorable prognosis may often be based upon a falling systolic pressure, with the exceptions that hemorrhage and shock may each produce a sudden fall. The diastolic pressure is somewhat elevated in toxemia and eclampsia, but not so much as the systolic, hence the pulse pressure is increased. It is bad practice to cease blood-pressure observations during the puerperium, especially in toxic cases since daily blood-pressure observations may enable the physician to reach a correct ultimate prognosis in 85 per cent. of cases.

Pericarditis.—The tendency of systolic pressure in pericarditis is downward, the amount of fall depending roughly upon the degree of cardiac embarrassment produced. The diastolic pressure undergoes but slight change, thereby producing a small pulse pressure. Improvement in such cases will be shown by a return toward normal levels.

Pleural Effusion and Pneumothorax.—Williamson (1917) reports a new physical sign in the above conditions. This investigator states that the systolic pressure in the leg may be from 10 to 20 or more millimeters *below* the systolic arm pressure on the same side.

No definite changes have been reported in the systolic or diastolic pressures in the above conditions.

Pneumonia.—The changes in blood-pressure in pneumonia follow the rules already outlined under the head of acute infections.

The chief interest in connection with pneumonia are the recent findings which question the reliability of Gibson's rule. Competent authorities report cases in which the systolic pressure remained higher in fatal cases than in those that recovered. Newburgh and Minot state that the rule applies in but 43 per cent., it being obvious that myocarditis, arteriosclerosis, nephritis and obesity may be complicating factors. The blood-pressure does not necessarily fall before a fatal issue.

The average readings in pneumonia will be between 100 and 120 mm. Hg. systolic. The pulse pressure will be increased during the febrile stage and may be diminshed during convalesence. A systolic pressure as low as 90 millimeters has been followed by recovery.

Poliomyelitis.—The after results of this disease upon the blood-pressure in the affected member should be borne in mind. The systolic pressure may be much reduced in extremities long paralyzed, the depres-

sion being proportionate to the amount of loss of function and atrophy of the part.

Syphilis.—The blood-pressure findings in syphilis depend entirely upon the seat of the chronic infection; kidney and arterial involvement affecting the findings as already indicated. Williamson (1916) reports a case of syphilis of the liver in which the first observation showed a systolic pressure of 235 mm. Hg. and a diastolic pressure of 135 mm. Hg. During and after treatment the averages were systolic pressure 200 and diastolic pressure 130. The modern treatment of this disease affects blood-pressure in the following manner: during the injection, excitement and the mental attitude of the patient tend to elevate both the systolic and diastolic readings, which will then usually remain elevated a few days, after which the systolic and diastolic pressures fall below the pre-treatment level; the systolic fall being slightly greater than the diastolic fall. Successful antisyphilitic treatment is usually followed by a consistently lower systolic reading and an improved pulse pressure ratio.

Trench Feet.—Sweet, Norris and Wilmer (1918) report a marked increase in systolic pressure in the leg as compared with that of the arm, which they ascribe to incomplete arterial spasm present in this disease. The leg pressure is increased in direct proportion to the severity of the disease, amounting according to these observers to from 10 to 30 millimeters.

Typhoid Fever.—The importance of blood-pressure observations in typhoid fever is well known, although a subsequent tendency to permanent blood-pressure elevation has been but recently emphasized. The effect upon blood-pressure is generally comparable to the severity of the disease. Lowered systolic pressure occurring in 82 per cent. of mild cases, 94 per cent. of moderately severe cases and 100 per cent. of severe cases (Rolleston 1916). The diastolic pressure is also reduced but to a less extent. The resulting diminished pulse pressure is probably toxic rather than myocardial. There is a slight rise in pressure before relapses which, however, have little effect upon the general blood-pressure curve, while there is no regular rise during convalesence as noted after other acute infections. Hemorrhage if severe is accompanied by a sudden fall of from 18 to 30 mm. Hg. and if not fatal a persistently lower level with an increased pulse pressure is maintained for some days. Pleurisy has been reported as causing a slight temporary rise, probably directly referable to the pain produced. The maximum fall in systolic pressure in typhoid fever may vary from 10 to 50 mm. Hg. while such a pronounced fall as 50 mm. Hg. has been followed by recovery. Thayer (1904) and Groedel (1915) both report the frequent accurrence of persistently elevated systolic pressure in old typhoids, this according to Groedel occurred in nearly 50 per cent. in the 27 post-typhoid cases studied.

Surgery.—Routine Tests.—During the past few years surgeons have again returned to the use of the sphygmomanometer in the estimation of the fitness of the surgical risk. When employed in this way the previous average pressures of the patient are of great value. Therefore if these are not already known before the patient presents for operation they should be determined whenever possible by a series of tests made on several days preceding the operation. The importance of this preliminary study increases in proportion to the obvious doubtfulness of the risk, the degree of traumatism necessitated by the operation and the duration of the anesthesia period.

Cashman (1917) advocates that preoperative patients should be subjected to the strain of a definite amount of work before, during and after which its effect upon systolic, diastolic and pulse pressure is observed. Such a test does not indicate whether the cardio-vascular weakness is myocardial or toxic or merely the result of exhaustion and fatigue, but it does at times give evidence of cardio-vascular instability where the ordinary cardio-vascular study fails to give evidence of any weakness.

The indications which may be taken as favorable in preoperative blood-pressure study are similar to those which indicate a normal cardio-vascular condition under other circumstances. The systolic pressure alone is of slight value, the diastolic pressure being less easily modified by transitory influence is a more valuable guide although less valuable than the pulse pressure, which is the essential factor. Variation in the pulse pressure during operation offers the earliest danger signal.

Anesthesia.—There is no anesthetic in use at the present time which is capable of maintaining a normal blood-pressure formula throughout its administration, therefore, a slight progressive fall is to be expected during anesthesia, and is not usually of much significance. It is the sudden depressions in systolic accompanied by a diminishing pulse pressure and a rising pulse that calls for concern.

High pressure before Operation.—A preoperative systolic of 170 to 180 mm. Hg. points clearly to the necessity for immediate investigation in an effort to explain the abnormality, so also does a pulse pressure of 50 per cent. or more of the systolic, while a systolic of 100 mm. Hg. or less is always a matter of concern to the surgeon about to administer the anesthetic. Operation should not be done in shock following injurv until the blood-pressure has been allowed to recover.

Factors Influencing Blood-pressure at the Time of Operation.—(1) Psychic and emotional state of the patient.

(2) Primary stage of anesthesia, producing systolic rise of from 10 to 30 mm. with an equal and even greater increase in pulse pressure.

(3) Degree and duration of anesthesia.

Prolonged anesthesia in the absence of shock should not cause more than a very gradual fall in systolic pressure. Normal complete anesthesia permits the values to return to the original level. Overdosing by the anesthetist is associated with a fall in the systolic and a dimunition of pulse pressure.

(4) Struggling causes a sharp, temporary rise in systolic pressure.

(5) The degree of traumatism and the manipulation of organs occurring during the operative procedures will tend to increase and to hasten the systolic fall.

(6) Unnecessary loss of body fluids before operation or by hemorrhage or through the skin during operation hastens the occurrence of shock.

(7) The position of the patient—any posture other than the recumbent if prolonged tends to influence the systolic pressure unfavorably. That the effect of the Trendelenburg posture is most serious is doubted by some authorities.

Effect of Operative Procedures.—The influence of ordinary operative procedures on the blood-pressure will generally be in direct proportion to the abnormality of the original blood-pressure values as well as to the duration and amount of traumatism incident to the operative technic. Any interference with respiration will cause an abrupt asphyxial rise in systolic pressure.

Head Injuries.—Of severe head injuries about one-third show an elevated systolic pressure accompanied by a slow pulse and of these

about 75 per cent. show pressure sufficiently high to endanger life unless operation is done immediately. Opening the brain case—is always followed by an immediate fall in systolic pressure. In severe brain injuries with advanced medullary compression, the vasomotor mechanism is so interfered with that it is unable to maintain the systolic pressure above the greatly increased intracranial tension and death promptly ensues. Even with immediate operation, not over 25 per cent. recover.

Abdominal Wounds.—The greater the abdominal traumatism the lower the systolic pressure. This is usually accompanied by a small pulse pressure and other evidence of shock. Here all operative procedures are contra-indicated until appropriate measures have succeeded in at least partly restoring the circulatory equilibrium.

Shock.—From the experimental standpoint shock may be defined as a condition associated with a systolic pressure of 50 mm. Hg. or less, and while there are cases on record where the systolic has fallen to 30 mm. Hg. and the pulse pressure to 10 mm. Hg. which have finally recovered, nevertheless, the critical blood-pressure in surgical shock should be considered 50 mm. Hg. systolic and this pressure if maintained for more than a very few moments, often fails to respond to appropriate treatment.

Surgical Convalescence.—An uncomplicated wound running a favorable course shows a sustained systolic pressure. A sudden fall usually indicates the onset of sepsis or occult bleeding. A steadily rising or a maintained adequately systolic level, even in the presence of a serious wound is a good sign.

Anesthesia.—*Spinal anesthesia* is often attended by an alarming fall in both systolic and pulse pressures, while any change in posture may easily precipitate shock. Under *local anesthesia* serious operations are regularly attended with wide but transient variations in systolic and diastolic pressures.

Ether anesthesia produces very little effect upon either the systolic or diastolic pressure except during the stage of excitement when the systolic pressure may rise from 10 to 40 millimeters and the pulse pressure be increased disproportionately. Cyanosis, retching and vomiting during anesthesia are accompanied by a sharp systolic rise of from 10 to 30 millimeters. Ether properly administered to a good surgical risk may be continued for at least seven hours before the vasoconstrictor mechanism is sufficiently weakened to cause a dangerous fall in systolic pressure.

Chloroform anesthesia from the start is accompanied by a persistent and progressive reduction of all blood-pressure values, while its effect is to hasten the occurrence of and to increase the degree of surgical shock after injury.

Nitrous Oxide Anesthesia.—Nitrous oxide and oxygen is the safest anesthetic to administer after severe traumatism and where the occurrence of shock is probable, because the tendency of this anesthetic is to produce a systolic rise which may be maintained throughout the period of anesthesia by an appropriate percentage of oxygen.

Formulas and Factors for Determining Heart Strength, Output, Reserve, etc.—A number of clinicians have from time to time endeavored to combine the various blood-pressure values and the pulse rate into certain formulas whereby they endeavor to reduce to a mathematical basis cardiac efficiency, the volume output of the heart and cardiac work. A careful study of these schemes forces us to the conclusion that there employment is more likely to be misleading than otherwise and further that, since they are based upon false premises, while frequently ignoring entirely certain important physiologic factors,

they are without exception of no value. The situation is well summarized in the words of S. Calvin Smith who in a recent article said "To arrive at an estimate of heart muscle efficiency merely by reading the scale of a blood-pressure apparatus; or to attempt to mathematically juggle these readings into terms of heart muscle efficiency, is to lay oneself open to monumental error."

THE SPHYGMOGRAPH

The sphygmograph is an instrument for recording graphically the frequency, volume, force and tension of the pulse, together with other general characteristics.

The *sphygmograph* was devised by Marey, and since its introduction many valuable modifications have been added to it, until, at present, Dudgeon has produced a clinical device that serves fairly well, although it is by no means without objectionable features. Irrespective of what instrument may be used, the actual value of the tracing or record depends greatly upon the personal skill of the operator; consequently the sphygmograph occupies a place widely different from that of many other clinical instruments, and records obtained through its use will, in the hands of skilled individuals, prove to be practically constant and reliable.

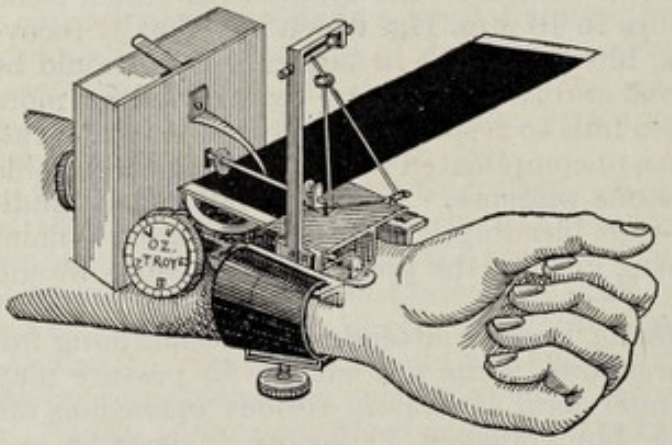


FIG. 83.—THE DUDGEON SPHYGMOGRAPH IN POSITION.

The clinician learns to recognize practically all the peculiarities of the human pulse by palpation of the radial artery, but despite this fact he is forced to be more careful by comparing the pulse with its written record. Again, the sphygmographic record may be preserved in conjunction with the clinical history, and in this way serve as a valuable datum.

Technic.—By careful observation of the sphygmograph we find that it consists, first, of clockwork, carrying a narrow strip of smoked paper; second, of a writing needle; and third, of a support or canvas by the use of which it is held in position over the artery.

(*a*) The clockwork is first wound by turning a special button.

(*b*) The patient is directed to place his forearm and hand in a comfortable position, expose the wrist at the site of the radial artery, flex the fingers gently, and allow the muscles of the forearm and hand to be relaxed.

(*c*) To apply the sphygmograph slip the band or support over the patient's wrist, when the free end of the band is then passed through a special retaining clamp (Fig. 83). The metallic box of the instrument should be directed away from the hand.

(*d*) The next step is to adjust the sphygmograph so that the bulging button, which connects the levers, is directly over the radial artery, and, while the instrument is now held in position by the operator's left hand, the band that holds it to the wrist is drawn through the clamp until the instrument is sufficiently tight so that the writing needle plays easily with each pulsation of the artery. Whenever the last-named result is obtained, fasten the clamp, and the instrument is ready for use.

(*e*) Place a strip of smoked paper (Fig. 83) between the rollers of the instrument and directly underneath the needle.

(*f*) There is a special thumb-screw for the purpose of gaging the pressure, and this must be adjusted to effect the best possible amplitude of vibration.

(*g*) Steady the patient's hand gently, start the clockwork, and permit it to continue until the smoked paper has entirely passed through the rollers; then stop the instrument.

In Dudgeon's instrument the machinery is so regulated that a five-inch slip of smoked paper will pass in ten seconds, and by a simple matter of calculation the pulse-rate a minute is attained.

Preparation of Paper.—Smoked paper is usually employed in the making of sphygmographic tracings, and some writers recommend that this paper be glazed upon one side and rough upon the other. The paper must first be cut in strips, approximately ⅞ of an inch in width, and six or seven inches in length.

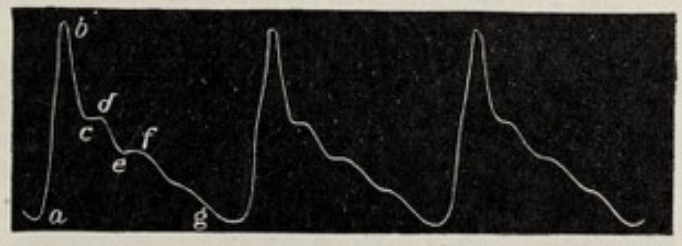


FIG. 84.—NORMAL PULSE TRACING.

ab, Up-stroke or percussion stroke; *bg*, descending or catacrotic limb; *abc*, percussion wave; *cde*, predicrotic or tidal wave; *efg*, dicrotic or recoil wave; *bcd*, protidal notch; *def*, aortic notch.

The glazed surface of the record paper is blackened by holding it over the flame produced by burning a small piece of gum camphor. Various devices may be employed for the purpose of keeping the paper exposed to the smoke, but the method most often employed is that of a strip of tin so bent upon itself as to catch and hold the narrow strip of paper at each end. Care should be taken not to blacken the paper too deeply, lest the lines of the tracing will be irregular and often indistinct.

Preservation of Record.—Write upon the record with a broken pen or a needle, or upon the unsmoked portion, with pen and ink, the patient's name, important features connected with the case, the date, and the name of the artery from which the tracing was made.

The record is preserved by dipping the smoked paper into a solution of shellac or into a solution of benzoin. The method is as follows: Grasp one end of the sphygmographic record by a pair of forceps and draw slowly, record side up, through the solution, and permit it to dry in the air. When records are likely to be handled or are to be preserved for a long period, it is well to give two or more coats of shellac.

Interpretation of Tracing.—*Normal Pulse Tracing.*—As the result of each contraction of the left ventricle a volume of blood is forced first into the aorta, which is appreciably distended, and the distended impulse is further transmitted by a characteristic wave-like motion to the remote portions of the arterial system.

The distending impulse elevates the button of the lever, causing the so-called percussion stroke (*a*, *b*) (up-stroke, Fig. 84). The distending impulse has been exaggerated by the sphygmographic system of levers, and has been thrown too high; therefore, the lever falls by its own weight to a point too low; consequently it is again caught and elevated by the tidal blood to form the writing of the tidal wave (*c*, *d*, *e*). Further descent is again interrupted at *e*, forming the so-called dicrotic wave (*e*, *f*, *g*), which is dependent upon the recoil of blood from the closure of the aortic leaflets.

The normal pulse tracing (Fig. 84) will display the following characteristics:

(*a*) The percussion stroke, which is nearly vertical and of moderate amplitude.

(*b*) The apex or summit, which is fairly acute.

(*c*) Gradual descent.

(*d*) A small tidal wave.

(*e*) A distinct dicrotic wave (Fig. 84).

Features of the Sphygmographic Record to Be Observed with Reference to Its Clinical Significance.—(1) The characteristics of the percussion stroke, particularly its height, and whether or not it is vertical or inclined.

(2) Is the apex pointed, rounded, or unusually broad?

(3) Is the tidal wave conspicuous, scarcely perceptible, or absent? Also observe the same characteristics with reference to the dicrotic wave.

(4) Do the successive strokes occur regularly, irregularly, or do they intermit? Is the line of descent regular?

(5) Is the character of the base line or line connecting the bases of the different beats straight, curved, or irregular?

Clinical Significance of Variations in the Pulse Tracing.—Percussion (Up-stroke).—(*a*) *A long up-stroke* is observed when a large volume is present, and is also significant of a sudden quick systole or of a relaxed condition of the arteries. It is a feature of low tension and of aortic regurgitation. (See Fig. 85.)

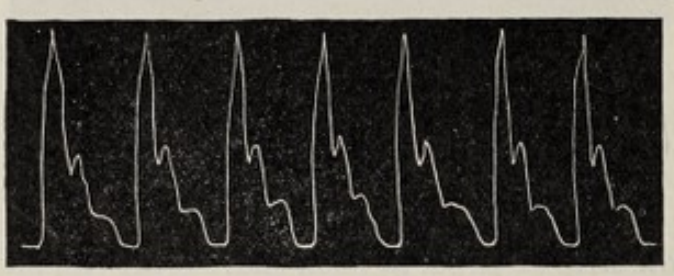


Fig. 85.—Pulse Tracing in a Case of Aortic Regurgitation (William Hoffman).

(*b*) *A short up-stroke* corresponds to a small volume, and is indicative of those conditions in which but a small volume of blood is capable of escaping into the aorta—*e. g.*, aortic stenosis, mitral regurgitation, thoracic aneurism, and conditions causing obstruction to the peripheral circulation. If the up-stroke is vertical, it signifies a quick systole, regardless of whether or not the cardiac muscle is weak or strong or an abnormally large volume of blood is propelled into the aorta at such systole. A vertical up-stroke is frequently seen in association with the unusually low-tension pulse of aortic regurgitation.

(*c*) *An oblique up-stroke* may be obtained where the radial artery is covered with a thick layer of fat. It is also seen where the arterial system fills slowly—*e. g.*, in aortic stenosis, thoracic aneurism, marked arteriosclerosis with high tension, mitral regurgitation, and, rarely, it is a feature of myocardial change of the left ventricle.

The Apex.—(*a*) A pointed apex signifies that there is no obstruction to the peripheral circulation, that the tension is low, or that we are dealing with aortic regurgitation (Fig. 85).

(*b*) A broad apex signifies that the muscle action of the heart is forcible, but that high tension in the peripheral circulation, arteriosclerosis, aneurism, or aortic stenosis is present (Fig. 86).

A broad apex may also result where the sphygmograph is not correctly adjusted, or where the spring exerts too great pressure.

The Tidal Wave.—(*a*) If the tidal wave (Fig. 84) (*c, d, e*) is exaggerated, it indicates that there is high tension due to obstruction in the peripheral circulation (arteriosclerosis), or to aortic stenosis.

(*b*) If the tidal wave is feeble or absent, the heart muscle is usually weak, or possibly there is moderate or low arterial tension in conjunction with mitral or aortic regurgitation.

Dicrotic Wave.—(*a*) When the dicrotic wave is prolonged, the heart is weak or of but moderate strength, and there is low tension in the peripheral circulation. A conspicuous dicrotic wave is less often seen in cases of high tension with cardiac failure.



FIG. 86.—PULSE IN ADVANCED ARTERIOSCLEROSIS.
Slow ascent and descent of the wave; anacrotism—only 32 beats to the minute.

(*b*) If the dicrotic wave is small or absent, obstruction to the peripheral circulation exists; but, despite the high tension, the heart is still strong—a feature of arteriosclerosis, aortic stenosis, aneurism of the great vessels, and, rarely, aortic incompetency.

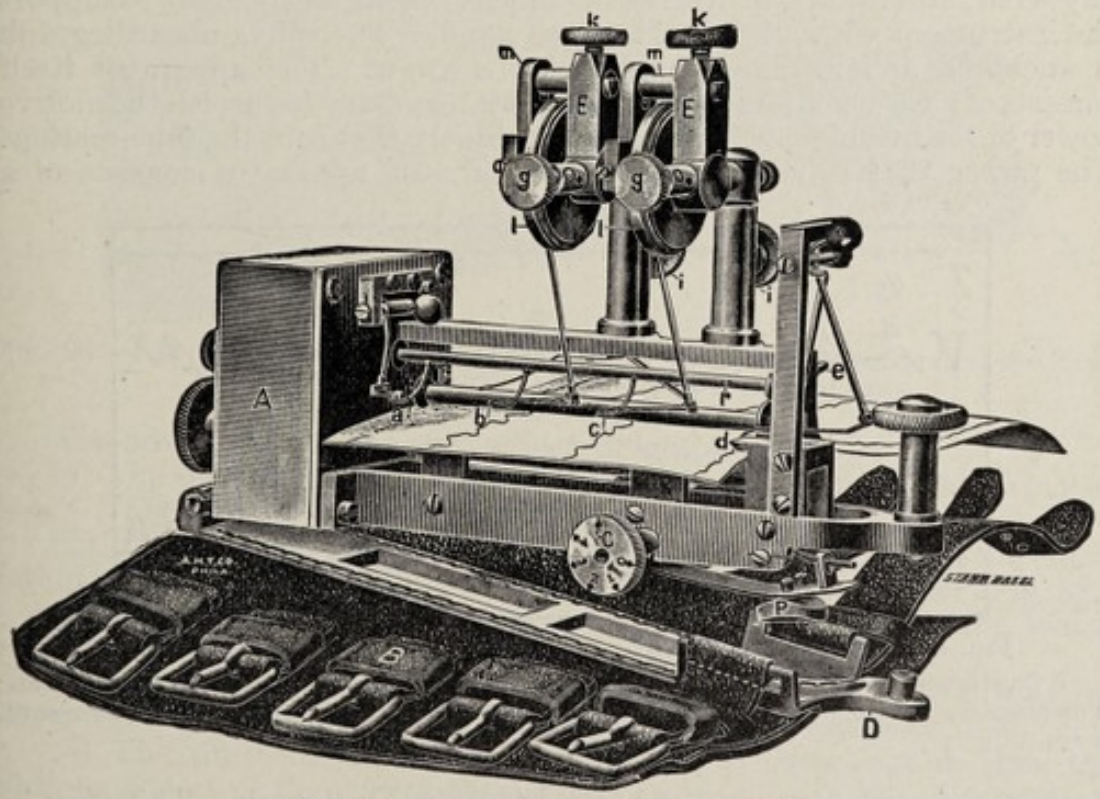


FIG. 87.—JAQUET SPHYGMOCARDIOGRAPH.

Line of Descent.—The line of descent in both mitral stenosis and regurgitation is made conspicuous by its irregularity.

Base Line.—The base line will be found to be irregular, and at times to show some change, corresponding more or less closely to the acts of respiration in those suffering from cardiac disease who also display dyspnea. This last phenomenon may result from involvement of the cerebral center.

The degree of regularity or irregularity displayed by any given sphygmographic record is immediately apparent when other peculiarities that are present are analyzed.

Sphygmocardiograph.—The most reliable apparatus now to be had for obtaining tracings from the various parts of the circulatory system is that known as the sphygmocardiograph of Jaquet. With this apparatus (Fig. 87) it is possible to take tracings of the circulatory system from three points at the same time. It is provided with a time marker, which registers every two-fifths of a second. This method of clinical investigation was introduced by Mackenzie.

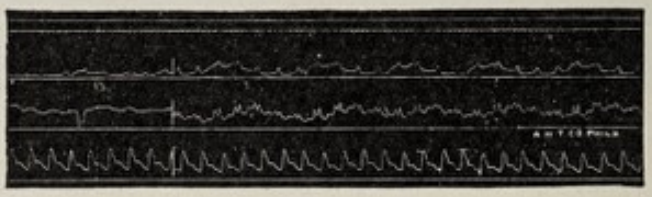


FIG. 88.—TRACING PRODUCED BY THE SPHYGMOCARDIOGRAPH.

The advantages of this instrument are, first, the method by which the apparatus is fastened to the arm. This is effected by means of a metal plate so perforated as to permit the spring to come in contact with the artery. It has the additional advantage of being easily adjusted to almost any wrist, and the width of the attachment is sufficiently great to support the instrument without the aid of the hand. The sphygmocardiograph is anchored and retained in place by a screw. The apparatus itself consists of a case containing the clockwork necessary to furnish the motive power of the machine, as well as the machinery that runs the time-marker. The power that drives the paper through the apparatus consists of a

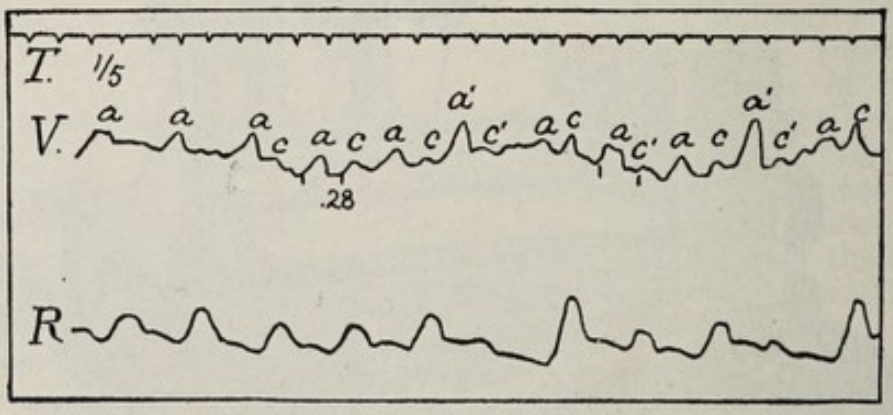


FIG. 89.—POLYGRAPHIC, VENOUS, AND RADIAL CURVES (Mackenzie).

V illustrates the auricular type of venous curve with prolongation of the *a–c* intervals; *R* displays the ventricular type of curve where great irregularity is present; *T*, time record, ⅕ sec.

straight rod with four small wheels driven by clockwork. This may be run at either a slow or a fast rate of speed, the fast one being five times as quick as the slow one. The breadth of this driving surface is so great that the paper, once started, will pass through without catching or binding on the sides.

The writing apparatus consists of a spring and a lever of the type of the old Dudgeon instrument, and takes the tracing from the radial artery. The other two tracings are taken from the small air-capsules covered by rubber, which operate the two levers in the center. The pulsations are

transmitted to these capsules by air through rubber tubes. The fourth writing point is the time-marker. The rubber capsules are so constructed that the rubber is very easily applied, and the adjustment of the levers is readily accomplished.

The tracing from the heart is made by means of a special apparatus called the *cardiograph*. It is adjustable to any shape or form of chest, and can readily be held in position. Pulsations from the jugular veins or from the liver are taken by means of small cone-shaped receivers, similar to those advocated by the late Mackenzie. Although the apparatus is apparently complicated, it may be thoroughly understood with but little study, and it can be operated by any one after a little practice. (See Fig. 90.)

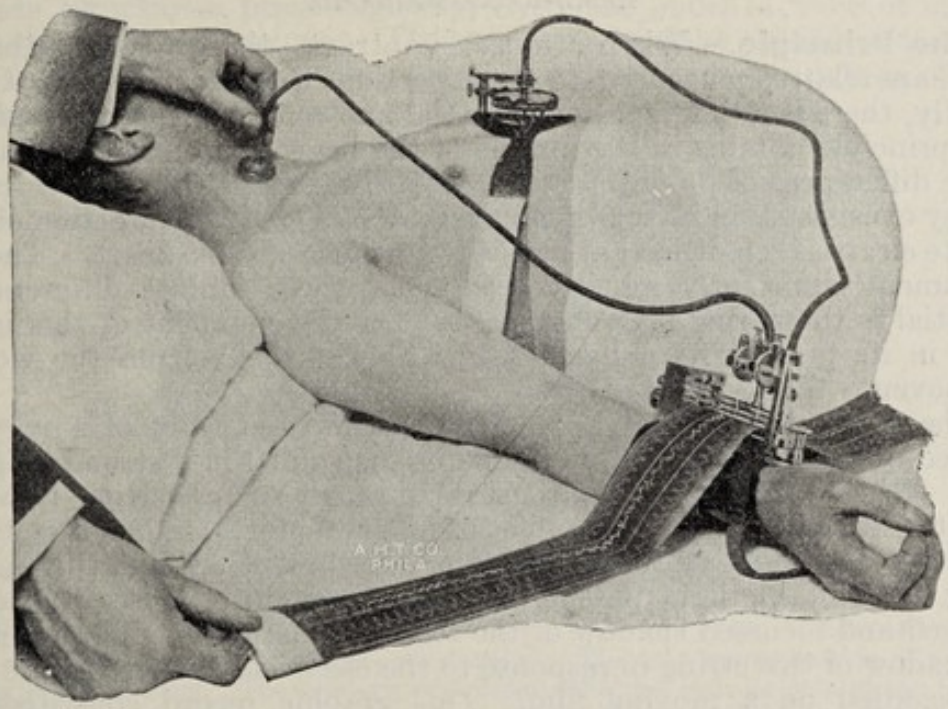


FIG. 90.—JAQUET'S INSTRUMENT IN OPERATION TO RECORD WRITING OF IMPULSE OVER HEART, RIGHT CAROTID, AND RIGHT RADIAL ARTERIES.

The advantages of the sphygmocardiograph are:

(1) The size of the tracing, which is 70 mm. broad and about 30 inches long. (Fig. 88.)

(2) The ability to get the tracings from the various points of the circulation at the same time (Fig. 90) and on the same sheet of paper (Fig. 88).

(3) The mechanical advantage of a firm fixation to the arm, which permits of it being operated successively by one man.

(4) A two-speed drive, permitting the stretching out, as it were, of the pulse-curve, so that the individual characteristics can be studied.

(5) The time-marker, which enables one to figure out in time the various phases of the curves obtained.

The method of using the apparatus is well shown in the accompanying illustration (Fig. 90).

ELECTROCARDIOGRAPHY AND THE CARDIAC ARRHYTHMIAS

The authors are indebted to Dr. Thomas M. McMillan for the revision, and for the electrocardiograms illustrating this chapter.

In the last decade, the importance of the electrocardiograph in the diagnosis and study of heart disease has become very great. Through

the use of this instrument, many of the most perplexing problems of cardiology have been solved. Many workers have combined to bring about this happy result. It is, however, to Sir Thomas Lewis that our greatest thanks are due.

Electrocardiography is no longer for the physiologist alone; its importance in the study and diagnosis of various forms of heart disease is so great that its clinical use is almost universal. Its diagnostic importance is particularly marked in that great group of cardiac disturbances: the Arrhythmias. In these disturbances, while a correct clinical diagnosis can be made in perhaps 80 per cent. of cases, the electrocardiograph is the only absolutely certain method of diagnosis that exists.

ELECTROCARDIOGRAPHY

The Principle.—When a muscle contracts, those portions that are active are relatively negative to those portions that are inactive. Consequently, there is a difference of potential and a flow of electrical current. This principle obtains in the muscle of the heart as in all other muscles. These differences of potential are necessarily very small. Electrocardiography consists in registering graphically the degree and direction of these minute electrical changes that occur in the muscle of the heart. The only instrument sufficiently sensitive to record these minute differences of potential is the String Galvanometer. The development of this instrument in its present form has resulted almost solely from the work of Einthoven.

The modern string galvanometer consists essentially of a very fine silvered quartz string .2–.4μ in diameter suspended in a strong magnetic field. When a minute current passes through such a string it will be deflected at right angles to the lines of magnetic force, in one direction or the other according to the direction of the flow of current through the string. A suitable light passing through a system of lenses projects an enlarged and focussed shadow of the string. The various movements of the shadow of this string in response to the electrical changes in the heart are recorded on a moving film. This graphic record constitutes an electrocardiogram.

In obtaining human electrocardiograms, suitable electrodes are applied to the limbs. Three leads are taken. By means of suitable switches, the right arm and left arm are connected with the galvanometer. This constitutes Lead 1. The connection of the right arm and left leg constitutes Lead 2. Lead 3 is derived from the left arm and left leg connections. By making use of these three leads we "tap" the electrical currents produced in the heart in three directions. As one of the factors that varies the shape and size of the galvanometric deflections is the relation of the position of the electrodes to the heart, the shape of the curves differs to some extent in the three leads.

The Normal Electrocardiogram.—The electrical changes occurring in the heart yield certain definite galvanometric deflections or waves that were named arbitrarily by Einthoven the P, Q, R, S, and T waves (Fig. 91). (There is an additional uncertain deflection, the significance of which is unknown, called the U wave.) The relation of these waves to each other and to certain normal standards is the factor that enables us to determine the normality or abnormality of a tracing.

The most sensitive methods so far devised have shown that the electrical processes that cause the deflections of the electrocardiograph do not occur synchronously with muscular contraction of the heart but actually precede this process by a small but definite fraction of a second.

The electrical process is thought to be associated with the excitation of the muscle to contract, and is therefore spoken of as the "Excitation Wave." It has also been shown, however, that the origin and course of the actual contraction wave is identical with that of the excitation wave. So for clinical purposes, the electrocardiograph shows the origin and course of the contraction wave. This statement as to the relation of the excitation process and the actual contraction wave is the commonly and generally accepted one. There are some workers who do not accept this statement. They believe the difference in time between these processes is apparent and not real, and has appeared because of insufficiently sensitive methods of investigation.

The Auricular Deflection.—While the two auricles anatomically are separate structures, physiologically, from the point of view of electrocardiography, they are one. The excitation process arising at the Sino-auricular node is thought to spread through the musculature of both auricles much as water poured on a flat surface would spread.

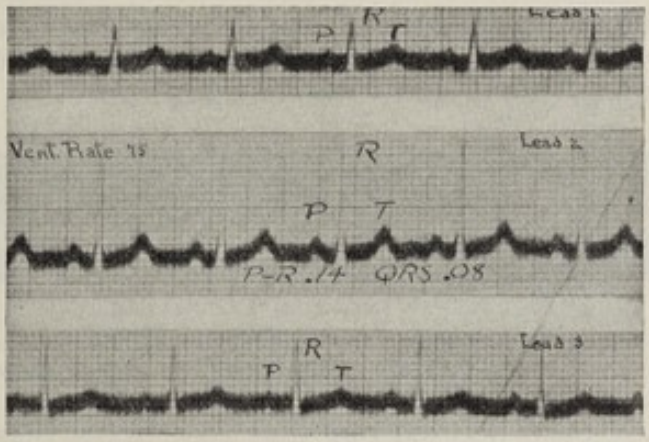


FIG. 91.—NORMAL ELECTROCARDIOGRAM SHOWING THE THREE CUSTOMARY LEADS. In each lead there are three groups of waves. The only representation of auricular activity is the P wave. The primary ventricular deflection consists only of the R wave, the Q wave and the S wave not being seen (see text). The final ventricular wave (T wave) is upright in all leads. The ventricular wave of lead 2 is taller than the corresponding wave of the other leads. The P-R interval is .12 sec. The duration of the Q.R.S. complex is .06–.08 sec.

The spread of this wave through the auricles yields but one wave in the electrocardiogram—the "P" wave (Fig. 91). This wave is normally an upright wave, rounded usually, but sometimes pointed. Following this deflection, the string returns to the zero line. The great majority of the period from the beginning of the "P" wave to the beginning of the ventricular wave is occupied by the passage of the excitation process through the A-V node. So the length of this *P-R interval*, normally, .12-.18 sec., gives an accurate indication of the conduction time through the A-V node.

The P wave is normally upright. It frequently is inverted in Lead 3. No abnormality is attached to this variation. When the P wave is inverted or its shape changed in Leads 1 or 2, however, this is generally taken as evidence that the excitation wave is arising at some abnormal site, or is pursuing an abnormal course, or is being interfered with by some other wave. (Figs. 92, 101, 107, 108.)

While an inverted P wave in Leads 1 or 2 indicates an abnormal origin of the excitation process in the great majority of cases, occasionally individuals will show this variation constantly with no other evidence to

suggest any cardiac abnormality. Carter and Wedd suggest that some change in the relation of the S-A node to the axis for the derivation of the lead in which they appear might explain this abnormality.

At times the P wave will change its shape from beat to beat. This is spoken of as a *Wandering Pacemaker*. It is believed that, in this condition, the point of origin of the impulse changes from place to place in the S-A node. At times it will leave the S-A node and wander to other parts of the auricular musculature.

Abnormally tall P waves are frequently encountered in association with mitral stenosis. These tall waves result from the diseased state of the auricular muscle accompanying this condition, and are said to indicate *Auricular Hypertrophy*.

The Ventricular Complex.—This complex consists of two portions: The primary deflection and the final deflection.

The primary deflection is made up of three waves: The Q wave, the R wave and the S wave. The final deflection is composed of the T wave. (Fig. 91.)

Not all of the ventricular waves are always seen. In normal curves, however, always R waves and T waves are represented; often the Q and S waves are absent. This occurs without significance.



FIG. 92.—WANDERING PACEMAKER.

The P waves are changing their shape throughout the tracing. The P-R interval does not vary. Hence, we know that all the impulses are arising above the A-V node.

It has already been pointed out that the curves vary slightly in the three leads. The variations are such that the tallest and deepest deflections are present in lead 2. It has been shown that the deflections in lead 2 must be equal to the sum of the electrical effects of leads 1 and 3.

The Composition of the Q.R.S. Complex.—The right and left ventricles are, from the point of view of electrocardiography, independent structures, in that each receives its activation through its independent branch of the bundle of His.

The relation of the direction of the electrical currents in the right and left ventricles to the planes at which the leads are applied is such that, were we able to register separately the electrical changes occurring in each ventricle, it would be seen that the electrocardiograms of the individual ventricles were characteristically distinct. More than that the curves of the independent ventricles would be opposite in direction; *i. e.*, the curves in any given lead for one ventricle were positive direction, where those of the other ventricle would be negative direction. The characteristic curves of the left ventricle have been named by Lewis, Levocardiagrams; those of the right ventricle, Dextrocardiograms. The features of a Levocardiagram (Fig. 94) are a tall R wave in lead 1, and a deep S wave in lead 3; those of a Dextrocardiogram (Fig. 94) a deep S wave in lead 1 and a tall R wave in lead 3. The normal Q.R.S. complex is produced by electrical effects that occur in both ventricles simultaneously. Lewis has shown that the normal Q.R.S. complex is produced by a combination of the electrical effects occurring in the individual ventricles. Could the Levocardiogram and Dextrocardiogram of a given heart be obtained, the Q.R.S. complex could be constructed diagram-

matically by algebraically adding the left and right ventricular component parts.

The waves making up the normal Q.R.S. complex are sharp and clean cut. The total duration of this complex should not exceed .1 seconds. It so frequently happens that the ventricular complex is notched and bizarre in its form in lead 3 that it is known that this is a variation of the normal and has no significance. (Fig. 93.)

But there occur notches in leads 1 and 2 as well. The exact significance of such notches in Q.R.S. complexes of normal duration is somewhat uncertain. However, it seems likely that such notches when they occur near the base of the deflection may be variations of the normal. Fig. 93 is a tracing obtained from a young man without the slightest evidence of cardiac disease. It shows notches near the base of leads 1 and 2 and a bizarre notched ventricular deflection in Lead 3.

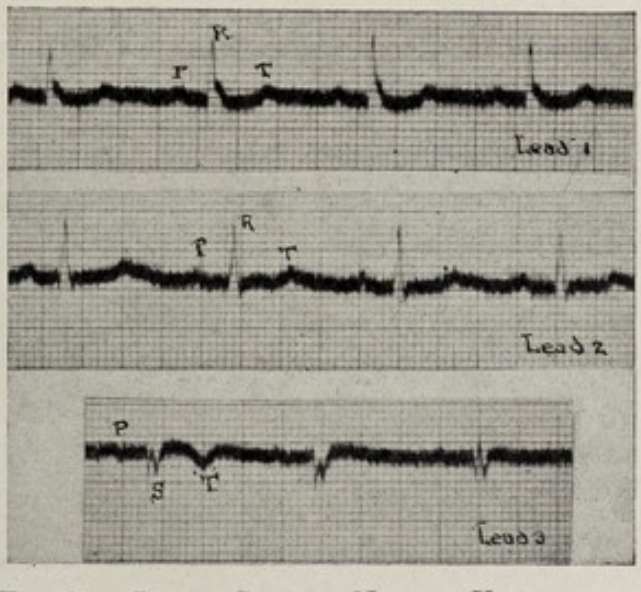


FIG. 93.—SHOWS CERTAIN NORMAL VARIATIONS.
There is a notch near the base of the descending limb of the R wave in lead 1. The S wave of lead 3 is notched and bizarre. The T wave of lead 3 is inverted.

Levocardiograms and Dextrocardiograms.—There are many factors that alter the normal relations of the Q.R.S. complexes in the three leads. Among the factors that will alter the normal relations and yield unilateral curves of the type of Levocardiograms or Dextrocardiograms are (1) change in position of the heart, (2) change in the relative muscle mass of the ventricles, (3) any factor that allows one ventricle to act even for a short time unopposed by the other ventricle and so inscribe its characteristic electrical effect.

Levocardiograms and Dextrocardiograms divide themselves for consideration into two groups. First, Levocardiograms or Dextrocardiograms with a widened Q.R.S. complex, and secondly, those in which the Q.R.S. complex is not widened.

Those with a widened Q.R.S. complexes are associated with Bundle Branch Block (Fig. 102), and at times Ventricular Extrasystoles; these will be considered in more detail in the discussion of these conditions. The width or duration of the Q.R.S. complex represents the time required for both ventricles to be electrically activated; or, in other words, the time for the spread of the excitation wave through both ventricles. Both Bundle Branch Block and Ventricular Extrasystoles yield widened

unilateral tracings because one ventricle acts for a time unopposed by the other ventricle: in the first instance, because the impulse reaches one ventricle before it reaches the other; in the second instance, because it arises in one ventricle and must spread to the other. Notches likewise occur in these types of curves because of the asynchronous activation of the ventricles.

Levocardiograms and Dextrocardiograms without widened Q.R.S. complexes usually receive the diagnosis of right or left ventricular preponderance.

Ventricular Preponderance (Fig. 94).—Levocardiograms or Dextrocardiograms without widened Q.R.S. complexes are commonly met with and are diagnosed usually as left or Right Ventricular Preponderance. The commonly accepted interpretation of the meaning of such curves is that they result from a preponderant hypertrophy of the muscle mass of the right or left ventricle as the case might be. This explanation assumes without definite proof that the activation of a large mass of muscle develops greater electrical changes than does the activation of a smaller muscle mass.

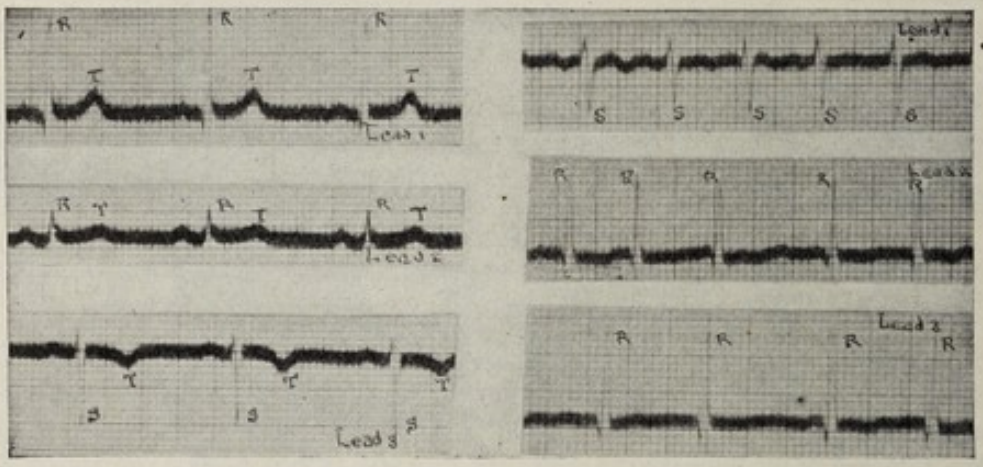


FIG. 94.—VENTRICULAR PREPONDERANCE.

The three strips on the left, leads 1, 2, and 3 from above downward, are levocardiogram without widened Q.R.S., complexes and are typical of Left Ventricular Preponderance. The R wave is exaggerated in lead 1, the S wave in lead 3. The three leads on the right illustrate a dextrocardiogram—deep S wave in lead 1 and tall R wave in lead 3—and indicate Right Ventricular Preponderance.

This conception has come about largely through finding this type of curve associated with those clinical conditions that give rise to hypertrophy of one or the other ventricle. The association of these curves with hypertrophy was further strengthened by the observations of Lewis and Cotton who found a close agreement between the curves of preponderance and the actual weight of the separated ventricles. Recently Herrman and Wilson compared the curves with the weights of the separated ventricles in a large and well selected series of cases. Their results throw doubt on the causal relation of preponderant hypertrophy of the ventricular muscle to this type of curve in small hearts at any rate. They believes that such factors as change in the position of the heart, or certain abnormalities in the structure of the conduction system may cause these characteristic curves. Recently Cohn has shown clearly how greatly change in position of the heart can alter the electrocardiogram. It seems wisest, perhaps, to be somewhat guarded in believing that curves of so-called ventricular preponderance represent necessarily a unilateral

ventricular hypertrophy except in those cases where the heart is greatly enlarged.

The Final Deflection or the T Wave.—Two views are held as to the origin of this wave. One is that it has to do with the actual contraction of the ventricle. In favor of this are cited the facts that its heighth increases on stimulation of the accelerator nerves of the heart and after exertion. The other view is, that, just as the Q.R.S. complex represents the spread of the excitation process, so the T wave represents the subsidence of the electrical state. While it cannot be said that absolute proof of this latter hypothesis has been adduced yet evidence is being gradually accummulated that strongly indicates the correctness of this theory. Recent work of Wilson and of Smith has considerably strengthened this conception.

The T wave in the normal electrocardiograms is upright in leads 1 and 2 and usually in lead 3 (see Fig. 91). Inversion of the T wave in lead 3 (Fig. 93) occurs so often in otherwise normal hearts as to make it certain that this is but a variation of the normal. When inversion of this wave occurs in leads 1 or 2, however, it has definite significance. This certainly usually, and, probably only results where there is some abnormality of the myocardium. There is one known exception to this statement: digitalis will cause inversion of the T wave in all leads.

The Cardiac Arrhythmias

The disturbances of cardiac rhythm can be considered under three heads: (1) Disturbances in the rate and rhythm of sinus impulses. (2) Disturbances in the site of origin of the cardiac impluse. (3) Disturbances of conduction.

Disturbances in the Rate and Rhythm of Sinus Impulses.—Normally the S-A node should give off impulses regularly at a rate

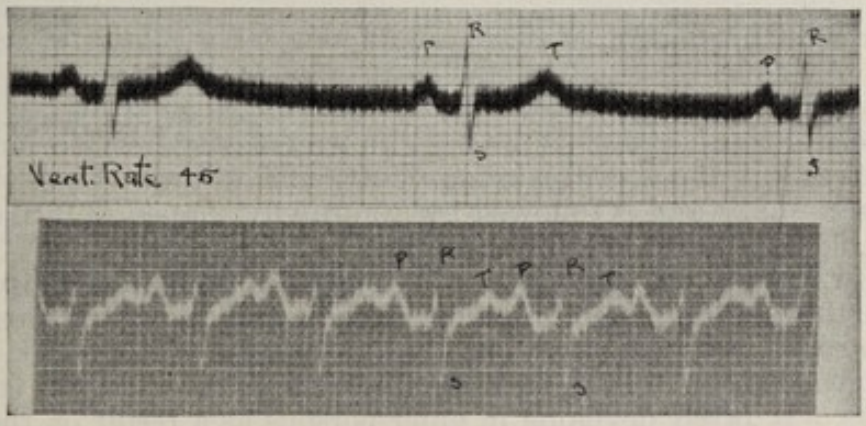


Fig. 95.—Sinus Bradycardia and Simple Tachycardia.

The only abnormality is the slow formation of sinus impulses (P waves) in the top strip, and the rapid impulse formation in the bottom strip.

of seventy to eighty per minute. The node may under a variety of circumstances give off impulses at a much more rapid rate. If these impulses are arising at the normal site of origin such a tachycardia—of which that occurring in exophthalmic goiter may be taken as an example—is spoken of as a *Sinus Tachycardia*, or *Simple Tachycardia*.

When the node initiates impulses at an abnormally slow rate, this condition is spoken of as *Sinus Bradycardia*. Individuals in health are met with whose normal resting heart rate is less than fifty per minute.

The electrocardiograph in these conditions shows normally shaped P waves whose relation to succeeding ventricular waves is perfectly normal. These normal P waves simply occur at a rapid or a slow rate as the case may be (Fig. 95).

Sinus Arrhythmia.—This arrhythmia is important only because of the necessity of differentiating it from more serious disturbances of rhythmicity. The commonest example of this disturbance is the rhythmic variation in the heart rate incident to respiration. This so commonly occurs in youth as to have given rise to the term *Juvenile Arrhythmia*. The variation in the heart rate in this condition results from a variation in vagal tone. This is known: for atropine will easily and completely abolish this disturbance. Procedures other than respiration—swallowing for example—will also at times cause irregularities in the heart rate through their effect on the vagus. This disturbance is by no means limited to youth. In some older persons the rate of formation of sinus impulses shows rather marked variation due to constant alteration in vagal tone.

Sinus arrhythmia can almost always be correctly diagnosed clinically. When it occurs in elderly persons, or is very marked, as it sometimes is, its differentiation from partial heart block, or sino auricular block, or



FIG. 96.—SINUS ARRHYTHMIA.

Normally shaped waves succeed each other in normal sequence. The only abnormality is the gradual slowing of the rate. (It subsequently speeded up again.) This is due to a slowing of formation of impulses at the Sino-auricular Node.

even auricular fibrillation is at times difficult. The release of vagal tone incident to exercise is usually sufficient to render the rhythm regular and so make the clinical recognition of the disturbance clear.

The electrocardiograph shows only an irregularity in the occurrence of the P waves and the accompanying ventricular waves. Each P wave is of the same shape and is followed by a normally shaped Q.R.S. complex. (See Fig. 96.)

Disturbances in the Site of Origin of Cardiac Impulses.—Auricular fibrillation is one of the commonest and one of the most serious of the cardiac arrhythmias. This arrhythmia in young persons is commonly preceded by mitral stenosis, and has as its basis the rheumatic infections. It often develops in older persons as a result of the degenerative processes of age. A fairly common cause of this condition, a cause that is often overlooked, is hyperthyroidism.

This disturbance manifests itself in two forms: a permanently disturbed rhythm and a temporary or paroxysmal disturbance. There is some uncertainty as to whether auricular fibrillation ever occurs in undamaged hearts. Transient fibrillation undoubtedly does so occur. It occurs during operative procedures. It follows emotional stress and physical strain at times. It occurs as the result of toxemia in the course of certain infectious diseases. It seems likely that permanent fibrillation likewise can very occasionally occur in hearts otherwise undamaged, but in the great majority of instances, the muscle of the heart that is permanently fibrillating is seriously and permanently damaged. Fibrillation

not only results from this myocardial disease: once it is established, it throws an added burden on the diseased muscle.

This disturbance manifests itself clinically by an irregular ventricular action—an action irregular as to time and irregular as to force. This irregularity results from the irregular transmission of auricular stimuli to the ventricle by the A-V node. There are some four hundred or more auricular impulses per minute. Many of these reach the A-V node when its muscle is refractory and thus fail to excite this structure. If the pulse alone is consulted, one only appreciates an irregularity of rhythm and of volume. But if the heart is listened to, in those cases with a rapid ventricular rate, more than an irregularity is appreciated. It is difficult to express what auscultation reveals. What one hears is best expressed by one of the older names for this condition: delirium cordis. If the rate of

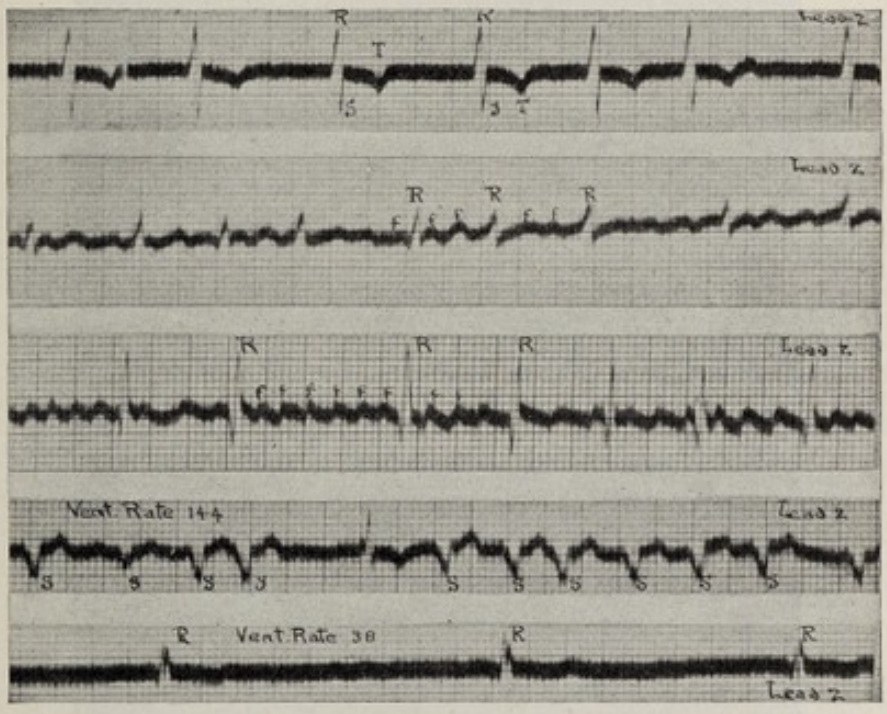


FIG. 97.—AURICULAR FIBRILLATION.

Various types of this disturbance are shown. In all strips there is complete irregularity or ventricular action. Strip 1 shows no fibrillation waves. Strip 2 shows these waves moderately developed. Strip 3 shows fibrillation waves markedly developed. In strips 2 and 3 it can be seen that the fibrillation waves occur irregularly. Strip 4 is from a case with a very rapid ventricular rate. No fibrillation waves can be seen nor can it be positively said that no P waves precede each ventricular contraction. These examples illustrate the statement that irregular ventricular action is the most important single electrocardiographic sign of this disturbance. Strip 5 is an example of a very slow ventricular action.

ventricular response be slow, as it often is in elderly persons, the irregularity may be so slight as to be barely appreciable. It is wise therefore to investigate even the slightest irregularities and prove their true nature.

The degree of cardiac failure shown will depend upon two factors: the rate of the ventricular action and the state of the cardiac muscle. When these factors are favorably disposed there may be but slight circulatory embarrassment. When either or both are unfavorable the most extreme cardiac failure may result. When uncontrolled by medication, the ventricular rate generally is rapid being as high as 140 to 160 per minute. Many of these rapid ventricular contractions fail to give a pulse wave. This difference between the apex rate and the pulse rate

constitutes what is known as the Pulse Deficit. This relation is of some aid in guiding treatment.

The diagnosis can usually be made correctly without the aid of instruments of precision. The condition most often mistaken for fibrillation is multiple extrasystoles. Subjecting the patient to some procedure that increases the heart rate will help greatly in clinically differentiating these conditions. In auricular fibrillation increasing the heart rate makes the rhythm more irregular whereas extrasystolic arrhythmias become more regular. Auricular flutter with variations in the degree of block is at times almost impossible to differentiate from auricular fibrillation without instrumental methods. The one method of accurately diagnosing this arrhythmia is the electrocardiograph.

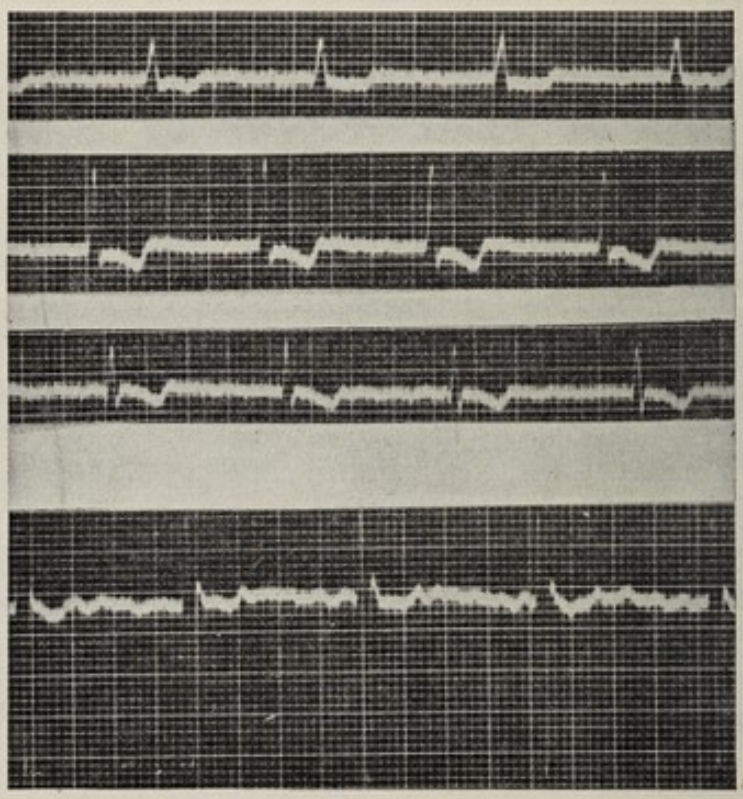


FIG. 98.—AURICULAR FIBRILLATION.

An example in which the ventricular action is regular. The first three strips show the customary three limb leads. In these no P waves nor any fibrillation waves can be seen. The fourth strip was taken with the electrodes applied directly to the chest walls. This brings out the fibrillation waves plainly. The regular ventricular action resulted because the ventricles were responding to some ideoventricular center, and not to the irregular impulses of the fibrillating auricle.

The electrocardiograph (Figs. 97, 98) shows the ventricular complexes occurring irregularly. This is universally seen except in very rare instances where the ventricles are beating in response to some ideoventricular center, when the ventricular action will be perfectly regular. (See Fig. 98.) The other characteristic electrocardiographic signs are the presence of the fibrillation waves (small oscillations in the string shadow) occurring at a rate usually around four hundred per minute, and the absence of well marked individual P waves preceding the ventricular complexes. Often the fibrillation waves are very inconspicuous or even absent in ordinary limb leads. They usually can be brought out by directly applying suitable electrodes to the chest wall. In instances of very rapid ventricular rates it is often impossible to decide

on the presence or absence of P waves. Therefore, the irregularity of the ventricular action is the most important and most constant evidence of auricular fibrillation that the electrocardiograph gives.

Auricular Flutter.—This arrhythmia occurs as one of two clinical types: As a temporary transient paroxysmal disturbance and as a permanent alteration of the rhythm. What was said of the occurrence of auricular fibrillation in undamaged hearts can be said of auricular flutter. At times it occurs in hearts whose muscle is apparently undiseased. In the great majority of cases of permanent flutter, at least, the heart is unmistakably damaged. The degree of damage in the heart muscle will largely determine the symptoms. Some patients with auricular flutter may be unaware of any cardiac disturbance, while others will show profound cardiac failure.

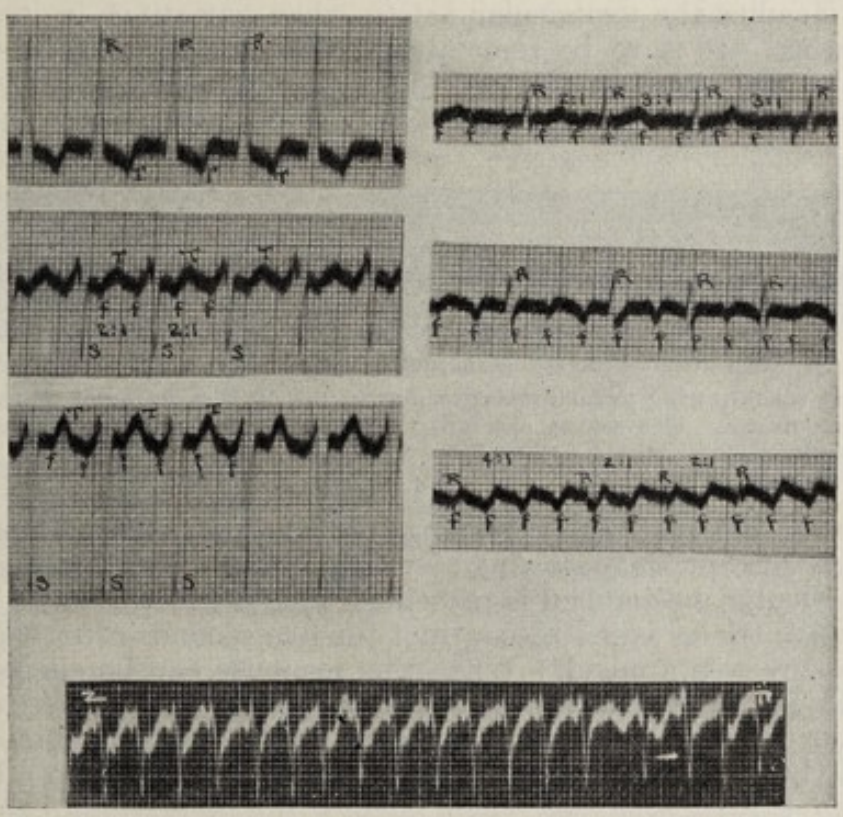


FIG. 99.—AURICULAR FLUTTER.

The three strips on the left show the three leads of a case of auricular flutter with 2:1 block. The three strips on the right are from a case in which the degree of block varied. Some cycles show 4:1 while other cycles show 2:1 block. The strip at the bottom of the illustration is from the same patient as are the three left-hand tracings. This tracing illustrates auricular flutter with no A-V block.

Clinically, an examination reveals only a rapid regular ventricular action. The rate of the ventricle is usually between one hundred twenty and two hundred per minute. The condition is difficult to diagnose clinically from other forms of paroxysmal tachycardia, particularly those arising in the auricles and ventricles. Some of the differential points are discussed under these headings.

The electrocardiogram (Figs. 99 and 100) shows a series of fairly large auricular oscillations occurring at a somewhat less than 350 per minute. These oscillations are continuous in that the string never remains in the resting position. An important fact is the absolute regularity of the auricular oscillations. Very rarely the ventricles will respond

to each of these auricular impulses. Usually it responds to only certain of the waves—every second, third, fourth, fifth, or even sixth. Such ventricular response is spoken of as two to one response, three to one response, etc. In the majority of instances the degree of block present in a given case is constant. Sometimes however it changes. The common ventricular action is a two to one response, *i. e.* the ventricle responds to every second impulse of the fluttering auricle.

A change in the degree of block renders the clinical recognition of the arrhythmia difficult at times. The response of this arrhythmia to exercise also aids in its clinical recognition. When two to one block is present as is generally the case, exercise usually has no effect on the ventricular rate. Rarely it causes the ventricles to respond to the auricles beat for beat. (See Fig. 100, bottom strip.) When higher degrees of block or varying degrees of block are present exercise often decreases the degree of block or steadies the ventricular action when variations in its response are occurring. It is to be remembered that 2:1 response is the usual mechanism, and that in the vast majority of instances this response is not varied by exercise. This is a very important point.

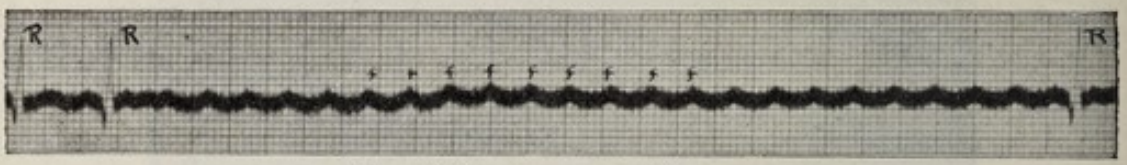


FIG. 100.—AURICULAR FLUTTER.

A tracing taken during vagal pressure showing clearly the character of the auricular waves during flutter. The waves are fairly large; they are continuous; and they are perfectly regular.

The rate of ventricular response during auricular flutter seems particularly susceptible to slowing by vagal pressure—more so than when a normal auricular mechanism is present. This is illustrated in Fig. 100, where the ventricles failed to contract for five seconds after the lightest vagal pressure was applied. When this response can be elicited it is of some help in differentiating flutter from paroxysmal tachycardias of auricular or ventricular origin. In these latter, the arrhythmia often is abolished, but long ventricular pauses do not usually occur. In paroxysmal tachycardia, when any vagal effect is obtained, it is an abolition of the abnormal mechanism: the normal mechanism then usually continues.

The Physiological Mechanism of Auricular Fibrillation and Auricular Flutter.—The old idea of fibrillation was that it was due to multiple impulses arising at different foci of auricular muscle. Flutter was thought to be due to a rapid series of impulses arising at some one ectopic focus in the auricle.

Lewis has recently shown that auricular flutter and auricular fibrillation have fundamentally identical underlying mechanisms. This mechanism is commonly spoken of as the *Circus Movement.* It can be seen by the electrocardiograph that in both flutter and fibrillation there are occurring in the auricles certain rapid fairly regular electrical changes. In flutter regularity and in fibrillation irregularity characterizes these electrical changes. These waves in both conditions Lewis has shown to be caused by the excitation process entering a circular band of muscle and pursuing an endless course in one direction around and around this muscular pathway. For the continuance of this circular movement of the excitation process it is essential that the length of the wave be less

than the length of the band of muscle being traversed, else the crest of the oncoming wave will impinge upon refractory muscle at the receding end of the wave, and thus end the circus movement. Quinidine is believed to break up auricular fibrillation by prolonging the refractory period at the end of the wave and thus cause the crest of the oncoming wave to enter refractory muscle and die out.

While the movement of the excitation wave through a band of auricular muscle is the underlying phenomenon in both fibrillation and flutter there are minor differences in the behavior of the excitation process in the two conditions. In addition to the main central impulse occurring in one band of muscle there are centrifugal impulses given off by this main impulse that spread out and are carried to all portions of the auricular muscle. In the case of auricular flutter the state of the auricular muscle is such that both the central impulse and the centrifugal impulses pass without obstruction perfectly regularly. In auricular fribrillation, however, the condition of the auricular muscle is such that both the central wave and the centrifugal waves encounter obstructions—muscle fibers that are refractory. To get around these and find muscle fibers not refractory the impulse must pursue a somewhat circuitous path. The actual waves and the electrical processes that are recorded by the electrocardiograph are thus irregular.

While it is to Lewis and his co-workers that we are indebted for the clear proof of this explanation, other workers, notably Mines and Garrey, had demonstrated the underlying phenomenon of the circus movement of the impulse through bands of isolated muscle, and had, indeed, suggested that this was the cause of auricular fibrillation as it is seen in man.

Ventricular Fibrillation.—This condition is rarely recognized clinically nor is it recorded electrocardiographically but rarely. It is probable that this is the mode of cardiac disturbance that often terminates life.

Extrasystoles or Premature Contractions.—The appearance of this arrhythmia frequently coincides with obvious deterioration of the cardiac efficiency. Furthermore, extrasystoles are often seen in association with preceding coronary occlusion. This incidence suggests that this disturbance of impulse formation depends on an accompanying cardiac disease. But extrasystoles are equally frequently encountered in hearts that are apparently in no way diseased. Various toxic causes such as tea, coffee, and tobacco, have been said to cause this arrhythmia. Digitalis is another substance that in toxic doses causes a distinctive type of extrasystolic disturbance. Instances have been reported where the removal of a focus of infection has caused the disappearance of this disturbance. At times these abnormal beats are apparently initiated by purely psychic disturbances. The prognostic importance of this arrhythmia therefore depends on the cause of the disturbance. This cause at times is very difficult to determine.

The underlying physiology of this disturbance is not clearly understood. Various attempts to prove for it a nervous origin have been unsuccessful. Lately there has been put forward the hypothesis that these beats are the result of a second rhythm occurring in the heart at a different rate from the normal sinus rhythm. Kaufman and Rothberger say that the rate of the subsidiary rhythm is faster than that of the normal sinus rhythm. They believe that when this subsidiary rhythm completely asserts itself paroxysmal tachycardia results; when only isolated impulses of this subsidiary rhythm gain control of the heart's action, isolated extrasystoles are seen. This theory is not generally

accepted. The weight of present evidence is against it. It can only be said with certainty of this disturbance that some focus of muscle other than the S-A node gives off premature impulses usually single. As these impulses are ectopic in origin the electrocardiograph reveals their source most satisfactorily. The three chief types according to their place of origin are auricular, ventricular and nodal.

Auricular Extrasystoles.—As each premature impulse is discharged from the ectopic focus in the auricular muscle, this impulse spreads to the S-A node and discharges the energy being formed there for the next normal impulse. Following the premature impulse the S-A node must begin again storing material for the next contraction. The fundamental rhythm is thus disturbed; for the first sinus impulse after the extrasystoles occurs at the normal sinus rate. Rarely the pause following an auricular extrasystole may be almost compensatory.

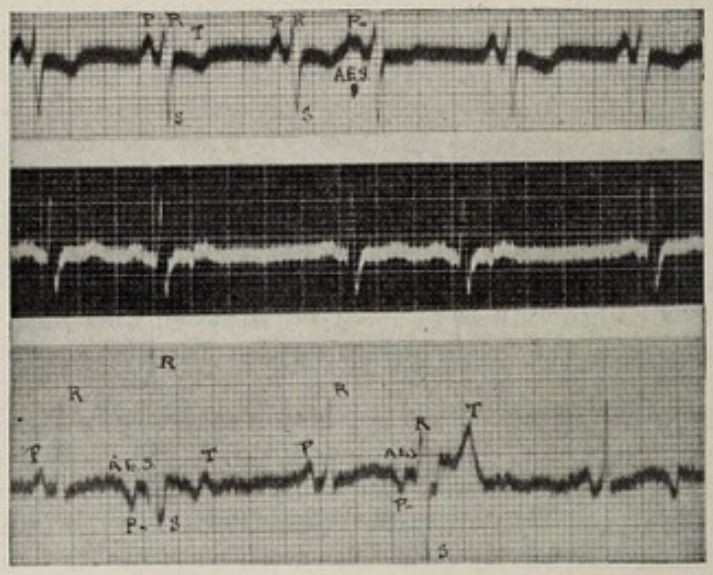


FIG. 101.—AURICULAR EXTRASYSTOLES.

In strip 1, the fourth auricular complex is premature. It is indicated by a P wave different in shape from the other P waves. In strip 2 there appears to be a dropped ventricular beat at what should be the third and sixth cycles. This is seen to result from an auricular extrasystole occurring very early in ventricular diastole. The auricular premature impulse reaches the ventricle when it is refractory. The premature auricular beat is indicated by the small inverted P wave occurring just before the second T wave and fourth T wave. Strip 3 illustrates auricular extrasystoles with bizarre ventricular conduction. The second and fourth P waves are inverted. The Q.R.S. complexes following these inverted waves are bizarre in shape.

The usual absence of a compensatory pause is the chief point in clinically differentiating this type of extrasystole from that which arises in ventricular musculature.

The Electrocardiograph (Fig. 101).—Because of the ectopic origin of these impulses the shape of the P waves are different from the normal sinus waves. If the site of origin is near the S-A node the shape may be but little changed. If the place of origin is near the coronary sinus portion of the auricle the waves will be inverted. The extrasystolic impulses causing these waves are always premature in that they occur sooner than the next normal auricular impulse is due. Such auricular contractions should be and usually are followed by normal ventricular complexes. At times, however, when they are very premature or from other causes, the A-V node may fail to transmit the impulse to the ventricle. Under these conditions the premature auricular contraction fails to

be followed by any ventricular wave (see Fig. 101). At times also the premature impulse may reach the ventricle but due to improper recovery of ventricular conduction, the resulting ventricular wave is bizarre. (Fig. 101, third strip.)

Nodal Extrasystoles.—These impulses can be identified with certainty only by graphic methods. The electrocardiograph shows isolated premature beats with either a reduced P-R interval, no P-R interval or an R-P interval. (See Fig. 107, strip 1.)

Ventricular Extrasystoles (Fig. 102).—These beats as a rule do not interfer with the auricular action. The normal auricular impulse that occurs soon after this premature ventricular contraction reaches the ventricle while this structure is refractory. Therefore, the pause following a premature beat is long. The first ventricular impulse following the

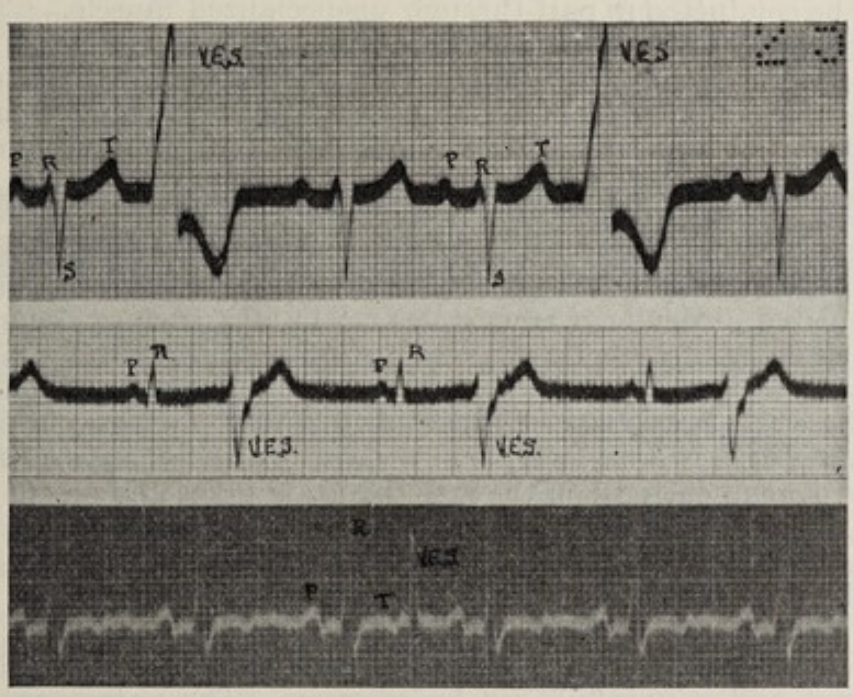


FIG. 102.—VENTRICULAR EXTRASYSTOLES.

Strip 1 shows two ectopic beats. These are recognized by their bizarre shape and their prematurity. Their ventricular origin is indicated by the absence of the P wave preceding them. This tracing also illustrates the compensatory pause that occurs in ventricular extrasystoles. In strip 2 each second beat has the characteristics of a ventricular extrasystole. Each extrasystole is "coupled" to the preceding supra-ventricular complex. This is known as pulsus bigeminus. In strip 3 is shown one premature ventricular complex differing in shape from the other ventricular complexes. No compensatory pause follows this beat: the dominant rhythm is not interfered with. This is an example of an Interpolated Extrasystole.

extrasystole is in response to a normal sinus impulse; the fundamental rhythm of the heart is not disturbed. If the ventricular extrasystoles occur early in diastole the first auricular impulse following this premature beat will reach the ventricles after they have recovered their excitability. Under these conditions there will be no compensatory pause. Such beats are spoken of as *Interpolated Extrasystoles.* (Fig. 102, strip 3.) There is still another type of ventricular extrasystolic arrhythmia in which the premature beats follow the normal beats after a definite and constant time relation. This is spoken of as *Coupled Beats* or *Coupling.* When this mechanism occurs continuously for any length of time, the disturbance is known as *Pulsus Bigeminus.* This disturbance

is important chiefly because one of its common causes is digitalis in toxic amounts. (Fig. 102, strip 2.)

The clinical recognition of this type of extrasystoles is made chiefly by recognizing that the fundamental sinus rhythm is undisturbed by the premature ventricular beats. Very often these ventricular beats fail to cause a pulse wave. The pulse therefore will resemble that of partial heartblock. These premature beats even when they do not cause a pulse wave can be recognized by ausculting the heart.

The electrocardiograph. The chief features by which this disturbance manifests itself in the electrocardiograph are: (1) the prematurity of the waves, (2) the absence of a P wave preceding the abnormal ventricular wave, (3) the bizarre shaped widened ventricular waves. The widened notched bizarre waves seen in this condition result because the impulse arises in the muscle of one ventricle and, to activate both ventricles, must be conducted in part through unspecialized muscle.

Paroxysmal Tachycardia.—This type of arrhythmia is closely allied to extrasystolic arrhythmia. In this latter disturbance only isolated ectopic impulses control the heart. In paroxysmal tachycardia impulses from an abnormal source completely control and dominate the cardiac action. As there are three general types of extrasystoles so there are three types of paroxysmal tachycardia.

Auricular Paroxysmal Tachycardia.—Nothing more definite can be said concerning the physiology of this disturbance than was said concerning isolated auricular extrasystoles. The disturbance occurs under the same circumstances as do the single abnormal beats. It can exist in hearts in which there is no other evidence of abnormality. Instances are known where the disturbance has recurred periodically over a period of years with no signs of deterioration in the cardiovascular apparatus. The symptoms depend entirely on the rate the heart takes and on the general condition of the circulatory apparatus. In otherwise healthy hearts there may be but few symptoms referable to cardiac inefficiency, though usually there is always at least a consciousness of the rapid beating. The rate of discharge of these ectopic impulses is usually less than one hundred eighty per minute. The rhythm is surprisingly regular from beat to beat and is uninfluenced by exertion. The paroxysms usually last from a few minutes to a few hours only, but occasionally they may last for days. The beginning and the ending of the attacks are sudden. These facts help to differentiate this condition from other types of tachycardia. But in some instances it is an extremely difficult condition to differentiate from aricular flutter and from ventricular or nodal paroxysmal tachycardia. The mode of onset and offset, the generally short duration of the attacks and the history of previous similar attacks are of importance. Perhaps the most helpful point in making a differentiation of this condition from auricular flutter is the response of the tachycardia to vagal stimulation. Frequently vagal pressure will end the paroxysm and restore sinus rhythm. Often patients who have been subject to this disturbance for any length of time will have discovered for themselves some maneuver that increases vagal tone, such as swallowing or deep breathing that will end the disturbance promptly. The effects of vagal stimulation will not aid us in differentiating the condition from ventricular paroxysm tachycardia; for there are the same vagal effects in this latter disturbance. The frequence of the auricular and the rarity of the ventricular variety is the chief differential point. Tachycardias of nodal origin cannot be differentiated except by the electrocardiograph. It occurs very rarely, however.

The Electrocardiograph.—This method of examination reveals the nature of the disturbance plainly. Since the rate usually does not exceed one hundred and sixty, there is no A-V block and the ventricles respond to the auricles beat for beat. The impulse that reaches the ventricles is a supraventricular impulse, *i. e.*, it arises above the division of the bundle His. The shape of the ventricular complexes therefore should be the same as ventricular complexes that come in response to sinus impulses. However, when there is any inherent defect in intraventricular conduction, the rapid transmission rate required of the ventricular conduction apparatus will bring out this defect and the ventricular complexes will be abnormally shaped. When this condition exists ventricular paroxysm tachycardia must be differentiated. The presence of a P wave preceding each abnormally shaped ventricular cycle together with other features (see ventricular paroxysmal tachycardia) will aid in the differentiation.

The origin of the auricular impulses is ectopic, consequently the shape of the P waves will be abnormal. If the origin of the impulse is quite near the S-A node, the shape of the P waves will be but slightly different

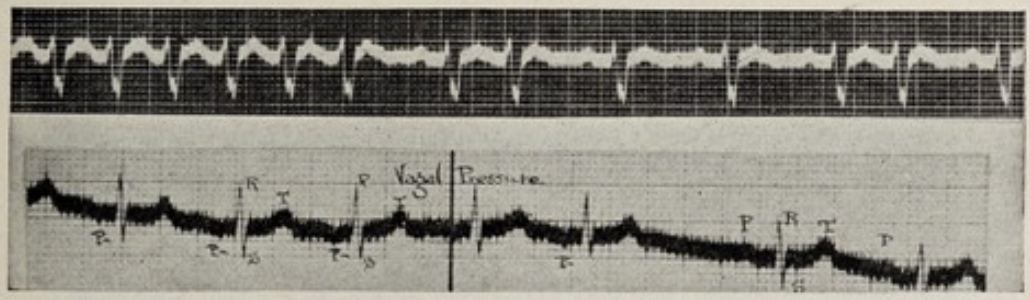


FIG. 103.—AURICULAR PAROXYSMAL TACHYCARDIA.

Strip 1 shows the ending of a paroxysm. Following the sixth ventricular complex, the ventricular rate becomes slower. The seventh ventricular wave is preceded by a normal P wave. During the rapid rate, the T wave before each ventricular wave is slightly pointed. Close inspection shows this to be due to the presence of a small pointed P wave. The second strip shows the ending of a paroxysm brought about by vagal pressure. Vagal pressure was applied at the point marked by a heavy black line. The P waves during the rapid rate are inverted: during the slow rate they are upright.

from the normal P wave of sinus origin. If it arises in the lower portion of the auricular muscle the P wave will be inverted. When the rate is rapid, the P wave may fall at the same time as the preceding ventricular or T wave and so be invisible. If the beginning or ending of a paroxysm can be studied there is usually no difficulty in working out the nature of the disturbance. In Fig. 103 most of these features are illustrated.

Ventricular Paroxysmal Tachycardia.—This condition is one of the rare disturbances of the cardiac mechanism. It is a more serious disturbance than the tachycardias of auricular or nodal origin for the reasons that it more frequently occurs in hearts with clearly diseased muscle and because it often is the precursor of ventricular fibrillation.

As in auricular paroxysmal tachycardia, this condition is essentially a series of ventricular extrasystoles, *i. e.*, some ectopic focus in the ventricular muscles gives off a series of rapid impulses that dominate and control the ventricular rhythm. The auricular rhythm is unaffected. As has been said we know as yet little concerning the fundamental physiology of extrasystolic disturbances, but in the case ventricular paroxysmal tachycardia, there appears to be at least one predisposing factor that

we do know of. Robinson and Herrman pointed out the frequence of preceding coronary occlusion in this disturbance.

The general features of this disturbance, its mode of onset and offset, its reaction to vagal stimulation, etc. are quite the same as those seen in auricular paroxysmal tachycardia. Generally, its rhythm is quite regular once the paroxysm is established. That the heart action, however, may be quite irregular in unusual instances has recently been pointed out by Levines. This form of tachycardia lasts for a much shorter time than other types. It usually is present for only a few seconds or minutes at the most. Rarely it may last for longer periods. A positive differentiation between this and tachycardia of auricular origin without the aid of graphic methods is quite impossible.

The Electrocardiograph.—The paroxysm is seen to be made up of abnormally shaped ventricular complexes, having the characteristics of ventricular extrasystoles. There is no P wave preceding each ventricular complex. If P waves can be made out they are seen to be occurring at a rate much slower than the ventricular waves. Even with this graphic evidence, the diagnosis is not always easy. The chief condition with which it is apt to be confused is auricular paroxysmal tachycardia

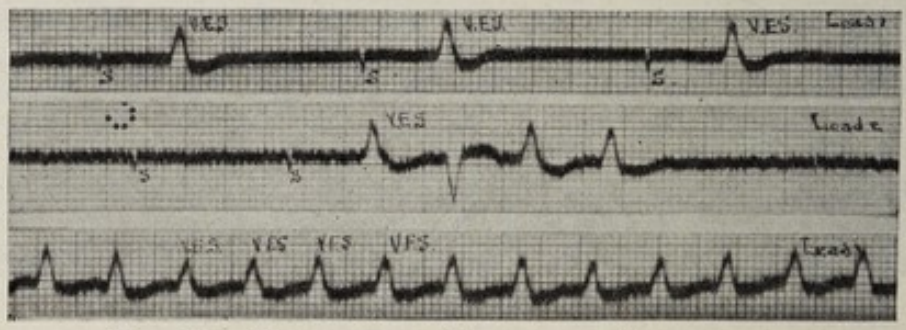


FIG. 104.—VENTRICULAR PAROXYSMAL TACHYCARDIA.

The figure shows three strips, all of Lead 1, obtained from the same patient on the same day. Strip one shows an abnormal wave (marked V.E.S.) "coupled" with each normal supraventricular wave (marked S). The abnormal waves are clearly Ventricular Extrasystoles. Strip two shows the beginning of a short period of tachycardia. The first wave of the paroxysm has the same shape, and bears the same time relation to the preceding supraventricular wave (S), as do the isolated V.E.S. in strip one. Strip three shows the paroxysm well established. It can be seen that the tachycardia consists of a series of beats that are the same in point of origin and transmission as the isolated ventricular extrasystoles seen in Lead 1. The P waves cannot be studied because the auricles are fibrillating.

in which there is aberrant conduction of the impulse by the ventricular conduction system. When this latter abnormality occurs the ventricular complex will have all the appearances of ventricular origin. The presence of an auricular wave preceding each such beat will establish their supraventricular origin.

In discussing tachycardia of ventricular origin, Robinson and Herrman laid down certain rules for the diagnosis of this condition. Some of the most important points that aid in making a correct diagnosis are:

(1) The presence of isolated waves that are clearly extrasystolic beats. The shape of the waves constituting the paroxysm must be identical with these isolated beats.

(2) P waves occurring at a slower rate than the ventricular waves can be seen in certain instances. This occurrence when present definitely establishes the diagnosis.

(3) If the isolated extrasystolic impulses are "coupled" to the preceding normal impulses, the first beat of the paroxysm will bear the

same time relation to the preceding normal beat as do the isolated ectopic beats to the normal beats that precede them.

In Fig. 104 is shown an instance of paroxysmal tachycardia in which these features are illustrated. The relation of P waves to the ventricular waves cannot be studied for the mechanism of the auricles in this case was fibrillation. However, in the first strip of this figure after each normal superventricular complex there occurs a single abnormally shaped wave that is clearly an extrasystole. These waves are "coupled" to the preceding normal complex, *i. e.*, they occur after a definite and constant time interval. In the second strip is shown the onset of a short paroxysm of rapid action. The third strip is taken from a longer paroxysm. The waves constituting the paroxysm are abnormal in shape and resemble completely the isolated waves seen in strip 1 that are clearly extrasystoles. In the second strip the first beat of the paroxysm is "coupled" with the preceding normal beat. The time relation between these two beats is the same as that of the "coupled" beats seen in strip 1.

Paroxysmal Tachycardias of Nodal Origin.—This disturbance is discussed under "*Rhythms Arising in the A-V Node.*"

Rhythms Arising in the A-V Node.—All portions of the heart are made up of muscle. The muscle of these different parts of the heart possess in common, certain properties, among which is rhythmicity. The

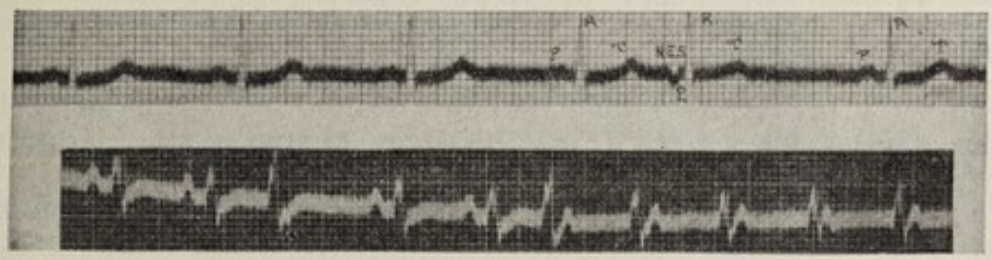


FIG. 105.—IMPULSES ARISING IN THE A-V NODE. NODAL EXTRASYSTOLE AND VENTRICULAR ESCAPE.

Strip one. The fifth ventricular complex is preceded by an inverted P wave with a shortened P-R interval. It is probable that the impulse that caused both these beats arose in the junctional tissues, probably in the auricular end of the A-V node. It is a nodal extra systole. The dominant rhythm of the auricle is interfered with. Strip two. The third ventricular complex occurs prematurely. It has the same essential shape as the other ventricular complexes. It therefore is supraventricular in origin. No P wave precedes it; one follows it. Therefore the ventricular complex must arise in the A-V node. The dominant rhythm of auricle is not interfered with. The third ventricular complex is an example of Ventricular Escape. Escaped impulses from the A-V node activate the ventricles, while the auricle continues to respond to impulses originating in the S-A node. The sixth ventricular complex initiates a longer period of this mechanism.

muscle in which this property is most highly developed is that of the sino-auricular node. The structure in which rhythmicity is next most highly developed is the A-V node. As a consequence, this latter structure not infrequently initiates impulses. The commonest example of impulses arising in the A-V node is ventricular escape. The feature of this mechanism is that there are two centers forming impulses. The S-A node continues to initiate impulses that control the auricle. Before these impulses reach the ventricle, however, the A-V node gives off its own impulses to which the ventricles respond. Hence, the term ventricular escape. This is recognized electrocardiographically by the normally shaped P waves which are clearly of sinus origin. The ventricular cycles are normal in appearance but occur independently and with no relation to the auricular wave. Fig. 105, strip 2, is an example of

this condition. When this disturbance continues for any length of time it often becomes true A-V or as it is often called Nodal Rhythm. In Fig. 106 the first few cycles have normally shaped P waves with the ventricular cycles accompanying them occurring independently. In later cycles the normal P waves have disappeared and are replaced by inverted P waves which follow the Q.R.S. complex.

In true nodal rhythm the A-V node becomes the pacemaker and controls both the auricles and ventricles. The impulses to the auricles arising in junctional structures are transmitted to the auricles in a reversed direction.

Nodal rhythm occurs as a result of one or two circumstances: either because the rhythmicity of the S-A node becomes depressed or because

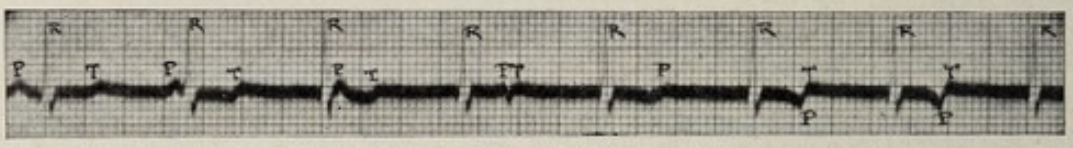


FIG. 106.—VENTRICULAR ESCAPE BECOMING TRUE NODAL RHYTHM.

In the first three cycles the P waves are normal in shape and are clearly of sinus origin. The ventricular waves accompanying them are occurring at a slightly more rapid rate and are clearly independent of the auricular impulses. The ventricles are responding to escaped impulses that originate in the A-V node. The sinus node eventually yields its rhythmic supremacy entirely; for in the last two complete cycles the P waves follow the ventricular waves and are inverted. Both the auricles and ventricles are now under the control of the A-V node.

this property of the A-V node becomes exalted. To this latter type belong nodal extrasystoles (Fig. 105, strip 1) and nodal paroxysmal tachycardia. (Fig. 107.)

Tachycardia of nodal origin is distinctly rare. Little is known of its cause. An example of this disturbance is shown in Fig. 107.

The slower types or nodal rhythm exist because the rhythmicity of the S-A node is depressed below that of the A-V node. Hence, the rate of this mechanism is slow. This disturbance is usually transient. It is generally seen during the course of some febrile disease such as rheumatic

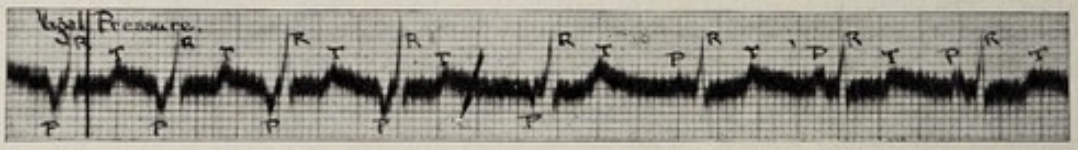


FIG. 107.—NODAL PAROXYSMAL TACHYCARDIA.

The first four ventricular complexes are preceded by inverted P waves with a short P-R interval. At this point the heart rate becomes slower. The P waves preceding the next two ventricular complexes are intermediate in shape. Those preceding the last two ventricular complexes are upright and are preceded by a normal P-R interval. The first four rapid cycles resulted from a tachycardia originating in junctional structures, probably the auricular end of the A-V node. The P waves preceding the fifth and sixth cycles are neither inverted nor upright because they result probably from the activity of both sinus and nodal impulses, and are therefore a combination or interference effect.

fever, diphtheria, pneumonia, etc. When it occurs during such diseases it is thought that these diseases are responsible for the processes causing the depression of sinus rhythmicity. But occasionally this disturbance is not transient and is not associated with any condition to which we can attribute depressive properties. The patient from which the tracings in Fig. 108, strip 2, was obtained was a girl ten years of age, apparently in good health, who was known to have had this disturbance for more than one year.

A diagnosis of this disturbance is practically impossible without the aid of graphic methods. In the electrocardiograph the nature of the disturbance is easily seen. Since the impulse arises between the auricles and ventricles and spreads to both structures simultaneously the interval between the auricular and ventricular contractions as measured by the P-R interval is less than in normal sinus rhythm, When the impulse arises at the auricular end of the node, the P-R interval is usually no more than .08-.10 sec. This is seen in Fig. 107—a tracing from nodal paroxysmal tachycardia. When the origin of the rhythm is in the ventricular end of the node the impulses reach the ventricles before they reach the auricles. Under these conditions there is no P-R interval but, instead, the ventricular contractions actually precede the P waves. (See Fig. 108.) When the point of origin is in the mid portion of the node, the P waves and the Q.R.S. waves will fall together. Under these conditions no P waves will be seen.

Since the impulse spreads through the auricle in a reverse direction from that occurring in normal sinus rhythm, the P wave is inverted or at least abnormal in shape. Regarding this latter statement there is some

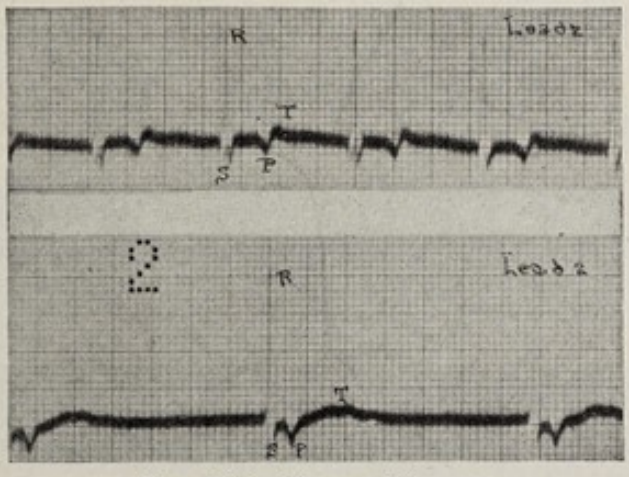


Fig. 108.—Nodal Rhythm.

Examples of two cases of this disturbance. In both the P waves are inverted and follow the R waves. The impulse is arising in the ventricular of the node.

difference of opinion; some workers claiming that the P waves in nodal rhythm may be upright. The weight of evidence favors the view that the P wave is always abnormal in shape. Since the abnormal point of origin of the impulse is above the division of the bundle of His, the impulse spreads to the ventricles along normal paths. Hence, the Q.R.S. complex is normal in shape.

Therefore, the features of this rhythm seen in the electrocardiograph are (1) shortened P-R interval, an R-P interval, or no P-R interval, (2) inverted or at least distorted P waves, (3) a rate slower than the ordinary heart rate.

The only electrocardiographic difference between the slow type of A-V rhythm and tachycardias of nodal origin is the increased rate of the latter.

Disturbances of Conduction.—Sino-auricular Heart Block.—This condition consists in a dropped heart cycle. When the pulse is observed simply an absence of one pulse wave is appreciated. In the electrocardiograph it can be seen that this dropped ventricular contraction results because of the absence of an auricular impulse. The distance between

two successive cycles of the normal rhythm is just a little longer than one cycle occurring during sino-auricular block. There has been some reluctance to accept this condition as a definite entity. The chief obstacle being the difficulty of conceiving how or where block can occur between the S-A node and the auricular tissue that so intimately surrounds it.

A-V Heart Block.—This condition divides itself for consideration into three heads.



FIG. 109.—SINO-AURICULAR BLOCK.

The tracing shows two normal cycles followed by two cycles considerably longer. The length of one long cycle almost equals the length of two short cycles. It is assumed that the long cycles result because each second impulse arising in the S-A node is blocked in its spread toward the auricle.

Prolonged A-V Conduction Time.—The simplest form of A-V heart block is that in which there is some delay in the conduction of the impulse from auricles to ventricles. This can only be recognized with the aid of the polygraph or the electrocardiograph. This condition manifests itself in the electrocardiograph by a prolongation of the P-R interval

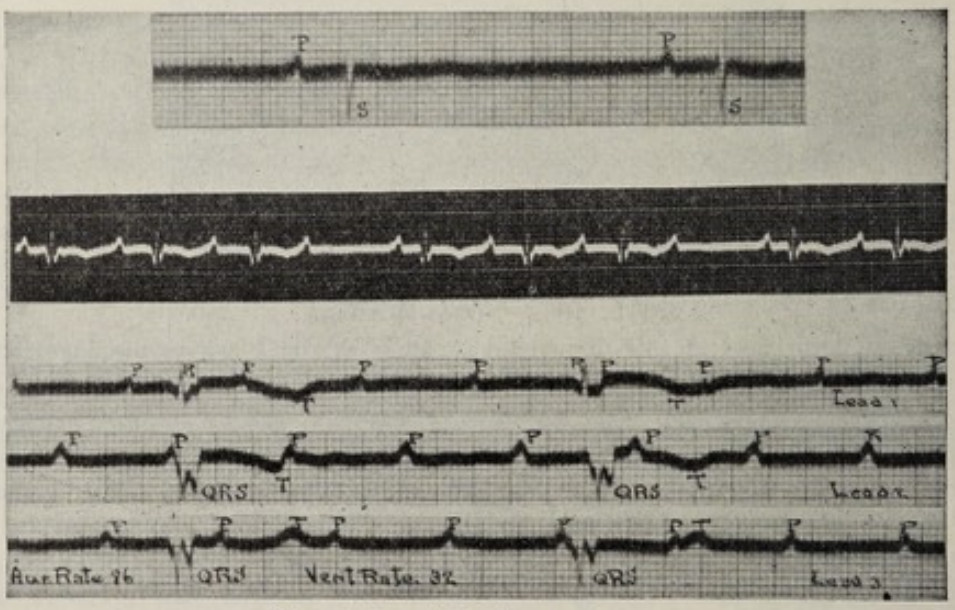


FIG. 110.—A-V HEART BLOCK.

The tracing at the top shows a prolonged A-V conduction time. (P-R equals .28.) The second strip illustrates dropped beats or partial heart block. The first P-R interval after a dropped ventricular beat is .20 sec. The P-R interval gradually lengthens during the next two cycles. The P wave following the third ventricular cycle is not accompanied by a ventricular wave. It is blocked: the auricular impulse fails to reach the ventricle. The three tracings at the bottom of the illustration are the three customary leads from a case of complete heart block. The P waves are occurring about three times as fast as the ventricular waves. The ventricular waves bear no relation to the P waves. The ventricles are responding to an ideoventricular center. In this case the ventricular complexes, as they often are in complete block, are widened and notched.

beyond the normal limits of .20 sec. Hering has shown that almost all of the P-R interval is occupied by the passage of the impulse through the A-V node. Therefore, this disturbance of conduction is due to some

condition that prolongs the conduction time of the impulse through the A-V node. An example of this is seen in Fig. 110, strip 1.

Dropped Beats, or Partial Heart Block.—When the condition that causes prolonged A-V conduction becomes exaggerated this may result in the entire failure of an auricular impulse to reach the ventricles. This dropped ventricular beat is easily appreciated in the pulse or by ausculting the heart. If only the pulse is consulted many conditions may be mistaken for partial heart block. Ventricular extrasystoles frequently fail to cause a pulse wave. Likewise, auricular extrasystoles that fail to cause a ventricular contraction will cause a dropped beat at the wrist. The nature of both these disturbances will be correctly appreciated if the heart is ausculted; for the extrasystolic beats can be heard. If the heart sounds are very faint, however, and are heard with difficulty a dropped beat at the wrist due to an extrasystole may be incorrectly attributed to an absence of ventricular contraction due to partial A-V block. Such a mistake was made in the case illustrated in the lowest strip of Fig. 101, strip 2. Only the electrocardiograph will with certainty differentiate this type of A-V heart block from sino-auricular heart block.

In the electrocardiograph during this disturbance the P-R interval is increasingly prolonged in successive cycles until finally the junctional tissues fail entirely to transmit an auricular impulse and in consequence a P wave without an accompanying ventricular wave is seen. After the rest acquired in this way the P-R interval following the dropped beat will be shorter. (Fig. 110, strip 2.) Another type of partial heart block is that in which the ventricles respond only to every second auricular impulse. This is spoken of as 2:-1 Heart Block.

Complete A-V Block.—In this form of heart block all auricular impulses fail to reach the ventricles. In consequence of this some center within the ventricle, below the point of block takes up the function of initiating rhythmic stimuli to which the ventricles respond. In consequence of this dissociation the auricles and ventricles are beating absolutely independently; the latter at a slower rate—usually around forty per minute.

This dissociation of auricles and ventricles gives rise to certain definite signs by which the condition is recognized. Clinically, a slow regular ventricular action, uninfluenced by exercise is very suggestive of this condition. At times auricular waves occurring at a more rapid rate than the arterial pulsations can be made out in the veins of the neck. At times also the sound of the contracting auricles can be heard over the precordium. The history of the occurrence of attacks of unconsciousness —a manifestation of the Stokes-Adams syndrome—aids in the clinical diagnosis.

The Stokes-Adams syndrome is the combination of (*a*) slow pulse, (*b*) fatigue and dyspnœa on exertion, (*c*) attacks of unconsciousness, (*d*) muscular twitching or even epileptiform attacks.

The unconsciousness and more severe nervous manifestations result from anæmia of the brain. The commonest cause of this combination of symptoms is complete heart block. But it must be remembered that any disturbance that causes cerebral anæmia may cause unconsciousness, and, if severe enough and sufficiently long continued, will cause other nervous manifestations.

The electrocardiographic signs of this condition are unmistakable. The auricular and ventricular waves can be seen occurring independently, the auricular waves occurring more rapidly than the ventricular contractions. (See Fig. 110.)

Causes of A-V Heart Block.—The various forms of A-V block occur from a number of causes. Complete block is usually due to an anatomical break in the conducting system between auricles and ventricles. The commonest causes of this are fibrosis, gummata and tumors. In many cases of complete block and in the lesser grades of block, structural damage cannot be demonstrated. Many toxic conditions can cause these disturbances of conduction. They are encountered as transient states during the course of many infectious diseases, notably diphtheria and rheumatic fever. Digitalis in large doses will also cause varying degrees of A-V block. Stimulation of the vagus nerve can cause various degrees of block. Many other conditions such as acute asphyxia or morphine poisoning can also cause block.

Bundle Branch Block.—Abnormalities of conduction in the branches in the bundle of His can be recognized only with the aid of the electrocardiograph. Due to its more exposed position, most probably, the right bundle more often than the left shows abnormalities of condition.

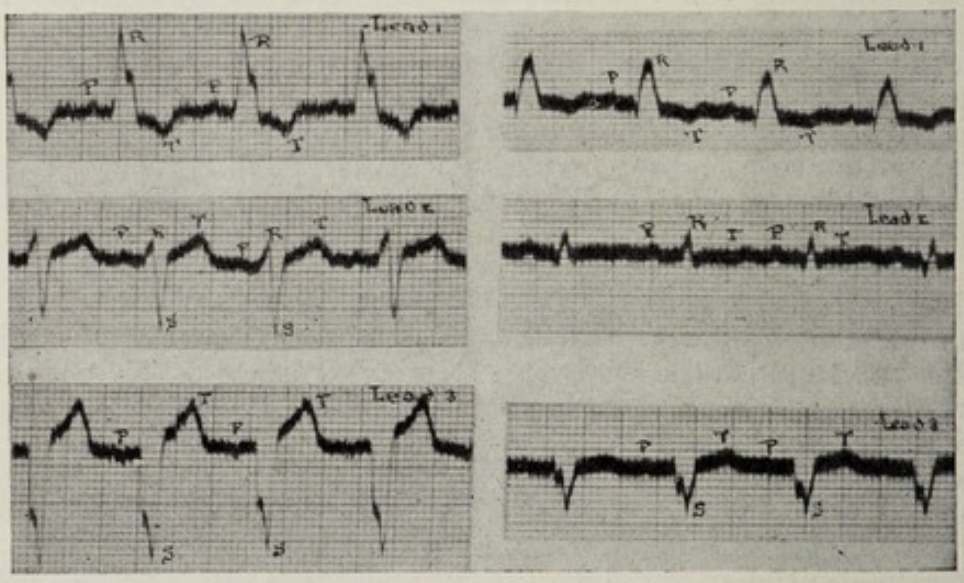


FIG. 111.—BUNDLE BRANCH BLOCK.

The three tracings at the left are the three customary leads from one case; those at the right are from another case. Both are levocardiograms, both show widened notched Q.R.S. complexes, and in both the T waves take the opposite direction from the major deflection. The curves on the right differ from those on the left in that the excursion of the waves is not so great, and the T wave is not so clearly of the opposite phase. The curves on the left are typical of Complete Bundle Branch Block; those on the right, of Partial Bundle Branch Block.

Through the study of electrocardiographic curves obtained from dogs on which complete bundle branch block had been experimentally induced, and of curves obtained from humans in which complete block of one of the branches of the bundle was histologically demonstrated the electrocardiographic manifestations of this disturbance are clearly recognized. These features are (1) a widened and notched Q.R.S. complex, (2) a levocardiogram or a dextrocardiogram, (3) large excursion of the principle ventricular wave, (4) a T wave of opposite direction to the initial ventricular deflection. (Fig. 111.)

There is commonly seen another type of complex that differs in some respects from the ventricular complex of complete bundle branch block. The chief difference is that whereas in the former the excursion of the waves is large, in the latter the excursion is small (Fig. 111). Oppenheimer and Rothschild regard this latter type of complex as being due to

a block beyond the main branches of the bundle in the arborizations of the Purkinje system, and refer to it as *Arborization Block*. More recently Wilson and Herrman have concluded from very convincing experimental results that this type of complex results from a partial block in a main branch of the bundle of such a nature that it causes a delay in the passage of the impulse along the branch that is effected. They refer to this as Partial Bundle Branch Block.

Complete bundle branch block is due in the majority of instances to structural change and once established is usually permanent. Incomplete or partial block is often transient. It may manifest itself only when the rate of the heart is high. When the number of impulses that the bundle is called upon to transmit become lessened, the abnormality disappears. This probably accounts for the aberrant ventricular complexes that occur at times during auricular paroxysmal tachycardia. Occasionally, the slightly longer rest period incident to a compensatory pause following an extrasystole will restore the conducting power of the effected bundle branch. (See Fig. 112.) Such examples have been referred to

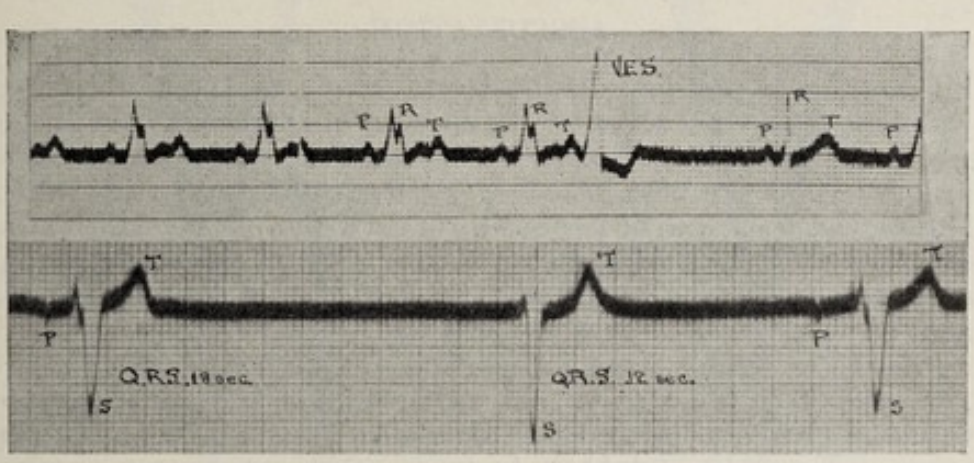


FIG. 112.—BUNDLE BRANCH BLOCK.

Recovery of conduction following a longer rest period. In strip one a single ventricular extrasystole interrupts the sinus rhythm. The compensatory pause following this premature contraction allows a longer time for recovery. The next sinus impulse is transmitted through the branches of the bundle normally: the resulting Q.R.S. complex is normal in duration and shape. Courtesy of Dr. C. C. Wolferth. In strip two the longer rest period resulted from vagal pressure. The first Q.R.S. complex is .18 sec. in duration. That following the long diastole is but .12 sec.

by Robinson as examples of functional fatigue of the conducting system.

The clinical significance of these abnormalities of conduction lies in the fact that the rest of the heart muscle has been exposed to the same influences that so greatly alter the mechanism of conduction in the branches of the bundle.

Pulsus Alternans.—This condition is usually classified under Cardiac Arhythmias. It has already been taken up in the discussion of the pulse (see p. 195).

MENSURATION OF CHEST IN CARDIAC DISEASE

By this clinical method it is possible to ascertain the circumference of the chest at different levels, *e. g.*, at the ensiform cartilage, the nipple, and the axilla. It is also possible to determine the measurements of but one side of the chest, as well as the amount of unilateral expansion during the act of respiration.

PERCUSSION

Percussion serves, in a great measure, to confirm the findings secured by inspection (p. 189) and palpation (p. 195). With reference to cardiac conditions, percussion serves, first, to distinguish between cardiac enlargement, the result of either hypertrophy or dilatation, and pericardial effusion. In pericardial effusion the lower portion of the inferior lobe of the left lung becomes airless, as the result of pressure exerted by the effusion; hence dullness below the angle of the left scapula is a conspicuous sign of pericardial effusion. In performing percussion for the purpose of detecting diseases of the heart and pericardium, it is almost always necessary to distinguish between diseases of these organs and diseases of the lung and pleura. It shall, therefore, be our aim to emphasize, under each particular disease, the advantages of percussion; and here we wish again to call the reader's attention to the great advantages to be gained by the use of auscultatory percussion (p. 259) in differentiating between both diseased and healthy viscera that are in close proximity. (See Percussion of the Lung, p. 60.)

AUSCULTATION

This method of physical diagnosis provides a means of obtaining the most valuable data with reference to diseases of the heart. In auscultating the clinician should first place his ear over the various areas at which the cardiac lesions are best heard—*e. g.*, the right and left second intercostal areas, the apex, and at the ensiform cartilage. The skilled observer can detect with the ear the character of both the first and second sounds of the heart, and determine accurately the condition of the cardiac muscle, weakness of which is also further placarded by arrhythmia.

In order to recognize certain abnormal sounds heard over the precordium, or, as is often the case, exclude other sounds, the stethoscope serves as a valuable means of diagnosis. It is also possible, by the aid of the stethoscope (Figs. 113 and 114), to trace certain murmurs throughout their various areas of distribution, as well as to determine their points of greatest intensity. The stethoscope enables the clinician to obtain valuable data regarding endocardial, pericardial, and pleuropericardial murmurs. (See Auscultation of the Lung, pp. 60–61.)

Normal Heart-sounds

When the stethoscope is applied over the heart in the third and fourth interspaces, within and in the left parasternal line, there is heard a rhythmic alteration of sounds and pauses. These sounds may be distinctly audible over all the precordium, and for some distance beyond it. The predominant sound is synchronous with the apex-beat and carotid pulse, and hence is called the *systolic* or *first* sound, because it coincides with the systole or the ventricular contraction of the heart. A short pause follows, which is in turn followed by a different sound—the second or diastolic sound. The second sound occurs at the beginning of a longer pause, corresponding to the diastole. The two sounds of the heart are often represented by the respective monosyllables, *lub-dub*. The first sound and short pause, together with the second sound and long pause, constitute the cycle. This rhythm of sounds and silences is not clear in infants.

First Sound.—Here the quality of the systolic sound is a dull, booming "lub," and its intensity is marked, while the pitch is relatively low and the duration long.

Second Sound.—The quality of the second sound is sharp and clicking. Its intensity is less loud than that of the first sound; while the pitch is distinctly higher. The duration is decidedly short.

The first and second heart-sounds may be heard over the whole precordium; their accent varies at different points, but the rhythm is maintained. The first sound corresponds to the ventricular systole, and its accentuation is heard at a point where the ventricular conduction of sound is clearest at or near the apex of the heart. The second sound is accentuated at the base of the heart.

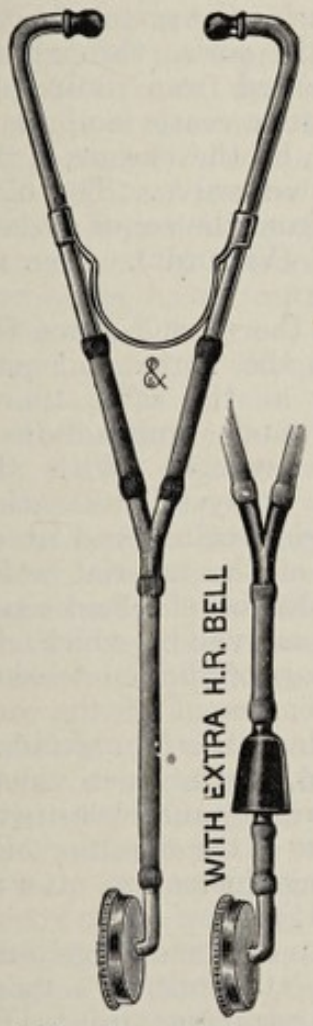


FIG. 113.—BOWLES' STETHOSCOPE.
Regular Pattern.



FIG. 114.—BOWLES' STETHOSCOPE.
Flat iron pattern.

Causes of Sounds.—The first sound is produced by the synchronous closure of both the mitral and tricuspid valves, and the synchronous contractions of the ventricles.

The *second sound* is undoubtedly caused by short closure of the pulmonary and aortic valves. Both sounds are caused practically by valvular action, although the character of the sound may be appreciably altered in affections influencing the vigor of the muscular contractions.

The Cardiac Cycle.—The two heart-sounds and their production will be understood by reviewing the physiologic movement of the blood through the heart: "The blood flows from the body through the cavæ into the right auricle, whence, during the ventricular diastole, it passes through the right auriculoventricular opening, the tricuspid valve, into

the right ventricle, being urged forward toward the end of the diastole by the weak muscular contraction of the right auricle. The systole which immediately follows drives the blood out of the ventricle, the tricuspid valve being at the same time closed, through the open pulmonary semilunar valve, into the pulmonary artery. The blood, prevented from flowing back into the ventricle during the diastole, which immediately follows, by the closure of the pulmonary semilunar valve, passes through the lungs, and from them flows through the left auriculoventricular opening, the mitral valve, into the left ventricle, whither it is again assisted at the end of the diastole by the contraction of the auricle. The left ventricle discharges its contents during the systole (mitral valve being closed) into the commencement of the aorta, through the open aortic semilunar valve, whence it is prevented from returning to the ventricle when the pressure from the ventricle ceases and the diastole begins, by the closure of the aortic semilunar valve. The blood then flows from the conus aortæ into the body" (Vierordt). (See also Fig. 115.)

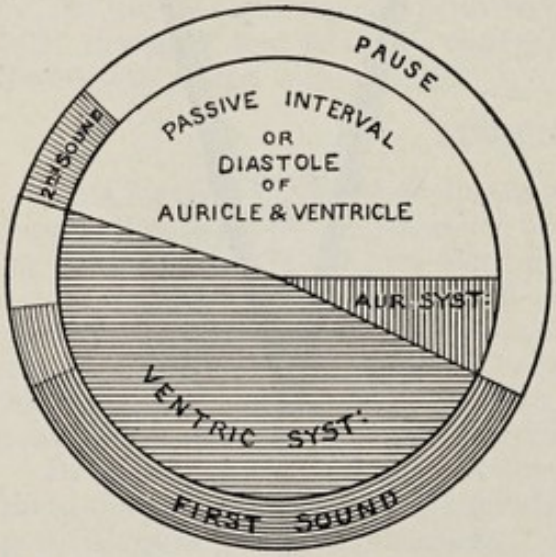


FIG. 115.—DIAGRAMMATIC REPRESENTATION OF THE MOVEMENTS AND SOUNDS OF THE HEART—THE CARDIAC CYCLE (After Sharpey).

In the second place the blood enters the aorta and pulmonary artery at the same time by the synchronous contractions of the two ventricles. With the completion of systole relaxation of the ventricle begins, and at once the recoil of the arterial walls forces the columns of blood against the semilunar valves, which close with the snap of sudden tension at the commencement of the ventricular diastole. The four sounds that are created, one at each valve orifice, are normally audible as two sounds, because of the simultaneous closure of each homologous pair. The accompanying illustration, after Sharpey, serves to illustrate the cardiac cycle (Fig. 115).

The systolic sound, as stated, is partly valvular and largely muscular. It is to be remembered that the valves at the two orifices act simultaneously, consequently it becomes the part of physical diagnosis to determine whether the right or the left heart is the seat of any alteration in sound that may be audible. In health the condition of the cardiac muscle is not greatly concerned with reference to rhythm. (See Pathologic Conditions of Heart.)

Valve Areas.—A superficial area of half an inch square will include a portion of all four sets of cardiac valves (Fig. 62), so that stethoscopic examination here fails to detect the valve affected. Special valve areas are selected for auscultating the heart, and represent the points to which the vibrations from the corresponding valves are best conducted; consequently we have the mitral, the tricuspid, the aortic, and the pulmonary areas.

Maximum Intensity.—The areas of greatest intensity of the first, systolic or ventricular sound is near the apex; and the second diastolic sound is at the base of the heart.

(1) **Mitral Area.**—The sound produced by the closure of the mitral valve at (systole) is most clearly heard at the apex, within an area about 1 inch in diameter.

(2) **Aortic Area.**—The second right intercostal space near the border of the sternum is the point of maximum sound caused by the closure of the aortic leaflets.

(3) **Tricuspid Area.**—The point of election for auscultating the tricuspid element of the first sound of the heart is at the lower part of the sternum, especially near the left border, opposite the fourth and fifth interspaces.

(4) **Pulmonic Area.**—The closure of the pulmonary valve is heard best at the second left interspace, near the sternal border, or at the sternal end of the third left costal cartilage, a point directly over the valve.

The points of election just given are used to locate the seat of production of organic valvular murmurs, as well as for the purpose of differentiating the separate sounds themselves. The physiologic events causing the first and second heart-sounds as heard at the four valve areas have been summarized by Vierordt as follows:

"Apex of the heart (mitral orifice):

"First sound: Closure of the mitral valves and ventricular contraction.

"Second sound: Prolonged aortic second sound (closure of aortic valve).

"Under the sternum (tricuspid orifice):

"First sound: Closure of the tricuspid valves and ventricular contraction.

"Second sound: Prolonged pulmonary second sound.

"Second intercostal space, right or left (aorta, pulmonary artery):

"First sound: Sudden filling of the beginning of the aorta, of the pulmonary artery, and continuation of the first ventricular sound.

"Second sound: Closure of the semilunar valves of the aorta, or of the pulmonary artery."

Physiologic Variations.—The heart may vary in loudness, and both sounds together are relatively increased or diminished in intensity. The condition is often temporary, such increase of intensity depending upon stimulation, diet, exertion, or mental excitement. More or less persistent loudness may depend upon thinness of the chest, as well as the flexibility and delicacy of the bony thorax in children. On the other hand, in those with thick chest-walls, especially women with large mammary glands, both sounds—the first usually more than the second—are relatively weakened. The heart-sounds also are less distinctly heard in an individual when he is lying on the back than when in upright posture, owing to the heart's swinging back from the precordial region.

"Thus it is apparent that the loudness of the cardiac sounds depends upon the nature and the thickness of the media through which they pass, the degree of blood-pressure within the heart and arteries, and the distance of the vibrating valve orifices and ventricular muscle from the front surface of the chest" (H. S. Anders).

The individual valve sounds vary with age, temperament, vigor, nervousness, and occupation. Variations in such normal qualities as pitch, duration, and rhythm are frequently observed.

In childhood the valvular element of the first sound predominates and has a high-pitched, shorter character. In the vigorous and robust the first sound is often of a loud, prolonged nature. whereas in the fat and indolent it is distant and indistinct.

The component elements of the second sound differ in relative intensity, and in childhood the pulmonic sound is the stronger of the two, while in middle life these sounds are about equal. In old age the aortic sound predominates over the pulmonic.

The rhythm of the first sound may be physiologically disturbed; to produce the so-called doubling, the sound is divided, but without any interval, such as exists between the first and the second sounds.

Reduplication of the second sound, while it may occur normally, is usually pathologic. It is rarely heard at the end of deep inspiration.

Heart-sounds of Pathologic Significance

Murmurs.—These include all adventitious sounds heard over the precordium or *any* portion of the vascular system. The normal heart-sounds may be appreciably modified and at times replaced by these superadded sounds (murmurs). Murmurs are clinically considered as:

1. Endocardial. { *a*. Organic. *b*. Hemic (functional).
2. Extracardial.
3. Vascular. { Arterial. Venous.

Here may be the opportune place to call attention to alterations in the normal cardiac sounds the result of pathologic changes in the myocardium. Myocardial degeneration has been considered at length under Myocarditis (p. 324) and is given special mention here because cardiac murmurs are materially influenced by the force and tone of the cardiac muscle. (See Fatty Degeneration, p. 328.)

Organic endocardial murmurs result from structural defects in the cardiac orifices or their leaflets. Functional murmurs are believed to result from myocardial enfeeblement, together with alterations in the circulating blood.

Extracardial murmurs include the friction murmur of pericarditis; the splashing sound of pneumopericardium (p. 279); and the so-called "cardiopulmonary murmur," or whiff. There are also fine râles audible synchronously with the heart's impulse (cardiopulmonic râles), a sign of questionable clinical importance. A pleuropericardial murmur is also audible in selected cases.

Vascular Murmurs.—The vascular murmurs heard over the arteries are best described by the bruit of aneurism, and the "chucking" and pistol-shot sounds, audible over the femoral artery in aortic regurgitation (p. 291).

A venous murmur, "venous hum," deserves mention, and organic heart murmurs may also be heard over the veins of the right side of the neck. (See Tricuspid Regurgitation, p. 313.)

Significance of Murmurs.—The chief physical alterations productive of organic endocardial murmurs are as follows:

(*a*) *Insufficiency*, or incompetency, causing regurgitation of blood when the valves fail to close at the appointed physiologic time.

(*b*) Stenosis, obstruction at the orifices, interfering with the free flow of blood at the time when the valve should normally be open.

(*c*) *Relative insufficiency* at a valve (especially the mitral or tricuspid) orifice, because of dilatation of the heart chamber (weakening of the myocardium) containing it, the simultaneous dilatation of the orifice causing incomplete closure of the leaflets.

Murmurs may occur at non-valvular orifices: *e. g.*, open foramen ovale or at a perforated ventricular septum.

A patulous ductus arteriosus may be responsible for a murmur.

"It will be seen that murmurs may be of several varieties; they may vary in causation, in combination, and in general and specific characteristics. There may be but one murmur present, with distinctive or obscure features, or two or three at different orifices, perhaps two at one orifice (double lesion)" (H. S. Anders).

Points to Be Observed.—The observations to be taken regarding every murmur are:

(1) Its location or area of greatest intensity.
(2) Its time, place it occurs in the cardiac cycle.
(3) Area of distribution and of transmission.
(4) Acoustic attributes, volume, intensity, pitch, and duration.
(5) Relation the murmur bears to the normal heart-sounds.

(1) **Localization.**—*Point of Maximum Intensity.*—The first step in the diagnosis of a murmur is to localize it, and thus determine the valve or orifice affected (seat of the lesion). To recapitulate, the points of greatest loudness usually correspond to the areas where the respective valve sounds are best heard; *e. g.*, mitral valve murmurs are most distinctly audible at or near the apex; aortic murmurs, at the right second intercostal space, near the sternum; tricuspid murmurs, over the lower part of the sternum; and pulmonary valve murmurs, at the left second intercostal space, at the sternal border. Any murmur whose maximum intensity does not coincide with one of these areas is probably not valvular in origin.

(2) **Rhythm (Time).**—The majority of organic valvular murmurs may be diagnosticated, that is, the lesions producing them may be rather positively inferred upon the basis of the facts of the area of greatest intensity and of the time. Determination of the area of maximum loudness determines the valve or orifice affected, and the time a murmur is heard during the heart's cycle indicates what the normal condition of function should be at that orifice at that given time, and dictates whether the lesion is obstructive or regurgitant.

Two subvarieties of organic murmurs must needs be studied correlatively:

(1) Murmurs of regurgitation (insufficiency) are heard at that time during the heart's cycle when the affected valves ought normally to be closed, *e. g.*, they are heard at systole when the auriculoventricular or venous (mitral and tricuspid) valves leak, and during diastole when the arterial (pulmonic and aortic) valves are diseased.

(2) Murmurs of obstruction or stenosis occur at that time in the cardiac cycle when normally blood is passing through the orifices affected; consequently, they are heard during the systole, with disease at the arterial openings, and during diastole, when the auriculoventricular regions are affected.

Time of Murmurs.—The mitral regurgitant murmur is always systolic; the aortic regurgitant, diastolic; the aortic obstructive (stenotic) murmur, systolic; the mitral stenotic, diastolic (presystolic), because it is best heard near the end of diastole or just before systole.

With similar lesions on the right side of the heart, tricuspid and pulmonary valve murmurs have the same times.

The mode of reasoning in the timing of a murmur may be put forth as follows: a murmur that is best heard at or near the apex (the mitral area) and is systolic in rhythm, when normally the mitral valve should be closed, is dependent upon insufficiency.

Murmurs are timed by requesting the patient to hold the breath, so as to exclude the occasional intervention of the respiratory murmur. Place a finger over the carotid or the subclavian arteries, which pulsate synchronously with the first or systolic sound of the heart.

The characteristic features of the murmurs present in aortic regurgitation, mitral regurgitation, and tricuspid regurgitation, as well as those of aortic and mitral stenosis, have been discussed at length in this chapter, and the reader is especially referred to the mechanism of the lesion under each respective heading. An endocardial murmur may be so loud as to obscure a portion of the normal heart-sound, and it is indeed common to meet with cases where these murmurs are so loud as to make it impossible to hear either the first or second sounds of the heart. In myocarditis accompanying endocardial lesions the cardiac rhythm may be so irregular as to cause great confusion with reference to the time and characteristics of a given murmur. The loudness of the heart's sound (muscular element) may also vary at different impulses, and this causes decided confusion in the study of organic murmurs.

Extracardial murmurs have been described in connection with pericarditis, aortic regurgitation (pistol-shot sounds), and aneurism.

X-RAY EVIDENCE IN DISEASES OF THE PERICARDIUM, HEART, AND BLOOD-VESSELS

By George E. Pfahler, M.D.

THE PERICARDIUM

Dry pericarditis gives no characteristic appearances by the *x*-ray, but may increase the heart's action, which can be observed fluoroscopically.

Exudative pericarditis gives a characteristic appearance, depending on the amount of exudate.

1. The cardiac shadow is much increased.*

2. The outline of this shadow is less clearly marked than where the heart muscle is observed. This is due to the lesser density of the fluid than of the heart muscle.

3. The complementary spaces are filled up. The cardiohepatic angle becomes a right or obtuse angle, instead of acute. The curve of the apex of the heart is lost (this is best observed when the tube is placed low or on a level with the lower border of the heart). The dome of the left side of the diaphragm is likely to be somewhat flattened (Brauer). This alters the shape of the usual cardiac shadow, and gives it more of a triangular appearance.

4. The movements differ from the usual cardiac pulsation, and this change may be recognized as an early sign, or in this early stage pulsation may be confined to the ventricle. In large effusions there may be only a general pulsatory movement, instead of a sectional wave of contraction, as is seen in the heart normally.

Obliterative pericarditis gives no characteristic appearance.

External mediastinal pericarditis gives, on the other hand, definite signs. If the patient holds his breath, distinct tugging movements of the surrounding tissues may be observed. This appearance is made more evident by deep inspiration or by bending sidewise, which will depend upon the location of the adhesions. If they are on the under surface, when the patient inspires deeply, the heart will be elongated more than usual, and the cardiodiaphragmatic angles will be modified. If

*F. W. Gaarde, Medical Clinics of North America, Jan., 1925, p. 1235.

they are anterior, adhesions to the sternum may at times be seen by oblique illumination (Brauer).

THE HEART

General Remarks.—Exact measurements of the heart can be made orthodiagraphically (outlined by the central ray, which strikes the screen perpendicularly). This procedure, unfortunately, involves considerable exposure of the operator, and, like most fluoroscopic work, is extremely dangerous. An outline of the heart which is probably as accurate is obtained by long-distance roentgenography (plate 2 meters from the target of the tube—Köhler). A. Cohen of New York employed the following method in outlining the heart in the case of soldiers: "The distance from the anticathode of the Röntgen-ray tube to the photographic place was 6 feet. A strip of lead about 10.0 cm. long, 6.0 mm.

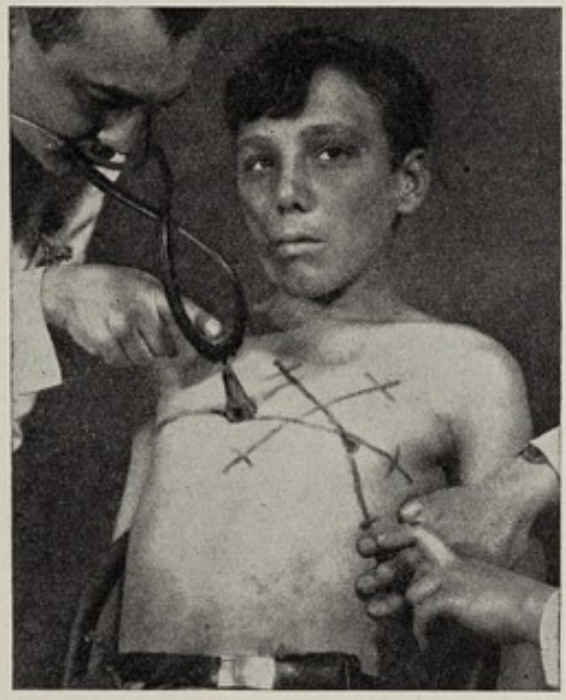


FIG. 116.—CARDIAC DIAMETERS.

Transverse leading from beyond the right border of the sternum to the left axilla. Right oblique leading from the uppermost area of cardiac dullness beneath the sternum to the apex. Left oblique leading from the superior left border of the heart to the ensiform. The right oblique diameter is increased most in left ventricular hypertrophy. The left oblique and transverse diameters are increased in right sided dilatation. The diameters become of approximately equal length in acute cardiac dilatation. Percuss from below the apex upward along the right oblique cardiac diameter to determine the lower extent of the apex. The stethoscope may be placed over any other portion of the heart, and percussion applied to determine heart boundary at any selected point.

wide, and about 3.0 mm. thick was laid on the skin over the spines of the vertebra and secured with adhesive plaster. Two acute angles of lead were similarly secured—one in the suprasternal notch and the other in the infrasternal notch. The target of the Röntgen-ray tube was adjusted to the level of the lower angle. Whether correct anteroposterior alignment was obtained, could then be ascertained by examining the plate." The outline of the heart is modified normally by a number of factors, but probably most of all by the respiration. During deep inspiration it is decreased transversely and increased vertically. This is probably due to the rotation of the heart upon its axis. The shadow, as a whole, seems

to take a more central position in the chest instead of extending greatly to the left. This modification in the general shape of the cardiac shadow is permitted because of an elongation of the chest cavity, and, therefore,

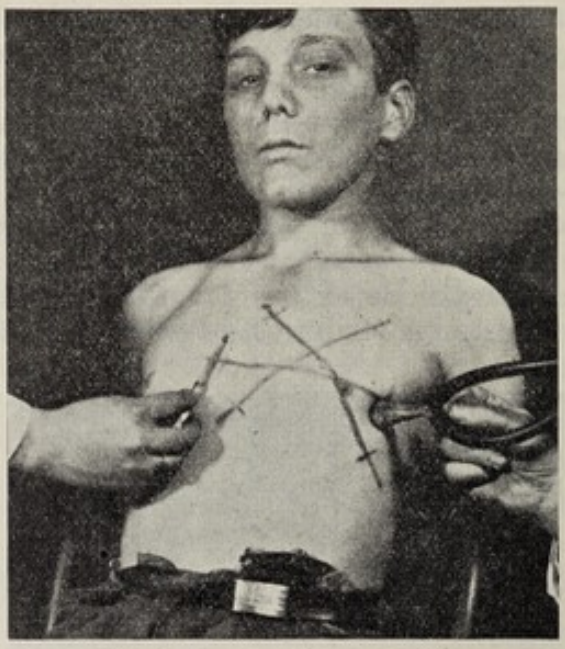


FIG. 117.—STROKING THE SKIN WITH A DELICATE FILE AT THE BEGINNING OF THE RIGHT OBLIQUE CARDIAC DIAMETER TO DETERMINE THIS BORDER OF THE HEART. THE LEFT OBLIQUE EXTENDING FROM THE LEFT SHOULDER TO THE ENSIFORM CARTILAGE AND THE TRANSVERSE DIAMETER LEADING FROM THE RIGHT BORDER OF THE STERNUM THROUGH THE NIPPLE TO THE LEFT AXILLA ARE ALSO SHOWN. NOTE THE TRIANGULAR AREA AT THE CENTER OF THE PRECORDIUM (ABSOLUTE DULLNESS).

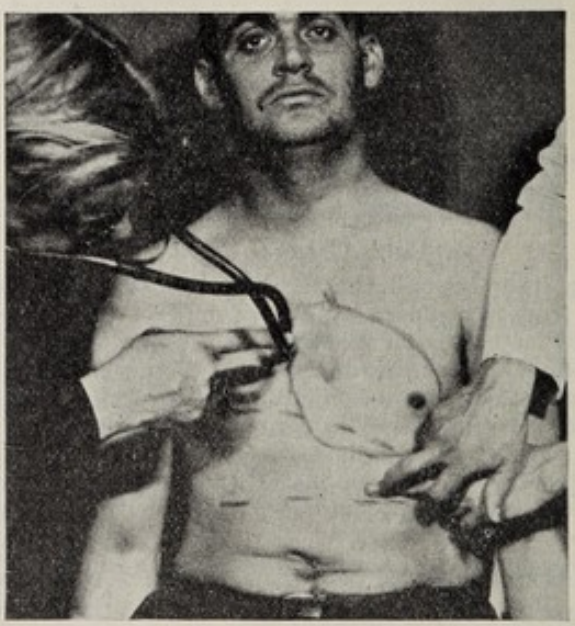


FIG. 118.—THE AREA WHERE THE HEART APPARENTLY OVERLAPS THE LIVER (ACCURATE DETERMINATION OF HEPATIC AND CARDIAC DULLNESS).

Stethoscope bell may be placed over any portion of the heart. Start percussion over the liver, and avoid bony structures, until the lower border of the heart is approached. By placing the stethoscope bell over any remote portion of the liver, percussion may be made across the body of the heart to determine the upper border of the liver at this point.

will occur in any condition which permits of this elongation, such as visceroptosis, the phthisical chest, etc. As a result of this elongation and

narrowing of the heart shadow, one would get the impression of a smaller heart. (Percussion would, of course, be affected by these same modifications.) During forced expiration, on the other hand, the heart is thrown more transversely, and, therefore, tends to give an impression of a wider heart shadow. Similarly, any condition which crowds the diaphragm upward will give a more transverse position to the heart, and therefore a false impression as to its size. Outlining of the heart by auscultatory percussion, and by stroking of the skin surface, is the best physical method for approximating the size of the heart (see threshold percussion, p. 262). The accompanying illustrations (Figs. 116 to 118) will serve to describe the technic necessary in this procedure.

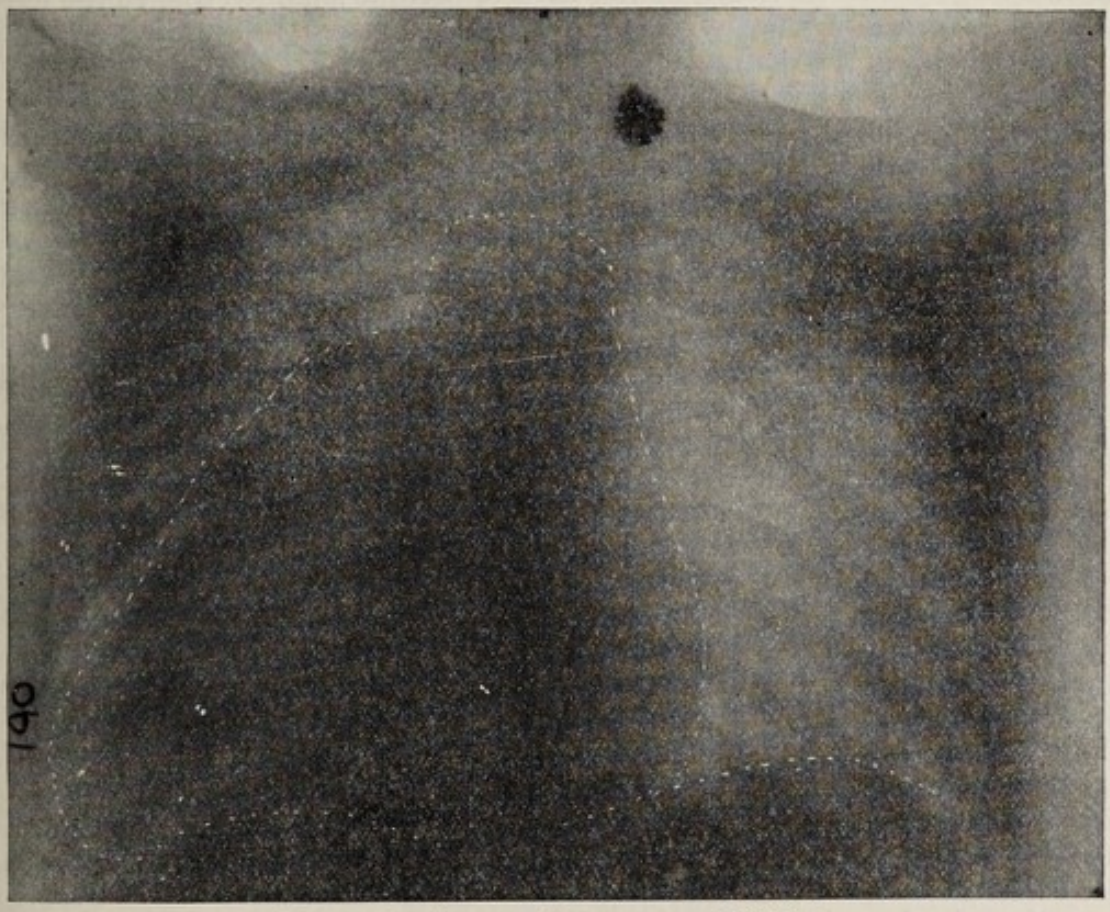


FIG. 119.—CARDIAC DILATATION (Pfahler).

Due to mitral and aortic disease. Notice the enlargement of the left ventricle, the left auricle, the pulmonary artery, and the right auricle.

The size of the heart is affected by age, stature, weight, sex, and posture. These latter modifications have been carefully tabulated, and these tables of averages published by Dietlen and Groedel. After an accurate record of the size of a heart has been made, it should be compared with carefully prepared tables of this kind, or it is not of great value. Moritz has shown that in standing the cardiac shadow is narrower, while the length is not affected.

However, in the ordinary chest plate one can recognize gross enlargements and variations in shape. Such a record is of decided value in making comparisons in any particular case with subsequent plates made under like conditions, as well as in making an accurate diagnosis.

The *modifications* in the *shape* and *position* of the heart are of far greater diagnostic importance than the determination of its actual sizes.

This information can be obtained by the ordinary methods of Röntgen examination of the chest. Stereoscopic methods are adding much to our accuracy.

Before studying the pathologic shapes of the heart, one must be familiar with the *normal curves*. On the right side, the lower curve indicates the outline of the right auricle, and above this is the curve of the ascending portion of the arch of the aorta. The right ventricle rests upon the diaphragm, and is only occasionally visible, when the upper part of the stomach is distended with gas.

The left border of the cardiac shadow is made up of the curve of the left ventricle below, and above this is the curve of the pulmonary artery. Between these two there is a lighter area of cardiac shadow, due to the left auricle. Normally, this does not stand out as a curve, but in dilatation of this auricle it can be distinctly seen. Above the curve of the pulmonary artery we see the curve of the descending portion of the arch of the aorta. The latter shadow of the aorta can usually be traced from its origin, and its continuation can be followed posterior to the cardiac shadow.

Threshold Percussion (Threshold of Audibility, or Goldscheider's Ortho Percussion).—The technic for this method is to place the tip of the second finger against the chest wall, and strike it gently with the finger of the opposite hand. It is not essential that the finger be used in this mild type of percussion but some other substance, such as a pencil, may be interposed between the chest wall and the finger with which the stroke is made. This method is also referred to as trans-digital percussion and is of value in outlining the heart.

The Pathologic Heart.—In the study of the pathologic heart one records its size, form, position, its mobility, and its peristaltic movements. Departures from the normal give valuable evidence in each of the various cardiac affections.

Displacements of the heart can be recognized, and their causes demonstrated. When the entire heart is displaced to the right, one must always think of a transposition of the viscera. If the displacement is due to this condition, one will find by the *x*-rays a corresponding reversal of the stomach, liver, and spleen.

If due to **adhesions,** these adhesive bands can often be seen, and when examined fluoroscopically, the displacement is sure to become more marked during inspiration. This is usually due to bands which are adherent to the pericardium.

Other displacements are due to abnormal conditions in the surrounding structures. The heart is supported by the great vessels above, and rests upon the diaphragm below. It is pressed by the lungs on each side, which form an elastic cushion. Any modification in any of these structures will tend to displace the heart. Therefore any condition which will raise the left side of the diaphragm (such as eventratia diaphragmatica, abnormal distention of the fundus of the stomach with gas, tumors, subdiaphragmatic abscess, etc.) will raise the heart, and if the right side of the diaphragm is not equally raised, the heart will be rotated to the right. Likewise if the right side of the diaphragm is elevated (enlarged liver, subdiaphragmatic abscess), the heart will be crowded to the left. With an elevation of both sides of the diaphragm (ascites, meteorism, pregnancy) the heart is seen to lie more transversely.

Emphysema causes a depression of the diaphragm, and therefore a more centrally located and a lower elongated cardiac shadow is obtained.

Tuberculosis.—Early apical tuberculosis on the left side may give a high position of the left side of the diaphragm, and, therefore, displace-

ment of the heart to the right. If adhesions are present, it may be drawn to the affected side. With an atelectasis on one side, the heart will be crowded toward the affected side by the compensatory emphysema of the opposite side.

Pneumothorax, pyopneumothorax, and **pleural effusions** may be seen to crowd the heart toward the opposite side.

Aneurisms and **mediastinal new-growths** are variable in their effect upon the position of the heart, but usually there is a displacement downward.

Abnormal Mobility of the Heart.—Adhesions interfere with the normal downward movement of the heart if the attachments are from above, and increase the mobility if from below. All conditions in which one lung is contracted or compressed will be associated with movement of the heart toward the affected side during deep inspiration.

Abnormal Cardiac Pulsations.—Weak and wavy pulsations are seen in tachycardia, especially in myocarditis and in Basedow's disease.

Strong general contractions are seen in bradycardia and heart-block (Groedel), and in general cardiac hypertrophy.

The strongest pulsations of the left ventricle are seen in connection with aortic insufficiency. The shadow of the pulmonary artery may be seen to pulsate in obstruction to the lesser circulation, especially in connection with mitral insufficiency. Strong pulsation is also seen in persistence of the ductus arteriosus.

In tricuspid insufficiency a strong pulsation of the right auricle may be seen.

Abnormal Size of the Heart.—Chronic nephritis gives a large heart of a globular form.

The small heart which is often found associated with *chronic tuberculosis* is probably, in the first place, a part of the general atrophy of the body, associated with the wasting disease (since it is found in other chronic wasting diseases), and, secondly, the smallness of the shadow is more apparent than real, because of a rotation of the heart upon its axis.

The *left ventricle* may become enlarged in any of the following conditions:

Aortic stenosis,
Aortic regurgitation,
Aneurism of the first part of the aorta.

MITRAL REGURGITATION

Dilatation of the left ventricle.

OVEREXERTION AS SEEN IN:

Athletes,	Acrobats,
Pugilists,	Marathon runners.

Those following laborious occupations, *e. g.*, stokers, firemen, etc.:

Arteriosclerosis,	Nephritis,
Hepatic cirrhosis,	Alcoholism,
Exophthalmic goiter,	Congenital heart conditions.

Abnormal Form of the Heart.—*Persistence of the ductus arteriosus* gives an increase in the shadow of the arteriopulmonalis (de la Camp).

Aortic insufficiency gives a decided increase in the size of the left ventricle; the shadow of the whole heart is more horizontal, and the apex does not show through the diaphragm.

Aortic stenosis gives a very similar picture, but to a lesser degree, and the enlargement of the left ventricle is proportionately less.

Aortic sclerosis and dilatation give an increased shadow in the region of the ascending aorta.

Mitral stenosis gives a remarkably small heart and enlargement of the left auricle. This cannot always be seen.

Mitral insufficiency gives a general enlargement of the heart—only the shadow of the curves of the great vessels on the right side and the aorta on the left remain unchanged. The heart assumes a globular form. The right auricular shadow is increased, and the enlargement of the left ventricle is more upward, toward the axilla, than to the left.

Tricuspid insufficiency is usually associated with the lesions and, therefore, gives nothing characteristic unless there is a pronounced increase in the shadow of the right auricle. The right ventricle lies upon the diaphragm and cannot be definitely demonstrated.

THE MEDIASTINUM

By good technic the entire mediastinum can be explored, and not only a positive, but often a negative, diagnosis can be made. Anteroposterior, postero-anterior, and oblique views, and then familiarity with the normal appearances, are necessary.

Mediastinal Tumors.—These are:

1. Tumors involving the mediastinal lymphatic glands, either primary or secondary, and due to tuberculosis, syphilis, leukemia, pseudoleukemia. carcinoma, and sarcoma.
2. Cystic tumors (simple dermoid or echinococcus).
3. Substernal struma and thymus tumors.

In general, if the patient is examined before dyspnea and weakness become too marked, and before there are marked secondary changes in the surrounding lung tissue, one obtains rather definite outlines of the tumors. They should be examined both roentgenoscopically and roentgenographically.

The size, shape, extent, and definite location can be obtained in relation to other organs or tissues. The degree of density of the shadow, and whether multiple (nodular) or uniform, should be noted. One should decide upon the absence of expansile pulsation to eliminate aneursim. Pulsatory movements may be transmitted from the great vessels, but these are not expansile. In this, as in all other affections, all the clinical evidence should be taken into consideration in making a diagnosis. In my observations in the study of metastatic mediastinal carcinoma there is usually a rather diffuse central shadow in the upper part of the mediastinum, and from this radiating shadows of small tumors can be seen extending into the lung area. The larger tumors of the mediastinum are often sharply outlined, and may be single or multiple. If single, the absence of expansile pulsation, the peculiar shape, and the location outside of the line of the aorta will eliminate aneurism.

ANEURISM

In *aneurism* one finds an abnormal shadow in the course of the aorta. One should give attention to its size, form, location, degree of density, pulsating appearances, the movement in swallowing, the delay in the passage of food through the esophagus (Lange), and any changes in the position of neighboring organs.

Examinations should be made both fluoroscopically and by plates. With the fluoroscope one can usually recognize the expansile pulsations, and with the plate a permanent record is made which enables one to recognize changes that may occur.

Pulsation.—Probably the most important point of investigation, after an abnormal shadow has been found, is to determine the presence or absence of pulsation. This pulsation should be of an expansile character, and when obtained, it is pathognomonic. Pulsation may be transmitted to other mediastinal tumors, but this is not of an expansile character. On the other hand, an aneurism may not give pulsation if its walls are very thick, or if filled with an organized clot.

Its border is usually round and distinctly outlined by contrast with the transparent lung. This will not be true, however, if adhesions have formed or if there is accompanying atelectasis of the lung.

One should be very careful to make examinations in different positions. I have examined several patients who only complained of anginoid pain under the sternum, and in whom the usual physical signs were absent, but by the rays I was enabled to demonstrate a thin, flat, dissecting aneurism under the sternum, which gave an expansile pulsation, and which was visible only anteriorly. A plate made with the patients lying on the back in these instances would not have shown the aneurism.

Tortuosity of the aorta gives appearances simulating a beginning aneurism in the descending portion of the arch of the aorta. There is a bulging in the shadow at this point, and often there are associated suggestive physical signs, such as diminution in the left radial pulse, episternal pulsation, and an abnormal area of dullness in the left second interspace, but fluoroscopically one does not get any expansile pulsation. With this condition one usually finds evidence of arterioslerosis elsewhere in the body.

Arteriosclerosis in the extremities can often be demonstrated. This depends upon a deposit of lime salts in the vessel-walls. In the upper extremities the Röntgen examination will not often be necessary, but in the lower extremities, where the arteries are not so easily palpated, the sclerosis can be shown. In *dysbasia arteriosclerotica* one may only find isolated plaques instead of the entire outline of the artery (Krause).

DISEASES OF THE PERICARDIUM

PERICARDITIS

Pathologic Definition.—An acute or subacute condition, characterized by inflammatory changes in the serous coverings of the heart; these changes are usually localized, although they may occasionally be general. At the onset the serous membrane is smooth, swollen, and congested, and punctate ecchymotic spots may be visible; with the progress of the disease, however, the affected serous surface becomes grayish in color and roughened, as the result of the deposit of a thin layer of fibrin. If the accumulation of fibrin upon the inflamed surface is profuse, the friction of the two surfaces of the pericardium gives it a honeycombed appearance. Following acute pericarditis there may be an accumulation of a serous exudate into the pericardial sac.

Varieties.—For convenience of study inflammatory changes of the pericardium may be considered under the following subheads: (1) Acute plastic or fibrinous; (2) subacute or serofibrinous; (3) purulent; (4) hemorrhagic; (5) chronic adhesive; and (6) tuberculosis of the pericardium as the result of direct extension from the lung.

Predisposing and Exciting Factors.—The disease is commonly secondary to some acute or chronic infective focus. It may be part of a

general blood borne sepsis. In acute plastic and in the serofibrinous variety of pericarditis the etiologic factors are practically the same, and the origin of the disease is bacterial. Acute plastic pericarditis frequently attacks males during early adult life, and, indeed, the disease not infrequently occurs as a complication of acute articular rheumatism, chronic nephritis, lobar pneumonia, and less often is it seen during the course of other acute infections. Stone in an analysis of the records of 300 autopsies, on lobar pneumonia, found pericarditis as a complication in 24 per cent. of them (see Pneumonia, p. 120). In the acute purulent varieties the quantity of pus recovered from the pericardium varied between 100 and 1000 c.c. Barring the few cases in which pericarditis is either tuberculous or cancerous as the result of direct extension from adjacent viscera, we find that the infective agents are conveyed to the pericardium through the circulatory system. Too great importance cannot be attached to the development of a pericarditis as the result of direct extension from the lung, pleura, esophagus, or bronchial glands. Pericarditis may be seen following disease of the aortic valves, but this particular form of direct extension of disease to the pericardium is far less common than the other varieties mentioned. Acute pericarditis is prone to develop, without plausible explanation, during the course of acute articular rheumatism. Certain other acute maladies appear to show a predilection to attack the pericardium and other serous membranes; among these should be mentioned chorea, gonorrhea, scarlet fever, and epidemic meningitis. (See Focal Infection, p. 985.)

Bacteriology.—When a pus-producing micro-organism gains access to the pericardium, it may set up an acute pericarditis. Among the bacteria recoverd from the pericardial sac are the staphylococcus aureus, the pneumoccoccus, the gonoccous, the tubercle bacillus, the streptococcus, bacillus coli communis, and bacillus pyocyaneus. The symptoms of pericarditis may be displayed, and yet no bacteria be found present in the pericardial fluid.

Acute Plastic Pericarditis

Pathologic Definition.—The pathologic changes upon which the symptoms and signs are based are the presence of early localized areas of congestion and punctate ecchymotic spots, and, later, the same areas become roughened and covered with fibrin.

Principal Complaint.—Since, as previously stated, acute plastic pericarditis is seldom a primary malady, there may be but few, if any, symptoms pointing directly to this condition. As a rule, the symptoms are obscure. A history of acute articular rheumatism is common, although even in this class of cases subjective symptoms may be lacking.

In selected cases of a severe type the patient complains of *pain* in the region of the precordium, and of a feeling of *distress* or *constriction* about the chest. Actual pain may be absent. When pain is well established, with the accumulation of fluid in the pericardial sac, it diminishes gradually, but prior to this time the patient often complains of distress or pain that radiates from the heart to the left shoulder, the back, and the left arm. Pain in the region of the ensiform cartilage and over the upper portion of the abdomen may also be a marked or, at least, an annoying symptom. The pain of pericarditis is distinguished from similar thoracic pains by the fact that it is uninfluenced by pressure over the heart.

Palpitation may be experienced before there is distinct pain, and as the condition advances, this annoying symptom is likely to become more and more pronounced.

Dyspnea is a frequent, although by no means constant, complaint during the early stage of pericarditis.

Thermic Features.—The temperature will be found to rise one, two, or three degrees, depending upon the severity of the case in question. If pericarditis develops as a complication during the course of another febrile malady, rise in the temperature of one or two degrees is to be expected.

Physical Signs.—Inspection.—In those cases in which pericardial pain is severe the expression is anxious and the features are somewhat pinched. If dyspnea is present, rapid action of the chest and distention of the nostrils occurs. The impulse of the apex-beat is always vigorous and frequent.

Palpation confirms what has previously been detected by inspection, *i. e.*, the character of the respiration and of the apex-beat. In the early stage of pericarditis, and while the serous surfaces are comparatively dry, the hand over the heart will detect a distinct friction fremitus. This fremitus results from the rubbing of the congested or roughened peri-

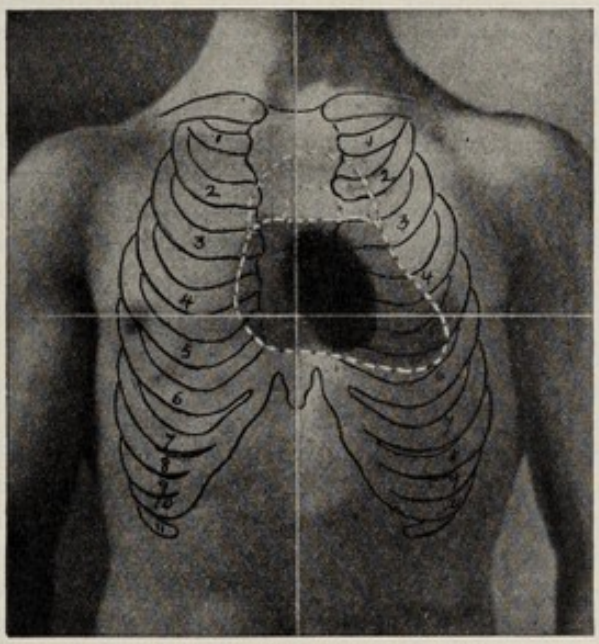


Fig. 120.—Shaded Area Shows Where Pericardial Friction Murmur is Commonly Heard and Where Friction Fremitus is to be Detected.

cardial layers one upon the other, and is, as a rule, most pronounced near the base of the heart and to the left of the sternal margin.

At the onset the *pulse* is increased in frequency, of good force, and the tension remains normal or increased until late in the disease, when it becomes appreciably weakened. If the cardiac muscle becomes involved later, the pulse is irregular. Due to compression of the lung, there may be present physical signs, quite characteristic of pneumonia. Evidence of pneumonia from pericardial pressure is more commonly seen in children and young subjects.

Auscultation.—Among the signs of pericarditis the most valuable is the distinct friction sound, which is usually synchronous with the heart's action. The site of greatest intensity of the friction murmur is ordinarily at the junction of the fourth or fifth interspace with the sternum (Fig. 120), although it is commonly audible over the greater portion of the base of the heart. The friction murmur may, in selected cases, be distinctly localized to a small area, or it may be most intense over certain selected areas located near the base of the heart, and, indeed, the friction murmur

may be heard best at the original location of some one of the endocardial murmurs. If the friction murmur is most distinct over an area where endocardial disease of a certain valve would be audible, the distinction between these murmurs is made by exerting firm pressure upon the stethoscope, when, if the murmur has its origin in the endocardium, it is not affected by pressure; on the other hand, pericardial murmurs are often intensified as the result of bringing a greater area of the diseased pericardial layers into proximity. Pressure sufficiently strong to cause the layers of the pericardium to remain in contact would, on the other hand, prevent a pericardial murmur. Pleural and pleuropericardial murmurs may also be audible and vary with the acts of respiration.

Forced inspiration may possibly influence pericardial murmurs. There is no distinct quality that attaches itself to the pericardial friction-sound, yet in the majority of cases this sound is harsh, grating, or rubbing in character, and at times has a somewhat crackling quality. When the character of the exudate is soft and the action of the heart unusually feeble, a soft murmur is heard, and, indeed, a characteristic murmur may be absent. A marked feature of the pericardial friction-sound is its superficial character.

Time.—The pericardial murmurs may apparently be double, and seem to be produced by the movements of the heart, yet the murmurs in all cases are not synchronous with the heart-sounds. The murmur may or may not exceed the sound of the heart in volume and in duration.

Caution.—"A to-and-fro friction sound is, as a rule, indicative of plastic pericarditis, although it is an error to regard it as an infallible sign, since complete calcification of the coronary arteries, as well as excessive dryness of the pericardial surfaces, may rarely produce friction murmurs" (Anders).

X-ray.—It is difficult through radiographic study to outline the heart when the effusion is large; the cardiac outline may become rounded, but the cardio-hepatic angle is not obliterated. Lessened cardiac pulsation is observed but is also a feature in cardiac dilatation.

Laboratory Diagnosis.—The character of the urine will be influenced largely by the preëxisting disease in which pericarditis developed as a complication. As a rule, it is diminished in quantity, of high color, and rich in solids. Fluid recovered from the pericardium may contain pathogenic bacteria. A case now under the care of one of us at the Philadelphia General Hospital was found to have tubercle bacilli in the pericardial fluid twelve days after onset of pericarditis.

Summary of Diagnosis.—The clinical history, and particularly the preëxistence of rheumatism, chorea, and gonorrhea, should not be neglected. Other diseases of the thorax, and particularly of the lung and pleura, may precede, and often have a direct bearing upon, acute plastic pericarditis. The character of the pericardial distress and possibly the existence of pain radiating to the arm and upper portion of the abdomen, occurring in those who have recently displayed an elevation of temperature of one or two degrees, should suggest pericardial involvement. The detection of a friction fremitus over the heart, and especially the presence of a friction murmur, are among the most important data in establishing a diagnosis.

Clinical Course and Duration.—Favorable cases of acute plastic pericarditis terminate in recovery within the course of a few weeks, although complete resolution may not follow; the pericardial exudate frequently continues to form fibrinous tissue, thus materially damaging the pericardium. Acute plastic pericarditis is often the first stage of sero-

fibrinous pericarditis, to be described later. The clinical course is also modified by the presence or absence of complications—*e. g.*, pleurisy, pulmonary diseases, and nephritis, all of which materially retard, and often prevent, permanent recovery.

Complications.—Where the inflammatory process is sufficiently extensive to spread to the external surface of the pericardium and to the pleura, the case becomes one of pleurisy, or the so-called "pleuropericardial" type of this disease, known as mediastinopericarditis.

Subacute or Serofibrinous Pericarditis

Pathologic Definition.—An accumulation of effused serum in the pericardium. The quantity of serum present varies in mild cases from two to ten ounces, but in the more severe grades of pericarditis one, two, or more pints may be contained within the pericardial sac. The lesions are similar in kind, but are more intense than those of acute plastic pericarditis, just described.

Predisposing and Exciting Factors.—In certain cases the exciting factor is doubtless acute plastic pericarditis, but in the vast majority of instances serofibrinous pericarditis develops during the course of acute articular rheumatism,—in from 30 to 50 per cent. of cases,—chronic nephritis, and chronic pulmonary tuberculosis. "I believe that, exceptionally, both serofibrinous and plastic pericarditis may occur in the course of rheumatic dyscrasia without the slightest evidence of arthritis" (Anders).

Serofibrinous pericarditis may occur as a complication during the course of certain of the acute eruptive fevers, and it may occur in acute lobar pneumonia. The extravasation of serum into the pericardial sac may result from bacterial infection—*e. g.*, by the tubercle bacillus. Inflammatory disease of other portions of the chest may, by direct extension to the pericardium, result in pericardial effusion.

Principal Complaint.—In a small percentage of cases there is doubtless a primary pericarditis, during which the patient complains of a *chill* or of *chilly sensations, anorexia, nausea, vomiting, prostration,* and *feverishness,* and at or about the same period there is experienced a peculiar *dull* or *aching sensation* in the chest, although the patient's description of this discomfort may be quite indefinite.

Acute pain is an occasional complaint, and suggests an associated pleuritis. Secondary pericarditis may be well developed without causing any special discomfort or annoyance to the patient. Certain cases experience precordial oppression, with a variable degree of discomfort, pain, and soreness as an early symptom.

Dyspnea may be the initial complaint that points toward pericardial effusion, and in many cases shortness of breath develops simultaneously with the accumulation of fluid in the pericardium. *Orthopnea* is an occasional manifestation. The dyspnea in the case of a large effusion into the pericardium is due to two causes, since pressure is exerted both upon the heart and upon the lungs. Cardiac diastole may be materially interfered with, owing to pressure upon the right ventricle. When this occurs, the great veins fail to discharge their blood freely into the heart, and, as a consequence, the arterial system is imperfectly filled—a condition that must in time reduce the blood-pressure.

Nervous Manifestations.—Headache develops as an early symptom, and may be intense, particularly in those cases in which the circulation is feeble. Delirium may develop during the night, and in severe cases it

is continuous, and may progress until stupor, and even coma, intervene. Maniacal delirium has been known to occur.

Thermic Features.—Typical cases display an irregular temperature, varying between 100° and 103° F. In those cases that terminate favorably the fever falls by lysis, whereas in those tending toward a fatal termination the fever is either continuous for an indefinite period, or suddenly rises to from 103° to 105° F., and with such hyperpyrexia the general clinical picture becomes less favorable. In those cases following acute articular rheumatism high fever is of grave prognostic import.

Physical Signs.—Inspection.—At first the skin appears unusually pale, but after a large effusion has accumulated there is cyanosis of both the skin and the mucous surfaces. Duskiness of the face has been a conspicuous feature in our experience. The veins of the neck are prominent, and in extreme cases they may display decided pulsation. The respiratory movements are hurried, labored, and may be irregular in rhythm. If the effusion is large, the expression is anxious, and the patient elects to rest in the recumbent posture, with his head and shoulders well elevated; as the condition advances from bad to worse it may be necessary for him to sit continuously. Should a large effusion be present, he reclines toward the left.

When there is but slight effusion, the apex-beat is exaggerated, but as the exudate increases in volume the heart is forced upward and backward, and the apex lies up and to the left of its normal site. In the presence of a large effusion the apex-beat is weak, but more diffuse than normal. If the pericardial sac is filled with fluid, the apex-beat may be imperceptible, since, owing to the heart being surrounded by liquid, the organ is not in contact with the chest-wall.

In adults who have previously suffered from pleurisy and in whom the lung tissue has shrunken away from the heart, a large pericardial effusion may produce bulging of the left side of the chest. The diaphragm may also be depressed, and the left superior abdominal quadrant rendered unduly prominent as the result of a large pericardial effusion. In children, whenever the pericardial sac becomes well filled with fluid, the interspaces are prominent, and there may be distinct bulging of the precordium. In young children the respiratory movements of the left side are restricted as the result of a large pericardial effusion. Emaciation is rapid.

Palpation.—*Pulse.*—When the quantity of fluid in the pericardium is small, the pulse is full and strong; when, however, the effusion increases in amount, it may interfere with the heart's action, and the pulse is then apt to be small, feeble, and irregular. When, comparatively speaking, the pericardium is filled with fluid, the radial pulse is often absent during the act of inspiration—the so-called "pulsus paradoxus." (See Pulse, p. 195.)

Palpation confirms in many respects the data ascertained by inspection, and particularly is this true as regards the strength, location, and distribution of the apex-beat. The impulse of the apex-beat is elevated to the left, the degree of elevation depending upon the quantity of pericardial fluid present. Again, the position of the patient also alters the position of the apex-beat. When the pericardium is well filled, and the patient is in the sitting posture, the apex-beat may be imperceptible, but if he is directed to incline his body forward or to lie upon the left side, the apical impulse will be detected at some portion of the chest. When making a clinical analysis of the force of the apex impulse three factors are to be taken into consideration—(*a*) Whether or not the patient is at present suffering from myocardial changes; (*b*) the quantity of fluid contained in the pericardium; and (*c*) pericardial adhesions when asso-

ciated with cardiac hypertrophy may be responsible for a forcible apex-beat when the pericardium is nearly filled with fluid.

The friction fremitus, which is a common sign in acute plastic pericarditis, may even be present during an effusion, and is oftenest felt over the base of the heart. This fremitus generally returns during the stage of absorption, and may then continue for an indefinite period.

Diminished expansion of the affected side of the chest is occasionally detected in children suffering from a large pericardial effusion, and fluctuation is rarely observed.

Owing to pressure exerted by a large pericardial effusion, the left lobe of the liver may be forced from one to one and one-half inches below its normal position, rendering it easily palpable in those cases in which the abdominal wall is relaxed.

Percussion.—In pericardial effusion the area of cardiac dullness is inverted, and also greatly increased, assuming a triangular outline with the base directed downward when the patient is sitting or standing. The apex of the triangle may be as high as the third or even the second interspace, and is usually most marked along the left sternal border. The lateral boundary lines of cardiac flatness diverge from the apex of the triangular area (Fig. 61), the right passing obliquely downward to the right edge of the sternum to the seventh rib, and the left passing in a similar manner to the anterior axillary line (Fig. 61). A flat note may be obtained well into the left axilla, and, if the effusion is large, in Traube's semilunar space.

In those cases in which the effusion is large and, owing to some anatomic or pathologic cause, occupies a position toward the back of the chest, there may be dullness over the lower lobe of the left lung posteriorly as the result of pressure from the pericardial fluid. In selected cases of pericardial effusion a small area of dullness may be found over the scapular region.

Auscultatory percussion serves to reveal, with considerable accuracy, the lower border of the pericardial fluid, as well as the beginning of liver dullness. Even though the quantity of fluid in the pericardium is moderate, a flat note is obtained in the fifth interspace immediately to the right of the sternum (patient erect). If the pericardial effusion is large and a portion of the lung anteriorly is compressed or restricted, skodaic resonance is likely to be present around the area of flatness. Again, pleural adhesions may have bound the lung to the anterior wall of the chest, in which case the pericardial fluid is forced to the back of the chest, and the anterior area of cardiac flatness may be smaller than is to be expected from a given quantity of fluid.

Auscultation.—A friction murmur may be audible when the quantity of effusion is moderate during the stage of resorption. The characteristics of this murmur have been described under Plastic Pericarditis (p. 266). If the effusion is large, the sounds of the heart are distant, indistinct, or muffled. The second cardiac sound is less altered by a large pericardial effusion than is the first sound, consequently it may, at times, be heard clearly at the base of the heart throughout the entire course of serofibrinous pericarditis. The lower portion of the left lung may be compressed, in which case bronchial breathing would be audible at that portion of the chest overlying either congested or collapsed pulmonary tissue.

Laboratory Diagnosis.—During the febrile period the *urine* is highly colored, of high specific gravity, and may be rich in solids. The quantity of urine excreted is appreciably diminished in those cases that develop extensive edema.

Serum obtained by aspirating the pericardium will be found to simulate closely that recovered from the pleura in cases of subacute pleurisy. (See p. 272.) Pericardial serous fluid is, as a rule, free from bacteria.

Summary of Diagnosis.—The history of a preëxisting condition that markedly predisposes to pericarditis, such as rheumatism or nephritis, is of great value in formulating a diagnosis. A previous attack of acute plastic pericarditis always suggests the possibility of a serofibrinous type as a sequel. Doubtless, pericardial effusion often escapes notice, since it requires a more careful physical examination of the chest than is, as a rule, made in routine work. The physical signs possess the greatest value; thus the inverted triangular area of flatness and the friction sound, when both are present, make the diagnosis positive. The recovery of fluid from the pericardium by aspiration also furnishes positive evidence. Atypical cases of pericarditis are by no means uncommon, and in these the diagnosis is occasionally made only by exclusion. We recall studying several cases where, due to old pleural adhesions, aspiration alone made the diagnosis possible. (See also *x*-Ray Diagnosis, p. 258.)

Differential Diagnosis.—Cardiac Dilatation.—Unless a clear history of the case can be obtained, cardiac dilatation may be mistaken for pericardial effusion, and, indeed, in our hospital experience we have not infrequently encountered patients admitted to the medical wards in whom this mistake was made. The following table, modified from Anders, shows the points of differentiation between these two conditions:

Pericarditis with Effusion	Cardiac Dilatation
Clinical History	
1. Recent history of gout, acute rheumatism, acute infectious or septic disease, scurvy, nephritis, or tuberculosis, chronic gonorrhea.	1. Usual history of chronic valvular disease of the heart.
2. Fever and slight pain often associated.	2. No fever or pain, as a rule.
3. Nervous symptoms are often present.	3. Absent or but slight.
4. Inspection often reveals bulging (more marked in the young). Apex-beat is elevated, feeble, and later absent.	4. Apex-beat usually visible, wavy, and diffuse.
5. Heart's impulse usually absent, or occupies center or upper border of dull area. Friction fremitus may be present.	5. Though feeble, the impulse is palpable.
6. Percussion shows a triangular flat area, and the boundary line above changes on altering the position of the patient. There is dull tympany (flatness in massive exudations) in the axillary region. Dullness over left lung below angle of scapula common.	6. Dull area varies with the chambers dilated; it is coexistent with a wavy impulse, does not extend so high (except in mitral stenosis), and does not vary with change of position. There is no dull tympany.
7. Auscultation shows the first sound distant and muffled; a friction-rub is often present.	7. First sound clear, short, and sharp, resembling the second sound (fetal heart). Friction murmur rare, but an endocardial murmur may appear later.
8. *x*-Ray shows triangular, movable shadow (p. 258).	8. Upper level of shadow (quadrangular) fixed.
9. Digitalis has little or no influence.	9. Cardiac stimulants cause marked improvement.

Pleurisy.—Serofibrinous pleurisy, in which a large effusion occupies the left pleura, is to be distinguished from pericardial effusion. The pre-

existing maladies that predispose to the development of pericarditis also predispose to the development of pleurisy. A clinical feature of great distinctive value is that of pain, which is always acute early during the course of pleurisy—a condition rarely seen in pericarditis. In pleurisy the area of flatness occupies the entire base of the left thorax, and changes perceptibly with the position of the patient, whereas in pericarditis the area of flatness is always triangular when sitting and limited to the pericardial region. The adjacent viscera are displaced to a greater degree by pleural effusion than by fluid in the pericardium. In pericardial effusion the apex-beat is displaced upward and to the left, whereas in a left pleural effusion it is displaced to the right, or may be absent, on account of that portion of the heart being pushed behind the sternum. A pleural friction murmur is heard only with respiration, whereas the pericardial murmur is more or less closely synchronous with the heart's action. (See *x*-Ray Diagnosis of Pleurisy, p. 76.) (See also Laboratory Findings, Pleural Exudate, p. 148.)

Encysted pleurisy with effusion, when occupying the anterolateral portion of the left chest, may give an area of flatness resembling closely that produced by pericardial effusion. During the course of encapsulated pleurisy the sounds of the heart are normal, and the apex-beat, if at all displaced, is pushed to the right. Again, the friction murmur is likely to be absent in encapsulated pleurisy, whereas the pericardial friction murmur (synchronous with the heart's action) is audible early and during the stage of resorption in pericardial effusion.

Clinical Course and Duration.—This will be found to vary considerably, owing to the individual peculiarities of the patient and the severity of the type of infection. In certain cases three distinct stages of pericarditis follow one another in rapid succession—*e. g.*, the dry or plastic stage, the stage of effusion or serofibrinous stage, and the stage of absorption. In another type of case the first stage may continue for one, two, or more weeks, and the second and third stages be greatly prolonged. This last class of cases is often referred to as subacute or chronic pericarditis. The second stage of pericarditis may follow the initial stage within the course of a few days, and then the condition assumes a subacute or chronic form, absorption continuing for a period of several weeks. The effusion that collects in the pericardium following an attack of acute articular rheumatism often disappears within two or three weeks, absorption being quite rapid after the third stage is established.

One of the chief evidences that convalescence is established is the fall of temperature by lysis in favorable cases; as a consequence, with the absorption of the effusion the annoying clinical symptoms gradually subside. Thus, the appetite improves, and the renal, respiratory, and circulatory manifestations of the disease gradually approach the normal.

Complications.—(1) Acute pleurisy is rarely seen to complicate pericarditis, and when present, the likelihood of recovery is materially lessened. (2) Myocarditis is one of the most serious complications, and its onset is usually marked by attacks of syncope. (3) Acute endocarditis complicating disease of the pericardium renders the condition more serious and delays convalescence. If the effusion into the pericardium is large, it may exert pressure upon the esophagus, and in this way produce dysphagia. Pressure upon the recurrent laryngeal nerve is followed by paralysis of the vocal apparatus, as the result of which the voice is altered and husky, and there is a peculiar brassy cough. Empyema of the pericardium, while unusual, is a grave complication.

Purulent Pericarditis (Empyema of the Pericardium)

Pathologic Definition.—A condition characterized by an accumulation of pus within the pericardial sac. The membrane is appreciably thickened and presents a grayish, granular surface. Degenerative changes in the myocardium immediately beneath the serous covering are frequently seen.

Predisposing and Exciting Factors.—Empyema of the pericardium may follow serofibrinous pericarditis. The disease is occasionally encountered as a complication during the course of certain acute infections,— *e. g.*, pneumonia and scarlatina,—and, in our experience, pneumococci have been cultivated from the purulent pericardial fluid of persons dead of lobar pneumonia. A review of the American literature shows 86 cases of purulent pericarditis, where surgical interference has been employed, with 45 recoveries. In a series of 21 of these cases the pneumococcus predominated in 9, staphylococci in 4; streptococci in 2; the colon bacillus in 1, bacillus pyocyaneus in 1, and an undetermined double-cocus in 1. (Rhodes.) Purulent pericarditis may follow infection of the pericardium with the tubercle bacillus, and in some cases of empyema other pyogenic organisms may figure as etiologic factors.

Clinical Picture.—The physical signs upon which emphasis was laid in connection with serofibrinous pericarditis (p. 274) are practically the same when the pericardium contains pus, although it is unusual to find the area of pericardial flatness of equal extent to that present in serofibrinous pericarditis. The temperature is usually high, and is often of the septic type.

Diagnosis.—The diagnosis is rendered positive by the recovery of purulent fluid from the pericardium by aspiration. The *x*-ray is of value. (See p. 258.)

Aspirating the Pericardium

Different points of election and various methods for performing aspiration of the pericardium have been advocated from time to time, a few of which will be considered here.

By the Xiphocostal Route.—Although, as a rule aspiration of any one of the serous body cavities is condemned by many writers, it has been our custom, in private and in hospital practice, to perform aspiration on the pericardium, pleura, peritoneum, and spinal meninges. When, after a thorough physical examination, it has been determined that the pericardium contains an abnormal quantity of fluid, the next step is to outline accurately the lower border of dullness produced by the presence of such fluid. If it is found that the dullness extends well into the epigastrium, and that the diaphragm is appreciably depressed, the xiphocostal is the safest route by which to recover such pericardial exduate (Fig. 121).

The method of procedure is as follows: Place the patient in the erect posture, or possibly permit him to incline slightly forward, and direct the nurse or attendant to steady his shoulders firmly.

Next introduce the needle in the right xiphocostal angle, using local anesthesia and all necessary aseptic precautions. The operator should gage approximately the thickness of the body-wall, and guard the needle with his finger, so that he may not enter further than is necessary in order to reach the pericardium; when this is accomplished, the needle should be immediately withdrawn, and the handle of the trocar so elevated as to prevent the tip of the instrument from being directed toward the heart. Many prefer this route for the reason that there is but slight, if any, danger of wounding the heart, since as shown by the accompanying

illustration (Fig. 121), during a large pericardial effusion, the body of the heart is elevated.

In entering the pericardium through the costoxiphoid angle it is well to have a knowledge of the attachments to the xiphoid cartilage. On the posterior surface, attachment is afforded to some of the fibers of the diaphragm and triangularis sterni muscles, hence by directing the needle slightly upward, the diaphragm may be avoided, since in a large pericardial effusion the diaphragm itself is appreciably depressed. The aponeuroses of the abdominal muscles are attached to the lateral borders of the ensiform cartilage.

In removing fluid from the pericardium, the operator's hand should steady the instrument continuously, and whenever the heart is felt to come in contact with the tip of the instrument, the latter should be immediately withdrawn, since the dangers of wounding a coronary artery or the heart muscle are extremely great.

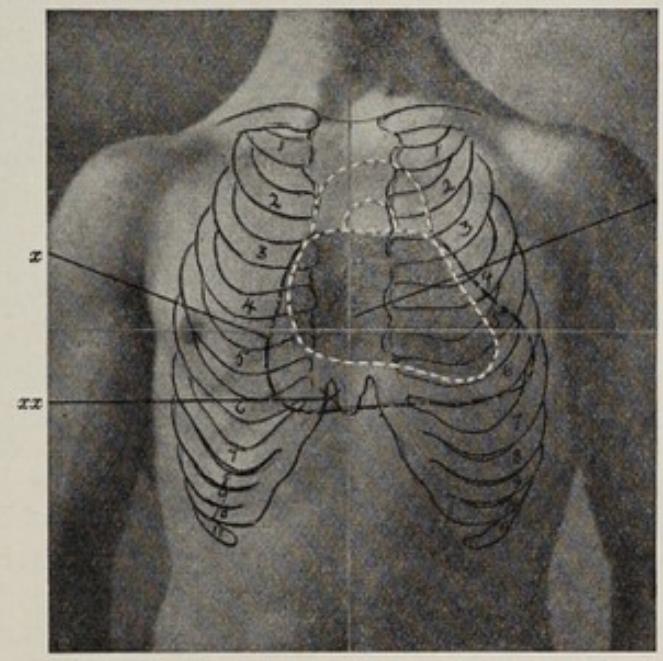


FIG. 121.—WHITE INDICATES NORMAL OUTLINE OF HEART AND AORTA.

x shows outline of pericardium when a large pericardial effusion is present; *xx*, costoxiphoid for aspiration of pericardium. Some prefer to insert the needle entering first at the costal margin of the left costoxiphoid angle.

Right Sternocostal Route.—If the pericardium is sufficiently distended to give flatness beyond the margin of the sternum, it is possible to reach the pericardium by inserting the needle in the fourth interspace at the right margin of the sternum. (See Topographic Anatomy of the Heart, pp. 185, 260.) This route is to be employed only when there is an unusually large effusion, but on account of the thin wall of the auricle, which normally rests near this situation, the danger of wounding the heart is greater than when the xiphocostal route is employed.

Eisendrath, in his "Surgical Diagnosis," calls special attention to the method of entering the pericardium through either the fourth or the fifth interspace, close to the left margin of the sternum (Fig. 122), the point of the needle being directed toward the median line. Despite the observance of all possible precautions, however, this route is less safe than those previously described.

Another method that is occasionally employed when the effusion is large is to enter the chest just external to the outer margin of cardiac

flatness, directing the needle obliquely downward and inward. The point of insertion is usually one to two inches external to the apex-beat, and near the level of the nipple. It has been our privilege to employ this method with perfect satisfaction where the effusions were large. It has no advantages over the xiphocostal route. Advocates of this method of puncturing the pericardium claim that, in a large effusion, the heart is elevated and the apex-beat is somewhat to the left of the nipple, consequently the danger of wounding the heart is extremely slight. We would, however, call special attention to the fact that the impulse, supposedly the apex-beat, may not be produced by the apex of the organ when the heart is displaced, and that for this reason there is no accurate way of determining the position of the heart in a large pericardial effusion.

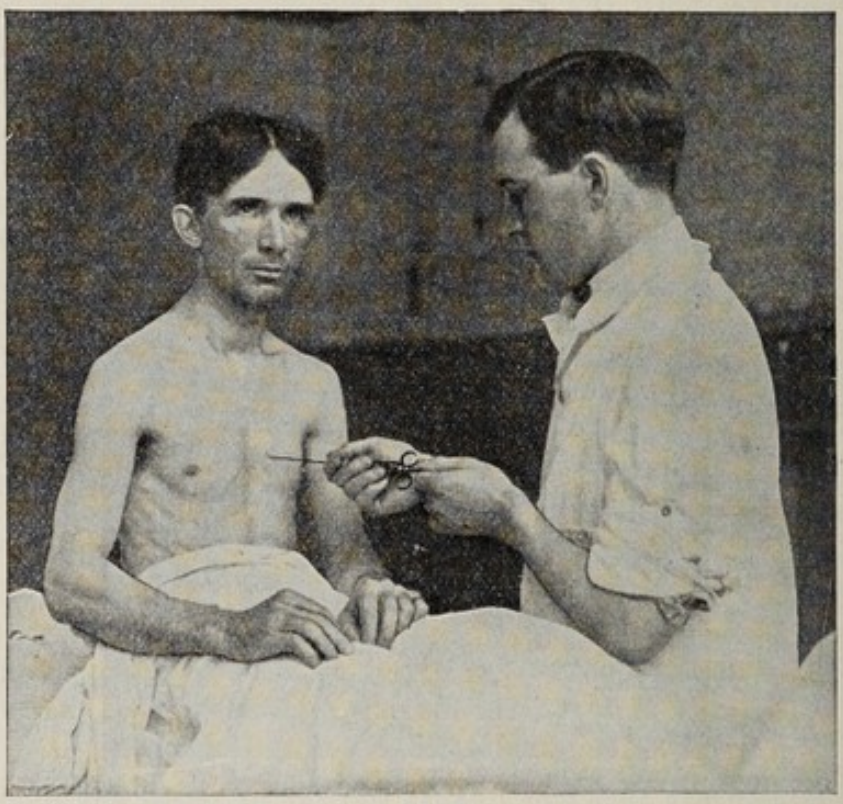


FIG. 122.—METHOD OF PERFORMING EXPLORATORY PUNCTURE OF THE PERICARDIUM, IN ORDER TO DETERMINE THE NATURE OF A PERICARDIAL EXUDATE (Eisendrath).

The patient can be thus explored in a recumbent or upright position. The needle should be inserted in either the fourth or fifth interspace, close to the sternum, great care being taken not to insert it too deeply.

HEMORRHAGIC PERICARDITIS

Pathologic Definition and Remarks.—An accumulation of blood within the pericardium. As the result of local inflammation there may be an extravasation of blood into the pericardium during acute plastic and purulent pericarditis. The pericardium may also be the seat of inflammatory processes that have extended from the lung and adjacent viscera. Pathologic changes in the blood-vessels and in the chemic composition of the blood may also be present.

Etiologic Factors.—A pericardial effusion that is purulent in character may also display a bloody color. Tuberculosis of the pericardium is a common cause of hemorrhagic pericarditis, as is also chronic nephritis of the aged. Bloody fluid may accumulate in the pericardium as the result of infection with pathogenic bacteria, as has been demonstrated by the recovery of the pneumococcus from the pericardial fluid.

The **clinical picture** of purulent hemorrhagic pericarditis differs in no way from that given for empyema of the pericardium (see p. 279), and non-purulent hemorrhagic pericarditis displays both symptoms and signs quite analogous to those outlined under Serofibrinous Pericarditis (p. 269).

Adhesive Pericarditis (Chronic Pericarditis)

Pathologic Definition.—A condition characterized by the formation of dense pericardial and pleuropericardial adhesions. In some instances the opposed surfaces of the membrane are universally adherent, whereas in others the membranes are fairly adherent over a limited area. An appreciable thickening of the layers of the pericardium is observed, and such thickening will be found to vary greatly in different cases.

Predisposing and Exciting Factors.—Conditions known to predispose to other types of pericarditis are also concerned in the production of this form of the disease; special mention must be made, however, of tuberculosis of the pericardium.

Symptoms and Physical Signs.—These are in no way characteristic, and except that the heart is markedly displaced as the result of dense adhesive bands, this condition may pass unrecognized until the case comes to autopsy. In those cases in which an antemortem diagnosis was possible, the pulse was observed to be rapid, irregular, and of a low tension, whereas in our cases no pulse peculiarities were detected. There are dyspnea and the signs of cardiac enlargement at times sufficient to cause deformity of the chest. There is seen retraction of the chest overlying the heart. During ventricular systole there is often seen Broadbent's sign. The veins of the neck may distend during inspiration, which veins also display a sudden collapse with the beginning of diastole. The pulsus paradoxus (see p. 251) may, however, be present.

Pericarditis Callosa

General Remarks.—A type of chronic pericarditis developing during childhood, and characterized by prominence of the jugular veins, cyanosis, and moderate edema. In this type of pericarditis the entire circulation may become embarrassed, in which case there is effusion into the serous sacs.

Physical Signs.—Inspection.—The left side of the chest is usually seen to be somewhat retracted, and there may be unequal expansion of the two sides of the thorax. With each pulsation of the heart undue depression at certain of the intercostal spaces generally occurs, and such depression is, as a rule, synchronous with systole. In the region where the apex should normally be seen the entire chest-wall may be depressed with each systole, and in extreme cases the greater portion of the precordial space is thus affected by the heart's action. Respiration exerts some influence upon the degree of depression of the precordial area with systole.

Friedreich's sign may be observed, and consists in a sudden collapse of the jugulars during diastole. This sign is also seen in cardiac dilatation.

In those cases in which there is decided cardiac hypertrophy, the impulse of the heart is forcible, and the apex-beat is visible over an increased area of the chest. In many cases it is not until myocardial changes have taken place that the patient consults his physician, and there is often, at this time, a moderate amount of dilatation, with weakening of the impulse. Where there is adhesive pericarditis, change of position of the patient will cause the apex-beat to remain at one point—a valuable sign obtained by inspection.

Palpation confirms inspection as to the force of the apex-beat, and further detects any irregularity in the heart's action as the result of respiration. A diastolic shock, when present, is of great diagnostic value, and consists in the heart's forcible rebound during diastole. A diastolic shock is a prominent feature in adhesive pericarditis, while the heart's action is yet strong, but after dilatation has developed, it may be but feebly expressed.

Percussion.—The area of cardiac dullness is increased upward and to the left, owing to the presence of the following pathologic conditions: (*a*) Extensive pleuropericardial adhesions; (*b*) adhesions preventing the lung from overlapping the heart, as it does under normal conditions; consequently the upper border of the lung overlying the heart is retracted; (*c*) the area of cardiac dullness is not materially changed by change of position of the patient or by deep inspiration.

In those cases that have displayed myocardial and tricuspid regurgitation for an indefinite period the area of hepatic dullness will be found to be increased.

Auscultation.—A systolic murmur is frequently heard at the ensiform cartilage, and signifies that the right heart has become appreciably embarrassed, thus permitting of tricuspid regurgitation. Extensive pericardial adhesions may exist without evincing audible murmurs over any portion of the heart, whereas in other cases numerous murmurs, apparently endocardial in origin, are distinctly audible; yet it is with extreme difficulty that we are able to attach definite clinical significance to such murmurs.

Differential Diagnosis.—In those cases of chronic pericarditis in which there is also a moderate amount of effusion into the pericardium, it may be necessary to distinguish between this condition and serofibrinous pericarditis. The clinical history, however, will usually serve to differentiate these two conditions, since serofibrinous pericarditis has, as a rule, been of short duration. In chronic pericarditis the apex-beat is forced upward, as is seen in pericardial effusion, but in the latter condition change of position of the patient will be found to alter the position of the apex-beat. Distinct bulging of the chest may result in adhesive pericarditis of the young, and here, again, it becomes necessary to differentiate this malady from a large pericardial effusion. The inverted triangular area of cardiac flatness, together with flatness extending well to the right of the sternum, will make the diagnosis of pericardial effusion positive.

HYDROPERICARDIUM (DROPSY OF THE PERICARDIUM)

Pathologic Definition.—A secondary condition characterized by distention of the pericardium by transuded fluid in the absence of inflammation of the pericardial surface.

The **symptoms** are usually those of the preëxisting malady, with a possible increase in the frequency of the pulse-rate and dyspnea.

The **physical signs** are practically those described for serofibrinous pericarditis (p. 269), except that the friction murmur is absent.

HEMOPERICARDIUM

Remarks.—A rare condition in which pure blood escapes into the pericardium. The conditions that favor hemorrhage into the pericardial sac are: (*a*) Traumatism with rupture of the coronary artery; (*b*) rupture of the heart; (*c*) rupture of a thoracic aneurism; (*d*) stab wounds of the heart. If the condition results from the rupture of a thoracic aneurism, a large quantity of blood suddenly enters the pericardium and materially

interferes with the heart's action. Following injury of the heart the blood may escape slowly into the pericardium.

The **physical signs** are shock, difficult respiration, cyanosis, and the signs characteristic of serum in the pericardium. (See Pericardial Effusion, p. 278.)

PNEUMOPERICARDIUM (Air or Gas in the Pericardium; Pyopneumopericardium)

Pathologic Definition.—A condition characterized by the accumulation of air (gas), pus, and frequently blood, in the pericardium.

Predisposing and Exciting Factors.—(1) Serofibrinous pericarditis in which the fluid becomes infected with gas-producing bacteria. (2) Stab and gun-shot wounds of the chest that have penetrated the pericardium. (3) Traumatism with fracture of the ribs and penetration of the pericardium. (4) The formation of a fistulous communication between a tuberculous cavity in the lung and the pericardium. (5) A fistulous communication between an empyema and the pericardium. (6) Subdiaphragmatic pneumopericardium, a condition in which gastric ulcer has perforated the diaphragm and communicated directly with the pericardial sac.

Principal Complaint.—This resembles closely what has been outlined under serofibrinous pericarditis, except that the condition in question usually develops somewhat abruptly, and the patient suffers more intensely from dyspnea than he would in the presence of a simple pericardial effusion.

Physical Signs.—Palpation may be negative, although the apex of the heart will usually be felt at some point over the precordium.

Percussion yields a tympanitic note over the greater portion of the precordia, whenever the quantity of fluid present is large a variable degree of flatness is readily outlined. It is of great importance in the diagnosis that the position of the patient be changed; in this way the percussion-note will be materially modified—*e. g.*, dullness will be found to shift as the result of posture.

Upon **auscultation** the heart-sounds are usually intensified, and rasping friction murmurs, displaying a distinctly metallic quality, are audible. Besides pericardial murmurs, there is a loud, splashing sound with each impulse of the heart. In two cases in our practice the heart-sounds were feeble.

Differential Diagnosis.—Fluid and gas in the pericardium exhibit physical signs that closely resemble those resulting from fluid and gaseous substances in the pleura, the leading differential features of which are set forth in the accompanying table:

Pneumopericardium	Pyopneumothorax (Left)
1. Patient has complained of a sense of discomfort in the pericardial region for several days, and possibly for weeks.	1. Sudden pain in the left side of chest.
2. Apex-beat displaced upward and to the left.	2. Apex-beat displaced to the right and may be as far as the right nipple.
3. Diaphragm but moderately depressed.	3. Diaphragm markedly depressed.
4. Heart-sounds clear, but confused by harsh, crackling splash.	4. Heart-sounds unaffected.
5. Vocal resonance unaltered.	5. Amphoric in quality and absent at base of chest over area occupied by fluid.
6. Small area of flatness at base of chest anteriorly.	6. The entire base of left chest is occupied by fluid that gives a flat note.
7. Vocal tactile fremitus normal.	7. Absent.
8. Bell tympany seldom present over the precordium.	8. Present over the entire left pleura.

Note.—In encysted pyopneumothorax (rare) the diagnosis may be difficult and even impossible.

Clinical Course.—The majority of cases run a rapid course, terminating fatally within from a few days to a week.

DISEASES OF THE ENDOCARDIUM

ENDOCARDITIS

Pathologic Definition.—A condition characterized by either an acute or a chronic inflammation of the lining membrane of the heart, which attacks most often the leaflets, but may involve any portion of the endocardium.

Varieties.—(1) Simple acute endocarditis; (2) ulcerative endocarditis; (3) chronic endocarditis.

Simple Acute Endocarditis

General Remarks.—In this variety of endocardial inflammation there are slight vegetations upon the endocardial lining, these growths being most often situated near the base of the cardiac leaflets and on that surface opposed to the blood-current.

Exciting and Predisposing Factors.—Bacterial Infection.—In this connection special attention should be given to the possibility of focal infection, because focal infection is responsible for an abnormally large percentage of all the maladies which are known to antedate acute endocarditis. The disease may result from infection of the endocardium with a variety of pathogenic micro-organisms, and it may possibly be excited by the toxins of micro-organisms. Among the bacteria that have been isolated from the diseased endocardium are: The staphylococcus pyogenes aureus, which is conceded by some writers to be the chief agent in the production of this malady, the diplococcus of pneumonia, bacillus coli communis, streptococcus, gonococcus, bacillus of Eberth, the diphtheria bacillus, and the meningococcus.

(1) "The most frequent cause of acute endocarditis is acute articular rheumatism, which induces the disease in not less than 40 per cent. of cases" (Anders). (2) Children and young adults suffering from articular rheumatism are more likely to develop endocardial disease than are older subjects. (3) It has been repeatedly shown that the severity of the attack of rheumatism has no influence on the likelihood of endocardial disease to develop as a complication. (4) Endocarditis may occasionally antedate articular rheumatism, although such instances are comparatively few in America. (5) Tonsillitis appears to be a predisposing factor in a certain percentage of all cases. Many cases are found to follow tonsilar disease and depend upon infection by the streptococcus viridans (Goldstein) or the streptococcus hemolyticus. (6) Children suffering from chorea may later develop acute endocarditis, and here the disease is likely to assume a chronic course. Chronic suppurative processes are not without influence in the production of simple endocarditis, and it is difficult to determine the effect of gonorrhea upon this type of the disease. (7) In the specific fevers simple endocarditis may develop as a complication, and although this is by no means common, it is encountered in diphtheria, measles, scarlatina, typhoid fever, small-pox, erysipelas, and, particularly, in pneumonia. (8) Simple endocarditis may also develop in those suffering from pulmonary tuberculosis, and from other maladies in which a large

area of suppuration has existed. (9) Chronic disease of the kidneys and diabetes appear to predispose to the development of endocarditis. (10) Acute endocarditis may be engrafted upon a chronic inflammatory process of the endocardium—the so-called recurrent endocarditis.

Principal Complaint.—The history usually shows that the patient has suffered from one or more attacks of rheumatism or other malady known to predispose to diseases of the endocardium. (See Predisposing and Exciting Factors, above.) The subjective symptoms of acute endocarditis are, as a rule, vague, and, indeed, may be absent. Precordial *pain* is an occasional complaint, and is sometimes described as extending to the left shoulder and down the left arm. *Dyspnea* is an early and annoying symptom, and is often the one for which the patient seeks relief. The heart *palpitates* violently upon the slightest exertion, and the patient may complain of throbbing at the temples and at the base of the brain.

Thermic Features.—In the majority of cases the temperature will be found to rise abruptly from 99° to 102° F., but the fever is often influenced by the preëxisting disease, so that the onset of endocarditis is in no way heralded by a special thermic phenomenon. In those cases in which one or more emboli are present, the symptoms of such involvement materially alter the general clinical picture.

Physical Signs.—The actual physical signs resulting from a simple endocarditis will be found to vary greatly, depending upon the valve that is involved and upon the extent of such involvement; for which reasons brief mention will be made of the types of murmurs produced by such lesion.

Inspection.—The area of visible cardiac impulse is increased, and in the majority of instances this increase is observed to extend downward and to the left. The impulse may be forcible and irregular as to time and strength.

Palpation.—In addition to confirming what has previously been detected by inspection, the force of the impulse will be found to vary greatly at different stages of the disease, and, indeed, there may be an appreciable difference in the volume of the apex-beat from day to day. As a rule, the force of the apical impulse lessens as the disease advances. After myocardial changes have developed, the apex-beat is feeble and may be almost imperceptible. When we are dealing with a recurrent endocarditis, a heaving impulse is to be expected, owing to a preëxisting hypertrophy of the heart the result of a previous endocardial disease. Rarely a systolic thrill is palpable over the area of the heart.

Percussion.—Early during the course of the disease the area of cardiac dullness is not altered, but as the disease advances enlargement in the transverse diameter is common, the area of cardiac dullness being appreciably increased to the left in well-marked cases—a condition that is believed to result from increased diastolic tension in the left ventricle. The right ventricle also meets with undue resistance and may, though rarely, be so seriously affected as to show an appreciable degree of dilatation. The more marked is the increase in cardiac dullness in simple endocarditis, the more extensive will be the area of cardiac impulse.

Auscultation.—Since the mitral leaflets are most often attacked, a soft, blowing murmur, systolic in time, is heard at the apex in the majority of cases. If the aortic leaflets are involved, the systolic murmur may be heard at the second right intercostal cartilage. Considering that the mitral valve is the site of the initial involvement, the area of maximum intensity of the systolic murmur, of which mention has just been made,

is at the apex, or about one to one and one-half inches below the nipple and within the left midclavicular line. The apical systolic murmur is transmitted in the direction of the axilla to a variable degree. (See Mitral Regurgitation, Fig. 133.)

During the course of acute articular rheumatism, and when endocarditis is about to develop as a complication, a distinct prolongation of the first cardiac sound is heard if the stethoscope is placed near the apex of the organ. Careful examination will show that the second pulmonic sound is also accentuated at this time. In selected cases the first indication of cardiac involvement of the mitral valve is a muffled or "woolly" first sound, which, owing to its alteration, causes the second sound to be apparently intensified. The presence of a presystolic mitral murmur indicates that stenosis exists at the mitral ring, and may be detected early in certain cases of simple endocarditis.

It is possible that when a distinct systolic mitral murmur is audible, a questionable murmur may also be heard at the same time over the aortic area (second right costal cartilage). Early during the course of endocardial involvement one may detect an extremely soft, low-toned systolic murmur at the ensiform cartilage, and when present, this murmur has its origin at the tricuspid orifice, and suggests a probable relative incompetency. An acute endocarditis developing in an endocardium that has previously suffered one or more attacks of the disease may in no way alter the murmurs that were already present; consequently auscultation does not furnish a means for the recognition of an existing recurrent endocarditis.

Laboratory Diagnosis.—During the febrile period the urine is slightly diminished in quantity, and its color is increased. Renal deficiency occurs in the sub-acute and chronic cases. Blood cultures are, as a rule, negative, since this form of the disease may develop without pathogenic bacteria circulating in the blood.

Summary of Diagnosis.—This is attained largely from a knowledge of one or more preëxisting conditions that tend to favor the development of simple endocarditis. Fever that has continued for several days, together with a moderate increase in the area of cardiac dullness, is strongly suggestive of this condition. Distinct cardiac murmurs, although always suggestive of a lesion of the endocardium, give us no information as to its extent and duration, and tend in themselves often to cause confusion regarding the nature of the endocardial disease in question. When the patient is seen sufficiently early, or, better, when the cardiac sounds have been analyzed from day to day during the course of an attack of rheumatism, considerable importance attaches itself to the presence of a slight prolongation or indistinctness (muffling) of the first sounds of the heart.

Differential Diagnosis.—The murmurs of acute endocarditis must be differentiated from **functional murmurs** heard during the course of acute fevers, and in those who are debilitated from any cause. In both conditions the murmurs are likely to be systolic in time. The murmur of endocarditis is heard most often at the apex of the heart, whereas functional heart murmurs are most clearly audible over the base of the organ, and frequently in the region of the pulmonary cartilage. Again, if a normal pulmonic second sound is present, and there is no appreciable increase in the area of cardiac dullness, the murmur in question is functional rather than organic.

Pericarditis.—The physical signs of acute simple endocarditis and those of pericarditis are widely different if either condition exists alone, but the fact that these two maladies may coexist in the same person and

at the same time should always be borne in mind. If signs of endocarditis are present in a patient in whom both endocarditis and pericarditis exist, they will be obscured later by the development of a pericardial effusion.

Acute endocarditis may be distinguished from an old endocarditis by the fact that, in the former, but moderate cardiac hypertrophy exists. Endocardial lesions of long standing are likely to give rise to a distinct systolic murmur at the apex and a more marked accentuation of the pulmonic sound; at the same time there may be abnormalities as to the force and volume of the pulse, all of which features are less marked in the acute type of the disease. In well-marked cases of chronic endocarditis in which myocardial changes have taken place there is little or no difficulty in differentiating between these two conditions.

Clinical Course and Duration.—This is influenced largely by the character of the preëxisting disease and by the extent of involvement of the endocardium. Certain cases of acute simple endocarditis do not recover until the endocardium has been permanently damaged.

Complications.—Myocarditis may result from direct extension of the endocardial process. (See Myocarditis, p. 324.) Embolism often leads to a fatal termination. Renal infection may occur.

Ulcerative Endocarditis (Malignant Endocarditis; Infectious Endocarditis)

Pathologic Definition.—A disease commonly developed during the course of some nidus of infection within the human body, and characterized by ulceration of the endocardium, and possibly suppuration, or by both. Primarily, the leaflets are the seat of vegetations, such as are seen in simple acute endocarditis; these vegetations undergo necrotic changes and tend to increase in area, destroying a variable surface of the endocardium. Suppuration may take place in the interior of the vegetations, and the resulting abscesses rupture, leaving an ulcerating surface. The vegetations, as a rule, become grayish or yellowish in color, and histologically they are composed of granulation tissue, fibrin, and microorganisms. A distinct area of congestion may surround certain of the vegetations. Foci of suppuration generally develop in the viscera (brain, liver, kidney) as the result of particles of the sloughing ulcers and their bacteria being carried by the blood-current.

Varieties.—(*a*) Ulcerative endocarditis may, in rare instances, be a primary condition, but, as a rule, this particular type of endocarditis develops as a complication during the course of one of the acute infectious fevers—*e. g.*, pneumonia, sepsis, scarlet fever, etc.; (*b*) cerebral ulcerative endocarditis, characterized clinically by a predominance of nervous symptoms; (*c*) recurrent malignant endocarditis.

Predisposing and Exciting Factors.—(1) Ulcerative endocarditis with but few exceptions is probably a secondary condition, and develops in conjunction with the pathologic lesions of the endocardium characteristic of simple acute endocarditis; and, indeed, the simple type of the disease frequently precedes the ulcerative form.

(2) Endocarditis develops as a complication in about 10 per cent. of all cases of acute articular rheumatism, and from the literature at hand we are forced to conclude that focal infection is a precursor in approximately 70 per cent. of such rheumatic cases.

(3) Ulcerative endocarditis is quite a frequent complication of lobar pneumonia, and occurs almost as often as the simple type of endocardial involvement.

(4) The endocardium may be attacked during the course of such acute infections as small-pox, erysipelas, scarlet fever, typhoid fever, epidemic meningitis, and tuberculosis.

(5) Ulcerative endocarditis sometimes develops during gonorrheal infection and in puerperal sepsis, and is less often encountered during the course of chronic nephritis.

(6) Any nidus of infection, either acute or chronic, where bacterial or their toxins gain entrance to the blood stream is capable of producing acute endocarditis, and is probably the most common cause.

Bacteriology.—The streptococcus pyogenes has frequently been isolated from the endocardial lesions, although the initial disease from which the patient was suffering may not have been excited by the streptococcus; the development of such malady, however, has furnished opportunity for the invasion of the endocardium by streptococci. Pyogenic staphylococci, bacillus coli communis, the diphtheria bacillus, and the anthrax bacillus have repeatedly been cultivated from the endocardium. The pneumococcus is present in a large percentage of cases complicating lobar pneumonia, and the gonococcus is a fairly common finding in those cases in which ulcerative endocarditis follows a virulent type of gonorrhea. One of us has isolated the bacillus of Friedländer from the endocardial ulcerations in a patient dead of Friedländer's pneumonia, and the diplococcus of Weichselbaum has been found in endocarditis complicating epidemic meningitis.

Clinical Picture.—Ulcerative endocarditis frequently develops during the course of septic disease, and then the regular symptoms of the initial malady are intensified; it is important, in this connection, to bear in mind the fact that the endocarditis is secondary, and that its symptoms are, to a greater or lesser degree, masked by those known to accompany the primary disease. It is impossible to separate satisfactorily the symptoms resulting from the disease of the endocardium and those following general sepsis, which probably antedate the endocardial lesion, although it is understood that, after the endocardium has been attacked, sepsis may be disseminated, by consequent pollution of the blood. Ulcerative endocarditis may present a varied number of clinical pictures, many of which are in no way distinctive; and, indeed, unless laboratory methods have been employed as a means of diagnosis, one often follows a case to autopsy before he is thoroughly convinced that endocarditis existed. We shall describe here the more common or typhoid form of ulcerative endocarditis.

The *onset* is somewhat abrupt, and is frequently heralded by a distinct *rigor* that may be repeated every twenty-four or forty-eight hours, or possibly every sixth to eighth day. The *pulse* and *fever* are also quite characteristic. (See Physical Signs and Thermic Features, p. 285.)

Contrary to what would ordinarily be expected in so virulent a disease as ulcerative endocarditis, local symptoms may be absent; when, however, the existing disease is one in which ulcerative endocarditis is a common complication, and when we are alert in watching for the development of endocarditis, the following symptoms may be recognized: Slight *oppression* in the region of the precordium, which may, at times, be described by the patient as a *faint pain*. *Extraprecordial distress* in the region of the different viscera, due to the irritation excited by emboli that occupy the special organs in question—*e. g.*, pain in the region of the spleen is quite common, and is ascribable to involvement of the peritoneum overlying the organ; pain in the region of the liver is probably due to a similar process involving the hepatic tissue and its capsule.

Multiple abscesses may occur either in the viscera or in practically any portion of the body as a result of septic emboli; these usually in turn excite not only pain, but the general symptoms and signs of a localized septic process. *Ecchymoses* and *multiple cutaneous hemorrhages* may also follow emboli of the skin.

Gastro-intestinal symptoms are, as a rule, well marked, and vomiting may develop early during the course of endocarditis; diarrhea is by no means an uncommon symptom.

Ocular Symptoms.—Dimness of vision and specks floating before the eyes may be due to retinal hemorrhage, septic emboli of the eye, or septic renal emboli that in turn excite acute nephritis.

Cutaneous Manifestations.—Profuse sweating develops as an early and annoying symptom, and it is not uncommon for the patient to experience one or more attacks of sweating daily. In well-marked cases it is frequently necessary to change the bed-linen after the patient has suffered from one of these drenching sweats, and in women the soaking of the hair by perspiration becomes a most annoying condition, it being often impossible to dry the hair between the attacks.

The patient rapidly emaciates, and will be found to lose several pounds a week while the disease continues.

Nervous Symptoms.—At first the patient may be unduly nervous and hypersensitive; the most annoying early symptom, however, is headache. As the disease advances mild delirium develops at night, and may progress until it becomes maniacal; later the patient becomes somnolent and, finally comatose.

Thermic Features.—The fever is of the continued type, although it may be decidedly intermittent in some cases, whereas in others the remissions are but slightly manifest. The temperature may reach 105° or even 106° F. at various times during the day, while in other cases it continues quite steadily at from 102° to 103° F., seldom falling to the 100° mark. In one case coming under our care the temperature was of the continued type for from three to seven weeks, and in another a continued fever of 103° to 104° F. was displayed for forty-two days.

Physical Signs.—These may, in selected cases, be negative as regards the heart. In a case recently observed this characteristic was exemplified, since at no time during the attack was any definite information obtained by auscultation, yet laboratory methods showed that the patient was suffering from malignant endocarditis, a fact that was proved at autopsy.

Inspection.—Early during the attack the face may be flushed; the skin is bathed with perspiration, and respiration is rapid. As the disease advances emaciation becomes apparent; the lips become fissured; the tongue is heavily coated, the eyes are sunken, and the impulse of the heart is unusually conspicuous. The skin may show ecchymotic areas and even petechiæ. Small cutaneous abscesses are occasionally seen on various parts of the body.

Palpation.—At the onset the pulse is usually rapid—120 beats a minute—and irregular. As the disease advances it may, in certain cases, become more and more rapid, weak, irregular, dicrotic, and readily compressible, whereas in other cases the number of pulse-beats a minute will be found to diminish with the advance of the disease. The fact that an associated nephritis, with the consequent production of uremia, would tend to slow the pulse should be borne in mind in this connection. In those cases in which the pulse tends to become less frequent and the arterial tension to become increased during the course of ulcerative endocarditis, renal complications should be suspected.

Localized areas of tenderness will be found over septic emboli of the skin or of certain of the viscera—*e. g.*, splenic tenderness is not uncommon and, indeed, the spleen is, as a rule, enlarged and readily palpable. The liver is also felt to extend for some distance (two or more finger-breadths) below the costal margin, and may or may not be sensitive to firm pressure. Involvement of the bases of the lungs is generally followed by local tenderness when firm pressure is made upon the chest.

Percussion gives no definite information with reference to the heart. The areas of splenic and hepatic dullness are increased, and there may be areas of consolidation at the base of one or of both lungs as the result of a septic pulmonic process.

Auscultation.—In the majority of cases a systolic murmur is present, but this is of special value in diagnosis only when other symptoms and signs of malignant endocarditis are present. The disease may continue throughout its entire course without a distinct cardiac murmur being audible over any portion of the precordium. Auscultation determines the force and quality of the heart-sound, as well as the rapidity and regularity of its action. Late during the course of the disease, and when the patient shows much emaciation and prostration, the heart-sounds are not only weak and rapid, but the first sound is lacking in muscular quality. In these cases of recurrent malignant endocarditis there is distinct accentuation of the second sound, and a moderate degree of accentuation is heard during the initial stage of this malady. A distinct murmur may be audible over one of the larger arteries. The breath-sounds are usually increased over the base of the left lung, and in the event of an associated pneumonia or pulmonary embolism, the physical signs of lobar pneumonia may be present. The breath-sounds are increased in frequency in proportion to the degree of weakness of the patient, and as the heart becomes weak, numerous moist râles are audible over both lungs.

Laboratory Diagnosis.—Cultures made from the venous blood will, in the majority of cases, be found to develop colonies of bacteria. If the disease continues for a long period, well-marked secondary anemia develops, in which case both the red cells and hemoglobin are markedly decreased. Early during the course of malignant endocarditis the number of leukocytes in a cubic millimeter may be decidedly increased, but after a profound septic process has existed for some time the leukocyte count is of less clinical value.

Smears of blood, when fixed and stained, will be found to display marked degeneration of the red cells (poikilocytosis, alteration in the size of the cells, and the presence of numerous cracks, fissures, and inequality of staining with eosin). Microcytes and macrocytes are common, and nucleated red cells may be an occasional finding. A differential leukocyte count may show the polynuclear elements to be increased, a feature that is most constant early during the course of the disease.

Urine.—During the period when the fever is continuous the urine is high colored and contains albumin, but if septic nephritis develops, the urine is scanty, and anuria may obtain for several hours, or even until death. If the quantity of urine excreted is small during an acute septic nephritis, it will be found to be of high specific gravity, rich in albumin, and, in the majority of instances, to contain numerous bacteria, streptococci, and staphylococci. Cultures from such urine are, as a rule, positive.

Microscopically, renal casts (granular, blood, and pus) may be present. Leukocytes and pus-cells are, as a rule, plentiful, and red corpuscles are a not uncommon finding. Pus obtained from the local abscesses of the skin will be found, both by direct staining and by cultural methods, to contain pathogenic bacteria.

The *feces* are at first liquid in character, but if septic diarrhea follows, they may contain an unusual quantity of serum; a microscopic study of such serum shows it to be rich in bacteria, and particularly in cocci. Cultural studies of the feces may be employed with positive results, but it is not recommended as a practical procedure, since it is possible to obtain positive data from other more available and more satisfactory sources.

Sputum.—If pulmonary infarction or pulmonary emboli develop, the sputum becomes bloody, and, indeed, quite characteristic: the patient expectorates with but little difficulty, and always in mouthfuls, so that a large, globular, bloody mass (size of a silver quarter or a half dollar) will float upon the surface of water.

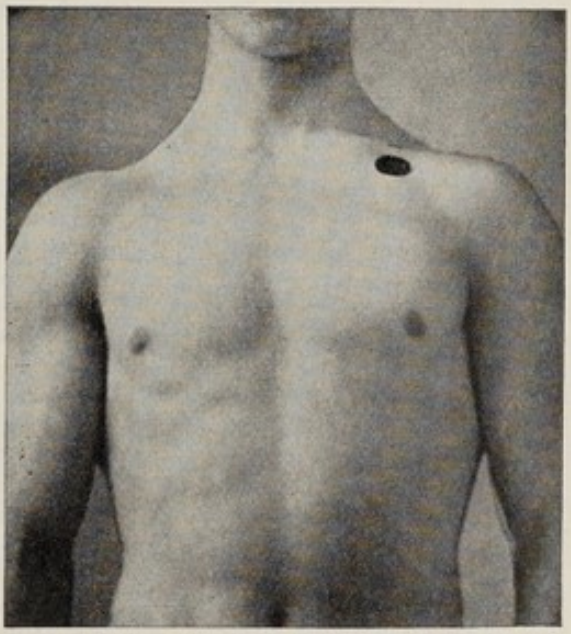


FIG. 123.—BLACK SPOT INDICATES WHERE THRILL WAS FELT ONE YEAR FOLLOWING AN ATTACK OF ULCERATIVE ENDOCARDITIS (Personal Observation at Philadelphia General Hospital).

Summary of Diagnosis.—It is important to consider the history and all the individual circumstances connected with the case in question, and this should be done particularly with reference to pre-existing disease. The symptoms of ulcerative endocarditis may be confounded with those of other *septic conditions*, *miliary tuberculosis*, and *typhoid fever* (see Differential Diagnosis, below), and these are best differentiated by laboratory methods. Considerable stress should be laid upon the early symptoms of this condition, and particularly upon the severe rigor, the character of the temperature, the presence of profuse sweating, and the occurrence of abscess as the result of septic emboli. Cultural studies of the blood serve as a positive means of diagnosis in the majority of instances. (See Cerebral Type, p. 289.)

With reference to the *recurrent endocarditis*, acute ulcerative endocarditis should be suspected, at least, whenever questionable symptoms arise in a patient who has previously suffered one or more attacks of endocarditis, and who has been known to have displayed an endocardial lesion prior to the present attack.

Differential Diagnosis.—The preceding remarks in reference to the clinical picture of acute ulcerative endocarditis will show conclusively that this disease must be distinguished from practically any condition that is characterized by continued fever. In our experience we frequently have to differentiate between *acute ulcerative endocarditis*, *typhoid fever*, and *miliary tuberculosis*. The subjoined table sets forth the distinctive differential features of these three conditions:

Ulcerative Endocarditis	Typhoid Fever	Acute General Miliary Tuberculosis
1. Patient is at present suffering from, or has probably previously had, acute articular rheumatism, gonorrhea, puerperal sepsis, chorea, or simple endocarditis.	1. Previous history negative, as a rule. History of an epidemic or of association with other members of the same family who have recently suffered from typhoid.	1. Family history of tuberculosis, probably presence of an old tuberculous focus or of association with persons ill of tuberculosis.
2. Disease not a primary condition.	2. Primary, with characteristic prodromes—headache, malaise, etc.	2. Develops more rapidly than typhoid.
3. Ushered in with a severe chill or a series of chills.	3. May be a recurrence of chilly sensations, but the disease develops rather insidiously.	3. Severe rigor unusual.
4. Fever rises abruptly following the chill, and is, as a rule, decidedly irregular.	4. Rises gradually, mounting higher day by day, until the tenth to the twelfth days.	4. Temperature rises rapidly and remains high, though decidedly irregular.
5. Unusual.	5. Epistaxis common during first week.	5. Absent.
6. Symptoms of emboli (hemiplegia, cutaneous abscesses, etc.) may be present.	6. Thrombosis of the femoral and spermatic veins may develop late during the disease.	6. Absent.
7. Respirations moderately increased in frequency.	7. Respirations but slightly increased in uncomplicated cases.	7. Respirations rapid—30 to 60 a minute.
8. The face is flushed early, but may later become cyanosed.	8. Cyanosis only when there are associated cardiac or pulmonary complications.	8. The face is dusky.
9. Diarrhea may develop at any time during the attack.	9. Diarrhea develops during the first week, and is characterized by pea-soup-like stools.	9. Constipation the rule. Feces show tubercle bacilli.
10. Absent.	10. Hemorrhage from the bowel quite common.	10. Extremely rare.
11. Widal reaction negative, leukocytosis the rule.	11. Widal reaction positive; leukopenia.	11. Negative.
12. Cultures made from the blood usually develop colonies of microörganisms other than the typhoid bacillus.	12. Colonies of typhoid bacilli are the only evidence of bacteriemia.	12. Tubercle bacilli may be present.
13. Sputum may be increased.	13. An associated bronchitis may give increase in sputum.	13. If there is chronic pulmonary tuberculosis, tubercle bacilli are present.
14. Ophthalmologic examination may rarely detect emboli.	14. Negative.	14. Miliary tubercles of the retina are somewhat common.
15. Enlarged spleen.	15. Spleen increases gradually in size.	15. Splenic enlargement late.

Recurrent Malignant Endocarditis

This is a pathologic condition in which acute endocarditis develops during the course of chronic valvular heart disease. Recurrent attacks of simple acute endocarditis, to which reference has previously been made, are fairly common, although such recurrences may be so mild in character as to escape notice. Any type of endocarditis that predisposes markedly to infection of the endocardium with streptococci and other pathogenic bacteria favors the development of acute ulceration of the endocardium. The *onset* is abrupt, with a moderate *chill*, or possibly a distinct rigor. The *temperature* rises suddenly to 103° or 104° F., and within the course of one or two days it may become decidedly intermittent, although a continued type of fever is possible.

The **general symptomatology** of this form of endocarditis resembles closely that described at length under acute ulcerative endocarditis, except that in the latter, in many instances, the recurrence of chills and the sweating are more pronounced than in the form now under consideration.

The engrafting of an acute ulcerative process upon a chronic endocardial lesion may, in selected cases, render the endocardial murmurs that have existed for an indefinite period more intense, but it is to be borne in mind that postmortem examination frequently discloses extensive acute ulceration of the endocardium where the physical signs of chronic endocarditis were not appreciably altered during the acute attack. The increase in the frequency of the pulse is quite a constant feature, and, indeed, acute endocardial ulceration may develop at a time when there is loss of compensation, in which case it simply aggravates the symptoms already present.

Recurrent malignant endocarditis may run a subacute course; the temperature may not exceed 100° to 102° F., and the general clinical picture is marked by mild symptoms.

Cerebral Type of Malignant Endocarditis

In this form of endocarditis the clinical picture is that of acute purulent meningitis (see p. 896), and on account of the predominance of meningeal symptoms, there is practically nothing to direct the attention to disease of the endocardium. A murmur may be present, although this is not a constant physical sign. In the so-called *cerebral type* of ulcerative endocarditis the general clinical picture also resembles closely that of *epidemic meningitis*, and the only clue to the diagnosis is obtained by lumbar puncture and by making cultural and other studies of the blood.

Clinical Course.—In recurrent malignant endocarditis the disease runs a rapid course, the patient's condition progressing from bad to worse for a period of from three to six weeks. This type of endocarditis is an exceedingly grave disease, and despite the early recognition of the disease and the application of treatment, recovery is doubtful. The cerebral type of endocarditis continues from a few days to possibly two or three weeks, terminating in coma. Recurrent malignant endocarditis may assume a subacute or chronic course, and in this variety of the disease the patient may suffer repeated attacks, lasting over a period of months or even years.

Chronic Endocarditis

Pathologic Definition.—A disease characterized by a chronic inflammatory process of the endocardium, the most characteristic lesions consisting of infiltration and exudation, followed by cohesion of the seg-

ments with roughening of their surfaces, and a tendency to perforate the endocardium, the formation of fibrous tissue, and consequent retraction of the leaflets.

Varieties.—(*a*) Chronic endocarditis developing as the result of an acute inflammatory process of the endocardium; (*b*) a second variety, in which the endocardial changes are sclerotic in nature from the time of their recognition, and progress steadily from bad to worse for a period of several years.

Predisposing and Exciting Factors.—(1) Chief among the conditions that predispose to the development of chronic endocarditis should be placed **acute rheumatic endocarditis,** a condition that is far more common in children than it is in the adult. (2) Endocarditis may be the only clinical expression of a chronic or acute focal infection of which arthritis gave the first appreciable symptoms, and in selected cases of chronic endocarditis the endocardial condition appears to be extremely mild from the onset. (3) Chronic endocarditis may frequently follow pneumonia, measles, chorea, or tonsillitis.

The **second variety** of chronic endocarditis, in which there are likely to be decided interstitial changes, is oftenest seen to follow: (1) Certain questionable **biologic irritants.** (2) Protracted malarial fever, chronic rheumatism, and neglected syphilis. (3) Persons suffering from the so-called *uric-acid diathesis* are especially prone to develop chronic endocardial changes, as are also those addicted to the *excessive use of alcoholic beverages; lead workers* likewise suffer from endocardial changes, as has been demonstrated by an examination of nearly 200 men employed for two or more years in the lead factories of Philadelphia, among whom over 80 per cent. gave evidence of chronic endocarditis and of hardening of the arteries. (4) *Undue muscular strain* must be regarded as a potent factor in the production of chronic endocardial disease; consequently those following certain occupations that necessitate heavy lifting, long-distance running, rapid marching, and athletic work are especially likely to develop the condition. (5) *Arteriosclerosis,* which is separated from endocarditis only with difficulty, is a decided predisposing factor, and is best exemplified by the condition of the heart in those cases of chronic Bright's disease and of lead workers in whom there are present extensive degenerative changes in the peripheral arteries. (6) *Increased arterial tension,* whether due to pathologic changes of the liver, lung, kidneys, or arterial system, should always be considered a potent factor in the production of chronic endocardial disease. A focus of either acute or chronic infection (located in the oral cavity—genito-urinary tract, etc.), may serve as the exciting agent in any form of chronic endocarditis. Libman* claims that 90 per cent. of cases are due to a non hemolytic streptococcus. Other micro-organisms may be present. There is usually a bacterium-free stage at some time during the disease.

Among the other conditions that predispose to chronic endocarditis should be considered:

(*b*) **Congenital deformity** of the cardiac leaflets, although it bears a close relation to heredity, must be considered as a predisposing factor of chronic endocardial disease.

(*c*) **Age** is not without influence, since during childhood and in young adults infectious diseases, including rheumatism, are frequent, and the mitral valves are most often attacked. After middle life and during old age the aortic valves are those most likely to be affected, although it is by no means uncommon to find aortic disease during early

* Jour. Am. Med. Assoc., July 31, 1920.

adult life, and, indeed, it is encountered during childhood by nearly every clinician.

(*d*) **Sex** exerts but moderate influence as a predisposing factor in this type of endocarditis. Chorea and acute rheumatism are found more commonly in females than in males, hence females are especially predisposed to chronic endocarditis; this predisposition, however, is probably to some degree overbalanced by the character of work (physical strain) to which males are subjected.

VALVULAR DISEASE

AORTIC REGURGITATION (AORTIC INCOMPETENCY; AORTIC INSUFFICIENCY)

Pathologic Definition.—A disease characterized by alterations (sclerosis and deformity) in the leaflets of the aortic valve, which prevent them from closing tightly after each systole, and permit a return flow of blood from the aorta into the left ventricle. Later microscopic changes with fatty degeneration of the heart muscle develop. Atheroma of the arteries, and especially of the coronary arteries, is also common.

Mechanic Influence of the Lesion.—The reflux current passes from the aorta backward through the imperfectly closed aortic valve into the left ventricle during the diastole of the heart, or while the left ventricle is being filled from the normal blood-flow from the auricle. Overdistention of the left ventricle results from two simultaneous influx currents of blood. To expel this increased cardiac power is required, and this overexertion causes a compensatory *hypertrophy*. Dilatation and hypertrophy of the left ventricle, therefore, develop *pari passu* until the left ventricle reaches enormous dimensions, a condition known as *cor bovinum* (Fig. 126).

Under existing pathologic conditions the arterial system is overcharged at each ventricular systole. Early in the disease the reflux of blood from the aorta into the left ventricle lessens the volume of blood distributed through the arterial tree, but this loss is counterbalanced by the large volume of blood expelled from the left venticle with each systole; consequently the tissues are amply supplied with blood early during aortic regurgitation.

To meet the requirements an abnormal volume of blood is forced into the aorta with each systole, so that arterial tension is increased; this predisposes to arteriosclerosis, affecting more particularly the aorta at the point where the coronary arteries are given off, and, as a consequence, interference with the nutrition of the cardiac muscle follows. Fatty and fibroid changes in the cardiac muscle are attended by secondary dilatation, which in turn overcomes the original hypertrophy.

In consequence of the increased tension to which the mitral leaflets are constantly subjected, they may become the seat of sclerotic endocarditis, and later a variable grade of mitral incompetency may develop. Secondary dilatation, however, is the principal cause of insufficiency at the mitral orifice, and the blood-current through the mitral ring, before mitral regurgitation has developed, may be obstructed by the simultaneous influx into the left ventricle from the aorta, thus causing pulmonary congestion. Irrespective of the cause of mitral regurgitation or obstruction, the blood is dammed back through the left auricle into the pulmonary tissue, producing obstruction to the current of blood coming to the lungs, and thereby increasing the work of the right ventricle. Here, again, the mechanism of the right side of the heart is quite like that previously outlined, hence

tricuspid regurgitation eventually follows, with venous stasis, first, of the liver, and later, of the other abdominal structures and lower extremities (modified from Anders).

Special Exciting and Predisposing Factors.—**Incomplete recovery from acute endocarditis** is doubtless the most potent factor in the production of the chronic type of the disease, and in old subjects rheumatic endocarditis is to be considered.

Disease of the aortic leaflets may develop during the course of **chronic infectious processes,** as is exemplified in syphilis, yet it must be remembered that those suffering from luetic infection are not infrequently exposed to violent exercise, heavy lifting, and the like. (See Focal Infection.)

Certain **chemic irritants** appear to exert a selective action upon the endocardium, and consequently endocardial and particularly aortic disease is often encountered in gouty subjects, such patients also generally displaying general endarteritis. Rheumatic subjects, in whom the disease is due probably to a pathologic process, are also prone to develop endocardial (aortic) disease.

It is common to find degenerative changes in the endocardium among **lead workers** and those exposed to the inhalation of poisonous substances, although the condition is, as a rule, associated with pathologic changes in the kidney and more or less extensive atheroma throughout the general arterial tree. Those who imbibe too freely of **alcoholic stimulants** frequently develop chronic valvular disease.

When **endarteritis** involves the aorta, it may, and probably does in selected cases, extend to the aortic leaflets.

Increased Arterial Tension.—As previously stated, increased arterial tension, particularly when it is the result of heavy manual labor, stimulants, and narcotics, tends to increase the liability to the development of chronic endocarditis at the aortic ring, and it may be possible that increased arterial tension from whatever cause favors the development of chronic endocarditis. In this connection special attention is called to the fact that it is the more or less constant increase of tension that tends to produce disease of the endocardium.

Aneurism (a pathologic condition that is secondary to arteriosclerosis) is a potent factor in the production of aortic disease, since in this condition the increased work upon the part of the left ventricle is constant, even while the patient is at rest.

Age and **sex** are marked predisposing factors in chronic disease of the endocardium at the aortic orifice. Aortic disease is far more common in males than in females, a fact that possibly depends upon the variety of exercise and exertion to which males are subjected. The greatest number of cases are discovered late during middle life, although it is possible to meet with disease of the endocardium at the aortic orifice in early adult life and even during childhood.

Principal Complaint.—Before Failure of Compensation.—"So long as the hypertrophy of the left ventricle successfully overcomes the otherwise injurious consequences of the valvular defects, the harmonious balance of forces is maintained, and there is an almost entire absence of symptoms" (Anders). Compensation is, as a rule, lost later in young subjects than it is in older ones, consequently a decided aortic lesion may exist for a prolonged period without manifesting symptoms. After the heart has become markedly hypertrophied, undue muscular effort and even emotional and mental strain produce overaction of the heart, and give rise to one or more of the following symptoms: pulsation and tension at the occiput, beating of the temples, a peculiar throbbing headache,

tinnitus aurium, and attacks of vertigo. When, in addition to an aortic lesion permitting of regurgitation, extensive arteriosclerosis is also present, anemia of the brain follows, and, as a consequence, extreme pallor, headache, flashes of light, dizziness and even distinct vertigo occur, especially when the patient changes from the recumbent to the erect posture. Dyspnea may be an annoying symptom at any time during the course of aortic regurgitation, but early during the disease it is experienced only after undue exertion, and is, as a rule, the result of pulmonary congestion.

When the heart has become markedly hypertrophied, precordial oppression is quite common, but seldom gives rise to decided annoyance. A dull aching pain may be felt over the precordium, and will at times radiate to the shoulders and possibly to the left arm. In a small percentage of cases pain will be definitely localized to the left shoulder. Angina pectoris may develop during the course of aortic regurgitation. (See p. 333.)

After Failure of Compensation.—When failure of compensation takes place and the cardiopulmonary circulation becomes retarded, this unbalancing of the circulation through the lung produces dyspnea, which is increased upon even slight exertion. Among the symptoms now present are cough and the occasional expectoration of blood-streaked sputum. (See Mitral Disease, p. 302.) Sooner or later a moderate degree of general venous congestion occurs, and dyspnea becomes severe, compelling the patient to assume a recumbent or semirecumbent posture. The latter symptom is, as a rule, more marked during the night and early morning hours.

During the course of aortic disease emboli may be deposited in the various organs,—*e. g.*, in the brain, spleen, eye, kidney, and liver, at which time the symptoms referable to embolism of any particular viscus may arise. Plugging of the coronary arteries and of certain of the cerebral arteries, although more common in aortic regurgitation than in other forms of cardiac disease, is still somewhat rare. It is a cause of sudden death.

Nervous Manifestations.—At first there are decided irritability and peevishness after compensation has failed, and if the patient suffers from cerebral anemia, he may be unable to sleep. Melancholia may be a permanent feature late during the disease, although it is occasionally regarded as merely a coincident symptom.

Thermic Features.—Irregular fever, when present, is due either to the intercurrence of acute endocarditis or to some other inflammatory process.

Physical Signs.—Inspection (Local).—The area of cardiac impulse is greatly increased; the impulse of the apex is displaced downward and to the left, and may be seen as low as the sixth or seventh interspace, and external to the nipple. The precordial region may show some bulging, a feature more common in young subjects. Throbbing in the region of the apex-beat should always arouse suspicion, and suggests a forcible impulse. The arteries in the carotid region throb vigorously, and when the patient is directed to raise his hands (Fig. 124), the axillary, brachial, and arteries of the forearm will be seen to pulsate.

Pulsation of the temporal arteries is also common, and when the femoral region is exposed, throbbing of the femoral artery is observed; the arteries of the feet are also seen to pulsate.

When myocardial degeneration is present, the pulsation over the precordium and the throbbing of the arteries become less and less conspicuous, owing to deficient cardiac muscular power. Later in the disease, and after tricuspid insufficiency has developed, there is decided pulsation over the veins of the neck. As a result of dilatation of the right heart, epigastric pulsation occurs. The fingers are cyanosed and often clubbed and the mucous membrane of the tongue is bluish.

Cutaneous Manifestations.—On drawing the finger firmly across the patient's chest or back, there is first seen a decided paling, which is soon followed by a marked reddening of the same area, which subsequently pales, flushes again, and then pales, until it is practically the same color as the surrounding skin. On holding the patient's finger and making general pressure upon the tip of the nail (Fig. 67), the red or flushed line, which is well marked underneath the nail, will be seen to advance and recede with each cardiac pulsation—another evidence of the existence of Quincke's pulse. Rarely, the veins of the hands and those of the feet are seen to pulsate. Lastly, Quincke's pulse will be obtained by placing a glass slide over the lip and exerting moderate pressure, when, with each cardiac pulsation the mucous membrane underneath the slide will be seen to flush and pale (Fig. 66).

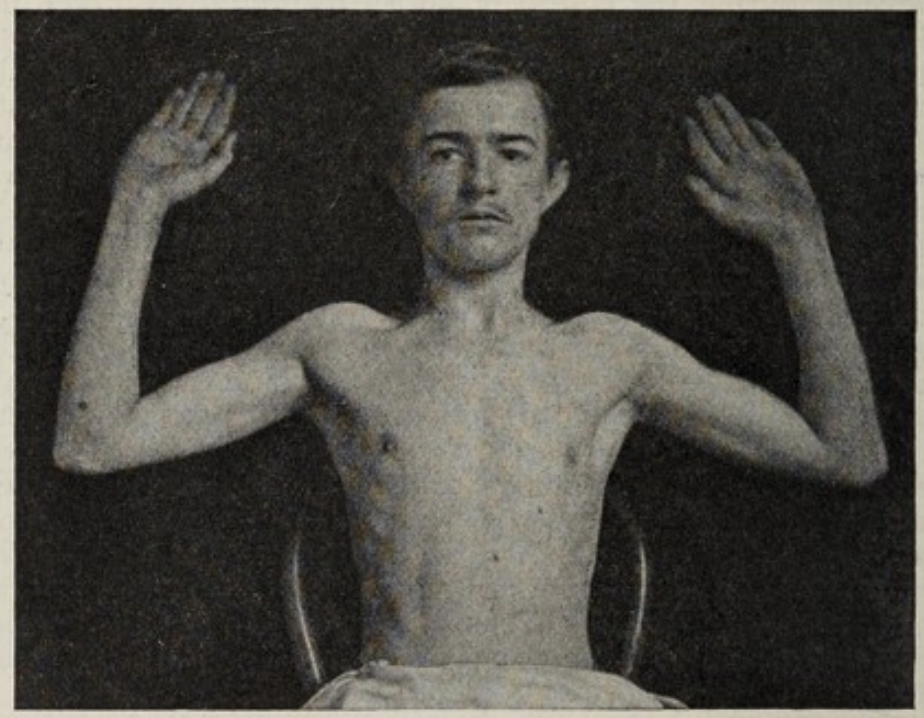


FIG. 124.—POSITION FOR INSPECTION OF CHEST AND ARTERIES.
Special position for making prominent the pulsation of the axillary, brachial, and arteries of the forearm in aortic regurgitation.

Ocular Phenomenon.—Upon *ophthalmoscopic examination* the retinal vessels are seen to pulsate in well-marked cases of aortic regurgitation, while cardiac hypertrophy is present.

Palpation.—A forcible heaving impulse is felt in the region of the apex of the heart before myocardial changes have appreciably weakened the cardiac muscle, but whenever dilatation predominates over hypertrophy, the impulse is proportionately weakened. A diastolic thrill may be felt over the base of the heart, although this is a somewhat uncommon sign. A presystolic thrill may rarely be present.

When aortic regurgitation has continued long enough for regurgitation at the tricuspid ring to result, the liver becomes increased in size as the result of venous congestion, and palpation may elicit the fact that the lower border of this organ is well below the margin of the ribs, and in extreme cases it may extend to near the level of the umbilicus. Rarely, in these cases, the liver will be found to pulsate.

The Pulse.—The pulse in itself is characteristic of aortic regurgitation —*e. g.*, a quick, leaping, full pulse is the initial impression conveyed to

the palpating finger, but as the pulse-wave strikes the finger, an abrupt recession is noted, giving a somewhat double sensation—the so-called "Corrigan" or "water-hammer" pulse. When the arm is lifted above the level of the head, a sudden collapse of the pulse is observed, and it is this method of examination that is usually employed for the demonstration of the Corrigan pulse. (See also Fig. 125.) After the heart has become greatly weakened and marked dilatation has occurred, the Corrigan pulse loses most of its characteristics, and it may then be possible to obtain the typical pulse only when the patient's arm is on a level with his body. When dilatation has become extreme, the water-hammer pulse is absent. (See Sphygmographic Tracing, p. 223.)

The difference between systolic pressure of the arm, and that of the leg may reach a maximum of 130 mm. of mercury. Whenever there is a difference of over 60 mm. of mercury between the leg and arm pressure, aortic regurgitation should be considered in the differential diagnosis. A high pulse pressure is also a feature in aortic regurgitation and a zero (0) may designate the diastolic pressure. Pulse pressure may exceed or double the diastolic reading. (See Hyperthyroidism.)



Fig. 125.—A Satisfactory Method for Eliciting the Trip-hammer Pulse Suggested by Hawke.

Percussion.—The area of cardiac dullness is in direct correlation with the degree of hypertrophy or of dilatation, consequently cardiac dullness may be found to extend far to the left and even beyond the anterior axillary line, although it is also possible to find it extended downward to the border of the sixth, seventh, or even the eighth rib (Fig. 126). When secondary dilatation of the left auricle has developed, the area of dullness is increased upward and to the left. It is customary for dullness due to hypertrophy of the right ventricle to increase downward and to the right, extending well to the epigastrium. When dilatation exists, the area of cardiac dullness is seen to be greatest in its transverse diameter, although it extends slightly upward, and the apex of the organ is appreciably rounded, as compared with the normal (Fig. 126).

After the development of tricuspid regurgitation the area of hepatic dullness is increased, and as the disease advances, the liver note may be found to extend some distance below the costal margin. Pulsation of the liver is often present, and is pathognomonic of tricuspid insufficiency. The spleen may also become enlarged as the result of venous congestion, consequently the area of splenic dullness is perceptibly increased

during the later stages of this type of valvular disease. Ascites may develop late, and when it does, percussion will disclose the note characteristic of this condition. (See Ascites, p. 627.) A transudate may accumulate in the pleura, when a flat percussion-note will be obtained. (See Pleurisy, Hydrothorax, and also Physical Signs of Pericardial Effusion.)

Auscultatory percussion confirms both palpation and percussion with reference to the size of the heart, liver, and spleen.

Auscultation.—The characteristic murmur of aortic regurgitation is audible when hypertrophy of the left ventricle is in advance of dilatation; its distinctive features are as follows: A soft, blowing murmur—it may be loud in selected cases—heard at the second costal cartilage, to the right of the sternum, its area of greatest intensity being a trifle below and to the left of this point. This murmur is diastolic in time, and is transmitted along the left edge of the sternum as low as the ensiform. To the left, from the xiphoid cartilage, the murmur of aortic regurgitation may be heard as a diastolic whisper as far to the left as the axilla, and rarely close to the spine. This faint whispering sound is occasionally transmitted to the vessels of the neck, and is heard best in the right carotid region. Aortic regurgitant murmur may be best heard when the patient is in the recumbent posture. Occasionally no murmur is audible over the aortic cartilage, while a faint murmur is heard along the sternum or over the pulmonary area. Traube's sign (a faint double sound heard over the larger arteries, femoral and axillary) is occasionally present. The so-called pistol-shot murmur is heard over the larger arteries, and in selected cases it may be heard over the arteries of the wrist and the foot. This sign is present in aortic regurgitation, and rarely in aneurism.

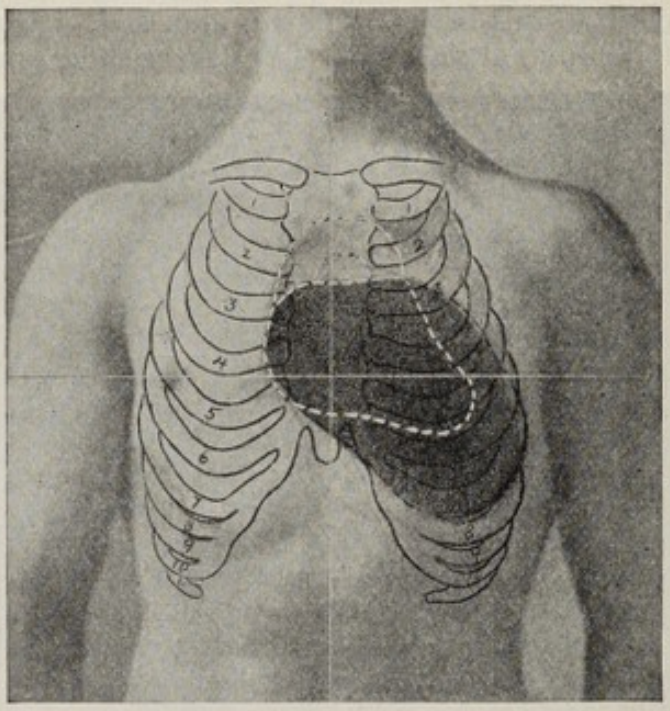


FIG. 126.—WHITE ILLUSTRATIVE OF NORMAL HEART. SHADED AREA SHOWS EXTREME HYPERTROPHY OF LEFT VENTRICLE AS SEEN IN AORTIC REGURGITATION WHILE COMPENSATION IS PERFECT.

Quality of the Murmur.—Ordinarily, the murmur is soft and blowing, but when there is extensive atheroma at the aortic ring, it may be more or less musical, roughened, and at times loud.

Determination of Time.—In order to determine the rhythm of an aortic regurgitant murmur the stethoscope should be placed at the base of the heart and at the lower border of the second right costal cartilage. One or more fingers should then be placed either upon one of the carotids or upon the subclavian artery. The closer the palpating finger is to the heart, the more readily will the murmur be timed. It requires but a small amount of practice for the student to determine the murmur of aortic regurgitation, heard immediately following the impression conveyed by the artery to the palpating finger. The method here outlined for timing cardiac murmurs has been found to be most satisfactory.

Again, the rhythm of a murmur should be further studied with reference to the following characteristics: (*a*) Is the character of the murmur the same (as to length, loudness, etc.) during each pulsation of the heart or does it vary when the patient is at rest? (*b*) What influence, if any, has exercise upon the murmur in question? (*c*) Is the murmur increased, lessened, or absent during forced inspiration, and how, if at all, is the murmur influenced by the ordinary respiratory act? (See Pulsus Paradoxus, p. 251.) A fact ever to be borne in mind is that the murmur of aortic incompetency is a prominent sign before dilatation has become pronounced, and that after extreme dilatation has occurred, it is materially modified and may, in many instances, be absent.

Associated Murmurs.—In the majority of cases in which aortic regurgitation has continued for a prolonged period other cardiac murmurs—*e. g.*, those of aortic stenosis, mitral regurgitation, and tricuspid regurgitation,—will be audible; the characteristics of each of these murmurs will be discussed at length under special headings.

Flint Murmur.—In the late stages of cases of aortic regurgitation, when the left ventricle is dilated to its maximum, a presystolic murmur, which is not transmitted, is often heard at the apex. This is the so-called Flint murmur. It is supposed to be due to the floating inward of the anterior leaflet of the mitral valve by the regurgitating blood from the aorta, so that the stream of blood coming into the left ventricle from the left auricle meets with an obstruction.

Sphygmographic Tracing.—This method of detecting aortic regurgitation is quite valuable, giving, as it does, evidence that is characteristic of the condition, more particularly since it discloses the presence of arrhythmia and irregularity in the force of the heart's action. (See p. 224; also Fig. 127.)

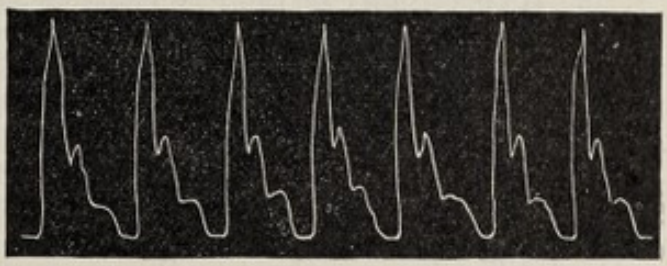


Fig. 127.—Pulse-tracing in a Case of Aortic Regurgitation (William Hoffman).

Laboratory Diagnosis. This is of no special value in determining the character of the cardiac lesion in question, but is of great importance in formulating a prognosis. Prolonged venous congestion of the kidneys may eventually lead to albuminuria and even to anuria. The characteristic evidences of acute nephritis (renal casts and albumin) may also be detected. Late during the course of aortic regurgitation there is a high-grade secondary anemia, the hemoglobin falling to 70 or even as low as 50 per cent., with a corresponding reduction in the red cells, although, in uncomplicated cases, the leukocytes are, as a rule, but slightly, if at all, disturbed. Staining methods reveal advanced degeneration of the red cells (irregularity in size, shape, and in the distribution of hemoglobin). (See Blood Changes of Secondary Anemia, p. 404.) A positive Wassermann reaction is commonly obtained and when present without blood the spinal fluid should be studied with reference to this particular clinical test.

Summary of Diagnosis.—A history of previous attacks of acute endocarditis, rheumatism, or of one of the diseases known to predispose to degeneration of the endocardium should not be overlooked when formulating a diagnosis, and especially is this precaution necessary if the case is studied before a distinct diastolic murmur is heard at the aortic cartilage. Pronounced cardiac hypertrophy, as shown both by percus-

sion and by the force of impulse at the apex, is strongly suggestive of disease at the aortic valve, and when the cutaneous manifestations of the disease—*e. g.*, throbbing of the arteries, Quincke's capillary pulse as shown on the skin, at the finger-nails, and on the mucous membrane of the lips—are also present, the evidence of aortic regurgitation is complete.

The detection of a soft, blowing diastolic murmur that is heard best at the second costal cartilage, to the right of the sternum, and is transmitted along the left border of the sternum, is quite characteristic of the existence of aortic regurgitation, and upon the evidence of this finding the diagnosis may be established. In the early stages of aortic regurgitation the murmur may be feeble, and at this time it may be necessary to make the diagnosis from the other evidences previously detailed. (See Cutaneous Features, p. 294.) A wide variation, more than 60 mm. of mercury, between the systolic pressure of the arm and that of the leg is not uncommon.

Differential Diagnosis.—Aortic regurgitation is to be distinguished from aortic stenosis (see table, p. 302). In certain cases considerable confusion is offered between aortic insufficiency and mitral stenosis. Among the more valuable distinctive features are—

(1) The cutaneous manifestations (p. 294) which are never pronounced in mitral stenosis.

(2) Traube's sign, and the pistol-shot murmur audible over the larger arteries.

(3) A wide difference between the blood pressure of the leg and that of the arm, and a high pulse pressure are features that favor the existence of aortic insufficiency.

(4) Hypertrophy of the left ventricle, the heart extending downward and to the left, as is shown by auscultatory percussion, is supportive of aortic regurgitation.

(5) Throbbing of the vessels when the patients hands are elevated (see Fig. 124) is of value in aortic regurgitation.

(6) The difference between the systolic pressure of the arm and that of the leg in mitral stenosis seldom exceeds 40 to 50 mm. of mercury.

(7) The time of the murmur in mitral stenosis is presystolic, and rarely we find difficulty in separating this murmur from that of aortic regurgitation. The murmur is not well transmitted.

(8) Sphygmographic tracings serve as a positive means of separating aortic regurgitation from mitral stenosis (see pages 222, 224.)

Clinical Course.—In young subjects aortic regurgitation may be present for a number of years without causing any discomfort as the result of cardiac diseases. As a rule, the patient survives the condition for a period of months and often several years after compensation has been broken. Sudden death occasionally occurs, although many patients are invalids after compensation has become ruptured.

AORTIC STENOSIS

Pathologic Definition.—A disease of the endocardium characterized by a narrowing of the lumen of the aortic orifice, together with thickening and possibly the formation of adhesions of the aortic leaflets, and finally by the development of myocarditis.

General Remarks.—Simple aortic stenosis is a very rare condition. The development of stenosis of the aortic orifice is sooner or later followed by disease of the aortic valves, in consequence of which blood is regurgi-

tated from the aorta into the left ventricle following each systole. Although it is common to find both aortic stenosis and aortic regurgitation in the same patient, in some cases aortic stenosis may appear to have been the primary lesion, and to have induced aortic regurgitation, whereas in a much smaller proportion of cases, aortic stenosis follows aortic regurgitation.

Exciting and Predisposing Factors.—(*a*) The exciting factor, as a rule, is a slowly progressing **sclerosis of the aortic leaflets,** together with the formation of calcareous deposits both in the leaflets and surrounding the aortic ring. Peter has called special attention to atheromatous changes at the root of the aorta, and, indeed, calcareous deposits are frequently found to extend into the coronary arteries. (*b*) Rarely, **rheumatic endocarditis** leads to the development of aortic stenosis. Seldom, indeed, this condition may be found to have followed other types of endocardial disease. (*c*) **Age** and **sex** are potent predisposing factors, since sclerotic changes at the root of the aorta, of the aortic leaflets, and of the endocardium at the aortic ring are common in males of advanced life.

Mechanic Influence of the Lesion.—The wall of the left ventricle hypertrophies as the result of having to force the blood from the ventricle through the small aortic opening into the aorta, and since the constriction of the aortic orifice has been gradually increasing, ventricular hypertrophy has likewise developed slowly; for these reasons but slight dilatation is present, unless a variable degree of regurgitation at the aortic ring also exists. Increased ventricular tension, which results from the obstruction encountered at the aortic orifice, is believed to favor the development of sclerotic changes at the mitral orifice. Hypertrophy of the left ventricle continues until it reaches a point when the cardiac muscle can no longer be nourished by the coronary arteries, when degenerative changes in the muscular tissue develop, soon to be followed by well-marked dilatation—dilatation in advance of hypertrophy. Following cardiac dilatation the result of a primary aortic stenosis, mitral incompetency (relative) occurs, which permits the blood to be regurgitated into the left auricle and the pulmonary veins, thereby increasing pulmonary tension. Owing to the obstruction in the lung, the right heart first hypertrophies, later dilates, and then permits of tricuspid regurgitation, which is followed by general venous stasis.

Principal Complaint.—Aortic stenosis may be present for years without giving rise to any inconvenience, and the symptoms, as a rule, date from the first evidence of failure of compensation. At this time the patient complains of frequent attacks of slight dizziness, which may, however, be sufficiently severe to cause him to sit or cling to some object for fear of falling—a condition that usually follows exertion and is caused by an inadequate volume of blood entering the aorta. Attacks of syncope may be annoying, and headache is more or less constant. Owing to the roughening of the aortic leaflets, small clots are likely to form behind and about these atheromatous areas, and are frequently dislodged and escape into the circulation. As a consequence, embolism of the spleen, kidney, brain, lung, etc., tends to develop. The existence of an embolus will be manifested by characteristic symptoms and signs, depending upon the location in which the clot lodges. (See Pulmonary Embolus, p. 124.) Pain is occasionally located anteriorly over the precordium, and in the scapular region. In certain cases of chronic heart disease, scapular pain may be reflected on the left side as low as the left margin of the ribs.

Physical Signs.—Inspection.—During attacks of vertigo there is extreme pallor, both of the face and of the extremities. Soon after compensation has been ruptured edema of the ankles and feet occurs, and gradually increases as the disease advances.

The apex-beat is seen one or more inches below its normal area, and to the left of the nipple-line, a feature that is explained by the high grade of hypertrophy of the left ventricle present. The cardiac impulse is, as a rule, slow, and may be of such force as to cause an appreciable heaving of the precordium, although in some cases the apparent impulse of the heart is not exaggerated. Depending upon the condition of the myocardium the area of the apex impulse may be diminished, and in emphysematous patients it may be absent.

Palpation.—After failure of compensation has occurred, the skin of the lower extremities pits upon pressure. As the result of an associated tricuspid regurgitation with venous congestion, the liver and spleen may be enlarged.

Ordinarily, the pulsation of the heart is forcible, except when pulmonary emphysema or cardiac dilatation is present. On placing the hand over the base of the heart a well-marked systolic thrill is often detected, its area of greatest intensity being near the second right costal cartilage. In selected cases, in which an apical thrill is palpable, it may be felt in the region of the apex-beat. The same sensation is more pronounced near the base of the heart.

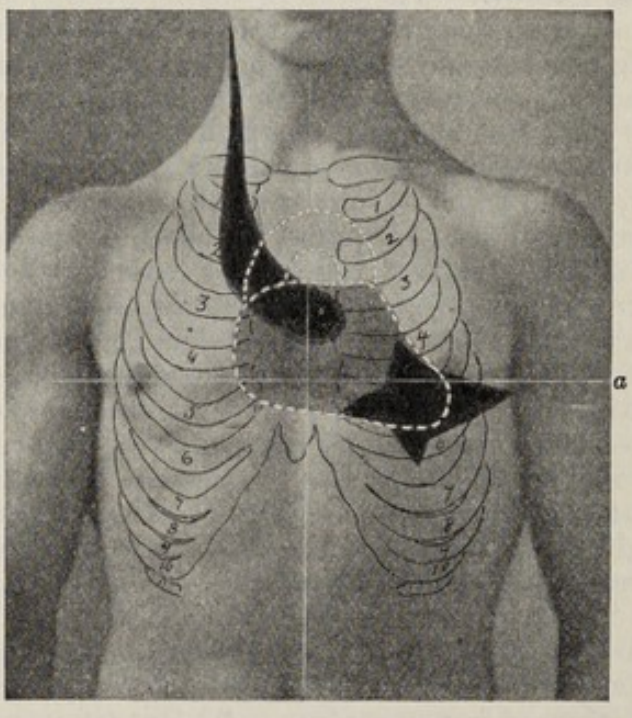


FIG. 128.—SUPERIOR AREA OF SHADING IS ILLUSTRATIVE OF AREA OF GREATEST INTENSITY AND DISTRIBUTION OF THE SYSTOLIC MURMUR OF AORTIC STENOSIS. SHADED PORTION BELOW SECOND CARTILAGE AND AS HIGH AS CLAVICLE IS WHERE AORTIC REGURGITATION IS HEARD.

a, Area where mitral systolic murmur is audible.

The *pulse* is quite characteristic, being small, regular, not readily compressed, and of slightly lessened frequency. (See Sphygmographic Tracing, p. 301, Fig. 129.)

Percussion.—Despite the high grade of cardiac hypertrophy, the area of cardiac dullness is not so decidedly increased in aortic stenosis as it is in aortic incompetency. In uncomplicated cases the area of cardiac dullness will be found to be increased downward and to the left.

Auscultation.—A harsh and sometimes rasping murmur is heard in the second right interspace; this murmur is systolic in time, and in typical cases is transmitted to the vessels of the neck. (See Fig. 128.) After compensation has been ruptured the murmur may be much softer and smoother in quality than it was during the early stage of the disease. In our practice cases of aortic stenosis have frequently been followed over a prolonged period and it has been observed that within the course of one or more years a harsh, rasping murmur may entirely disappear, after which, instead of the booming quality of the heart that was originally pres-

ent, the first sound has also lost its muscular element, and, indeed, the second cardiac sound, always diminished, may become practically inaudible. (See Differential-Diagnosis, p. 302.)

Caution.—Aortic regurgitation is so commonly associated with aortic stenosis that a murmur will probably be heard with both systole and diastole. (See Fig. 128.) Owing to the constriction at the aortic orifice and to the various blood-currents that are created as the result of roughening in the region of the aortic orifice, one sometimes detects an almost continuous, saw-like murmur. The so-called "double murmur" heard at the aortic cartilage refers to the distinct systolic (aortic stenotic) murmur and a diastolic (aortic regurgitant) murmur.

In those cases of cardiac disease in which arrhythmia is a conspicuous symptom it is often practically impossible to time the murmur with any degree of satisfaction; the clinician must, therefore, depend upon the area of transmission of the murmur as the factor on which to base his diagnosis. The murmur of aortic stenosis is, with but few exceptions, transmitted to the vessels of the neck, and in well-marked cases it is heard as high as the angle of the jaw (Fig. 128). The murmur of aortic incompetency is seldom transmitted to the neck, but in nearly all instances it is heard along the sternum and, at times, from the aortic cartilage toward the apex of the heart. Every clinician has frequently found selected cases in which either a stenotic or a regurgitant aortic murmur may be heard over the entire precordial region, and at times well into the neck. In this last type of cases the diagnosis is attained not by auscultation alone, but by careful examination and judicious balancing of all the symptoms and signs displayed in the individual case.

Sphygmographic Tracing.—The sphygmographic tracing of aortic stenosis (Fig. 129) is in itself quite characteristic, showing, as it does, a marked slowness of the ascending curve and a gradual, step-like descent.

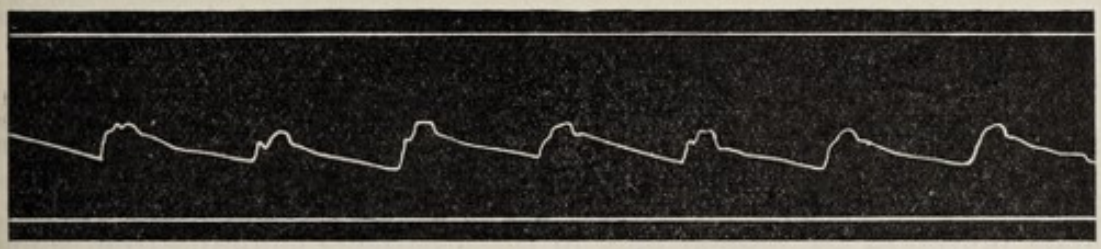


FIG. 129.—SPHYGMOGRAM OF AORTIC STENOSIS FROM A MAN AGED SIXTY YEARS (Anders).

Summary of Diagnosis.—A most important factor in the diagnosis of aortic stenosis is the slowness of the heart's action together with the small, soft, although not readily compressible, pulse. Repeated attacks of vertigo, associated with extreme pallor, and a tendency toward syncope are to be considered in connection with this disease, although these symptoms may also be encountered during the course of other cardiac conditions. The detection, at the aortic cartilage, of a systolic murmur that is transmitted well above the clavicle and at times as far as the angle of the jaw (Fig. 129), coupled with a systolic thrill at the base and a small, tense pulse, makes the diagnosis of aortic stenosis positive.

Differential Diagnosis.—**Calcareous deposits** at the root of the aorta, especially when they involve the aortic segments, may create an adventitious sound that is systolic in time and resembles closely true aortic stenosis; this murmur is seldom, if ever, musical in character, a feature of aortic stenosis. In aortic stenosis the second sound is

enfeebled or absent, whereas in those cases in which the murmur is due to sclerotic change in and about the aortic orifice distinct accentuation of the second sound is common.

During the course of **chronic Bright's disease** a high grade of aortic sclerosis is generally present, together with hypertrophy of the left ventricle, and, in consequence of such changes, a systolic murmur may be audible at the aortic cartilage. In these cases an analysis of the urine may give positive evidence of nephritis. A distinctly accentuated second sound favors a diagnosis of nephritic changes rather than one of aortic stenosis.

In aortic regurgitation a systolic murmur is not infrequently also present, but in such instances the condition should not be regarded as aortic stenosis unless the actual muscular quality and a systolic thrill are also present. Again, it is to be remembered that the pulse of aortic stenosis is not characteristic, when both stenosis and regurgitation are present at the aortic ring.

The accompanying differential table sets forth the distinctive features between aortic stenosis and aortic regurgitation:

Aortic Stenosis	Aortic Regurgitation
1. Absent.	1. Capillary pulse (Quincke's) is present over the skin, finger-nails, and mucous surfaces.
2. Arteries not well filled with blood at each systole.	2. Arteries well filled at each systole.
3. Arteries are not seen to pulsate.	3. Throbbing of the arteries of the arms and extremities.
4. Pulse slow and small, systolic thrill felt at base.	4. Characteristic "trip-hammer" pulse. Thrill uncommon, diastolic in time.
5. Cardiac hypertrophy moderate.	5. Hypertrophy of the left ventricle extreme.
6. Murmur rather harsh, systolic in time, and transmitted to the vessels of the neck.	6. Murmur less harsh, and usually soft in character, diastolic in time, transmitted downward along the sternum or toward the apex.

The so-called **"hemic murmurs,"** heard best over the base of the heart, are to be distinguished from the murmur of aortic stenosis. Hemic murmurs, while systolic in time, are soft and indistinct, and are not associated with hypertrophy of the left ventricle or a systolic thrill. Again, hemic murmurs are present only in those patients suffering from some pathologic condition in which profound primary or secondary anemia is a prominent feature.

Clinical Course.—Stenosis at the aortic ring develops somewhat gradually, and the patient may thus be afflicted for a number of years before any inconvenience is experienced. After the first symptoms, which become manifest at the time compensation becomes embarrassed, aortic regurgitation runs a chronic course, and may continue over a number of years. Sudden death, however, may result from the escape of certain calcareous particles into the blood-current, causing embolism of the brain or other organs.

MITRAL REGURGITATION (Mitral Insufficiency; Mitral Incompetency)

Pathologic Definition.—A disease of the endocardium, secondary to acute endocarditis, and characterized by sclerotic changes, which are followed by constriction or rupture of the mitral leaflets, which prevents the mitral orifice from closing completely during each systole; it is also

caused by dilatation of the left ventricle, which, by increasing the lumen of the mitral orifice, makes it impossible for the mitral leaflets to come in direct apposition to each other during systole; the condition is also, though rarely, due to disease of the chordæ tendineæ. After regurgitation has existed for an indefinite period hypertrophy of the left ventricle occurs, and in typical cases hypertrophy and dilatation of the ventricle develop simultaneously. The wall of the ventricle becomes greatly thickened, and remains so until the myocardium is not perfectly nourished, when myocardial degeneration sets in and permits of dilatation.

Mechanic Influence of the Lesion.—Incomplete closure of the mitral leaflets permits a portion of the blood to return into the left auricle during systole. The regurgitated blood meets the normal current simultaneously, coming through the pulmonary veins to the left auricle, and offers an obstruction to the escape of venous blood from the lungs. A meeting of these two blood-currents in the left auricle—one of venous blood from the lung, the other of regurgitated blood from the left ventricle—must create an abnormal current in the left auricle, which probably gives rise to a murmur.

As a result of blood entering the left auricle from the lung and from the left ventricle at the time of each systole, the auricle becomes overloaded, and this leads to dilatation, although an attempt at compensatory hypertrophy of the auricular wall is also present. Now that the left auricle contains an abnormal volume of blood, an extra effort is made by this chamber of the heart to propel the increased volume of blood into the left ventricle; the result of such overaction eventually leads to overdistention of the left ventricle. Owing to the incomplete closure of the mitral orifice, all the blood now contained in the left ventricle is not expelled into the aorta with each systole, but, on the contrary, a portion of it again returns to the left auricle, which leakage demands extra work upon the part of the left ventricle, and, as a consequence, the walls of this chamber become hypertrophied—hypertrophy and dilatation develop simultaneously.

The hypertrophied left ventricle is capable, for an indefinite period, of forcing about the normal volume of blood into the aorta with each systole, and during this period the arterial tension approximates the normal. Sooner or later the cardiopulmonary circulation becomes impeded, and the blood-current returning from the lung to the left auricle through the pulmonary veins is so decidedly obstructed as to increase the arterial tension in the lung. The damming back of blood in the lung obstructs the current of blood flowing through the pulmonary artery and capillaries, and increased tension here sooner or later brings about sclerotic changes in the pulmonary arterial system, which act as an additional source of interference with the circulation of blood propelled by the right ventricle to the lung. Increased circulatory tension in the lung in time causes hypertrophy and dilatation of the right ventricle. The presence of such increased tension is detected clinically by accentuation of the second pulmonic sound. So long as the right and the left ventricle are sufficiently hypertrophied to maintain the circulatory equilibrium through the lung and through the general arterial tree, serious symptoms do not arise, but whenever this equilibrium is disturbed, dilatation of the right ventricle in excess of hypertrophy and tricuspid regurgitation follows.

A regurgitant blood-current through the tricuspid orifice offers direct obstruction to the return of venous blood from both the ascending and descending vena cava, and as a result of this regurgitation the cardiac ventricles, particularly the left ventricle, are inadequately filled during

each diastole, consequently the arterial tree does not receive the normal amount of blood. Again, on account of obstruction to the returning venous blood-supply, venous congestion of the viscera and of the extremities, together with the transudation of the fluid elements of the blood into the serous cavities, takes place.

Predisposing and Exciting Factors.—Among the predisposing factors should be considered those that favor acute endocarditis and, in addition, overwork, such as heavy lifting and the like. Acute endocarditis, whether rheumatic or simple in character, serves as the most potent factor in the production of mitral regurgitation. General arteriosclerosis also figures prominently in the causation, as do cirrhosis of the liver, chronic nephritis, and other forms of obstruction to the general circulation. Aortic stenosis occurring as a primary lesion may eventually produce mitral regurgitation. Moderate dilatation of the left ventricle, as is seen during the course of acute fevers and maladies characterized by profound anemia, may permit of a temporary regurgitation at the mitral orifice.

Principal Complaint.—While Compensation Is Maintained.—During this period otherwise healthy persons do not complain of symptoms referable to disease of the heart. After the lesion has continued for some time,—probably several years,—slight embarrassment of the pulmonary circulation may be seen to follow excitement and over-exertion. The symptoms now consist of temporary *dyspnea*, *cough*, and probably the expectoration of a small quantity of frothy, blood-streaked material. Many cases complain only of shortness of breath, and rarely of a dry, hacking cough which follows exertion. The physical signs present during this period are unusually interesting and of great diagnostic value. (See Physical Signs, below.)

After Compensation Is Ruptured.—When compensation is lost, the right ventricle is no longer able to cope effectively with the existing circulatory tension (obstruction) offered to the return flow of venous blood from the general system, which obstruction in turn extends rapidly from the right heart both to the periphery of the body and to the viscera, and soon affects the general system. *Dyspnea*, *cough*, *expectoration*, and the symptoms common to the latter portion of the stage of compensation becomes intensified. Cough is accompanied by a somewhat free expectoration, which is frequently bloody. The patient complains of *cardiac palpitation*, and this annoying symptom may follow even slight exertion. Vertigo and a tendency toward attacks of fainting may be experienced.

Pain is unusual, except in those cases in which a variable degree of stenosis is also present. Pain may be present and is usually located immediately below the left nipple and at the angle of the scapula. Pain in these regions may be present in almost any type of chronic heart disease. *Gastro-intestinal catarrh*, *nausea*, the vomiting of mucus and at times of blood-streaked material, may be an early and annoying symptom. Following venous congestion of the liver *hemorrhoids* are likely to develop.

Physical Signs.—During Compensation.—*Inspection.*—Inspection may at first be negative, but as the disease progresses a distinct pallor is perceptible, the features are somewhat pinched, the lips and ears are moderately cyanosed, and the vessels of the neck are abnormally prominent. Clubbing of the finger-tips and nails is an almost constant feature in young subjects and is fairly common after middle life (Figs. 130 and 132).

After Rupture of Compensation.—*Inspection.*—The extremities are swollen, and in those cases in which compensation is fairly well main-

tained there is edema of the ankles. The abdomen may become pendulous as the result of an effusion into the peritoneum, and, when ascites is present, the respirations are rapid and shallow (Fig. 131). Cyanosis becomes extreme, the lips, finger-tips, and nails displaying a variable

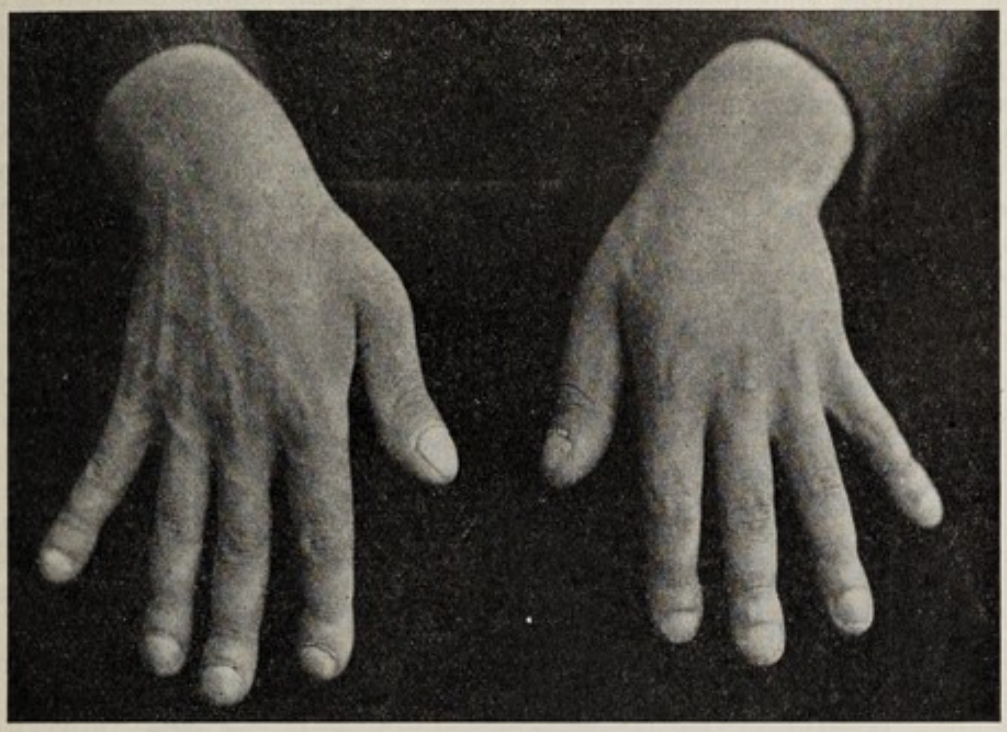


FIG. 130.—CLUBBING OF THE FINGERS DUE TO VALVULAR HEART DISEASE
Child eight years of age (Courtesy of Dr. J. A. McKenna).

degree of lividity. In well-marked cases the mucous membrane of the mouth becomes cyanosed and the face is dusky.

In the majority of cases the precordial region is prominent, a feature that is more conspicuous in children than in adults. The apical impulse is

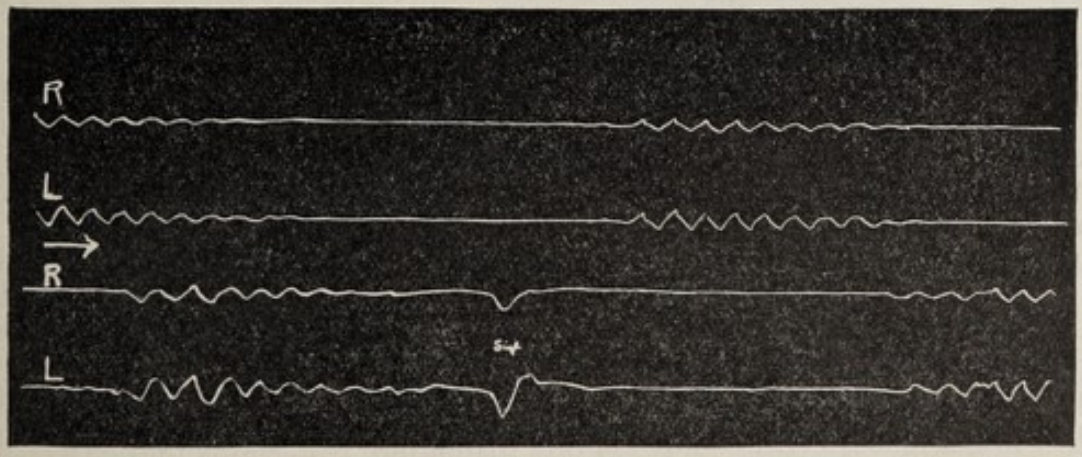


FIG. 131.—BILATERAL PNEUMOGRAM FROM A CASE OF CHEYNE-STOKES RESPIRATION, DEVELOPING DURING ADVANCED CARDIOVASCULAR DISEASE (Boston and Ulman).

Lower curves R and L were also made from the same patient. The marked downward summit the curve, seen during the pause, result from the patient's sighing (see Bilateral Movements of the Chest, p. 139).

unusual, and even late in the disease a diffuse wave is seen in the region of the left nipple, often extending downward to the sixth interspace, and well toward the anterior axillary line. Pulsation of the epigastrium

may also be present, and is a constant feature where there is associated dilatation of the right ventricle. After failure of the right heart has developed, a distinct wave is seen over the vessels of the neck.

Palpation.—A systolic thrill is sometimes detected at the apex of the heart. During that period of the disease in which compensation is well maintained the apex-beat is forcible and heaving in character, but with beginning failure of compensation its force is proportionately weakened. Late in the disease, and after the left ventricle has become markedly dilated and myocardial changes have taken place, the apex-beat is weak and often irregular. Throbbing of the veins of the neck, when due to an associated tricuspid regurgitation, is arrested by exerting mild pressure with the finger upon the vein immediately above the clavicle—a sign that serves to distinguish venous from arterial pulsation.



FIG. 132.—CLUBBING OF THE TOES DUE TO VALVULAR HEART DISEASE.
Child eight years of age (Courtesy of Dr. J. A. McKenna).

The Pulse.—The force and tension of the pulse are, as a rule, in direct ratio to the strength of the impulse of the heart, and while compensation is maintained the pulse is full, regular, and strong, although its tension may be slightly lower than normal. (See Blood-pressure, p. 203.) After compensation has become lost, the tension, force, and regularity of the pulse are disturbed, and it is readily compressible. (See Fig. 74.) Arrhythmia, however, while uncommon, may be present in selected cases during the stage of compensation. When the heart is markedly dilated, it may be possible to place the hand over the epigastrium, and, by gentle pressure, to feel the heart's impulse distinctly. After the application of judicious treatment it will frequently be seen that the dilated heart returns to nearly its normal size within the course of a few days, and that this sign—pulsation in the epigastrium—disappears. The lower border of the liver is often palpable and the spleen is also enlarged. (See Pulsation of the Liver, Tricuspid Regurgitation, p. 313.)

Percussion.—The area of cardiac dullness is increased downward and to the left, and may extend to or beyond the anterior axillary line, this sign being present early, and often before the patient has experienced any symptoms referable to cardiac disease. The note of cardiac dullness extends to the right of that normally present, and in marked

cases may be found one-half to one inch beyond the right border of the sternum. When cardiac dilatation has developed, the area of cardiac dullness is perceptibly widened, consequently the increase is more pronounced in the transverse than in the vertical diameter. Dullness may also extend well into the left half of the epigastrium.

Auscultation.—Preceding the development of failure of compensation a systolic murmur is audible, its seat of greatest intensity being at the apex of the heart (Fig. 133). In selected cases this systolic murmur may be heard most distinctly in the third or fourth interspace, in the left midclavicular line. Rarely, as has been pointed out by various clinicians, the systolic murmur of mitral regurgitation is heard best over the base of the heart.

Posture may be an important factor in auscultating for the detection ot mitral disease, since in some the murmur is audible only when the pat enf is in the recumbent posture, being absent when he is sitting or standing. A reverse condition was found in a man reported by C. J. Hoban, the murmur disappearing when the patient was lying upon either his side or his back. The systolic murmur of mitral regurgitation is transmitted from its area of greatest intensity near the apex toward the axilla, and is not infrequently audible as far to the left as the angle of the scapula. The murmur, however, becomes less and less distinct as the stethoscope is carried toward the scapular region. In following the transmission of the mitral murmur it is well to keep the stethoscope directly over the rib or interspace where the murmur is found to be loudest at the apex, traveling on this line to the left.

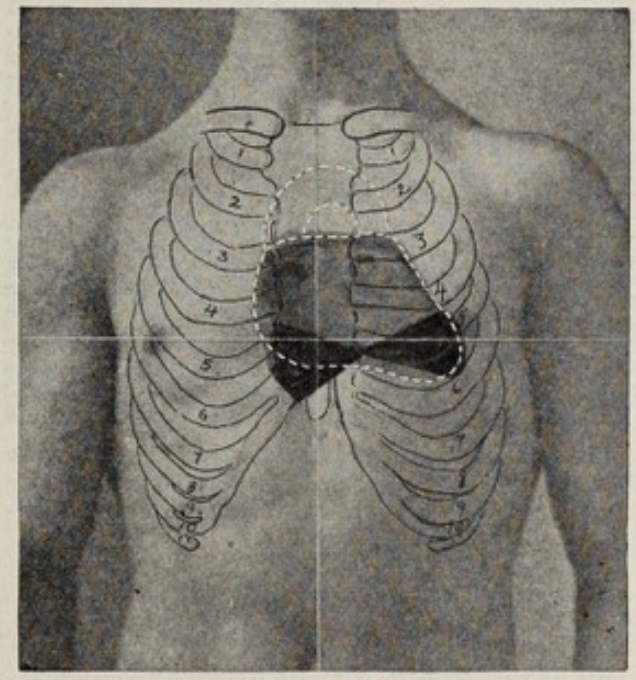


FIG. 133.—AREA WHERE TRICUSPID REGURGITATION IS HEARD.

Showing area where a loud systolic mitral murmur may be detected in addition to being transmitted toward the axilla.

When the stethoscope is placed over the third left costal cartilage, the pulmonic second sound of the heart is appreciably accentuated during the course of mitral regurgitation, a clinical feature explained in the mechanism by which the lesion of this disease is produced. (See p. 303.) The loudness of a mitral murmur may depend upon certain elements, the most prominent of which are: (*a*) Strength of the heart; and (*b*) degree of sclerosis in the region of the mitral orifice.

Other murmurs are frequently audible after mitral incompetency has continued for a prolonged period. After compensation is broken, a murmur is audible at the ensiform cartilage (Fig. 133), and signifies that tricuspid regurgitation exists.

Laboratory Diagnosis.—*Cough* is, as a rule, accompanied by quite free expectoration, which is found on microscopic examination to contain alveolar cells; within the body of many of these cells granules of a brownish pigment are to be seen. The sputum may be blood streaked, or the patient may expectorate nearly pure blood at intervals. Red blood-

cells and leukocytes are, as a rule, present in the sputum, even though the macroscopic appearance does not suggest the presence of blood.

After tricuspid regurgitation and congestion of the abdominal viscera have developed, the quantity of urine voided during the twenty-four hours is greatly lessened, is of high specific gravity, and contains a trace of albumin. Casts and both red and white blood-cells are to be found late during the course of mitral regurgitation.

Aspiration of the serous sacs, *i. e.*, the pleura, peritoneum, and pericardium, may result in the recovery of a clear, slightly greenish, opalescent liquid, having a specific gravity of 1.002 to 1.005, or possibly 1.010, and giving a decided reaction for albumin.

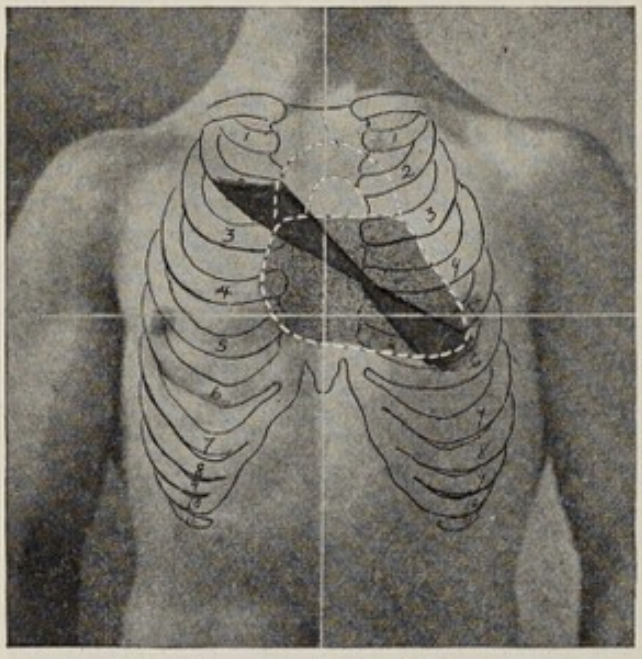


FIG. 134.—SHADED AREAS SHOW AREAS OF DISTRIBUTION OF AORTIC REGURGITATION AND MITRAL REGURGITATION WHEN LATTER MURMUR IS UNUSUALLY LOUD.

Summary of Diagnosis. The history of previous attacks of acute endocarditis, or of those affections known to favor the development of disease of the endocardium (see Endocarditis, p. 280), must be taken into consideration in formulating a diagnosis. A high degree of hypertrophy of the left ventricle, with an increase in the area of cardiac dullness to the left and right, is of great diagnostic value. The existence of mitral regurgitation is established by the detection of a systolic murmur, heard best at the apex, with its typical area of transmission. (See Fig. 135.) Marked accentuation of the second pulmonic sound is additional evidence of the existence of this disease. After cardiac dilatation has taken place the diagnosis of mitral incompetency is made only with great difficulty, and, indeed, in many cases it is often impossible at this time to determine the nature of the original cardiac lesion.

Differential Diagnosis.—(*a*) The extensive transmission of the murmur of mitral insufficiency readily serves to distinguish this murmur from that of **mitral stenosis,** the latter being heard at the apex, and being but feebly, if at all, transmitted. (*b*) The time of these two murmurs also serves as a diagnostic factor, although in those cases in which arrhythmia obtains, this clinical evidence may be uncertain. (*c*) The murmur of mitral regurgitation and that of aortic stenosis are both systolic in time, and the area of distribution serves as the most important factor for their differentiation—*e. g.*, the murmur of mitral incompetency is heard best at the apex of the heart, and is transmitted to the left, whereas that due to aortic stenosis is heard most distinctly at the second right intercostal space, and is transmitted to the vessels of the neck. (*d*) Again, in mitral regurgitation the pulmonary second sound is accentuated, a feature that is absent in aortic stenosis. (*e*) In mitral incompetency the thrill is most marked at the apex of the organ, in striking contrast to the thrill of aortic stenosis, which is rough and palpable at the base of the heart. (*f*) The pulse is likewise an important factor in differentiating these two

cardiac lesions, the pulse of mitral regurgitation being large and moderately forcible, whereas that of aortic stenosis is always appreciably small.

Functional murmurs are to be distinguished from the murmur of mitral insufficiency. The accompanying table, from Anders, will assist in differentiating between them:

Mitral Incompetency	Functional Murmurs
History	
1. Previous history of rheumatism or other disease causally related.	1. History of causative factors of one or other form of anemia and of debility.
2. Frequently there is definite knowledge of coincident rheumatism or organic heart disease in the same person.	2. Absent.
Physical Signs	
3. *Inspection.*—Duskiness of mucous membranes and extremities; later, wavy pulsation in veins of neck.	3. Pallor of skin and mucous surfaces present.
4. *Palpation.*—Finger-tips placed over apex-beat are forcibly lifted. Pulse-tension somewhat lowered and not prolonged. Apex impulse displaced down and to the left.	4. Impulse of the heart feeble. Apex impulse not displaced.
5. *Percussion.*—Evidence of enlargement of the heart.	5. Dilatation of right auricle in approximately one-half of all cases, giving rise to dullness upward and to the right edge of the sternum.
6. *Auscultation.*—A systolic apex murmur (often musical), with characteristic area of transmission. This murmur is often heard posteriorly; pulmonary sound accentuated.	6. Soft systolic murmur over body of heart (variable in intensity, rarely transmitted to axilla); there may be a systolic murmur at apex, and a venous hum over the vessels of the neck.

Clinical Course.—Before Compensation Is Lost.—This stage of the disease may vary from a few to several years, and during this time the patient suffers little or no inconvenience, and, indeed, may be unconscious of the existence of cardiac disease.

After Compensation Is Ruptured.—Here the clinical course depends largely upon the ability to carry out judicious treatment, and upon the presence or absence of complications. In those cases in which it is possible to take the patient from his work and to prevent all undue excitement and the use of stimulants, narcotics, and the like, life will be greatly prolonged. On the other hand, in those unfortunate individuals who must earn a livelihood and those who are addicted to the excessive use of stimulants the disease runs a rapid course, terminating fatally in from one to three years. Embolism and thrombosis of the lung are likely to occur at any time during the course of mitral regurgitation, and whenever this accident develops, the life of the patient is greatly endangered.

MITRAL STENOSIS

Pathologic Definition.—A cardiac condition characterized by a narrowing of the lumen of the mitral orifice the result of calcareous deposits, thickening of the mitral leaflets, adhesions of the mitral valves, disease of the chordæ tendineæ, or extensive atheroma of the endocardium immediately surrounding the orifice.

Predisposing and Exciting Factors.—Practically all conditions that predispose to endocarditis (see p. 280) likewise predispose to mitral stenosis.

Age is an important factor, this cardiac lesion being more common in children after the fifth year and in young adults.

Sex exercises a moderate influence, females being attacked more often than males.

Mitral stenosis may be seen to follow endocarditis complicating **scarlatina, measles,** and other of the **acute infections,** and many writers believe that the intense strain of **whooping-cough** favors its development. After middle life, in a large percentage of cases, mitral stenosis will be found to accompany **chronic nephritis** and general **atheroma of the arterial system.**

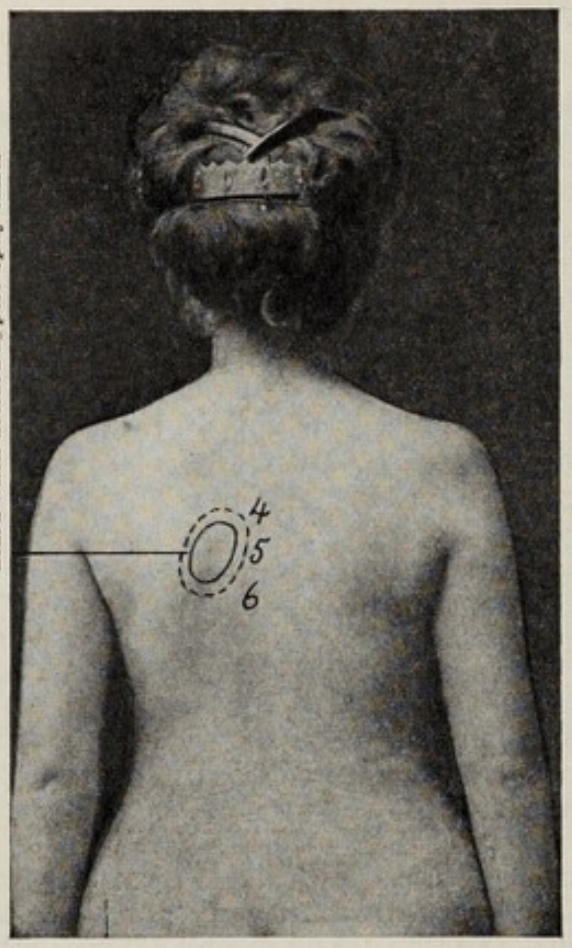


FIG. 135.—RARE AREA OF TRANSMISSION OF A LOUD MITRAL REGURGITANT MURMUR.

Mechanic Influence of the Lesion.—On account of the diminished size of the mitral orifice, undue force on the part of the left auricle is required to propel the blood from the auricle to the left ventricle, and in consequence of this overaction the wall of the left auricle hypertrophies and may attain a thickness twice that of the normal. Since the auricle is believed to accomplish much less by hypertrophy than does the left ventricle, cardiac dilatation develops comparatively early, and at this time the auricular wall is unusually thin.

After dilatation has taken place the circulatory equilibrium is no longer maintained, and the blood occupying the overloaded left auricle offers serious obstruction to the current coming into the auricle through the pulmonary veins; as a consequence blood tension in the lungs and also in the right ventricle is increased. The right ventricle from the effort to overcome the obstruction offered in the pulmonary vessels, undergoes decided hypertrophy and eventually becomes dilated. Owing to dilatation of the right ventricle tricuspid regurgitation is permitted, and, as previously stated under Mitral Incompetency, interference with the venous blood from both the ascending and the descending vena cava follows, eventually causing edema of the viscera and superficial tissues.

Principal Complaint.—Before Failure of Compensation.—During the period when compensation is perfectly maintained, symptoms are practically absent, except when the patient takes unusual exercise, such as fast walking, running, heavy lifting, stair-climbing, mountain-climbing, and the like, when a variable degree of *dyspnea* occurs. During this stage fibrinous coagula may be dislodged from the region of the mitral orifice and escape into the general circulation, eventually reaching the brain and other viscera; consequently the development of *local paralyses*, the most common of which are hemiplegia and aphasia, is to be feared. At this time the patient is also subject to recurrent attacks of endocarditis, which, if severe, excite special symptoms. (See

Endocarditis, p. 280.) Cardiac *palpitation* and dyspnea go hand in hand, and are frequently accompanied by a somewhat characteristic, stitch-like pain at the apex of the heart.

Following Failure of Compensation.—During this period the earliest symptoms are quite similar to those detailed under Mitral Regurgitation. (See p. 302.) *Dyspnea* is more or less constant, and is accompanied by serous and blood-stained *expectoration*, with periodic attacks of *hemoptysis*. *Pulmonary apoplexy* is to be feared late during the course of mitral stenosis, since the increased tension in the pulmonary vessels has given rise to atheromatous changes. A point of special importance is that during this stage (failure of compensation) general anasarca is unusual, although it may be present. Ascites is not uncommon. Aphonia caused by pressure of the distended auricle on the recurrent laryngeal nerve is occasionally noted.

Thermic Features.—Repeated attacks of fever occur during the course of mitral stenosis, and becomes more frequent as the disease advances. These febrile periods result from recurrent attacks of endocarditis. (See Recurrent Endocarditis, p. 289.)

Physical Signs.—Inspection.—The wave of the apex-beat is diffuse, although it is not displaced downward and to the left, unless hypertrophy of the left ventricle is also present. Pulsation is quite common at the second left intercostal space, and may frequently be seen in the third and fourth spaces, and there may also be well-marked pulsation along the right border of the sternum and in the epigastric region. In children the chest is abnormally prominent at the fifth and sixth costal cartilages, and the lower border of the sternum occasionally bulges.

After rupture of compensation the jugular regions become unduly prominent and pulsate, owing to engorgement of the venous system. The impulse excited by the apex-beat is feeble, and may be almost imperceptible. The lips are cyanotic, and the face at first presents a decided pallor, but later assumes a dusky appearance. Cyanosis of the finger-tips is also a late feature of mitral stenosis.

Palpation.—By placing the hand over the precordium so that the tips of the fingers cover the apex of the heart, a presystolic thrill will be detected, in a large proportion of all cases, at the third, fourth, or fifth interspace. The thrill of mitral stenosis is felt within the nipple-line and during the act of expiration. It may be absent when the patient is sitting or in the recumbent posture, and present after moderate exercise. In certain cases a thrill is not detected prior to the development of failure of compensation, but after this clinical stage of the disease is reached, it may be a prominent feature. The presystolic thrill is detected after the second sound, during diastole, when it appears as a soft, purring fremitus, which gradually increases in intensity, ending with a distinct shock with the cardiac impulse. "The fremitus and systolic shock are pathognomonic, and may be relied upon in the absence of the murmur" (Anders).

The impulse of the heart is frequently more forcible over the lower portion of the sternum than at the apex, a sign that results from hypertrophy of the right ventricle. In some cases, at least, a heaving impulse is detected to the left of the sternum, in the third, fourth, and fifth interspaces.

The pulse is small and quite readily compressible, and arrhythmia is generally a conspicuous feature early during the disease.

Percussion.—In advanced cases the area of cardiac dullness will be found to extend from one-half to two inches to the right of the right border of the sternum, a sign that is explained by the extreme hypertrophy of the

right ventricle. Cardiac dullness also extends upward along the borders of the sternum to the lower margin of the second rib. In selected cases it is possible to find the area of cardiac dullness increased to the left, but this condition, when present, is more likely to result from hypertrophy of the left than of the right ventricle, and is to be expected when there is an associated mitral insufficiency.

Auscultation.—The recognition of a rough, presystolic murmur, usually occupying only the latter half of the diastole, is a characteristic sign of mitral stenosis, and this murmur is synchronous with the thrill. A presystolic murmur is heard most distinctly one inch within the normal site of the systolic murmur of mitral regurgitation, and is not well transmitted (Fig. 62). In certain cases the murmur of mitral stenosis may be transmitted for a distance of one and one-half to two inches from its site of greatest intensity, a feature that, as previously stated, serves to distinguish this murmur from that produced by mitral regurgitation, since the latter is transmitted well into the axilla.

Characteristics of the Murmur.—In addition to being presystolic in time, the following characteristics are frequently observed: (*a*) The murmur is extremely brief; (*b*) it is not constant; and (*c*) it displays a low tone. The murmur increases in intensity from beginning to end, whereas in aortic regurgitation it lessened. Weakening of the right ventricle is conceded to be the cause for both temporary and permanent absence of the murmur during the course of mitral stenosis. Accentuation of the first sound is, as a rule, clear, whether or not the presystolic murmur is audible.

Rhythm.—The time of the murmur furnishes the most important diagnostic evidence; therefore, while auscultating in the region of the apex, the hand should always be placed over the precordium, since by these combined methods of physical examination both the ear and the finger are sensible of the shock that replaces the cardiac impulse. Again, a careful analysis of the sounds produced shows that the murmur terminates with the production of the shock. At times the cardiac impulse is not palpable, and in such cases the finger should be placed over one carotid or over the subclavian artery. A few cases have been seen in which the pulsation of these arteries could not be detected; yet pulsation, when present, is practically synchronous with systole. The pulmonic second sound is greatly accentuated during the stage when hypertrophy of the right ventricle obtains, and the second aortic sound is appreciably lessened and often absent. Occasionally one encounters a case of well-marked mitral stenosis in which there is an apparent reduplication of the second sound.

Associated Murmurs.—Mitral stenosis is frequently an initial endocardial lesion, but it may also develop during the course of mitral regurgitation; consequently, the murmur of mitral regurgitation and of aortic disease, as well as that of tricuspid regurgitation, may also be present.

Laboratory Diagnosis.—*A hematologic* study made late during the disease shows that the patient is suffering from secondary anemia.

Owing to congestion and edema of the lungs, the sputum may be blood-streaked, and, indeed, periodic attacks of hemoptysis occur. *Microscopically,* many alveolar epithelial cells are seen, and certain of these display granules of yellowish-brown pigment. Both red and white blood-corpuscles are present, and the sputum may also contain various cocci and bacilli, but the latter are not believed to possess clinical importance.

Summary and Differential Diagnosis.—A diagnosis is based almost entirely upon the data obtained by physical examination; these

include: (*a*) Increase in the area of cardiac dullness upward and downward and to the right; (*b*) a presystolic murmur with its seat of greatest intensity near the normal site of the apex-beat; (*c*) the murmur is distinctly localized, is not well transmitted, and terminates abruptly with a systolic shock; (*d*) there is marked accentuation of the second pulmonic sound, in striking contrast to the second aortic sound, which is usually feeble and at times absent.

The difference between the systolic pressure of the arm and that of the leg seldom exceeds 50 mm. of mercury, while in aortic regurgitation this difference is much greater, and may even equal the systolic pressure of the arm. Absence of cutaneous manifestations of aortic regurgitation (p. 291) further serves to separate mitral stenosis from aortic regurgitation. There is a decided hypertrophy of the left ventricle, the apex beat being located downward and to the left. The vital capacity of the lung displays a fall when auricular fibrillation is also present (p. 238).

Clinical Course.—In a fair percentage of cases mitral stenosis induces mitral regurgitation, hence the clinical course is that of the combined lesions . There are exceptional instances, however, in which, after dilatation of the left ventricle has taken place, the calcareous degeneration at the margin of the mitral ring prevents dilatation of the orifice. The deformity of the mitral valve leaflets, however, permits regurgitation to continue.

TRICUSPID REGURGITATION

Pathologic Definition.—A condition, rarely primary, characterized by—(*a*) Inflammatory changes, with shortening and coiling of the tricuspid leaflets; and (*b*) imperfect closure of the tricuspid valve (secondary), as the result of marked dilatation of the right ventricle, which is secondary to disease of the left heart or to obstruction offered to the arterial circulation through the lungs.

Mechanic Influence of the Lesion.—In a case of well-marked tricuspid regurgitation each systole is accompanied by a reflux of venous blood from the right ventricle through the tricuspid orifice into the right auricle, and if the power of the right ventricle is sufficient, this regurgitated blood is forced into both the ascending and the descending vena cava. As a result of the backward wave being carried into the venæ cavæ pulsation of the veins in the carotid region is seen and felt, and in cases of prolonged duration, the liver may pulsate with each cardiac systole—the so-called "pulsating liver of tricuspid regurgitation." (See Disease of the Liver.) On first consideration it appears clear that, owing to engorgement of the veins of the greater circulatory system and to leakage at the tricuspid orifice, the pulmonary circulation should receive less blood than under normal conditions, but this does not exist for any length of time, hence the lesser (pulmonary) as well as the greater circulation soon becomes embarrassed.

Hypertrophy and dilatation of the right ventricle, with decided engorgement of this chamber, develop in the same way as was previously described for the left ventricle with mitral regurgitation (p. 302). It must be emphasized, however, that the right heart is not capable of hypertrophying to the same degree as is the left, consequently the area of cardiac dullness is not increased to the same extent from hypertrophy of the right ventricle, as it is when the left chamber is thus affected. A factor that induces dilatation as well as hypertrophy of the right heart is

that during diastole, as the result of increased venous tension, an abnormal volume of blood is forced into the right ventricle. After the right heart is unable to maintain the pulmonary circulation, dilatation is further encouraged, and an extreme degree of thinning of its wall follows. Dilatation of the right ventricle with tricuspid regurgitation causes obstruction to the circulation through the liver, and, in consequence, effusion into the peritoneum and edema of the mucous membrane of the stomach and of the subcutaneous tissue of the lower extremities and body (general anasarca) follow.

Predisposing and Exciting Factors.—These are: (1) **Congenital deformity of the tricuspid orifice;** (2) **endocarditis** involving the leaflets or the endocardium at the tricuspid orifice; (3) **secondary regurgitation,** which includes by far the greater portion of all cases, is induced directly by increased tension and eventually by dilatation of the right heart. In this variety disease of the mitral, aortic, or pulmonary valves must in turn favor, and in the majority of cases induce, tricuspid regurgitation.

Principal Complaint.—Following the development of tricuspid regurgitation, those sections of the body that are drained by the portal circulation become the seat of passive congestion when the patient complains of the following: *anorexia, nausea, occasional attacks of vomiting,* and at times of the vomiting of blood. There is a sense of weight in the upper portion of the abdomen, and the patient may have observed that his abdomen is enlarging, and that his clothing is becoming extremely tight. *Hemorrhoids,* with the passage of blood and blood-stained stools, are likely to occur early. Swelling of the feet and intense itching in the region of the ankles are also experienced. *Dyspnea* is a prominent symptom throughout the entire period following the development of tricuspid incompetency, and may be so severe as to necessitate propping the patient up in bed or sleeping in the sitting posture.

Following the effusion of serum into the pleura and peritoneum, the symptoms just detailed are appreciably aggravated. In certain selected cases *ascites* does not develop until some time after rupture of compensation, owing to the fact that the veins of the liver become enormously distended, and in this way the liver forms a reservoir for the regurgitated blood and thereby protects the peritoneum.

Physical Signs.—Inspection.—Venous pulsation in the neck is a characteristic sign of tricuspid regurgitation, and this throbbing is distinguished from pulsation of the artery in this region by placing the finger over the vein immediately above the clavicle, and making firm pressure, when venous pulsation disappears above the finger, to reappear after the pressure is removed. Pulsation coming from the artery, on the other hand, is but slightly, if at all, affected by mild pressure. Pulsation in the epigastrium may be pronounced when the patient is in the recumbent or semirecumbent posture. Leube records the time of the venous pulsation of the veins of the neck as presystolic.

Owing to increased venous tension, the blood is retained for an unusually long time in the capillaries, consequently *cyanosis* of the lips, face, finger-nails, and extremities occurs. The area of the apex impulse will be found to vary greatly, depending largely upon the initial cardiac lesion in question and likewise upon the degree of hypertrophy of the left ventricle. After dilatation has become well marked, and in case of mitral stenosis, no impulse may be visible in the region of the apex. Pulsation may be visible at the right of the sternum, and results from contraction of the right auricle and right ventricle, but such pulsation

is in no way characteristic of tricuspid regurgitation, and has previously been described in connection with mitral stenosis.

In those cases developing ascites the abdomen is unduly prominent, and the upper portion may be distended in part as the result of enlargement of the liver and of the spleen. The lower extremities become swollen and pit upon pressure, as does also the tissue in the region of the loins late in the disease.

Edematous swelling of the genitalia, and particularly of the prepuce and scrotum, or the vulva, is an annoying late symptom.

Palpation.—A slightly heaving impulse is palpable in the epigastrium, and when the right ventricle is greatly dilated, it may be possible to force the fingers well underneath the left costal margin in the epigastric region, and there feel the heart throbbing distinctly.

When the patient is resting in the recumbent posture, he should be directed to flex the right thigh upon the abdomen, when the examiner, by pressing the finger forcibly against the abdominal muscles and immediately below the lower border of the liver, will find that this viscus pulsates with each cardiac systole—the so-called "pulsating liver." (See p. 295.) Rhythmic pulsation of the liver may also be detected by directing the patient to lie upon the back, with the arms raised; the examiner should then place the palm of his left hand over the right midaxillary region, and that of the right hand over the upper abdominal region. (See Timing of Murmurs, p. 257.)

Caution.—The liver may be depressed with each pulsation of the heart when the right ventricle is well dilated, but such hepatic movement is never expansile in character, a feature that distinguishes it from the so-called pulsating liver. Again, hypertrophy of the liver and new-growths situated between the liver and the abdominal aorta may transmit an impulse from the aorta through the liver to the palpating hand, but here again expanding pulsation is absent and the impulse is most marked over the left lobe, while in pulsating liver the impulse is found over the entire organ, and is always well marked at the junction of the midclavicular line with the costal margin. The tissue of the extremities and even of the trunk and loins may pit upon pressure. The pulse, as shown by the radial artery, is small, arrhythmia is conspicuous, and the force of each pulsation will be found to vary greatly.

Percussion.—It is customary to find the area of cardiac dullness markedly increased, and such increase usually extends for an inch or two to the right of the sternum. In those cases in which tricuspid regurgitation follows either mitral or aortic regurgitation, the transverse diameter of the heart is also increased to the left (Fig. 126), and may extend from the left axilla to one or more inches beyond the right border of the sternum. The area of hepatic dullness generally extends below the costal margin, and the spleen is also enlarged. Late during the disease there is flatness at the base of both pleuræ, the result of the presence of transuded fluid in the serous sacs. If ascites is present, tympany will be found to surround the umbilicus when the patient is in the recumbent posture (Fig. 241), and at this time dullness occupies the flanks, and change of posture changes the location of both the dullness and the tympany.

Auscultation.—The murmur of tricuspid regurgitation is, as a rule, soft and blowing in character, systolic in time, and heard in the region of the ensiform cartilage. (See Fig. 133.) This murmur is ordinarily audible until late during the course of the disease, and, in fact, may be present throughout that period after compensation has failed. The area over which the murmur is best heard varies greatly in different cases, and,

of course, also depends upon the loudness of the murmur present. Ordinarily, the systolic murmur is heard for a distance of one to one and one-half inches to the left of the left border of the sternum, and for a somewhat greater distance to the right of the sternum. Cases are occasionally encountered in which the murmur of tricuspid regurgitation is heard two or more inches above the articulation of the ensiform cartilage with the upper two-thirds of the sternum. In those cases in which the heart is unusually weak the murmur is likely to be faint, and its disappearance is suggestive of further myocardial degeneration. Speaking collectively, with reference to cardiac murmurs, that of tricuspid regurgitation is softer and heard with more difficulty than is that resulting from any other cardiac lesion, with the possible exception in selected cases, of the presystolic mitral murmur. The influence of tricuspid incompetency upon the second pulmonic sound is by no means a constant one, consequently the degree of accentuation of this sound is of but limited clinical importance.

Laboratory Diagnosis.—Expectoration may be free, and, rarely, blood-stained sputum is ejected. The *sputum* varies somewhat with the initial cardiac lesion in question. Owing to cyanotic congestion of the kidney, the quantity of urine excreted becomes greatly diminished late in the disease, and the condition may approach anuria. At this time the specific gravity of the urine is high,—1.025 to 1.035,—the color is dark, and on standing it will be found to precipitate a heavy sediment. *Microscopically*, it is rich in leukocytes, granular débris, and occasionally, red cells are to be seen.

When a *hematologic* study is made before the development of general edema of the viscera and subcutaneous tissue, together with effusion into the serous sacs, the hemic condition will be found to be that of secondary anemia, namely, there will be a proportionate reduction in the hemoglobin and red cells, with but limited changes in the leukocytes. After effusion into the serous sacs has taken place and edema of the subcutaneous tissue and cyanosis of the extremities have appeared, the number of red cells in a cubic millimeter will be found to equal, and often to exceed, that of the normal. We have seen cases of cyanosis in which the red cells have numbered from 5,000,000 to 8,000,000 per c.mm., with a hemoglobin percentage of from 90 to 100. This increase in the red cells and hemoglobin results from the blood condensation following the extravasation of its liquid elements into the intracellular tissues and serous cavities, and in such cases the actual number of red cells, as well as the amount of hemoglobin present in the body, may be lower than normal.

Summary and Differential Diagnosis.—Probably the most significant sign of tricuspid regurgitation is venous pulsation above the right clavicle and in the carotid regions, and pulsation of the liver is also a valuable sign. In the majority of cases a murmur is audible, and when present, is of great value as a diagnostic aid. The location of the murmur, its points of greatest intensity, and its area of distribution serve to distinguish it from that of mitral regurgitation, which is heard best in the region of the apex, and is always transmitted to the left. (See Fig. 133.) It is to be borne in mind that frequently the murmur of mitral regurgitation and that of tricuspid regurgitation are present simultaneously, and in such cases the existence of these two systolic murmurs is quite easily determined by passing the stethoscope carefully first from the apex of the heart to the left, and in the event of a systolic murmur being audible at the anterior axillary line, mitral regurgitation exists. By passing the stethoscope gradually from the nipple obliquely toward the ensiform cartilage,

the murmur of triscupid regurgitation will become more and more distinct as we approach the ensiform, and will be heard for some distance to the right of the sternal border. (See Fig. 133.)

Clinical Course.—Tricuspid incompetency develops late during the course of other cardiac lesions, and in certain cases may exist for one or more years, although in the majority of instances, after the establishment of well-marked regurgitant currents through the tricuspid orifice at each systole, the clinical picture shows that the case progresses rapidly from bad to worse.

TRICUSPID STENOSIS

Pathologic Definition.—A rare condition characterized by either a congenital or an acquired narrowing of the tricuspid orifice, venous stasis, and dropsy.

General Remarks.—Tricuspid stenosis is rarely encountered as a primary disease, and is usually seen in association with organic lesions of the mitral region,—a fact well substantiated by the statistics of Daland and McDaniel, who collected 186 cases of associated mitral and tricuspid stenosis,—although it may be found to coexist with aortic regurgitation. The influence of tricuspid stenosis upon the right side of the heart is identical with that previously described for mitral regurgitation and mitral stenosis, in consequence of which the right auricle first becomes extremely dilated, to be followed finally by venous congestion. In an endeavor to compensate for the obstruction the right auricle hypertrophies.

Predisposing and Exciting Factors.—A **rheumatic history** is obtained in from 30 to 40 per cent. of all cases. Many authors regard an attempt at compensation for other cardiac lesions as a prominent predisposing factor, and certainly all forms of **endocarditis** favor the development of tricuspid stenosis.

Sex is a prominent factor, since mitral stenosis predisposes markedly to tricuspid stenosis, and compiled statistics of 160 cases of mitral stenosis show that lesion to develop in a ratio of five to one in favor of males.

Principal Complaint.—The symptoms complained of are the same as those previously given under Tricuspid Regurgitation (p. 313).

Physical Signs.—Inspection.—An indistinct venous pulsation of the carotid regions may be present, and a presystolic thrill may be detected over the right ventricle. Owing to undue engorgement of the right auricle there is an increase in the area of cardiac dullness. A presystolic rolling murmur is audible along the right border and over the lower portion of the sternum.

A feature of great clinical importance is that the physical signs of tricuspid stenosis are clear only in those cases devoid of complications and associated cardiac lesions—a class that constitutes a small percentage of all cases. Owing to the frequent coexistence of tricuspid stenosis with other well-marked cardiac lesions (mitral stenosis, aortic regurgitation), it is often extremely difficult to recognize the stenotic condition with any degree of certainty, and, indeed, definite deductions are frequently impossible.

A high a-wave is observed on the jugular phlebogram during the early stages of tricuspid stenosis, and before the auricle is overdistended.

PULMONARY INCOMPETENCY

Pathologic Definition.—A rare cardiac condition characterized by incompetency at the pulmonary orifice, the result of either malignant, simple, or chronic endocarditis, localized to the vicinity of the pulmonary orifice. The condition may also be due to congential malformation.

Remarks.—Pulmonary incompetency exercises an influence upon the right ventricle, *e. g.*, it induces hypertrophy of the ventricular wall and finally dilatation.

Physical Signs.—A diastolic murmur may be audible at the second left interspace, and when well marked, is transmitted along the sternum, resembling in this respect the area of distribution for the murmur in aortic regurgitation. Practically speaking, the physical signs furnish but little, and ofttimes nothing, that is positively diagnostic of this condition. On account of indefinite signs and symptoms, pulmonary regurgitation is seldom diagnosed. Pulmonary Regurgitation frequently accompanies mitral stenosis and in these cases pulmonary regurgitation is liable to be mistaken for the Flint murmur of aortic regurgitation.

Differential Diagnosis.—Pulmonary incompetency is to be distinguished from aortic regurgitation, and this distinction is based upon the following physical findings: (*a*) In pulmonary insufficiency hypertrophy and dilatation affect the right ventricle. (*b*) In aortic regurgitation hypertrophy and dilatation first involve the left ventricle. The so-called "water-hammer" pulse is also characteristic of aortic regurgitation. The various manifestations of Quincke's capillary pulse ascertained by inspection are significant features in connection with regurgitation at the aortic orifice. (See Aortic Regurgitation, p. 291.)

Graham Steele Murmur.—This murmur is supposed to be dependent upon relative pulmonary insufficiency, which condition is caused or promoted by high blood pressure in the lungs. When present this murmur may be of considerable importance in both diagnosis and in prognosis in certain cardiac and pulmonary maladies. The Graham Steele murmur is associated with chronic mitral disease and is caused by stretching of the conus arteriosus and the orifice of the pulmonary artery. There is a diastolic murmur heard at the base of the heart as the result of insufficiency of the pulmonary valves.

Causes.—Mitral stenosis, chronic interstitial pneumonia, pulmonary induration, emphysema, and extensive pleural adhesions, each and all, contribute toward the production of the Graham Steele murmur.

Characteristics.—The murmur is unusually soft, distinctly blowing, and diastolic in time. It is best audible at the third inter-costal space to the left of the sternum, and is frequently transmitted down the left sternal border. In connection with this murmur other appreciable alterations in the heart sounds are detected; *e. g.*,—the second sound is weakened, and at times absent; while the first sound is not infrequently accentuated.

Significance.—In those cases where there is present mitral disease of questionable character, the presence of the Steele murmur points strongly to the existence of mitral stenosis. In the absence of mitral disease, with abnormal distention of the left ventricle, this murmur is suggestive of some chronic pulmonary or pleural condition.

In cases where there is an unmistakable mitral stenosis or chronic induration of the lung, enlargement of the right ventricle together with the Steele murmur support the existence of a relative pulmonary insufficiency, and it is here that the distinction must be drawn between the Steele murmur (murmur of relative pulmonary insufficiency), and the murmur of aortic insufficiency.

From the standpoint of prognosis the former murmur is a favorable sign since it signifies that the engorgement of the lung is momentarily being relieved. In the absence of mitral disease, and of chronic lung and pleural disease a rather harsh diastolic murmur heard at the pulmonary area suggests the existence of organic disease at the pulmonary orifice.

Collectively speaking the Graham Steele murmur is an unfavorable sign, although it may temporarily be useful in relieving pulmonary congestion.

Roger's Murmur (Bruit de Rogers) is sometimes heard in cases of patulous interventricular septum. It is continuous throughout systole and diastole, with an ictus or reinforcement during the systole. It is best heard in the upper third of the precordium. It is a loud harsh murmur, and is not transmitted.

PULMONARY STENOSIS

Pathologic Definition.—A condition characterized by narrowing of the pulmonary orifice, cyanosis, and distention of the systemic veins.

Remarks.—Pulmonary stenosis is not infrequently of congenital origin. Endocarditis may lead to stenosis at the pulmonary orifice. In a fair proportion of all cases of pulmonary stenosis developing after adolescence and in the aged the condition may be attributed to general atheroma. The mechanism of the lesion is such as to produce hypertrophy of the right ventricle, which may, in turn, be followed by dilatation, which permits tricuspid regurgitation to take place. (See Physical Signs and Symptoms of Tricuspid Regurgitation, p. 313.)

Principal Complaint.—The symptoms are not constant in character, and, indeed, may often be misleading until dilatation of the right ventricle occurs, after which the symptoms are similar to those due to tricuspid regurgitation.

Physical Signs.—Palpation.—In certain cases a systolic thrill is felt over the base of the heart.

Percussion.—The area of cardiac dullness is markedly increased to the right and upward, and after the right ventricle has become dilated, dullness may extend well into the epigastrium.

Auscultation.—A harsh, clear, systolic mumur is audible at the second intercostal space, although it is usually heard distinctly at the third left interspace near the margin of the sternum (Fig. 63). The systolic murmur of pulmonary stenosis is transmitted upward along the sternal border and for a short distance to the left.

Differential Diagnosis.—It is always necessary to distinguish between the murmur of pulmonary stenosis and that of **aortic stenosis,** the latter being heard best at the aortic valve, and being always transmitted to the vessels of the neck, whereas the murmur of pulmonary stenosis, even though it be heard at the aortic cartilage, is not well transmitted to the aforesaid vessels. In pulmonary stenosis the second pulmonary sound is, as a rule, feeble, and there may be an associated diastolic murmur, which suggests pulmonary regurgitation. Generally, a diagnosis of pulmonary stenosis should not be made until the heart has been repeatedly examined and the patient's general condition carefully considered, since a systolic murmur heard at the base of the heart is common during the course of maladies in which secondary anemia is a prominent symptom.

COMBINED FORMS OF CARDIAC DISEASE

The accompanying statistics are taken from a table compiled by J. F. Smith, and furnish the only means of determining the possible frequency with which certain combinations of valvular defects are to be found:

Aortic stenosis and mitral regurgitation	16.55 per cent.
Aortic stenosis and mitral stenosis	6.12 per cent.
Aortic regurgitation and mitral regurgitation (common in children)	5.21 per cent.

Aortic regurgitation lesions with reference to their relative frequency are as follows:

Aortic regurgitation and aortic stenosis and mitral regurgitation occupy first place in the category of combined lesions.

Mitral stenosis and mitral regurgitation have, in our experience, appeared to be extremely common.

Aortic stenosis and mitral stenosis, the one predisposing to the development of the other, come third in the list.

Tricuspid incompetency may be secondary to mitral disease, and, in fact, frequently develops late during the course of other cardiac lesions, this being especially true after cardiac dilatation has developed.

Physical Signs.—A systematic analysis of the different murmurs, their area of greatest intensity and of distribution, will in many instances enable one to determine with a fair degree of certainty the nature of the lesion or lesions actually present. In quite a large percentage of all cases in which arrhythmia with decided irregularity in the force of the heart's action (myocarditis) is present, the evidence obtained by auscultation is confusing, rather than confirmatory.

COMPLICATIONS OF VALVULAR DISEASE

In discussing the various forms of endocarditis and valvular disease, the accidents and complications most likely to occur have been considered. It may be well, however, again to call special attention to the following:

(*a*) Acute endocarditis which frequently develops during the course of chronic cardiac lesions; (*b*) acute pericarditis, which is of much less common occurrence; (*c*) pleurisy the result of direct extension from the pericardium; (*d*) pulmonary complications, particularly pneumonia, pulmonary embolism, thrombosis, and atelectasis; (*e*) nephritis, which is often precipitated by prolonged cyanotic congestion of the kidneys; (*f*) emboli in various parts of the body; (*g*) epilepsy and insanity, conditions that develop in those cases in which there is associated extensive atheroma, involving particularly the cerebral arteries; (*h*) angina pectoris (see pp. 332, 333); and (*i*) erysipelatous processes, attacking most often the lower extremities after there has been extensive edema, with possible rupture of the skin.

CARDIAC THROMBOSIS

Pathologic Definition.—A condition characterized by the formation of thrombi within the chambers of the heart, particularly in the right auricle, and less often in the right ventricle, such thrombi being secondary to both disease of the endocardium and to degenerative processes in the blood. Cardiac thrombosis may be suspected during life, but is seldom if ever diagnosed by clinical methods.

DISEASES OF THE MYOCARDIUM

HYPERTROPHY OF THE HEART

Pathologic Definition.—Increased thickening of the muscular portion of the whole or a part of the cardiac wall.

Remarks.—Cardiac hypertrophy may exist without any appreciable degree of dilatation of the chambers being present,—the so-called "simple hypertrophy,"—but it is far more common to find cardiac hypertrophy associated with a variable degree of enlargement (dilatation) of the chambers—the so-called "eccentric hypertrophy." At autopsy the wall

of the heart may appear to be decidedly thickened, whereas the chambers are appreciably diminished in size—a condition that develops after death, and is of no value from a diagnostic standpoint.

Varieties.—(1) Left ventricular hypertrophy; (2) right ventricular hypertrophy; (3) auricular hypertrophy.

HYPERTROPHY OF THE LEFT VENTRICLE

Remarks.—A condition that results from mitral incompetency, aortic incompetency, and aortic stenosis, all of which conditions increase intraventricular pressure.

The work of the heart may be increased by any condition that offers obstruction to the circulation or interferes with the heart's action; consequently hypertrophy results from pericardial adhesions, general arteriosclerosis, such as is seen in gout, chronic rheumatism, lead-workers disease, chronic syphilis, chronic nephritis (interstitial), congenital deformities of the aorta and of the heart, aneurism, and obstruction to the circulation through the liver—*e. g.*, atrophic cirrhosis. Again, ventricular hypertrophy frequently develops during the course of exophthalmic goiter, and doubtless results from persistent tachycardia.

Habit figures prominently as a predisposing factor, since those addicted to the excessive use of tea, coffee, and alcoholic spirits are especially likely to develop this condition. Overeating exercises an appreciable influence. Severe muscular strain, continued over several hours, or repeated daily for prolonged periods, is practically always followed by left ventricular hypertrophy, as is shown by the hearts of athletes and stevedores.

Principal Complaint.—Cardiac hypertrophy may have existed for many years without causing any inconvenience, and in many instances rupture of compensation gives rise to the first discomfort referable to cardiac disease. In typical cases, however, peculiar precordial symptoms, such as a "*fullness*," are experienced. Rarely, the patient complains of a *mild precordial pain* and of cardiac palpitation, except when hypertrophy develops in a person of neurasthenic temperament, or in one addicted to the excessive use of narcotics and stimulants. When hypertrophy of the left ventricle is due to the latter cause, headache, throbbing of the temporal regions, periodic attacks of flushing of the face, vertigo, epistaxis, tinnitus, aurium, and flashes of light are generally present.

Among the accidents that may occur during the course of hypertrophy should be mentioned cerebral hemorrhage, a condition that develops only in those cases in which there is well-marked arteriosclerosis.

Physical Signs.—Inspection.—In children the precordium is unusually prominent, and in the adult, a mild grade of prominence is not uncommon. The area of cardiac impulse is extensive, and the impression is forcible. Cases have been seen in which the greater portion of the anterior surface of the left half of the chest displayed a heaving impulse with each systole. There may also be visible pulsation in the left supraclavicular space, and, rarely, the impulse is extended to the epigastric region.

Palpation.—A heaving impulse is felt in the region of the apex, and is always palpable unless dilatation has developed conjointly with hypertrophy, and exceeds the hypertrophy at the time of examination. The apex-beat is always felt below the fifth interspace and outside the midclavicular line. When the degree of hypertrophy is moderate, the apex impulse will be found in the sixth interspace, and one to two inches to the left of the midclavicular line.

During the time when the hypertrophy exceeds the dilatation the *pulse* is strong, large, regular, of increased tension and of about the normal frequency. When dilatation equals or exceeds hypertrophy, the pulse is markedly softened, compressible, especially when the hand is elevated above the body, irregular in force and volume, and more frequent than normal.

Percussion.—The area of cardiac dullnes is increased downward and to the left. If the patient is seen after dilatation has taken place, the area of dullness would then be greatly increased in the transverse diameter.

Auscultation.—In a case of simple cardiac hypertrophy (hypertrophy without a valvular lesion) no murmurs are audible over the heart, but the first sound is unusually dull, appreciably prolonged, and is frequently referred to as booming in quality. The sound due to closure of the aortic valves is well accentuated, and has a clear, ringing quality. Reduplication of the second sound is often present. Late during the course of hypertrophy the quality of the heart's sound often changes and becomes somewhat clicking. After well-marked dilatation has taken place, the first sound of the heart is greatly shortened, and its original characteristics are lost—indeed, the two sounds of the organ become more and more alike. (See also Electrocardiogram, p. 228.)

HYPERTROPHY OF THE RIGHT VENTRICLE

Remarks.—A condition often induced by mitral incompetency, chronic interstitial nephritis, pneumonia, emphysema, extensive pleural adhesions, and practically all pathologic conditions that increase circulatory resistance through the lung. Organic congenital heart disease—*e.g.*, pulmonary stenosis—is also followed by right ventricular hypertrophy. Organic disease of the left side of the heart eventually increases the blood tension in the lung, and thereby encourages hypertrophy of the right ventricle.

Symptoms and Signs.—There are no symptoms during the stage of compensation, except possibly a moderate grade of *dyspnea*, which follows extreme muscular exercise and is usually accompanied by precordial discomfort and cough, the latter being more pronounced when ventricular hypertrophy is induced by emphysema or chronic interstitial changes in the lungs.

After dilatation of the right ventricle has occurred, tricuspid regurgitation develops, and is followed by *cough*, with the signs and symptoms of *pulmonary edema*, *hemoptysis*, *dyspnea*, *cyanosis*, and other symptoms referable to venous stasis. (See Tricuspid Regurgitation, p. 313.)

Physical Signs.—Inspection.—In a small percentage of all cases there is an appreciable bulging of the lower portion of the sternum at the sixth or seventh left costal cartilages. A diffuse impulse is seen over the lower portion of the sternum, and extends well over the epigastrium; there may also be pulsation as high as the third or fourth interspace, and along the right border of the sternum, the latter sign depending upon the degree of ventricular dilatation present. The apex-beat is seen to the left of the nipple-line, but is seldom displaced downward. The cardiac impulse in the region of the apex is forcible and may be somewhat diffuse.

Palpation.—Pulsation is detected over the same areas previously mentioned under Inspection. Prior to the development of dilatation the force of the apex-beat is greater than normal, but after dilatation has occurred it is weak, quite diffuse, and may be almost imperceptible. (See Cardiac Signs of Emphysema, p. 133.) During the time compensation

is maintained the volume of the *pulse* is not above normal, and in many instances it is small. After dilatation has taken place arrhythmia becomes a prominent feature, and, as a consequence, the pulse is irregular in volume, force, and frequency. (See Arryhthmia, pp. 233, 234.)

AURICULAR HYPERTROPHY

Remarks.—A condition that develops conjointly with dilatation. The left auricle is so affected in mitral regurgitation and in mitral stenosis. Right auricular hypertrophy is a feature of all pathologic conditions in which there is increased blood-pressure in the lungs. It also develops secondarily to incompetency or stenosis of either the tricuspid or the pulmonary orifice.

Physical Signs.—These are indefinite until dilatation occurs. Hypertrophy or dilatation of one or the other ventricle soon follows or develops prior to, or simultaneously with, auricular hypertrophy.

Inspection.—A presystolic impulse is seen in the second interspace. A presystolic wave of pulsation is seen over the base of the heart, and is particularly well marked along the sternal borders, at the third and fourth interspace. Jugular venous pulsation, systolic in time, may form one of the most conspicuous signs. (See Tricuspid Regurgitation, p. 313.)

Percussion.—Cardiac dullness may extend to the left of the sternum in the second or third interspace when the left auricle is hypertrophied.

Right auricular hypertrophy and *dilatation* coexist and cause extension of the area of cardiac dullness to the right of the sternum and in the third and fourth interspaces.

Differential Diagnosis.—Cardiac hypertrophy is to be distinguished from **thoracic aneurism,** although it is to be borne in mind that these two conditions are frequently present in the same individual, hypertrophy resulting from the conditions that permitted of an aneurismal expansion of the artery (arteriosclerosis). On examining the radial pulses, one pulse may be found of low tension—a sign that is absent in simple cardiac hypertrophy, the pulse here being full, bounding, and strong, the radial pulses being equal as to time and volume, with an increase in arterial tension. Pulsation of the precordium due to hypertrophy is limited to that portion lying between the apex of the heart and the third and fourth costal cartilage at their articulation with the sternum, pulsation being found to the right of the sternum after cardiac dilatation ensues, whereas the pulsation due to aneurism is more expansile and less heaving in character, and seldom, if ever, extends outside the left midclavicular line, where the pulsation of hypertrophy is seen.

Cardiac hypertrophy may be confused with **cardiac dilatation,** and differentiation is especially difficult in those suffering from emphysema, owing to the fact that the area of cardiac dullness is not increased, because the heart is covered by emphysematous lung. The distinctive feature, however, that marks cardiac dilatation is a weak, rapid, irregular pulse that is readily compressible. In **dilatation** *dyspnea*, *cough*, and *cyanosis* of the face, mucous surfaces, and extremities are present. The muscular element of the first sound of the heart is absent in dilatation, whereas in hypertrophy it is normal or exaggerated.

TUMORS OF THE HEART

Both primary and secondary new growths of the heart are unusual, although there are numerous autopsy records, wherein such tumors

have been described at length. Reviews of the literature by Goldstein* include a bibliographic record of over 200 references.

The diagnosis is based chiefly upon the presence of a tumor mass within the chest, the clinical history, together with a history of a malignant growth elsewhere, and the evidence revealed by a roentgenographic study.

MYOCARDITIS

Acute Myocarditis

Pathologic Varieties.—(*a*) Acute parenchymatous myocarditis, which is characterized by granular degeneration of the muscle-fibers of the heart, with numeric increase in their nuclei; later fatty degeneration may occur as the terminal stage of this condition.

(*b*) Acute diffuse interstitial myocarditis, in which the interstitial tissue of the myocardium is chiefly attacked, a variable degree of round-cell infiltration being present.

(*c*) Acute circumscribed myocarditis, characterized by degenerative processes that progress to form isolated areas of necrosis terminating in abscess formation.

Predisposing and Exciting Factors.—**Sex.**—Males are more often attacked than females.

Endocarditis and **pericarditis,** irrespective of the conditions that may have induced them, serve as potent factors in the production of pathologic changes of the myocardium. Simple **rheumatic myocarditis** is said by some writers to exist without the presence of either pericardial or endocardial disease. Myocardial degeneration may develop during the course of the acute specific fevers—*e. g.*, typhoid fever, diphtheria, etc. Septic processes in any portion of the body may furnish infectious emboli that plug the minute branches of the coronary arteries, and thereby produce acute circumscribed myocarditis, this pathologic change being most commonly seen in septicemia, pyemia, ulcerative endocarditis, and puerperal sepsis. The vital capacity of the lung is lessened (p. 182).

Principal Complaint and Symptoms.—These are, as a rule, negative with reference to disease of the myocardium, although symptoms referable to enfeeblement of the heart may be described, as evidenced by attacks of *cardiac palpitation*, *syncope*, and *dyspnea* following slight exertion. Repeated attacks of vomiting with a tendency toward faintness should always arouse suspicion as to the existence of myocarditis.

Pain is by no means uncommon, and may involve the left submammary, and scapular regions. Pain of this nature may be mild, dull, and at times severe. It may exist for years without causing any serious annoyance to the patient. Pain is not uncommonly accompanied by palpitation, dyspnea, vertigo, etc. These regions where pain is most commonly present during chronic organic heart disease are supplied by the sixth thoracic spinal segment, and at times the sixth in combination with the fifth segment. Hyperalgesia is rarely noted well below the diaphragm.

Physical Signs.—**Inspection.**—Pallor is likely to be present, and upon slight exertion becomes extreme. Late in the disease the evidences of venous stasis are present—*e. g.*, cyanosis of the lips, finger-tips, nails, and extremities. There may be multiple abscesses of the skin in septic cases, and venous pulsation of the carotid region is a late sign.

Palpation.—The action of the heart is always feeble, and frequently it is rapid and decidedly irregular. (See Extrasystole, p. 239.)

* N. Y. Med. Jour., February, 1922; and Medical Times, October, 1922.

The *pulse* is weak, diminished in volume, readily compressible, and in well-marked cases the radial pulse may be imperceptible when the hands are elevated high above the head. Irregularity as to time, force, and volume constitutes the characteristic feature of this disease.

Percussion.—Percussion is likely to reveal the evidences present in cardiac dilatation. (See p. 329.)

Auscultation.—During the course of acute myocarditis it is possible to obtain murmurs both over the body of the heart and at the various areas to which they are transmitted, but the character of the murmur or murmurs present is in no way diagnostic of myocardial change. The sounds of the heart show great irregularity as to both time and volume. The peculiar normal muscular element of the first sound of the heart is lost, and the first and second sounds approximate each other more closely than in health.

The extent of myocardial change is more accurately determined by employing the electrocardiogram (p. 227). Abnormal venous pulse waves are commonly present late during the disease, and are detected through the use of the phlebogram. (See Sphygmograph p. 222.)

Chronic Myocarditis

Pathologic Definition.—A condition characterized by either diffuse or localized areas of pathologic change (degeneration) in the cardiac muscle, affecting most often the wall of the left ventricle, the septum, and also the papillary muscles, although any portion of the heart muscle may be involved.

Exciting and Predisposing Factors.—**Age** and **sex** serve as prominent predisposing factors, chronic myocarditis being far more common after middle life and affecting males more often than females.

The **excessive use of stimulants,** such as alcohol and tobacco, serves as a marked predisposing factor. Those suffering from such diseases as **diabetes, nephritis, rheumatism, syphilis,** and **malaria** are also especially likely to develop this disease. Certain **toxic substances,** such as lead (lead-worker's disease—may induce myocarditis. The myocardial tissue may become involved by direct extension from the endocardium and from the pericardium.

Symptomatology.—Cases have frequently been seen at autopsy in which extensive myocardial changes were found, and yet these cases exhibited no symptoms referable to the condition during the course of the disease. "The symptoms, when present, are, almost without exception, untrustworthy for diagnostic purposes, since they bear a striking resemblance to those of the organic valvular diseases, minus their more characteristic physical signs. Among the earliest phenomena that point merely to failing heart power are *dyspnea*, and sometimes, also, on exertion, *palpitation* and a sense of *heaviness* or *constriction* in the precordium. The patient suffers from marked *general debility*, and becomes fatigued in consequence of the slightest physical exertion" (Anders).

When chronic myocarditis develops in the aged, one of the earliest symptoms is *extreme irritability;* as the disease advances mental enfeeblement is a frequent accompaniment, and chronic mania may develop. *Asthmatic attacks* are common, and extreme intestinal irritability, nausea, vomiting, and anorexia are generally present.

Cases of cardiac disease where myocarditis is present often display many of the signs and symptoms present in hypofunction of the suprarenal glands.

Pain in the region of the precordium is frequently experienced, and true angina pectoris may develop. (See p. 333.) *Palpitation* may be an

annoying symptom, developing early and becoming more and more marked with the progress of the disease, until, finally, an attack follows the slightest exertion. *Vertigo, marked oppression,* and even *attacks* of *syncope* are often experienced, and the patient generally suffers more after the ingestion of a full meal than when the diet is carefully regulated. *Pseudo-apoplectic seizures* are common, and there may be *localized paralysis,* which disappears within the course of a few days or weeks, when other groups of muscles are likely to be attacked. Extensive cerebral hemorrhage is a disaster to be feared during the entire course of chronic myocarditis, and when it occurs, the signs and symptoms of apoplexy will be apparent.

Acute psychoses may arise during the course of either valvular or myocardial disease—*e. g.*, hallucinations of sight, sound, smell, and states of mild depression or exaltation. Delusional states are also experienced and ordinarily assume a persecutory form. Mania and mental confusion are not confined to myocarditis, and may be seen in connection with any type of heart disease.*

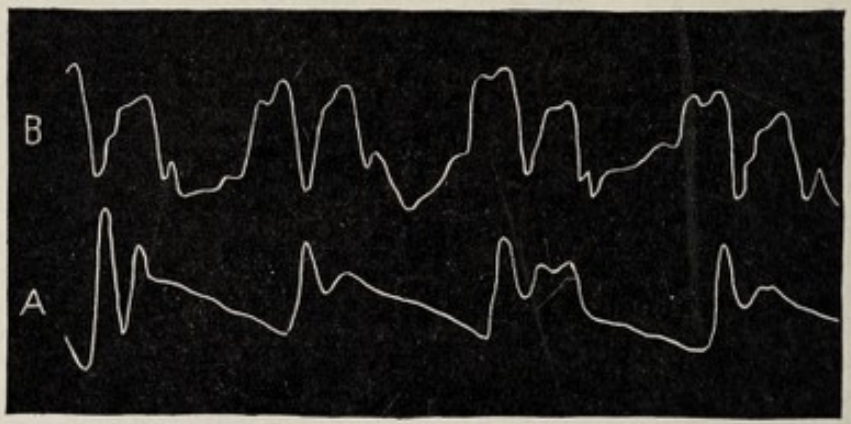


FIG. 136.—ILLUSTRATIVE OF RELATION EXISTING BETWEEN RADIAL PULSE (A) AND APEX BEAT (B), AS SHOWN BY SIMULTANEOUS TRACING.
Radial pulse, 48 per minute.

Physical Signs.—Inspection.—Inspection is negative until late during the course of the disease, when, owing to cardiac dilatation, pulsation in the epigastrium and in the carotid region, and probably also in the large area of the precordium, may be evident. The cardiac pulsations are often greatly diminished in frequency, only 50, and possibly not more than 30, occurring in a minute. General cyanosis may develop, and swelling of the extremities due to edema is common.

Palpation.—The impulse of the apex-beat is feeble, though often quite diffuse, and the action of the heart is decidedly irregular. (See Sinus Irregularity, p. 234; also Extrasystole, p. 239.) In typical cases the pulse is slow—30 to 60 beats a minute—whereas during the early stage of the myocardial changes the pulse may be of normal frequency (Fig. 136). When fatty degeneration of the cardiac muscle is well marked, the number of pulse-beats may be normal or even in excess of the normal. A characteristic of the pulse is that it is always irregular as to both frequency and volume. By elevating the hands slightly and making moderate pressure the pulse is obliterated. The pulse-wave is noticed to be lacking in force when it meets the palpating finger. The radial arteries are atheromatous.

*Riesman, Am. Jour. Med. Sci., Feb., 1921.

Following cardiac dilatation the liver becomes enormously enlarged, and its lower border is felt well below the costal margin. In selected cases the spleen may be palpable.

Percussion.—Percussion elicits a moderate extension of dullness to the left. After cardiac dilatation develops, the area of cardiac dullness is increased to the right, and may extend for some distance beyond the right border of the sternum. The area of both liver and splenic dullness may also be increased. If a transudation of serum into the pleural sacs and into the peritoneum occurs, the physical signs are those of hydrothorax (see p. 148) and of ascites.

Auscultation.—During the early stage of chronic myocarditis the heart-sounds are fairly strong, and, comparatively speaking, clear, a condition that obtains as the result of hypertrophy of the remaining healthy cardiac muscle. Later during the disease, in those patients in whom the heart can be auscultated from time to time, an appreciable weakness in the heart-sounds will be found to progress with the disease, until finally the sounds are those of cardiac dilatation. (See p. 329.) After dilatation takes place cardiac murmurs may be present, and of these, a systolic murmur at the apex is most common; before the chambers of the heart are well dilated. Murmurs, however, are unusual. Owing to the high grade of arrhythmia that obtains late during the course of chronic myocarditis, extreme irregularity as to force, loudness, and rhythm of the heart occurs, and we have the condition known to American writers as "the gallop rhythm," or the so-called "canter murmur."



FIG. 137.—SPIROMETER USED IN TAKING RECORDS OF THE VITAL CAPACITY OF THE LUNGS (SEE ALSO FIGS. 138, 139, 140).

Laboratory Diagnosis.—An associated *bronchitis* is somewhat common, and in consequence of this the expectoration may be free and occasionally stained with blood. In those suffering from chronic myocardial changes it is quite common to find an associated chronic nephritis, and in such cases the *urinary findings* are those of the type of nephritis in question. Irrespective of the existence of a true nephritis, late during the course of myocarditis the urine is likely to be scanty, of deep color, and of high specific gravity, and a feeble reaction for albumin is a fairly common finding. A positive Wassermann reaction may be obtained during the entire course of myocarditis. Should this reaction be negative with reference to the blood it is advisable to make a similar study of the spinal fluid in those cases where myocarditis has followed valvular lesions.

The vital capacity of the lung in cardiac cases displaying cyanosis and dyspnea. will be found to vary between 50 and 90 per cent. of the normal.

A study of patients suffering with cardiac affections has shown that a decrease in the vital capacity of the lungs is a potent factor in the production of dyspnea in heart disease. The degree to which the vital capacity registers below the normal standards is in direct relation with the degree of dyspnea. Since the tendency to dyspnea depends largely upon the functional capacity of the heart, the determination of the vital capacity of the lungs serves as an indirect measure of the cardiac condition. The studies of Peabody, Wentworth and McClure at the Peter Bent Brigham Hospital, Boston, have shown that the clinical condition of cardiac patients correspond closely with the changes in the vital capacity

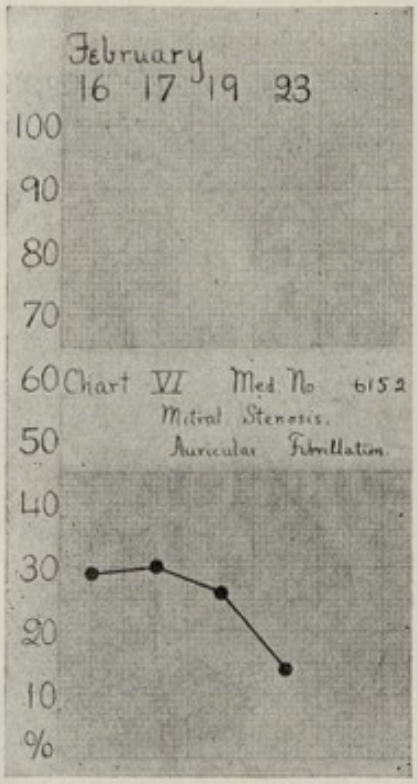


FIG. 138.—MITRAL STENOSIS WITH AURICULAR FIBRILLATION.

Note fall in vital capacity of the lung to 25, which record corresponded with an equal increase in the severity of the cardiac condition (McClure and Peabody).

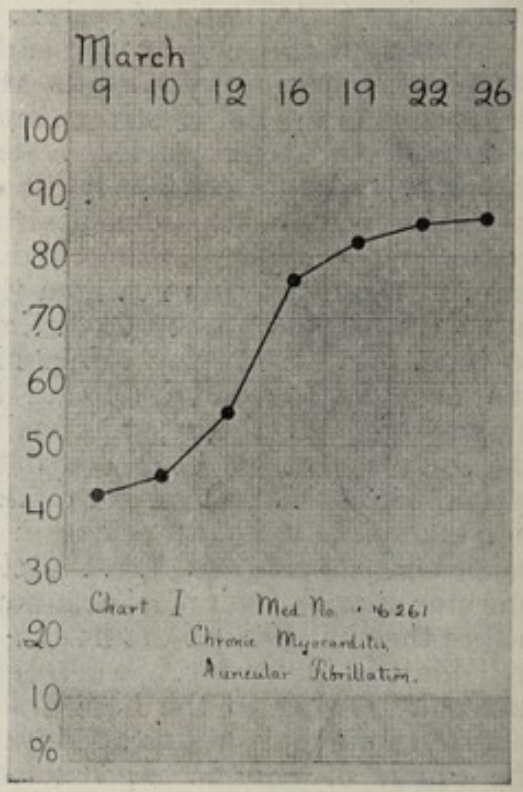


FIG. 139.—MYOCARDITIS WITH AURICULAR FIBRILLATION.

Note gradual increase of vital capacity of the lung from 40 to 85 (McClure and Peabody).

of the lungs. An improvement in the functional state of the heart is associated with a rise in the vital capacity, as is illustrated by the accompanying charts.

Clinical Course.—Chronic myocarditis always progresses from bad to worse, and will be found to vary greatly as to the time of its duration. The conditions that largely govern the duration of this disease are associated renal or hepatic affections. Those cases due to luetic infection may, after the institution of appropriate treatment, terminate in recovery, but practically all cases in which the etiologic factors are uncertain show but moderate, if any, improvement as the result of treatment, but continue to grow progressively worse.

FATTY HEART

Pathologic Definition.—This term is applied to three distinct pathologic changes affecting the heart: (*a*) *Fatty degeneration*, a condition

characterized by fatty changes in the cardiac muscle-fibers; (*b*) *fatty overgrowth*, which is characterized by an abnormal quantity of fat deposited immediately about the heart; and (*c*) *fatty infiltration*, a condition in which fat-cells are deposited in the cardiac tissue and encroach upon the muscle-fiber.*

General Remarks.—Fatty overgrowth is detected in those suffering from obesity, in whom, also, the signs and symptoms of well-marked cardiac involvement are present. (See Chronic Myocarditis, p. 320.) In fatty degeneration both the symptoms and the signs are practically the same as those observed in chronic myocarditis, and it is only with extreme difficulty that this condition is distinguished from myocarditis.

Diagnosis.—In the majority of instances a positive diagnosis of fatty degeneration of the heart is not made antemortem, and the physical signs may be obscure.

DILATATION OF THE HEART

General Remarks.—In cardiac dilatation the essential feature is enlargement of the chambers of the heart, although the thickness of the wall of each individual chamber may be greatly diminished. When both cardiac hypertrophy and dilatation develop simultaneously, the wall of the ventricle may be greatly thickened, and yet the cavity contain a larger volume of blood than under normal conditions; this constitutes the so-called "hypertrophy with dilatation."

Pathologic Varieties.—Dilatation with Thinning of the Wall of the Heart.—The wall of the heart is not greatly thinned, but the chamber surrounded by such wall is markedly increased in capacity. This variety of dilatation is commonly encountered in the late stages of acute infectious fevers. If the size of the cavities of the heart becomes greatly augmented, the thinning process goes on until the cardiac wall may be only one-half the thickness normally seen.

Dilatation with but Slight Alteration in the Cardiac Wall.—Certain writers recognize this as a special type of cardiac dilatation. It occurs when the heart-wall is of normal thickness, but, owing to increased tension, a moderate amount of thinning follows.

Dilatation with Hypertrophy.—This occurs when there has been a progressive increase in the thickness of the heart muscle and in the capacity of the chambers, the two conditions developing simultaneously. After hypertrophy has reached a certain limit, the muscle fails to receive the proper nutriment demanded for further hypertrophy and a degenerative process begins. In the so-called eccentric hypertrophy, the cardiac cavities contain a much larger volume of blood than under normal conditions, but embarrassment of the circulation is prevented by the increased action of the heart afforded by the associated cardiac hypertrophy. There is a difference between the type of dilatation previously described and the so-called dilatation with hypertrophy, yet the former condition usually merges into the latter, the size of the cavity now being out of proportion to the thickness of the heart's wall.

Spinal deformity is to be seen in connection with chronic cardiac disease of the young where the heart is large.

Varieties.—These are divided according to their etiology. There are two essential factors that figure in the production of cardiac dilatation: (*a*) Increased endocardial (pressure) tension; and (*b*) diminished resistance on the part of the cardiac wall. For convenience of study it is essen-

* See "A Contribution to the Study of Fatty Infiltration of the Heart Secondary to Subpericardial Overfatness," by J. M. Anders. Amer. Jour. Med. Sci., April, 1901.

tial that we divide cardiac dilatation into two clinical forms,—primary and secondary,—and of these, the latter is the more important.

Primary dilatation may be expected to follow a recent obstruction to the circulation of sufficient magnitude to overpower the cardiac muscle, or at least to demand a rapid compensatory hypertrophy of such muscle. Acute transitory spasm of the blood-vessels is regarded by Jacob as another factor in the production of this type of dilatation. An increase in the endocardial pressure also figures prominently as a cause, and is best exemplified by the dilatation following the hypertrophy induced by lesions of the endocardium.

Secondary dilatation implies a condition in which cardiac dilatation develops as the result of some preëxisting pathologic condition, *e. g.*, organic heart, liver, lung, and kidney disease. Disorders of the endocrines is a common contributing factor.

Acute Primary Dilatation

Remarks.—This clinical phase of cardiac dilatation is, as a rule, brought about suddenly as the result of violent exertion, which may be coupled with sudden changes in altitude, as, for example, in mountain-climbing. Sudden emotion may produce primary dilatation as the result of contraction of the peripheral vessels, when, for the time, there appears to be a momentary arrest of the heart's action, soon to be followed by palpitation. In acute primary dilatation *cardiac palpitation* is a prominent symptom, and, indeed, the pulsation may often be extended well into the epigastrium, a sign that indicates that dilatation of the right ventricle is present.

This type is usually followed by prompt recovery, especially if the causal factors are removed and sufficient rest follows the initial attack.

Diminished Resistance Offered by the Heart-wall.—Both acute primary and chronic dilatation of the heart are likely to follow any condition that materially weakens the cardiac wall, and these are, indeed, numerous. Chronic myocarditis is a usual forerunner of the so-called chronic dilatation. Acute myocarditis may develop during the course of any of the acute fevers, and is especially common in typhoid fever, typhus fever, malaria, scarlatina, smallpox, pneumonia, rheumatic endocarditis, and pericarditis. In the last-named group of cases acute primary dilatation is believed to be dependent upon the toxic action of certain substances upon the heart muscle. In cardiac degeneration with either fatty or fibroid changes, the heart muscle is greatly impaired, and, as a result, dilatation is to be expected. Chronic gastritis and maladies in which malnutrition is present are potent etiologic factors in the production of chronic dilatation. The anemias, both essential and simple, exhibit cardiac dilatation as one of their clinical features, and, indeed, the area of cardiac dullness is frequently appreciably increased in subjects when the degree of anemia is not alarming.

Symptomatology.—If cardiac dilatation develops gradually, the symptoms are identical with those described for cardiac failure with loss of compensation. (See Aortic Regurgitation, p. 291.) In acute decompensation the pulmonary vital capacity is below 40 per cent., and dyspnea is extreme, even though the patient be resting in bed. (Fig. 140.)

In acute dilatation the symptoms develop somewhat suddenly, and consist of dyspnea, palpitation, precordial oppression, and pain, and the patient may exhibit great anxiety and fear.

Physical Signs.—Inspection.—Sooner or later during the course of either chronic or acute dilatation a variable degree of cyanosis of the lips,

ears, and extremities will be found to develop. Edema of the lower extremities often follows, especially in the chronic forms.

The pulsation in the region of the apex of the heart may be feeble or even absent, but if the patient is examined during an attack of palpitation, the precordial area, as well as the epigastrium, may pulsate violently. A characteristic feature of the impulse in dilatation is that it is extensive, although often indistinct.

Palpation confirms inspection with reference to cardiac pulsation, and shows the respiratory movements of the chest to be increased in frequency.

Percussion.—The area of cardiac dullness is appreciably increased, this increase being in direct relation to the degree of dilatation. In well-marked cases the heart may be found to extend from one to two inches to

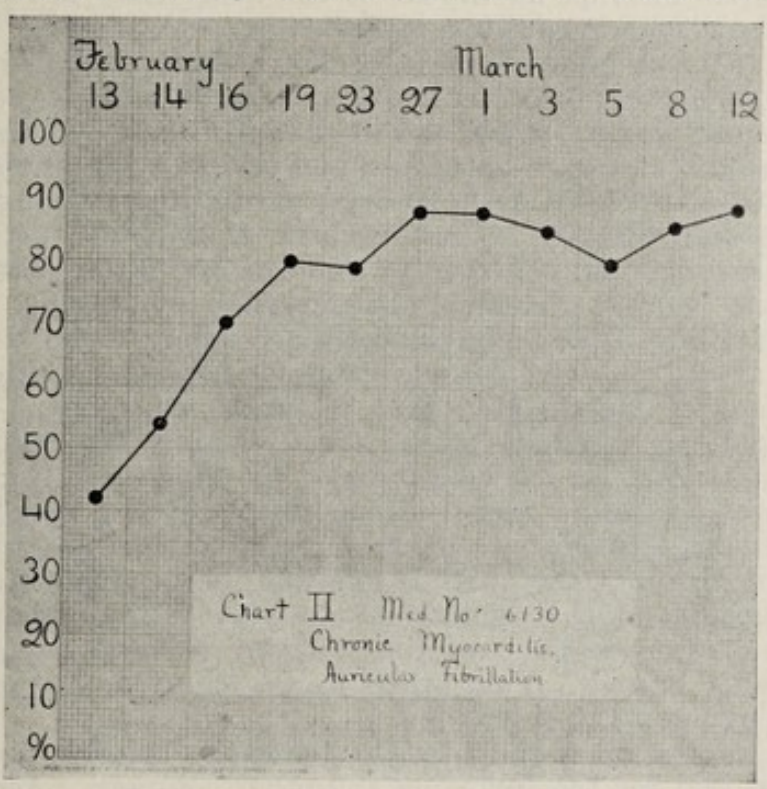


FIG. 140.—CHRONIC MYOCARDITIS SHOWING LOW VITAL PULMONARY CAPACITY, WHICH ROSE GRADUALLY AS THE RESULT OF TREATMENT TO 80, AND REMAINED ABOVE THIS POINT FOR 6 DAYS (McClure and Peabody).

the right of the right border of the sternum and to the left axillary space. Cardiac dullness is increased more markedly in the transverse than in the vertical diameter, and patients have frequently been seen in whom the transverse area of the heart varied between eight and twelve inches.

Cyanotic congestion with enlargement of the liver is likely to follow cardiac dilatation, and in such cases the area of hepatic dullness is increased, and the signs of fluid in both the pleural and peritoneal cavities may be present. (See Ascites, p. 627; Pleurisy, p. 148.)

Auscultation.—The frequency of the heart-beats is usually increased, although there are instances in which, irrespective of the degree of dilatation present, the pulsations of the heart may not exceed 60 a minute. The first sound of the heart is devoid of its booming muscular element, and appears to approximate more nearly that of the normal second cardiac sound. In auscultating before dilatation has become well marked and before a high grade of thinning of the cardiac wall has occurred, murmurs may be audible, but after the wall has become greatly weakened and thinned, distinct murmurs are rarely audible.

Ordinarily, the rhythm of the heart is markedly disturbed, and so pronounced is this feature that in many instances it is impossible to time a murmur, even though it is present. Owing to an associated venous congestion of the pulmonary tissues, numerous moist and bubbling râles are heard over the bases of the lungs, and if hypostatic congestion develops, breath-sounds may be more or less bronchial over these areas.

THROMBOSIS OF CORONARY ARTERIES

A sudden blocking of a branch of one of the two main arteries or of one of the arteries themselves. Males seem to be attacked almost exclusively.

(1) Whenever a coronary artery or a large branch is occluded, the part of the heart supplied by it is infarcted. Rupture may occur, or through fibrous healing, aneurysm of the heart may develop and the remaining heart muscle continue its function.

(2) The clinical groups are (*a*) sudden onset probably with pain and death; (*b*) sudden onset without evidence of pain; (*c*) sudden onset with pronounced angina, shock and death within a few hours.

(3) Non-fatal cases are both mild and severe. (*a*) The former type experiences stitch like pains in the præcordia due to plugging of the finer vessels and sclerosis. There may be innumerable attacks, which increase in severity and continue for months and often years. (*b*) The latter clinical variety displays rather severe symptoms which may terminate fatally. They vary clinically according to the size and location of the artery involved, former attempt at collateral circulation and by the extent of muscle area that is functionally lost. Paroxysmal substernal pain may radiate to the arms. Rarely the condition exists without pain. Pain may not be induced by effort. In some instances pain is severe and lasting, resists all medication except morphine. Continuous pain is termed "status anginosis," a condition terminating fatally. Dilatation of the heart is followed by an amelioration of pain and the development of dyspnœa. Pain when in the region of the epigastrium and lower segment of the sternum, suggests plugging of the left descending branch. Pain when in the chest and over the heart suggests plugging of the circumflex.

(4) The profession is indebted to James B. Herrick for the above classification and for the following symptom complex. Accompanying the onset are shock, rapid fall in the blood pressure to 100 mm. and there soon develops cardiac dilatation. The heart sounds become faint, the impulse weak, the pulse rapid, feeble and irregular. Extrasystoles, auricular fibrillation, tachycardia and heart block may ensuse (Herrick's Syndrome). Most of the foregoing features are absent in true angina pectoris. Fine moist râles develop over the bases of the lungs. The electrocardiogram shows inversion of the T wave.

CARDIAC ANEURISM

Pathologic Definition.—A condition characterized by aneurismal involvement either of the wall of the heart or of the cardiac valves. Instances have been recorded in which aneurism of the wall of the heart has attained a size almost equal to that of the organ itself.

Predisposing Factors.—Pericarditis, ulcerative endocarditis, myocarditis, and cardiac gummata favor the development of aneurism.

Symptoms.—These are in no way characteristic of aneurism of the heart, and if any symptoms accompany this condition, they are similar to those of myocarditis.

Physical Signs.—These, too, are in no way distinctive of the disease in question, consequently aneurism of the heart is rarely diagnosed

antemortem. Fluoroscopic studies and röntgenograms may contribute in the diagnosis.

CARDIAC RUPTURE

Pathologic Definition.—A rare accident that develops in the wake of fatty, fibroid or gummatous degeneration of the myocardium. It has also been reported as occurring secondary to cardiac embolism with softening of the heart muscle, as well as following cardiac abscess. In the majority of recorded instances rupture of the heart has followed undue exertion.

The **symptoms** are sudden intense pain in the precordium, precordial oppression, and the usual symptoms that accompany rupture of a viscus and internal hemorrhage, including shock.

Physical Signs.—The pericardium soon becomes filled with blood, when the signs of pericardial effusion (see Serofibrinous Pericarditis, p. 258) are in evidence. Soon after this accident has occurred the pulse is weak, rapid, thready, irregular, and compressible, and, as a rule, becomes imperceptible within a few hours.

Clinical Course.—The majority of cases terminate fatally within from a few minutes to several hours. Rarely, the patient displays grave symptoms for an indefinite period.

ANGINA PECTORIS

(STENOCARDIA; BREAST-PANG)

Definition.—Angina pectoris is a disease characterized clinically by paroxysmal attacks of severe pain in the precordium, which radiates to the left arm, shoulder, neck, and back, and which is accompanied by a sense of impending death. Angina pectoris is in reality a symptom complex, and may or may not depend upon diseases of the heart, as has been claimed by Brooks, and others. It is possible for symptoms practically identical with that of angina pectoris to accompany extra cardial conditions. Allbutt contends that 90 per cent. of cases originate in disease of the thoracic aorta. (See Coronary Arteries, p. 332.)

Predisposing and Exciting Factors.—Angina usually attacks those suffering from **arteriosclerosis, cardiac hypertrophy, aortic regurgitation, adherent pericarditis, myocarditis, luetic infection and aortitis,** pp. 183, 258. Extensive atheroma of the aorta and of the coronary arteries is the usual finding at autopsy, and is generally conceded to be a prominent factor in the production of angina. Willius reports an electrocardiographic study of 155 cases, 19 of which had aortic lesions; seven aortitis; four aortic regurgitation, and five presented aortitis and regurgitation, while two displayed aortic stenosis. Seven of the cases had syphilis without aortic disease. Two were found to have mitral stenosis, and in the remaining 134 patients the pathology was not determined. Incidently no pathognomonic electrocardiographic findings were noted.

Sex is a prominent predisposing factor, males being more often attacked than females. **Age** is not without influence, nearly all cases being seen in those beyond the fortieth year. There are several recorded instances where angina pectoris has attacked individuals from 7 to 15 years of age—three such cases having occurred in our private practices.

Angina may also develop as a sequel of certain of the **infectious fevers,** such as influenza, etc. The prolonged and extensive use of **stimulants,** particularly tobacco, appears to exercise some influence, as do also the habits and customs of the patient, angina frequently developing in those who are subject to undue **mental strain** and to **physical overexertion.**

Varieties.—True Angina.—*The Paroxysm.—Pain* develops abruptly, often following either excitement or exertion, although in certain cases

anginoid attacks appear without cause. The pain is excruciating in character, and is usually described as a vise-like, gripping pain, involving more or less completely the entire chest, radiating to the left shoulder, and rendering the body motionless. At times the pain radiates to the fingers. A sense of *numbness* of the hands, fingers, and precordial region is often present. During the entire attack the patient suffers a fear of impending death.

Angina vasomotoria is a type of this condition in which there are extreme pallor of the face and coldness and stiffness of the limbs, owing to spasm of the peripheral vessels; cyanosis of a portion of the head, chest, and body may accompany the attack. This is a precursor of an attack of true angina.

Angina without Intense Pain.—The so-called "angina dolore" is an occasional occurrence, and in this type of the affection the chief feature is a sensation of precordial oppression. (See Herrick's Syndrome, p. 332.)

Pseudo-angina pectoris is a condition in which paroxysmal pain in the region of the precordium develops in anemic and neurasthenic individuals. Angina abdominas is placarded by severe pain in the upper abdomen, epigastrium, umbilical, and lower thoracic regions. In such cases there is only a sense of fullness or discomfort in the precordium.

Physical Signs.—Inspection.—The attitude of the patient is distinctly characteristic. If standing or sitting, he inclines slightly forward, holds his chest as though it were fixed in a vise, and fears to move even after the pain has subsided. The face may be extremely pale or of a dusky, hue, whereas the skin of the face and extremities is covered with beads of perspiration. The respiratory movements of the chest may be suspended for a short time, and as the attack subsides the respirations become shallow.

Palpation, in addition to confirming inspection with reference to the movements of the chest, elicits the fact that the skin is cold and clammy. The impulse of the heart's action is often regular and of fairly good force. The pulse is likely to be of high tension. After an attack of angina, physical examination may be negative.

Duration of the Attack.—This varies from a few seconds to two minutes, and there are exceptional cases in which the attack has persisted for hours. An attack of angina abates suddenly, and is often followed by vomiting, eructations of gas, and the voiding of an unusual quantity of urine.

Periodicity.—Angina may recur at intervals varying from a few days to several years. In cases of angina vasomotoria and those of angina without severe pain the attacks are rather frequent, following exertion. These forms of angina may antedate true angina by several years.

Summary of Diagnosis.—The age of the patient, together with a history of arteriosclerosis or of cardiac disease, with possible myocardial change, should always be taken into consideration. The sudden development of intense cardiac pain which radiates to the left shoulder, and in severe cases over the entire chest and to the arms, is of great diagnostic importance. In the majority of cases the physician is not present during the attack, hence the patient's description of a fear of impending death should not be overlooked. The duration of the attack is a prominent factor, since the majority of other conditions causing precordial pain are of longer duration than is angina. Attacks of precordial distress (mild pain) upon exertion are, as a rule, precursors of true angina. Vasomotor angina and angina without pain are early features of true angina and are of great diagnostic moment. Inability to walk toward a strong wind is suggestive of some form of angina.

Differential Diagnosis.—The distinctive features between angina pectoris and pseudo-angina pectoris are shown in the accompanying table, as modified from Anders:

Angina Pectoris	Pseudo-angina Pectoris
1. Etiology indeterminate, though generally associated with arteriosclerosis (including coronary disease) or aortic regurgitation.	1. The causes are hysteria, neurasthenia, toxic agents, and reflex irritations.
2. Occurs after the fortieth year, usually in males.	2. Occurs after puberty, and usually in hysteric women.
3. Paroxysms precipitated by undue exertion or mental emotion; they are rarely periodic.	3. Paroxysms arise spontaneously, are periodic, and often nocturnal.
4. Pain intensely severe and constricting, its chief center being to the back of the midsternum and toward the left.	4. Less intense pain, more diffuse over the thoracic region.
5. Duration of attack from a few seconds to one or two minutes.	5. From one-half to several hours.
6. Patient silent and body fixed.	6. Restlessness (patient tossing from side to side).
7. Arterial tension increased, as a rule.	7. Unusual.
8. Expression indicates fear.	8. Absent.

Locomotor Ataxia.—The girdle pain and gastric crises of this disease may, in certain respects, resemble angina pectoris. The following clinical features will be of value in the separation of these two conditions: In locomotor ataxia we find the Argyll-Robertson pupil, imperfect coördination, and absence of the patellar reflexes, all of which conditions are absent in angina pectoris. In the crises of ataxia the patient vomits during the pain, whereas in angina pectoris vomiting, when present, occurs after the pain has subsided.

Gastralgia may be of sufficient severity to lead to confusing it with angina pectoris. (See Gastralgia, p. 543.)

Clinical Course.—There is wide variation in the severity and course of true anginoid pain in different persons, and even in the same individual at different times. The milder cases present only precordial oppression and discomfort, with possibly slight precordial pain at intervals. All gradations between the mild type of angina and the severe grip-like, agonizing pain are to be seen. Rarely, the primary attack terminates in a fatal issue, although it is somewhat more common to find the seizures separated by a period of one or more years, and, indeed, a few cases have been studied in which a second attack did not occur, although a period of from three to seven years has elapsed since the initial attack.

CONGENITAL AFFECTIONS OF THE HEART

General Remarks.—Among these are anomalous conditions resulting from arrested development and from fetal endocarditis, although in certain cases it is highly probable that both conditions figure prominently as exciting factors. The variety of lesion most commonly encountered is best exemplified by Holt's analysis of 242 autopsies upon the bodies of children known to have suffered from anomalies of the heart:

Defect in the ventricular septum	149 cases; only lesion in 5 cases
Defect in the auricular septum or patent foramen ovale	126 cases; only lesion in 9 cases
Pulmonic stenosis or atresia	108 cases; only lesion in 6 cases
Patent ductus arteriosus	68 cases; only lesion in 3 cases
Abnormalities in the origin of the great vessels	45 cases; only lesion in 0 cases
Pulmonic insufficiency	17 cases; only lesion in 0 cases

Tricuspid insufficiency	6 cases; only lesion in 0 cases
Tricuspid stenosis or atresia	3 cases; only lesion in 0 cases
Mitral insufficiency	1 case; only lesion in 0 cases
Mitral stenosis or atresia	6 cases; only lesion in 0 cases
Aortic insufficiency	1 case; only lesion in 0 cases
Aortic stenosis or atresia	6 cases; only lesion in 0 cases
Transposition of the heart	2 cases; only lesion in 0 cases
Ectocardia	1 case; only lesion in 1 case

THE MOST FREQUENTLY ASSOCIATED LESIONS

Pulmonic stenosis with defect in the ventricular septum	92 cases; only lesion in 20 cases
Pulmonic stenosis with defect in the auricular septum	52 cases; only lesion in 8 cases
Defects in both septa	82 cases; only lesion in 17 cases
Pulmonic stenosis and defects in both septa	36 cases; only lesion in 21 cases

Symptoms.—*Dyspnea* and *cyanosis* are constant and annoying symptoms and *cough* is frequently present. The symptoms are influenced somewhat by the character of the lesion present. It is usually observed that the child does not develop normally, is delicate, and usually suffers from gastro-intestinal disturbances.

Thermic Features.—The temperature is frequently subnormal in uncomplicated cases of congenital cardiac disease.

Physical Signs.—Inspection.—A constant and marked sign in congenital heart disease is *cyanosis*. The tint assumed by the skin is variable, it being at one time dusky, at another a deep violet, and, rarely, it is almost black. This discoloration is most noticeable about the lips and mucous membrane of the mouth, nostrils, conjunctivæ, fingers, toes, and lobules of the ears, and, as a rule, is general, though it may be a local condition. The tint may grow less distinct when the child is in perfect repose or sleeping; excitement or efforts at coughing, however, increase the intensity of the discoloration. The cyanotic hue comes on almost invariably during the first week of life. The fingers present a decidedly clubbed appearance (Fig. 130), and the nails are also clubbed and clawlike.

Palpation.—During infancy the impulse is feeble.

Percussion.—The area of cardiac dullness is increased, especially to the right. In older children the area of dullness is only slightly extended to the left.

Auscultation.—A loud systolic murmur is audible at the pulmonary orifice. When the auriculoventricular valves are the seat of endocarditis, the murmur may be apical. In pure pulmonary stenosis the second sound is feeble. In older children the murmurs heard are often loud.

Differential Diagnosis.—The accompanying table shows the chief differential points between congenital and acquired cardiac lesions:

CONGENITAL LESIONS	ACQUIRED LESIONS
1. History of almost constant cyanosis, beginning in the first week after birth.	1. History of endocarditis or of rheumatism or other complaints in which endocarditis occurs as a complication.
2. Slight enlargement of the right ventricle of the heart, chiefly non-progressive.	2. Enlargement marked, frequently involving the left ventricle, and progressive.
3. Loud and musical murmurs audible over upper third of sternum, with small area of transmission upward and to the left; second sound weak.	3. Audible over apex or base; definite large areas of transmission. Second sound frequently accentuated.
4. Deficient bodily development.	4. Good, as a rule.
5. Mental faculties in abeyance.	5. Mental faculties normal.

Clinical Course.—The majority of cases continue for but a few days after birth, and 75 per cent. terminate fatally before the third year. It is unusual for the patient to live until the sixth year, although, rarely, the condition may continue until puberty, and most of such cases display pulmonary stenosis with defective septa.

Complications.—Rarely cerebral abscess develops during the course of congenital malformation, and chronic bronchitis, pulmonary tuberculosis, epilepsy, and neurasthenia may occur as complications.

DISEASES OF THE BLOOD-VESSELS AND MEDIASTINUM

DISEASES OF THE ARTERIES

ACUTE AORTITIS

Pathologic Definition.—The morbid changes resemble those seen in acute endocarditis (p. 280), including the ulcerative variety (p. 283).

Predisposing and Exciting Factors.—The causes are not clearly defined, but the condition may follow the acute infections, *e. g.*, typhoid fever, pneumonia, scarlatina, syphilis and both sub-acute and chronic focal infection. Alcoholism and syphilis may be contributing causes. Various microörganisms have been discovered to be causal irritants. Boinet and Romary have shown that, in experimentally produced aortitis, a point of lessened resistance (either from traumatism or other previous arterial lesion) is necessary for the development of the disease.

Clinical Features.—These are both *local* and *general*. Of the former, *diffuse thoracic pain*, with substernal tenderness, following firm pressure and cardiac palpitation, is noted. The pain occasionally assumes the type of true angina pectoris.

Among the *general features* moderate fever is most constant. A positive Wassermann reaction is at times obtained.

Diagnosis.—The diagnosis in all cases is doubtful.

CHRONIC AORTITIS

Remarks.—From the literature at hand we are forced to conclude that from 30 to 40 per cent. of all cases of tabes and of general paresis show at autopsy extensive luetic involvement of the aorta. Gruber by an analysis of 6000 autopsies found aortitis to have been present in 4 per cent. of them; while Marchand reports 256 autopsies on bodies with acquired syphilis, in which he found 82 per cent. of them to have extensive involvement of the aorta. Goldscheider sites 136 cases of aortitis, 29 of which had locomotor ataxia.

The gross lesions of the aorta involve mostly the arch, but may extend to the abdominal portion. These lesions appear as roughenings of the intima and the formation of small plaques. Microscopic examination of an aorta infected with spirochæta pallida, shows all three coats of the arterial wall to be involved.

Classification.—(1) "Suprasigmoid aortitis"—When the disease is confined to the first portion of the aorta. (2) Syphilis of the aortic valves. (3) Aneurismal formation. (4) Obliteration of the coronary arteries.

History.—A history of luetic infection is present in 80 per cent. of all cases.

Principal Complaint.—Cough may be one of the earliest symptoms—is non-productive, rather harsh, and may be paroxysmal. The cough of beginning aortitis resembles that of incipient tuberculosis. Hoarseness and roughening of the voice may be present. Pain under the sternum accompanied by a sense of constriction, and radiating into the brachial plexus, down the arm of the left side, and occasionally to the right arm, are amongst the earliest annoyances of the disease. Fatigue following slight exertion, weakness, mental habitude, neurasthenia, and headache are also experienced. Dyspnea is a constant symptom, and is commonly observed when the patient arises from the recumbent posture.

Röntgen Study.—Röntgen study will reveal pathologic changes in the aorta. Enlargement of the aortic shadow to the right or to the left, with obliteration of the normal aortic knob, are rather common findings. Even an increased density of the aortic shadow should be considered as an important diagnostic feature when found in connection with some of the symptoms herein given.

Palpation.—The subclavian arteries are easily felt, and unusual movement of the apex of the heart is present. Late during the disease the radial and brachial arteries become readily palpable. The abdominal aorta when involved is also readily palpated.

Auscultation.—Heart sounds are at first accentuated, with a sharp second aortic. A slight roughening of the first sound is audible over base of the heart and on the course of the aortic arch. In the region of the celiac axis, a distinct chucking murmur is heard.

Laboratory Diagnosis.—Approximately 75 per cent. of all cases give a positive Wassermann reaction.

ARTERIAL SCLEROSIS (ARTERIOSCLEROSIS (ANGIOSCLEROSIS) ARTERIO-CAPILLARY FIBROSIS; ENDARTERITIS CHRONICA DEFORMANS; ATHEROMA)

Pathologic Definition.—An overproduction of the connective tissue situated in the various coats of the arteries, but involving, for the most part, the media and adventitia.

Remarks.—Sclerotic changes may attack almost any portion of the arterial system, but it is more commonly seen to involve the aorta, coronary arteries, descending and ascending aorta, and the arteries at the base of the brain. The radials, temporals, iliacs, and femorals are also found to be the seat of atheromatous changes. It is not uncommon to find sclerotic changes in the hepatic, gastric, and mesenteric vessels, but irrespective of the portion of the arterial tree involved, the disease assumes two distinct types: (*a*) diffuse; and (*b*) circumscribed atheroma. There may also be sclerotic changes in the veins, but far more commonly the arteries are found to be thus involved.

Clinical Varieties and Their Characteristics.—(1) **Cerebral.**—In mild grades of this type of atheroma, the patients complain chiefly of headache, vertigo and tinnitus; attacks of syncope, and, at times, slight local paralyses are also present. In a case now under our care the patient has also had two attacks of subconjunctival hemorrhage. When the disease has progressed for some time, and especially in those over the age of sixty, vertigo and melancholia may be among the more prominent features. Temporary aphasia has also been observed.

(2) **Renal.**—Here the essential changes in the kidney are of an atrophic nature, and usually more or less general sclerotic change of the renal arteries occurs. Generally, however, atheromatous changes attack other portions of the circulatory system, but, owing to the

change in the renal artery, its lumen becomes narrowed and the symptoms displayed by the patient resemble closely those detailed under Chronic Interstitial Nephritis.

Coronary sclerosis is seen not only in cases of angina pectoris, but may be placarded by epigastric pains after eating, dyspnea, nausea, epigastric fulness, and discomfort.

(3) **Peripheral.**—Those arteries that may be readily palpated—*e. g.*, radial, ulnar, and temporal—display an unusual degree of hardening, and the terminal branches of the arteries likewise display degeneration. Sooner or later the peripheral arteries become incapable of nourishing the tissues, and gangrene ensues.

(4) **Pulmonary.**—Pulmonary atheroma has been referred to in connection with valvular heart disease and altered blood tension in the lung is believed to induce such changes.

Involvement of the arteries of the abdomen is a less common feature, and in this connection mere mention may be made of atheroma of the mesentery vessels. Atrophy of the various elements supplied by the arteries involved has been reported in connection with such diseases as pancreatitis, diabetes, etc. Selected cases of this variety occasionally suffer from severe abdominal pain. The pain is most annoying when the blood pressure is far above the normal (170 to 200 mm. or higher).

Predisposing and Exciting Factors.—The diffuse form of sclerosis of the arteries is rarely seen in young subjects, and more often attacks robust males during middle life, although the process is frequently continued after the age of fifty, when it commonly attacks both sexes. Luetic infection and the excessive use of alcohol are believed to be potent factors in the production of atheromatous changes of the blood-vessels, and atheroma is also common among lead-workers and those suffering from chronic nephritis, gout, and joint disease. Men who indulge in violent exercise, and particularly those whose work demands the lifting of heavy loads, are also likely to display more or less atheromatous changes in their arteries. Heredity appears to figure in certain selected cases.

Race.—The American Negro appears to be especially likely to suffer from atheromatous changes.

Specific microöganisms, *e. g.*, the malarial parasite, Treponema pallidum, and such **chemic irritants** as alcohol, lead, mercury, etc., doubtless figure prominently in the production of sclerotic changes in the arterial system. Arterial sclerosis and **chronic Bright's disease** often appear to develop simultaneously. **Conditions that materially alter the systemic blood-pressure** may be capable of contributing to the production of atheromatous changes in the general arterial tree, and **emphysematous changes in the lung** in turn favor the development of atheromatous changes in the pulmonary arteries.

Principal Complaint.—The disease may exist for a period of years without giving rise to any inconvenience, and, indeed, many cases go on to autopsy before the real nature of the condition is made apparent. In selected cases the earlier symptoms resemble those of neurasthenia, epigastric fullness, and distress after taking food, combined with progressive failure in health and malnutrition. Palpitation, dyspnea on exertion, precordial constriction, and pain over the heart are among the symptoms. Nocturnal attacks of dyspnea and rarely pulmonary edema may occur.

Thermic Features.—There may be attacks of mild fever.

Physical Signs.—Inspection.—In advanced cases, in which the peripheral arteries are chiefly involved, the course of the radial, brachial, and temporals is quite distinct, and usually tortuous, and these

arteries are seen to pulsate. The apex-beat of the heart is forcible, and commonly displaced downward and to the left.

Palpation.—The arteries that can be palpated roll readily under the finger, and at times are wire-like to the touch. The pulse appears to be of high tension, and offers a distinct impression to the palpating finger, but this impression is frequently misleading, owing to the degree of atheromatous change of the arterial wall. The impression felt on taking the radial pulse is not infrequently found to be incorrect when compared with the degree of blood-pressure. (See Blood-pressure, p. 203.) Certain cases will be found to display a low blood-pressure, whereas in others it is unusually high, the degree of such pressure being influenced, in part at least, by the muscular power of the heart. It is important for the clinician to keep in mind the fact that atheromatous change of the blood-vessels is commonly associated with valvular disease of the heart and with myocarditis; consequently the degree of blood-pressure may not be characteristic of any one of these three conditions. Again, sphygmographic tracings obtained at different times during the course of the disease will be found to differ widely from one another, and certain of these conditions may be due in part to changes in both the cardiac leaflets and the heart muscle.

Percussion.—Owing to the opposition offered to the circulating blood in the blood-vessels, the left ventricle becomes hypertrophied, and, as a consequence, the area of cardiac dullness is increased downward and to the left. Late during the disease myocardial changes may take place, to be followed by cardiac dilatation, in which event the physical signs are those described for this condition. (See p. 329.) The aorta may become markedly dilated during the course of atheroma, and in such cases there is an unusual area of dullness in the upper sternal region.

Auscultation.—The first sound of the heart is loud and somewhat booming in quality, and there is marked accentuation of the second sound. When myocardial changes predominate, the physical signs are those previously outlined under myocarditis. (See p. 320.)

Laboratory Diagnosis.—Sooner or later secondary anemia is likely to occur. Chronic interstitial change in the kidney is frequently associated with disease of the arteries, consequently a moderate amount of albumin and narrow hyaline casts are commonly found in the urine.

X-ray Diagnosis.—The *x*-ray is of value. (See p. 258.)

Summary of Diagnosis.—Hardening of the arteries, enlargement of the left ventricle, increased arterial tension, and accentuation of the second aortic sound constitute the cardinal features of atheroma. In certain cases, however, the diagnosis may be further supported by the development of apoplexy and acute cardiac dilatation. Mild attacks of vertigo and tinnitus should always be regarded with suspicion.

Course.—The condition usually progresses from bad to worse, although treatment may exercise some influence. The duration of atheroma varies greatly in different individuals.

THROMBO-ANGIITIS OBLITERANS

(BUERGER'S DISEASE, "INTERMITTENT CLAUDICATION")

This condition is described as an inflammatory process of the blood-vessels, and it affects all the coats of both the arteries and veins. It usually attacks the blood-vessels of the lower limbs below the bifurcation of the popliteal artery. Arteries of the viscera (renal, hepatic, and cerebral) may become involved. There is an unusual tendency to

relapses, and it may result fatally when the larger vessels are attacked. In America most cases affect those of middle age, in Russia it is prevalent, and in Japan it is referred to as "the gangrene of the young." This condition is often considered as presenile and as juvenile gangrene. The deeper arteries are involved. Involvement of the superficial veins of the extremities is usual, and is referred to as migrating thrombo-phlebitis. (Fig. 141.)

Pathology.—The pathologic picture is at first that of an acute inflammatory lesion of the intima with occlusive thrombosis. There is a gradual disappearance of the inflammatory products but there may result a periarteritis binding together firmly the artery, veins, and accompanying nerves. In the surrounding tissues there are evidences showing natures attempt to establish compensatory circulation.

Clinical Varieties and Stages.—The acute stage is signalled by lancinating pains in the calf regions, and in the affected part.

The chronic stage is accompanied by trophic lesions and gangrene; and those cases of exquisite chronic rubor followed by loss of a portion of



FIG. 141.—ACUTE THROMBO-ARTERITIS.
Amputation followed by recovery (Kramer).

one or more toes; and cases where trophic ulcer is the only classic feature. Examples of sudden gangrene are by no means uncommon, as are also instances where symptoms are conspicuous by their absence. Cases presenting intermittent claudication as the only important feature are not infrequent; while others suffer from the foregoing annoyance, together with migrating phlebitis. (See Buerger "The Circulatory Disturbances of the Extremities," pp. 213–222, for a more exhaustive clinical and pathological consideration of the subject.)

General Complaint.—Pain in the region of the foot or calf of the leg while walking or standing is the earliest symptom. The pain is relieved when the patient is sitting, and when the leg is elevated at a level with the body. The pain recurs upon an attempt to walk or stand.

Indefinite pains in the toes, sole of one foot, ankle, or numbness followed later by pains, is the usual history. Some patients refer to sudden attacks of cramplike pain in the calf regions, and these resemble intermittent claudication. Within the course of weeks, months, or years, trophic changes are manifest; and following slight injury an abrased area is seen, and there may develop an hemorrhagic bleb, a dry area of skin, or a pustule at the margin of the nail, on one toe. Pain

is often continuous and excruciating in case of these initial cutaneous lesions. The bluish color (rubor) ordinarily antidates cutaneous lesions, and is often detected during intermittent claudication.

Physical Signs.—The affected foot and leg assume a purple or bluish color when the patient is standing, and a blanched white when the leg is elevated. It is not uncommon to find the tibial pulses obliterated, and where the case goes from bad to worse gangrene begins in the great toe, and gradually spreads to the foot and leg. Symptoms secondary to the toxemia of gangrene may ensue.

Acute Thrombo-arteritis.—Under this title Dr. D. W. Kramer, Beurger, Higier and others have reported interesting cases. We are informed one year later that Kramer's case recovered following amputation of the leg. (Fig. 141.)

ANEURISM

Pathologic Definition.—A circumscribed dilatation of an artery, the walls of which are formed by one or more of the vessel's coats. The aneurismal sac may have encroached upon other structures and, in turn, have inflicted severe damage upon them.

(1) *True aneurism* (aneurism verum; aneurism spontaneum), in which one or more of the coats of the artery form the walls of the tumor.

(*a*) *Dilatation Aneurism.*—(1) Limited to a certain portion of a vessel—*fusiform aneurism; cylindroid aneurism.* (2) Extending over a whole artery and its branches—*cirsoid aneurism.*

(*b*) *Circumscribed Saccular Aneurism.*—The common form in the aorta in which there is distention of two or more of the coats, or distention of the adventitia after destruction of the intima and the media.

(*c*) *Dissecting aneurism*, with splitting of the coats to a greater or less extent, and occasionally with the formation of a new tube lined with intimal endothelium.

(2) *False aneurism*, following a wound or a rupture of an artery, causing a diffuse or circumscribed hematoma.

(3) *Arteriovenous aneurism*, a communication between an artery and a vein, either direct, *aneurismal varix*, or with the intervention of a sac, *varicose aneurism.*

(4) *Special forms*, such as *traction aneurism, erosion aneurism*, and *parasitic aneurism.*

Miliary aneurisms occur along the course of the cerebral vessels. On the other hand, it is not uncommon to find an aneurism that has developed to enormous size from one of the greater vessels—aorta, innominate, popliteal.

Clinical Varieties.—The older writers called attention to two distinct clinical types of thoracic aneurism, but the present time this classification has fallen largely into disuse, and the following subdivisions have been recognized:

(1) **Aneurism with symptoms,** in which there are displayed such characteristics as harsh paroxysmal cough, hoarseness, expectoration, dyspnea, pain, and unilateral sweating; in this class of cases definite physical signs are absent.

(2) **Aneurism with physical signs** is a type of aortic or innominate aneurism in which symptoms, if present, are slight, and such signs as tracheal tugging, bruit, expansile pulsation, thrill, and inequality of the pulses and of the pupils are present.

(3) **Thoracic aneurism** displaying certain definite symptoms, together with physical signs distinctive of this malady.

Predisposing and Exciting Factors.—Among the recognized causes are:

Arteriosclerosis.—The same conditions that give rise to arteriosclerosis (p. 338) and aortitis also tend to bring about aneurism.

Syphilis.—According to Rauch, syphilis was present in 56 per cent. of 25 aneurisms of the aorta. In Ansperger's series of 37 cases 48.6 per cent. gave a luetic history.

Manouelian* found spirochæta pallida in the tissues from three cases of aortic aneurism.

Sudden Strain.—This may be productive of aneurism, particularly in the early stage of arteriosclerosis. In no other manner can the fact that most cases of aneurism occur during the period of greatest bodily activity in men be satisfactorily explained.

Embolic plugging of a vessel, if complete, may cause aneurismal dilatation at the point of obstruction. Infectious emboli, in turn, produce inflammation and softening.

Mycotic Aneurism.—Osler has pointed out that the growth of microorganisms in the wall of the aorta may be responsible for the development of aneurism. Aneurism of mycotic origin has been studied at length by Stengel and Wolferth (Archives Internal Medicine, April, 1923) and deserves special consideration in connection with the etiology of this condition.

Trauma.—Aneurism may be produced experimentally by traumatism.

Age and Sex.—Aneurism is most frequently seen to occur between the thirtieth and fiftieth years—the period of greatest physical exertion. Males are more frequently affected than females, owing to differences in occupation.

Pupillary Reactions.—Woodroffe concludes that the normal size of the pupil results from a well-balanced action of the various forces, *e. g.*: (1) The third nerve in causing contraction of the sphincter; (2) the sympathetic in stimulating the dilator muscle; (3) the sympathetic inhibition of the sphincter and at the same time controlling the amount of blood in the blood-vessels of the iris; and (4) the positive action of the elastic fibers of the iris.

Among the conditions that appreciably alter the size of one or both pupils are the following: Light is the chief stimulus for contraction of the pupil. A number of conditions may be given as capable of causing the pupil to dilate, and among these the following are of clinical value: Sensitive stimuli as touching the skin on the side of the neck, or pulling the hair immediately in front of the ear; the sudden production of loud noises, and the irritation of the skin along the spine. Psychic stimuli frequently cause prompt dilatation of the pupil, the best examples of this being seen where the patient experiences sudden fear, extreme anger, and sentimental excitement. Lastly, the act of deep breathing may be followed by a moderate dilatation of the pupil.

Certain drugs and anesthetics are also capable of altering the size of the pupil, and among the diseases where inequality of the pupil is a conspicuous feature special mention should be made of thoracic aneurism and all other diseases causing pressure upon the thoracic sympathetics. Again in epidemic meningitis, apoplexy, and brain tumor, the size of the pupils is either altered or the pupillary reactions are disturbed. In certain continued fevers, and in maladies where prostration is extreme, the

*Bull. de la Societe Medicale Des Hopitaux, Paris, May 28, 1920.

pupils may be unduly dilated. On the other hand, the pupils are unusually small in locomotor ataxia.

Aneurism of the Thoracic Aorta (Thoracic Aneurism; Aneurisma Aortæ)

Remarks.—The thoracic portion of the aorta is involved in 75 per cent. of the cases (Anders), and the branches of the aorta and abdominal aorta are affected in about 25 per cent. of all cases. Lyman found that 60 per cent. of all aneurisms located in the thorax develop from the ascending portion of the aorta, and similar statistics have been offered by Hare and Holden, who analyzed 570 cases involving the ascending arch.

Predisposing and Exciting Factors.—(See p. 343.)

Clinical Remarks and Principal Complaint.—Intrathoracic aneurisms may exist, and, when small, give rise to no symptoms or noticeable physical signs; when, however, they attain any considerable size, they usually excite fairly characteristic physical signs and symptoms, the latter being the result of direct pressure, and hence varying with the seat and direction of the progressive enlargement. In a few instances diagnostic symptoms have been present even in the absence of a detectable tumor or physical signs. Finally, the more characteristic features—including the tumor—may be more or less intermittent.

It is important to note the condition of the neighboring organs upon which pressure is exerted by the aneurism, as well as the symptoms and signs thus produced. Aneurisms of the ascending portion of the arch may compress the vena cava, causing distention of the veins of the head and arms, although in a small number of cases the subclavian may be the only vein compressed, which condition is followed by edema of the right arm. A large aneurism may compress the inferior vena cava and cause edema of the lower extremities. Rarely, the tumor causes erosion of the ribs and sternum. One recurrent laryngeal nerve is quite commonly implicated, giving rise to dyspnea and aphonia.

Aneurisms of the transverse portion of the aorta, when they attain sufficient size, give rise to the most severe symptoms (*aneurism with symptoms*); these are due to the relatively shorter anteroposterior diameter of the chest at this point, in consequence of which great compression of the adjacent tissues takes place. By protruding backward they may exert pressure upon the trachea, causing paroxysmal cough and dyspnea; or they make pressure on the esophagus, causing dysphagia; both conditions are common. Pressure upon a bronchus may cause dyspnea, bronchorrhea, and sometimes circumscribed abscess.

The aneurism may grow forward, in which event it lies directly behind the manubrium, which becomes eroded from the pressure and may finally disappear in part or be perforated. In aneurism involving the transverse portion of the arch lateral pressure, toward both the right and the left, is also made, causing displacement of a portion of one or both lungs.

When the descending portion of the arch is affected, pressure is exerted upon the spinal column to the right, and upon the tissues as far as the shoulder-blades to the left. As a consequence of destruction and absorption of the vertebræ, compression of the spinal cord may ensue, in which event the patient suffers intense pain. Pressure may be exerted upon the left bronchus, causing bronchiectasis, with its sequelæ (bronchorrhea, fetid bronchitis, gangrene of the lung). Repeated small hemorrhages with the expectoration of blood may be a precursor of fatal rupture.

Important Diagnostic Symptoms.—*Pain* is constant, and is of two types: (1) That due to direct pressure upon and stretching of the

nerves. When aneurism develops suddenly, a brief, excruciating pain is experienced in the upper sternal region, accompanied by a sense of something having given way. In consequence of the constant stretching of the nerves, continuous pain is experienced, and exacerbations occur when the intra-aneurismal pressure is increased. Pressure against the bony structures causes erosion, and gives rise to a continuous boring pain. In latent aneurism pain is absent. Where the aneurism is located near the heart, pain resembling cardiac angina may be experienced. It is possible, however, for an aneurism of fairly large size to exist without giving rise to severe pain.

(2) Reflected pains of a neuralgic character may be excited by aneurism, a feature that is particularly true of aneurisms situated in the transverse portion of the aorta, in which instances pain is commonly felt in the region of the neck and occiput, and down the left arm. When the growth is situated along the course of the descending aorta, intercostal neuralgia may be excited, and is due to pressure upon the intercostal nerves. In practically all cases in which there is destruction of bony tissue the pain is continuous for weeks or months, and is so severe as to prevent sleep.

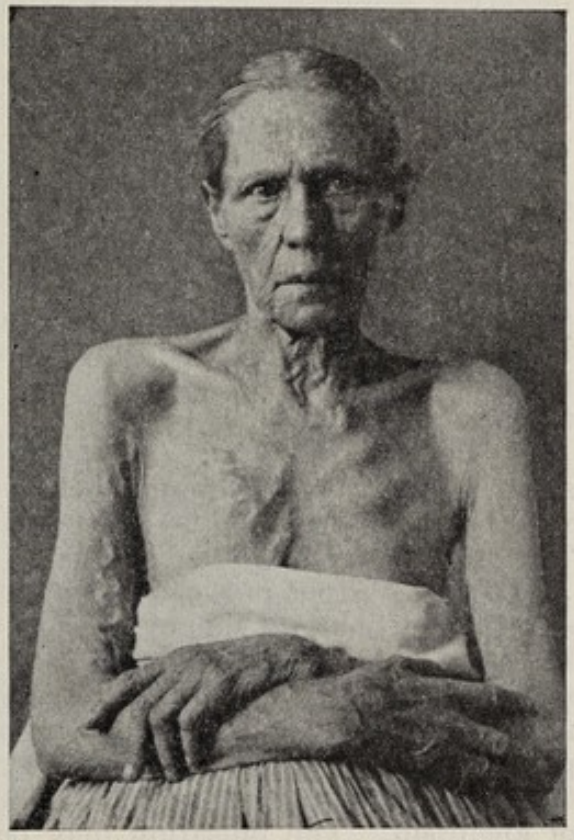


FIG. 142.—THORACIC ANEURISM WITH DILATATION OF VEINS OF RIGHT SIDE OF CHEST, NECK, AND RIGHT ARM (observation at Philadelphia General Hospital).

Thermic Features.—There may be irregular fever between 99 and 103°. Such fever is of specific origin in leutic cases; but it may result from local thoracic congestion induced by pressure.

Cough.—The cough is paroxysmal, and commonly displays a peculiar metallic, ringing character, that points to its laryngeal origin. Pressure upon the trachea is followed by a paroxysmal dry cough. Compression of a bronchus may lead to bronchiectasis, and the cough is then paroxysmal, recurring at intervals of hours or even days, and is accompanied by copious expectoration.

Dyspnea is a conspicuous symptom in aneurism of the transverse portion of the aorta, and results most frequently from—(1) Pressure by the aneurism upon the recurrent laryngeal nerve, or from entanglement of the nerve among the adhesions surrounding the aneurismal sac; (2) pressure upon the trachea; and (3) pressure on the left bronchus.

Paralysis of the vocal bands results from pressure of the aneurism upon the recurrent laryngeal nerve, the left being the more commonly compressed. Slight pressure or irritation of the recurrent laryngeal is followed by spasmodic contraction of the vocal membrane. Among the symptoms characteristic of involvement of the recurrent laryngeals are hoarseness, aphonia, and a harsh cough. It is essential to employ a laryngoscope in making the diagnosis, since paralysis of certain of the

abductors may exist without giving rise to definite symptoms. Laryngoscopic examination serves further to distinguish between hoarseness and cough resulting from aneurism and that produced by tuberculosis of the larynx.

Hemorrhage.—This may occur as a mere oozing from the aneurismal sac, and it may escape either into the trachea or through the esophagus. Owing to compression of the lung, a certain amount of bloody sputum may be expectorated. Profuse bleeding is commonly followed by a fatal termination, and in such instances rupture of the sac is found at autopsy. Aneurism may rupture into the mediastinum, pleural sacs, lung, trachea, a bronchus or the pericardium.

Dysphagia.—In those cases in which sufficient pressure is exerted upon the esophagus there may be difficulty in swallowing. The symptoms of stricture of the esophagus (see p. 469) may also be present, and in such cases it is highly essential that the clinical features distinctive of both aneurism and esophageal stricture be considered before instituting treatment for the latter condition.

Physical Signs Resulting from Pressure upon the Spinal Sympathetic Nervous System.—(*a*) If the nerves of but one side of the spine are compressed, the pupil of that side will be either contracted or dilated, depending upon the degree of pressure exerted by the aneurismal sac. (*b*) Owing to the same cause, there may be unilateral pallor or flushing of the face; and (*c*) the same cause produces unilateral sweating of the head and neck, and, in selected cases, there may be unilateral sweating of the upper half of the body.

Inspection.—*General.*—The facial expression is, as a rule, anxious and somewhat careworn; if observed closely, the head will be found to tremble with each pulsation of the heart if a large thoracic aneurism is present. The voice is drawn and often husky.

Local.—Visible pulsation is an early sign, and is most frequently observed at the right side of the sternum, above the level of the third rib; but it is also, although less frequently, seen on the left side over a corresponding area. Clubbing of the fingers, more or less incurvation of the nails, and, in advanced cases, a variable degree of cyanosis may also be present. In aneurism of the transverse portion pulsation may be seen at the episternal notch, although an impulse at this site is not pathognomonic of aneurism. The pulsation may occur in the absence of the slightest bulging, but when associated with deformity, its diagnostic importance is great (Figs. 143, 144).

If the innominate artery is the site of the aneurism, there is pulsation in the neck above the sternoclavicular junction, and, less commonly, above the sternum; in most instances there is bulging corresponding to the seat of visible impulse. Slight bulging may be detected by making a comparative study of the two sides of the neck. Innominate aneurism may not cause deformity of the anterior surface of the chest, but when the examiner stands behind the patient, deformity may be apparent, particularly if one looks directly down upon the neck and shoulder. In inspecting the chest the patient should be moved so as to get different lights upon the inpsected surface, and it is often well for the physician to stand or sit in order that his eye be on a level with the portion of the chest inspected.

In aneurism of the ascending portion of the arch the most frequent seat of the bulging and pulsation is over the first and second right interspaces, near the margin of the sternum, and, indeed, the adjacent portion of the sternum may also share in the deformity. If the aneurism is

situated just above the aortic orifice, bulging and pulsation are prone to occur at the third interspace and along the left margin of the sternum. If the upper portion of the sternum is the site of bulging and pulsation, it is probable that the transverse portion of the aortic arch is occupied by the aneurism. When an aneurism develops from the descending portion of the aorta, bulging is seen along the left margin of the sternum, at the second or third interspaces, and in the scapular region (Figs. 143 and 145).

The heart is ordinarily displaced downward and to the left, and the apex-beat is seen well below its normal situation, but this is dependent in part, at least, upon cardiac hypertrophy. When the patient is directed

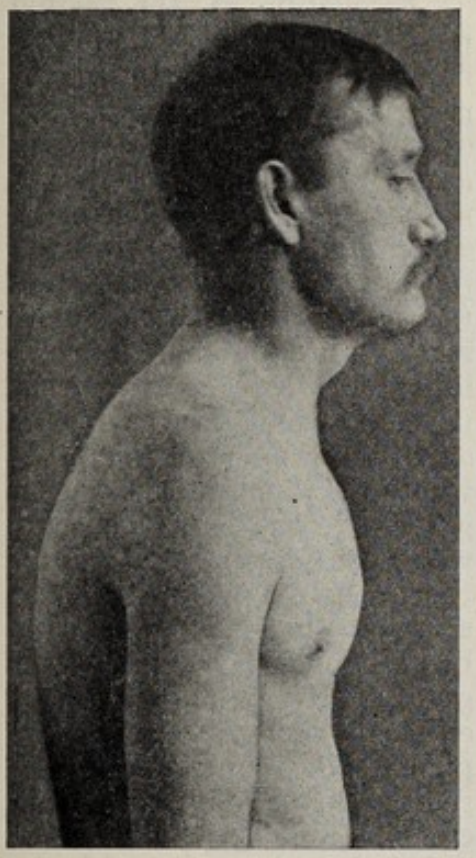


FIG. 143.—THORACIC ANEURISM CAUSING ANTERIOR DEFORMITY OF THE CHEST.

There was marked pulsation, and a bruit elicited over the most prominent portion of the sternum (patient studied during service, 1907, at Philadelphia General Hospital).

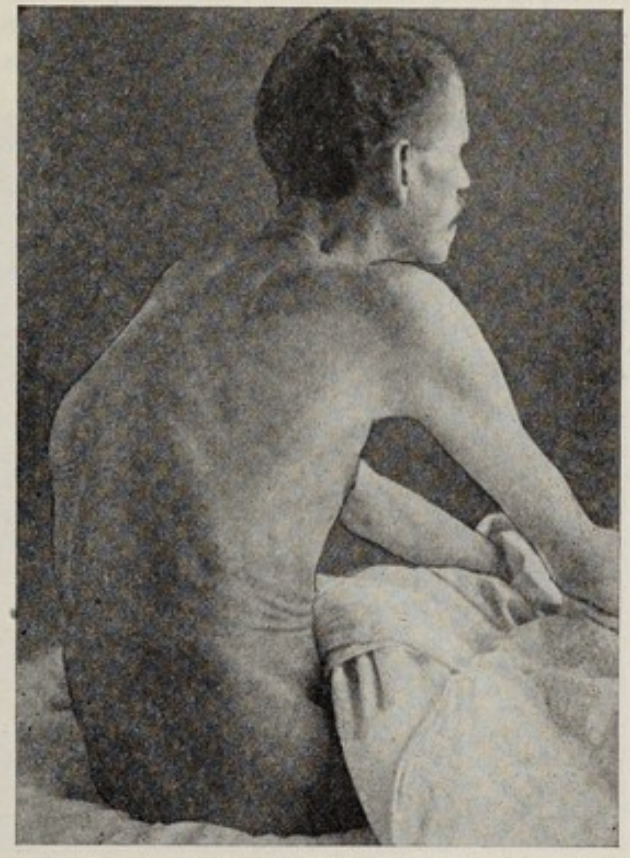


FIG. 144.—LARGE THORACIC ANEURISM WITH EROSION OF THE TENTH RIB. EXPANSILE PULSATION WAS OBTAINED OVER THE MOST PROMINENT PORTION OF THE TUMOR.

to elevate his arms distinct pulsation of the brachial and at times of the radial and ulnar arteries is observed.

Multiple Aneurism.—In a case recently under our care there was at autopsy disclosed an aneurism of the transverse portion of the aortic arch, and also another of the right carotid artery, the pulsation resulting from the second having created some doubt as to the actual conditions that existed. Another patient displayed well-marked pulsation in both the right and left carotid regions, and here again autopsy disclosed an aneurism of both carotids and a general dilatation of the aortic arch.

Palpation.—The protrusion consists of a more or less yielding and elastic mass, and when superficially seated, fluctuation is present. Expan-

sile pulsation is to be classed among the characteristic signs of aneurism, and is best obtained by encircling a pulsating mass with the thumb and all the fingers of one hand; by this method alterations in the size of the pulsating mass are clearly discernible. The pulsation is also found to be synchronous with that of the systole. In deep-seated aneurism the pulsation may be indistinct, and is at times more forcibly elicited by placing the fingers of one hand over the anterior surface of the chest and the other hand at a corresponding point posteriorly. By placing the palm of the hand over the pulsating mass, a diastolic shock is occasionally detected. A systolic shock over the pulsating mass may be detected, and this is frequently associated with an extremely soft, purring fremitus.

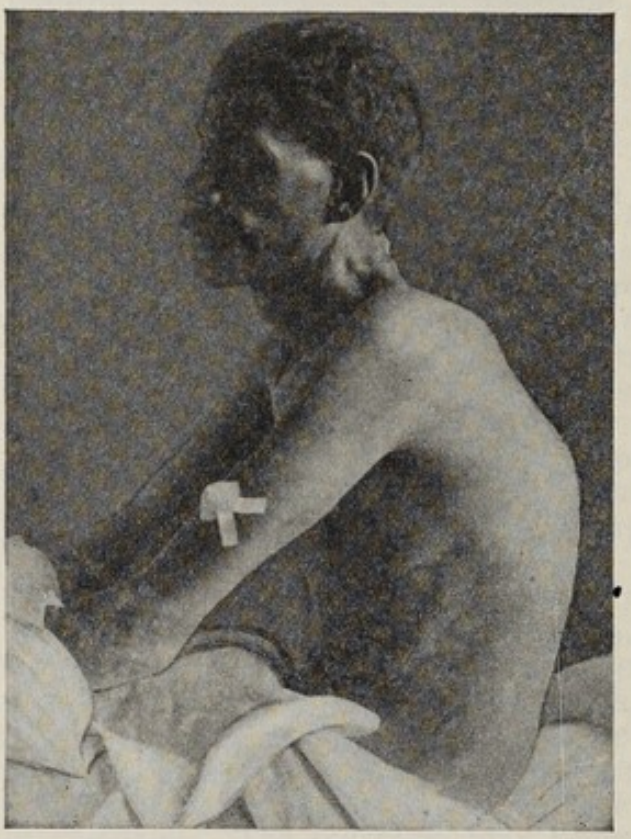


FIG. 145.—LATERAL VIEW OF PATIENT SHOWN IN FIG. 144 (studied during service, 1907, at Philadelphia General Hospital).

Inequality of the radial pulses is an almost pathognomonic sign of thoracic aneurism, although aneurism may exist without causing any appreciable difference in the radial pulses. In aneurism of the innominate artery the right pulse only would be affected (delayed, softer, and more readily compressible than the left), but if the aneurism is situated in that portion of the aorta just beyond the point where the innominate artery is given off, the left pulse only would be affected. Lastly, if the aneurism was situated at a point beyond where the blood-supply to the left arm is given off, it would not influence either the right or the left radial pulse. The condition of the radial pulses may, in certain cases, enable us to determine definitely the site of an aneurism.

Tracheal tugging is an extremely valuable sign of thoracic aneurism, although there are exceptional instances in which this sign is obtained without the existence of aneurism. Tracheal tugging is elicited by placing the index-fingers under the cricoid cartilage (see Fig. 146), directing the patient to elevate the chin, while the operator rests his fourth (little) fingers upon the clavicles. If this sign is present, there is a distinct tugging (pulling downward) of the trachea with each pulsation of the heart. The essential factors necessary to produce tracheal tugging are: (1) Elevation of the patient's chin; (2) proper grasp upon the trachea by the operator; (3) the aneurismal mass must be adherent to the trachea, and of sufficient size to cause an appreciable tugging with each pulsation of the heart, and at a time when the sac is distended by blood.

Percussion—Percussion may give negative results, but if the tumor causes bulging or comes in contact with the chest-wall, a proportionate area of flatness is detected. The abnormal field of impaired percussion note may be the only clinical feature present. In aneurism of the ascend-

ing arch flatness is elicited to the right of the sternum; in those of the transverse arch, over the upper part of the sternum and to the left, whereas those of the descending portion are revealed by a flat area between the spine and the left scapula. A sense of increased resistance is offered to the finger that is in direct contact with the chest-wall. The area of cardiac dullness is ordinarily increased.

Auscultatory percussion is also of service in outlining the aneurismal mass and in separating it from the heart.

Auscultation.—Murmurs probably owe their origin, in part, to the presence of fibrin in the sac, yet they may be absent. When a murmur is present over the aneurism, it is systolic in time, and heard with greatest intensity over the flat area or body of the tumor, and is transmitted in the direction of the blood-stream, being, therefore, distinctly audible

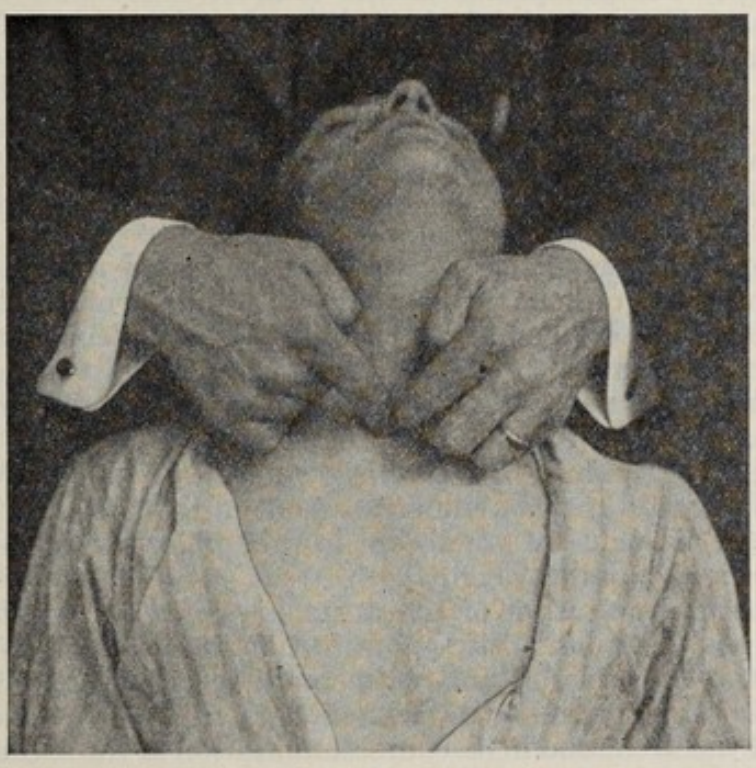


Fig. 146.—Position of Both Patient and Operator to Elicit Tracheal Tugging.

along the course of the great vessels. The murmur has a booming quality.

Aortic regurgitation may be considered as associated with aneurism near the aortic ring when a double murmur is heard. In a few instances the diastolic murmur alone is detected; when, however, well-marked aortic regurgitation is present, an accentuated ringing second sound is likely to be heard.

The Peripheral Arteries.—See Inequality of the Radial Pulses under Palpation, p. 195.

Sphygmographic Tracing.—"The sphygmogram exhibits a slanting up-stroke, with obliteration of the secondary wave though its characters are by no means constant" (Anders).

Laboratory Diagnosis.—If the aneurism rests directly upon a bronchus, cough is likely to be accompanied by free, and not uncommonly bloody, expectoration. If the bronchus becomes sufficiently compressed to give rise to bronchiectasis, the sputum is similar to that of the last-named affection. (See p. 104.) The Wassermann reaction is positive in

a fairly large percentage of all cases. Further clinical tests for the detection of syphilis (see Syphilis) should be employed in the absence of a positive Wassermann reaction.

X-ray Diagnosis.—This method of diagnosis is of unusual value in those cases in which the characteristic signs of aneurism are absent, and by its means deep-seated aneurisms of the aorta were detected weeks and even months before other definite symptoms or signs of this malady were apparent. In a large number of cases of aneurism the *x*-ray proved a positive means of diagnosis in every instance. (See *X*-ray Diagnosis, pp. 258, 263.) The extreme calcification of the smaller peripheral arteries is found in subjects where there is present parathyroid disease. During life it is possible through *x*-ray study to show the extensive calcification of both the large and small arteries.

At autopsy röntgenograms of the tongue, heart and other internal organs may show marked atheroma in event of parathyroid pathology.

Summary of Diagnosis.—This is based upon the following symptoms and signs: Pain, paroxysmal cough, hoarseness, and unilateral sweating. Among the signs characteristic of aneurism are inequality of the radial pulses and of the pupils, deformity with bulging of the chest, the protrusion of an expansile pulsating mass, and the presence of a distinct bruit over the site of the aneurism.

Differential Diagnosis.—Intrathoracic aneurism is to be distinguished from: (1) Pulmonary tuberculosis; (2) abnormal pulsation of the aorta; (3) pulsating empyema; (4) chronic adhesive pleurisy with displacement of the heart; and (5) new-growths of the mediastinum.

(1) **Pulmonary Tuberculosis.**—When the aneurism compresses a bronchus, bronchiectasis attended by cough, bronchorrhea, fever, and emaciation, may follow. In phthisis emaciation and fever are more pronounced, and tubercle bacilli are present in the sputum. The cardiovascular signs of aneurism are absent in tuberculosis and there is present evidences of rapid loss of weight.

(2) **Abnormal pulsation of the aorta** is present in neurotic subjects, mostly in females, and in aortic regurgitation; occasionally it is associated with retraction of the right lung, with spinal deformity, and with displacement of the aorta. *Aortic regurgitation* is frequently associated with aneurism of the arch, and in its course a dilatation of the ascending portion of the aorta often develops. The diagnosis of aneurism of the arch should not be made, therefore, in these cases, unless the physical signs and symptoms are unmistakable.

(3) **Pulsating empyema** can be confounded only with large aneurismal growths, and does not bear the same definite relation to the central long axis of the body as do aneurisms. In empyema the abnormal field of flatness is situated at the base of the lung; moreover, the pulsation is not expansile. The physical signs of aneurism are absent in empyema.

(4) **Chronic Adhesive Pleurisy with Displacement of the Heart.**—In this condition and in fibroid tuberculosis there may be extensive retraction of the lung, or the heart may be displaced as the result of adhesive bands, in consequence of which localized areas of pulsation are detected over the anterior surface of the chest. In adhesive pleurisy or fibroid tuberculosis the anterior surface of the chest is markedly distorted, and the physical signs of aneurism (pulsation, bruit, and alteration in the radial pulses) are absent.

(5) **New-growths of the Mediastinum.**—Both cancerous and sarcomatous involvement of the mediastinal glands may give rise to signs and symptoms closely resembling those of aneurism. Syphilitic growths of

the mediastinal glands are also likely to be mistaken for aneurism. In one case seen by us, that of a hospital patient suffering from locomotor ataxia, there was also present a large tumor in the mediastinum, as was shown by the *x*-ray; this patient presented most of the symptoms and many of the signs characteristic of aneurism, yet for three years of his stay in the hospital his physical condition remained practically the same, until finally he showed well-marked pulsation over the upper portion of the sternum. This case exemplifies the great difficulty with which aneurism is distinguished from a solid tumor of the mediastinum, and, indeed, early examination made by means of the *x*-ray favored the existence of solid growth, rather than that of aneurism, although the existence of aneurism at present is unmistakable.

Clinical Course.—The clinical course may, in selected cases, be similar to that of chronic valvular disease, although in the majority of instances a fatal termination follows—(1) Rupture of the aneurism with extensive hemorrhage into the large vessels, esophagus, trachea, mediastinum, pericardium, pleura, lung, spinal canal, and peritoneum; (2) general asthenia; (3) direct pressure; and (4) complicating diseases, among which pulmonary abscess, gangrene, tuberculosis, and fibrinous pneumonia are among the usual modes of termination.

ANEURISM OF THE ABDOMINAL AORTA

Remarks.—The favorite seat of abdominal aneurism is at or near the celiac axis. This form is less common than intrathoracic aneurism, although not rare. The aneurism may be of either the fusiform or the sacular variety.

Symptomatology.—The tumor may extend backward, but more frequently it comes forward. Projecting from the posterior wall, it usually erodes the vertebræ. Compression of the cord is likely to take place, producing paraplegia, which is preceded by tingling and numbness of the lower extremities.

Pain of a neuralgic or boring or gnawing character may be present, and is due to destruction of the bone. Rarely, the aneurism perforates the diaphragm, and finally ruptures into the pleura, lungs, or pericardium. When situated near the diaphragm, it may conceal itself until the sac has attained a comparatively large size. *Vomiting* and *gastric seizures* may be troublesome, and the fact that *embolism* of the superior mesenteric artery may occur and give rise to severe colicky pains must be remembered. *Jaundice* has been observed.

Physical Signs.—Inspection.—Epigastric pulsation and swelling may be visible.

Palpation.—There is a heaving, expansile pulsation that may be accompanied by a thrill. When the tumor hugs the diaphragm, the pulsation may be double in character. The femoral pulse is diminished and delayed.

Percussion shows an abnormal area of dullness when the tumor advances forward.

Auscultation.—A soft bruit is commonly elicited.

Differential Diagnosis.—In neurotic females, in advanced anemia, and in those having thin abdominal walls throbbing of the abdominal aorta may be unusually prominent. **New-growths** immediately overlying the aorta may also account for unusual pulsation of the abdomen, but such pulsation is not expansile in character. On placing the patient in the knee-chest position, if the abdominal pulsation is due to the new-growth, the mass tends to fall forward and the pulsation is less conspicuous.

Termination.—In rare instances nature effects a cure; as a rule, however, the case terminates by obliteration of the lumen by extensive clots, paraplegia from pressure of the cord, embolism of the mesenteric artery, and commonly by rupture into the abdomen or thorax.

ANEURISM OF THE PULMONARY ARTERY

General Remarks.—When aneurism of this artery attains sufficient size, the physical signs and symptoms in a measure resemble those of aneurism of the arch of the aorta. It is with great difficulty and only in selected cases that aneurism of the pulmonary artery can be diagnosed during life.

Aneurism of the *hepatic, splenic, renal,* and *inferior mesenteric arteries* may occur, but these are indeed difficult of diagnosis, and commonly manifest the general features of aneurism of the abdominal aorta when such aneurism attains sufficient size to give definite signs.

ARTERIOVENOUS ANEURISM

Pathologic Definition.—An artificial communication between an artery and a vein. An aneurismal sac may be located between the artery and the vein, or the fistulous communication may directly connect the artery and vein without any expanded portion separating the two vessels.

Diagnosis.—In common, the symptoms and certain signs are those of aneurism, previously outlined. Swelling develops, the veins become distended, the part becomes cyanotic, and edema is common. A thrill may be present, and is likely to be continuous. A continuous humming murmur, which is more pronounced during systole, is also an important sign.

Clinical Course.—Arteriovenous aneurism is, as a rule, a purely surgical condition.

DISEASES OF THE MEDIASTINUM

The affections of the mediastinum are classified as—(1) Inflammations; (2) tumors; (3) diseases of the thymus gland; and (4) hemorrhage into the mediastinum.

INFLAMMATIONS

Remarks.—Inflammation may be limited either to the glands or to the connective tissue, or, in selected cases, both may be involved. A moderate inflammatory process involving the gland (lymphadenitis) is commonly present in bronchitis and pneumonia, and is seen at times during the course of measles, influenza, and whooping-cough. Tuberculosis of the lymph-glands situated in the mediastinum may extend so as to produce definite physical signs, and inflammatory processes involving the tissues of this portion of the body may at times go on to the formation of abscess.

MEDIASTINAL ABSCESS

Predisposing Factors.—Traumatism is an exciting cause, and the abscess may also develop as a complication or sequel of certain of the acute infections, *e. g.*, small pox, erysipelas, and measles. Suppurative processes of the adjacent tissues may at times extend to the mediastinum, and tuberculosis of the mediastinal glands is generally conceded to be a potent factor in the production of abscess.

Principal Complaint.—Pain and tenderness over the sternum are the most prominent symptoms of abscess. At times the patient complains of a peculiar throbbing pain, which is, in a measure, characteristic of the accumulation of pus. Cough is, as a rule, present, and the patient frequently suffers from marked dyspnea. Chills, followed by profuse sweating and prostration, also occur. The *thermic features* are those characteristic of acute suppuration, *e. g.*, evening rise in temperature, with decided remissions during the morning hours. The abscess may rupture into the trachea, or the pus may descend to the layers of the diaphragm, and eventually escape into the abdominal cavity. Rupture into the pleura may also occur.

Physical Signs.—Probably the most important sign is obtained by **percussion.** By its means a variable area of dullness is discovered behind the sternum, this area increasing in size with the progress of the disease. In selected cases mediastinal abscess may perforate the chest-wall, when a distinct fluctuating mass is palpable. It should be remembered that abscess, when it extends outside the bony structure of the chest, may produce a pulsating mass that is to be distinguished from aneurism.

If the abscess is chronic in nature, both the symptoms and the signs may closely resemble those of a tumor of the mediastinum, and, indeed, the diagnosis is attained only with great difficulty.

Diagnosis.—The chief condition from which abscess is to be distinguished is aneurism of the arch of the aorta, and when the abscess develops slowly, this differentiation is made with great difficulty. There are certain features, however, that are, in a measure, characteristic of abscess; among these are chills, profuse sweating, prostration, and a hectic type of fever. Abscess ordinarily develops with great rapidity as compared to aneurism or solid growths of the mediastinum. The detection of a bruit serves to mark the existence of aneurism.

TUMORS OF THE MEDIASTINUM

Remarks.—There are two varieties of tumors of the mediastinum that deserve special attention, although other types may also be encountered, as is shown by Hare's statistical analysis of 520 cases, which included: Carcinoma, 134; sarcoma, 98; lymphoma, 21; fibroma, 7; dermoid cyst, 11; hydatid cyst, 8; lipoma, gumma, and chondroma were also found. The same author further observed that in 48 of the cases of carcinoma and in 33 of sarcoma the tumor was situated in the anterior mediastinum. Sarcoma may have its origin in the thymus or the lymphatic glands or pleura, and less often in the lung. It is to be remembered that carcinoma is a somewhat common lesion of the esophagus, thymus gland, and lungs, and secondary carcinoma of the mediastinum is most likely to involve the lymph-glands. (See *x*-ray, p. 264.)

Predisposing Factors.—**Sex.**—Males are more often affected than females. **Age** figures prominently, the majority of all cases being seen between the thirtieth and fortieth years.

Principal Complaint.—Early during the course of tumor of the mediastinum the patient is likely to be languid, and suffers from a variable degree of dyspnea and from vague substernal pains. Pain is probably the most constant symptom, and while it may not be severe in all cases, it is usually accompanied by the general features of oppression. It is oftenest situated in the upper sternal region, and from this point it may radiate to the sides of the chest, and at times down the arms. Pressure upon the brachial plexus is invariably followed by pain in the arms.

Dyspnea may be an early and annoying symptom, and may result from pressure upon the trachea, bronchus, and at times from entanglement and pressure of the recurrent laryngeal nerve. Asthmatic seizures are by no means uncommon, and are always accompanied by severe cough and paroxysmal dyspnea. When there is involvement of the recurrent laryngeal nerve, the patient notices that his voice is altered.

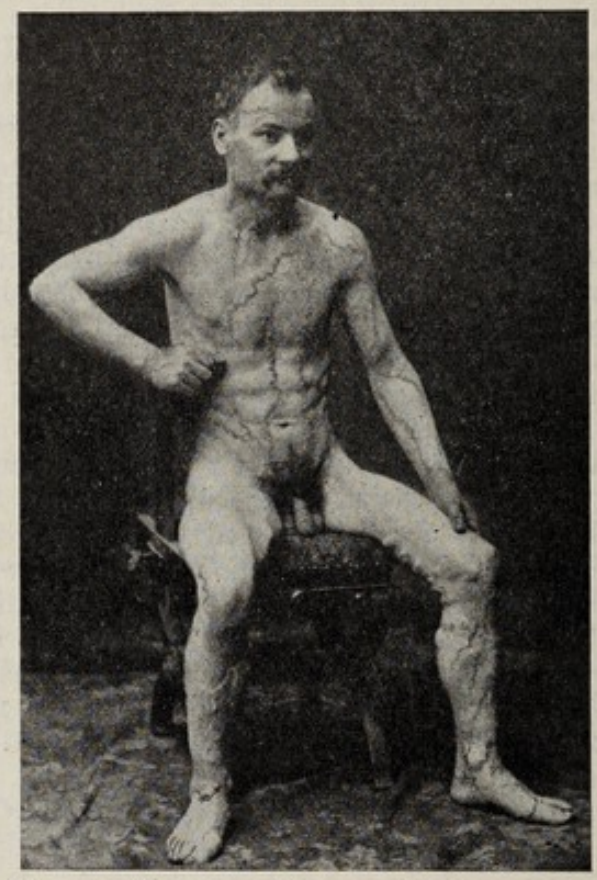


FIG. 147.—PRIVATE PATIENT, SHOWING MARKED DILATATION OF THE VEINS OF THE TRUNK, EXTREMITIES, AND HEAD AS A RESULT OF THORACIC TUMOR.

Physical Signs.—Inspection.—Owing to irritation of the sympathetic nerves areas of hyperemia may be found over different portions of the chest and face, and unilateral sweating and inequality of the pupils are often present. The superior vena cava and other veins of the upper portion of the body may be compressed, in consequence of which there are edema and prominence of the veins of the head and neck, and at times swelling of the arms and dilatation of the superficial veins (Figs. 142 and 148). Pressure from the growth may also cause distention of the veins of the anterior surface of the chest and abdomen, the latter resulting from the establishment of collateral circulation. The inferior vena cava may be compressed, but this occurs far less frequently than interference of the venous circulation of the upper portion of the body. There is likely to be bulging of the sternum, and in selected cases erosion of the sternum follows. Rapidly growing lymphoid tumors are those most likely to perforate the chest-wall.

Palpation.—The pulsation of the heart or of the aorta may be felt quite distinctly over a solid tumor, yet expansile pulsation is not observed. The tactile fremitus is decreased over the area occupied by the growth. In those cases in which there is irritation of the vagus or sympathetic nerves, the pulse will be either slowed or appreciably quickened, depending upon the degree of irritation offered by the growth.

Percussion.—A localized area of dullness is one of the most characteristic signs of mediastinal tumor, and may be detected even in the absence of other definite signs and symptoms.

Auscultation.—The absence of breath sounds over the dull area is highly suggestive of solid growth of the mediastinum, whereas in aneurism a distinct bruit is the rule. Both breath-sounds and voice-sounds are indistinct over the tumor, and in the majority of cases the heart-sounds are heard but feebly over this area.

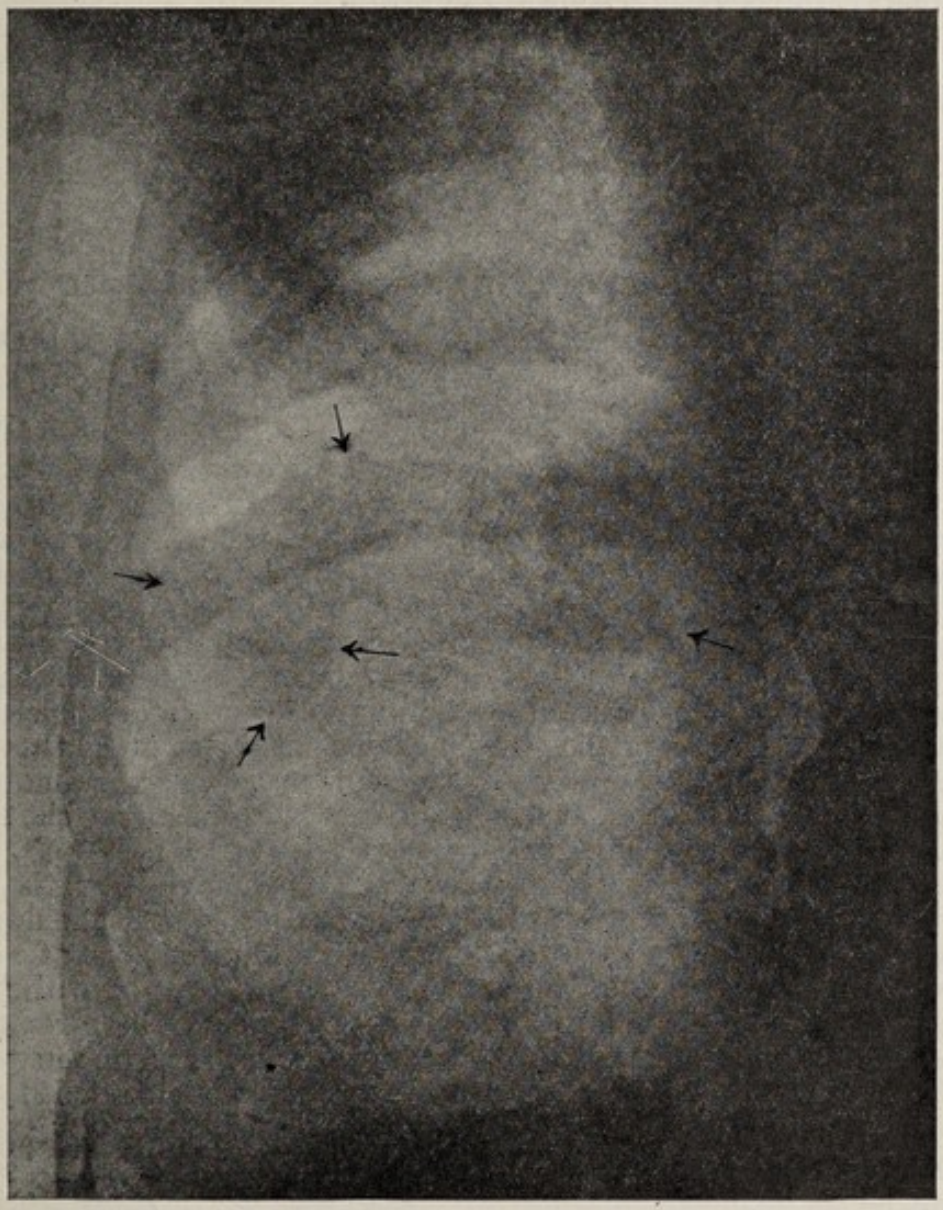


FIG. 148.—RIGHT SIDE OF CHEST.
Shadows of what may be a metastatic growth, and the radiations from the central mass. Private patient shown in Fig. 147.

X-Ray Diagnosis.—This method of diagnosis is of unusual value for the detection of tumors of the mediastinum, and it is claimed that by its means it is possible, in practically all cases, to distinguish between aneurism and solid growths of the mediastinum. (See *x*-Ray Diagnosis, pp. 258, 461.)

Clinical Course.—In a large proportion of all cases this is of short duration, varying from six months to one year, although cases have been

encountered in which mediastinal growths continued their course for from two to three years. There is at present under care of one of us the case of an engineer in whom tumor of the mediastinum was diagnosticated nearly six years ago.

MEDIASTINAL HEMORRHAGE

Remarks.—There may be an effusion of blood into the mediastinal connective tissue following rupture of aneurism of the arch of the aorta. Hemorrhage, as a rule, follows pathologic conditions of the vessels of the thorax, and it rarely results from traumatism.

THE BLOOD

LABORATORY EXAMINATION OF THE BLOOD

CLEANSING OF SLIDES AND COVER-GLASSES PREPARATORY TO MAKING A MICROSCOPIC STUDY OF THE BLOOD

Both slides and cover-glasses should be cleansed for use in the following manner: Place a number of cover-glasses or slides in a glass containing warm water and soap: stir with a glass rod, then remove each cover-glass or slide separately, place upon a thin handkerchief, and rub gently between the thumb and forefinger. After it has been thoroughly dried, drop it into a second glass containing warm water. After all the slides have been transferred in this manner from the soap and water to the second glass, stir again with the glass rod, and after repeating the previous treatment, transfer them to a third glass, containing 70 per cent. alcohol. The treatment in the alcohol should be the same as that just outlined, after which the cover-glasses should be placed in a wide-mouthed bottle containing equal parts of alcohol and ether, in which they should be allowed to remain until required for use.

Caution.—All cover-glasses and slides should be removed from the solution in which they are kept by means of clean forceps. They should then be dried with a soft linen or silk handkerchief, and placed one at a time in a Petri dish, the bottom of which has been neatly covered with filter-paper. After the desired number of slides or covers have been removed, the dish should be covered and set on a warm stage or in an incubator, in order that the slides may be warm when the blood is applied, thus facilitating an equal distribution throughout the smear.

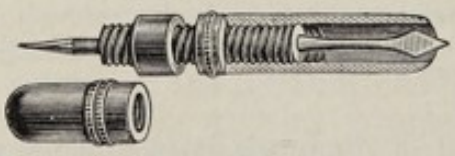


FIG. 149.—DALAND'S BLOOD-LANCET.

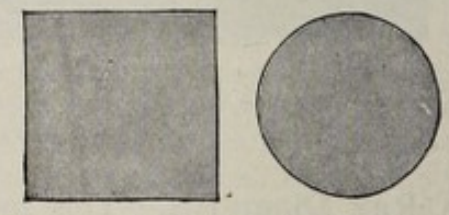


FIG. 150.—STYLES OF COVER-GLASSES.

COLLECTION OF BLOOD

The points of election for the collection of blood are the lobe of the ear and the palmar surface of the finger, near its tip. The method to be described is employed in all clinical work except in bacteriologic study. It is performed as follows:

If the finger is chosen as the site for puncture, the tip should be cleansed with water, rubbed gently with a soft cloth, and later moistened with ether. After the ether has evaporated the finger is grasped between the thumb and index-finger of the left hand, and the instrument with which the puncture is to be made, having first been cleansed with water and alcohol, is quickly plunged into the tip. The depth of this puncture should vary from one-eighth to one quarter of an inch, depending on the thickness of the skin. Gentle pressure may be applied to start the blood, after which four or five drops of the first blood exuded should be removed with a soft handkerchief. When the ear-lobe is chosen, the same precautions just laid down are to be observed. The puncture may be made with Daland's blood-lancet (Fig. 149), or with one nib of a new steel pen.

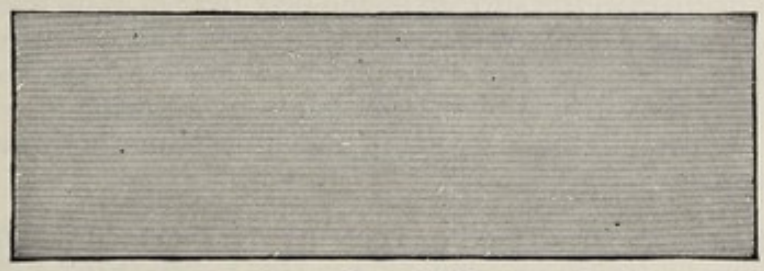


FIG. 151.—GLASS SLIDES (NATURAL SIZE).

STUDY OF FRESH BLOOD

After the first few drops have been removed by the handkerchief and a fairly large-sized drop exudes spontaneously, the cover-glass (Fig. 150), which has been warmed, is held by its edge between the thumb and index-finger, and the summit of the drop of blood is allowed to touch the center of the cover-glass, care being taken that the surface of the glass does not come into contact with the skin. The cover-glass is allowed to fall gently upon the center of a slide (Fig. 151); the weight of the cover-glass causes the blood to spread between it and the slide.

Caution.—When pressure is applied to spread the blood, the cellular elements are likely to become distorted, hence reliable deductions cannot be drawn from the microscopic appearance of the specimens. The slide may now be carried to the microscope, and examined by an objective desired.

This examination is most essential in the study of malarial and other blood parasites. It acquaints us with the degree of leukocytosis; the character and the degree of viscosity, the presence of rouleaux formation; the size and conformation of the red cells.

Clinical Significance.—Extreme pallor and swelling of the red cells are conclusive evidence that the osmotic tension of the serum is low, and, as a consequence, the erythrocytes are swollen and have given up a certain percentage of their hemoglobin. Deformity of the erythrocytes may result from alterations in the viscosity and in the osmotic tension. The degree of viscosity depends upon the perfection of rouleaux formation, and where the cells are aggregated in dense masses, hyperviscosity exists; on the other hand, if the red cells are equally disseminated throughout the field, hypoviscosity obtains. The leukocytes are increased when more than two or three white blood-cells are to be seen in a single microscopic field of living blood ($\frac{1}{12}$ oil-immersion objective employed).

Smears.—When smears are to be made, the foregoing process is modified only in so far that the cover-glass, with its specimen of blood, is

allowed to fall upon another cover-glass in such a manner that the edge of the one projects beyond that of the other; after the blood has spread, these overlapping margins are grasped between the thumb and index-finger of each hand and separated by sliding off horizontally. They are then placed upon a flat surface, specimen side up, and allowed to dry in the air, after which they may be placed together and kept for an indefinite period without further treatment.

A more satisfactory method for the beginner and for class work is to make the smears on slides. The slide upon which the smear is to be made is placed upon the table; a second slide is grasped between the thumb and index-finger, and the short edge of this slide is brought in contact with the summit of the drop of blood in such a manner that the blood collects on the under surface of the edge. The second slide is now placed at an angle of about 45 degrees to the surface of the first (which rests upon the table), and is then pushed evenly over the surface of the slide for its entire length. The object is to transfer the drop of blood collected on the edge of the second slide to the surface of the first slide by allowing it to smear. Far less skill is required to make good spreads by this method than by the use of cover-glasses.

ESTIMATION OF COAGULATION BY THE COAGULOMETER

Boggs' Coagulometer.—The most practical coagulometer is probably the Boggs modification of the Brodie-Russell instrument. The instrument consists of a round metal chamber with a glass bottom. A truncated cone of clear glass, the free surface of which is 4 millimeters in diameter, fits into this chamber from the top. A capillary metal tube projects into the chamber from the side in such a way that the point is just below the free surface of the truncated glass cone. This tube carries a small rubber bulb and tubing, of the kind used for operating the shutter of a camera, on its outer end. The chamber is placed on the stage of a microscope, the rubber bulb and tubing being in place. The free surface of the truncated glass cone is then touched to a drop of blood exuding from a puncture made in the usual manner, and is then placed in position in the chamber. The two-thirds lens of the microscope is then focused on the drop of blood, and gentle pressure is made on the rubber bulb, so that a fine jet of air plays on it. At first the corpuscles are seen moving separately parallel with the circumference of the drop, then in clumps parallel with the circumference of the drop, then with an elastic movement forward and backward parallel with the circumference of the drop, and finally radially inward and outward from the circumference toward the center of the drop. When the latter movement is obtained, coagulation is

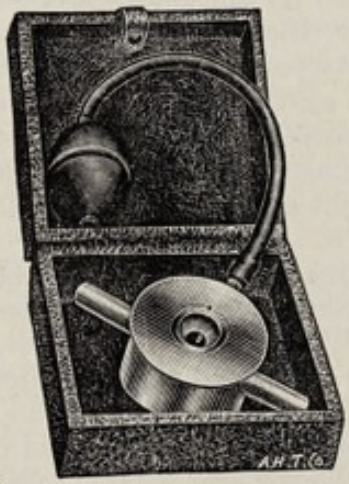


Fig. 152.—Brodie-Russell-Boggs Coagulometer.

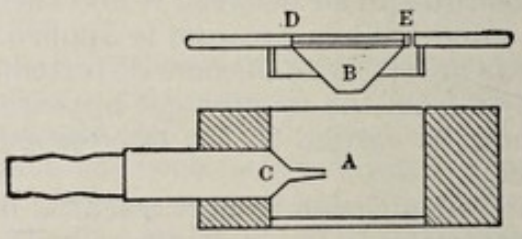


Fig. 152*a*.—Boggs' Modification of the Coagulometer of Russell and Brodie (Emerson).

complete. The time at which the blood begins to flow from the puncture and the time at which the radial elastic movement above described should be noted, the difference between the two being the time necessary for coagulation. The average time necessary for coagulation in normal individuals is about five minutes and six seconds (Hinman and Sladen).

Hess Viscosimeter.—In the Hess viscosimeter, we have a reasonably accurate method for the clinical determination of blood viscosity, utilizing only a small amount of fluid. The measuring tubes are conveniently mounted on a graduated opal glass plate, which carries also a thermometer. A new laboratory form has recently been announced, by which accurate temperature control can be obtained and more accurate readings taken.

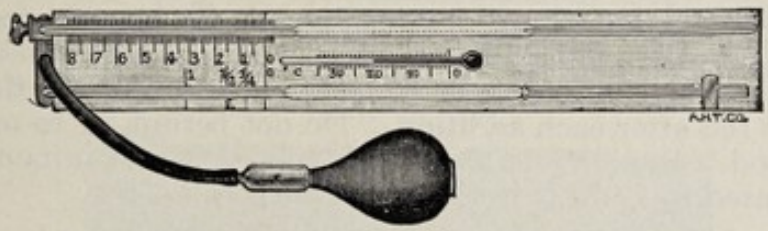


FIG. 153.—HESS VISCOSIMETER. CLINICAL MODEL.

Air Bubble Clotting Test.—This method was first suggested by Lenoble, and is conducted in the following manner:

1. The tube ordinarily used for counting blood is nearly filled by the fresh capillary blood.
2. The small air bubble on the upper surface of the blood will be found to move readily with the movement of the tube, when the tube is in a horizontal position.
3. When coagulation begins the bubble of air will be seen to change its position and shape sluggishly upon the movement of the tube. This designates the beginning of coagulation, and consequently marks the clotting time.

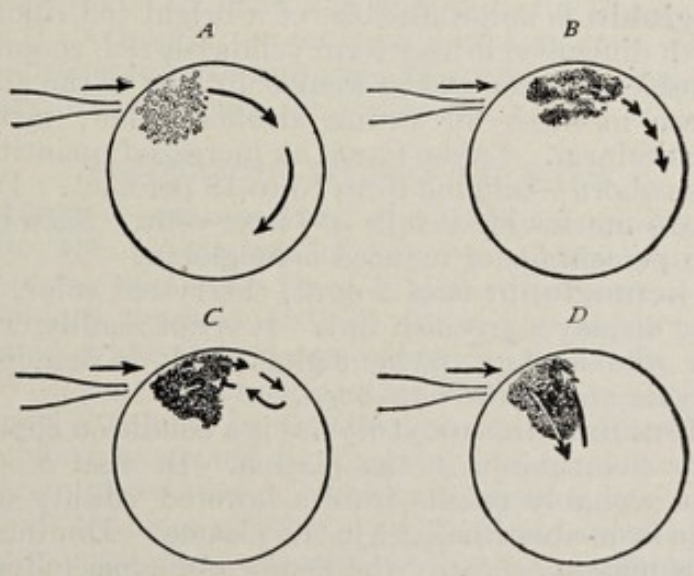


FIG. 154.—DIAGRAM SHOWING THE MOVEMENT OF THE CELLS DURING COAGULATION (Emerson).

SPECIFIC GRAVITY OF THE BLOOD

The most available method for clinical use for ascertaining the specific gravity of the blood is that suggested by Hammerschlag,* which is a modification of Roy's† method.

* Wien. med. Woch., 1890, vol. iii, p. 1018.
† Proceedings Phys. Soc., 1894.

Hammerschlag's Method.—Two solutions (chloroform and benzol) are mixed in a urinometer glass in such proportions that the specific gravity, taken by an ordinary urinometer, is 1.059, or that of normal blood; the first of these solutions is heavier than blood, whereas the second is lighter. The finger is punctured, a drop of blood is collected in a Thoma-Zeiss pipet, and a drop or two is blown into the chloroform-benzol solution. The blood shows no tendency to mix with this solution, but floats as a ruby bead. If the beads sink to the bottom, chloroform should be added, and if they rise to the top, benzol should be added drop by drop until the blood remains stationary in the body of the liquid. Since the specific gravity of the blood is that of the mixture surrounding it, the specific gravity of this liquid should be taken by means of an ordinary urinometer; the graduation figure obtained equals the specific gravity of the blood.

Caution.—Add chloroform or benzol, a few drops at a time, stirring with a glass rod after each addition. Do not permit air to mix with the drop of blood. Rapidity is absolutely necessary. A urinometer with a scale graduated to 1.070 is best for this purpose.

HEMOGLOBIN

This proteid contains nearly 96 per cent. of albumin and 4 per cent. of pigment (hemochromogen). In the red cells hemogoblin probably exists in combination with the nucleoproteid of the stroma. Its spectroscopic relations, however, are constant. While in the circulation it exists in the veins principally as reduced hemoglobin, and in the arteries, on account of molecular union with oxygen, it occurs as oxyhemoglobin. Each gram of saturated oxyhemoglobin contains 1.16 c.c. of oxygen, but this degree of saturation varies greatly. The percentage of hemoglobin in an American varies from 85 to 95 during health; 75 to 85 is normal for the Chinese.

Oxyhemoglobin is non-diffusible, of a bright red color, and while it crystallizes with difficulty, it may form yellowish-red, rhombic plates that are readily soluble in water and in weak solutions of the alkaline carbonates. They are insoluble in strong alcohol, ether, carbon disulphid, benzol, and chloroform. Labbe found an increased quantity of oxyhemoglobin in the newborn—ranging from 15 to 18 per cent. During the first ten days of extra-uterine life it falls to 14 per cent. Such bloods likewise contain a high percentage of reduced hemoglobin.

Reduced hemoglobin is of a dark, cherry-red color, but after high dilution it may display a greenish tint. It is not readily crystallized, but is more freely soluble than oxyhemoglobin. It is demonstrable in the blood of asphyxia and of the new-born.

Hemoglobinemia (**hemocytolysis**) is a condition characterized by a solution of the hemoglobin in the plasma. In man it is a pathologic condition that probably results from a lowered vitality of the erythrocytes, and also from abnormalities in the plasma. Diminished resistance of the red cells may accompany the hemoglobinemia following extensive burns, whereas the hemoglobinemia seen after poisoning may, in part at least, be due to changes in the serum.

Methemoglobin displays a brownish-red color, and crystallizes as brownish-red needles, prisms, and hexagonal plates. It is readily soluble in water, and contains about the same proportion of oxygen as oxyhemoglobin, but the oxygen appears to have formed a somewhat firm union. It is observed in poisoning.

Carbonic-oxid hemoglobin is the name applied to hemoglobin containing CO, which gives the blood a rose-red or bluish color. Its crystals display a slightly bluish tint and are easily dissolved. It is present after poisoning by inhalation of illuminating gas, and in automobile exhaust gas poisoning and may remain in the blood for a period of several days.

Hematin appears in the feces after gastro-intestinal hemorrhage, in bloody transudates and effusions, and in the urine after poisoning with arsenic.

Hematoidin is a derivative of hemoglobin, and appears either in the form of needles or as rhombic plates of a light- or dark-orange hue, soluble in ether, carbon disulphid, ammonium disulphid, and chloroform. It absorbs most of the violet end of the spectrum, but does not contain iron.

Hematoidin is present in bloody exudates of long standing, and in the urine after traumatism to the kidney (Yarrow).

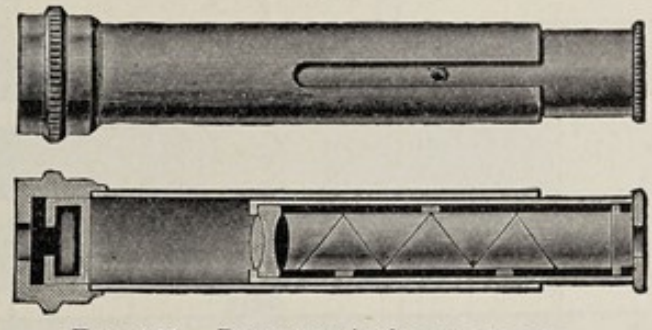


FIG. 155.—BROWNING'S SPECTROSCOPE.

Hemosiderin results from the destruction of hemoglobin; it is amorphous, and occurs in the viscera after extensive blood destruction.

Melanin is a yellowish-brown or black pigment. It is insoluble in water, alcohol, chloroform, ether, and weak acids, but is soluble in strong alkalis. It is destroyed by heat, and does not give the reaction for iron. It results from the action of the malarial parasites upon the hemoglobin, and should be distinguished from other pigments, which may or may not contain iron, and whose origins are unknown.

SPECTROSCOPIC STUDY OF THE BLOOD

The spectroscopic examination of the blood serves as the most reliable test for the recognition of blood-pigments, and also for the determination of the particular form of pigment present. A 1 per cent. solution is found to produce distinct absorption-bands, and when the blood has become dried, it is necessary to dissolve it by macerating in acetic acid. With such blood the spectrum of acid hematin is obtained. Blood from recent clots may be dissolved in water. When heat has been applied to the blood, it should be macerated in a solution of ammonia, when the spectrum of reduced or alkaline hematin appears. Browning's spectroscope (Fig. 155) is a satisfactory instrument for the purpose when strong daylight is employed. A collar serves to enlarge or diminish the aperture, and will be found necessary when different strengths of light and also when fluids of varying opacities are used. Fraunhofer's lines are bought into focus by careful adjustment of the tube. The fluid to be examined should be placed in small glass vials with flattened surfaces. The spectrum of fresh arterial blood is that of oxyhemoglobin, and shows two absorption-bands, between D and E (Fig. 156); one of these is sharp, dark, and well-defined near the orange, E. The indigo and most of the

blue will be absorbed, and in strong solutions of oxyhemoglobin these two bands may unite.

If ammonium sulphid is added to such solutions, the color of the fluid becomes dark, and the spectrum changes to that of reduced hemoglobin, when one band of absorption occurs between D and E (Fig. 156). A positive indication of the presence of blood is evidenced by the fact that the spectrum may be transformed from that of oxyhemoglobin to that of reduced hemoglobin by the addition of reducing agents to the solution. Cochineal and ammoniated carmin give spectra simulating the spectrum of oxyhemoglobin. The addition of boric acid to a solution of these substances causes their spectra to be displayed by the blue, whereas the spectrum of the blood is unchanged. Other of the vegetable dyes have

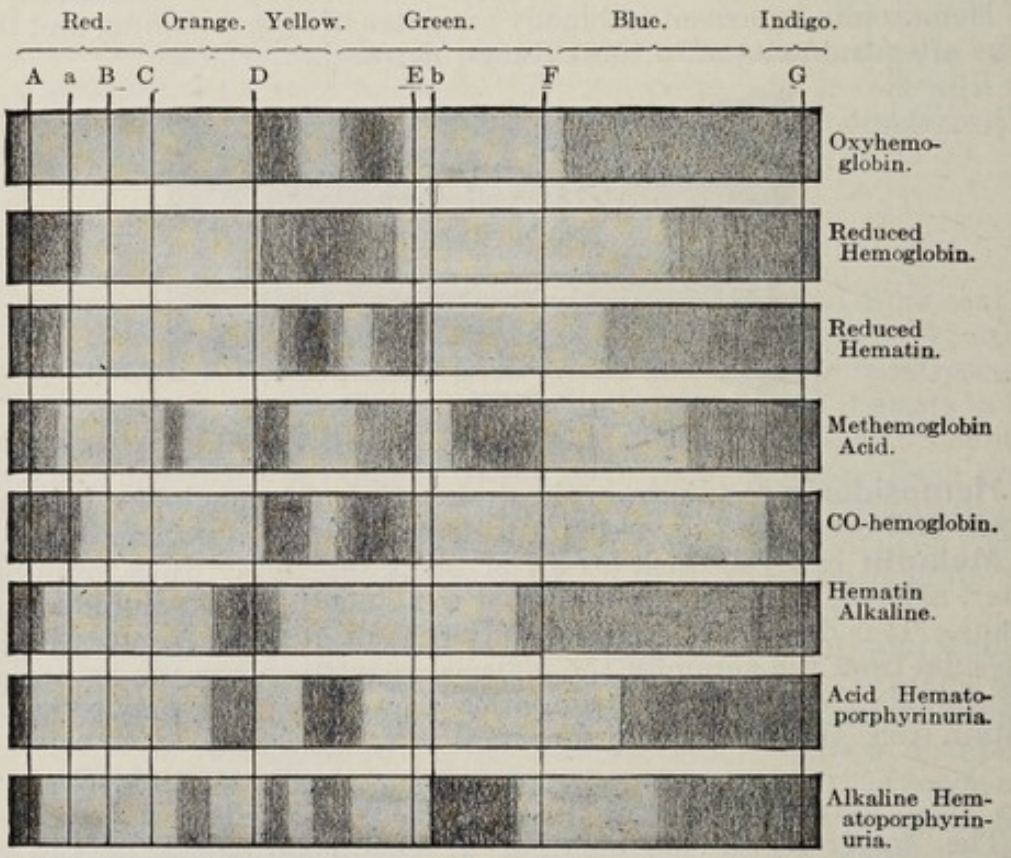


FIG. 156.—DIAGRAM OF THE SPECTRA OF EIGHT SUBSTANCES KNOWN TO CONCERN US FROM A DIAGNOSTIC STANDPOINT (Boston).

spectra simulating those of blood, but these become pale upon adding sodium bisulphite.

Methemoglobin.—Hematin is produced by adding acids or strong alkalis to blood. In acid solution the spectrum simulates that of acid methemoglobin, whereas in alkaline solution it gives a broad band at D (Fig. 156). An important clinical finding is the change of oxyhemoglobin into methemoglobin; this is revealed by the chocolate color of the blood, and by the fact that in acid or neutral solution it gives four absorption-bands: one quite distinct, between C and D; a second faint narrow band in the yellow, just to the right of D; a third broad, fairly distinct band, between the yellow and the green, just to the left of E; and a fourth broad band, to the left of F, sometimes extending beyond the line F into the blue.

Carbonic-oxid hemoglobin is present in cases of poisoning by illuminating gas, and may be detected by the rose-red color it lends to both arterial and venous blood. A 0.5 per cent. dilution of such blood gives a spectrum that differs from that of oxyhemoglobin only in that its bands are broader and that the band at D is displaced to the right. The addition of ammonium sulphid causes the spectrum of oxyhemoglobin to be replaced by that of reduced hemoglobin, whereas that of carbonic-oxid hemoglobin is unchanged.

Von Fleischl's Hemoglobinometer

This instrument consists of a stand that somewhat resembles the base and table of a microscope; a cylindric diluting chamber with a glass bottom, divided into halves; a plaster-of-Paris reflector; a graduated color prism; a thumb-screw adjustment; and a capillary tube.

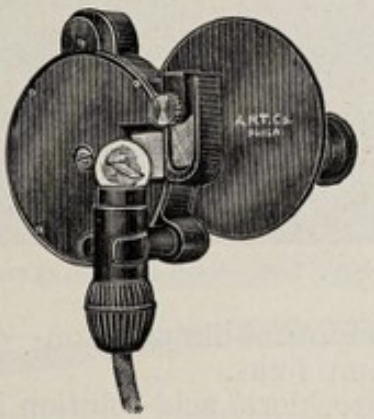


Fig. 157.—The Dare Hemoglobinometer with Camera Obscura for the Occlusion of Daylight.

The camera obscura attachment is interchangeable with the candle holder of any Dare Hemoglobinometer.

The electric unit consists of a small electric lamp enclosed in the camera obscura; a flash light battery handle or a reduction unit screwed into any lamp socket, the voltage and amperage is reduced automatically to the required intensity for the illumination of the blood film and color scale.

Sahli Hemometer

The Sahli hemometer is composed of a frame divided into two compartments, having a back made of ground glass. A tube containing a standard solution of acid hematin fits in one of the compartments, and the other is occupied by a tube of the same size graduated from 10 to 140 (Fig. 158).

There is a capillary pipet graduated at 20 cubic millimeters, and a larger pipet for adding the diluting fluid, which is decinormal solution of hydrochloric acid. In order to operate the instrument the graduated tube is filled to the 10 mark with the diluting fluid. Blood is then drawn into the capillary pipet up to the 20 cubic millimeter mark, and this is gently blown into the diluting fluid, care being taken to prevent the formation of bubbles. The capillary pipet is then washed out two or three times with the diluting fluid, the washings being added to the contents of the graduated tube. The mixture of blood and diluting fluid is now further diluted with decinormal hydrochloric acid solution or with distilled water until its color matches the color of the standard tube of acid hematin. The percentage of hemoglobin is then read from the scale on the graduated

tube. The advantages of the Sahli hemoglobinometer are, first, that acid hematin is compared with acid hematin; and, second, that the comparison

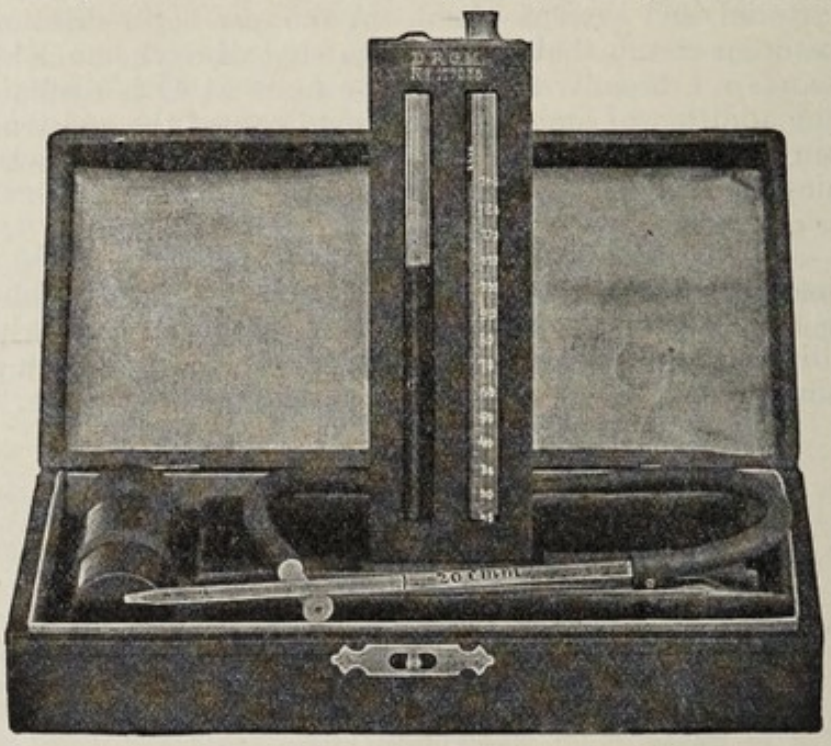


FIG. 158.—SAHLI HEMOMETER.

can be made with any form of illumination—daylight, gaslight, electric light, candle light, or lamp light.

The decinormal hydrochloric acid solution is prepared by adding 15 cubic centimeters of strong hydrochloric acid to enough distilled water to make 1000 cubic centimeters.

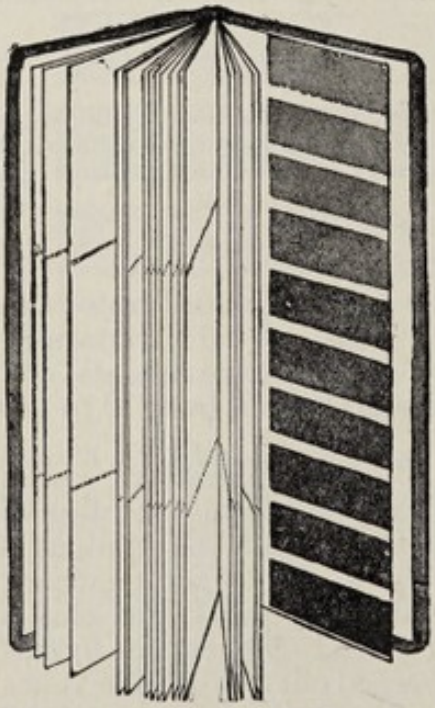


FIG. 159.—TALLQVIST'S HEMOGLOBIN SCALE.

BLOTTING-PAPER TEST FOR HEMOGLOBIN

Tallqvist has devised a color scale, which is accompanied by a booklet containing small sheets of a prepared paper. The color scale is graduated from 10 to 100. The summit of a rather large drop of blood is touched with the paper, and as soon as the blood has been distributed over that portion of the paper which it will occupy, the paper is laid beside the color scale, and moved until it matches one of the color blocks (Fig. 159). This method will prove satisfactory for average clinical work, and one with limited experience will obtain better results from this simple method than from the more elaborate methods previously described.

COUNTING OF THE BLOOD-CORPUSCLES

Method of Thoma-Zeiss.—Among the many instruments devised for this purpose, that of Thoma-Zeiss, with Zappert's modification of the ruling of the counting chamber, is doubtless the best. The method of using the Thoma-Zeiss instrument is as follows:

1. The part to be punctured is cleansed, and the drop of blood obtained in the manner previously described. In addition it is necessary that the blood be diluted for this purpose, and the following solution will be found satisfactory for the purpose:

Toisson's Mixture

Methyl-violet	0.025 gm.
Sodium sulphate	8.000 gm.
Sodium chlorid	1.000 gm.
Pure glycerin	30.000 c.c.
Distilled water	160.000 c.c.

This solution will preserve the red cells for twenty-four hours, and its specific gravity is such that the cells precipitate slowly. It stains the leukocytes a violet tint. This solution keeps well, but should be filtered

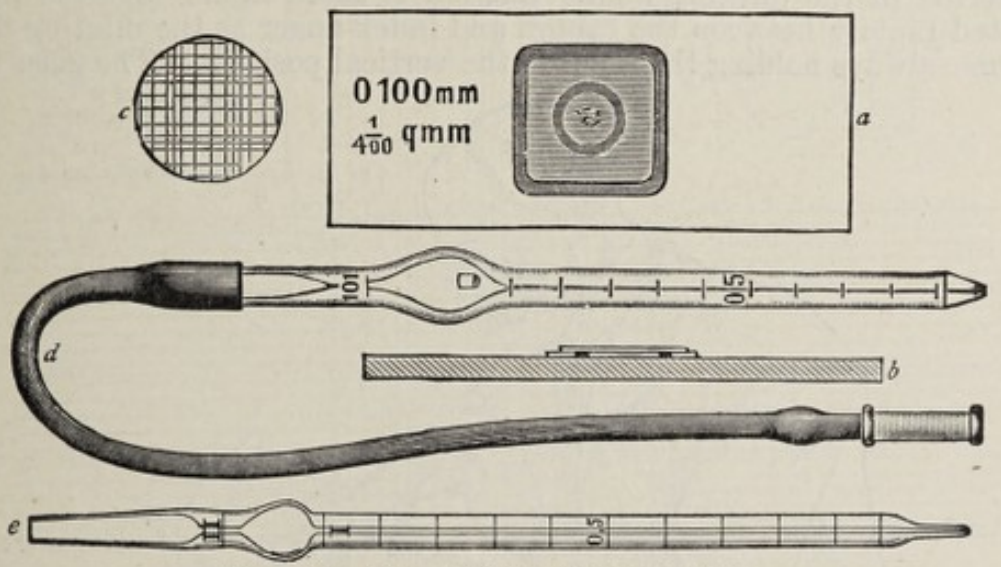


FIG. 160.—THOMA-ZEISS HEMOCYTOMETER.

a, Slide used in counting; *b*, sectional view; *c*, portion of ruled bottom of well; *d*, red pipet; *e*, white pipet.

whenever it displays the slightest cloudiness. A 0.5 per cent. solution of glacial acetic acid is used as a diluent when the white cells are to be counted. It should be remembered that acetic acid decolorizes the red cells and renders them transparent, so that, although the microscopic field is filled with red cells, they are not visible. Acetic acid also darkens the leukocytes and renders their protoplasm more granular, which makes these cells more conspicuous.

The pipet for the counting of the red cells consists of a glass tube with an expanded portion near one end, which contains a glass ball. Below this expansion it is graduated into tenths to 1, and above the expanded portion to 101 (Fig. 160). To one end of this tube a piece of rubber tubing is attached, which has a bone nipple at its other extremity (see also Thoma-Levy, p. 368).

The pipet for the estimation of the white cells differs only in that it is larger and is graduated in tenths to 1, and then above the expanded portion to 11. It will readily be seen that after the pipet for the red cells is filled with blood to 1, and then the solution is added until it reaches 101, the dilution of the blood will be 1 part of blood and 99 parts of the diluent, since there are 100 parts of solution between 1 and 101. The rubber tubing is now removed, the tube is shaken for two minutes, and the 1 part in the graduated portion is blown out.

The white pipet, when filled to 1 with blood, and the solution added to reach 11, gives us a dilution of 1 part of blood and 9 parts of the diluent. A dilution of 1 to 20, or even 1 to 40, is more satisfactory when a high degree of leukocytosis exists.

The diluting fluids should be carefully watched, lest they become cloudy or contain any sediment that may obstruct the lumen of the capillary tube. The tip of the pipet is bought into contact with the summit of the drop of blood collected from either the ear or the finger, and gentle suction applied to the rubber tube, the nipple of which is placed between the lips.

When the blood is drawn to the desired graduation, the tongue is placed against the opening of the nipple, and the tube is withdrawn from the drop, its tip cleansed with a soft towel, and the end of the tube now immersed in the diluting fluid. Suction is again made, and the pipet rotated rapidly between the thumb and index-finger as the diluting fluid enters—always holding the pipet in the vertical position. The glass ball



FIG. 161.—METHOD OF COLLECTING BLOOD INTO THE GRADUATED PIPET (Boston).

in the expanded portion facilitates dissemination of the blood throughout the diluting fluid, and when sufficient fluid has been added to reach the 101 graduation, the tongue is again placed over the opening of the nipple, and the tube withdrawn from the solution. The rubber tube should be removed from the pipet, and after shaking for two minutes, the diluting fluid occupying the tube below its expanded portion should be blown out, since it plays no part in the dilution.

Method of Counting.—The next thing to be considered in the process for estimating the number of the blood-cells is the slide, which contains at its center a chamber divided into 400 squares, each of these squares being $\frac{1}{20}$ mm. square and $\frac{1}{10}$ mm. deep, and having a capacity of $\frac{1}{10}$ by $\frac{1}{20}$ by $\frac{1}{20} = \frac{1}{4000}$ c.mm. (Fig. 162). This chamber is surrounded by a narrow channel. Every group of 16 of these small squares is surrounded by a double row of lines, and is known as a great square (Fig. 162).

There is a special ground cover-glass which must be brought in direct apposition with the slide in order that each of the squares be exactly $\frac{1}{10}$ mm. in depth. The tube containing the diluted blood is rotated rapidly between the thumb and finger for two minutes. From four to eight

drops of blood are forced out of the pipet by blowing through the rubber tube. A single drop is made to collect at the tip of the pipet and transferred to the center of the slide. Place the special cover-glass upon the edge of the raised portion of the slide. The forefingers are placed upon the cover-glass, while the second fingers and thumbs hold the slide at its corners. The forefingers are forced forward, using firm pressure until the cover-glass has passed beyond the opposite margin of the channel that surrounds the graduated chamber.

Counting the Erythrocytes.—In the estimation of erythrocytes all corpuscles touching upon the top and left-hand boundary line are

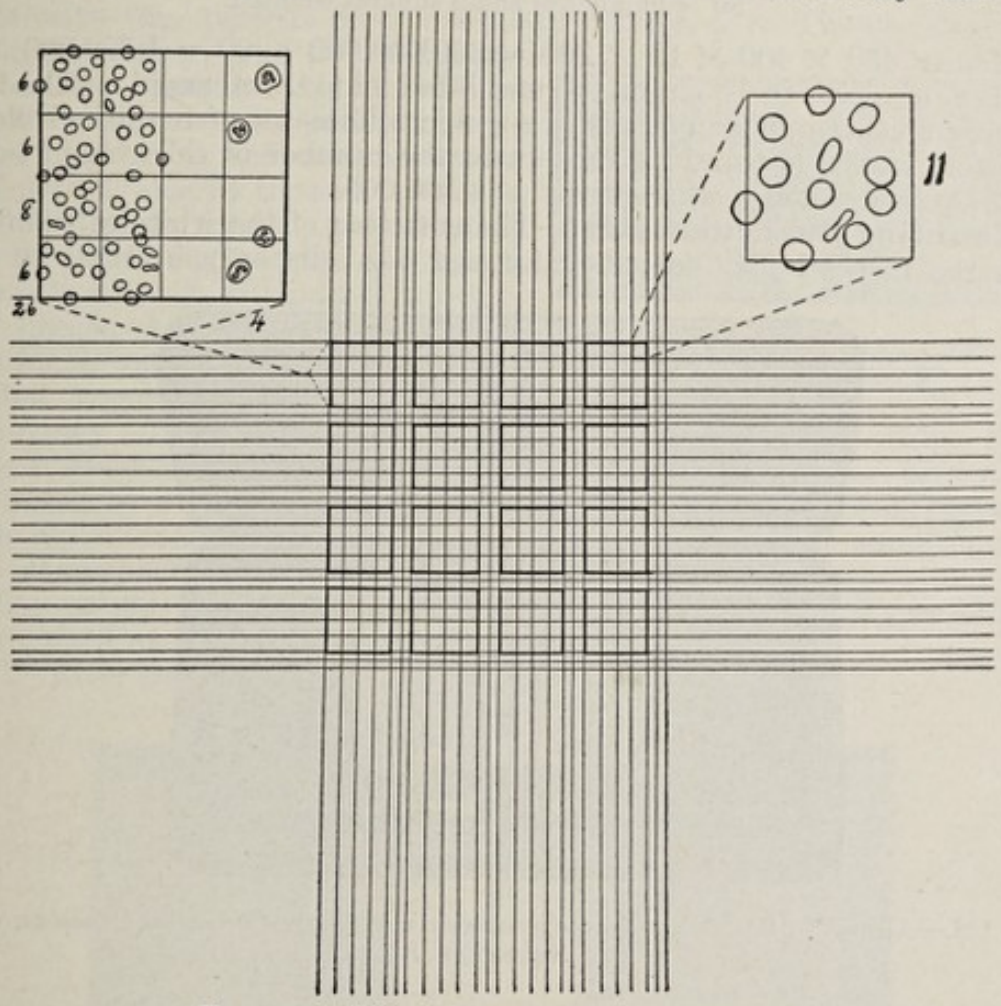


FIG. 162.—THOMA-ZEISS COUNTING CHAMBER.

Capacity, $\frac{1}{4000}$ c.mm. Sixteen great squares, heavily outlined, within the cross-lines, and bounded by double lines. Each great square contains 16 small squares. Each small square is $\frac{1}{10}$ mm. in depth by $\frac{1}{20}$ mm. square; $\frac{1}{10} \times \frac{1}{20} \times \frac{1}{20} = \frac{1}{1000}$ c.mm. Projected to upper left corner is one great square showing arrangement of red cells and number in each small square; also leukocytes in last column. Right hand shows small square containing 11 red cells. The floor of the chamber is ruled into 400 small squares (Boston).

included in the square, whereas those resting upon the right and bottom lines are to be included in the count of the contiguous squares. (See Fig. 162.) In this way the cells in the left-hand column can easily be counted, passing to the adjacent right-hand column until the four columns have been counted, which will give the total number of blood-cells for one great square—16 small squares. The slide is now moved, and 4 other great squares are counted in a similar manner. A mechanical stage greatly facilitates this process, yet it is not absolutely necessary.

Having found the number of cells in 5 great squares, we return to the degree of dilution and the capacity of the small squares as the other factors for the estimation of the number of red cells in a cubic millimeter. For example, if the dilution has been 1 in 200, and the number of red cells found in 5 great squares (80 small squares), 87, 95, 93, 86, 89 respectively, a total of 450, then—

450 = number of cells.
$\frac{1}{400}$ mm. = area of small square.
$\frac{1}{10}$ mm. = depth of small square.
1 : 200 = dilution.
80 = number of small squares counted.

Hence $450 \times 400 \times 10 \times 200 = 360{,}000{,}000 \div 80 = 4{,}500{,}000$, the number of cells in 1 c.mm. of undiluted blood. A rapid method of arriving at the number of cells in a cubic millimeter of undiluted blood (dilution 1:200) is to add 4 ciphers to the number of cells found in 80 small squares,—450,—which gives us 4,500,000.

Counting the Leukocytes.—The counting of the white cells differs from the method just described for the red cells only in that we are

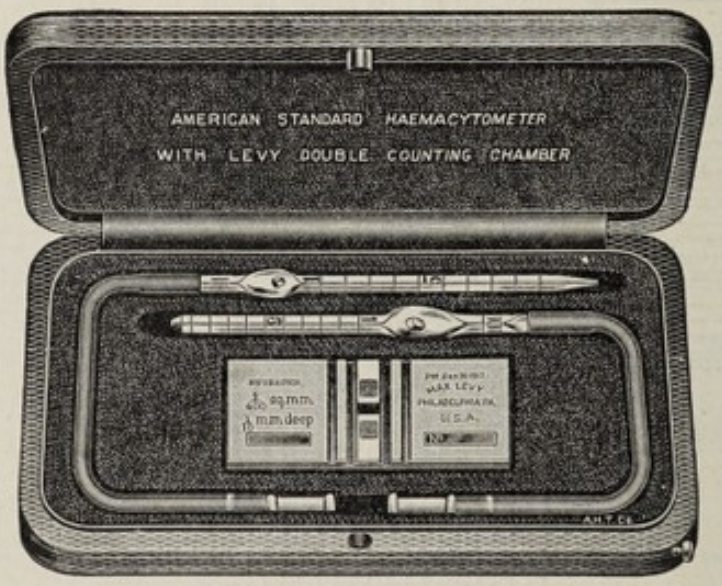


Fig. 163.—American Standard Hemocytometer with Levy Counting Chamber with Double Neubauer Ruling.

dealing with a much lower dilution of the blood, and that we count 400 instead of 80 small squares. The 400 small squares may often be brought into the field under a two-thirds lens, and when the number of leukocytes is not great,they may readily be counted. When the number of leukocytes is large, however, it is necessary to use a one-fifth lens, beginning at the upper left-hand corner of the slide, and moving the slide gently so as to move each column of great squares until the entire slide has been covered (Fig. 148). Here again the same precaution of counting all cells touching upon the top and left-hand lines, and of omitting those cells resting upon the right and bottom lines, must be observed.

After counting the cells in 400 small squares, diluted 1:20, and observing the other rules for estimating the red cells, the direct method for estimating the number of leukocytes in 1 c.mm. of undiluted blood is to multiply the number of cells found in the 400 squares by 200. Suppose the number found to be 35, and the dilution used 1:20:35 $\times$ 200 = 7000.

Thoma-Levy Hemocytometer.—In the Levy construction a rectangular depression is cut into the slide itself, and extends across its entire width. In the middle of this depression is permanently fixed a rectangular strip of glass, also extending across the entire slide, and on this are the rulings. When the cover glass is in position upon the slide itself the solution over the ruled areas (squares) is of the required depth. The parallel form of cell also greatly facilitates in cleaning the instrument. The increase in visibility of the ruling in the Thoma-Levy is doubtless its greatest practical advantage over other makes.

These new Thoma-Levy counting chambers of the Burker type are made with the, present day, most used rulings, *i. e.*, Thoma, Zappert, Türk, Neubauer, and Fuchs-Rosenthal. The Neubauer ruling will be found satisfactory for modern technique, and in it the central square millimeter is exactly the same as in the original Thoma ruling. Surrounding this there are eight additional square millimeters, each subdivided into sixteen smaller squares, and these are of additional value by reason of the greater accuracy and convenience which they afford in counting the white blood corpuscles (Fig. 162). Burker claims the further advantage that this chamber is totally unaffected by atmospheric pressure, a point of considerable importance when blood examinations have to be conducted under conditions of wide atmospheric pressure variations.

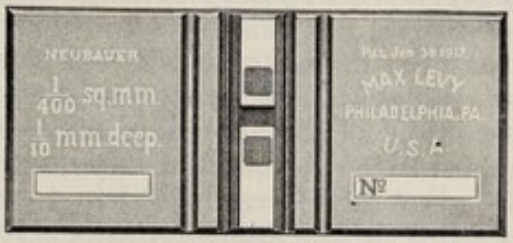


Fig. 164.—Levy Counting Chamber with Double Neubauer Ruling.

The actual technique for using the Burker chamber may be briefly summarized as follows:

(1) After the ruled areas and slides are carefully cleaned.



Fig. 165.—Neubauer Ruling.

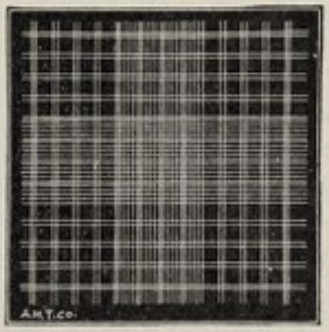


Fig. 166.—Türk Ruling.

(2) The cover glass is applied and Newton's rings must be obtained as evidence of the approximation of the two surfaces.

(3) The tip of the projecting ruled rectangle is quickly touched with the point of a red or white blood pipette, permitting just enough of the diluted blood to flow under the cover glass, to completely cover the ruled rectangle. Do not flood it over into the moat on either side. Bubbles render the filling of the chamber worthless, and necessitate cleansing, and refilling.

(4) Allowing three minutes for settling of the corpuscles of the distribution. Further technique is readily understood from the Thoma-Zeiss method.

ALKALINITY OF THE PERIPHERAL BLOOD

The alkalinity of the blood is due to the presence of carbonates, bicarbonates, and albumins held in solution by the acid phosphates, hence it is difficult to estimate the changes in these several elements, and the variations in the reaction produced by the several processes in alkalimetry. When serum alone is used for the estimation (by titration), the alkaline principles of the clot are not included; and if laked blood is used, peculiar chemic changes are produced that depend upon the delicately balanced albumins and phosphates. It has been clearly shown that certain fairly constant alkaline principles exist in the blood and in the serum; these may be sufficiently closely estimated by the processes about to be described to render this knowledge of clinical value. Again, it is evident that the degree of difference between the alkalinity of normal and that of diseased blood presents somewhat wide variation. During life the reaction of the blood is alkaline, owing to the presence of disodium phosphate and sodium carbonate. Under normal conditions the degree of alkalinity is estimated in terms of sodium hydroxid, and corresponds to 182 to 218 mgm. for every 100 c.c. of blood. Von Jaksch, however, makes a higher estimate of alkalinity—260 to 230 mgm.; whereas Canard places it at 203 to 276.

LIPEMIA

Normal blood contains between 0.75 and 0.85 per cent. of fat. The presence of fat in the blood may be demonstrated by fixing the films in a 1 per cent. solution of osmic acid for twenty-fours hours, and staining for from one-half to one minute with a 0.5 per cent. aqueous solution of eosin. The particles of fat are stained black with the osmic acid, while the remainder of the field takes the eosin stain. Since all granules staining black may not be fat, a control method is necessary, and should be conducted as follows: Fix the film for twenty-four hours in alcohol and ether, and then in the osmic acid for twenty-four hours; counterstain with eosin and extract the fat by ether; the absence of black particles in the cells and plasma is evidence that the blackening displayed by the first specimen was due to fat. Free fat (palmitin, stearin, and olein) may be detected in the blood in health and in disease, but it is usually present in comparatively small amounts, and although recognized with some difficulty under an oil-immersion objective, the granules are at times conspicuous. The quantitative estimation of the blood-fats is not practical for clinical purposes.

Clinical Significance.—The quantity of fat in the blood is increased after a heavy meal and in acute alcoholism. An excess of 0.05 to 0.16 per cent. has been found in the blood of diabetes, 0.1 to 0.5 per cent. in nephritis, 0.15 per cent. in pneumonia, and 0.16 per cent. in typhoid fever. An increased quantity has been observed in starvation, phthisis, fatty embolism, carcinoma of the esophagus, and poisoning by carbonic oxid. A fat-splitting ferment has been detected in the blood. Von Jaksch has demonstrated the presence of fatty acids in the blood of diabetic coma, acute yellow atrophy (hepatic), acute infections, and leukemia.

THE FREEZING-POINT OF BLOOD

Cryoscopy as applied to the body fluids and secretions, especially to the blood, has as yet yielded but few definite results, and this is probably due to the fact that there are at present no practical methods for determining the freezing-point of blood and urine. Certain clinical changes are

said to be accompanied by changes in the freezing-point of both the blood and the urine.

Clinical Significance.—When the metabolic products are retained in the blood as the result of renal insufficiency, its molecular concentration is increased, and consequently its freezing-point is lowered, as has been found in the blood of nephritis, hydronephrosis, pyonephrosis, and experimentally in animals after ligation of the ureters. The freezing-point of the blood is unchanged when, after unilateral nephrectomy, the remaining kidney compensates.

When the freezing-point of the blood is lowered to −0.58° to −0.61° C., and both kidneys are diseased, surgical operations of any kind should be deferred until the freezing-point is about −0.56° C. When the freezing-point of the urine is less than −0.9° C., this indicates kidney insufficiency, and when one kidney alone is believed to be affected, the determination of the freezing point of the urine obtained by catheterization of the ureters or by segregation may be of clinical value. Urine from the diseased kidney will congeal at a higher point than will that from its fellow; *e. g.*, urine from the diseased kidney freezes at −0.50° C., whereas that from a healthy kidney freezes at −1.75° C. Generally speaking, it is impossible to draw definite deductions from the estimation of the freezing-point of the urine, owing to the wide physiologic limits between which it may fluctuate —from −0.1° to −2.0° C. Tinker has recently asserted that cryoscopy is of value as an index to renal insufficiency. The method of Claude and Balthazard has lately appeared in a detailed translation by F. Burthe. Thus far cryoscopy is adaptable for use only by physiologists and is not readily employed by clinicians.

BLOOD CHEMISTRY

By A. J. Rubenstone, M. D.

Until the beginning of the last decade, the chemical examination of the blood belonged to the realm of the experimentalist and, while the various elements on chemical combinations were well known, the estimation of them necessitated long and tedious technic and therefore little significance resulted in correlating blood chemistry with the various pathological states of the body. It remained for such eminent authorities as Folin and Denis, Myers, Fine, Benedict, Lewis, Van Slyke, etc., to call attention to the practicability of blood chemical examinations with the idea of aiding the physician in diagnosis by perfecting quick, simple and accurate determinations of the various blood elements demonstrating conclusively the undoubted value of these chemical methods in not only estimating the degree of abnormality of the blood constituents but indirectly pointing to the amount of organic disfunction resulting in these blood abnormalities.

The clinician might ask what advantages accrue from blood chemical studies that are not gleaned from urine examination? Does not a diabetic with excess blood sugar excrete it in the urine, and does not the urine of a nephritic patient give typical findings on urinalysis? True, they do. A diabetic will eliminate sugar in the urine provided the kidneys are perfectly willing to excrete it, but the amount of sugar excreted by the kidneys will entirely depend upon its own mechanism and so we find by newer blood chemical methods that a non-appearance of sugar in the urine does not necessarily mean the slightest reduction in the excessive sugar content of the blood. Nay, it may even mean that the kidneys are unable to excrete sugar and that it is concentrating in

greater quantities in the blood. Indeed, the writer has had many such experiences, notably in a child in which the sugar entirely disappeared from the urine during treatment, much to the gratification of the physician and the parents. The physician informed the parents that the child was clinically free from the disease; but, alas, the examination of the blood proved that the blood sugar was higher than ever. Such typical examples might be cited of renal disease in which, although the urinary findings were almost nil, yet the blood retention of nitrogenous bodies compelled the writer to make a diagnosis of grave kidney disease and an unfavorable prognosis as to the duration of life.

Likewise, in the study of so-called acidosis, the blood is actually not found acid but reduced in its normal alkalinity and unless we determine by accurate methods this reduced alkalinity, one cannot tell until sometimes in the very last stages of life, that the patient is undergoing such change in his tissues.

Of the normal substances found in the blood that vary in disease quantitatively and which are of great clinical import in the diagnosis and prognosis of pathological states, the following are the most important.

1. **Non-protein Nitrogen.**—The non-protein nitrogen of normal blood amounts to about 25 to 30 mg. per 100 c.c. of blood. The urea forms about 50 per cent. of this. In nephritis, the non-protein nitrogen of blood is much increased; sometimes in fatal cases the retention may reach above 400 mg. In mild, chronic nephritis, figures are usually recorded of between 30 and 100 mg. Any retention of non-protein nitrogen of more than 100 mg. should be considered as dangerous.

2. **Uric Acid.**—Uric acid forms about two per cent. of non-protein nitrogen of normal blood and is present in about 3 to 5 mg. per 100 c.c. In chronic nephritis, up to 8 mg. are encountered and in uremia, figures as high as 15 mg. have been recorded. In gout, uric acid may reach 10 mg. per 100 c.c. of blood. Creatinine forms about 2 per cent. of the non-protein nitrogen of normal blood, and one-half to 2 mg. are found per 100 c.c. normally. In chronic nephritis up to 3 mg. per 100 c.c. of blood are sometimes found. Any finding of above 3 mg. per 100 c.c. of blood is indicative of a very severe chronic nephritis and a state of uremia. We have had cases at the Philadelphia General Hospital with 18, 20, and 25 mgm. of creatinin per 100 c.c.

We find that the kidneys in their selective affinity, present a high threshold in the secretion of some substances from the blood, while others pass readily through them; *e. g.*, uric acid is the most difficult of the non-protein nitrogenous constituents to be excreted, while creatinine is the easiest.

Nephritis and High Threshold in Diabetes.—While for a long time physicians generally had recognized that estimation of function in kidney impairment was very valuable in prognosing the outcome in a given case, yet the methods employed in the past were not only crude, but inefficient, in that attempts were made to estimate the value of a kidney by its ability to excrete substances that it normally does not have to contend with. The indigo-carmin test, the phlorizin test, cryoscopy of blood and urine, all have had their vogue but have been practically abandoned because of the meagre amount of information one could obtain from them.

The phenolsulphonephthalein test of Rowntree and Geraghty is probably the only dye test that does possess virtue in estimating kidney function, but its scope is limited. It is a very good method of estimating the kidney function for the moment but it does not indicate the condition of the kidneys when objectionable constituents are retained for a long per-

iod of time in the body, so that the test fails to show accurately metabolic changes in the system as far as non-protein nitrogen retention is concerned.

This was definitely shown by the work of Frothingham, Fitz, Folin and Denis, and is well illustrated clinically by Foster, who reported a case of marked kidney disease with a normal phthalein output, in which the patient died. It remained for comparatively recent American investigators to discover and perfect methods whereby the functional activity of the kidneys could be determined accurately by their ability to excrete substances that were normally permeable through them. At present, in a normal state of health, the important functional activities of the kidneys are: 1, nitrogen secretion; 2, their ability to prevent acidosis by elimination of acids and retention of alkalies; 3, water and total solid excretion.

Total nitrogen is eliminated in the urine by healthy kidneys in the proportion of about 15 grams a day, and leaves the body as urea, creatinine, uric acid, ammonia and rest nitrogen. Since uric acid is the most difficult for the kidneys to excrete, it naturally follows that the least impairment in kidney function will react in the retention in the blood of an excess amount of uric acid than normally found while the urea and creatinine will be excreted in normal amounts, and the blood will show no excess of these constituents. Furthermore, kidney embarrassment in function is evidenced by impairment in excreting urea so that blood retention of urea is next brought about, and depending upon the severity of the case, or its acuity and duration, there is a corresponding increase in this most important substance retained in the blood.

Finally, in the very severe types of nephritis, creatinine is withheld and the blood shows an excess of this substance. Therefore, it is quite possible to estimate the degree of organic change in the kidneys by the quantitative retention of these nitrogenous substances in the blood when in some instances the urinary changes are exceedingly scant, and at times entirely absent. Too much emphasis cannot be placed upon the correct and trustworthy evidence of blood chemistry figures in diagnosing and prognosing cases of nephritis. Halsey's case may be cited as a typical one in which the patient, although well enough to visit the physician's office, and with no urinary findings, showed a grave condition in that he had marked retention of urea, uric acid and creatinine, pointing to a grave prognosis. The case ended fatally within twenty-five days. I, personally, have had such experiences in the past six years to corroborate this.

The next important function of the kidneys in which the clinician is deeply interested, is their ability to help maintain the normal alkali reserve of the body tissues by not only excreting an enormous amount of an acid every day (amounting to several hundred c.c. normal HCl acid), but saving bases, *e. g.*, phosphates. When kidney function is impaired, acidosis in various degrees supervenes and can be determined by the carbon dioxide tension in alveolar air; carbon dioxide combining power of blood, and by estimating the quantity of accumulated inorganic phosphates in the blood.

The estimation of variation in water, sodium chloride and total solids excreted (estimated by specific gravity changes) is easily accomplished by the renal test meal of Hedyinger and Schlayer as modified by Mosenthal and Lewis, and by the Ambard coefficient. The various means mentioned above are such accurate indices of true nephritic impairment that in the cases which show symptomatology of mixed cardiac and renal disease, one can differentiate between a true renal condition and a secondary one,

as in the latter class of cases almost uniform negative results are obtained in retention tests.

3. **Glucose.**—Normal human blood contains about $\frac{1}{10}$ per cent. of glucose. The writer has found from extended experience that the highest normal limit may be placed at $\frac{13}{100}$ per cent. After ingestion of large quantities of sugar, the blood sugar may rise to $\frac{2}{10}$ per cent. temporarily. In diabetes, the blood sugar may reach 1 per cent. A sustained rise of blood sugar after 100 gm. of glucose are given by mouth, is sometimes of diagnostic significance in visceral malignancies.

4. **Cholesterol.**—Cholesterol content of the blood normally is 140 to 200 mg. per 100 c.c. It is increased in gall-stones, pregnancy, nephritis, diabetes, arteriosclerosis and syphilis. Its practical importance of the determination is therefore not as specifically diagnostic as that of the former substances mentioned.

5. **Chlorides.**—Chlorides, as sodium chloride, is present in the blood to the extent of about .65 per cent. It may be increased markedly in chronic nephritis sometimes to .8 per cent. and therefore its estimation in the blood, especially in nephritis with edema, is of great import. Fat in the blood is usually associated with an increased sugar content. Fat is normally present up to .08 mg. per c.c. In severe diabetes or lipemia, 30 mg. have been recorded.

6. **Ammonia.**—Ammonia nitrogen is usually present up to .3 of a mg. per 100 c.c. In chronic nephritis the figures are much higher and in uremia as high as 1 mg. has been noted. Acetone and aceto acetic acid may be normally present up to 1 mg. In uremia 2 to 25 mg. have been recorded, and in diabetes even up to 50 mg. have been found. High figures are obtained in severe types of metallic poison.

SERUM DIAGNOSIS

It is quite evident that the changes outlined in the cellular elements of the blood, are closely related and dependent upon the blood liquid or plasma in serum. Indeed, the changes in the number of cells and the percentage of coloring matter, together with their chemical composition, is dependent to a great degree upon the changes which take place in the plasma in many diseases. In the last decade, rapid strides have been made in the recognition of the many physio-chemical changes occurring in the blood plasma which aid in diagnosing the disturbed metabolism during disease. Since the blood courses throughout the entire body, any variation from the normal in any organ of the body at once produces an altered condition in the blood serum of the entire body. A brief résumé of the principles involved in serum reactions, and upon what grounds these reactions are elaborated, is therefore in order that the clinical significance of the various serum reactions may be appreciated.

Ehrlich's Side-chain Theory.—This theory was advanced from thirty-five years ago to explain the various phases of immunity, especially the reaction of the blood to toxins elaborated during infection. According to this theory, the protoplasm of the cell consists of a central group of molecules (Leistungskern), in which the inherent vital characteristics of the cell are located and whose integrity is necessary for normal cell life. At different portions of the cell certain other molecular groups are attached exactly as side-chain groups are attached to the benzene nucleus of organic chemistry. These groups or, as Ehrlich styles them, side-chains are

capable of uniting with various material which is brought into intimate relationship with the cell structure. Such materials are foods, toxins, and other injurious agents. In order that foods may be taken up by the cell it must possess certain groups which will enable it to combine with the groups in the side-chain of the cell. In the nomenclature of Ehrlich the side-chains are styled *receptors* and the group of the food or of the toxin which combines with these receptors is known as the haptophore group. These receptors, as well as haptophores, possess specific affinity, uniting with one another only when homologous.

It has been found that a toxin molecule has certain injurious effects upon the cell; it is, therefore, necessary to ascribe this action to other than the two groups above mentioned, as the union of a haptophore with a receptor would form an inert substance. Ehrlich, therefore, assumes the presence in the toxin molecule of a second group which he styles the toxophore group, which exerts the untoward effect upon the cell. The toxophore group in itself can unite with the cell only through the medium of its haptophore group. As the cell becomes irritated by the presence of the toxophore group, it endeavors to overcome this by a new formation of receptors. According to the strength of the irritation, many more receptors will be found that can combine with the toxin material present, so that many of the extra receptors pass out into the circulation in the form of free receptors. This is graphic explanation of the fact that the cell when irritated by toxic material elaborates substances from its own protoplasm, which have a neutralizing effect upon the toxic substance. These free receptors (haptines) form the antitoxins. They combine only with homologous toxin material and are, therefore, specific. Welch believes that these antitoxins have a second function beside that of neutralization of toxin, namely, an irritating one upon the bacterial invaders so that these organisms are forced to elaborate similar substances for their own protection. Toxins which have been deprived of their toxophore group are known as toxoids and can combine with the receptors of the cell, exerting no untoward effect upon the cell. These toxoids may also unite with antitoxin through the medium of their haptophore group. Occasionally toxins are completely combined with the antitoxins; that is, the antitoxic material is not sufficient in amount completely to neutralize the toxin, so that such toxins may still combine with the cells and exert a modified poisonous effect. Such attenuated toxins are known as toxones.

It has been found that the injection into animals, as for instance, snake venom, gives rise to the development of specific antibodies in the blood serum of the animal so treated, the substances injected being named antigens. Such blood or serum will be found to have a lytic (destructive) action upon cells similar to those injected. Such sera are specific, that is, they act only upon the kind of cell used in the injection. The term hemolysis has been introduced to express the destructive action upon the erythrocytes shown by the dissolving out of the hemoglobin from the red cell. The stroma or discoplasm of the red cell is a membrane which shows peculiar relations to diffusion of various materials into the cell and to the passage of hemoglobin and other cellular material from the cell. Its chief function seems to be to prevent, as far as possible, any loss in hemoglobin. If this membrane becomes permeable, then we must assume the action of some toxic material. The term hemolysis has reference merely to the abnormal loss of hemoglobin and not to any disturbance beyond increased permeability of the stroma. The stroma of these cells remains behind and may be seen in the centrifuged specimen as the so-called shadows. Hemolysis must, therefore, be considered as a

sign of protoplasmic death. Substances (hemolysis) bringing about such change belong, necessarily, in the class of blood poisons. Such hemolysins are increased or lowered temperature, various inorganic compounds, such as distilled water, ammonium salts, and organic compounds, such as urea, bile acids, ether, alcohol, chloroform, solanin, saponin, and digitalin. The saponins are among our strongest hemolytic substances, acting in dilutions from 1 to 100,000. Besides these we have various secretions, such as those of the cobra, spider, and bee which are active hemolytic agents.

It has been observed by various workers that hemolysis is prevented when the serum is heated to 60 degrees. This points to the fact that some substance is destroyed which is of great importance in this process. In addition, it has further been found that the renewing of the activity of the old heated serum by adding a supply of fresh isologous serum will restore the hemolytic activity. It is evident, therefore, that there are two factors which must be taken into consideration, one is a thermosable (heat-resisting) substance, while the other is thermolabile (destroyed by heat). To the first of these Ehrlich has given the name amboceptor and to the second the name complement. The amboceptor has been shown to have two haptophore groups with one of which it unites to the receptor of the cell and with the other to the complement. The haptophore group which unites with the cell is known as the cytophile, while the one uniting with the complement is termed the complementophile. For hemolysis,therefore, we must have the cell receptor, the amboceptor, and the complement. The complement has also been shown to have two groups analogous to those of the toxin molecule. The first is the haptophore group, while the second is the zymophore group, through which the destructive action upon the cell is manifest.

The amboceptor is formed within the body as the result of cellular hyperactivity aroused by the irritant action of the toxic material. The complement is probably derived, for the most part, from the leucocytes, and acts very much as an enzyme. It can exert its toxic action only when united with the cell by means of the amboceptor, so that free complement has no injurious effect.

It has been frequently observed that the red cells are more resistant than normally, while in many cases they appear less resistant to hemolysis. This is explained by the side-chain theory very much as it explains the formation of antitoxin. These antihemolysins are formed within the blood plasma after inoculation with hemolytic material. The hyperactivity of the cell causes it to throw off two types of such bodies, namely, anticomplement and antiamboceptors. The former combines with the haptophore group of the complement and the latter with the cytophilic group of the amboceptor, each of these combinations making it impossible for the necessary union of cell, amboceptor, and complement to occur.

It has been found that frequently the serum of an animal, which has been injected with certain bacteria or with certain body cells, shows the peculiar property of agglutinating or clumping such bacteria or cells when these latter are added to it. This condition is known as agglutination and the agents bringing it about are styled agglutinins. These substances are developed in the blood of the animal during the process of adaptation toward the presence of such foreign material. Agglutinins from the standpoint of the side-chain theory are free receptors, having a haptophore group which unites with the receptor of the cell or of the bacterium, and causes agglutination through the presence of a second

group known as the zymophore or agglutiniphore group. Agglutination, therefore, does not require the presence of a complement.

In some cases, intraperitoneal injection of body fluids or of solutions of certain proteins into animals brings about a condition which enables the blood serum of such animals to cause a precipitation of the protein to which the animal has been adapted. This fact has been taken advantage of in formulating a medicolegal method for the detection of blood of different animals and will be taken up in a later section. The precipitins consist of free receptors combining, by means of their haptophore group, with the receptor of the cell and exerting their precipitating effect through the medium of their zymophore or precipitinophore group.

Phagocytosis.—Metchnikoff, supplementing the previously outlined theory of Ehrlich, argued that the leucocytes are important factors in the production of immunity by overcoming infection in that leucocytes are capable of engulfing foreign substances circulating in the blood. This action he calls phagocytosis, and it is one of the most important protective agents during disease when it is necessary for the body to rid itself of foreign substances either arising from within or introduced from without the body. So it comes about that when the body is invaded by bacteria during any infection we usually find a varied leucocytosis in practically all cases. These leucocytes and especially the polymorphonuclear variety when they come in contact with the foreign invader attach themselves to it by throwing out pseudopodia, completely envelop the bacterium, or toxin, and so render it inert. Very often the prognosis of the course of the disease may be determined by the activity of the body in producing phagocytes. Resistance of an individual to a disease is often gauged by the number of leucocytes thrown out into the circulation, and of the degree of phagocytosis.

Polymorphonuclear leucocytes, being the most actively phagocytic, the severity of the disease is often indicated by the high percentage of these leucocytes in the blood-stream. Thus a very virulent infection will usually call forth a great percentage of these phagocytes.

Opsonins.—The relative phagocytic activity of a patient's blood may be determined practically by estimating his opsonic index, or the presence in the blood of the substance in the blood called, by right, opsonin, to designate the presence in the serum of substances which render various bacteria subject to phagocytosis. The normal blood serum contains such opsonic material for the various bacteria with which it may be infected, but this varies greatly toward the different organisms. Thus we may find individuals showing much more opsonin (a higher opsonic index) toward one organism than toward another. This explains, in a way, the well-known fact that different people are variably susceptible to the same disease, while the same individual may be strongly resistant toward infection with one organism, but easily a victim of another infection.

Regarding their chemical nature very little is known. There seems to be a certain amount of evidence which points to the fact that these opsonins belong to the class of globulins. The opsonins are thermolabile and are usually destroyed by heating for 10 minutes to 60° C. They occur in all classes of vertebrates and show here a peculiar characteristic, namely, that the serum of different animals is capable of activating various organisms for phagocytosis by leucocytes of animals of different species. This would bring the opsonins into the same field as the agglutinins, precipitins, and hemolysins.

From a clinical standpoint, opsonins are frequently found to be diminished in certain bacterial infections. It is, therefore, conceivable that the resistance of the patient or, in other words, his phagocytic power might be increased by the addition of substances which could act as opsonic material. Such substances are the bacterial vaccines of Wright, suspensions in physiological salt solution of dead cultures of the organism to which the patient shows a diminished power of phagocytosis. The relation of the phagocytic power of the patient, as evidenced by the number of organisms which a definite number of leucocytes takes up under the opsonifying influence of this serum, as compared with the same condition in the case of the serum of a normal individual, is known as the opsonic index toward the organism investigated. The number of bacteria taken up by the leucocytes of the normal individual is taken as one.

According to Wright, the injection of a dose of vaccine is followed by a decrease in the opsonic index (the negative phase), which is of variable degree and duration, depending upon the dose. This negative phase is followed by an increase in the opsonic power of the leucocytes (the positive phase), which is associated with improvement in the condition of the patient. The various doses of the vaccine should be so administered that it is never given during a negative phase. While a low opsonic index is the rule in chronic cases, high indices may be observed with active systemic manifestations of acute cases.

Allergic Reactions

Allergy is a sensitiveness produced in the body by the passage of a foreign proteid through it so that the body cells take on a changed reactivity to the same proteid when they come in contact with it. Such conditions are exemplified by patients who have acquired immunity against infectious diseases either by passing through an attack of the infection or by the use of vaccination (as in typhoid vaccine, etc.) or individuals who are in the process of passing through a very mild form of an infection as during any disease (tuberculosis, etc.).

This condition is closely related to the higher form of sensitization known as anaphylaxis. Practical use is made of this sensitization in the diagnosis of many altered metabolic conditions following the introduction of foreign proteids by the local application or injection of small amounts of the suspected proteid and the reaction which is usually followed by a skin reaction to it. If, however, a large quantity of the same proteid to which the patient is sensitive, be injected parenterally a generalized reaction may be produced, the phenomenon being known as anaphylaxis. Allergic reactions will therefore be entirely negative in normal individuals or individuals who have enough free floating antibody in their systems against the foreign proteid. For example, the local application of the spirochæta to the skin during secondary syphilis occasions no local reaction because the spirochæta toxin is neutralized at the point of inoculation before the toxin reaches the point of infection so that not only bacterial infections but also sensitiveness to many food proteids (toxic and plant proteids) can be detected by these local serological reactions.

Practical Application to Allergic Reactions.—Tuberculous Infection.—During the mildly active or latent tuberculous infection, the system having been sensitized to the tuberculous proteid, will react to this proteid when it is introduced in small quantities to the system, or applied locally to the skin after scratching. It is to be remembered, how-

ever, that these reactions in a case of tuberculosis are fairly reliable when positive in the very young (earlier than the sixth year) or when they are negative after early childhood. As a great majority of individuals, especially those residing in large cities, pass through mild attacks of one form of tuberculosis or another, as evidenced by the frequent healed in lesions found at autopsy.

Koch's Method.—This is the earliest method for the diagnostic use of tuberculin. The normal temperature variations of the patient are first determined for 24 hours previous to the injection. The preparation used in Koch's old tuberculin, which is water and glycerin extract of the cultures of the tubercle bacillus, of such a strength that 1 c.c. is equivalent to 1 gram of tuberculin.

The injection may be made into the deeper tissues either in the intrascapular or gluteal region by means of a properly sterilized hypodermic syringe. The amount of tuberculin to be injected depends on the age and condition of the patient. As a rule ½ to 1 mg. is given to a robust adult, while a weak patient or a child receives $\frac{1}{10}$ to $\frac{3}{10}$ mg. These strengths are easily made by diluting the original solution with the proper amount of ½ per cent. carbolic acid solution. The temperature variations should then be followed, observations being made every two hours. A rise of ½° C. ($\frac{9}{10}$° F.) within a few hours or even as late as 36 hours, is taken as a positive result, although some observers require a more marked rise before admitting a positive finding. Few other symptoms are noticed but, if the dose has been large, marked malaise, chill, high fever, and local reactions may obtain. If no rise in temperature is observed after the first injection, a second or a third one may be given, the dose being doubled each time but exceeding, under no circumstances, 10 mg. It is possible that a single injection of 5 to 10 mg. may give more diagnostic results than repeated doses up to this amount, although it must be admitted that such large doses may react, in rare cases, positively in normal individuals.

A positive result is very strong evidence of an active tubercular condition. A negative result is less reliable as some tubercular conditions, such as peritonitis or encapsulated foci elsewhere, may not react positively.

Method of Moro.—In this method use is made of a salve consisting of equal parts of old tuberculin and lanolin. A small bit of this salve is rubbed into the skin, preferably in the thoracic or abdominal region. After 24 to 48 hours small pale nodules, 1 to 2 mm. in diameter, are seen at the point of inoculation if the case be tubercular. A more severe reaction may be observed in the form of reddish miliary nodules. These nodules are limited to the point of application of the salve and disappear in 24 to 48 hours. Occasionally, some exudation may arise from the intense reactions, but this is very rare. This method is very simple and is very reliable.

Method of von Pirquet.—This method is very widely used, especially in cases of infection in children. The inner side of the forearm is cleansed with alcohol and ether and allowed to dry. Two drops of old tuberculin are placed on the skin at a distance of 6 to 8 cm. from each other. The skin covered by these drops is then punctured by a large needle or gently scarified. The tuberculin is allowed to remain for ten to fifteen minutes, when the clothing may be replaced. It is wise to make a third puncture or scarification between the two tuberculin points as a control upon the patient's reaction, no tuberculin being used here. A slight swelling is usually produced which becomes surrounded by a light reddish border in a few hours, and disappears in 24 hours. If the reaction be positive, the

area of puncture swells within 24 to 48 hours to a papule, reddish in color and 10 to 15 mm. in diameter. The center may be pale and be surrounded with small serous points. By comparison with the normal point, a reaction may be more clearly demonstrated. The swelling and redness begin to disappear within 48 hours, a slight pigmentation usually following this positive reaction. No general disturbance is noted as a rule. If the reaction be repeated, a marked positive result may be observed as an evidence of hypersensibility, the so-called anaphylactic reaction. This may, also, be noticed in the other methods, even though a much smaller dose be used than in the initial application.

Method of Calmette.—This method was advanced almost simultaneously by Calmette and Wolff-Eisner. One or two drops of a 1 to 100 dilution of old tuberculin in physiologic salt solution are placed in the conjunctival sac, the lids being held apart for a few seconds to permit of absorption of the tuberculin. Only one eye is thus treated, the other being used as the control. A positive reaction appears in 6 to 24 hours and may assume one of the following types: (1) Mere reddening of the caruncle and the inner surface of the lower lid; (2) the bulbar conjunctiva may take part in the process; (3) suppurative conjunctivitis with marked injection of the palpebral conjunctiva; (4) hemorrhagic conjunctivitis of the palpebral and bulbar portions with profuse fibrino-purulent exudation. An associated rise in temperature may be observed in the severe types. Contraindications to this test are found in any inflammation of the eye or conjunctiva, in the previous treatment of the eye with tuberculin, and recent application of tuberculin elsewhere. It would not seem that this method is advisable owing to the great discomfort which may arise and, especially, as it it not without danger of severe injury to the eye.

Luetin Reaction of Noguchi.—Luetin is a suspension of the Spirochæta pallida killed by heat, which is used as a cutaneous reaction in syphilis by the injection of small amounts of this suspension intradermically into suspected patients. In normal cases there appears after 24 hours a very small erythematous area at, or around, the point of injection. The patient experiences no pain or discomfort and this slight reaction gradually disappears after 48 hours leaving no induration. In positive cases a large, raised, reddish, indurated papule 5 to 10 mm. in diameter makes its appearance in from 12 to 24 hours. The papule may be surrounded by a diffuse zone of redness and show marked telangiectasis. The dimensions and the degree of induration slowly increases during the following three or four days, after which the inflammatory processes begin to recede. The color of the papule gradually becomes dark bluish-red. The induration disappears within a week, except in certain instances in which a trace of the reaction may persist for a longer period.

In some cases the reaction is more marked, the papule becoming pustular in character, with vesicular formation in surrounding areola, and still in other cases, the so-called delayed reaction in which the sight of injection occasions hardly any reaction for several days then suddenly lights up and progresses to papular or pustular stage.

This reaction is of some value in tertiary syphilis and congenital syphilis or in latent infection which has called forth no systemic reaction. In late primary, or secondary syphilis, it is of little or no value. Certain drugs like potassium iodide, etc. often give a similar reaction and therefore the test is of very limited value.

Diphtheria Toxin Reaction of Schick.—This test consists in the introduction intradermically of one-fiftieth minimum lethal dose of diphtheria

toxin into an individual to determine a susceptibility or immunity to diphtheria. If the individual is actively immune to diphtheria either materially or acquired by the injection of diphtheria antitoxin, (or toxin antitoxin), a white wheal appears surrounding the point of inoculation which persists for a short time and disappears within a couple of hours. If, however, an individual is susceptible to diphtheria, there is noted gradually increasing redness so that an areola sometimes from 1 to 2 cm. in diameter is noted within 2 to 3 days after the inoculation. This redness gradually fades after several days changing to a brownish pigmented areola and finally to scaling and the disappearance of the lesion.

In the presence of diphtheria, the question of exposure of other children is an important one. It is evident that immunization by injection of antitoxin (or toxin antitoxin) is indicated only in those giving positive Schick reactions. Further, by means of this test definite separation of the diphtheria cases from non-diphtheritic cases may be made, as patients with true diphtheria have little antitoxin in the blood and hence show a positive reaction. Likewise diphtheria carriers may be separated from actual diphtheritics, as the former usually have a large amount of antitoxin in the blood and, therefore, give negative reactions. There can be little question but that this test will prove invaluable in hospitals in selecting internes and nurses to look after the diphtheria patients. Moreover, the question of isolation of actual diphtheria patients becomes a much easier matter, with the knowledge that those showing a negative Schick reaction are immune to diphtheria and need not, therefore, be removed from chance of infection. The economic as well as the diagnostic value of this test seems to be very great.

Dick Test—Scarlet Fever Toxin.—This followed especially the work of the Doctors Dick and Dochez. The test is better known as the "Dick Test," and essentially is identical with the Diphtheria test, except that toxin of the scarlet fever streptococcus is used. Positive reactions appear between 6 and 24 hours in susceptible individuals, disappear more rapidly. While this test, and all immunizing tests against scarlet fever are still in the experimental stage, Zingher's excellent results in a large series of tests and immunizations seem to warrant the statement that we have at last a means in the Dick Test of picking susceptible individuals to scarlet fever, and by serum treatment either preventing or modifying the course of the disease.

Agglutination Reactions

These reactions based on the immunological principle discussed heretofore, whereby the system, in order to defend itself against the foreign proteid, elaborates a substance which is present in the blood serum and which is capable of inactivating that particular foreign proteid (bacteria cells, etc.) when it comes in contact with that proteid either in vivo or in vitro. Practical application of this principle is made in the diagnosis of typhoid and paratyphoid fevers, bacillary dysentery, meningitis, plague and Asiatic cholera. It may also be used to determine the strength of antitoxins as, for example, the reaction between immune serum to the meningococcus.

Widal Test.—This is of great practical import in diagnosing typhoid and paratyphoid fever. The materials required for this test are (*a*) a young actively motile culture of the organism (typhoid or paratyphoid bacilli); (*b*) patient's serum to be tested. This may be either in the Wright capsule or by a drop of blood dried in air on paper. The test will be much more accurate if a drop of serum is obtained after the blood

is clotted in a glass ampoule because then the dilution of the serum can be carried out accurately; (*c*) glass slides with concavities in them and cover glasses. Technic: A drop of the patient's serum is diluted with 29 drops sterile physiologic saline and a loopful of this dilution and a loopful of bacterial suspension (typhoid or paratyphoid culture) are mixed well on a cover glass and then the cover glass is inverted on the concave slide and the edges vaselined to prevent drying. A control is made of the organism without the patient's serum and then the preparation is placed under the microscope and watched with a one sixth objective for agglutination.

A positive reaction is denoted by clumping of the bacteria and complete cessation of motility. This must be borne in mind because pseudo reactions frequently occur in other infectious diseases. In order to assure oneself of specificity of reactions in this test, complete clumping and cessation of motility must be present within ¾ of an hour after the preparation is made. A dilution of the patient's serum must be more than 1 to 40 as non-specific agglutination will occur during the course of other infectious diseases and in some normal serum. This test may be carried out microscopically and a very easy method is that advocated by Bass and Watkins.

Clinical Import.—The Widal test usually becomes positive after the first week of the disease although, in the writer's personal experience, the reaction does not become positive until late in the fastiguin and sometimes not until convalescence has set in, in quite a percentage of cases. In these particular cases the blood culture is of valuable diagnostic aid. Before conclusions are drawn on a positive Widal test for typhoid or paratyphoid fever one should always ascertain whether the patient had passed through an attack of the disease or was recently immunized with these particular organisms as it is to be borne in mind that following the latter conditions the Widal reaction may remain positive for months and, indeed, in some patients for years. When the reaction lasts for a period of years following the disease or immunization one should always bear in mind that it may signify a carrier state, for example, typhoid cholecystitis.

Other Diseases and Typhoid Fever.—Practical application of this same method may be carried out in other diseases, notably plague, cholera, bacillary dysentery, tuberculosis, Malta fever, pertussis, influenza and pneumonia.

Precipitation Reaction.—This reaction is based upon another fact well established in serum pathology. It has been proven that the serum of an animal, injected with blood or blood-serum of another animal, shows the property, when added to an homologous serum, of precipitating the albumin of this serum in the form of a light flocculent precipitate. This same peculiarity has been observed after injection of exudates or transudates or of pure proteins both animal and vegetable. These reactions are, therefore, specific for the type of protein injected, within certain definite limits. Although this test has been used in the detection of certain albuminous substances excreted in the urine, yet its chief interest to the laboratory worker is its application to the medico-legal detection of blood and blood-stains.

The work of Wassermann and Uhlenhuth has shown that blood-stains may reveal their origin from any particular species of animal by application of this test. It is evident that one must, of course, prove that such stains are really due to blood by other methods, as this biologic test is merely for specific proteins and not for blood as such. These

latter tests will be given in a later section. In this discussion the writer quotes largely from Uhlenhuth and Weidanz.

The Anti-serum.—This is the serum of the animal immunized against the proteins of the blood, exudates or secretions of a particular species of animal. These proteins are usually those of the human as this type is of especial importance in medico-legal investigations. However, in the larger laboratories where many different serological tests are frequently being made, animals are kept on hand, which have been immunized against the proteins of most domestic animals, so that an absolute differentiation and identification of a stain may be made.

The preparation of the anti-serum is as follows: A rabbit is injected intraperitoneally with 5 to 10 c.c. of whole blood or serum. At intervals of 3 to 5 days other similar injections are given until six or eight in all have been made. About a week after the last injection, a few drops of blood are drawn from a puncture in the ear of the animal and are allowed to clot in a small test-tube. The potency of the serum is then tested by permitting a few drops of the separated serum to fall into a small test-tube containing about 1 c.c. of a 1 to 1000 dilution of dried homologous blood in physiological salt. In this preliminary potency test as in the later precipitan test it is important that the dilution of the solution under investigation should be about 1 to 1000. One may recognize this proper dilution by the fact that the solution forms a layer of foam on shaking and, further, on heating and adding to 1 c.c. of the solution a drop of 25 per cent. nitric acid, only a slight opalescence obtains. If the addition of the anti-serum to the 1 to 1000 dilution of dried blood causes a turbidity in 1 to 2 minutes, the serum is sufficiently active for the test and the animal may be bled.

The blood is now withdrawn, either in small amount as desired for immediate use or the animal may be completely bled. The blood is collected in wide-mouth test-tubes, which should be plugged then with cotton and placed in a slanting position until the blood is coagulated. The serum which must be clear and sterile, is removed to small test-tubes, which are plugged with cotton, sealed with paraffin, and stored in a cool place. This is the anti-serum. It should be sufficiently potent to produce a turbidity almost at once, at latest in 1 to 2 minutes, in a 1 to 1000 dilution of homologous blood in 0.9 per cent. NaCl solution.

Solution of the Blood or Stain.—As a preliminary precaution, it is to be emphasized that all vessels and instruments used should be thoroughly clean and sterile and that all fluids be absolutely clear.

If the blood or exudate be dried upon solid material, such as glass, knife blades, stone, wood, etc., it is carefully scratched off with a sterile instrument. This material is powdered and dissolved, as far as possible, in chemically pure physiologic salt solution contained in a sterile test-tube. If only traces of the stain are present, one may form a well of wax about the spots and place in this some of the salt solution. It is absolutely essential that no other solvent than 0.9 per cent. NaCl solution be used, as otherwise erroneous reactions may occur or the usual precipitant reaction may not obtain.

If the stain has penetrated clothing or other soft material, the spot is cut out with scissors, is finely divided, teased with a needle and placed in a small watch-glass or test-tube with a small amount of salt solution for one hour, or, if the stain be very old or has been exposed to marked changes in the weather, for 24 hours in a cool place.

The fluid obtained in either of the above ways is filtered, first through hardened filter-paper (Schleicher and Schull, No. 575, 603, or 605) and

then through a small Berkefeld filter. This filtrate, which must be perfectly clear, should be neutralized to litmus either by the addition of sodium carbonate or tartaric acid solutions, as the case may be. Further, this filtrate should show distinct foam-formation on shaking. This is not always the case if the stain has been exposed to the sun and dust or has dried either upon fatty material or iron. Under these conditions, the precipitant reaction may not be seen in the usual time, but will obtain, as a rule, in 5 minutes.

As previously stated, the dilution of this physiologic salt extract of the stain should be approximately 1 to 1000. If sufficient stain can be scratched from the surface of the material upon which it is found, this may be weighed and proper dilution made. Such procedures are usually impossible, so that we use the approximate method given on previous page.

Technic of the Test.—The reaction is carried out in the small test-tubes, which should be approximately of the same size and thickness, should be thoroughly clean and sterile, should be numbered and arranged in a series of 10 tubes in a small rack.

In tube 1 and 2 are placed 1 c.c. of the above solution of the stain to be tested.

In tube 3, 1 c.c. of a 1 to 1000 dilution of known fresh human blood in physiologic salt solution.

In tube 4, 1 c.c. of a 1 to 1000 dilution of dried human blood in 0.9 per cent. salt solution.

In tube 5, 1 c.c. of sterile physiologic salt solution.

In tubes 6, 7, 8 and 9, 1 c.c. each of a 1 to 1000 dilution of fresh or dried blood of such domestic animals as may be easily obtained, as chicken, dog, horse and sheep blood.

In tube 10, 1 c.c. of a physiologic salt extract of the material upon which the stain was found.

To each of the above tubes, with exception of tube 2, is now added from a carefully graduated pipet 0.1 c.c. of the anti-serum, which has been tested for its potency as above described. To tube 2 is added 0.1 c.c. of normal clear rabbit serum. The anti-serum must be carefully added in such a way that it runs down the side of the tube and does not drop directly into the fluid. After this addition the tube must not be shaken. The reaction is carried out at room temperature.

If the reaction be positive, a distinct clouding or turbidity will be observed immediately, or at latest within 2 minutes, in tubes 1, 3, and 4 (all of which contain human blood), while the other tubes should remain prefectly clear. If the anti-serum has been properly added, the turbidity may be visible as a distinct contact ring which gradually increases upward. A negative reaction is shown by the lack of turbidity in any of the tubes.

Specificity of the Reaction.—Although this test is extremely delicate, yet it may happen that a stain, definitely identified as a blood-stain by other tests, may not react typically to the precipitan test, owing to the small amount of protein matter in the salt extract. This is especially the case if the protein has been rendered insoluble by heat or destroyed by chemical agents or by putrefaction. Even in such cases a positive reaction may occasionally be obtained, Uhlenhuth and Beumer reporting positive results after blood has been subjected to putrefaction for two years.

As far as the influence of time upon this reaction is concerned, it may be said that blood-stains over 50 years old have been detected. The whole point, in this connection, is whether any trace of soluble protein remains. If so, the test will react positively, providing the dilution and

the time of reaction be carefully regulated to suit the lessened concentration.

Heterologous precipitant reactions do not occur if the conditions of the test are properly maintained. If more concentrated blood solutions are used and the amount of anti-serum increased, such erroneous reactions may obtain. It is true that confusing reactions may arise in the differentiation of the blood of the closely related animals such for instance, as the horse, and donkey; goat, sheep and ox; dog and fox; hare and rabbit; chicken and pigeon; and especially man and the anthropoid apes (orang-outang, gorilla and chimpanzee). However, the point of great medico-legal importance is that such close differentiations are rarely called for, as the question at issue is, usually, whether a given stain is or is not due to human blood. As the apes are relatively scarce in this country, confusion is seldom probable. This reaction may, therefore, be regarded as practically specific for the especial type of blood protein with which the immune serum reacts (all details of the test being properly regulated), only the proteins of the very closely related animals responding to the test in a way which might leave the slightest room for doubt as to the origin of a stain or of a protein.

The substance in which the stain is found may, often, exert some retarding action on the test. Stains upon cloth or paper usually show prompt results, although those upon wall-paper may, at times, react atypically owing to the influence of the chemical of the dyes. Strong alkalies or acids prevent the reaction, but these are thrown out by neutralization before the test is applied. Tannic acid, derived from stains upon leather may prevent the reaction, although this is not always the case. Iron rust may retard but does not prevent the reaction. If the stain be upon soft clay, mortar, lime or fresh plaster so that an intimate mixture has occurred, the reaction will probably not obtain, according to Graham-Smith and Sanger, but if the stain be upon hard, well-dried motor, no influence is seen, as demonstrated by Biondi.

As previously stated, this active immune serum reacts promptly with the protein elements of exudates, sputum, pus, urine, feces, nasal and bronchial secretions, vaginal, lochial and seminal fluids, etc., so that a positive precipitan reaction means merely that a protein is present, which has the same origin as that against which the animal furnishing the anti-serum was immunized. Whether or not this is a blood protein is, in no way, a part of the test. This must be determined by other tests.

Reaction by Complement Fixation

When an animal is repeatedly injected parenterally (either through the blood-stream or by intra-peritoneal injection) with a foreign protein, as for example, bacteria or washed blood cells of another animal, its serum develops an immune substance or anti-body towards that particular protein. This process is known as a lytic process, and if the immune bodies are developed against bacteria, the serum containing them is known as bacteriolytic, and if directed against blood-cells, it is known as hemolytic. When the immune serum is brought in contact with its specific protein, it will attempt to break up the substance or destroy it. If fresh blood serum, immune to washed red blood cells, is brought in contact with the latter in a test tube, the red blood cells are soon broken up and dissolved out and the mixture which was at first turbid, takes on a clear red color. This hemolysis may be present by previously heating the serum to 56° C. for 15 minutes, the process being known as inactivation of the serum. However, on the addition of a small amount of fresh, normal serum (for example, guinea pig, rabbit, etc.) the

hemolytic property of the serum is again restored. Therefore, in hemolytic serum, two factors are concerned in the reaction,—one factor which is influenced by heat (thermo-labile) and another factor which is heat-resisting (or thermo-stabile). The thermo-labile substance is called complement. The thermo-stabile, or heat-resisting, substance is known as the amboceptor. Amboceptor may remain active in serum for years. Complement disappears within 48 hours unless various preservatives are added to the serum as, for example, NaCl which will keep the complement in the serum for 8 or 10 days. The red blood corpuscles, which is the antigen kept in the ice-box, will not disintegrate for at least 8 days. However, it is always preferable to have both complement and corpuscles as fresh as possible.

Hemolysis is impossible without a combined action of both amboceptor and complement, either one having very little effect. Amboceptor can combine with the cell only through the medium of complement, and this union can not take place unless the amboceptor and the antigen (the blood cells) are homologous or, in other words, the amboceptor (immune serum) must be one from an animal who has undergone treatment with blood cells of the same species used in the test. Hemolysis will always occur when the proper hemolytic system (amboceptor, complement, blood cells) or trinity is present, especially at body temperature.

Bacteriolytic Reactions.—In order that a bacterium be destroyed or rendered inert by complement fixation, it is necessary to have a fresh homologous bacteriolytic serum or an inactivated serum to which fresh normal serum has been added. This trinity of bacteria (antigen), bacteriolytic serum (amboceptor) and fresh normal serum (complement) is known as a bacteriolytic system or trinity and is the same as the hemolytic system only that instead of red blood-cells, bacterial emulsion or extract, is used. In the hemolytic or bacteriolytic systems therefore, the labile substance, or complement, is used up in uniting the amboceptor and antigen. Only a small quantity of this substance is necessary for the reaction between amboceptor and antigen and quantitatively, one can ascertain whether all the complement added in a reaction (as, for example, between a bacterium and its amboceptor) has been used up by testing for free complement in the mixture. This may be done by adding washed red blood-cells and its homologous amboceptor to the bacteriolytic system. If no hemolysis results, then it is evident that the complement in the bacteriolytic system was entirely used up or fixed. If, on the other hand, the red blood cells are destroyed, as evidenced by a clear solution, then the complement either was in excess of that necessary for the union of the bacteria and its amboceptor or was not used up in the bacteriolytic reaction and was, therefore, available for the hemolytic system and deviated to this latter system for its use. It is, therefore, evident that the quantitative estimation of the elements composing the systems, is of great importance in performing these reactions. This so-called fixation or deviation of complement, discovered by Bordet and Gengou, Wassermann, Neisser and Bruck, applied in the diagnosis of syphilitic infection, will also apply in many other infectious diseases, notably in typhoid fever by Widal and Lesourd as well as by Hirschfield, in cerebrospinal meningitis by Cohen, in whooping-cough by Bordet and Gengou, in scarlet fever by Besredka and Dopter and Foix and Mallein, in systemic gonococcic infections by Muller and Oppenheim, Bruck, Albarran and Jungano. Its most important and frequent application is in the sero-diagnosis of syphilis, as advanced by Wassermann, Neisser and Bruck, and independently, by Detre.

Complement Fixation in Syphilis (The Wassermann Reaction). Wassermann and his co-workers found that the serum of individuals actively infected with syphilis, contained an anti-body or immune substance which, when brought in contact with an extract of syphilitic liver, was able to fix complement and showed that this complement was used up effectively by the addition to this mixture of red blood corpuscles and its homologous amboceptor. When, as in a case of a positive serum, no hemolysis was evident, showing conclusively that there was no free complement present in the original bacteriolytic system and therefore complement was fixed. If, on the other hand, the test was carried out on the serum of a patient free from syphilis, no union of this serum and extract of syphilitic liver occurred then and therefore the complement was left free to engage the second or hemolytic system, the result being complete hemolysis, and therefore proving conclusively that the complement was not used up in the first system and abbreviated to the hemolytic system. Later workers, however, have shown that the antigen used to engage the patient's serum need not be specific, as alcoholic extracts of certain normal organs, lecithin, or even salts such as sodium glycocholate or oleate, may serve quite as well in the reaction. Although this fact lessens the true specificity of the test from the biological standpoint, there is no doubt of the chemical value of the reaction. Although the antigen need not be specific yet the test itself is remarkably specific when performed by an expert who takes care in the preparation of every detail component of the reaction. A positive Wassermann reaction performed with a careful technic should give only a positive reaction in syphilis and yaws, the latter disease being so rare in the human being that it can almost be disregarded.

Many modifications of the original Wassermann technic have crept in, in the past decade, notably in the modification of Noguchi and Hecht, and the Weinberg, Gradwold modification. However, 5 essential factors enter into the reaction, whatever be the modification employed and these are:

(1) syphilitic antibody
(2) syphilitic antigen
(3) complement
(4) washed red blood-cells
(5) hemolytic amboceptor

(1) *Syphilitic Antibody.*—This is obtained from the patient suspected of syphilis by withdrawing about 3 to 5 c.c. of blood from a vein. The blood is allowed to coagulate in a test tube, the serum is drawn off into a Wright capsule and inactivated by heating to 56° C. for 25 minutes.

(2) *Syphilitic Antigen.*—The antigens which have given the writer best results in an extensive experience with the Wassermann reaction are, in order of sensitiveness, (*a*) alcoholic extract of beef heart, 45 with two-tenths of 1 per cent. cholesterin; (*b*) Noguchi's acetone insoluble lipoid; (*c*) alcoholic extract of syphilitic fetal liver.

(3) *Complement.*—Complement is best obtained by bleeding a healthy guinea pig to death. After the blood coagulates, the serum is then separated. This serum will be potent for no longer than 48 hours after obtaining the blood. It may, however, last for a week or more if preserved with sodium chloride. If small quantities of guinea pig serum are needed, the animal may be bled by heart puncture so that it may not be necessary to sacrifice an animal each time a few tests are made.

(4) *Washed Red Blood-cells.*—These may be either sheep, ox or chicken red blood-cells and are obtained on bleeding these animals. The fresh

blood is shaken in a bottle containing glass beads which defibernates the blood, leaving the red blood-cells suspended in the blood plasma. These red blood-cells are repeatedly washed in saline and then used in the test. The writer prefers chicken cells in the Wassermann test because human serum contains very little natural amboceptor for them and therefore the quantitative error in the test is reduced to a minimum.

(5) *Hemolytic Amboceptor.*—The hemolytic amboceptor is obtained by immunizing rabbits to red blood-cells by rapidly injecting into them, either intravenously or intraperitoneally, ascending quantities of washed red blood cells every other day. Usually after 5 or 6 days the animals develop an immune serum to the homologous red blood-cells and this serum, diluted, is used as amboceptor.

Standardization of Reagents.—Not only is it of great import to make sure that the 5 reagents are prepared with great care and tested out for potency but it is also absolutely imperative that standardization of all reagents must be carried out preliminary to every performance of the test. Everything depends upon the proper adjustment of the various factors entering into the test so that especial care must be taken to find out just what quantity of each reagent to use. It is to be remembered at all times that in this test we are dealing with biological products which, as is well known, vary in potency from time to time after their preparation. Deterioration sometimes takes place rapidly and it is essential that as fresh reagents as possible be used at all times. Without such precautions little, if any, value can be attached to an examination.

The Titrations.—The strength of the complement and amboceptor, as well as antigen, must be determined on each occasion of its use.

(1) *Titration of the Complement.*—The complement may be used undiluted or in varying dilutions of from 40 to 10 per cent. The greater the dilution, of course, the greater the accuracy with which it can be titrated. Assuming that it is to be used in a 40 per cent. dilution (1 part of complement serum to 1½ parts of salt solution), arrange a series of test tubes somewhat as follows:

Tube No. 1—0.02 c.c. complement serum plus 1 c.c. 5 per cent. sheep blood-cells and 1½ units amboceptor.

Tube No. 2—0.04 c.c. complement serum plus 1 c.c. 5 per cent. sheep blood-cells and 1½ units amboceptor.

Tube No. 3—0.06 c.c. complement serum plus 1 c.c. 5 per cent. sheep blood-cells and 1½ units amboceptor.

Tube No. 4—0.08 c.c. complement serum plus 1 c.c. 5 per cent. sheep blood-cells and 1½ units amboceptor.

Tube No. 5—0.10 c.c. complement serum plus 1 c.c. 5 per cent. sheep blood-cells and 1½ units amboceptor.

Tube No. 6—0.12 c.c. complement serum plus 1 c.c. 5 per cent. sheep blood-cells and 1½ units amboceptor.

Make up all tubes to a like volume (1.5 or 2 c.c.). Mix thoroughly by gentle shaking and place in the incubator (preferably standing in a dish of water, since this insures rapid and uniform heating to incubator temperature) at 37° C. for 1 hour. The tube containing the smallest amount of complement which shows *complete* solution of the red cells (the solution bright red, perfectly clear and free from sediment) contains one unit of complement. Twice this amount is used in making the test proper, to allow for the rapid deterioration which takes place and for the small amount of complement directly absorbed by the antigen.

(2) *Titration of the Amboceptor.*—Arrange tubes as follows:

Tube	Complement, Units	Red Cells (5 Per Cent.) Cubic Centimeter	Amboceptor (1–100 Dilution), Cubic Centimeter
No. 1	1½	1.0	0.06
No. 2	1½	1.0	0.08
No. 3	1½	1.0	0.10
No. 4	1½	1.0	0.12
No. 5	1½	1.0	0.14
No. 6	1½	1.0	0.16

Bring all tubes to a like volume, mix, and incubate for one hour. The tube containing the smallest amount of amboceptor which causes complete hemolysis contains one unit. Two units are used for the test proper.

(3) *Titration of the Antigen.*—The stock solution is to be diluted freshly for use with salt solution. This makes a milky fluid. The amount of dilution will vary with the strength of the stock solution as determined by the following tests. For the latter a 10 per cent. dilution may be employed.

Arrange test tubes as follows:

Tube	Antigen (10 Per Cent.) Cubic Centimeter	Red Cells (5 Per Cent.) Cubic Centimeter
1	0.1	1.0
2	0.2	1.0
3	0.3	1.0
4	0.4	1.0
5	0.5	1.0
6	0.6	1.0

Bring all tubes to a like volume. Mix and incubate. The amount used in making the test proper must not be more than one-half the smallest amount which causes hemolysis in the above. A modified form of this titration is repeated each time the antigen is used.

At the same time with the above arrange six test-tubes as follows:

Tube	Antigen (10 Per Cent.), Cubic Centimeter	Complement, Units
1	0.1	2
2	0.2	2
3	0.3	2
4	0.4	2
5	0.5	2
6	0.6	2

Bring all tubes to a like volume, mix, and incubate. Then add to all tubes 1 c.c. of 5 per cent. red cell emulsion and 2 units amboceptor solution. Mix and reincubate. If the antigen is "anticomplementary" it will prevent hemolysis in one or more of the tubes. The amount used for the test proper must not exceed one-half the smallest amount showing such action.

The antigen must also be shown to react with known positive sera, and the amount required to produce a reaction determined. For this purpose an abundant supply of serum from a patient with active secondary syphilis (still better, from several such patients) is obtained, and the complete reaction carried out as described below, employing varying amounts of the antigen dilution, *e. g.*, 0.04, 0.06, 0.08, 0.1, 0.12, 0.14, c.c., etc. For the test proper an amount is used in the greatest possible excess of that amount which gives a positive reaction, but which complies, nevertheless, with the requirements mentioned above as to hemolytic and anticomplementary action.

Precautions in the Test.—Although the glassware used need not be sterile, it must be absolutely clean and free from alkali.

The patient's serum may be "anticomplementary," *i. e.*, it may have the power to combine with or absorb complement in the absence of antigen. Serum which has been kept too long, or which has been inactivated at a temperature above 56° C., is apt to exhibit this property. The anticomplementary property may sometimes be made to disappear by renewed inactivation. If this fails, the serum must be discarded. A control of this property is included in settling up the test.

The antigen may become anticomplementary or hemolytic, or both. When this happens, it must be discarded. A control for this is set up each time the antigen is used.

The hemolytic system may fail to function for a variety of reasons. A control of this is furnished by the titration of complement and amboceptor above described.

The Test Proper.—After all preparations have been completed and the titrations satisfactorily performed, one proceeds to set up the test proper. We may suppose that we are dealing with at least three sera—viz., the patient's serum and known positive and known negative control. In a rack having two rows of holes arrange test-tubes. Mix by gentle shaking and place in the incubator for one hour. The rack should stand with the tubes immersed in water to about the level of the contents. Then add to all the tubes except the last one, already containing blood-cells, 2 units of anti-sheep amboceptor dilution and 1 c.c. of 5 per cent. sheep red cell emulsion. Mix as before and incubate for two hours. The tubes in the back row show for each serum tested whether any of them is anticomplementary. They should all show complete solution of the red cells. The last two tubes show whether the antigen is hemolytic or anticomplementary respectively. The first, containing complement, should show complete hemolysis. The second, containing only antigen and red cells, should show no solution. Assuming that all these controls are satisfactory, one turns to the tubes in the front row. The known positive control shows no solution of the red cells, the complement having been deviated or bound during the first incubation, and hence being not available for the reaction with the red cells. For the opposite reason the known negative serum will show complete solution. The unknown serum will behave like the first or the second, according as it is positive or negative.

It is apparent that an excess of complement may convert a positive reaction into a negative, while a deficiency may cause a negative serum to behave like a (more or less) positive one. It is to avoid this contingency that the unknown quantity of complement present in the serum of the patient is removed by inactivation, to be replaced by an accurately measured amount of guinea-pig complement.

PLATE II



a *b* *c*

Wassermann reaction: *a*, Tube represents complete hemolysis—the end reaction of *negative* serum; *b*, represents partial hemolysis, some cells being hemolyzed, this representing a tube of a strongly positive "3 plus" (+++) serum after standing to sediment over night; *c*, represents inhibition of hemolysis—of a *very* strongly *positive* serum—"4 plus" (++++) after standing over night to sediment.

With cerebrospinal fluid the reaction is carried out in the same way, except that this fluid must not be inactivated, and is used in larger amounts. When enough fluid is available the test should be set up so as to give a reading for 0.4, 0.6, 0.8, and 1 c.c. When economy of material is necessary a reading should be obtained for 0.5 and 1 c.c. Further modifications may, of course, be imposed by the exigencies of the case.

Several degrees of the reaction are recognized and are customarily indicated as follows:

Complete inhibition (cells intact with colorless supernatant fluid),	or 4
Almost complete inhibition,	or 3
About ½ complete inhibition,	or 2
Slight inhibition,	or 1
No inhibition.	

Interpretation of Results.—A Wassermann reaction, properly performed, means syphilis or yaws. Jaundice and marked alcoholism may convert a positive Wassermann reaction into a negative one. The reaction is negative in primary syphilis and becomes rapidly and strongly positive as the general manifestations of the disease develop. In late and especially latent syphilis the reaction again grows weaker. More significance may therefore attach to weak reactions in such cases. A positive reaction quickly becomes negative under specific treatment, to recur if treatment is inadequate. Apparently cured cases may show a positive reaction after a provocative dose of arsphenamine. A negative reaction obtained from the blood serum of a patient is no guide as to the condition of the central nervous system. The central nervous system may be involved at any stage of the disease, and the writer has seen repeated evidence of the negative blood Wassermann and positive cerebrospinal fluid Wassermann. No case of syphilis, therefore, may be regarded as cured until both the blood and the cerebrospinal fluid show a persistent negative reaction to the Wassermann test. (Plate II.)

Complement Fixation Test for Gonorrhea.—This test is carried out for the diagnosis of chronic foci of infection with the gonococcus. It is usually negative in acute anterior urethritis but becomes positive in complications incident to gonorrheal infection. The reaction rapidly disappears after a cure is completed or the gonorrhea focus (Fallopian tubes, etc.) removed. The technic of the test as outlined by Schwartz and McNeil, is essentially the Wassermann technic except that the antigen, of course, is an autolysate of a large number of strains of the gonococci.

Complement Fixation Test for Tuberculosis.—The complement fixation test for tuberculosis is essentially also carried out like the original Wassermann technic. The test is performed with an antigen composed of tubercle bacilli or their products and while many different antigens have been proposed in recent years, the writer has found that a saline suspension of tubercle bacilli grown for four or five weeks is as good as any. Although the test is a valuable one, yet its practical import is not as great as was originally anticipated because the reaction obtained (probably due to wide-spread immunity to tuberculosis) are very frequently positive in the clinically non-tuberculous so that at present, until possibly a more delicate antigen is evolved, a negative reaction is of greater value than a positive.

Cobra Venom Test for Syphilis.—Of the several cobra-venom reactions, the method of Weil, for the diagnosis of syphilis, possesses the greatest practical value. It appears to depend upon the same disturbance of lipoid metabolism which is responsible for the Wassermann reaction. It is known that syphilis is characterized by a withdrawal of

lipoids from their chief depots, viz.: the central nervous system and the red blood-cells, with a marked increase of the same in the fluid part of the blood. Since it is also known that the hemolytic action of the cobra venom depends upon its activation by lecithin, in other words, upon a lecithin-venom complex in which the lecithin serves as complement, it may fairly be assumed that the loss of lipoids by the red cells is responsible for the increased resistance to hemolysis by cobra venom upon which Weil's reaction is based.

Herman-Perutz Reaction.—The Wassermann test for syphilis is so complex and requires so much experience for its proper performance and interpretation, that attempts have been made to find a serum reaction for syphilis which could be used by the general worker and which, at the same time, would give results comparable to those of the Wassermann test. Such a test is that of Herman and Perutz, which is a modification of an older test of Porges. For this test two solutions are used.

Solution A:

Sodium glycocholate	2.00 grams
Cholesterin	0.40 gram
95 per cent. alcohol	100.00 c.c.

At the time of making the test, this solution is diluted with distilled water in proportion of 1 to 20.

Solution B:

A 2 per cent. aqueous solution of sodium glycocholate.

This solution must be made up fresh at the time of making the test, as it is not permanent. Further, the solution is not a perfect one so that the bottle should be shaken before using. While this test is very simple, the results obtained are not as reliable as the Wassermann test.

Coagulo Reaction.—This reaction originated by Hirschfield and Klinger, is based on the observation that syphilitic serum delays, or even prevents the coagulation of recalcified oxalate plasma by inhibiting the production of thrombin through interference with the activity of thrombokinase. It is to be recalled that coagulation of the blood is due to the formation of fibrin from fibrinogen through the influence of a ferment, thrombase (thrombin), which is present in the leucocytes and blood plates (and may be obtained in vitro by extraction of most tissues with alcohol) in the form of prothrombase. This latter zymogens changed, through the influence of ionized calcium compounds, into thrombin. It has, further, been shown that thrombin consists of two substances: namely, (1) the serozyme or thrombogen, a protein constituent of the plasma and (2) the cytozyme or thrombokinase, which belongs to the group of lipoids (largely lecithins). This cytozyme, therefore, it will be seen, is essential to the formation of a coagulum. A simple procedure would, of course, be to test a fluid by the addition of fibrinogen solutions. However, such solutions are unstable somewhat, as Bordet and Delange have shown, we may employ oxalate plasma instead. This latter has the advantage that it will keep for some time and that its addition prevents any further formation of thrombin, as the calcium of the serum is precipitated by the oxalic acid radicle in the form of calcium oxalate.

Precipitation Reactions.—It has been found that fresh sera of syphilitics are capable of precipitating syphilic antigens with more or less specificity, and the best known of these is the Kahn precipitation test. While they have the advantage of being far simpler than the complement fixation test for syphilis, yet they have not proved in the author's hands

sufficiently reliable to replace our present Wassermann test. Lastly in the diagnosis of syphilis, we cannot too strongly emphasize the fact that a carefully performed, and controlled, complement fixation for syphilis is the most reliable known serologic method.

In the performance of this test there are, so to speak, three phases, which may be outlined as follows: (1) Mix the heated serum with varying dilutions of the cytozyme (alcoholic extract of tissue, preferably human heart) and allow the mixtures to stand for ½ to 1 hour to permit the inactivation of the cytozyme by the serum; (2) add solution of calcium chloride and the serozyme (fresh plasma or recalcified oxalate plasma), and allow to stand for 15 minutes to permit the production of thrombin, providing, of course, that cytozyme is available, the amount of thrombin formed being in direct ratio to the amount of cytozyme present; (3) add oxalate plasma to test for the presence and amount of thrombin and time the reaction of coagulation. This reaction also gives variable results in syphilis and should not be relied upon without a Wassermann control.

Sero Diagnosis by Abderhalden's Method

It will be recalled that the injection of foreign protein into the system results in the production of certain well-established biologic properties in the serum of the animals so injected (see Serum Diagnosis). Abderhalden has shown that the parenteral injection of foreign protein or carbohydrate, brings about the appearance in the blood serum of proteolytic or amylolytic ferments, as an indication of the effort of the system to protect itself against the possible toxic effect of this non-hydrolised material. Such protective ferments he believes specific and never found in the serum of normal animals. The blood will be seen therefore, to have acquired definite digestive properties apart from that present in the leucocytes. A further step has been the demonstration that substances which are native to the system but foreign to the blood, may arise from physiologic or pathologic changes with the system itself, and after absorption into the blood, produced quite as definite a response as if the material were introduced from without. Upon this basis Abderhalden advocated a test in which the serum of a pregnant woman in contact with placental tissue, is capable of digesting it. This test has also been applied in cases of suspected cancer (using cancer tissue instead of placental) and in mental diseases such as dementia præcox; testicular or ovarian tissue; in general paralysis, epilepsy with dementia and manic depressive insanity, using brain tissue.

Practical Import of the Abderhalden Reaction.—When Abderhalden claimed specificity for this test, especially in pregnancy, it was soon found, in the application of the test to a large number of individuals, that a positive non-specific reaction was frequently obtained in individuals not pregnant, and occasionally male subjects, so that a negative reaction with the Abderhalden technic is of much greater diagnostic import than a positive reaction. The diagnostic results obtained in the other conditions enumerated above, have been variable, some workers obtaining fairly reliable results, others very indifferent ones.

Matching Blood for Transfusion

Since Landsteiner in 1901, proved conclusively that agglutination of red blood-cells by contact with blood serum derived from another individual of the same species, occurs very frequently, his observations have been confirmed by later workers and human blood has since been divided into four general groups; especially is the classification by Jansky and

Moss the most practical. It has been found that human blood has two different iso-agglutinins. These have been designated by the capital letters "A" and "B." The elements which are agglutinable are resident in the corpuscles and have been identified by the small letters "a" and "b." It is self-evident that a blood cannot contain agglutin in A or B and its correspondent agglutinable substance a or b, as this would lead to agglutination of the blood corpuscles by its own plasma. However, there are four different combinations of these elements which are possible and which are shown to exist in the blood.

Grouping of Human Blood, According to Jansky.

Group	Serum	Red Blood-cells
1	Agglutinates cells of the three other groups; contains agglutinins a and b.	Inagglutinable; contain no agglutinogen
2	Agglutinates cells of groups 3 and 4; contains agglutinin b	Agglutinated by serum of groups 1 and 3; contain agglutinogen A
3	Agglutinates cells of groups 2 and 4; contains agglutinin a	Agglutinated by serum of groups 1 and 2; contain agglutinogen B
4	No agglutinative effect; contains no agglutinin	Agglutinated by serum of groups 1, 2, and 3; contain agglutinogens A and B

During embryonic development, and during the first three months of life, the human being does not possess specific agglutinative power in the blood. This knowledge is important because any donor will be safe for transfusion purposes up to that period of life. After that, individuals fall into one of the four groups, which group peculiarity remains permanently throughout the life of the individual. The writer found the grouping of blood according to Jansky, the most practical although the Moss classification differs from Jansky's merely in the placing of the most common group. Group 1 in Jansky is group 4 in Moss classification; otherwise they are practically the same.

The serum of any group will agglutinate the corpuscles of those groups toward which its arrows point. Thus, serum of an individual belonging to group 1, will agglutinate red corpuscles belonging to any other group while the serum of group 4 lacks agglutinating power.

Technic for Testing Blood for Transfusion (Minot's Method). Obtain the following from each of the two persons whose blood is to be matched:

(*a*) *Red Cell Suspension.*—Puncture finger or ear and let a large drop of blood fall directly into a small test-tube containing 1 c.c. of a 1.5 per cent. solution of sodium citrate in 0.9 per cent. salt solution. Mix gently by inverting a few times.

(*b*) *Serum.*—Obtain a few drops of blood in a small tube or Wright capsule. As soon as coagulation has taken place, gently loosen the clot from the wall of the tube. Let stand until serum has separated well. Separation of serum can be hastened by centrifugation.

(*c*) Make thick vaselin rings on two slides. In one mix one drop each of the patient's serum and the suspension of the donor's corpuscles; in the other mix one drop each of the patient's corpuscles and the donor's serum. The fluids may be transferred to the slide by means of a capillary pipet or a platinum loop. Cover each of the preparations with a cover-

glass, and at about the end of five and ten minutes re-mix corpuscles and serum by lifting one edge of the cover.

If hollow ground slides are at hand, hanging-drop preparations are preferable. The corpuscles and serum are then mixed at intervals by moving the slide.

At intervals examine for agglutination of red corpuscles with a low-power objective. When agglutination takes place the corpuscles gather into dense irregular clumps or large masses. These are often so large as to be seen with the unaided eye as fine brick-red granules. Clumping is usually well marked within a few minutes but it is safe to allow half an hour.

The only important source of error is rouleau formation, which may or may not occur and which, although the clumps are usually very small, might not be easy to differentiate without close observation with the 4 mm. objective. In the case of rouleau formation the corpuscles can be seen to lie in rows within the groups. Re-mixing of the cells and serum as above directed tends to break up rouleaux and to favor agglutination. If one feels uncertain as to one's interpretation, one should make control slides with the patient's serum and corpuscles and the donor's serum and corpuscles. Under these conditions agglutination will not occur.

Determination of Group to Which an Individual Belongs.—Sometimes it is very important to determine the groups in advance of many individuals so that they may be called upon in emergencies to give blood for transfusion when the occasion arises. These individuals may be classified by testing their serum and corpuscles against the corpuscles and serum of individuals known to belong to group 2 or 3, using the simple method outlined above. Interpretation of results is made clear by the graphic illustration of Jansky's classification. If, for example, the unknown blood agglutinates group 2 blood and is not agglutinated by it, then the unknown must belong to group 1. The same end may be accomplished by testing the corpuscles of the unknown against sera of both groups 2 and 3. If both groups do not agglutinate the unknown corpuscles, then they belong to group 1. If group 2 sera agglutinates the unknown corpuscles then it belongs to group 3. If sera of group 3 agglutinates the corpuscles, it belongs to group 2. If both 2 and 3 sera agglutinates the corpuscles, then it belongs to group 4.

While it is a group convenience and very necessary to group prospective donors so that their bloods will match the recipient, it must be borne in mind that although human bloods have been carefully classified yet occasionally reactions develop due to unknown antagonisms between the matched bloods that are beyond our present recognition. These may probably be minor agglutinins that may be present in unknown quantities even though the bloods be matched carefully. It is therefore very desirable that the bloods of the prospective donor and the recipient be brought in contact immediately before transfusion so that an estimation can be made concerning the compatability of the two bloods, and this is accomplished very simply by the tests advocated by Roux and Turner.

This test compares very well in delicacy with those already in use but is even more practicable. With this test also a weak agglutinin may be demonstrated quite as well with mixtures of citrated whole bloods as with serum and a diluted suspension of washed red cells in salt solution.

Collection of the Blood.—The blood is taken from the patient and the prospective donors in a 1:10 mixing pipet, such as is used in counting leucocytes. The pipet is rinsed beforehand with 10 per cent. sodium citrate in water; the citrate solution is drawn up to the mark 1; the pipet

is rapidly filled with blood from a puncture of the ear or finger; and without pause the mixture is expelled into a small narrow test tube. There is thus obtained a citrated blood containing slightly less than 1 per cent. of citrate. The pipets which we have employed hold only 0.25 c.c. of fluid. This much blood is easily obtained from a single puncture. There is no objection to increasing the flow by pressure. Should it cease before the pipet is full, the blood must be at once expelled into a test tube, in order that it may mix with the citrate and clotting be avoided. The mixture is then taken up again, a new puncture made, and the pipet completely filled. After each blood is obtained, the pipet is rinsed with citrate, then with distilled water, then with fresh citrate, and it is ready for another blood. If several donors are to be tested, two pipetfuls of citrated blood should be obtained from the patient. It is best to take them from different puncture wounds, in order to avoid a possible clotting in the pipet.

Mixing.—The mixing is done in pipets with a capillary end—the so-called Wright pipets obtained by drawing out glass tubing in the flame. The citrated bloods are used as such, and two combinations are made of the patient's blood with that of each prospective donor—a mixture containing nine parts of the patient's blood to one of the donor's, and a mixture of equal parts of the two. The proportions used need be only approximate. Following the technic usual with Wright pipets, the capillary tube is marked, blood is drawn to the mark, and each column of the blood is separated with an air bubble that is drawn up. To insure proper mingling, each mixture should be expelled on a slide, or Widal plate, and then drawn high in the pipet, which may be sealed off in the flame in case the examination is not to be made for some time.

Incubation.—Incubation in the ordinary sense is unnecessary. The pipets are kept at room temperature, and readings are begun after two minutes, if there is need to hurry. The readings are for agglutination, and even within two minutes this is plainly evident, except when the agglutinating forces are notably weak. In the final choice of a donor it is safest to rely on results obtained after the mixtures have stood for fifteen minutes. But the ruling out of individuals with unfit blood may be begun practically at once.

Readings.—The capillary end of each pipet is broken, a small drop of the blood expressed on a slide, a large drop of normal salt solution superimposed without mixing, a coverslip put on, and the preparation examined for agglutination under the microscope. Fresh preparations can be made at intervals if desired. The salt solution is not absolutely necessary; but very clear pictures are obtained as the blood spreads in it. When agglutination has occurred, the red cells show a characteristic clumping, sometimes in small masses, often in large ones that are very evident macroscopically. The clumps in each preparation are fairly uniform in size. The picture is absolutely different from that in mixtures of nonagglutinating bloods under similar conditions. In these, the cells lie free or in rouleaux, just as in a single blood. But in agglutinating mixtures the cells are stuck together "every which way," and, where the film is thin, they do not separate but lie connected with one another in irregular heaps. If pressure is put on the coverslip, a very characteristic phenomenon may sometimes be seen. The agglutinated cells pull out in strands as though they consisted of some sticky substance. The most striking pictures are encountered when there are nine parts of an agglutinating blood to one that is agglutinated. Here large discrete masses lie scattered amid unclumped red cells.

If there is no clumping in the preparations made after the mixtures have stood fifteen minutes, the assumption is warranted that the bloods do not agglutinate or hemolyze each other. The experience of previous workers has taught that in such instances transfusion is safe. But if clumping is present in the 9:1 mixture and to a lesser degree or not at all in the 1:1 mixture, it is certain that the blood of the patient agglutinates that of the donor and may perhaps hemolyze it. Transfusion, in such cases, is dangerous. Clumping in the 1:1 mixture with little or none in the 9:1 indicates that the plasma of the prospective donor agglutinates the cells of the prospective recipient. The risk from transfusing is much less under such circumstances, but it may be doubted whether the blood is as useful as one which does not and is not agglutinated. A blood of the latter kind should always be chosen if possible.

For practical purposes these findings suffice. But if there is a desire to know whether both bloods contain agglutinins a 1:9 mixture should be made. If this and the 9:1 mixture show large clumps, where as the clumps are smaller when the bloods are mixed in equal parts, two agglutinins must be present. Should there be only one agglutinin, little clumping or none will be observed when the blood containing the agglutinin is diluted with nine parts of the other blood.

Difficulties.—The single technical difficulty of the method is that of clotting, and to avoid it the blood should be taken as rapidly as possible. With normal blood, trouble is seldom experienced, but in pathologic instances a thin web may form in the test tube into which the blood is expelled. The clotting begins in the calibrated tube of the pipet which, as the blood is taken, is swept free of citrate; and the use of a strong citrate (15 per cent.) will not prevent it. But the clot is always thin and may be picked out of the blood and the latter used for the tests. In the pipet even small clots are troublesome, since they form a nucleii for new ones when another blood is taken. They are best dissolved out with 5 per cent. potassium hydroxid.

The likelihood that something else may be mistaken for agglutination is practically nil. The presence of fibrin strands and clumps of platelets and white cells absolutely differentiates bits of clot. Dried blood will not be found except in case of carelessness, and it is unlikely to cause confusion. Its nearly homogeneous, cheesy appearance under the microscope is sufficiently distinctive.

Clinical Comment.—The test here described has some features in common with two of the methods already in use. Therefore, to point out wherein it is an advance over these will not seem amiss. Epstein and Ottenberg use Wright's pipets, collecting blood in them for serum, and making the ultimate test mixtures in them. But the mixtures consist of serum and washed red cells; they are incubated for two hours, and the readings are macroscopic. Weil employs citrated bloods making, in test tubes, three mixtures of the same relative proportions as in this. Two cubic centimeter of each blood are required, thus making necessary aspiration from a vein; the tubes are incubated for an hour, and the readings are macroscopic. By means of the test of Epstein and Ottenberg, aspiration from a vein is avoided; and by Weil's method the need to separate serum, wash the red cells and make reciprocal observations is done away with. In both instances however, the time and the labor of testing donors is very considerable. Using rapid method, it is only necessary to obtain citrated bloods from a finger-prick, make two mixtures of them in capillary pipets and, by reading with the microscope, the test is finished within a few minutes.

The method involves several important assumptions. They may be summed up in two questions: (1) Is the presence or absence of agglutination an index to the injurious qualities of a blood? (2) Are the microscopic findings with mingled, citrated bloods that have stood for fifteen minutes at room temperature as certain in their indication as macroscopic findings after longer periods with mixtures of serum and 5 per cent. washed red cells—that is to say, as certain as the test most used at present?

The first question can be answered from the literature. Leaving from consideration disease in the donor, two injurious influences must be thought of when a foreign blood is introduced into the human body, namely, hemagglutination and hemolysis. The latter is far the more serious. Moss has found in extensive observations that agglutination frequently occurs with hemolysis, but that hemolysis is always associated with or preceded by agglutination. This conclusion he has substantiated with seventy-five successful transfusions in which the donors were selected by means of the agglutination test. It is well known that human beings fall into four groups as regards the agglutinins in their serum and the capacity of their corpuscles to be agglutinated. Moss was careful to select for transfusion individuals of the same group. Without going deeply into the matter we may say that, when serum and washed cells are used, reciprocal observations are necessary to determine whether two individuals belong to the same group. But in mixtures of whole citrated bloods, agglutination is only absent when this is the case.

In the Roux and Turner test, agglutination is looked for with the microscope. This does not mean that macroscopic readings are impossible, for when clumping is at all outspoken in the slide preparation, it is plainly evident to the naked eye. Observations can, in emergency, be made in this way. But with the microscope, as one would naturally suppose, the readings are more sensitive and more precise. When anti-rabbit goat serum is mixed with rabbit red cells, clumping is observable microscopically in dilutions of serum much higher than those in which it is evident macroscopically in the test tube. This can be noted also with dilutions of an agglutinating human serum mixed with human red cells and with undiluted human serums weak in agglutinins. An agglutinative clumping is rarely doubtful microscopically, for the cohesion of the cells, even when only two or three are concerned in each clump, is absolutely different from rouleaux formation. In the test tube an agglutination is often difficult to distinguish from sedimentation; and the shaking which throws up the clumps into the fluid that they can be viewed may break them so that they do not reform.

Experience shows that if agglutination occurs at all it will be noticeable microscopically within five minutes. But it is better to let the mixtures stand longer. We have no hesitation in saying that agglutination can be told with the microscope as certainly after fifteen minutes as in two hours with the old macroscopic method. The explanation of this is probably simple. The clumps which become visible to the test tube after an hour or more are in general not the primary clumps of an agglutination but the result of a massing together of many such clumps, which themselves are often small. Such secondary massing requires time, whereas the primary clumps form almost immediately.

That agglutination is sometimes better at room than at body temperature is well known. Repeated trial has shown that the incubation of our agglutinating mixtures seldom increases the rapidity of the reaction. In

some instances agglutination was much more pronounced after fifteen minutes at room temperature than in two hours at body heat. An altered distribution of the agglutinin may account for this.

It has been repeatedly shown that an excess of red cells may mask the presence of an agglutinin or hemolysin, and that hemolysis is much influenced by the presence of neutral serum. Agglutination is practically independent of this latter factor. The influence of small amounts of sodium citrate does not seem to have been determined.

STUDY OF FIXED AND STAINED BLOOD

Slides and Cover-glasses

The first step in the preparation of smears or films upon either cover-glasses or slides has been previously described on p. 356.

A very satisfactory method of fixation of blood films is to expose them for about fifteen minutes to the action of pure methyl-alcohol. The slide containing the smear is immersed in the methyl-alcohol contained in a suitable vessel. Merck's or Kahlbaum's acetone-free methyl-alcohol should be used.

Staining

One of the most essential facts in the staining of blood is that the results secured should be obtained by the simplest method possible. In 1891 Romanowsky detailed a method for the staining of malarial parasites by which the chromatin and the cytoplasm were stained differently. Since the appearance of Romanowsky's original paper, others have attempted to perfect similar staining methods. Thus Jenner detailed a most practical stain for blood, and Leishman simplified Jenner's method to some extent. It was not until 1902, however, that J. H. Wright perfected this method and made its practical application possible.

Eosin, Hematoxylin, and Methylene-blue.—The solutions necessary in this method of staining the blood are: 0.5 per cent. eosin in 70 per cent. alcohol; Delafield's hematoxylin; and 2 per cent. aqueous methylene-blue.

Application of Stain.—First stain the specimen with eosin for one-half minute and wash in water. Then, without drying, stain with hematoxylin for from one to three minutes, the time varying greatly with different stains, even though they be prepared in essentially the same manner. Wash and dry the specimen, and mount as previously described.

Wright's Staining Method.—The blood is smeared on slides or cover-glasses and allowed to dry in the air. The spread blood does not stain well after it has been exposed to the air for several months. Although the laboratory worker usually prepares his own stain, the inexperienced will find it better to procure the stain from dealers in laboratory supplies.

1. Add to the specimen enough of an alcoholic solution of the stain to cover the film, and allow it to stand for one minute, in order to fix the corpuscles.

2. To the alcoholic solution of the stain now on the specimen add water, drop by drop, until the stain becomes semitranslucent, and a yellowish, metallic scum forms on the surface. Allow this diluted stain to cover the specimen for two or three minutes.

3. Wash the heavily stained specimen in water until the film of blood presents a yellowish or pink tint to the naked eye.

4. When the desired tint is attained, dry immediately between

blotting-paper, lest decolorization be carried too far. The specimen is now ready to be mounted in Canada balsam.

Stained Blood.—The red cells are orange or pink, the nuclei of the nucleated red cells are deep blue. By this stain granular basic degeneration of the red cells is made evident. Polymorphonuclear neutrophilic leukocytes show dark-blue or dark, lilac-colored nuclei, and the granules are of a reddish-lilac color. Lymphocytes have dark, purplish-blue nuclei; cytoplasm is robin's-egg blue, and in it are seen a few dark-blue or purplish granules. Eosinophiles display blue or dark, lilac-colored nuclei. The granules are stained red by the eosin, but the cytoplasm in which they are embedded is of a blue color. Large mononuclears present blue or dark, lilac-colored nuclei. Some of these cells show pale-blue or lilac cytoplasm, whereas others contain, in addition, dark-lilac or deep-purple granules. Mast-cells resemble the ordinary polymorphonuclear leukocytes, and in addition display coarse spheric granules which are stained dark blue, purple, or at times blackish. Myelocytes contain purplish or dark-lilac nuclei. In the cytoplasm numerous dark-lilac or reddish-lilac granules are seen. Blood-plates appear as small round or oval bodies, and are stained blue or purplish. These bodies show irregular margins, and their substance contains fine blue or purplish dots.

DISEASES OF THE BLOOD

ANEMIA

A condition in which there is a deficiency in the red cells or the hemoglobin, with or without change in the number of leukocytes. Clinically, anemia may be divided into two great classes:

Primary anemia, in which the exciting cause is believed to affect the blood-making organs primarily.

Secondary anemia, in which the abnormalities of the blood are attributable to some previously existing disease, such as chronic suppuration, heart, renal, and gastric disorders.

The secondary anemias are of two types:

(1) The chloro-anemias, in which there is a moderate reduction of red cells, a greater reduction in hemoglobin, with a low color-index, and little or no change in the leukocyte formula, except a possible increase in the polymorphonuclear neutrophile cells. This variety of anemia is the usual one found in cases of prolonged discharge of pus, cardiac disease, renal disease, malignant disease, etc.

Cases of long standing anemia develop postero-lateral sclerosis. Paresthesia in the hands and feet is an early complaint, and is followed by progressive weakness of the lower extremities. The lower limbs give evidence of pyramidal tract and of postero-lateral tract involvement.

(2) The secondary anemias of the pernicious type, in which there is a great reduction in the number of red cells, a less reduction in the hemoglobin, with a high color-index, little or no change in the leukocyte formula, and the presence of nucleated red cells in the peripheral blood. This type is sometimes seen accompanying carcinoma, sarcoma, after severe malarial infection, after hemorrhage, and in cases of infection with dibothriocephalus latus.

Oligocythemia is a term applied to a diminution of the number of erythrocytes in a cubic millimeter of blood. It may be moderate, when the cells number from 4,5000,000 to 3,000,000; marked, when they are between 3,000,000 and 1,500,000; and excessive, when they are below 1,500,000. Oligochromemia is a term applied to a diminution in the hemoglobin percentage. This may also be moderate, marked, or excessive.

The histologic study of the stained blood will give important data for diagnostic purposes.

The normal erythrocyte is spherical. It varies from 7.2 to 7.8 microns in diameter; stains pale pink with eosin, and presents a pale area in its center, due to the normal concavity of the cell.

If the cells are deficient in hemoglobin, this central pale-staining area is larger than normal, and it may be eccentric in position and somewhat distorted in shape.

If the cells vary markedly in size, we have a condition known as **anisocytosis.** A red cell which is smaller than normal is called a **microcyte;** one which is larger than normal is called a **macrocyte.**

If the erythrocytes are altered in form so that oval, elliptic, pear-shaped, club-shaped, and other irregular forms are seen, we have a condition known as **poikilocytosis.** The deformed cell is called a **poikilocyte.**

If the erythrocyte, instead of staining pink with eosin, stains purple, on account of taking the methylene-blue stain as well as the eosin, the condition is known as **polychromatophilia.**

Many erythrocytes show small blue dots in their cytoplasm when stained with eosin-methylene-blue combinations. These dots may be uniformly distributed throughout the cell; they may form a ring around its circumference; they may be collected into two or three groups, or they may be irregularly distributed throughout the cell. The condition is known as **basophilic degeneration,** or **granular degeneration.**

Nucleated red cells are often found in the peripheral blood in pathologic conditions. A nucleated red cell which is normal in size; has a normal staining cytoplasm; and a single, double, or triple nucleus, is called a **normoblast.**

A nucleated red cell, which is larger than a normal erythrocyte; has a single large vesicular nucleus; and a polychromatophilic cytoplasm, is called a **megaloblast.** These cells sometimes show karyokinetic figures.

A nucleated red cell which does not present all the histologic characteristics of a normoblast, on the one hand, or a megaloblast, on the other hand, is called an **intermediate.** Microblasts are small nucleated red blood-cells.

Clinical Significance.—Anisocytosis, poikilocytosis, polychromatophilia, and basophilic degeneration of the erythrocytes are seen in all of the severer forms of anemia, whether primary or secondary. The most noticeable degrees of poikilocytosis and anisocytosis, however, are found in progressive pernicious anemia. Basophilic degeneration of the erythrocyte is found earliest and in most noticeable amount in the anemia of leadworkers. It has been shown to be present before symptoms are manifested.

Normoblasts are found in all severe anemias, most commonly in the post-hemorrhagic cases and in progressive pernicious anemia. They are likely to appear in the peripheral blood suddenly and in large numbers, and to disappear suddenly; such a phenomenon is called a **normoblastic shower.** Normoblasts are considered by many writers to indicate an attempt at regeneration on the part of the bone-narrow.

Megalobasts may be found in all the severest anemias in small numbers—one or two to 500 leukocytes. Their constant presence in large numbers is seen in progressive pernicious anemia only. The absence of megaloblasts is not conclusive evidence of the absence of progressive pernicious anemia; particularly when all the other features of the blood-picture point to that disease, the failure to find megaloblasts may be disregarded.

POLYCYTHEMIA

Pathologic Definition.—A condition characterized by the presence, in the circulating blood, of an excessive number of red corpuscles.

Varieties.—In the majority of instances polycythemia is **physiologic,** *e. g.*, it follows physical exercise with profuse perspiration, and hot baths; it occurs during pregnancy, and at altitudes above 4000 feet.

Engelkins has cited a family where the grandmother, mother, and five children, developed polycythemia; all were under-developed, and showed evidence of endocrine dysfunction.

Pathologic polycythemia is associated with bronchial asthma, emphysema, cardiac insufficiency, pneumonia, pleural effusion, ascites, and conditions causing obstruction to the return circulation.

Again, polycythemia may be either **general** or **local.** General polycythemia of obscure origin is quite common. Anesthesia (chloroform and ether) and the prolonged use of such drugs as antikamnia, phenacetin, acetanilid, "headache powders," etc., are followed by general polycythemia.

Infants present normally a polycythemia of from 5,444,000 (Stengel and White) to 7,000,000 (Emerson).

Blood taken from a portion of the body which shows cyanosis will contain more than 5,000,000 corpuscles per cubic millimeter, a condition which may be termed **local polycythemia.**

Physical Signs.—On **inspection** the complexion is often florid, the cheeks are of a bright reddish hue, and the skin in general appears to be too ruddy. In a few instances persons of normal complexion are found to have too many red cells, but such individuals are, as a rule, fat and muscular. When cyanosis is general, the skin and mucous surfaces assume a peculiar blueness that is slightly changed by pressure, and which disappears gradually when the obstruction to the circulation is removed.

In cyanosis the patient's attitude is that of exhaustion; the respirations are shallow and rapid, the lips are separated, and he is often found sitting up or propped up in bed. Epigastric pulsation, due to dilatation of the right heart, and pulsation at the third rib on the left, due to dilatation of the left auricle, are to be seen. The nails of the fingers and toes show a peculiar reddish and at times a bluish-black hue. Cyanosis often involves but one or two fingers of the one hand, or it may affect but a single extremity. In the majority of instances, however, it becomes general sooner or later, and in such maladies as asthma and valvular heart disease it becomes chronic.

Upon palpation the skin is smooth to the feel, and there may be some evidence of edema of the extremities, lips, and eyelids.

Laboratory Diagnosis.—The laboratory findings in physiologic polycythemia are quite uniform, and consist chiefly in an increase in the number of red cells. The hemoglobin is likewise increased. While the leukocytes may show moderate increase, in many instances they remain normal in number, and, in fact, cases have been cited in which the number of white cells was subnormal (leukopenia).

In the polycythemia of obesity and of plethora the individual red cells are found to contain an excess of hemoglobin, yet the size and form of such cells remain normal. The specific gravity of the blood is increased. Vaquez has found that the total nitrogen content of the blood-serum is increased, a fact probably dependent upon the presence of hemoglobin in solution. The whole blood is also richer in nitrogen than normal, but

the red cells when separated from the entire blood display a deficiency in nitrogen.

In most forms of polycythemia the urine is of a high color and of high specific gravity, with an excess of uric acid and oxalates.

Summary of Diagnosis.—Chronic polycythemia is oftenest encountered in those cases in which there is some defect in the circulation, and it develops after the extraction of a large quantity of liquid from the body, as is seen in cholera, diabetes, etc. Polycythemia, the result of disturbances in the arterial tension, is also to be seen after extensive burns of the skin; thus Locke reports an instance in which the red cells increased 4,000,000 in a cubic millimeter following an extensive burn. An increase of 2,000,000 in a cubic millimeter is to be expected in moderate burns.

Anesthesia also causes polycythemia, which is, as a rule, local, although it may be general; an increase of 1,000,000 or more red cells in a cubic millimeter is often seen after the administration of either chloroform or ether, but at this time the percentage of hemoglobin is reduced.

Pathologic polycythemia is to be found after the ingestion of poisons, *e. g.*, phosphorus, carbonic oxid, and during diseases displaying chronic cyanosis.

Altitude exercises a decided influence upon the number of red cells per cubic millimeter, and it is the rule to find the number of red cells above the normal in individuals residing at an altitude above 1000 feet. This increase is proportionate to the rise in altitude, until, at 14,000 feet, the normal number of red cells in a cubic millimeter has been found to be 8,000,000.

Certain drugs taken for prolonged periods give a peculiar dull or dusky color to the skin, which is not infrequently accompanied by polycythemia; in a number of cases observed by us there were neurasthenia, anorexia, and insomnia, with a moderate enlargement of the liver and the spleen. In these cases it appeared that the polycythemia and associated conditions resulted from the use of some one, or in many instances of several, of the coal-tar products, particularly from the continued use of headache powders.

Polycythemia resulting from the prolonged or excessive use of acetanilid may show peculiarities in the hemoglobin, yet the evidence furnished by the literature appears to be conflicting. Blood smeared upon slides and permitted to dry in the air develops a peculiar dull, dusky, lusterless color, which is best demonstrated by preparing a similar film of normal blood and subjecting it to the same treatment. Argyria causes a deep discoloration of the skin resulting polycythemia.

POLYCYTHEMIA VERA (VAQUEZ DISEASE)

Historical Note.—A blood condition first described at length by Vaquez in 1892 and given liberal consideration by Sir William Osler in 1903. Lucas in a review of the literature in 1912 concludes there are on record 149 authentic case reports, and since 1911 Marsh* has reported from the Mayo clinics 15 cases.

Clinical Consideration.—A disease characterized by a marked increase in the number of red blood corpuscles, decided increase in the leukocytes, pronounced viscosity, a peculiar cyanotic, purplish, color of the skin of the face, with less conspicuous cyanosis of other portions of the body; and a varying degree of splenic enlargement.

* Medical Clinics of North America, November, 1919.

General Complaint.—Patients complain of abdominal discomfort due to splenic enlargement, and hand in hand with this annoyance, they experience tinnitus, headache and frequent attacks of vertigo.

Parkes Weber, of London, in his monograph on polycythemia erythrocytosis and erythremia, concludes that Ayerza's disease ("cardiacos negros") or chronic cyanosis with secondary polycythemia rubra, of cardiac, and pulmonary origin is entirely different from Vaquez disease. Ayerza's disease is associated with congestion of the liver and the so-called cardiac spleen while true cases of Vaquez disease display splenomegaly. The polycythemia of hypertonia is also a secondary condition and is frequently associated with pathologic granular changes in the kidneys, and the accompanying symptomatology referable to kidney disease.

Inspection.—The face displays a somewhat characteristic cyanosis and in advanced cases there may be slight hemorrhage from the nose. Respiration is labored, especially after exercise. The fingers are clubbed, the degree of clubbing depends on the stage of the disease. Abdominal enlargement due to splenic tumor may be observed, choreaform movements may be present.

Palpation.—Weakening of certain parts of the body is common and hemiplegia has been reported. Venous thrombosis with tenderness over the affected areas has been observed. The pulse and muscular-tonus depend upon the stage of the disease. The spleen is usually palpable.

Percussion.—Increased areas of splenic dullness is the only constant finding, although cardiac hypertrophy and dilatation frequently complicate this condition.

Laboratory Diagnosis.—Authors differ regarding the actual increase in the bodily number of blood-cells. Longcope and others contend that there is an actual increase in the volume of blood. Williamson* has described cases where the red blood cells varied between 13,280,000 and 15,000,000 per c.mm. and in these patients he found the coagulation time, by Wright's method, to be less than one minute. The white cells are increased from 20,000 to 40,000 per c.mm. Reported cases show no decided changes in the blood platelets, and writers appear to be unanimous in the fact that the coagulation time is short. Deutsch studied 22 cases with reference to viscosity and found a decrease in the total quantity of protein in the serum and diminished viscosity. The hemoglobin is increased and according to Williamson, his case contained 22 grams per 100 c.c. of blood. (The normal was estimated at 17 grams per 100 c.c.)

SECONDARY ANEMIA

Definition.—Secondary anemia is a condition that may result from a variety of maladies, which, after a variable period of existence, produce moderate alterations, and at times destructive changes, in any one or in all the elements of the blood.

Varieties and Causes.—For convenience of study, secondary anemias are classified according to their etiologic factors, and they will be here considered in the order of their importance and frequency of occurrence.

Pyorrhea.—In many cases secondary anemia results from the constant swallowing of pus that accumulates about the teeth in cases of well advanced pyorrhea. Anemia is at times given as a cause for pyorrhea, but in other instances doubtless pyorrhea contributes liberally toward

* Medical Clinics of North America, March, 1918.

the production of simple anemia. Prolonged and also profound sepsis are common causes (see p. 453) as are also areas of focal infection.

Hemorrhage is by far the commonest cause of secondary anemia, and since it occurs under a great variety of circumstances, this factor must be considered in conjunction with both physiologic and pathologic processes. It would at first appear that hemorrhage the result of surgical operation would constitute the commonest cause of secondary anemia; this, however, is not the case, but, on the contrary, the vast majority of conditions associated with secondary anemia are in no way dependent upon hemorrhages resulting from surgical intervention. Menorrhagia, metrorrhagia, postpartum hemorrhage, hemoptysis, bleeding from the mucous surfaces, as is seen in gastric and duodenal ulcer, hemorrhoids, and intestinal parasites, *e. g.*, necator americanus, constitute the common sources of hemorrhage. The repeated small bleedings that occur in these conditions eventually so impoverish the blood that hemorrhages from the mucous surfaces become more and more common.

Inanition.—In all instances in which inanition figures prominently there is a decided secondary anemia, which may be due to food which is either insufficient in quantity or poor in quality. Again, an abundance of nutritious food may be taken, and yet, owing either to defective digestion or to incomplete assimilation or both, the individual may derive but little nourishment therefrom.

Grave secondary anemia occurs during the course of chronic gastritis, gastric and esophageal carcinoma, and other conditions that interfere with peptic digestion.

Elimination of Albumins.—The discharge of a large amount of albumin from the system, as occurs in both acute and chronic nephritis, prolonged lactation, dysentery, chronic suppuration, etc., causes anemia through constant depletion.

Toxic Agents.—Poisons, either organic or inorganic, when taken in sufficient amounts, give rise to secondary anemia. The inorganic substances that commonly excite secondary anemia are phosphorus, lead, T.N.T, arsenic, and mercury. (See Chronic Plumbism.) Anemia is also caused by the toxins of both acute and chronic infectious diseases, and is seen to follow scarlet fever, diphtheria, typhoid fever, acute articular rheumatism, and such chronic maladies as tuberculosis, syphilis, etc.

Parasitic Anemia.—When the human economy becomes infected with animal parasites, a variable degree of anemia follows. An extreme type of secondary anemia occurs after infection with the hook-worm (necator), and, in fact, it is this variety that simulates essential or idiopathic anemia most closely. Infection with the tape-worm, particularly the dibothriocephalus latus, tænia solium, and tænia mediocanellata, are also followed by serious blood changes. In children the round-worm and the pin-worm often induce anemia, and the condition also results from infection with flagellates and with the Amœba coli. Protozoa in the blood, as in malaria and trypanosomiasis, are frequently causes of extreme anemia.

Chief Complaints.—Most prominent are dyspnea, cardiac palpitation upon slight exertion, headache, progressive weakness, anorexia, indigestion, and mental fatigue. The patient does not feel rested after a night's sleep, and in many instances insomnia forms a conspicuous and troublesome symptom.

Hemoglobinemia is occasionally observed in secondary anemia, and is a condition in which the hemoglobin of the red cells is dissolved and escapes into the serum. In hemoglobinemia the percentage of hemo-

globin, as estimated by the hemoglobinometer, is normal, or may, as seen in one of our cases, reach 100 per cent.

When the red cells are studied individually, they are found to be deficient in hemoglobin, and occasionally erythrocytes that are practically devoid of coloring-matter in their protoplasm are to be seen. The serum into which the hemoglobin has been given off by the red cells is highly stained with blood-pigment, and lends a characteristic appearance to the stained blood.

Physical Signs.—On **inspection** the body usually appears emaciated, although it may be well nourished, and the lips and conjunctivæ are pale. The skin of the extremities is also pale, but when the anemia is extreme, it may be cyanosed. In secondary anemia in which there is disease of the abdominal viscera or of the suprarenal body, the skin is dark and brownish, but in such cases the conjunctiva serves as a true guide to the degree of pallor. The respirations are rapid on exertion.

Auscultation discloses the presence of a soft systolic murmur over the base of the heart. The murmur over the precordium is regarded as hemic, since it is not transmitted, and also disappears as the blood condition improves.

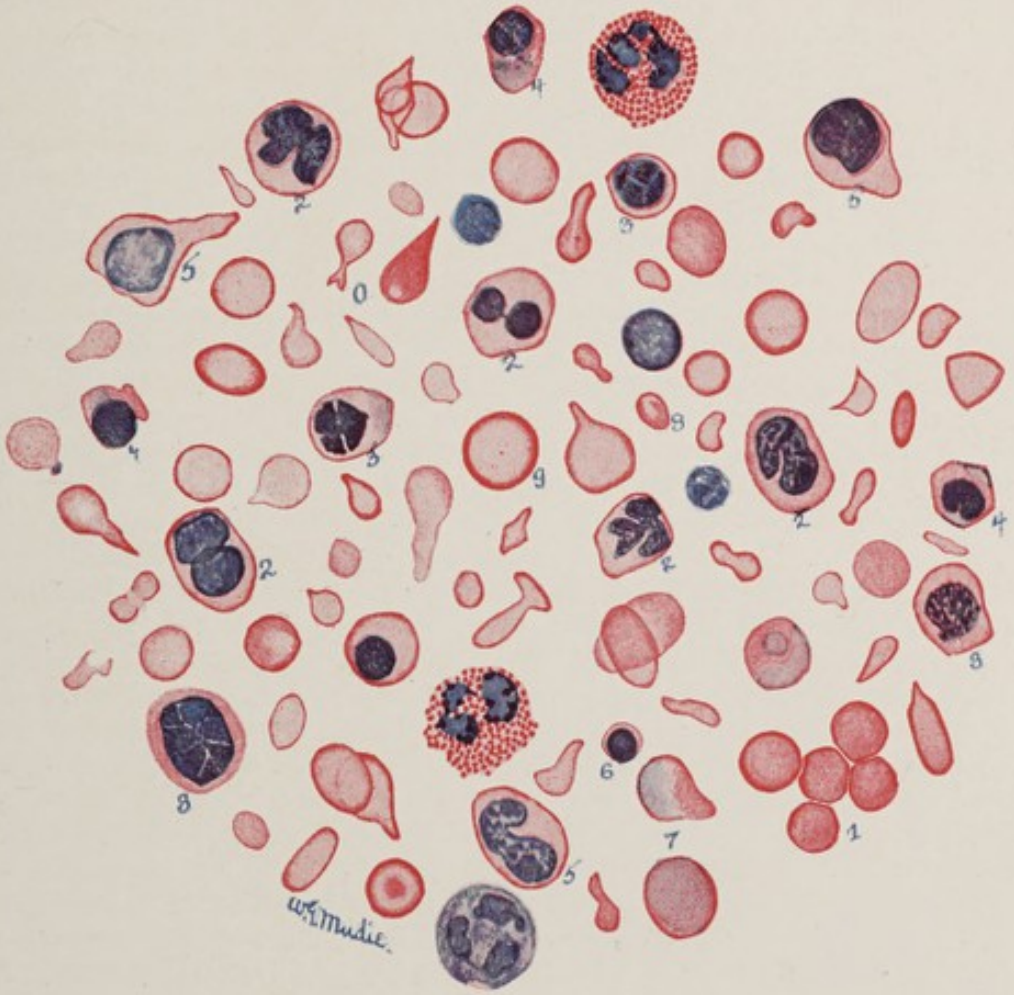
Laboratory Diagnosis.—Upon pricking the finger the drop of blood that exudes is more or less pale and watery, and when smeared between cover-glasses, it does not display the normal adhesiveness (viscosity).

Hemoglobin.—There is a corresponding reduction in both the hemoglobin percentage and in the number of red cells, the fall in hemoglobin preceding the reduction in the red cells. In average cases of anemia the hemoglobin may vary between 75 and 40 per cent., but we have found it to be much lower in the anemia following hemorrhage and in that due to animal parasites. Hemoglobinemia, in which the hemoglobin has been dissolved from the red cells by the plasma, is to be seen in certain secondary anemias, and particularly in those due to poisoning by gases. It follows the introduction of snake venom into the system.

A drop of fresh blood, when placed under a $\frac{1}{12}$ oil-immersion objective, will show lowered viscosity, a fact that is evidenced by failure of red corpuscles to appear in coil-like rolls or piles—the so-called rouleaux formation; on the contrary however, the erythrocytes are disseminated equally throughout the field. When the anemia is due to the ingestion of mineral poisons, the viscosity may be increased, and instead of appearing in rouleaux, the red cells are seen to form densely aggregated masses (hyperviscosity). It is the abnormal degree of viscosity and the specific gravity of the serum in which the corpuscles are suspended that cause the red cells to give up their hemoglobin; hence the earliest changes characteristic of anemia are: pallor, uneven distribution of the hemoglobin areas, basic degeneration, and swelling and distortion of the erythrocytes. There is also irregularity in the form and size of the red cells, many abnormally large cells (macrocytes) and also extremely small cells (microcytes) being present. The large red cells are greatly distorted and assume various forms and shapes (poikilocytes).

Erythrocytes.—The train of events in a secondary anemia is possibly something like the following theoretic outline: As a result of the action of a toxic substance which circulates in the blood from the seat of the disease, or as a result of a continued drain on the body-fluids, the hemoglobin and the number of erythrocytes in the peripheral blood are decreased. In order to compensate this loss the bone-marrow puts out into the peripheral circulation a larger number of erythrocytes, each one of which carries a

PLATE III



Various Forms of Erythrocytes (Boston): 1. Normal erythrocytes; 2, karyokinetic changes in the nuclei of erythrocytes; 3, pigmentation of the nuclei of erythrocytes; 4, polychromatophilia in nucleated erythrocytes; 5, megaloblasts; 6, microblast; 7, polychromatophilia of macrocytes; 8, microcytes; 9, macrocytes; 10, poikilocytes. At the lower margin of the picture is seen a basophilic leukocyte. (From blood of a child studied at Pennsylvania Hospital. Obj. B. and L. one-twelfth oil-immersion.)

somewhat smaller load of hemoglobin. This would explain those cases in which the erythrocytes are above 5,000,000 with a low color-index. As the deleterious action continues the depression of both hemoglobin and number of erythrocytes progresses until, finally, the very low cell-counts and hemoglobin percentages are reached. The change in size (anisocytosis), in shape (poikilocytosis), and in tinctorial characters (polychromatophilia) go on with the increase in the action of the pathologic substance. In the severe cases, or in cases of hemorrhage in which considerable blood is lost, nucleated red cells (normoblasts) appear in the peripheral blood, and are looked upon as evidence of an attempt on the part of the red marrow to replace the lost elements. In the severest cases megaloblasts appear in the peripheral streams, and in some instances this is to be looked upon as evidence of reversion to the fetal type of erythrocyte production, a true degeneration of the bone-marrow.

Leukocytes.—In secondary anemia the number of leukocytes may be either normal or greatly increased, and, rarely, they are diminished. An increase in the number of leukocytes (leukocytosis) of from 10,000 to 20,000 is the rule in the secondary anemias dependent upon acute inflammatory processes.

Stained Blood.—Some of the large red cells are but feebly stained and may appear as mere shadows. Again, an occasional cell will be stained a purplish hue, taking the eosin red and the methylene-blue stains. This phenomenon results after a portion of the protoplasm of the red cells has given up a liberal percentage of its hemoglobin, but yet retains sufficient to take some of the eosin stain, while the portion from which the hemoglobin has been extracted is stained by the hematoxylin. This peculiarity in staining is termed polychromatophilia, and, with the other features of degeneration of the red cells, is shown in Plate III. Distorted erythrocytes (poikilocytes) are common.

Nucleated red cells are an unusual finding in secondary anemia, appearing only in the severer types; they are most commonly encountered in post-hemorrhagic anemia, in the anemia of intestinal parasites, and in that of lead workers, although we have repeatedly found them in the anemia of tuberculosis and syphilis.

Nucleated red cells which are the size of the normal erythrocytes are termed normoblasts. Rarely, one sees an abnormally large nucleated red cell (megaloblast). Nucleated red cells that are smaller than the normal red cells are known as microblasts. It should be further stated that any one or all three varieties of nucleated red cells may appear in a single specimen of blood from a case of secondary anemia.

Leukocytes.—The proper percentage of the normal varieties of leukocytes is often found disturbed in secondary anemia, yet this is by no means a necessary feature.

Summary of Diagnosis.—Progressive weakness, palpitation, dyspnea, pallor of both the skin and the mucous surfaces, with mental hebetude and weakness form the prominent features of secondary anemia.

Lowered viscosity, the absence of rouleaux formation, with pallor of the red cells, constitute the principal characteristics of the blood of secondary anemia. Stained blood shows such endoglobular changes as simple decolorization, punctate basic degeneration, alterations in shape (poikilocytes) and in size (microcytes and macrocytes), and the presence of nucleated red cells and ring-shaped bodies.

Symptomatic or Secondary Anemia	Idiopathic or Essential Anemia
1. Symptomatic blood condition secondary to disease elsewhere.	1. A primary disease of the blood and blood-making organs.
2. Occurs at any age.	2. Occurs, as a rule, during adolescence and in early middle life.
3. Previous or associated history of traumatic or spontaneous hemorrhage, chronic suppuration, prolonged lactation, chronic Bright's disease, carcinoma, chronic lead-poisoning, chronic malaria, gastritis, dysentery, or acute infectious maladies.	3. Previous history not clear. Often follows a profuse hemorrhage or severe mental strain.
4. History of overwork and of insufficient food, sunlight, or fresh air.	4. Negative.
5. May depend upon intestinal parasites when ova are found in feces, or upon malaria when the plasmodia are in the blood. In the presence of Bilharzia, the ova are detected in the bloody urine.	5. Absent.
6. Blood changes are variable, but steadily progressive in malignant disease.	6. Distinctive blood characteristics and profound changes both as to blood-cells and as to hemoglobin.
7. Moderate reduction in both red cells and hemoglobin, the relative proportion being maintained.	7. Marked reduction in both the percentage of hemoglobin and in the number of red corpuscles; there may be a great increase in the number of leukocytes (myelocytes), as in leukemia.
8. General symptoms and signs usually subordinate to those of the primary malady.	8. General symptoms and signs also more characteristic of the form of anemia in question.
9. Gravity of anemia depends on that of the primary disease.	9. Gravity depends on type of blood changes and progressiveness of the condition.
10. Often responds to treatment, depending on cause; in hemorrhage it is of short duration.	10. One variety (chlorotic) is quite curable, but relapses are likely to occur; the other forms are progressive: pernicious anemia is subject to remissions and relapses.

Clinical Course.—This depends—(*a*) Upon the underlying conditions; (*b*) upon the degree of anemia present; (*c*) upon individual surroundings and environment (climate, occupation, city or country life, and age); and (*d*) on whether or not medicinal and hygienic treatment can be properly instituted. Anemia resulting from intestinal parasites, chronic mineral poisoning, underfeeding, intestinal fermentation, and similar conditions disappears rapidly upon removal of the exciting cause. The anemia of such organic maladies as nephritis, valvular heart disease, hepatic cirrhosis, and malignancy is progressive.

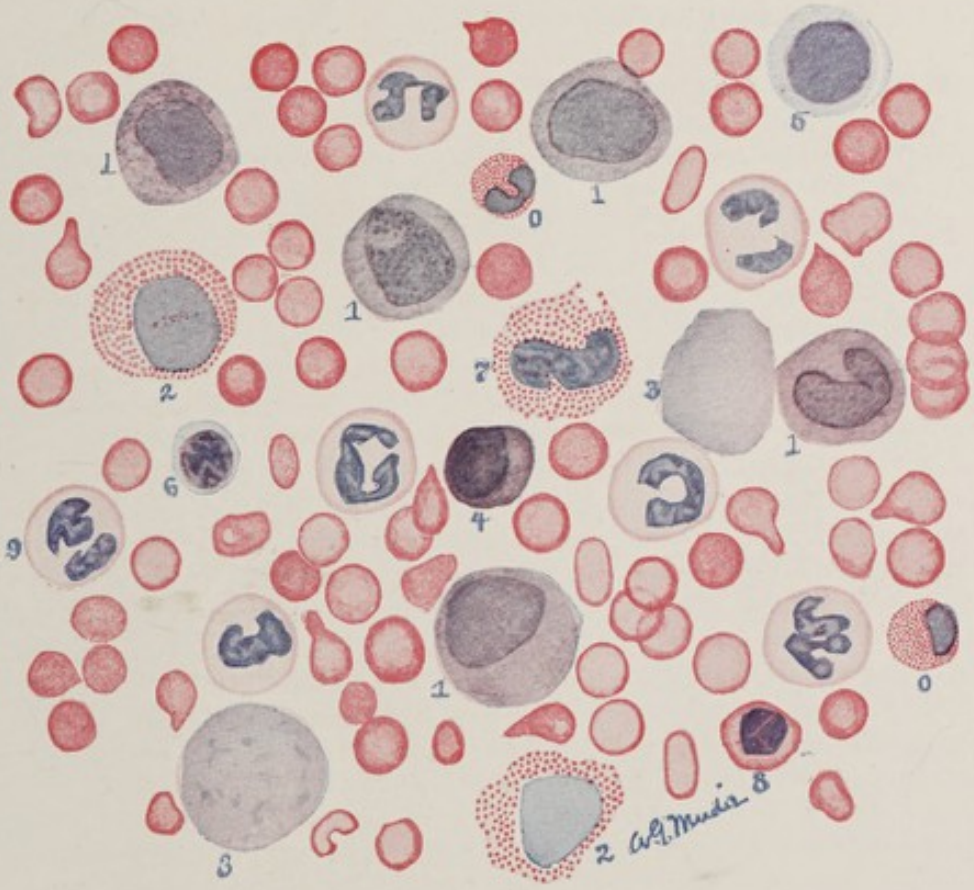
LEUKOCYTES

During health the number of leukocytes in the adult varies between 6000 and 10,000 in a cubic millimeter. Variation in the number of leukocytes depends upon exercise, digestion, bathing, etc.

Classification.—The normal leukocytes are divided into the following subclasses, and are believed to be derived from two sources as is shown by the accompanying table:

(*A*) The myelogenic group (from the bone-marrow):	1. Polymorphonuclear neutrophiles. 2. Eosinophiles. 3. Large mononuclear cells (Ehrlich). 4. Basophiles.
(*B*) The lymphogenous group (from adenoid tissue):	Lymphocytes, large and small.

PLATE IV



Blood of Splenomedullary Leukemia (Boston): 1. Myelocytes; 2, eosinophilic myelocyte; 3, leukocytic shadows; 4, polychromatophilic megaloblast; 5, large mononuclear leukocyte; 6, small lymphocyte; 7, eosinophile; 8, megaloblast; 9, polymorphonuclear leukocyte; 10, small eosinophiles. (Stained with eosin and hematoxylin. Obj. B. and L. one-twelfth oil-immersion.)

Lymphocytes are also produced by the bone-marrow.

A normal differential leukocyte count will give the following percentages:

Polymorphonuclear neutrophiles, 62 to 70 per cent.; lymphocytes, 20 to 30 per cent.; large mononuclears, 1 to 10 per cent.; eosinophiles, 1 to 4 per cent.; basophiles, 0.25 to 1 per cent.

Infants display a relatively high percentage of lymphocytes (50 per cent.), whereas the polymorphonuclear cells are proportionately reduced in number.

In disease we have to deal with abnormalities in the total number of leukocytes or in the relative proportions of each variety of white cell present, or with degenerated leukocytes, myelocytes, and eosinophilic myelocytes, the last two always being pathologic.

The accompanying plate (Plate IV) illustrates the different varieties of blood-cells.

Leukocytosis.—Definition.—A condition characterized by an increase in the number of leukocytes present in the peripheral blood.

Varieties and Causes.—*Physiologic leukocytosis* develops after exercise, after parturition, during digestion, after bathing, and during the last months of gestation. There is a slight leukocytosis in infants.

Pathologic leukocytosis is seen after hemorrhage, and in erysipelas, lobar pneumonia, bubonic plague, glanders, acute articular rheumatism, tonsillitis, relapsing fever, malignant endocarditis, and endometritis; it likewise occurs in suppurative conditions, such as acute pyemia, septicemia, cholangitis, and cholecystitis. Leukocytosis also accompanies most of the inflammatory conditions, irrespective of whether or not they involve the deep or superficial tissues; it also results from local irritation, such as is found in appendicitis, osteomyelitis, pyelonephritis, perinephritic abscess, localized peritonitis, epididymitis, conjunctivitis, proctitis, and gangrenous stomatitis; it is occasionally observed in gout, lithemia, toxemia, as, *e. g.*, in lead-workers, and malignancy.

Toxic leukocytosis develops during the course of such conditions as acute yellow atrophy of the liver, hepatic cirrhosis, jaundice, uremia, cinchonism, ptomain-poisoning, illuminating-gas poisoning, chloroform anesthesia, ether anesthesia, acute alcoholic delirium, acute mania, and after the injection of normal salt solution and other chemicals into the blood-vessels.

Drugs.—The number of leukocytes will be found to fluctuate after the administration of certain drugs, and this fluctuation bears a direct relation to the dosage employed, and to whether the drugs were administered by mouth, rectum, or subcutaneously: Ether, chloroform, peppermint, oil of anise, camphor, thyroid extract, gentian, sodium bicarbonate, bismuth, caffein, and quinin. A similar phenomenon follows the administration of liberal doses of castor oil, podophyllin, scammony, etc. It has also been observed that corrosive poisons, opium, chloral, and belladonna are capable of exciting leukocytosis in certain individuals. Intravenous administration of many drugs is followed by an increase in the number of leukocytes.

Leukopenia.—Definition.—*Hypoleukocytosis* is a term used to designate a condition in which the number of leukocytes in the peripheral circulation is decidedly below that of the normal for the individual under observation; and in the majority of instances, the count is below 6000 cells in a cubic millimeter.

Causes.—Malnutrition and depleting hot baths may be followed by a decrease in the number of leukocytes. Early during the course of tuber-

culous meningitis, in influenza, uncomplicated tuberculosis, typhoid fever, and malaria, the number of white blood-cells falls below the normal. In many of these previously named conditions a differential count shows that the lymphocytes make up a large percentage of the leukocytes present, and this is especially true late in the course of typhoid fever and in maladies in which starvation has figured prominently. Leukopenia is a conspicuous symptom of splenic anemia, kala-azar, syphilis, and Hodgkin's disease.

Eosinophilia.—Definition.—Eosinophilia is a condition the characteristic feature of which is an absolute and a relative increase in the number of eosinophilic cells in the peripheral blood.

Varieties and Causes.—*Physiologic eosinophilia* is observed during menstruation and in the new-born.

Pathologic eosinophilia occupies a prominent place among the blood changes common to many maladies, among which may be mentioned asthma, fibroid bronchitis, whooping-cough, measles, and all conditions accompanied by dyspnea. In cutaneous maladies, such as urticaria, psoriasis, impetigo, prurigo, herpes zoster, ichthyosis, pemphigus, exfoliating dermatitis, and chronic eczema, a variable grade of eosinophilia is the rule.

Malignant Tumors.—The percentage of eosinophilic cells in the blood is often decidedly increased in malignancy, and particularly in sarcoma. The spleen appears to exercise some influence over the occurrence of eosinophilia, since this condition develops after splenectomy has been performed. Hemorrhage into the serous sacs, purpura, chylous ascites, tubercular leprosy, Hodgkin's disease, and leukemia, as a rule, are often accompanied by eosinophilia.

Drugs, when administered in toxic doses, are capable of inducing an increase in the number of eosinophilic cells. This condition is observed after poisoning from phosphorus and after liberal doses of camphor and ether.

Parasitic Eosinophilia.—Soon after infection with animal parasites the percentage of eosinophilic cells in the blood is increased. This phenomenon has been observed in trichinosis, filariasis, and schistosomiasis. Eosinophilia is often a symptom of infection with oxyuris, uncinaria, ascaris, and tape-worm.

Diagnostic Significance.—An increase in the number of eosinophiles in a given specimen of blood is highly suggestive of infection with animal parasites. Eosinophilia is often associated with new-growths along the gastro-intestinal and genito-urinary tracts. Eosinophilia has twice in our experience been seen to follow an acute mastitis. It is rarely found in such chronic conditions as syphilis. Many writers regard an increase in the number of eosinophiles as a favorable symptom in chlorosis, pernicious anemia, and hemorrhage.

Hypoeosinophilia.—It is customary to find the percentage of eosinophiles either moderately or decidedly lowered, and in some instances they may be absent, during typhoid fever, influenza, diphtheria, pneumonia, and septic disease.

Lymphocytosis.—Definition.—An absolute and relative increase in the number of lymphocytes in the peripheral blood.

Classification.—*Simple lymphocytosis* is merely an increase in the percentage of lymphocytes in the peripheral blood. An *absolute lymphocytosis* is an increase in the total number of leukocytes, of which an abnormally large percentage are of the lymphatic variety (lymphatic leukemia).

Varieties and Discussion.—In order to establish firmly the existence of a true lymphocytosis it is customary to study correlatively the number of lymphocytes and other white blood-cells during health and during disease, since the percentage is comparatively high in certain normal individuals. During infancy the percentage of lymphocytes will be found to vary between 40 and 60, and these cells are readily excited to an appreciable increase by feeble manifestations of disease. In the adult lymphocytes constitute from 20 to 30 per cent. of the total number of leukocytes. Lymphocytes are divided into two classes, "large" and "small," by some writers, but we consider all cells answering to the morphologic and tinctorial characteristics of this variety to be lymphocytes.

Clinical Significance.—The blood of children always displays a relatively large number of lymphocytes as compared with that of adults. Lymphocytosis is present in splenic tumor, in whooping-cough before the characteristic whoop appears, and in measles during convalescence. Lymphocytosis and glandular enlargement are characteristic features of obscure cases of syphilis, of uncomplicated tuberculosis, and of malnutrition from a variety of causes, among which are rickets, scurvy, diarrhea, and gastritis. The diagnosis of lymphatic leukemia should be cautiously made in children, for a decided leukocytosis may occur as the result of the maladies previously named.

PROGRESSIVE PERNICIOUS ANEMIA

(Idiopathic Anemia)

Pathologic Definition.—A disease of the blood characterized by a faulty production (hemogenesis) and a progressive destruction (hemolysis) of the red corpuscles. In addition there are advancing anemia, apparent preservation of superficial fat, a lemon-yellow color of the skin, retinal hemorrhages, and a tendency to the development of sclerosis of the spinal cord. The marrow of the long bones shows red patches throughout. The fat is of a yellow color and the muscles are a peculiar bright red. All the viscera are poor in blood, pale, and at times shriveled. The liver may give a reaction for iron. The gums and teeth display evidence of chronic infection. Glossitis and achylia gastrica are often present early.

Varieties and Causal Factors.—Pernicious anemia may, for purposes of description, be divided into three classes: (A) Persons suffering from pernicious anemia in whom it is impossible to detect any cause for the condition, either during life or at postmortem. It has been claimed that the idiopathic form of anemia is dependent on increased hemolysis, yet it is difficult to show satisfactorily that this is in reality true. In other cases hemogenesis is apparently normal, whereas in still others there appears to be an inherited tendency to lowered hemogenic power. The pathologic process upon which this form of anemia depends has not been clearly proved, hence the exciting causes are purely theoretic.

(B) Cases dead of pernicious anemia in whom it was impossible to detect an appreciable cause for the condition during life, but in which the actual etiologic factor was disclosed at autopsy. In certain cases the causal factor may be found to be animal parasites inhabiting the intestines, blood, arteries, veins, or cellular tissues, *e. g.*, uncinaria, tape-worm, filaria, plasmodium of malaria, schistosomum, etc. Modern clinical methods have made possible the recognition of many of these causes during life. At autopsy an atrophic condition of the stomach, chronic gastritis, and malignant growths may be found, but these too may be recognized by a study of the secretory and digestive power of the stomach.

It is questionable, however, whether the functionating power of the stomach and the pathologic conditions of the gastro-intestinal mucosa are not the result of the anemia, rather than the conditions that originally excited such blood dyscrasia.

It has been our experience that a large number of cases of primary anemia show well advanced pyorrhea and foci of infection at the apices of tooth roots. (See p. 453.) Many of these cases display satisfactory improvement after the teeth are either removed, or placed in a normal condition. This is a strong factor to support the view that progressive "idiopathic" anemia depends in part at least upon the continuous entrance absorption or swallowing of the pus.

An *x*-ray study of the teeth reveals the presence of apical abscess, apical absorption, and pyorrhea pockets. Disease of the sinuses is also common, and is detected most easily through *x*-ray study.

(C) Anemias that appear to be either directly or indirectly traceable to mental shock, parturition with the loss of a large quantity of blood, hemorrhage, chlorosis, or such depleting conditions as diarrhea and dysentery. In this class of anemias are to be included cases that have developed amid unhygienic surroundings; the latter, however, cannot be numerous, since, in our experience, at least 50 per cent. of the cases developed among the well-to-do class and in private practice.

Age.—Until recently pernicious anemia was believed to be a disease developing after the age of forty. Griffith, however, has cited a number of instances in which pernicious anemia developed in individuals under the age of twelve years. In our practice we have seen a patient of twenty-nine and another of thirty-one years.

Principal Complaint.—The patient is seldom able to determine any fixed date on which the trouble began, but states that he has, for a number of months or years, noticed a progressive weakness, shortness of breath, wakefulness, and possibly flabbiness of the muscles, all of which became gradually worse. An abrupt onset is rare, although a few instances have been recorded. In certain cases languor and anorexia are the most prominent symptoms, whereas in others constipation alternating with diarrhea constitutes a distressing feature. Headache, vertigo, mental depression, failing vision, attacks of faintness, and tinnitus aurium are among the annoying symptoms.

Thermic Features.—A moderate degree of fever is sometimes present. A temperature of 102° F. is the average in the milder grades of anemia, while in the more severe types, and for some days preceding death, the temperature may be normal or subnormal.

Nervous Phenomena.—Paresthesia, twitchings, spastic paralysis of the limbs, and abnormal reflexes of the lower extremities, with a possible absence of the knee-jerks, may be found. Inability to control the sphincters is occasionally seen in those cases in which there are other evidences of involvement of the spinal cord. Multiple neuritis affecting the nerves of both the forearm and the leg has been observed in advanced cases of pernicious anemia, but in all patients in whom wrist-drop and foot-drop were present some form of arsenic had been administered for an indefinite time, and may have been responsible for the development of these particular symptoms.

Physical Signs.—Inspection.—Early during the course of pernicious anemia and during an intermission the skin may present nothing characteristic, but when the anemia is at its height the skin assumes a lemon-yellow tinge, is dry and lusterless, and the hair and nails appear to be poorly nourished. The mucous membranes (lips, gums, tongue, and

conjunctivæ) are pale, and late during the course of this malady slight puffiness of the eyelids and edema of the ankles occur. If a single extremity be permitted to rest in one position for a prolonged time, edema or cyanosis is likely to develop.

The general nutrition appears to have been preserved, and the patient is seldom emaciated. When the subject is placed in a position to bring out markedly the pulsation of the various large vessels, they will be found to display abnormal throbbing, which is particularly noticeable over the carotid, subclavian, and brachial arteries.

The apex-beat is rapid, feeble, and diffuse, and there is distinct pulsation over the base of the heart; pulsation is at times detectable in the epigastrium. Capillary pulse is often demonstrable.

An ophthalmoscopic examination shows the retina to be extremely pale, and in the severer forms of anemia there are retinal hemorrhages, which are responsible for the failing vision.

Palpation.—The bony structure is well covered with soft, flabby tissue, and the muscles are extremely soft and often tender. The knee-jerks are usually exaggerated, yet the reverse condition may exist. Tenderness along the course of the nerve-trunks of the lower limbs and of the forearms may occasionally be present, but this tenderness may not be a feature of pernicious anemia, since it always occurs late during the course of the disease and after the administration of large doses of arsenic. In two cases observed there were distinct evidences of an arsenical neuritis.

Percussion reveals nothing of special diagnostic value unless there has been an effusion into the pleural or pericardial sacs or the evidences of consolidation are manifested.

Auscultation discloses the presence of a soft systolic murmur (hemic), best heard over the base of the heart, and not well transmitted. This murmur diminishes during the stage of remission, but returns with each successive relapse. A venous hum may be audible in selected cases. When pulmonary congestion and bronchopneumonia complicate the condition, we may get fine, moist and cracking râles over the bases of the lungs.

Laboratory Diagnosis.—The fresh blood exudes somewhat slowly at the site of puncture, is pale, almost watery in consistence, and when placed between glass slides, its viscosity is seen to be diminished. The oxygen-carrying power of the entire blood is greatly reduced, since the percentage of hemoglobin is between 15 and 50 during the active stage; although it may reach from 50 to 75 per cent. during the stage of remission. The specific gravity is always low, and bears a close relationship to the percentage of hemoglobin. Each erythrocyte is overcharged with hemoglobin, the greatest reduction affecting the number of red cells. It is the rule, therefore, to find the color-index high in pernicious anemia, although it almost invariably falls gradually when there is any amelioration in the general symptoms, but rises again with each approaching relapse.

During the active stage the number of red cells may fall to 1,000,000 or even 500,000 in a cubic millimeter, but during the stage of remission they often rise to from 2,500,000 to 3,400,000.

A microscopic study of the fresh blood shows many of the red cells to be of unusual size, while a few are extremely small. All the red cells are deeply stained with hemoglobin unless the blood is taken during the latter stage of the malady, when there may be only a peripheral band of coloring-matter in the cell cytoplasm. The erythrocytes are often distorted, and may assume a variety of shapes, many of them becoming oval or elliptic, whereas others will display jagged outlines.

Stained blood, when placed under a microscope, is seen to contain nucleated red cells (megaloblasts, microblasts, and normoblasts); the non-nucleated erythrocytes are found to be stained unevenly, some appear as overstained with the eosin, while others are feebly stained.

During the stage of remission but few blood changes may be detectable by the microscope; in fact, we have seen instances in which not even a suspicion of pernicious anemia could be found from a microscopic examination of the blood. In making a prognosis it is well to estimate the number of nucleated red cells in a cubic millimeter, since a large number of nucleated red cells is of serious import.

The *leukocytes* are always diminished in pernicious anemia, and a differential leukocyte count shows an increase in the percentage of lymphocytes and a diminution in the polymorphonuclears. An increase in the eosinophilic cells is occasionally noticed during the active stage. Leukocytosis sometimes develops as a result of complications, or just prior to death, when myelocytes are numerous.

Megaloblasts are seldom found, except in pernicious anemia. Normoblasts and microblasts, on the other hand, are often found in secondary anemia.

The *urine* is about normal in quantity, of high color, and often of low specific gravity. It may contain a moderate amount of albumin, but this finding is by no means characteristic of the disease under consideration. In pernicious anemia the urine is, as a rule, charged with pathologic urobilin, which may be detected by both chemic and spectroscopic examination. Urines containing pathologic urobilin develop a green fluorescence on the addition of a few drops of an alcoholic solution of zinc chlorid. Uric acid is at times increased, and it is the rule to find the urea content high. Owing to intestinal decomposition, indicanuria is usually present. Christian in a study of 14 cases shows that in severe anemia renal function as measured by the dietary test of Hedinger and Schlayer, is disturbed in a manner which resembles that seen in chronic nephritis. In none of the 14 cases studied were the other urinary findings of nephritis present.

Bowel Contents.—The evidence of extensive hemolysis occurs first in the stools, second in the duodenal fluid, and third in the urine. Urobilinogen present in the stool above 12,000 dilutions is regarded by Hansmann and Howard as an important diagnostic finding when detected during the stage of remission. Intestinal indigestion is common, and in such cases the fecal bulk is increased, as are also the nitrogen and neutral sulphur fractions. Intestinal putrefaction is further evidenced by increased etheral sulphate output, according to Kahn and Barsky.

Course.—Occupation figures largely in the progress of pernicious anemia, since those who are able to take rest and recreation are found to do better than those who are actively employed or who are repeatedly subject to extreme grief and anxiety. We have had a patient under observation for over eight years, during which time he has had but three relapses, each relapse having followed severe mental strain.

Blood Chemistry.—It has been shown that the cholesterol content of the blood-plasma is decreased in pernicious anemia.

Summary of Diagnosis.—The clinical characteristics of the affection, particularly their steady progression with remissions, are quite as important as is a microscopic study of the blood. The clinical significance of the laboratory findings are set forth in the following table, modified from Boston's "Clinical Diagnosis."

Fatal Issue Early	Protracted Course
1. Progressive anemia; interval between remission short or absent.	1. Remissions of prolonged duration.
2. Color-index high.	2. Color-index slightly increased.
3. Increase in diameter of red cells, with a tendency toward development of oval and elliptic forms.	3. Red cells of normal size.
4. Marked degenerative changes in the erythrocytes.	4. Little degeneration present.
5. Megaloblasts numerous, exceeding normoblasts.	5. Megaloblasts few. Normoblasts in excess.
6. Relative decrease in polymorphonuclear leukocytes.	6. Percentage of polymorphonuclear cells about normal.
7. Lymphocytosis present.	7. Absent.

Differential Diagnosis.—It is with great difficulty that we are enabled to make more than a provisional diagnosis of pernicious anemia through an examination of the blood alone, since such conditions as gastric carcinoma, gastric atrophy, intestinal parasites, mineral poisoning, and long-standing syphilis produce blood changes that strikingly resemble those of pernicious anemia. The presence of anemia due to **intestinal parasites** is confirmed by a careful examination of the feces. The history and the presence of well-marked punctate basophilia serve to eliminate **mineral poisoning** (except lead). The accompanying table shows the distinguishing features between the various types of anemia:

Progressive Pernicious Anemia	Obscure Gastric Carcinoma or Gastric Atrophy
1. The blood shows characteristic changes, and the red corpuscle count falls to or below 1,000,000 per c.mm.	1. Blood shows characteristics of secondary anemia, and the count does not fall to 1,000,000, as a rule.
2. Leukopenia and relative lymphocytosis common.	2. There may be leukocytosis or a relative increase in the polymorphonuclear cells.
3. Gastric pain not prominent, and usually absent.	3. Gastric pain suggestive of carcinoma.
4. Lemon tint of skin common.	4. Skin of a pale, muddy color, or only slightly jaundiced (saffron-yellow).
5. Adipose tissue fairly well preserved.	5. Progressive emaciation.
6. No glandular enlargements palpable.	6. Supraclavicular or inguinal glands may be palpable.
7. No physical signs referable to stomach.	7. There may be an area of increased resistance and tenderness over the stomach.
8. Examination of gastric contents after test-meal negative.	8. Examination of gastric contents shows deficiency or absence of free hydrochloric acid and the presence of lactic acid and the fatty acids.
9. Duration varies with the length of remissions. Some improvement may follow judicious treatment.	9. Fatal in nine months to one and one-half years. Condition becomes steadily worse until death.

Hemolytic Anemia.—A type of anemia, that develops during pregnancy or the early puerperium. The cause is obscure. "The course is very rapid. If the patient does not die in a few days or weeks recovery follows" (Anders). The symptoms of anemia develop rapidly and there is a slight leukocytosis, with a relative and absolute increase in the lymphocytes. Bilirubinemia, and urobilinuria may be present.

LEUKEMIA

Pathologic Definition.—A disease of the blood-making organs, either acute or chronic, characterized by a persistent increase in the total number of leukocytes, with the presence of large numbers of myelocytes or a great increase of the lymphocytes, coupled with a relative decrease in

the number of polymorphonuclear elements. In the myeloid type the bone-marrow is extensively involved and there is splenic enlargement. Late during the course of the disease there is edema of the face and extremities, and effusion into the peritoneal cavity often occurs. The muscles and viscera are pale, and degeneration is not unusual. The lymphatic type shows hyperplasia of the lymph-glands, with an increase in the lymphocytes. The visceral and other changes closely resemble those of myeloid leukemia. In selected cases the changes that occur in both the myeloid and the lymphatic varieties are present simultaneously. Cases of acute lymphatic leukemia may terminate abruptly as the result of a large hemorrhage. A case under our care coming to autopsy showed about twenty hemorrhages into the cerebral tissue, varying in size from that of a grain of wheat to that of a hickory-nut.

Clinical Forms.—(A) **Myeloid leukemia** is a condition in which there is splenic and hepatic enlargement, with pathologic changes in the bone-marrow and a large number of myelocytes in the peripheral blood. It may be acute or chronic.

(B) The **lymphatic type** may be either acute or chronic, and is associated with enlargement of the lymphatic glands, and sometimes with moderate enlargement of the spleen and liver. In lymphatic leukemia the increase in the number of leukocytes concerns, for the most part, the mononuclear cells (lymphocytes), but with few myelocytes. While acute leukemia is seen most commonly in children, it may occur during adolescence, in which case splenic enlargement develops rapidly, with appreciable enlargement of the lymphatic glands. Fussell and Taylor have collected 56 such cases from the literature.

(C) In this class we will consider those cases that appear at the onset to be purely of the lymphatic variety, but later develop myeloid manifestations.

Myeloid Leukemia

Predisposing and Exciting Factors.—The *exciting cause* of myeloid leukemia is not thoroughly understood, but from recent investigations it would appear that this type of the disease is due to infection. Acute leukemia has been seen to follow attacks of Vincent's angina, tonsillitis, eruptive fevers, diphtheria and acute suffurative processes. The condition was apparently frequent following the epidemic of influenza (flu) in 1918.

The lymphatic type is commonest in the young, and it is the rule to find pure lymphatic leukemia in children or before the age of twenty. Mixed types of leukemia may develop at any age, but this variety, too, is commonest in the young. Pseudoleukemia and other blood conditions more or less closely allied to true leukemia will be discussed elsewhere.

The disease not infrequently follows injury over the spleen (five such cases coming under our observation), intestinal ulceration, stomatitis, pseudoleukemia, malaria, and syphilis of the bones. Heredity is believed to play an important rôle in leukemia.

Principal Complaint.—**Chronic leukemia** is characterized by an insidious onset, and during the first few months of the disease it is usually regarded as a simple anemia. Languor, anorexia, faintness, dyspnea, ringing in the ears, and dizziness are the chief complaints early in leukemia. Rarely, these symptoms are but slight, and the patient makes no complaint except of progressive weakness and of a peculiar appetite. Painful priapism, frequent night emissions, nausea, vomiting, hemoptysis, and epistaxis are among the initial symptoms.

As the disease progresses the symptoms become more pronounced, enlargement of the left side of the abdomen, swelling of the face and feet, and sometimes general edema are added. There is also feverishness at night (*vide* Thermic Features). Dimness of vision is an annoying symptom, and the patient complains of hemorrhoids, large quantities of blood being passed with the dejecta; cutaneous ecchymoses and pruritus are also present. Gangrene of the mucous membrane of the rectum, with its characteristic odor, may occur at times.

Dysentery developing late in the course of chronic leukemia is often a distressing feature, and increases the already existing weakness. Facial neuralgia is present in a limited number of cases, and local paralyses result from either hemorrhage or leukemic growths in the central nervous system. Hemorrhage into the ear, hilus of the kidney, and medulla of the long bones is rather common.

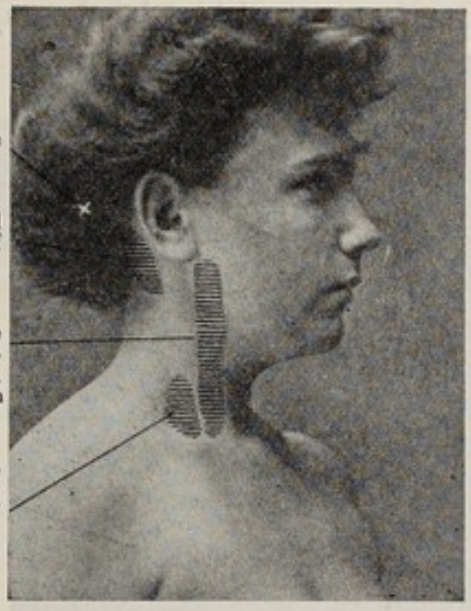


FIG. 167.—GLANDS OF THE NECK AND OCCIPUT AND THE REGIONS THAT SHOULD BE EXAMINED TO ASCERTAIN CAUSE FOR GLANDULAR ENLARGEMENT.

Thermic Features.—After the disease has reached its height slight fever is present, usually fluctuating between 99° and 101° F., although it may reach 103° F. in severe cases.

Physical Signs.—Inspection discloses a peculiar bluish, muddy, or waxy pallor of the skin, edema of the face, with a certain amount of distortion of the features, unilateral distention of the abdomen, hemorrhoids, edema of the feet, and puffing of the hands and fingers. The patient's gait is feeble, tottering, and uncertain, while his general attitude is that of exhaustion; cyanosis is often present. Hemorrhages may appear in the lids, conjuctiva, vitreous humor, beneath the conjunctiva and in the lachrymal glands.

Palpation reveals a peculiar sensation of the skin, roughness of the hair, edema, and the presence of a tumor-mass in the left hypochondrium. Hepatic enlargement to from one to three inches below the costal margin is also found. The spleen may extend to the umbilicus, or, as we have seen in several cases, it may occupy the greater part of the brim of the pelvis. The cervical and inguinal glands may be enlarged, and are not, as a rule, adherent to the skin. Rarely, nodular bony growths are to be felt developing from the ribs or from other flat bones.

By the aid of **percussion** it is possible to confirm a large part of the information, obtained by inspection and palpation, as to the increased area of splenic and liver dullness. The area of cardiac dullness may also be increased because of the presence of dilatation or pericardial effusion. Rarely, there are to be found areas of dullness in the chest that probably depend upon the presence of glandular enlargement. Bilateral movable dullness the result of pleural effusion may be present.

Auscultation reveals a soft systolic murmur audible over the base of the heart, and not transmitted (hemic). This murmur is present early during the course of leukemia, and becomes accentuated with the progress of the disease, but, like the so-called "hemic murmur" of other blood diseases, its diagnostic value is limited.

Auscultatory percussion (see Fig. 259) serves as a practical and accurate method of outlining the spleen, liver, and heart, and also aids in determining the size of leukemic or glandular enlargements where such pathologic conditions are present within the chest or abdomen.



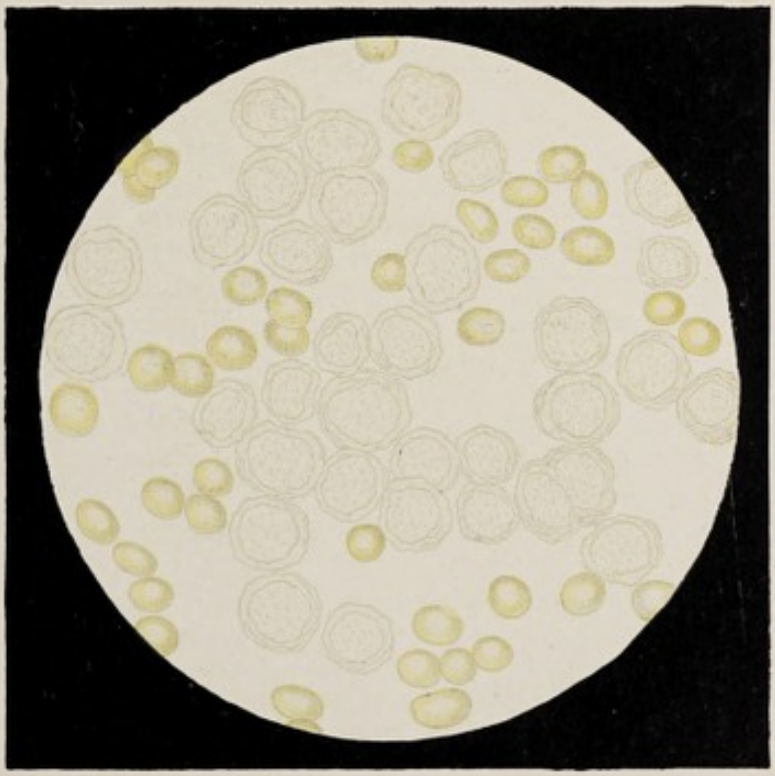
FIG. 168.—GLANDS OF THE FACE AND ANTERIOR PORTION OF THE NECK AND REGIONS THAT SHOULD BE EXAMINED FOR GLANDULAR ENLARGEMENT.

Acute leukemia is an uncommon form of the disease characterized chiefly by an exaggeration of all the early manifestations of chronic leukemia; it runs a rapid course, terminating fatally within a few months. Practically all the symptoms and signs present in chronic myeloid leukemia occur during a comparatively short period. The term "leukosarcoma" was suggested by Steinberg for growths of this type, including a chloroma and mediastinal leukosarcoma. *X*-ray study together with the blood picture are of value in the diagnosis in this variety of leukemia.

Laboratory Diagnosis.—*Fresh Blood.*—Upon puncture of the finger the blood exudes somewhat slowly from the wound, is pale, often resembling thin pus, and displays nearly the normal coagulation power and an increased adhesiveness, which is shown by the difficulty with which it is spread upon a glass surface.

The *hemoglobin* is reduced to from 75 to 40 per cent., but this reduction is a relative one, and is in direct correlation with the number of erythrocytes present; hence the color-index approximates the normal. The number of red cells in a cubic millimeter will be found to vary between

PLATE V



Fresh Preparation from the Blood of a Case of Leukemia (× 550): Large mononuclear leukocytes of immature form (Grawitz).

2,000,000 and 3,500,000, except in advanced cases, in which their number may fall below 2,000,000.

An increase in the number of leukocytes in a cubic millimeter (60,000 to 1,000,000) constitutes the characteristic feature of myeloid leukemia. The ratio between the red and the white cells varies from 1:250 to 1:2, which is in striking contrast to the normal ratio of 1:500. In extreme cases the number of leukocytes in a cubic millimeter may equal that of the erythrocytes, and Sorsen cites a case in which the ratio of leukocytes to erythrocytes was 3:2.

A microscopic study of the living blood discloses the presence of red cells arranged in small clusters (Plate V) throughout the field; their protoplasm is pale, and they do not present the normal luster. There is great variation in the size of the red cells, and poikilocytes are common, as are also macrocytes and microcytes.

The leukocytes form a prominent microscopic feature of living leukemic blood, and are seen to be arranged in large clusters and dense aggregations (Plate V). The majority of the large leukocytes are of the mononuclear variety, although small mononuclear cells and large polymorphonuclear cells with feebly granular protoplasm are also present. In advanced leukemia, Charcot-Leyden crystals are occasionally found (Fig. 33).

The *stained blood* shows the same features mentioned under the consideration of the living blood, but the tinctorial properties of the leukocytes and of the red cells should also be studied in making a careful diagnosis of myeloid leukemia. Even during the early stage of leukemia the red blood-cells stain feebly with eosin, and many of them show only a peripheral band of stained cytoplasm, while their central pale spot is abnormally large. Practically, all the manifestations of degeneration of the erythrocytes are demonstrable in leukemic blood. (See Secondary Anemia, p. 404.)

Nucleated red cells (macroblasts normoblasts, microblasts) are commonly encountered, the rule being to find a few cells representing each type. Macroblasts whose nuclei are undergoing karyokinetic changes are more often seen in leukemic than in any other variety of pathologic blood.

Leukocytes.—At first glance leukemic blood is seen to contain an abnormally large number of mononuclear leukocytes, and in myeloid blood 20 per cent. or more of these cells belong to the variety known as myelocytes; their appearance is shown in the accompanying plate. The lymphocytes and polymorphonuclear cells stain normally, but they are less numerous than normal.

A differential leukocyte count serves to separate the various types of leukemia, and further enables one to follow the progress of the disease, for the general symptoms bear a close relation to the relative percentage of myelocytes. The blood from an ordinary case of myeloid leukemia contains about 30 to 60 per cent. of myelocytes, but their number may not exceed 15 per cent.; eosinophiles, 2 to 4 per cent.; polymorphonuclear cells, 10 to 40 per cent., with few transitional forms and basophiles. In some cases basophilia is a marked feature.

Metabolic Rate.—During the course of both lymphatic and myeloginous leukemia there is a very decided increase in the metabolic rate.

Summary of Diagnosis.—A history of repeated mild attacks of dizziness, the symptoms of anemia, the urine being free from albumin, is highly suggestive of leukemia. Progressive weakness, edema, hemor-

rhages from the mucous surfaces, and later splenic enlargement, with the presence of an abnormally large number of leukocytes (myelocytes) in the peripheral blood, form the distinguishing features of myeloid leukemia.

Differential Diagnosis.—Leukemia is to be distinguished from **leukocytosis** by the fact that there is seldom more than a moderate increase in the number of leukocytes in the latter condition, and this increase concerns, for the most part, the polymorphonuclear neutrophiles, with no myelocytes. The leukocytosis of children may at times chiefly affect the lymphocytes, but here again myelocytes are unusual findings. **Malignant disease of the lymph-glands, malaria,** and **passive congestion of the spleen,** due either to cirrhosis of the liver or to valvular heart disease with tricuspid regurgitation, may give symptoms resembling those of leukemia, but the blood-findings in these maladies are the same as those of secondary anemia (p. 404).

Nephritis.—At the onset of the disease leukemia is probably oftenest mistaken for nephritis, owing to a decided edema of the eyelids and face; here again an examination of the blood and an analysis of the urine will serve to separate the two maladies.

Splenic anemia (**anemia with splenomegaly**) is quite indistinguishable from myeloid leukemia, except as the result of an examination of the blood, which will reveal the characteristic features—splenic tumor with leukopenia.

Chronic mineral poisoning, *e. g.*, the anemia following lead intoxication, may resemble leukemia, but the history of exposure, the detection of lead in the urine, neuritis with wrist-drop, and a leukocyte count not exceeding 30,000 serve to separate plumbism from leukemia.

Amyloid Disease.—In amyloid disease the skin presents a waxy pallor, and edema of the face and extremities, enlargement of the spleen and liver, as well as many of the subjective symptoms of leukemia are present. A history of either syphilis or prolonged suppuration is suggestive of the true nature of the disease. An examination of the blood with a differential leukocyte count, however, is necessary in order to separate this condition from leukemia. In amyloid disease the leukocyte count is often high,— 25,000 to 50,000,—but, as a rule, the polymorphonuclear cells show the greatest increase, while there is a less decided increase in the lymphocytes. We have seen from 2 to 10 per cent. of myelocytes in the blood of amyloid disease.

Fatty Liver.—Chronic tuberculosis with fatty infiltration, or, oftener, fatty degeneration of the liver with associated enlargement of the spleen, is commonly encountered in the tuberculosis wards of the Philadelphia Hospital, and is distinguished from leukemia by its chronic course, the existence of pulmonary cavity, characteristic cough, expectoration, and a leukocytosis of about 15,000 to 40,000, with the presence of but few myelocytes.

Chloroma (**Green Cancer**).—A sarcomatous growth involving the bones of the orbit, and characterized by the formation of secondary growths in the skin and viscera, which are greenish in color. The disease may resemble either lymphatic or myeloid leukemia in certain respects, depending entirely upon the location of the metastases. Orbital pains, conjunctival hemorrhages, exophthalmos, faulty audition, and deformity of the orbit distinguish chloroma from leukemia. Hematologically, the blood of chloroma resembles that of true leukemia.

The features that distinguished leukemia from pernicious anemia, secondary anemia, and chlorosis are set forth on pp. 422, 424.

Eosinophilic Leukemia

There has appeared in the literature a number of reports where the proportion of eosinophilic leukocytes present in the blood fluctuated between 80 and 90 per cent. In all reported cases the patient's chief complaint has been shortness of breath and symptoms referable to advanced cardiac disease. The white blood cells may exceed 60,000 per c.mm. and splenic enlargement is mentioned in reports of some cases.

During 1921 there appeared for treatment at the out patient department of the University of Penna. a negro suffering from pruritus, who presented the characteristic blood finding of eosinophilic leukemia.

Upon various occasions a differential blood count, made by Dr. H. I. Goldstein, showed a maximum of 65 and a minimum of 43 per cent. of eosinophilic cells.

The red blood corpuscles ranged from 5,170,000 to 4,870,000; and the leukocytes were between 20,720 and 8960 per c.mm. hemoglobin 80 per cent. Wassermann positive. The white blood cells may exceed 60,000 per c.mm. and splenic enlargement is mentioned in reports of some cases.

Lymphatic Leukemia

It is difficult to show conclusively that many cases of leukemia are not at first of the lymphatic variety, since the disease begins somewhat insidiously, and a blood examination is not obtained until it is well advanced.

Causation.—Lymphatic leukemia may occur at any age, but the majority of cases that have come under our observation developed during childhood and early adolescence. One case seen by us, however, occurred in a woman seventy-six years old.

Principal Complaint.—The temperature and physical signs resemble closely those described under Myeloid Leukemia. The distinctive characteristics are general glandular enlargement (moderate), and the late development of splenic and hepatic overgrowth. Lymphatic leukemia is said to develop more rapidly than the myeloid type, except in the case of the so-called "acute leukemia" of adults.

Laboratory Diagnosis.—The *hemoglobin* and the *erythrocytes* are proportionately reduced, the latter falling to between 3,500,000 and 2,000,000 in a cubic millimeter. The leukocytes fluctuate between 50,000 to 450,000 in a cubic millimeter, and even a higher degree of leukocytosis has been recorded. The ratio of red to white cells may be 1:200 or even 1:2. H. I. Goldstein has reported a case following Vincent's angina with 92,000 leukocytes per c.mm. Biopsy study of an enlarged gland showed leukemic hyperplasia.

A microscopic study of the fresh blood reveals the presence of a great number of small and large lymphocytes, which often occur in clusters and appear to have crowded the red cells into groups of from four to twenty each. Relapsing pyrexia is rare.*

Stained Blood.—The red cells stain feebly and show a variable degree of degeneration. (See Secondary Anemia, p. 404.) Nucleated red cells are often found in this disease.

A differential leukocyte count reveals the chief characteristic of lymphoid blood, namely, that from 50 to 95 per cent. of the total number of white cells is lymphocytes. The increase in the relative proportion of lymphocytes is accompanied by a corresponding decrease in the polymorphonuclear elements. Either the large or the small form of lymphocytes may predominate. It has been quite generally maintained that

* Henderson and Mackenzie, Glasgow Med. Jour., May, 1924, p. 267.

when a high percentage of large lymphocytes is present, the case runs a rapid course, but this statement has not been confirmed.

The urine is, as a rule, apparently normal until the disease is well advanced, when it may contain albumin and many leukocytes.

Summary of Diagnosis.—Lymphatic leukemia is recognized chiefly by enlargement of the superficial glands and lymphocytosis.

Differential Diagnosis.—Lymphatic leukemia may be confounded with *pseudoleukemia* (Hodgkin's disease), but the latter is not attended with leukocytosis and runs a more chronic course. Moreover, there is early involvement of the glands, which appear in grape-like clusters.

The anemia of *malnutrition*, commonly seen in children, resembles closely the early stage of lymphatic leukemia, and in one instance observed at the Philadelphia General Hospital it was impossible to determine, from the first few blood examinations, whether or not we were dealing with lymphatic leukemia: the leukocyte count was above 60,000 in a cubic millimeter, and of these, 50 per cent. were lymphocytes. This child was given blood tonics and improved greatly, his blood being practically normal four months later. A similar variety of anemia may follow certain of the infectious diseases, as, *e. g.*, scarlet fever, measles, and exfoliating dermatitis, but the history, coupled with the results of treatment, will show the true nature of these conditions.

CHARACTERISTIC DIFFERENCES IN LEUKEMIC BLOOD

Myeloid Leukemia	Chronic Lymphatic Leukemia	Acute Lymphatic Leukemia
1. Red cells moderately reduced—3,000,000.	1. Moderate reduction—2,000,000 to 3,000,000.	1. More marked reduction early during course of malady.
2. Nucleated red cells, including megaloblasts, present.	2. Not common.	2. Normoblasts quite common.
3. Leukocytes, 150,000 to 500,000 or more in a cubic millimeter.	3. 100,000 to 300,000.	3. 30,000 to 200,000 the rule.
4. Myelocytes, 30 to 60 per cent.	4. Myelocytes few.	4. Myelocytes few.
5. Eosinophiles common, also eosinophilic myelocytes.	5. Eosinophiles few.	5. Eosinphiles rarely found.
6. Neutrophiles commonly seen.	6. Less common.	6. Scanty.
7. Lymphocytes—large and small—12 to 30 per cent.	7. Small lymphocytes, 60 to 90 per cent.	7. Lymphocytosis—large forms predominant, many irregular cells.

CHLOROSIS

Pathologic Definition.—A blood disease characterized by imperfect development of the genitalia and anomalies in the blood-vessels together with pronounced alteration in the circulating blood and by anemia of the body tissues.

Predisposing and Exciting Factors.—Age and Sex.—Young females, fourteen to nineteen years, are most often attacked. Males may rarely display many features of this malady. Cases have been seen by us between twenty-five and thirty-five years, but in all such cases there was a history of one or more attacks earlier in life.

Previous attacks figure prominently as a predisposing factor, two or more attacks being rather common.

Occupation and Sunlight.—Chlorosis is most common in girls who work indoors and in buildings where there is a limited amount of sunlight. Employment in imperfectly ventilated buildings is doubtless a contributing factor. Overwork of whatever nature gives rise to chlorotic anemia.

Personal cleanliness is claimed to figure in selected cases, the condition arising in those who are careless in this respect.

Insufficient sleep is doubtless a factor in the production of chlorotic anemia, and masturbation may be a cause in some cases.

Food.—Many cases are poorly nourished either as the result of insufficient nourishing food or from gastric derangements which impair the appetite and at times interfere with perfect assimilation.

Climate.—Chlorosis is frequent among young females who have recently changed their residence from a tropical to a colder climate. Those from the British Isles (especially Ireland) and from southern Europe frequently suffer from chlorosis when coming to the United States.

Toxins absorbed during obstinate constipation may be a cause, as may also anxiety and grief.

Principal Complaint.—Early there is languor, indisposition to mental or physical exertion, irritability, weakness, depression, and fatigue following moderate exertion. Headache, cardiac palpitation, and constipation appear early and increase in severity as the condition advances. Dyspnea is common and amenorrhea the rule.

The appetite is poor and a perverted appetite is present. The patient may be seen eating particles of earth, etc. There is at times a craving for sour and spiced food. Eructations of gas and rarely vomiting are seen.

Physical Examination.—The subcutaneous fat is retained. The peculiar greenish-yellow tint of the complexion is striking. There may be edema of the ankles. The scleræ are often pearly or bluish-white. The nails show pallor, as do also the cheeks, tongue, and lips. Visible pulsations of the carotid vessels are frequent, and a pulsation at the base of the heart and in the peripheral veins is observed.

Palpation.—The skin and the extremities are frequently cold, owing to sluggish heart action. The pulse is usually full and easily compressible.

Auscultation.—Systolic murmurs, soft and "whiffing" in character, are heard at the base of the heart. There is a venous hum or bruit de diable—a soft continuous murmur heard over the large cervical veins.

Laboratory Diagnosis.— Altered acidity of the gastric fluid is common. The urine is of low specific gravity, pale and contains indican.

Examination of the blood shows: The hemoglobin ranges from 70 per cent. to 35 per cent. in severe cases. The number of red corpuscles is not greatly reduced, and is from 3,700,000 to 4,100,000 per cubic millimeter, but in severe cases the count may be 1,900,000. The leukocytes are only slightly increased in number (8000 to 8500 per c.mm.). Microscopically, the red cells are seen to be paler than normal, and somewhat altered in size and shape. Some are distinctly larger than usual (macrocytes), but the majority are slightly undersized (microcytes). Irregularity in shape (poikilocytosis) is seen in the red cells and an occasional normoblast may be observed. There is usually a relative lymphocytosis.

Summary of Diagnosis.—There is a decided reduction in the percentage of hemoglobin, without a corresponding change in the number of red cells. Vertigo, palpitation, and pallor when seen in young females are important. Constipation and a perverted appetite, as well as environment, are worthy of consideration in formulating a diagnosis.

THE DISTINGUISHING SYMPTOMS AND PHYSICAL SIGNS IN SECONDARY ANEMIA AND THE ESSENTIAL ANEMIAS

Addisonian or Pernicious Anemia	Chlorosis	Leukemia	Secondary Anemia
1. Progressive weakness, with anorexia, and gastric disturbances, with constipation alternating with diarrhea.	1. Great weakness coming on somewhat suddenly. A perverted appetite, with obstinate constipation.	1. Weakness develops slowly, but is progressive. Anorexia the rule.	1. The development of the anemia depends entirely upon the primary disease with which it is associated.
2. There may be aching and mild pains in the extremities.	2. Absent.	2. Pain, when present, depends upon pressure from an enlarged liver or spleen.	2. Always dependent upon the primary disease.
3. Palpitation an annoying feature late in the disease.	3. Present upon slight exertion throughout the disease.	3. Great cardiac discomfort late in disease, usually with cyanosis.	3. Not a prominent feature, but may be present upon exertion.
4. Headache quite common; patient cannot concentrate mental power. Even reading produces exhaustion.	4. Common, and intense occipital pains upon exertion. The jar of walking may cause headache, and the patient complains that her heels are too high. Patient irritable, wakeful, and nervous.	4. Headache not a characteristic feature. Mental condition dull.	4. When due to such chronic conditions as nephritis, headache is prominent. Insomnia and irritability are prominent features.
5. Inspection: Skin, lemon-yellow tint. Superficial fat well preserved.	5. In severe types there may be slight puffing of the ankles.	5. Puffiness of the eyelids and some distortion of the features, due to edema of the face. Swelling of the ankles and lower extremities early; also backs of hands and fingers. Abdomen prominent.	5. Edema is unusual except in anemia due to the Necator americanus, when the distortion of the face is equally marked with that seen in leukemia.
6. Effusion into the serous sacs uncommon, and when present, affects the pleura.	6. Absent.	6. Pleural and peritoneal effusions common.	6. Absent the rule.
7. Failing vision and retinal hemorrhages the rule.	7. Absent.	7. Retinal hemorrhage has been reported.	7. Retinal hemorrhages rare, except in the anemias of diabetes and nephritis, where they are common.

In pernicious anemia gastric secretion is free from HCl in 90 per cent. of cases. Spinal cord changes (sclerosis) are common, and the tongue and mouth often become swollen and sore. Relapses and remissions are the rule.

LABORATORY FINDINGS BY A STUDY OF FIXED AND STAINED BLOOD IN HEALTH, SECONDARY ANEMIA, AND THE ESSENTIAL ANEMIAS

Findings in Normal Blood	Pernicious Anemia	Chlorosis	Leukemia	Secondary Anemia
1. Form and size of the red cells as shown by Plate II.	1. Poikilocytosis common, with increased diameter of the erythrocytes characteristic.	1. Extreme degree of distortion and abnormally small cells the rule.	1. Moderate poikilocytosis and great variation in size of erythrocytes.	1. Poikilocytosis in extreme types; the size of cells varies greatly—both microcytes and macrocytes are found.
2. The red cells stain evenly except for their central portion, where there is a small circular area which is feebly stained.	2. The cytoplasm may stain unevenly, or the entire cell may overstain. Occasionally understained cells are seen. Polychromatophilia displayed by megaloblasts.	2. All cells feebly stained, many as mere shadows. Overstained cells rare.	2. Most cells understained. Polychromatophilia and basic degeneration common.	2. Many of the cells are understained; few stain as normal, and others as mere shadows. Punctate areas of basic degeneration common.
3. Nucleated red cells absent.	3. Common—both megaloblasts and normoblasts.	3. Normoblasts occasionally seen.	3. Normoblasts common; megaloblasts unusual, except late in disease.	3. Normoblasts not an unusual finding. Megaloblasts extremely rare.
4. Differential leukocyte count shows percentage of the different cells to bear the normal relation.	4. Lymphocytes increased.	4. Lymphocytes may show a slight increase, and in a few instances slight eosinophilia has been noted.	4. In the myeloid type myelocytes compose 30 to 60 per cent. of the leukocytes. In the lymphatic type 50 to 95 per cent. of the white cells are lymphocytes, with few myelocytes.	4. The polymorphonuclear cells are usually above the normal. Eosinophilia is found in mineral poisoning, in intestinal parasites, and is occasionally seen in the anemia of infectious maladies.

APLASTIC ANEMIA

The clinical and laboratory features that appeared to be fairly constant and "probably characteristic" of aplastic anemia are:

$$\text{Aplastic Anemia} \begin{cases} \text{Acute} \\ \text{Chronic} \begin{cases} \text{Primary} \\ \text{Secondary} \end{cases} \end{cases}$$

This clinical variety of anemia may occur at any age, but is most often seen between puberty and the twentieth year. Males are afflicted more often than are females, although Schneider reports three cases that occurred in females. The temperature is usually high.

The clinical course is rapid, non-remitting, extending over a period from a few weeks to 1½ years. Most cases terminating within the course of six months.

Laboratory Findings.—Leukopenia is a striking feature and there is reduction in the blood platelets, these being reduced to 20 to 25 per cent. of the normal. Early during the course of aplastic anemia, the patient displays hemorrhagic tendency. Coagulation time is lengthened, and the number of red blood cells is low.

Megalocytes and erythroblasts are conspicuous by their absence. Urobilinogen is absent and bilirubin appreciably reduced.

Physical Examination.—Pressure over the bones does not elicit pain. Poikilocytosis and polychromasia are not conspicuous features. The skin is pale grey, but not the straw yellow appearance so common in progressive pernicious anemia. The liver and spleen are not enlarged.

Autopsy study reveals the presence of punctate hemorrhages most commonly seen in the subserous and subperitoneal surfaces. There is an absence of the hyperplastic marrow changes in this type of anemia.

PSEUDOLEUKEMIA

(Hodgkin's Disease; General Lymphadenoma)

Pathologic Definition.—A variety of anemia characterized by a progressive hyperplasia of the superficial lymph-glands, occasional lymphoid growths, and enlargement of the spleen and liver, with an absence of the degenerative blood changes characteristic of lymphatic leukemia. The blood picture is that of a secondary anemia with leukopenia in afebrile cases and leukocytosis during the febrile period.

Tumor formation involving glandular structures though not always epithelial in origin pursues a rather malignant course and is considered by Warren as lymphoblastoma (lymphosarcoma, scirrhus type, and Hodgkin's Disease). According to Fox and Farley* the pathology of Hodgkin's disease differs widely from the pathology of aleukemic leukemia. Leukemia cutis and acute pseudoleukemia deserve mention in this connection.

Varieties.—(A) Anemia in which involvement of the lymphatic glands is a leading feature. (See Lymphatic Leukemia, p. 421.)

(B) Anemia displaying the blood changes of pseudoleukemia (secondary anemia), with splenic enlargement and but slight involvement of the axillary, inguinal, and cervical glands.

Exciting and Predisposing Factors.—Bunting and Yates have described at length their findings in cultural studies made from the involved glands in Hodgkin's disease. Billings and Rosenow† have conducted a series of investigations which tend to confirm the reports previously cited. A gram-staining, non-acid-fast, polymorphous, diphtheroid bacillus corresponding to the bacillus of Frankel and Much is a rather constant finding in smear preparations from the involved glandular tissues. These bacilli have been cultivated from the infected glands by Bunting and Yates and also by Negri and Mieremet. The bacillus of Bunting and Yates does not appear in pure cultures in the majority of instances, but is found associated with a staphylococcus. It has been further determined by Rosenow that the staphylococcus develops in pure culture aërobically, and that the bacillus develops when cultivated anaërobically. The conditions that materially predispose to the development of pseudoleukemia are as yet unknown. Males are affected in 75 per cent. of cases, and the disease seems especially prone to attack young and middle-aged persons. This is shown by Gowers'

* Am. Jour. Med. Sci., March, 1922.

† Journal Am. Med. Assoc., December 13, 1913, p. 2122.

analysis of 100 cases, of which 30 were under twenty years, 34 between twenty and forty years, and only 36 developed after the age of forty.

Heredity is a doubtful predisposing factor. Flexner and other writers have suggested that certain protoplasmic bodies present in the large glandular nodules may be concerned in the production of pseudoleukemia. Still other writers, as, *e. g.*, Sailer and Musser, believe tuberculosis of the glands to be the initial lesion.

Pseudoleukemia has been known to follow ulcerative stomatitis, chronic irritations of the skin, local glandular swelling, malarial intoxication, glandular tuberculosis, and syphilitic infection, but the actual etiologic relationship that these maladies bear to pseudoleukemia is not known.

The foregoing etiologic factors suggest strongly the pre-existence of a focus of infection in Hodgkin's disease.

Principal Complaint.—The patient usually consults his physician for unilateral enlargements involving the glands of one side of the neck, particularly the submaxillary and cervical glands. In the course of a few months these groups of glands extend until they eventually involve both sides, and later other glands, such as the axillary and inguinal, show enlargement.

The patient does not manifest any marked constitutional depression until the disease has progressed for some time, when he complains of languor, failing strength, headache, giddiness, palpitation on slight exertion, dyspnea, loss of appetite, constipation, and at times of edema of the ankles and feet. The gastro-intestinal symptoms (diarrhea, constipation, hemorrhoids, etc.) are ofttimes annoying, and are suggestive of lymphoid growths in the stomach and in the intestines. Deafness, due to the interference of glandular growths in the pharynx, pressure paraplegia, and neuralgic pains are among the distressing symptoms.

Mucous hemorrhages, *e. g.*, epistaxis, may be an annoying feature late during the course of pseudoleukemia.

Physical Signs.—**Inspection** reveals pallor or a peculiar bronzing of the skin and mucous surfaces; at times jaundice, due to obstruction of the common duct, is present. Pruritus and erythema are not unusual. There is enlargement of the superficial glands, which are arranged in grape-like clusters and in huge bunches. There are edema of the feet, swelling and cyanosis of the arms and hands, swelling and blueness of the head and face—all of which congestions result from pressure by enlarged glands. There may be marked dyspnea, and the patient assumes the semirecumbent posture, owing to effusion occurring into the pleural sacs. The cardiac impulse is rapid and diffuse, and pulsation over the carotid and brachial arteries is at times present.

Lyon reports a case where mediastinal granuloma developed early, and nodular growths of this tissue were also found in the pancreas, kidneys, myocardium, and liver.

Palpation shows the enlarged glands to be freely movable beneath the skin, although rarely they may become adherent. The heart impulse is feeble, rapid, and wavy, and the pulse is soft, thready, and weak. Inequality of the radial pulse due to the pressure of glands on the axillary and cervical arteries is not an uncommon finding. Unilateral sweating of the face, the result of pressure upon the cervical sympathetic, is occasionally observed. When peritoneal effusion exists, fluctuation may be detected. The liver is rarely enlarged sufficiently to make it palpable. In an average case of pseudoleukemia the spleen can be felt below the costal margin, and in the splenic form of this malady the spleen

is decidedly enlarged, while the lymphatic glands are but moderately or not at all increased in size.

Percussion reveals nothing of special interest unless there is effusion into the serous sacs. Glandular growths in the chest or in the abdomen are often detected by percussion, while auscultatory percussion enables one to outline the tumor masses accurately.

Auscultation.—The heart-sounds are rapid and irregular, and hemic murmurs are common. The breath-sound may be exaggerated, or variously modified by pressure of enlarged glands which encroach upon the respiratory tract.

Laboratory Diagnosis.—Uncomplicated cases of pseudoleukemia are indistinguishable from those of true leukemia except as the result of a hematologic study. During the first months or even for a year the hemoglobin is but slightly reduced (75 to 80 per cent.), but from this time on it falls with the progress of the disease and may reach 50 to 30 per cent. At first the red cells are practically normal, but a gradual reduction follows closely the reduction in hemoglobin. The red cells reach 3,500,000 to 2,000,000 in a cubic millimeter in the average case.

There may be a variation in the number of leukocytes present in the peripheral blood, but in uncomplicated cases the leukocytes seldom rise above 18,000.

A differential leukocyte count shows such increase to affect chiefly the polymorphonuclear elements, myelocytes being unusual; eosinophilia, however, is not uncommon. In cases in which the leukocyte count is normal an increase in the percentage of lymphocytes is the rule. In our study of the blood conditions in a fairly large series of cases of glandular enlargement we found it impossible to make a diagnosis of pseudoleukemia upon the blood findings alone. Further, it was often found to be practically impossible to distinguish, hematologically, between syphilis, malignant disease, tuberculosis of the glands, and pseudoleukemia. In a review of many cases in the literature on the subject, in which a high grade of leukocytosis obtained for a prolonged period during the latter part of the disease, it was questionable whether such cases were not in reality instances of true leukemia from the onset.

Summary of Diagnosis.—A history of glandular enlargement affecting first the submaxillary glands and those of the neck, with gradual advancement and involvement of the glands of the opposite side, as well as of the axillary and inguinal regions, favors pseudoleukemia. A negative history of syphilis, normal areas of splenic and hepatic dullness, and the blood findings of secondary anemia are highly suggestive of the glandular type of pseudoleukemia.

Differential Diagnosis.—Pseudoleukemia is indistinguishable from **true leukemia** unless a study of the blood be made, which must include a differential count of the leukocytes. A high percentage of myelocytes, with a corresponding decrease in the polymorphonuclear cells, is positive of true leukemia. **Obscure syphilis** sometimes resembles pseudoleukemia, and is to be differentiated from this disease by a history of infection or of heredity. (*a*) Wassermann reaction with both the blood and spinal fluid may be of service.

Tuberculosis of the various systems of glands closely resembles pseudoleukemia. The involvement of additional glands is usually less rapid in tuberculosis than in pseudoleukemia; tuberculous adenitis is a disease of the young. Again, when the disease is tuberculous, the unilateral infection seldom spreads from the neck if the initial enlargement is there. Tuberculosis is more likely to affect the submaxillary

than the cervical glands. The presence of abscesses and sinuses favors glandular tuberculosis.

Suppurative and ulcerative conditions involving the hand or scalp not infrequently cause unilateral enlargement of the superficial glands, but a history of prolonged suppuration and the presence of a unilateral infection serve to exclude pseudoleukemia.

Inanition.—In children in whom malnutrition appears to be the most prominent feature glandular enlargement is not infrequent, and may be confused with pseudoleukemia. The blood in inanition always displays an abnormally high percentage of lymphocytes, and the polymorphonuclear cells are seldom increased. A history of dietetic errors or of some preceding infection, *e. g.*, gastritis, dysentery, etc., and the improvement of the child's general condition upon the institution of judicious treatment, are the cardinal features that exclude the existence of pseudoleukemia.

Malignant disease of the superficial glands is at first indistinguishable from pseudoleukemia, but the rapid course and the tendency to involvement of the liver are opposed to a diagnosis of pseudoleukemia.

Benign cystic epithelioma, although a rare disease, may be confused with the glandular enlargement of pseudoleukemia. In benign epithelioma the initial lesion may be situated in any portion of the body, from which point small nodular masses develop in the skin, these nodular growths following the course of the lymphatics. Benign epithelioma develops more slowly than does pseudoleukemia, and the nodules are located within the skin, while in pseudoleukemia the skin is not adherent to the nodules. For a further discussion of the salient points of difference between pseudoleukemia and other blood maladies see tables on p. 425.

Pseudoleukemia with splenic enlargement must be distinguished from **splenic anemia** (Banti's disease), and here it may be stated that, in our opinion, some of the cases of pseudoleukemia with splenic enlargement reported are, in reality, suffering from this form of anemia; we are also inclined to believe that, with our improved methods of hematologic study, cases of Hodgkin's disease with splenic enlargement as the leading symptom will be comparatively rare. Idiopathic enlargement of the spleen and splenic tumor from whatever cause may be confused with the splenic type of pseudoleukemia. (See Aleukemic Leukemia p. 429.)

Clinical Course.—While pseudoleukemia usually continues over a period of several months or years, typical cases terminate fatally in from two and one-half to three years. During the course of the disease, however, marked remissions occur, but are always followed by more severe exacerbations, until late in the disease, when the periods of remission become shorter and those of the active stage longer. Indeed, Hodgkin's disease may terminate in lymphatic leukemia.

Among the unfavorable manifestations are: Great weakness, rapid glandular enlargements, emaciation, interference with the respiratory or circulatory systems as the result of pressure from glandular tumors, profound anemia, and general edema. A perceptible diminution in the size of the glandular masses not infrequently takes place late in the disease and is of serious prognostic omen. When infectious maladies complicate pseudoleukemia, the patient usually succumbs within a few days, and even local derangements may result disastrously.

ALEUKEMIC LEUKEMIA (Leukopenic Leukemia)

Discussion.—This is a true leukemia, both clinically and pathologically and the blood picture resembles that of ordinary leukemia,

except the leukocytosis is conspicuous by its absence. A leukemic miscroscopic blood picture is essential for the diagnosis of leukopenic leukemia. The failure of the appearance of more white cells in the circulating blood, according to Aschoff is due to the fact that the leukocytes are held back by the capillaries of the lungs.

N. Rosenthal divides leukopenic leukemia into three groups (*a*) The lymphoid; (*b*) myeloid and (*c*) monocytic leukemias.

Aleukemic leukemia is by no means a new disease, since Cohern called attention to these conditions of the blood in 1865 and referred to it as a lymphoid—leukopenic leukemia and emphasized the clinical fact that these cases were usually chronic. Acute cases are rarely observed.

Pathology.—This varies but slightly from the ordinary forms of leukemia since the changes in the bone marrow and in the viscera are less extensive. The number of white blood-cells found in the circulating blood appears to be normal and may be sub-normal.

In those cases that begin with chills and the evidence of acute infection, there may be hemorrhages into the mucous surfaces, the skin, and infiltration of the tonsils which later leads to necrosis.

The blood changes are essentially those of leukemia. There are present many myelogonetic and myeloblastic cells (Rosenthal) and there may be a predominance of either myeloid or lymphoid cells. Fox* in an exhaustive monograph on this subject, suggests the need for a better clinical classification of Leukemia.

ANÆMIA INFANTUM

Definition.—A blood disease affecting children, and characterized by splenic enlargement and symptoms closely resembling those of leukemia, but displaying no marked tendency toward a fatal issue. This malady was first studied by von Jaksch.

Predisposition.—Children during the second year of life are most susceptible to the disease, but it is not infrequently seen at three and four years of age.

Principal Complaint.—The child does not thrive, and such gastro-intestinal symptoms as vomiting, anorexia, and diarrhea are present. The mother affirms that increasing weakness and pallor have been prominent features since the onset of the illness.

Thermic Features.—In a case observed at the Philadelphia General Hospital mild irregular fever (99°–101° F.) was observed.

Physical Signs.—Upon **inspection** there is to be detected extreme pallor, an anxious expression, puffiness of the eyelids, edema of the ankles and feet, emaciation, increased respirations, and a diffuse cardiac impulse. The entire abdomen may be abnormally prominent, but more commonly there is a unilateral bulging, corresponding to the position of the spleen.

Palpation.—The pulse is often weak and thready, and late in the disease it may become rapid and dicrotic. The heart impulse is weak, although somewhat diffuse, and the muscles are soft and flabby. In the splenic region the round edge of the organ may be felt, and may extend to the median line of the abdomen; at last the spleen occupies the greater portion of the left superior abdominal quadrant. At times it is possible to detect a decided notch in the advancing margin of the spleen, and the organ may be felt to rise and fall with respiration.

Percussion reveals nothing of special interest, save that it is confirmatory of palpation in ascertaining the size of the spleen and of the liver.

* Am. Jour. Med. Sci., March, 1922, page 313.

Auscultation.—The heart-sounds are feeble, and often accompanied by a soft systolic murmur (hemic). There is hurried respiration, which, owing to interference from enlargement of the spleen, becomes shallow.

Laboratory Diagnosis.—The blood exuding from a puncture resembles that of secondary anemia. The hemoglobin will be found to vary between 75 and 45 per cent., whereas the red cells number between 3,000,000 and 1,500,000 in a cubic millimeter. Leukocytosis forms one of the characteristic features, and a count of from 30,000 to 100,000 leukocytes in a cubic millimeter is the rule. Decided fluctuation in the number of leukocytes is also an equally characteristic feature of infantile anemia. The ratio of white to red cells in severe types of the disease may reach 1:200.

A microscopic study of the living blood shows rouleaux formation to be imperfect, and the cells are often equally disseminated throughout the field. There is also great variation in the size and form of the erythrocytes.

Stained blood shows the red cells to be poor in hemoglobin and greatly distorted; their size varies, microcytes and macrocytes being common. Abnormally large cells whose centers are practically without stain are plentiful.

Nucleated red cells (megaloblasts, microblasts, and normoblasts) are commonly found in infantile anemia. A differential count of the leukocytes shows a lymphocytosis. Myelocytes are occasional findings.

Summary of Diagnosis.—In a child having a history of progressive weakness, pallor, emaciation, the physical signs of splenic tumor, anemia, and leukocytosis the diagnosis is clear. The blood changes of profound secondary anemia further favor the diagnosis of infantile anemia.

Differential Diagnosis.—Abdominal tumor is not an unusual finding in children; these are often the result of **sarcomatous growths of the kidney,** from which infantile anemia must be differentiated. The history of a gradual onset, the marked secondary anemia, together with the physical signs,—*e. g.*, freely movable tumor,—favor infantile anemia. Sarcoma displays a less well-marked anemia and seldom shows a high grade of leukocytosis.

Lymphatic leukemia differs from infantile anemia in that the former is found at any period of life, and displays an extraordinary number of lymphocytes and enlargement of the lymph-glands.

Myeloid leukemia may at times resemble infantile anemia, but here the age and extraordinarily high percentage of myelocytes serve to exclude the latter disease.

Course.—Despite the grave type of anemia present, which is at first progressive, over 50 per cent. of the cases are amenable to treatment.

SICKLE CELL ANEMIA

The literature contains but few records giving clinical observations on this type of anemia. Sydenstricker, Mulherin and Houseal* state that the disease is rather common in Atlanta, Georgia, where at least forty (40) cases have been studied. It is claimed to be found in certain families of the negro race, and the characteristic features are—anemia with sickle or crescentic shape of the red cells, and the presence of ulceration on the legs. The leg ulcers are, as a rule, round, deep, and resemble rather closely those seen in luetic disease. There are muscle and joint pains, with progressive weakness, and pain in the epigastrium, after the taking of food. Later there are found anemia, swelling of the feet, vertigo and

*Southern Medical Journal, March, 1924.

headaches. Fever may be present, but is in no way characteristic of this condition. The disease is noted for its series of exacerbations and remissions.

Laboratory Findings.—The coagulation time of the blood is within normal limits. Erythrocytes vary between 1,500,000 and 4,000,000 per c.mm. The hemoglobin usually fluctuates between thirty (30) and sixty (60) per cent. The color index is abnormally high. There is slight increase in the leukocytes—10,000 to 20,000 per c.mm.—although higher leukocyte counts have been reported. Irregularity of the red cells, together with their unusual crescentic shape, serves as the chief diagnostic feature. At times there is a disturbance in the differential count; myelocytes and eosinophiles appear in numbers equalling seven (7) per cent. The urine contains albumen, and at times casts and urobilin. Gastric analysis reveals achlorhydria and hypochlorhydria. The vital capacity of the lung varies between twenty (20) and fifty (50) per cent. below normal. Blood chemistry is—as a rule—negative.

SPLENIC ANEMIA

General Remarks.—Splenic anemia was first described by H. C. Wood, and was generally considered a distinct type of blood disease. Some writers, however, regard splenic anemia as dependent upon some preexisting condition, as a consequence of which splenic enlargement and secondary anemia occur. Although splenic anemia has here been classed as a distinct variety of blood malady, we admit that this classification is open to criticism. (See Splenomegaly.)

Classification.—Technically speaking, the so-called splenic anemia is but a single type of the disease, but this is divided into three quite distinct stages: (*a*) The initial stage, which displays a somewhat high grade of anemia, with muscular weakness. (*b*) A stage characterized by atrophy of the liver and splenomegaly, with a variable degree of pain in the region of the spleen. It is during this stage of the malady that the patient often complains of other symptoms. (*c*) A stage in which progressive asthenia exists, terminating in death.

Principal Complaint.—The patient complains of prostration, loss of weight, gastro-intestinal disturbances, such as gastritis, frequent paroxysms of vomiting, hematemesis, shortness of breath, and palpitation. There may have been hemorrhages into the skin, and bloody urine may have been passed. A variable degree of pain, due to pressure from splenic enlargement, and edema of the ankles and feet, due to the same cause, are commonly experienced.

Physical Signs.—Inspection.—The skin and mucous membranes are pale, except in rare instances, in which the skin has become pigmented. The flesh appears to have been well preserved, while the gait is feeble and shows evidence of weakness. Slight edema of the eyelids and of the ankles and feet develops late. The abdomen shows bulging, restricted to the splenic region.

Palpation reveals nothing of interest beyond outlining the hypertrophied spleen and showing, as it does, an absence of the liver at the costal margin. Rarely ascites exists, when it may be possible to elicit fluctuation. The pulse is weak.

Percussion, including auscultatory percussion, is but confirmatory of palpation.

Auscultation.—The heart-sounds are feeble, at times rapid, and hemic murmurs are to be heard after decided anemia exists.

Laboratory Diagnosis.—The hemoglobin shows decided reduction, often falling to below 50 per cent., while the red corpuscles display a less marked decrease and are, as a rule, above 3,000,000 in a cubic millimeter. Leukopenia is the characteristic feature.

Microscopically, the most conspicuous feature of the fresh blood is the extreme pallor of the red cells. There is also a high grade of poikilocytosis.

Stained blood reveals the characteristics of a severe secondary anemia (p. 404). Nucleated red cells (normoblasts) are common.

Urine.—Pressure from splenic tumor often causes renal congestion, in which instance the urine is of high specific gravity, high color, and, microscopically, it may be found to contain both red and white cells, as well as hyaline and granular casts. Albuminuria develops in cases in which renal congestion is marked.

Summary of Diagnosis.—In a case of splenomegaly with profound progressive anemia and showing the blood changes of chlorosis *with leukopenia*, splenic anemia is to be considered. A negative history of *syphilis, prolonged suppuration, malaria,* and *tuberculosis* is necessary, since any one of these maladies may cause blood changes resembling those known to occur in splenic anemia. The absence of glandular enlargement further supports the diagnosis of splenic anemia.

Differential Diagnosis.—Myeloid leukemia differs from splenic anemia in showing a leukocyte count above 60,000, of which a high percentage of the cells (30 to 60) are myelocytes. Rarely, indeed, cases of leukemia are seen in which the leukocytes fall to near the normal number, and remain there for an indefinite period, and it is only with great difficulty that this form of leukemia can be differentiated from splenic anemia during the stage of remission.

Pseudoleukemia with splenic tumor resembles splenic anemia, but glandular involvement, a feature characteristic of Hodgkin's disease and absent in the latter condition, serves to separate these diseases. Abdominal Hodgkin's disease with severe anemia deserves consideration.

Enlargement of the spleen probably of **malarial origin** is to be distinguished from splenic anemia by the history alone, and unless this is very clear, it is doubtful whether these conditions can be differentiated from each other.

Banti's disease (cirrhosis of the liver with splenomegaly) is the concluding stage of splenic anemia. Gaucher's disease is distinguished through the fact of its frequent familial history.

Pernicious Anemia.—The small size of the spleen and the abnormally high ratio of hemoglobin to red cells, coupled with the increased diameter of the individual red cells, are features strongly suggestive of pernicious anemia.

HEMOPHILIA

Definition.—A condition characterized clinically by an inherent tendency to repeated profuse hemorrhages from the mucous surfaces, with the exception of the uterus, and to uncontrollable hemorrhages from the skin, mucous membranes, and deeper structures, following slight injury. Nasse's law while of a clinical interest is not applicable to all cases.*

Causation.—Hemophilia may manifest itself during any period of life, but is oftenest seen in young adult males. Heredity is regarded as the chief factor; although disease of the liver and of the spleen is often found. There is lack of thrombokinase.†

* Anders "Practice of Medicine," 14th Edition, p. 469.

† Feisly and Fried, klin.-wchnschr., Berlin, 3–831, May 6, 1924.

Principal Complaint.—These patients seldom complain of ill health, and the first evidence of the existing trouble is the onset of a profuse hemorrhage, which appears in the form of epistaxis, hemoptysis, or hematemesis, and in the passing of blood-stained feces and bloody urine. The patient often gives a history of swelling of the larger joints and a tendency to the development of large ecchymotic spots after having received but a slight injury. Even the prick of a pin or a similar trivial injury is followed by a hemorrhage into the skin, which at times becomes sufficiently severe to cause a true hematoma. Hemorrhages frequently occur into the buccal mucous membrane, especially beneath the tongue and upon the cheeks.

Physical Signs.—Inspection.—The patient is often a well-nourished individual who gives no evidence of disease; but when hemophilia is associated with splenic enlargement or disease of the liver or other viscera, there may be pallor and the general features of anemia may be manifest. Areas of ecchymoses may be detected, and swelling of the large joints, which at times show fluctuation, has been reported.

The mouth is most likely to display hemorrhages, yet in a large percentage of cases the physical examination, and even the patient's general complaint, gives no clue to the malady. Further systematic physical examination confirms inspection.

Laboratory Diagnosis.—The blood coagulation time is increased, and blood plates decreased. In two cases studied by us we were unable to detect any distinctive feature between the blood of hemophilia (with anemia) and that of scurvy, purpura, and grave secondary anemia. Upon slight puncture of the finger the blood exudes freely, and when placed upon a glass surface, it appears to possess nearly the normal amount of adhesiveness. In one case observed by La Place a microscopic study of the living blood showed it to be normal, whereas the second observation disclosed a high grade of secondary anemia, the hemoglobin and red cells being proportionately reduced, and the other characteristics of secondary anemia (see p. 404) being in evidence. In the cases observed 4 per cent. and 2 per cent. respectively of myelocytes were present.

Summary of Diagnosis.—A history of repeated ecchymoses following slight injury, and of profuse bleeding as a result of a trivial abrasion of the skin and mucous surfaces, or from slight injury to the nose, is highly suggestive of hemophilia. The family history is also of importance, since hemophilia is transmitted by the female, to her sons although it may be found in males. We have known of severe hemorrhage following tooth extraction, where all of nine brothers had at some time shown a tendency towards bleeding. Other features characteristic of hemophilia are that serious hemorrhage from the uterus is unusual, and that hemorrhages are not likely to occur either during menstruation or pregnancy. Afebrile swelling of the joints is not unusual in hemophilia.

Differential Diagnosis.—Hemophilia is to be distinguished from **purpura hæmorrhagica, peliosis rheumatica, scurvy,** and conditions resulting from **inanition.** The preëminent feature that separates hemophilia from these conditions is the history of profuse hemorrhage following slight injury to the body tissues. When hemophilia exists in a person who is otherwise perfectly healthy, the diagnosis is comparatively clear, but after repeated hemorrhages it is commonly difficult and practically impossible to distinguish between hemophilia and the maladies just named. Profuse **hemorrhage of the new-born** differs from hemophilia in that the former is preceded by jaundice. The family history is second in importance to hemorrhage on slight injury in diagnosing hemophilia.

Course.—The patient seldom attains the age of fifty, but usually succumbs to the secondary effects of the hemorrhages. It is possible, however, for subjects of hemophilia apparently to recover and to pass a period of many years with no recurrence of the bleedings—and, in fact, they may enjoy perfect health.

PURPURA

General Considerations.—A purely symptomatic condition in which, owing to some alteration either in the blood proper or in the vessels or tissues, there are punctate areas of discoloration due to minute extravasations of blood into the skin or mucous membranes. In severe cases a more copious extravasation of blood, followed by ecchymoses, takes place.

Clinical Varieties.—(1) **Primary purpura,** of which two types are known to exist:

(*a*) *Simple purpura* (purpura simplex). Certain of these cases have been shown by Glanzmann* to belong to the anaphylactoid group, where chemical (toxic) influences acting on the capillaries induces stasis, which is followed by purpura.



FIG. 169.—PURPURA.

Child showing purpura hæmorrhagica, treated at the Philadelphia General Hospital, 1909.

(*b*) *Arthritic purpura,* of which there are two subdivisions—*hemorrhagic purpura* (purpura hæmorrhagica) and *peliosis rheumatica.*

(2) **Secondary purpura,** in which hemorrhages into the skin and mucous membranes develop during the course of some malady in which purpura does not usually occur:

(*a*) *Purpura of acute infectious diseases, e. g.,* measles, variola, whooping-cough, cerebrospinal meningitis, mountain spotted fever, septicemia, ulcerative endocarditis, typhoid fever, and scurvy.

(*b*) It may accompany such *chronic conditions* as Hodgkin's disease, tuberculosis, jaundice and jaundice of the new-born, hemophilia, nephritis (chronic interstitial), leukemia, chlorosis, secondary anemia, and pernicious anemia.

(*c*) Purpura is occasionally seen to occur during the *anemia of malignant disease* (cancer, sarcoma) and in that following *locomotor ataxia, grave hysteria,* and *myelitis.*

(*d*) It may follow *convulsions, violent exercise, paroxysmal coughing* and *vomiting.*

(*e*) *Drug purpura* follows the administration of lethal doses of mercury, belladonna, potassium iodid, ergot, quinin, copaiba, etc. Again, introduc-

* Jahrbuch für Kinderkeilkunde, Berlin, 1920.

tion into the system of certain *venoms*, as by the bite of the rattlesnake, copperhead, and cobra, as well as the bites from insects, tarantula, scorpion, spider, etc., are frequently followed by numerous extravasations of blood into both the skin and the mucous surfaces.

Irritation of the skin and epidermoclysis, cutaneous inflammations, epilepsy and hepatic cirrhosis may antedate purpura.

Primary Forms.—*Simple Purpura.*—In this form of purpura the causal factor is evidenced through such predisposing influences as puberty. Acute infectious diseases may contribute toward its development, but hemorrhages into the skin not infrequently occur in persons who apparently enjoy good health.

Arthritic purpura (peliosis rheumatica) is commonly associated with lesions of the heart and other serous membranes, but conclusive evidence that the purpura is rheumatic in nature is often lacking. Males at about the age of puberty appear to be especially susceptible to this form of purpura. The patient often complains of arthritic pains, anorexia, angina, and headache, with a variable degree of swelling and tenderness in the joints. Polyarthritis appears to characterize this form of purpura.

Henoch's Purpura (purpura erythematosa).—This variety of purpura appears in the young, but, like the arthritic type, it too, accompanies swelling and tenderness of the joints. In addition to purpura, erythema multiforme is also present. Such gastro-intestinal symptoms as anorexia, vomiting, intestinal colic, and diarrhea also occur. Angiotrophoneurotic evidence in Henoch's abdominal purpura are: Abdominal pains, frequent stools (10 to 30 per day), rectal tenesmus and the passing of blood and mucus. At the end of thef ourth or the beginning of the fifth day intestinal symptoms abate and purpura of the abdomen, face, arms and lower extremities appears. Successive groups of purpura appear every second or third day and may be followed by umbilicated vesicles which become gangrenous.

Hemorrhagic purpura is oftenest encountered in poorly nourished girls at about the age of puberty. The first evidences of this condition are pallor, progressive weakness, and palpitation, which continue to progress until the purpuric eruption appears. At first, minute extravasations of blood into the skin and mucous surfaces occur, but later there is severe bleeding from the nose, lungs, stomach, and bowel. In this type of cases impoverishment of the blood is extreme and a fatal termination is the usual outcome. Pemphigoid purpura and the purpura associated with urticaria deserve mere mention.

Secondary Purpura of the New-born.—Hemorrhage into the skin and mucous surfaces may manifest itself but a short time after birth, or there may be, at this time, a profuse hemorrhage from the umbilical cord. This form of purpura is characterized by extreme jaundice, and there are usually symptomatic indications of syphilis. Hemorrhage into the urinary tract also occurs, and the urine contains blood, bile, and methemoglobin.

Many of these cases are doubtless due to infection conveyed through the umbilical cord, and while all cannot be regarded as syphilitic in origin, a certain percentage probably belong to that class.

Morbus Maculosus Neonatorum.—This term is applied to a non-syphilitic purpura of the new-born which is characterized by jaundice, high temperature, gastro-intestinal symptoms, albuminuria, hematuria, etc. In rare instances bleeding from the bowel and mouth is seen. Minute hemorrhages into the conjunctiva are not unusual. Purpura fulminans is a rapidly progressive clinical form of this condition.

Principal Complaint.—This varies greatly with the degree of purpura manifested in each particular case. Discomforts are experienced by even the milder cases of purpura, among which should be mentioned malaise, restlessness, mental dullness, and such gastro-intestinal derangements as anorexia, coated tongue, headache, constipation, and diarrhea. A history of having taken certain drugs, of urticaria, or of overexertion may be obtained. In severe types of purpura prodromal symptoms appear two or more days before the eruption is manifest, although occasionally the latter may develop abruptly with extensive cutaneous ecchymoses which increase rapidly. In cases in which hemorrhages from the mucous surfaces of the mouth, nose, and intestines are profuse, prostration becomes extreme, and the patient complains of muscular tenderness and pains in the limbs, abdomen, and chest. Palpitation, vertigo, dyspnea, and headache result from extreme anemia.

Thermic Features.—In peliosis rheumatica there may be fever, which ranges between 99.5° and 102° F. In simple purpura there is but slight fever, and the temperature is often normal. In secondary purpura the temperature is practically that of the preëxisting malady, so that this symptom is of little diagnostic importance in this type of the affection. In purpura hæmorrhagica there is, as a rule, moderate fluctuation between 100° and 103° F., while in the severe forms a temperature of 104° and 105° F. is occasionally seen. In the purpura of the new-born a temperature of 100° to 102° F. is to be expected, and when jaundice of pronounced character exists, it not unusually reaches 104° to 106° F.

Physical Signs.—Inspection.—In practically all forms of purpura hemorrhages into the skin appear in the form of petechiæ (pin-point hemorrhages), or ecchymoses (hemorrhages varying from the size of a pea to that of a horse-chestnut). At first minute hemorrhagic spots, bright red in color, are to be seen surrounding the hair; but later they change gradually and become yellowish brown, nearly yellow, and eventually disappear. The spots are not materially altered when pressure over them is made, nor by stretching the skin, a feature that serves to differentiate petechia from other skin eruptions.

Purpura displays a tendency to occur in successive crops, and after several of these have appeared, great variation may occur in the color of the hemorrhagic spots, all of which were unaltered by pressure. The lower extremities are more commonly the seat of the eruption than is the surface of the trunk. In rare cases these hemorrhages terminate in gangrene. There may be some slight oozing of serum from the surface of large hemorrhagic extravasations.

Palpation.—In rheumatic purpura the joints are frequently enlarged, and fluctuation over the large articular surface is not unusual.

Laboratory Diagnosis.—The blood findings of purpura closely resemble those seen in the various types of secondary anemia, and are, therefore, of no special importance in establishing a diagnosis.

Urine.—In neurotic patients the quantity of urine voided in the twenty-four hours is above the normal, and it may contain blood and red and white cells. Hemoglobinuria is found at times, and in secondary purpura, in which there is an associated nephritis, renal casts are encountered.

Diagnosis and Differential Diagnosis.—The diagnosis rests entirely upon the appearance of minute hemorrhages into the skin and mucous membranes. Purpura must be distinguished from the hemorrhages occurring in profound anemia and in scurvy, in which cases the history usually serves to differentiate them from the first-named disease.

Clinical Course.—Purpura of whatever type is always of grave significance, and when it develops during the course of another malady, it renders the prognosis of that condition more unfavorable. The degree of hemorrhage into the skin, coupled with the general condition of the patient, naturally controls, in the main, the duration and gravity of this affection.

HEMOCHROMATOSIS

This term is applied to a peculiar morbid condition characterized especially by an accumulation of free iron containing pigment in certain parenchymatous organs, and in the skin.

There are present interstitial fibrosis of the pancreas and liver, and in some cases glycosuria. Dunn* in a formal discussion of the subject emphasized the greenish brown and yellowish brown cutaneous pigmentations.

The clinical features are: Increasing prostration—glycosuria—peculiar pigmentation of the skin.

Hemophilia and Purpura.—Hemophilia and purpura may develop in different members of the same family and this condition is to be separated from such other allied conditions as familial epistaxis, the various types of purpura, including the purpura of serum sickness.

There is an hereditary purpura as well as hereditary hemophilia. The male member of a family may be a bleeder of the hemophiliac type and the female of the purpuric type. Hess reports two families in which one member suffered from hemophilia and another from purpura.

The profession is indebted to Hess,† for his exhaustive study of this subject and a summary of his conclusions are:

(1) The coagulation time of the plasma in hemophilia at times may become normal without the occurrence of hemorrhages or other apparent change in the condition of the patient.

(2) The puncture test (the reaction following subcutaneous puncture of the skin) is an aid to diagnosis. In hemophilia hemorrhagic area rarely results in purpura it is the rule.

(3) The capillary resistance test is the reaction following the application of a tourniquet to the upper arm. In purpura, this results in petechial hemorrhages on the forearm; in hemophilia the effect is negative.

Finally.—The picture of a typical hemophiliac is a male, with a hereditary history of bleeding, whose blood manifests a definite delay in coagulation time.

A typical case of purpura may be a male or a female, the plasma coagulates in almost normal time, and the number of blood platelets are decreased (frequently below 100,000 in number). There is a definite subcutaneous hemorrhage following puncture of the skin. Petechial hemorrhages following the application of a tourniquet.

PURPURA IN SERUM DISEASE

Purpura may occur in serum disease. The purpura develops during the course of serum disease following the use of antipneumococcus—horse serum, in pneumonia, or other sera.

Schultz (1919) discussed "anaphylactoid purpura" and Widmar (1917) reported "purpura simplex" (3 cases) following the administration of diphtheria antitoxin to small children. In this case, the symptoms disappeared after rest in bed and have a tendency to recur after exercise.

* British Med. Jour., Nov. 12, 1921.
† Archives Int. Med., Feb., 1916.

Goldstein* reported an interesting case of purpura hemorrhagica in November, 1923.

FAMILIAL EPISTAXIS

Historical Note.—The first complete clinical record we have at hand upon the subject of familial epistaxis was published in 1901 by Sir William Osler. There are on record only 34 families affected by this condition.

Osler also makes mention of multiple telangiectases of the skin and mucous membranes in connection with his case.

Hutchinson and Oliver called attention to this condition in 1916 and following them, Weber, Haines and Steiner made contributions, until 1917 when Richardson of Boston gave an elaborate description of a family afflicted with this type of bleeding.

H. I. Goldstein† in 1921, reported a family in whom attacks of epistaxis occurred in eleven of its members. These nose bleeds begin in childhood and occur at varied intervals over a period of many years.

It is contended that this type of epistaxis is not clinically connected with either purpura, or hemophilia. In many of the case reports telangiectases is mentioned.

SCORBUTUS (SCURVY)

Remarks.—A constitutional disorder resulting from dietetic errors, and characterized pathologically by decided impoverishment of the blood, with degeneration of the red cells, a peculiar sponginess of the alveolar mucous membranes, with a liability to hemorrhages into and from the mucous surfaces and into the skin, coupled with a brawny induration involving the flexor muscles of the lower limbs. Extensive hemorrhage may be found in the region of the large joints (knee), and such hemorrhages at times occur beneath the periosteum. Both the viscera and the tissues contain an abnormally small quantity of blood, and hemorrhages into the viscera and into the serous surfaces are by no means uncommon.

Clinical Varieties.—Two distinct varieties of scorbutus are to be recognized: (*a*) The scurvy of adults, and (*b*) that occurring in infants.

Predisposing and Exciting Factors.—A prominent factor in the production of scurvy is the long-continued use of a dietary practically devoid of vegetables deficient in antiscorbutic vitamin. It has also been claimed that the absence of salts unbalances the metabolic equilibrium. These cases of scorbutic anemia often show an absence of hydrochloric acid in the stomach-contents both before and after the symptoms of scurvy have appeared. Again, the total acidity of the gastric juice has been shown to be below that of the normal in certain instances, but this finding is by no means constant. For some time prior to the development of the true symptoms indigestion is a prominent feature.

Age.—Scurvy is far more common at the extremes of life, being found oftenest in children who are nourished upon artificial foods. It is also common in the aged, and among individuals who develop an eccentric appetite for certain foods; it also occurs among those who, because of some gastric malady, are unable to eat fruits. The disease may, however, occur at any time in life, but it is uncommon during the second, third, and fourth decades; it rarely develops among the insane and among persons who are continually confined, as, *e. g.*, in prisons and in homes.

Principal Complaint.—Scurvy is a condition that develops insidiously, one of the first marked manifestations being an enlargement of

* Medical Times, N. Y.

† Archives Int. Med., Jan., 1921, p. 102.

one of the knees, which becomes tense, acquires a purplish tinge, and in every particular resembles an ordinary bruise. For some time it has been observed that the patient became progressively weaker, and that the mental faculties have been likewise dulled; despondency may also have been observed. Early in the course of scurvy there are arthritic pains, which may be severe, and the pains in the muscles and along the course of the long bones are often excruciating. The anemia, which is at first mild, becomes marked, and the patient suffers from such additional symptoms as palpitation, shortness of breath, swelling of the gums, and bleeding from the mucous surfaces, especially of the gums, where there is a continuous oozing of blood. Hemorrhage from other mucous channels—epistaxis, hemoptysis, hematemesis, melena—is occasionally seen. Hematuria is of uncommon occurrence. In several instances loosening of the teeth has occurred.

Among other annoying features are a foul breath and disordered taste, which is most pronounced upon awakening from a night's sleep. The patient has little or no desire for food, and complains of constipation, though in rare instances diarrhea may develop. During the entire course of the disease the patient complains of pain, which may at times be severe, and again dull, or there may be merely a sense of discomfort; lancinating pain is experienced when the clothing presses upon swollen joints.

Thermic Features.—When fever is present in scurvy, it is usually due to the development of some complication, *e. g.*, bronchopneumonia. A subnormal temperature is by no means unusual.

Physical Signs.—Inspection.—The patient does not, as a rule, become emaciated, but the skin is pale and there is an apathetic expression; the face, as well as the fingers and feet, appear to be edematous. The gait is unsteady, and indicative of weakness; the skin is lusterless, yellowish or muddy in color, with, there may be, yellowish or greenish areas, which probably result from profuse hemorrhages. Minute hemorrhages into the skin are the rule, and these appear first upon the legs, around the hair; when the hemorrhages are profuse, they spread over a somewhat large surface, studding the skin with ecchymotic spots. If the hemorrhages are unusually severe, they are termed ecchymoses. In severe types of scurvy vibices (streak-like hemorrhages) are not unusual, and in one case observed by us bullæ were numerous. Swelling in the region of the joints is often the result of subperiosteal hemorrhages. Later, the skin displays a nodular appearance, due to the infiltration of blood into the tissues, which blood has been partly absorbed; it is possible at this stage to see hemorrhagic areas, varying from a bright red to a brownish yellow or yellow in color.

Upon **palpation** the muscles are found to be soft and flabby, the skin, especially of the face, is often edematous, and the ankles and swollen joints are usually hard. The enlargements seldom fluctuate, since the hemorrhage is, as a rule, subperiosteal. Great tenderness is elicited over the swollen areas. The mucous membrane of the mouth, and particularly that of the gums, has a spongy feel, and bleeds when pressure is made upon it. The pulse is soft and small, the heart impulse is feeble, and palpitation and accelerated pulse follow the slightest exertion. In cases of long standing bone necrosis may occur, and the epiphyses separate from the shaft. Swelling, redness, and tenderness of both ears was observed frequently among soldiers during the past few years.

Auscultation.—In uncomplicated cases the heart action may be rapid and irregular, and a soft systolic murmur is heard over the base of the organ.

Special Features.—Profound mental depression is a prominent feature, and insomnia often causes serious annoyance. Meningeal hemorrhage is occasionally observed. Failing vision, retinal hemorrhages, night blindness and day blindness as well as delirium, are among the unusual findings in scurvy.

Laboratory Diagnosis.—Urinary symptoms vary in direct proportion to the severity of the condition; thus the quantity of the urine is diminished, the color is high, and there is a high specific gravity (about 1.020); phosphates in excess of the normal are also commonly present. The solid constituents are said to be correspondingly diminished, although it has been stated by certain observers that the normal chlorids are increased. Albuminuria is not uncommon, but nephritis, when present, should be regarded as a complication.

The blood changes in scurvy are the same as those of secondary anemia. When the skin is punctured the blood oozes freely, is pale, and of almost watery consistence.

The percentage of *hemoglobin* is decidedly reduced, and may vary between 75 and 40 per cent., or even lower in extreme cases. The red cells show a corresponding reduction in number. Leukocytosis is not an essential feature in scurvy, although in several cases studied by us it developed when the disease was at its height, but its occurrence may have been due to some intercurrent condition. In other cases observed we found the leukocytes to be practically normal.

A microscopic study of the living blood shows that rouleaux formation is imperfect. The cells are often disseminated equally throughout the field, and there may or may not be great variation in the size of the erythrocytes.

Stained blood displays practically all the features common to degeneration of the red cells, *e. g.*, discoloration, unequal distribution of the hemoglobin, punctate basophilia, poikilocytosis, etc. In mild cases we have seen lymphocytosis, but the results of the examination have been so varied in different cases that it cannot be said that there is any constant finding in the leukocytes of scurvy.

Infantile Scorbutus.—Pathologic Definition.—A disease of children characterized pathologically by changes practically identical with those previously described under Scorbutus.

As in the scorbutus of adults, the exciting cause of this malady is not known. Some writers believe infantile scorbutus to be identical with rickets, and consider it under the head of hemorrhagic rickets, whereas others hold that it has no connection with this malady. The majority of observers, however, believe that rickets predisposes to the development of scurvy, but there is little to prove that these two diseases are dependent on the same etiologic factor.

History and Principal Complaint.—Practically all cases of infantile scorbutus are found to occur in children who are nourished artificially. It is claimed that the affection is more common among children nourished upon certain prepared foods. It is equally likely to follow the use of sterilized milk, malted milk, and the like.

Age.—The disease usually develops during the first ten months of life, but may be found to occur as late as the eighteenth month; it is occasionally seen in older children. The majority of cases, however, develop before the fourteenth month. This form of scurvy is equally common among both the well-to-do and the poor.

The skin presents the features characteristic of the scurvy of adults. Emaciation is often pronounced, and the general symptoms of inanition

are in evidence. Children with scurvy generally shriek when moved, and cry bitterly while being dressed or bathed; the chief point of extreme tenderness appears to be in the lower extremities. Peculiar, imperfectly cylindric enlargements of the femora are often observed, and these are, as a rule, extremely tender. One leg is generally involved at a time, and within a short period the other leg shows a slight deformity. At first the child rests with his legs flexed, but if there are repeated hemorrhages or epiphyseal separation, the legs may be straightened or often somewhat curved, owing to these anatomic changes. Rarely, involvement of additional bones may follow in somewhat rapid succession, but these lesions are, as a rule, less pronounced than those of the legs.

If the teeth have appeared, they are seen to be surrounded by the characteristic spongy gums. Cutaneous hemorrhages may develop in the limbs, and particularly about the face and eyes; in severe cases the conjunctivæ may show ecchymoses.

Summary of Diagnosis.—A history of dietetic errors, swollen and spongy gums, progressive weakness, mental hebetude, and tenderness over the bones and epiphyses, with hemorrhages into the skin, make the diagnosis of scorbutus clear. The fact that improvement follows the institution of dietetic treatment further supports the diagnosis of scurvy.

There are present regenerative changes in the red cells (polychromasia), while megaloblasts and basophile granules are never present. A tendency to neutropenia is characteristic of scurvy. Leukopenia with absolute neutropenia and a relative lymphocytosis is a common finding. Neutropenia serves to distinguish between the hemorrhagic changes of scurvy and conditions of a septic nature.

Differential Diagnosis.—The history will serve to separate scurvy from *purpura*. Scurvy may be confused with *rickets* and since the two conditions are often present simultaneously, the distinction becomes quite difficult. The involvement of the lower extremities, with limited motion, extreme tenderness, partial paralysis, and the occurrence of large, more or less cylindric, subperiosteal swellings strongly favor the existence of scurvy. The peculiar gloss of the skin over these cylindric enlargements, the fact that the skin does not pit on pressure and is not hot to the feel, and that a permanent deformity of the bone remains after the swellings become absorbed, further support the diagnosis. The sponginess of the buccal mucous membrane, so characteristic of scurvy, is absent in true rickets. Hemorrhages into the skin are also seen in *leukemia*.

Acute lymphatic leukemia often resembles scurvy, and we have seen several cases of scurvy in which the lymphocyte count and the enlargement of the lymphatic glands resembled those found in acute leukemia. The general course of the disease, the rapid improvement under treatment, and the fact that the leukocyte count seldom exceeds 60,000 in scurvy, will serve as points for the differentiation of these conditions.

Course.—In mild and even in moderately severe cases rapid recovery follows the institution of proper hygienic (dietetic) treatment. The presence of complications—*e. g.*, bleeding, effusion into the pleura or pericardium, pulmonary infarction, and nephritis—adds materially to the gravity of this malady. Although the majority of these patients go on to convalescence within a period of a few weeks, cases are rarely to be seen that linger over a long period and show but little result from treatment. This type of the malady is found in the aged and may terminate fatally.

Polyneuritic Syndrome in Children.—A condition where the predominant clinical features are listlessness, restlessness, rapid loss in weight, intermittent profuse sweats, necrosis of the gums, alveolar processes, and loosening of the teeth. Edematus swelling, tenderness, cyanosis of the

skin of the extremities, which later becomes cold and macerated. Most cases are accompanied by diminished reflexes, mild fever, and occasionally by leukocytosis.

PARASITOLOGY OF THE BLOOD

During the course of acute infectious diseases the microörganisms that cause the disease often circulate in the blood-stream. These organisms may be—(1) vegetable parasites (various bacteria and fungi) or (2) animal parasites (filaria bancrofti and other species of the genus filaria, the various forms of malarial parasites, trypanosoma gambiense, spirocheta recurrens, and spirocheta duttoni).

Method of Detection of Bacteria in the Blood.—In order to prove the existence of a bacteriemia it is necessary to remove about 10 cubic centimeters of blood from one of the superficial veins, preferably the median basilic, and to distribute the blood so obtained in three small Erlenmeyer flasks, each of which contains about 30 c.c. of sterile bouillon or glucose bouillon, and in three plates of glucose-agar or plain agar. Blood culture vacuum tubes and sterile needles can be obtained for this study.

The bend of the elbow is scrubbed with soap and water, then washed with water, alcohol, and 1:1000 solution of mercury bichlorid, and a wet bichlorid dressing applied and allowed to remain for one hour. Then the nurse or an assistant applies a tourniquet above the elbow, so as to make the veins prominent, and cuts the bandage holding the dressing. Then the operator, with sterile hands, removes the dressing and plunges the needle of a previously sterilized antitoxin syringe into the distended vein, withdrawing the necessary amount of blood. This is immediately distributed between the flasks and the melted agar tubes; the latter are plated and all are incubated for twenty-four hours. At the end of the incubation period the flasks and plates are studied according to usual bacteriologic methods.

The following organisms have been recovered from the peripheral blood: Streptococcus pyogenes, staphylococcus pyogenes, bacillus pyocyaneus, diplococcus pneumoniæ, gonococcus, tubercle bacillus, bacillus coli communis, bacillus enteritidis, bacillus typhosus, bacillus paratyphosus, bacillus pneumoniæ (Friedländer), bacillus pestis, bacillus anthracis, bacillus mallei, micrococcus melitensis, streptococcus viridans, gonococcus, etc.

The organism discovered in 1873 in the blood of patients suffering from relapsing fever, by Obermeier, and called spirillum obermeieri, is now known as spirocheta recurrens. It is generally accepted as the cause of relapsing fever of the European type. Similar organisms have since been found in connection with African tick fever (spirocheta duttoni), the Indian form of relapsing fever (spirocheta carteri), yaws (treponema pertenue), and syphilis (treponema pallidum); the last two organisms are, however, not found in the blood. Spirillar organisms are also found in the mouth and the vagina (spirocheta refringens) and sometimes in the pus of abscesses. Their position in the natural orders is subject to dispute, one group of observers believing them to belong to the bacteria and another group believing them to be protozoa.

Clinical Significance.—The isolation of a bacterium from the circulating blood is positive evidence that that organism is responsible for the acute infection from which the patient is suffering. In cases of acute ulcerative endocarditis it has been observed that more patients recover when the staphylococcus pyogenes is the cause of the disease than when the streptococcus pyogenes is the offending organism.

DISEASES OF THE DIGESTIVE SYSTEM

DISEASES OF THE LIPS, TONGUE, AND MOUTH

HERPES LABIALIS

Pathologic Definition.—An eruption of the lips that first appears as a crop of vesicles that later unite to form thick crusts.

General Remarks.—In appearance, herpes labialis resembles closely herpes affecting other portions of the body, and its tendency to become more extensive than herpes occurring elsewhere is usually dependent upon the fact that the patient is continually irritating these parts by picking at them. When the eruption affects the corners of the mouth, irritation is produced by eating and talking.

Clinical Significance.—Herpes labialis is a symptom of diagnostic value in three acute infectious maladies—*e. g.*, cerebrospinal meningitis, lobar pneumonia, and malaria. Herpes may, however, be present in practically all febrile conditions, and is also associated with acute rhinitis, acute gastro-intestinal catarrh, certain febrile maladies, and neuritis, chronic gastric catarrh, and helminthiasis.

LABIAL ECZEMA

Definition.—An eczematous condition affecting the lip, at or near the junction of the mucous membrane with the skin, in the median line, and at the angles of the mouth. It is characterized clinically by a branny or scaly desquamation, with a tendency toward the appearance of deep fissures, which are extremely painful upon the taking of warm and hot foods.

General Observations.—In severe cases these eczematous areas bleed readily and are extremely painful. Eczema of the lips appears to be aggravated by exposure to cold, and is not infrequently a part of a general gastro-intestinal irritation. Like eczema affecting other portions of the body, it is capable of being excited by certain bacteria and by fungi.

CHEILITIS GLANDULARIS

Volkmann called attention to this condition in 1870. It has since been referred to as myxadenitis labialis, and consists in a chronic inflammation of the lower lip, chiefly of the vermilion portion, but may extend to the mucous membrane proper and to the adjacent skin. The lip becomes swollen and tense, and the mucous glands prominent, and present distinct openings sufficiently large to admit of a fine probe.

An opaque mucous, which may become purulent exudes from the involved surface. Some of the openings into the gland appear as distinct fistula. Abscess formation may result. This condition shows but little tendency to yield to treatment.

FORDYCE'S DISEASE

An affection involving the vermilion of lips and mucous membrane of the mouth was first described by J. A. Fordyce in 1896. It is charac-

terized by the apearance of a whitish or yellowish discrete aggregated and rarely coalescent milium-like bodies occurring on the lips inside of the mouth, and later along the margin of the teeth. It may develop along the inner surface of the mucous membrane of the lips. The lesions are slightly elevated. Subjective symptoms may be absent, although a sense of burning and itching is experienced by some patients.

LA PERLECHE—PARASITIC DISEASE OF THE LIPS

An uncommon disease of the lip, attacking the commissures, and is seen most often in foreign lands; although reports have come from America. It makes its appearance at the angles of the mouth, causing bleeding of the epithelium. The lesion extends along the vermilion surface towards the median line. It may attack the adjacent skin, and involve the mucous membrane of the inside of the lips. There is evidence of a surrounding hyperemia, and the angles of the mouth may present thick crusts. In severe cases the mucous membrane of the mouth is affected.

Etiology.—The malady is contagious, and spreads quite rapidly in hospitals for the care of infants and children. It is also seen in school epidemics. According to Lemaistre, streptococcus (streptococcus plicatilis) is commonly found. There is at present much literature concerning the etiology of this condition, but the concensus of opinion places the cause as a streptococcus.

EPITHELIAL DESQUAMATION OF THE TONGUE

(GEOGRAPHIC TONGUE)

Pathologic Definition.—A disease characterized by an extensive desquamation of the lingual epithelium from the dorsum and margins of the tongue, the formation of small circular or crescentic, reddened blotches, with slightly elevated grayish margins (lingual psoriasis), and by an absence of salivation, pain, or irritation.

Principal Complaint.—Epithelial desquamation is seldom seen by the physician in its early stages, and the patient rarely complains of any inconvenience. The peculiar condition of the tongue is, as a rule, detected accidentally. The initial patches seen upon the tongue are grayish, and give the tongue a thickened appearance. There is an increase in the size of the initial patches, which may result in the detachment of large areas of epithelium, which leave behind a bright-red surface. A few days after the detachment of the scales of the epithelium the red zone is seen to be surrounded by an elevated grayish border, which may vary in width from $\frac{1}{20}$ to $\frac{1}{12}$ inch. These reddened, crescentic areas are most likely to be situated near the base of the tongue and along its lateral margins; they may cross the tongue transversely, and eventually cover the entire surface of the tongue. With the fading and disappearance of the older patches new ones are seen to form upon different portions of the tongue, and this change of epithelial covering may continue for weeks, months, or even years.

Simple desquamation of the lingual epithelium, the cause of which is unknown, is to be distinguished from desquamation due to infection (see Gonorrheal Stomatitis).

ACUTE GLOSSITIS (GLOSSITIS ACUTA)

Pathologic Definition.—An acute parenchymatous inflammation of the tongue resulting from injury to the organ, as, *e. g.*, from a burn, a

sting, a bite, a wound, etc.; less often it is due to infection complicating mercurial and other forms of stomatitis.

Principal Complaint.—The tongue is extremely painful, so that talking, chewing, and swallowing excite great distress. In the majority of cases there is a continuous dribbling of saliva, although, rarely, the tongue is dry.

The patient complains of great discomfort, owing to pronounced swelling of the tongue, inability to open the mouth, and dyspnea. He is unable to take any solid food, and in some instances hot and extremely cold foods excite pain. After the disease has existed for some days discomfort is felt at the angles of the jaw, in the lingual regions, and along the sides of the neck.

Thermic Features.—The temperature of the mouth may range between 101° and 104° F. In one case studied at the Philadelphia General Hospital the temperature of the buccal cavity was above 103° F. for seven days, while the rectal temperature never exceeded 101° F.

Physical Signs.—Inspection.—The tongue is red and swollen, and its surface may be glazed; it displays deep grooves and fissures, or the papillæ may be unusually prominent and covered with a thick, tenacious exudate. The tongue presses against the teeth, which have worn deep notches into its margin. The sublingual and cervical glands are swollen, and may be sufficiently enlarged to cause decided distortion of the features.

Palpation confirms inspection with regard to the lymphatic enlargements (sublingual, cervical).

Clinical Course and Duration.—In the majority of instances acute glossitis goes on to recovery in from seven to twelve days. Lingual abscess and diffuse pharyngitis rarely complicate glossitis, and when present, materially increase the gravity of this affection.

CHRONIC GLOSSITIS

Remarks.—A chronic superficial inflammation of the dorsal surface of the tongue, provoked by the excessive use of alcoholic spirits, tobacco, and highly spiced foods. The patient seldom complains of any decided inconvenience, and the disease causes no pain. The surface of the tongue is rough and glazed at certain points, and dull and lusterless at others. Crossing the dorsum of the tongue are deep grooves and fissures that seldom, if ever, bleed, and are not sensitive to mild irritation.

TONGUE-SWALLOWING

Definition.—A condition seen during infancy, in which the tongue is turned backward into the pharynx and interferes with respiration.

Predisposing and Exciting Factors.—Suffocation from obstruction to the respiratory passages by the tongue may occur in children previously healthy, although it is more commonly seen during the course of whooping-cough, and following epileptiform seizures. The conditions that allow tongue-swallowing to develop are: (*a*) An abnormally long frenum and (*b*) a relaxed condition of the tongue. It should be remembered that, particularly in children of lowered vitality, the base of the tongue may fall back into the throat, so that it partially or entirely covers the epiglottis. A similar condition may develop in adults during complete anesthesia.

Hennig reports a case in which sudden death followed an epileptic attack, and at autopsy the tip of the tongue was found tightly wedged in

the esophagus. Holt states that he has repeatedly seen serious cases of dyspnea in infants, the result of tongue-swallowing.

ULCERS OF THE FRENUM

Definition.—These ulcers are situated between the attachment of the under surface of the tongue and the buccal cavity beneath.

Predisposing and Exciting Factors.—Whooping-cough is the most potent factor in the production of ulcers of the frenum. Friction against the central incisors appears to be necessary to its production, although we have seen ulcer of the frenum before the lower incisors have appeared. Malnutrition also favors the development of the ulcer, and in adults this condition may develop in such chronic afebrile states as diabetes, nephritis, and valvular heart disease. It is often associated with acute and chronic maladies in which cough is a prominent symptom, *e. g.*, in croupous pneumonia, pulmonary tuberculosis, and those conditions in which the digestion is materially impaired, as, for example, in chronic gastritis, obstructive jaundice, and dysentery.

The ulcer may be confined to the frenum, or may extend to the tongue or to the tissues of the mouth, attaining a size of from ⅛ to ½ inch in diameter. Ulcers of the frenum are yellowish gray in color, and surrounded by an elevated margin.

THE BLACK VILLOUS TONGUE

This term has been applied to a condition characterized by a brown or black coloring, and elevation of the base of the tongue, which shows a villous, hairy like appearance. Through the use of a magnifying glass the villosities appear to be hypertrophied in chronic cachectic conditions and in aged persons.

A number of microörganisms, chiefly fungi, have been considered as etiologic agents, and the one last to receive special favor is that of Oöspora lingualis, which is found both singly and associated with yeast.

ACUTE CATARRHAL STOMATITIS (STOMATITIS ERYTHEMATOSA)

Pathologic Definition.—A disease of the mouth characterized pathologically by a catarrhal inflammation of the mucous membrane of the buccal cavity and an excessive secretion of the salivary and mucip-arous glands.

Predisposing and Exciting Factors.—Age serves as a potent predisposing factor, the disease being most common in children at the time of the eruption of the first teeth, although catarrhal stomatitis may be found at any age. **Traumatism,** even though slight, is often followed by a somewhat extensive catarrhal inflammation of the buccal mucosa. The ingestion of irritating foods, *e. g.*, hot and highly spiced articles, also contributes toward the production of stomatitis. Catarrhal stomatitis is frequently an annoying complication during the course of measles, influenza, tuberculosis, scarlet fever, diphtheria, and acute gastritis; it is also encountered late during such chronic afebrile conditions as nephritis, diabetes, hepatic cirrhosis, valvular heart disease, and chronic dysentery. (See also Focal Infection, p. 453.)

Principal Complaint.—The patient is restless and continually annoyed by the increased flow of saliva, which may be clear or blood stained, but is always tenacious. In severe cases the saliva may pour from the mouth and cause violent irritation of the lips and face.

The patient shows no inclination to take food, although he may experience a feeling of hunger. Children, as a rule, refuse the breast and

the bottle. When stomatitis occurs during the course of acute infectious maladies, the most prominent symptoms of the initial infection are intensified.

Physical Signs.—Inspection.—The greater portion of the buccal mucous membrane is infected, and the capillaries are markedly dilated; here and there over the surface small hemorrhages are to be seen. Swelling of the mucous membrane is also present, and is most in evidence along the insertion of the teeth, although in severe cases the lips may be edematous. The mucous follicles are swollen, and in virulent types small cysts form in the mucosa.

The tongue is heavily coated, its edges are intensely congested, and the papillæ are slightly elevated. When stomatitis complicates scarlet fever or other acute infections, it is not uncommon for large flakes of epithelium to slough from the surface of the tongue. Deep fissures in both the tongue and the lips are occasionally seen.

Palpation.—The mucous membrane of the mouth and lips is hot to the touch and after the disease has progressed for from two to four days, the glands beneath the jaws become swollen and tender. (See Drug Eruption, p. 455.)

Laboratory Diagnosis.—The flow of saliva is greatly increased, and the secretion is often acid in reaction. If the condition progresses to ulceration, the saliva becomes blackened in color, alkaline in reaction, and emits a fetid odor.

Microscopically, many desquamated epithelial cells, erythrocytes, leukocytes, and tissue débris are to be seen, and a profusion of bacteria and fungi are also present. It is quite difficult to show specifically that any one or more of the bacteria recovered from the saliva or the ulcers have an etiologic significance in catarrhal stomatitis.

Clinical Course and Duration.—Acute catarrhal stomatitis runs a short course, reaching its acme by the end of the second day, and terminating in recovery in from four to seven days. In those in whom the general nutrition is greatly reduced, as in Bright's disease, etc., this condition may tend toward chronicity.

HERPETIC STOMATITIS (FOLLICULAR, VESICULAR, APHTHOUS STOMATITIS)

Pathologic Definition.—A self-limited disease, characterized by congestion of the buccal mucous membrane, with the appearance of small, isolated, yellowish or yellowish-white patches, which subsequently break down, to form superficial ulcers. In the severer types these ulcers may coalesce, with the formation of extensive ulceration, whose edges are ragged.

Predisposing and Exciting Factors.—The *exciting cause* of herpetic stomatitis is unknown, yet the consensus of opinion is that it is bacterial in origin, although, some writers are strongly inclined toward the belief that it is nervous in origin. Children under one year are more susceptible than either older children or adults. Catarrhal conditions of the gastro-intestinal tract, dentition, malnutrition, anemia, and the exanthemata seem to predispose to aphthous stomatitis.

Principal Complaint.—Soreness of the mouth is the most constant complaint in herpetic stomatitis. Pain is particularly acute, and often prevents the child from taking food, and even adults may find it impossible to take solid food for a period of several days. Talking may be difficult and even painful. The ingestion of hot and cold foods is followed by intense lancinating pains, and there is considerable soreness along the angles of the jaw.

Physical Signs.—Inspection.—The most characteristic finding in aphthous stomatitis is congestion of the mucous membrane of the mouth, which exhibits a variable number of small superficial ulcers that appear in successive crops. These ulcers may be found on the interior of the cheek or of the lips, and, in fact, they may be distributed over any portion of the mucosa of the mouth and pharynx. The number of ulcers present at a given time may vary within wide limitations, and ulcers at various stages of development are always to be seen during the acute stage of this affection. The *general features* are slight fever, anorexia, and irritability.

Characteristics of the Ulcers.—These ulcers vary in size from that of a pin's head to a millet seed, seldom attaining the size of a pea. They are first yellowish in color, but later present a dirty grayish hue, and we have repeatedly seen ulcers that in many respects resemble diphtheric membrane. Small ulcers are usually surrounded by a red areola, and close inspection is necessary to discover that there is a distinct excavation, since at first glance the ulcerated surface appears to be slightly elevated. Many ulcers may coalesce to form one large irregular patch, but this is by no means a common finding.

The tongue is, as a rule, swollen, while its edges may be greatly congested. Small ulcers frequently appear underneath the tongue and on the frenum.

Clinical Course and Duration.—Herpetic stomatitis terminates in recovery in from five to fourteen days. There is a decided tendency toward relapses in both children and adults who are not well nourished.

FETID STOMATITIS (Ulcerative Stomatitis, Riggs' Disease)

Definition and Remarks.—A disease at the mouth characterized by ulceration of the mucous membrane at its junction with the teeth. The disease does not appear before the development of the teeth or after their removal.

Predisposing and Exciting Factors.—Age is a predisposing factor, adults being the more susceptible. Ulcerative stomatitis may make its appearance during convalescence from infectious maladies, *e. g.*, scarlet fever, typhoid fever, influenza. The use of improper foods and of food that has undergone putrefaction is said to contribute toward the production of fetid stomatitis. The disease is infrequent among the better classes. Neglect of the toilet of the mouth and of the teeth tends decidely toward the production of stomatitis. Ulcerative stomatitis is a symptom of scurvy, and follows the prolonged use of such metallic substances as lead, mercury, and phosphorus (see Pyorrhea Alveolaris).

Principal Complaint.—The patient complains that his mouth is sore, and that the gums bleed readily upon the slightest irritation. He is unable to take highly spiced or hot foods, and talking may cause a variable amount of discomfort. The *general features* attending the condition indicate lowered vitality, and moderate fever is rarely observed.

Physical Signs.—Inspection.—Ulcerative stomatitis may attack any portion of the buccal mucous membrane, but is oftenest located at the margin of the gum (most commonly opposite the lower incisors), from which point it extends in every direction. In mild cases the gums are swollen, spongy, and of a deep reddish or purple hue, and bleed when irritated either by food or by the tooth-brush. This congestion of the gums may encircle the incisor, canine, molar, or all the teeth. In many instances it affects only the gums of one side of the mouth, but in the vast majority of cases bilateral involvement occurs. The ulcerative process may rarely extend to and involve the lips, roof of the mouth, and soft

palate. In fetid stomatitis the conditions are most favorable for a general septic infection of the mouth, and this occasionally follows, in which case the entire mucous membrane becomes the seat of an acute, often purulent, inflammation.

The red and congested membrane surrounding the teeth later assumes a grayish or dirty hue, and there may be a peculiar yellowish deposit, which, when removed, leaves behind a bleeding surface. After ulcerative stomatitis has existed for some time the gums retract and the teeth become loosened. Instances are recorded in which necrosis of the jaw occurred. In a case studied at the Philadelphia General Hospital edema of the gums was so marked that only the tips of the incisor teeth were visible after the disease had progressed for one week. The mouth is usually bathed in saliva (often blood-stained), which commonly dribbles from between the lips. Hemorrhagic saliva and bleeding from the buccal cavity is a rather common feature during some stage in the course of the following general conditions, with or without local disease: Fetid hemorrhagic stomatitis may appear during the course of:

Scurvy,
Hemophilia,
Purpura,
Mercurialism,
Splenomedullary leukemia,
Pernicious anemia,
Lymphatic leukemia,
Hodgkin's disease,
Splenic anemia,
Phosphorus-poisoning,
Tuberculous gingivitis,
Yellow atrophy of the liver,
Arsenic-poisoning,
Plumbism (chronic).

Among the local conditions causing bloody sputum are:

Traumatism,
Aphthous stomatitis,
Ulcerative stomatitis,
Gangrenous stomatitis,
Vincent's angina,
Noma,
Epithelioma,
Myeloid sarcoma,
Alveolar abscess,
Papilloma,
Pyorrhea alveolaris,
Actinomycosis.

The tongue is swollen to such a degree that its edges bear the imprints of the teeth. The dorsum of the tongue is heavily coated with a grayish or yellowish-gray fur. The skin and the mucous membrane of the conjunctivæ are pale, and other evidences of secondary anemia are present. (See Drug Eruption, p. 455.)

Palpation.—Marked enlargement of the submaxillary lymph-nodes is felt beneath the jaw, and the nodes are tender and painful upon pressure. The gums are soft and spongy.

Laboratory Diagnosis.—Scrapings from the surface of these ulcers will be found to contain, microscopically, great numbers of epithelial cells, mucus-corpuscles, leukocytes, red blood-cells, and many varieties of bacteria, among which the streptothrix, streptococcus, diplococcus, staphylococcus, and spirillum of Vincent deserve special mention.

Clinical Course and Duration.—Ulcerative stomatitis frequently displays but little tendency toward recovery, and such cases may last for weeks or months; where, however, treatment is judiciously applied, recovery follows in from seven to fifteen days.

ULCERATIVE STOMATITIS WITH ANGINA (VINCENT'S ANGINA)

Remarks.—Many cases of this particular type of stomatitis have recently been reported, and in each a bacteriologic study of the saliva disclosed the presence of a fusiform bacillus and a spirillum, which are usually regarded as the bacillus and spirillum of Vincent. The organism is a common finding in diabetic subjects.

Ulcerative stomatitis with angina does not differ markedly in its clinical aspects from the type of stomatitis previously described, except that angina forms a prominent symptom. An analysis of the recorded cases furnished sufficient evidence to show that Vincent's bacteria occupy a prominent place in the production of stomatitis with angina. Several writers, however, have described this condition without mentioning Vincent's organisms, and since their microscopic reports appear to be complete, it is scarcely reasonable to believe that they would have overlooked these large bacteria if they had been present.

The Bacillus of Vincent.—A straight, fusiform bacillus, expanded at its center, with pointed extremities, measuring 6 to 12 microns in length.

Method of Detection.—Smear the saliva thinly over the slide and permit it to dry in the air; after this the specimen should be fixed by passing it three times through the flame. Stain with anilin oil, gentian-violet water, methylene-blue, or, if preferred, by Gram's method. Most of the bacteria decolorize by Gram's process, although a few supposedly degenerated forms retain a violet hue.



FIG. 170.—BACILLUS AND SPIRILLUM OF VINCENT, FROM CASE OF ULCERATIVE STOMATITIS (Boston).

Spirillum of Vincent.—This spirillum is slightly longer than the bacillus of Vincent, and is found to occur in the stained specimens either singly, or more often in clusters, and occasionally in dense aggregations. In the living specimen Vincent's spirilla are seen to be motile. The tinctorial properties of this spirillum are similar to those of Vincent's bacillus.

GONORRHEAL STOMATITIS

Remarks.—An unusually rare condition in which stomatitis follows infection of the mouth by the gonococcus. The disease was first described by Dohrn and Rosinksi, who found it in the new-born. The lesions are in no way characteristic of gonorrheal infection, and a microscopic study of the secretion is necessary in order to make a diagnosis.

Laboratory and Differential Diagnosis.—Small portions of the exudate should be smeared thinly upon the slide and stained for gonococci. It must be borne in mind that diplococci are normally present in the buccal secretion, and these are at times microscopically indistinguishable from the gonococcus.

In order to determine that an infection of the mouth is due to the gonococcus, cultures must be made. The distinctive difference between the gonococcus and the diplococcus of the normal buccal secretion is that the former develops only when planted upon a special medium and is Gram-negative, whereas other diplococci will develop in blood-serum, bouillon, and agar, and are Gram-positive.

DIPHTHERITIC STOMATITIS

In grave cases of diphtheria the false membrane may extend from the throat into the oral cavity, and may involve the lips. (See Diphtheria.)

GANGRENOUS STOMATITIS (NOMA)

Pathologic Definition.—An acute inflammatory disease of the mouth, first involving the mucous surface of the cheek, and characterized by rapidity of development, extensive destruction of the tissues of the mouth with gangrene, and often perforation of the cheek and an early fatal termination.

Remarks.—Noma is a somewhat rare disease, and although considered with diseases of the mouth, it is by no means limited to the buccal cavity, but may develop in the genitalia of the female. Holt has detected it in the external auditory meatus.

Exciting and Predisposing Factors.—Joseph Sailer recovered diphtheria bacilli from the scrapings of exudate of extensive gangrenous processes of the buccal cavity. This observer's findings have since been confirmed by us in two cases, both in children, in whom death resulted from cardiac paralysis. Holt found pure cultures of streptococci, whereas in a case studied by Cornil and Babes, as well as in those reported by Ranke, a streptococcus was the prominent organism. The bacteria of Vincent are to be sought for in all cases.

Noma most often complicates measles or other diseases of childhood. It is likely to develop in ill-nourished children, such malnutrition being the result of gastro-intestinal catarrh, whooping-cough, and bronchitis. It may be seen to follow other forms of stomatitis. The disease is doubtless mildly contagious, and may affect several children of a home or an institution.

Age figures prominently as a predisposing factor, although we have seen one case occurring in a man aged fifty-two years.

Principal Complaint.—The child is unable to eat, and presents the general appearance of being very ill. Early during the course of noma the patient may be in a fairly good physical condition, but as the disease progresses he grows rapidly worse, and in the course of two or three days there are profound prostration, mental dullness, and a weak, rapid pulse, which soon becomes dicrotic and easily compressible. Diarrhea may develop on the third day, and greatly increases the prostration. The breath is very foul, the odor being that of gangrenous tissue. Not infrequently this odor of the breath is the first thing that attracts attention to the condition.

Pain is uncommon, although in rare instances it may be quite severe. Hemorrhage from the arteries of the cheek is one of the annoying complications, and is not infrequently the immediate cause of death.

Thermic Features.—The temperature reaches 101° to 103° F. by the second day, and as the disease progresses fever becomes rapidly higher, until, by the end of the third day, the temperature may reach 104° to 105° F. A subnormal temperature is a precursor of a fatal issue, and develops in from six to eighteen hours before death.

Physical Signs.—Inspection.—The initial lesion appears as a dusky spot upon the outer surface of the cheek or lip. Inside the lip or cheek there is a corresponding area, which is dark, greenish-black in color, and surrounding this necrotic mass the mucous membrane is swollen. The gums may become involved, the teeth loosen, and in some reported instances they have fallen out. Necrosis may involve the alveolar process of the lower jaw or perforate the cheek or lip. As a rule, perforation affects but one cheek, although bilateral perforation has been described.

Palpation.—At the margin of the gangrenous area, and for some distance surrounding the teeth, the tissues are tense and somewhat edematous. This infiltration may extend to the tissues of the entire face.

Laboratory Diagnosis.—Scrapings and cultures from the gangrenous débris will be found to contain a profusion of bacteria, among which the streptococcus is most common. The staphylococcus, diphtheria bacillus, and pseudodiphtheria bacillus may also be recovered. The leptothrix, large diplococci, various forms of bacilli, and the spirochæta dentium have been discovered in the scrapings of gangrenous stomatitis. In 1905, in a series of extensive studies, Harrmann reported his findings, attributing the rapid pathologic changes of noma to infection with the spirochæta. There is no known method by which the spirochæta of Harrmann can be distinguished from the spirochæta dentium that is present in normal buccal secretion and in the secretion of the mouth in other conditions, *e. g.*, catarrhal stomatitis and gingivitis.

Summary of Diagnosis.—This depends, for the most part, upon the presence of a rapidly progressing ulceration with a tendency toward development of gangrene of the buccal mucous membrane or of other mucous surfaces, together with marked prostration, and high fever.

Course and Duration.—Seventy-five per cent. of all cases of noma terminate fatally between the fourth and tenth days. The prognosis is rendered more grave when noma develops in ill-nourished children. In favorable cases recovery is unusually slow, and there is marked deformity of the face, due to the extensive cicatrization.

PYORRHEA ALVEOLARIS (RIGGS' DISEASE)

Gross Pathologic Changes.—A mixed infection of the buccal mucous membrane, and deeper structures attacking first, that portion in direct apposition with the teeth; and characterized by three definite macroscopic stages:

(*a*) That of moderate inflammation, accompanied by discoloration of the gum, with the accumulation of caseous material between the gum, and the tooth. (See Focal Infection.)

(*b*) Changes in the inter-dental papilla, resulting in transverse grooving, and striation.

(*c*) Rather extensive gingivitis with recession of the gums, formation of pockets which contain pus; and the appearance of concretions upon the originally protected portions of the teeth. Lastly involvement of the bony structures, especially the dental sockets, and loosening of the teeth.

Remote pathologic changes are to be seen at the articular surfaces of the smaller bones; in the blood, and gastric mucosa; and less commonly, the endocardium, and nervous system are attacked (neuritis).

Etiology.—This disease practically always follows oral sepsis. A certain number of bacteria are present in normal buccal secretion, and whenever the number of bacteria present markedly exceeds this limit, the gums are likely to be attacked. Among the predisposing factors are: age, the disease being more common in advanced life; care of the teeth materially lessens the tendency to infection.

Pyorrhea is rather common in such chronic maladies, *e. g.*—anemia 50–75 per cent., pulmonary tuberculosis 80 per cent., diabetes 50 per cent., chronic rheumatism, gout, nephritis, secondary syphilis 15 per cent., tertiary syphilis 15–50 per cent., and practically all conditions where malnutrition is a prominent factor.

Occupation is a conspicuous factor, and in our own experiences we have found this condition almost always present (50–80 per cent.) in men who have for even a moderate period, been employed in the various lead-works of Philadelphia. Roddy, Funk, and Kramer in a careful analysis of a comparatively large number of cases, give the following table.

Number Examined		Presenting Distinct Clinical Signs of Pyorrhea
200	Apparently healthy students, 20 to 30 years of age..	2
100	Ambulant private patients, educated cleanly adults.	6
300	Medical dispensary patients, adults, acute diseases only.....	7
300	Medical dispensary patients, adults, chronic diseases only, excluding tuberculosis.....	15
1776	Pulmonary tuberculosis, 506 bed, 1270 ambulant patients.....	80

Bacteriology.—In the majority of cases studied by the writers previously mentioned, 3995 smears were made from well advanced cases of pyorrhea, and of these a mixed infection was common. Amebae were commonly present, but were not regarded as the initial factor in the disease. So many different bacteria are encountered that it has been practically impossible to regard pyorrhea as due to the action of any one of them, but rather resulting from the combined action of both ameba, and bacteria.

Diagnosis.—This will be attained in all cases where examination of the mouth and teeth is a portion of the routine in a physical examination.

Inspection.—Slight inflammation of that portion of the gum surrounding the teeth, and at times a moderate discoloration, tending toward a bluish hue, are amongst the earliest gross evidences of pyorrhea. Discoloration of the teeth, and recession of the gums, appears fairly early in pyorrhea. Exposed portions of the teeth are covered by a whitish putty-like material that is readily removed, and after its removal leaves a bleeding area on the dental surface of the receded gums. Hemorrhage follows slight irritation of any congested portion of the mucous surface.

Palpation.—Gentle pressure over the diseased gums causes either caseous or purulent material to exude. The gum has lost its original firmness, and presents a spongy feel. By passing a probe over the exposed surface of the teeth a roughening of the enameled surface is apparent.

True a bacteriological study of the secretions of the mouth will show an excess of bacteria to antedate practically all cases of infection of the gums. (See Focal Infection.)

PTYALISM (Salivation)

In ptyalism the quantity of saliva secreted daily will be found to exceed the normal—between two and three pints.

Predisposing and Exciting Factors.—An increased flow of saliva occurs during the early months of pregnancy. Salivation is also one of the symptoms of inflammation of the buccal mucous membrane, with the exception of thrush. The saliva is increased at the time of the eruption of the first teeth, in alveolar abscess, and in trigeminal neuralgia. It is not unusual to find the flow of saliva increased during hysteria, and during the menstrual period of hysteric individuals. Salivation has also been seen to occur in hydrophobia. Ptyalism is likewise a symptom of such acute infectious diseases as typhoid fever, variola, and typhus fever, and rarely is it to be seen during the course of epidemic parotitis (mumps).

Drugs increase the flow of saliva: among these should be mentioned acids, alkalis, cantharides, antimony, copper, gold, mercury, iodin, the iodids, muscarin, pilocarpin, and tobacco.

True ptyalism is to be distinguished from the dribbling of saliva that occurs in idiocy, diphtheritic paralysis, and chronic bulbar and facial paralyses.

MINERAL (MERCURIAL) STOMATITIS (SALIVATION; PTYALISM)

Pathologic Definition.—An acute inflammation of the buccal mucous membrane surrounding the teeth, characterized by an increased flow of saliva following the prolonged use of mercury or of the iodids.

Principal Complaint.—The first symptom is tenderness of the teeth, the patient complaining that they are too long and that, while masticating his food, they are extremely sensitive or even painful. A few days later he complains of a peculiar metallic taste and of great annoyance from the excessive flow of saliva, which may be so markedly increased as to cause a constant dribbling from the mouth. The patient may be unable to take solid foods. In a small percentage of cases diarrhea develops after ptyalism has become pronounced.

Physical Signs.—Inspection.—The gums are red, considerably swollen, and upon palpation are found to be spongy and extremely tender. The tongue is red, swollen, heavily coated, and may be the seat of numerous small ulcers. The gums recede from the teeth, the teeth loosen, and in extreme cases they fall from their sockets; rarely, necrosis of the jaw follows.

Course and Duration.—The prognosis as to recovery is favorable, a cure usually following after withdrawal of the exciting drugs. In mercurial stomatitis the duration is from ten days to four or five weeks, and recovery is materially hastened by judicious treatment.

DRUG ERUPTION

Lesions of the mucous membrane of the mouth are occasionally seen after the administration of quinin, phenacetin, antipyrin, and aspirin. This class of ulcers appear as erosions that display well-defined margins with overhanging borders. They are painful to the touch, and are seen, as a rule, in persons who display idiosyncrasy for these drugs. (Ptyalism, p. 454; and Catarrhal Stomatitis, p. 447.) Bismuth when administered in large doses is at times followed by a bluish ulceration of the gums, which most often makes its appearance about the wisdom teeth. Following such ulceration there is liable to be an extensive pigmentation of the surrounding mucous membrane. Rarely these ulcers display a false membrane.

ACUTE PHARYNGITIS (PHARYNGITIS ACUTA SIMPLEX)

Pathologic Definition.—An acute inflammation of the mucous membrane of the pharynx, which may be either primary or secondary to inflammatory processes elsewhere, or to acute infectious conditions—*e. g.*, influenza, scarlet fever, measles, diphtheria, tonsillitis, and smallpox.

Predisposing and Exciting Factors.—Acute pharyngitis may be due to many causes, among which are exposure to cold and wet, the inhalation of irritating gases, and lowered vitality; it may develop during the course of an acute or chronic infection. Certain writers assert that pharyngitis is frequently rheumatic in character.

Age.—It is most frequently seen during early adult life—between the seventeenth and thirty-fifth years.

Principal Complaint.—Among the initial symptoms may be chill or a series of slight chills, following which there are moderate fever, anorexia, headache, slight acceleration of the pulse, dryness of the throat, and, at times, of the entire buccal cavity; these are followed by an increased secretion, and later there may be expectoration of mucopus. The

catarrhal condition spreads rapidly over the entire throat, and swelling and edema of the fauces, palate, tonsils, and base of the tongue occur.

Usually the inflammation extends to the Eustachian tube, and there is a temporary embarrassment of hearing. In severe cases the mucous secretion may contain a small quantity of blood. Pain at the angle of the jaw is an early and almost a constant symptom, and is decidedly increased by movement of the jaw. The patient describes a peculiar scratching sensation in his throat, as though something were there that should be expelled. Efforts to clear the throat and coughing give no relief. Constipation and headache occur in pharyngitis, and the latter is seldom relieved until the bowels have been freely moved.

In children under ten years of age the initial symptoms and, in fact, the entire course of the disease, may be severe and associated with marked constitutional symptoms, *e. g.*, a temperature ranging between 102° and 105° F., extreme pain on swallowing, acceleration of the pulse, and increased respiration. If the inflammation extends to the larynx, the cardinal symptoms of laryngitis will be added. (See Laryngitis, p. 117.)

Physical Signs.—Inspection.—There may be some swelling at the angles of the jaw and temporary enlargement of the lymph-nodes in that region. The mucous membrane of the pharynx is at first bright red and dry in appearance, but later it is seen to be covered with a tenacious mucus or with a mucopurulent exudate, which partially conceals the intensely congested condition of the pharyngeal surface.

Edema of the mucous membrane, and often of the pillars and of the soft palate, is apparent. The pharyngeal follicles become acutely inflamed, standing out as glistening nodes.

Summary of Diagnosis.—The diagnosis is based upon the fact that there are pain and tenderness of the throat, with but moderate glandular enlargement; and while markedly inflamed, no false membrane is present. The constitutional symptoms are not so well marked as in tonsillitis, where there is an equal amount of involvement of the throat.

Cultures from the mucous membrane of the pharynx may show the presence of streptococci, diplococci, and bacilli, but no diphtheria bacilli can be discovered.

Microscopically, the mucoid exudate of the pharynx reveals the presence of various forms of bacteria, erythrocytes, leukocytes, and pus-cells.

Differential Diagnosis.—The condition is to be distinguished from the acute pharyngitis of measles and scarlet fever.

Clinical Course and Duration.—The majority of cases terminate in recovery in from three to seven days. One attack predisposes to subsequent seizures, particularly in poorly nourished individuals.

CHRONIC PHARYNGITIS

Pathologic Definition.—A chronic inflammation of the mucosa of the pharynx, characterized anatomically either by hypertrophy or by atrophy of the follicles, although both processes may exist in the one case.

Varieties.—Among these are chronic hypertrophic nasopharyngitis, follicular pharyngitis, and simple nasopharyngeal catarrh. Chronic pharyngitis is a condition for the specialist, hence it will not be discussed at length here.

Predisposing and Exciting Factors.—Among these are overwork, either mental or physical, and repeated attacks of acute pharyngitis. It is common in inveterate smokers, public speakers, and in singers.

Principal Complaint.—The chief symptoms are a continual desire to clear the throat, and a sensation as of dropping or irritation in the pharynx.

Upon examination the mucous membrane of the posterior wall of the pharynx is found to be hyperemic, dusky, and studded with isolated round bodies that correspond to the enlarged lymphatic follicles. In *pharyngitis sicca*, or dry pharyngitis, this mucous surface is dry and glistening.

ANGINA LUDOVICI

Definition.—A phlegmonous inflammation of the floor of the mouth and pharynx, with unilateral swelling at the angle of the jaw, difficult respiration, pronounced nervous symptoms, and sore throat.

Predisposing and Exciting Causes.—Actinomycosis, diphtheria, streptococcic infection of the mouth or neighboring glands, scarlet fever, and traumatism are among the causes of the complaint.

Principal Complaint.—The initial symptom is sore throat, which early becomes intense, and continues throughout the course of the disease. The submaxillary glands and glands at the angle of the jaw, together with the adjacent cellular tissue of the neck, throat, and mouth, are involved by the phlegmonous process. Talking and eating decidedly increase the pain. Edema of the pharynx and of the tissues of the neck is followed by difficult respiration.

The *fever* may be high and continuous, or may assume the hectic type. The *pulse* is accelerated, and may become weak and dicrotic. *Nervous symptoms* may be absent during the early stages of Ludwig's angina, but may appear later; coma is not uncommon.

Pus-formation usually follows within a few days.

Clinical Course and Duration.—Difficult respiration and pronounced nervous symptoms, when present, make the prognosis grave. Milder cases recover in from ten days to three weeks, but there is a tendency for relapses to occur.

RETROPHARYNGEAL ABSCESS

Remarks.—An accumulation of pus in the cellular tissue between the pharynx and the vertebral column. The condition is characterized clinically by difficult or impeded breathing, dysphagia, cough, and a variable degree of pain and soreness.

Predisposing and Exciting Factors.—Age is a predisposing factor, the condition being most common among children. It not infrequently follows acute infections of the throat, *e. g.*, scarlet fever, diphtheria, and tonsillitis. Disease of the vertebræ may predispose to the development of pharyngeal abscess.

Differential Diagnosis.—The essential clinical differences between retropharyngeal abscess and aneurism are:

Retropharyngeal Abscess	Aneurism
1. History of some acute infection of the throat or adjacent structures.	1. Absent.
2. Common in children.	2. Seen after middle life.
3. No evidence of general atheroma.	3. Atheroma the rule.
4. Upon inspection, the pharynx is greatly inflamed, but the tumor does not pulsate.	4. Tumor pulsates rarely fluctuates.

Prognosis and Duration.—The prognosis is favorable, the majority of cases rupturing spontaneously and the contents of the abscess being either expectorated or swallowed.

THE ESOPHAGUS

METHODS OF EXAMINATION

Esophagoscopy.—Esophagoscopy is a method of examining the esophagus by means of tubes introduced through the mouth. Retrograde esophagoscopy is a term used to describe the examination of the lower end of the esophagus by the aid of tubes introduced through the abdominal wall. (For a description of the esophagoscope see Gastroscopy.

Anatomic Consideration of the Esophagus with Reference to Esophagoscopy.—No attempt will be made here to give a detailed anatomic description of the esophagus, but only those points concerned in an esophageal study will be alluded to. The measurements of the esophagus have been found by different observers to vary widely, and this is due in part to the fact that the measurements have been made from different landmarks, and that the esophagus is seldom found to be exactly in the same position at different examinations, even when made upon the same patient. "The only really fixed point is at its junction with the posterior pharyngeal wall" (Jackson). This peculiarity of the organ is dependent upon its degree of motility and its capability to contract and expand, together with the effect produced by the action of deglutition and the reverse action of regurgitation. The esophagus will also be found to vary greatly both in caliber and in length at different ages. For practical purposes, the measurements of the esophagus are always made with the upper central incisor teeth as a starting-point. The accompanying table, compiled by Jackson, is based upon the observations of Stark:

LENGTH OF THE ESOPHAGUS AT DIFFERENT AGES

Age	Teeth to Cricoid	To Bifurcation	To Cardia	Length of Whole Esophagus
Birth	7 cm. (2¾ in.)	12 cm. (4¾ in.)	18 cm. (6¾ in.)	10 cm. (4 in.)
1 Year	10 cm. (4 in.)	14 cm. (5½ in.)	22 cm. (8¾ in.)	12 cm. (4¾ in.)
2 Years	10 cm. (4 in.)	15 cm. (6 in.)	23 cm. (9 in.)	13 cm. (5⅛ in.)
5 Years	10 cm. (4 in.)	17 cm. (6¾ in.)	26 cm. (10¼ in.)	16 cm. (6⅜ in.)
10 Years	10 cm. (4 in.)	18 cm. (7 in.)	28 cm. (11 in.)	18 cm. (7 in.)
15 Years	14 cm. (5½ in.)	23 cm. (9 in.)	33 cm. (13 in.)	19 cm. (7½ in.)
Adult	15 cm. (6 in.)	26 cm. (10¼ in.)	40 cm. (15¾ in.)	25 cm. (10 in.)

The caliber of the esophageal lumen is also subject to relatively greater variations than is the length of the organ; the diameter of this canal is found to vary greatly at different distances from the upper teeth. There are four distinct points at which the diameter of the esophagus should be considered, and that are of importance in attempting the introduction of the esophagoscope. These are best learned from the appended table, originally compiled from Stark's measurements:

DIAMETERS OF THE ESOPHAGUS AT THE FOUR CONSTRICTIONS

Constriction	Diameter	Vertebra
Cricoid:	Transverse, 23 mm. (1 in.) Anteroposterior, 17 mm. (¾ in.)	Sixth cervical
Aortic:	Transverse, 24 mm. (1 in.) Anteroposterior, 19 mm. (¾ in.)	Fourth thoracic
Left bronchus:	Transverse, 23 mm. (1 in.) Anteroposterior, 17 mm. (¾ in.)	Fifth thoracic
Diaphragm:	Transverse, 23 mm. (1 in. +) Anteroposterior, 23 mm. (1 in.)	Tenth thoracic

As has been stated in describing the introduction of the gastroscope, the upper esophageal constriction, located at the introitus, concerns us chiefly in esophagoscopy. (See accompanying table.) Second in importance is the normal constriction present at the hiatus œsophagus (diaphragmatic constriction; see Fig. 171). It is apparent that the portion of the esophagus passing through the diaphragm may be greatly altered as the result of contraction or relaxation of the muscular fibers immediately surrounding the esophagus. Consequently, complete relaxation, rigidity, and spasm of the diaphragm are important factors in considering this method of clinical observation. Generally speaking, in children, a tube having a diameter of 7 mm., and in adults one of 10 mm. diameter, will be found to pass directly through the esophagus.

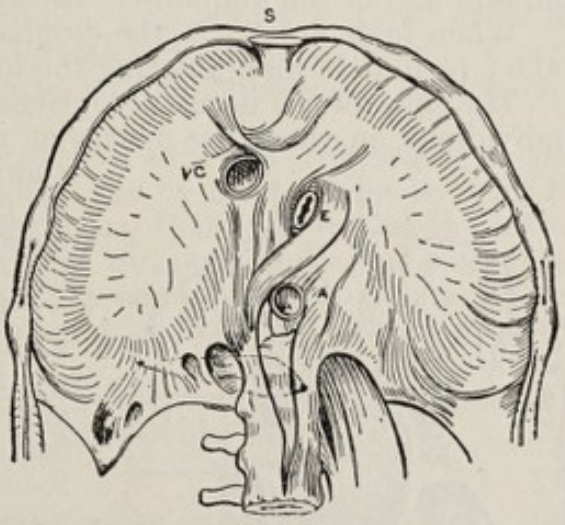


Fig. 171.—Under Surface of the Diaphragm (Jackson).

E, Hiatus œsophagus; note the direction of its axis; *A*, aortic opening; *VC*, opening for vena cava; note direction of tendons and muscular fibers.

Position.—Beginning at a level of the bifurcation of the trachea, the esophagus curves around the aorta and descends somewhat to the left, passing through the esophageal opening of the diaphragm close to the vertebræ. (See Fig. 171.) The subphrenic portion of the esophagus also deviates to the left, and has a somewhat wide range of mobility, and it is the mobility of this portion of the tube that makes it possible for us to introduce the straight gastroscope.

Normal Appearances.—The esophageal picture changes materially in form in various portions of the tract. The introitus œsophagei is closed by the constriction produced mainly by a contraction of the pharynx, producing a backward pressure of the cricoid cartilage, which at all times, except during the act of swallowing, lies in direct contact with the posterior pharyngeal wall.

The cervical portion of the esophagus has the appearance of a transverse slit, due to the collapse of the walls from before backward, and opens ahead of the tube, showing a more or less flat anterior and posterior wall, meeting at the sides. This often opens and closes with the respiratory movements. Upon entering the thoracic esophagus the esophagoscope reveals a more or less oval or quadrangular opening, into the

depths of which the observer looks. This opening is considerably smaller than the entire esophageal lumen, and increases in diameter during inspiration. If the instrument is moved slightly from side to side, the apparent size of the esophagus is also changed.

At the diaphragm the lumen again assumes the form of a slit, the axis being placed obliquely from the right posteriorly to the left anteriorly. (See Fig. 171.) The subphrenic portion of the esophagus is less affected

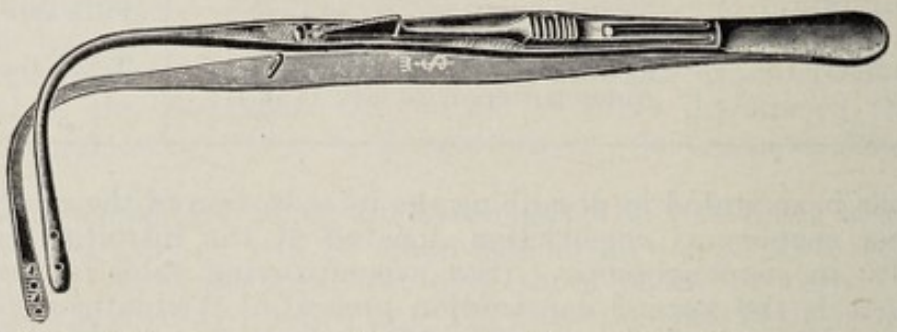


FIG. 172.—SAJOUS' COTTON-HOLDING FORCEPS FOR PRELIMINARY COCAINIZATION OF THE LARYNX AND PHARYNX (Jackson).

by respiratory movements, but may be closed by movements of the diaphragm and of the abdominal viscera.

When folds appear in the esophageal wall, they are probably due to faulty technic in manipulating the instrument.

The color of the normal esophageal mucosa varies greatly in different individuals, in the same person at different times, and still more does the apparent color vary with the form of illumination employed. For these reasons a detailed description of what may be seen will not be given here.

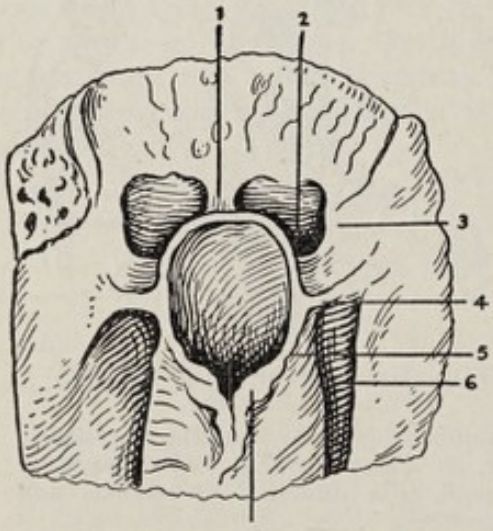


FIG. 173.—BASE OF THE TONGUE AND UPPER BORDER OF NORMAL LARYNX, VIEWED FROM BEHIND (Jackson).

1, Median glosso-epiglottic fold; 2, right glosso-epiglottic fossa; 3, lateral glosso-epiglottic fold; 4, pharyngo-epiglottic fold; 5, aryepiglottic fold; 6, right pyriform sinus, by way of which esophagoscope should be passed.

Technic of Esophagoscopy.—The examination of the upper end of the esophagus is not attended with any difficulty, and, technically, it is the same as direct laryngoscopy. The patient is given no food for at least eight hours, and is then directed to brush his teeth with soap and chalk, and to rinse his mouth every two hours with 30 per cent. alcohol. He should wash his face thoroughly with soap and water, paying particular attention to beard or mustache if these are present; he should rinse them first with water and then with 1:1000 mercury bichlorid solution.

Anesthesia.—Local anesthesia is sufficient for the performance of esophagoscopy, especially when only the upper portion of the canal is to be examined. This is effected by a 4 per cent. solution of cocain, applied with a swab of cotton held in a Sajous forceps (Fig. 172). After a few moments the tubular speculum is carried in until the epiglottis appears, when an application of the cocain is made to all visible adjacent structures. The instrument is passed posteriorly to the epiglottis, and brings into view the interior of the larynx and the introitus œsophagei,

which are to be touched with cocain. In children the application of a cocain solution is to be cautiously made, and even adults may display an idiosyncrasy to the action of the drug.

As the instrument passes back of the epiglottis the arytenoids are brought into view, and are seen to lie in contact with the posterior pharyngeal wall. A slit is observed, and the end of the instrument is inserted far enough into this slit to reach below the arytenoids and engage posteriorly to the cricoid cartilage, when the pyriform fossæ will be visible (Fig. 173), with the pushing forward of the cricoid cartilage by the instrument the upper portion of the esophagus comes into view.

Passing of the Esophagoscope.—The passing of the esophagoscope differs in no way from the passing of the gastroscope. (See p. 460.)

Counterindications.—These are practically the same as those to be considered in the introduction of the gastroscope but in this connection especial attention must be called to the existence of acute esophagitis.

Diseases of the Esophagus.—Stricture of the esophagus may be recognized by other methods than esophagoscopy, yet an actual inspection at the point of stricture is often of value, and is a direct guide as to the character of the disease in question. Again, the size of the lumen of the esophagus at the point of stricture is accurately determined by the esophagoscope, a feature of great clinical importance in those cases in which the esophageal bougie cannot be satisfactorily introduced. Ulcers and new-growths of the esophagus may also be detected by this clinical method.

Dilatation of the esophagus is recognized with a greater degree of certainty by the aid of the esophagoscope than by other methods, since in this condition the esophageal wall disappears from view during the act of respiration. Consequently, a rhythmic disappearance and reappearance of the esophageal wall is pathognomonic. Again, in diverticula there is commonly found either a benign or a malignant growth at some portion of the esophageal wall.

Foreign bodies lodged in the esophagus may be accurately located and even removed by the aid of the esophagoscope.*

X-RAY EVIDENCE IN DISEASE OF THE ESOPHAGUS

By George E. Pfahler, M.D.

The tissues forming the esophagus do not differ much in density from the surrounding tissues; therefore, of itself it cannot be demonstrated by the ray. By means of a bismuth mixture, however (bismuth subcarbonate, one part, to two of milk, broths, or gruels), one can obtain an outline of the lumen of the esophagus, and thus determine its course, its movements, and the presence of any constrictions. One obtains the most information concerning the esophagus by fluoroscopic examination.

One must keep in mind that there are three physiologic constrictions: the first is at the cricoid cartilage; the second is on a level with the fourth thoracic vertebra at the arch of the aorta; and the third is below the diaphragm where the esophagus enters the stomach. These physiologic constrictions can be demonstrated by allowing the patient to swallow capsules or pills of bismuth, which will be found to lodge for a longer or shorter period of time at these points.

*See Jackson "Bronchoscopy and Esophagoscopy," Saunders, 1922.

Displacements of the esophagus will occur in those affections which are accompanied by displacements in the other mediastinal organs—pleural adhesions, pleural effusions, pneumothorax, tumors of the lung or vertebræ, aneurisms, etc. This additional evidence may help to make the diagnosis in doubtful cases.

Stenosis of the esophagus may be due to compressions from without (aneurisms, mediastinal tumors, adhesions) or to constriction from within (cicatricial, carcinomatous, spasm). The former have been discussed under Mediastinal Diseases.

In the study of a *stenosis* one can follow a metallic sound down to the constriction, or, much better, one can follow the opaque mixtures which are swallowed naturally by the patient. I first follow a liquid mixture (milk and bismuth), then a thicker mixture (kefir and bismuth), then the kind of food that the patient says he cannot swallow, and give the opaque liquid on top until the location of the stricture has been determined. After this has passed or been regurgitated, one can give various sizes of pills or capsules, until the size of the constricted lumen has been determined. Special capsules for study of the esophagus are necessary.

In *carcinoma* of the esophagus one can usually determine the location, outline, and extent of the constriction. The lumen is irregular, and except in the terminal stage the constriction is not complete. There will always occur trickling of the liquid bismuth mixture through the orifice. The ultimate passage of the food will depend upon the degree of stenosis. Additional information may often be obtained by studying the influence of the ingested mixture upon the neighboring structures.

Spasm of the esophagus, on the other hand, is more apt to be a complete constriction, which after a time relaxes entirely, allowing the food to pass without obstruction. Occasionally one can see the constriction move upward carrying the bismuth mixture ahead of it.

Dilatation of the esophagus and its degree can be determined by filling the lumen above the constriction with bismuth mixture. The amount of dilatation will depend upon the degree of constriction, and the duration. (See Fig. 174.)

Diverticulum of the esophagus can usually be recognized, but this will depend upon the ability to fill its cavity with the bismuth mixture. One may get it to fill at one time and not at another. It may vary in size, shape, and location. Its walls will be smooth. The most important evidence, however, is obtained by watching it empty itself. A stenosis empties from the bottom; a diverticulum from the top. It is possible to localize the constriction by having the patient swallow a capsule containing opaque mixture.

The *movements* of the esophagus are interesting. The peristalsis can be seen to carry solid food down to the cardiac orifice. Liquids can usually be seen entering the cardiac orifice by spurts synchronous with the cardiac pulsations. In a stenosis of the cardiac orifice with dilatation above, I was able to see several bismuth capsules churned about one another in the attempt to force them through the constriction.

DISEASES OF THE ESOPHAGUS

ESOPHAGITIS

Pathologic Definition.—An inflammatory condition, either acute or chronic, involving the mucous or submucous or both coats of the esophagus.

General Remarks.—The esophagus, owing to the protection afforded by its particular location, function, and histologic structure, is

less prone to be attacked by the diseases known to affect other mucous surfaces.

When, however, disease of the esophagus occurs and is localized to the mucous or submucous coats, the symptoms will in general be those of similar affections of other mucous surfaces, with this difference, that sooner or later dysphagia is likely to occur. A study of diseases of the esophagus consequently resolves itself into a differentiation of all other conditions in which there is difficulty in swallowing or interference in any way with the passage of food to the stomach.

For present purposes the symptomatology of affections of the esophagus in general will be considered here, and we will discuss later, under separate headings, the special symptoms belonging to each particular disease.

Principal Complaint.—Pain is by far the most distressing and common symptom of disease of the esophagus. In acute inflammation the pain is severe, and is distributed over the region of the neck, beneath the upper portion of the sternum, between the shoulders, and for some four to six inches along the vertebral column; a similar pain is experienced in periesophageal inflammation. If the esophageal inflammation is acute, the patient complains of a variable degree of stiffness of the neck.

Sharp, lancinating pain, burning in character, results from an acute inflammation of the mucous surface of the esophagus, and in many instances is caused by the passage of hot or highly acid foods to the stomach. Dysphagia, while most annoying to the patient, is not always accompanied by pain. Pressure upon the esophagus may in rare instances excite continuous pain or pain upon swallowing, but it is usually localized and not of an acute character, unless solid food is passing.

Progressive weakness and emaciation are among the most constant symptoms of disease of the esophagus, and are more pronounced when either obstruction or malignant disease is present.

Cough accompanies practically all pathologic conditions of the esophagus or of the adjacent structures, from pressure exerted upon the recurrent laryngeal nerve, the bronchi, or the trachea. The conditions that commonly give rise to such irritation and cough are thoracic aneurism, carcinoma of the esophagus, and enlarged mediastinal glands.

There is more or less constant annoyance from the accumulation of secretion in the mouth, and the patient expectorates a frothy, viscid mucus. Mucus from the esophagus is not expelled by coughing, but is readily loosened by merely clearing the throat. Generally speaking, the patient complains of profuse expectoration when there is either acute or chronic inflammation of the esophageal mucous membrane.

ESOPHAGEAL HEMORRHAGE

Definition.—The escape of either arterial or venous blood from the esophageal mucous membrane, which may later be ejected through the mouth or find its way into the stomach.

Exciting and Contributing Factors.—The commonest cause of hemorrhage is a varicosity of the veins of the mucous membrane of the esophagus. In this connection esophageal hemorrhage is not readily explained, since it accompanies cirrhosis of the liver, chronic nephritis, and certain diseases in which splenic tumor is present. Minute hemorrhages from the esophagus are highly suggestive of carcinoma, and especially is this the case when a variable degree of obstruction is present.

Foreign bodies, either lodged in or while passing through the esophagus, may be the cause of bleeding, and ulceration of this canal may also give rise to hemorrhage.

Characteristics.—Blood from the esophagus is bright red in color, and always alkaline in reaction; it is not injected by vomiting, but is brought up by "clearing of the throat."

Physical Examination of the Esophagus.—Inspection of the esophagus is possible only with the aid of the endoscope, and may, in some instances, show evidence of ulceration or of varicose veins.

Palpation of the esophagus immediately above the clavicles may be performed from the sides of the neck. From this point the esophagus, when distended or enlarged, will be felt immediately behind the trachea. In periesophageal abscess or dilatation of the esophagus a peculiar soft, tumor-like mass can be felt in this region, and in marked dilatation a pear-shaped tumor may be seen in the neck.

The passing of an esophageal sound furnishes the most valuable evidence as to the condition of the esophagus.

Cautions.—(1) The bougie should be protected at its point by an olive-shaped expansion.

(2) The instrument should be introduced gently, and should pass through the tube without the operator making any decided pressure.

(3) If the question arises as to whether the bougie has entered the esophagus, the patient should be directed to speak, and if he is able to do so, it is evident that the sound has not entered the larynx.

(4) The normal constriction of the esophagus corresponds to the level of the fourth thoracic vertebra, and is *ten inches* from the incisor teeth, therefore all bougies should have an indelible mark at this point in order to guide the operator. It is well to have the bougie graduated in inches from the olive-shaped expansion to the tip. A mild contraction is noticed when the bougie passes the cricoid cartilage.

(5) When the bougie has passed a constriction in the esophagus, it should be removed slowly and with extreme gentleness until it has again passed the point of constriction.

(6) The entrance of the esophagus into the stomach corresponds to the level of the eleventh thoracic vertebra.

General Remarks.—The esophagus may be obstructed at almost any point, either as the result of disease within the canal, from pressure by tumors in the mediastinum or by foreign bodies lodged in the tube. Organic disease usually affects the upper half of the esophagus. In dysphagia due to paralysis of the esophagus the bougie passes into the stomach without interruption. In dysphagia due to spasm the tube will be found to pass *slowly*, and without any decided pressure, into the stomach. In stricture of the esophagus following ulceration the bougie will not pass easily.

The location of an obstruction possesses a certain value in the diagnosis; *e. g.*, an obstruction of the esophagus located five or six inches from the incisor teeth is commonly of cicatricial origin, whereas an obstruction nine inches from the teeth is highly suggestive of carcinoma. If the passing of the bougie excites pain at any particular point along the esophagus, this is doubtless the seat of disease, and the nature of the pathologic condition is suggested by the point at which the irritation exists.

Auscultation.—Hanburger* was the first to call attention to auscultation as a means of diagnosis in constriction of this canal, and this observer

* Jahrbücher der k. k. Gesellschaft der Aerzte in Wien, Bd., xviii.

has reported in detail sounds heard over both the normal and the diseased esophagus.

Method.—Place the stethoscope over the pharynx, at the side of the neck, over the hyoid bone, or at the left of the spinous process of the vertebra, as low as the first thoracic vertebra. A loud, gurgling sound is heard when the patient swallows liquid. This sound, however, is of short duration. On placing the stethoscope over the left edge of the sternum, or just to the left of the vertebral column, liquids may be heard to pass from the mouth into the stomach. If there is a constriction or decided lessening of the caliber of the esophagus at any part of the canal, a peculiar gurgling sound, resembling that heard when water is poured from a bottle, is audible at a level with such constriction. If there is complete obstruction of the esophagus, the characteristic sound of swallowing is not heard below the point of such obstruction. In dilatation of the esophagus the sound produced by swallowing liquids resembles that of rain beating against a glass window-pane. The sound normally audible when the stethoscope is placed along the spine over the course of the esophagus during the act of swallowing liquids is best appreciated by listening to this sound.

Swallowing Time.—In normal subjects it is possible by placing the stethoscope over the areas on the chest, above cited, to hear a distinct gurgle when liquids enter the esophagus, and a lesser sputtering sound when such fluids enter the stomach. The normal time occupied for fluid to pass through the esophagus is from 3 to 4 seconds. Whenever the time between the first gurgle of swallowing and the lesser gurgle when the fluid enters the stomach is prolonged (over eight seconds) spasm or stricture of the esophagus exists. In the case of the patient (Fig. 174, p. 469) it required from 20 to 31 seconds for liquids to pass from the mouth to the stomach.

ACUTE ESOPHAGITIS

Predisposing and Exciting Factors.—These have been alluded to under General Remarks. The condition may, however, result from extension of a catarrhal process from the pharynx; it is not infrequently associated with certain acute infections, *e. g.*, typhoid fever, and is particularly common in diphtheria, scarlet fever, and pneumonia. Practically all diseases arising within the esophagus are capable of causing an acute or a chronic inflammation of the lining mucous membrane. In a few instances the formation of small pustules has been noted, disseminated over the mucosa of the esophagus.

Principal Complaint.—The patient complains of more or less constant pain, more particularly upon swallowing either solid or liquid foods. Following deglutition there is at times a dull pain or a sense of weight immediately beneath the sternum. Regurgitation of food is by no means uncommon, and dysphagia is also likely to occur. As a rule, a large quantity of mucus is mixed with the regurgitated food, but pus and blood are rather uncommon findings.

Summary of Diagnosis.—Pain localized immediately beneath the sternum, and intensified by the passage of food to the stomach, is highly suggestive of esophagitis. The ejection of blood and mucus also points strongly toward inflammation of the esophagus.

Course and Duration.—As a rule, cases of acute esophagitis subside in from a few days to three weeks, but when the condition complicates a pharyngeal or gastro-intestinal malady, the prognosis may be less favorable. In necrotic and in purulent types of the disease the constitutional symptoms are pronounced, and death may result.

CHRONIC ESOPHAGITIS

Pathologic Definition.—A chronic inflammatory process involving the mucous coat of the esophagus, and following repeated attacks of acute esophagitis.

This condition, as stated, may result from repeated attacks of acute esophagitis, or it may depend, in part at least, upon dilatation of the veins of the esophagus, the result of valvular heart disease, myocarditis, chronic interstitial nephritis, or hepatic cirrhosis. The symptomatology of the chronic form differs from that described under Acute Inflammation of the Esophagus only in degree.

Esophagoscopy.—The esophagoscopic findings show paling and mottling of the mucous surface of the organ. There is also present a somewhat thick, tenacious mucus, that covers the entire mucous surface.

ULCER OF THE ESOPHAGUS

Pathologic Definition.—An acute or chronic inflammatory process, with ulceration, involving first the mucous coat of the esophagus, and possibly extending to the submucous and muscular coats.

Predisposing and Exciting Factors.—Ulcer of the esophagus may follow simple catarrh of the esophageal mucosa, diphtheritic catarrh of the esophagus, and pressure from mediastinal tumors; in bed-ridden patients pressure exerted opposite the level of the cricoid cartilage may give rise to ulcer at this point. Esophageal ulcer may develop during the course of the acute infections, *e. g.*, pneumonia, acute gastritis, acute ulcerative stomatitis, and typhoid fever. There may be ulceration of the esophagus, simulating closely that detected in the stomach, but such ulceration is, as a rule, situated near the cardiac extremity of the tube.

Esophagoscopy.—The ulcer may be inspected by means of the esophagoscope, and in this way the exact character of the lesion is determined. Local treatment may also be applied through the esophagoscope.

Summary of Diagnosis.—Ulcer of the esophagus is difficult to diagnose antemortem, since practically all the symptoms of acute catarrh of the esophagus are also present in this condition. In addition, ulcer is characterized by intense pain on swallowing, the pain appearing to be localized immediately beneath the upper border of the sternum and along the spine on the level with the lower border of the scapula. It is seldom that esophageal ulcer perforates the tube, but if perforation should occur there is emphysema of the surrounding tissues, and particularly of the region of the neck. Emphysema is an almost positive sign of perforation of the esophagus.

Complications and Sequelæ.—Perforating ulcer usually leads to abscess of the mediastinum and of the tissues of the neck. In rupture of the esophagus complicating carcinoma, ulcer, or traumatism, the symptoms are pain, violent vomiting, a weak, rapid pulse—in fact, the general symptoms of shock. Doubtless the vast majority of ulcers of the esophagus heal spontaneously, and, as a result of this process, a dense layer of cicatricial tissue is formed that, in time, produces a local diminution of the caliber of the esophagus.

ESOPHAGEAL DIVERTICULUM (PHARYNGOCELE)

Definition.—A circumscribed sacculation involving one or more coats of the esophageal wall.

Varieties.—(*a*) Pressure diverticula, which may be either congenital or acquired; and (*b*) the so-called traction diverticulum.

Predisposing and Exciting Factors.—Excluding those cases of diverticulum of the esophagus that are congenital, the predisposing and

exciting factors in pressure diverticula are "localized lesions in the muscular coat of the esophagus," which, in the majority of cases, are produced by rapid eating or by the swallowing of large particles of food—the lodging of foreign bodies in the esophagus, and the like.

Sex figures prominently, since males are far more susceptible than females.

Age also deserves consideration. The condition is seldom seen in children unless it is of congenital origin.

Location.—The sac occurs most often on the posterior wall, at or near the junction of the esophagus and the pharynx, when the muscular coat of the canal is weakest. A characteristic of esophageal diverticulum is the fact that its size increases gradually. Fluoroscopic and radiographic studies are essential.

Traction diverticula occur only in children, and are situated at a level with the bifurcation of the trachea; they protrude from the anterior wall of the esophagus.

Principal Complaint.—The patient is at first conscious of the fact that a portion of his food lodges too high, and he describes this peculiar sensation as being relieved when he stretches or makes general pressure upon the neck. He may also observe a small mass or bulging in the neck, which is often relieved by gentle manipulation. Tumor of the neck is a not infrequent symptom, and whenever there is a history of fluctuating tumor in this locality, the possibility of pharyngo-esophageal diverticulum should be foremost in the mind of the diagnostician. In certain cases the patient is able, by pressing upon the neck, to cause a portion of the previously taken food to regurgitate into the mouth—a positive sign of dilatation of the esophagus. When the sac becomes filled with food, pressure exerted externally may excite vomiting, which is accompanied by severe strangling. In those cases in which vomiting is a frequent symptom irritation and soreness of the pharynx and the esophagus are likely to be associated. Soreness may be so marked as to prevent the patient from taking sufficient nourishment, and consequently the symptoms of malnutrition develop. The distended sac may exert sufficient pressure on the nerves of the neck to cause dysphagia and alteration in the voice. Pressure upon either the superior or the recurrent laryngeal nerves causes paroxysmal coughing, dyspnea, and hoarseness.

Esophagoscopy.—An esophagoscopic examination enables one to obtain a clear conception of the degree of dilatation existing in a given case. The esophagoscopic findings in diverticulum are quite characteristic, since there is a rhythmic disappearance from view of the esophageal wall with the act of respiration. Again, either benign or malignant tumor is frequently found to involve some portion of the esophageal wall. Stricture may exist at the lower portion of the sacculation, and in such cases it is possible to estimate the actual caliber of the esophagus at the point of constriction.

STRICTURE OF THE ESOPHAGUS

Pathologic Definition.—A condition by which the caliber of the esophagus is diminished at any given point throughout its length; this narrowing may be congenital, the result of disease within the esophagus (ulceration) or of extra-esophageal pressure.

Predisposing and Exciting Factors.—It is to be borne in mind that, normally, there is a moderate constriction of the esophagus ten inches from the teeth, and that any decided alteration in the caliber of this tube elsewhere is pathologic. Aside from congenital deformity of the

esophagus, stricture oftenest results from epithelioma, and is second in importance only to congenital deformities as a cause of stricture of the esophagus. Less often stricture of the esophagus may depend upon an excess of cicatricial tissue produced in the process of healing of an esophageal ulcer. Corrosive substances taken into the esophagus may give rise to extensive ulceration and sloughing of the mucosa. Jackson* reports a series of cases in children, following the swallowing of caustic alkalies.

A few instances are recorded in which stricture of the esophagus followed typhoid fever, and it is fair to suppose, at least, that typhoid ulceration took place in the esophageal mucous membrane. Certain authors hold that syphilitic ulceration is occasionally responsible for esophageal stricture. True gastric ulcer situated at the junction of the esophagus with the stomach has been reported.

Principal Complaint.—This will be found to vary greatly with the degree of stricture present. Probably the first complaint is of inability to swallow large morsels of food, or such food may cause the patient some discomfort in its passage into the stomach. In practically every case the sufferer notices that this difficulty in the swallowing of solid food increases gradually until finally he is able to take only liquids. The pain, discomfort, or pressure, as the patient is apt to describe it, felt when swallowing solid food is localized to one particular point, immediately beneath the sternum or between the scapulæ. It will be observed that as the lumen of the esophagus becomes narrower, increased effort will be required to make the food pass through the tube of the stomach.

Spasm of the esophagus may be responsible for temporary esophageal stricture, and has been considered under the head of Neuroses of the Esophagus. The degree of pain accompanying stricture of the esophagus will be found to vary greatly with the cause of the stricture.

After the lumen of the esophagus has become markedly lessened the patient usually expectorates a large quantity of mucus and regurgitates particles of food that have remained in the esophagus for hours. Food and secretion ejected from the esophagus are alkaline in reaction, and other chemic evidences are also present to show that they do not come from the stomach. Rupture of the esophagus is best considered in connection with dilatation of this tube. (See Esophageal Dilatation.)

The patient complains chiefly of progressive weakness and loss of flesh, which in advanced cases is extreme. In persons suffering from stricture of moderate degree malnutrition does not occur.

Esophagoscopy.—By means of this method it is possible to determine not only the location of the stricture, but also the actual caliber of the esophagus at the point of constriction. The condition of the esophageal wall immediately surrounding the stricture is also of importance in considering the treatment, since sclerotic changes might yield to the bougie, whereas in the presence of malignancy such procedure would be contraindicated. The degree of dilatation of the esophagus above the point of constriction is also of interest. (See Esophageal Diverticula.)

Diagnosis and Laboratory Diagnosis.—Regurgitation of food is the most positive sign of stricture of the esophagus, and in cases in which the constriction is located in the upper portion of the esophagus it occurs almost immediately after eating. If the constriction is situated near the stomach, food is regurgitated in from one to four hours after it is taken. The more marked the degree of dilatation above the stricture, the later does the regurgitation of food occur. Solids and liquids regurgitated

*Jour. Am. Med. Assoc., June 2,1921.

from the esophagus are alkaline in reaction, and show that they have not been acted upon by the gastric juice, but the changes effected by the mixture of saliva are in evidence. There is an absence of both free and combined hydrochloric acid.

Auscultation (see p. 465) is of value in diagnosing the stricture. The most conclusive evidence, however, of the existence of stricture is obtained by the introduction of the esophageal bougie.

X-ray diagnosis gives definite evidence. (See Fig. 174.) Stricture with sacculation is to be distinguished froma branchial cyst due to a

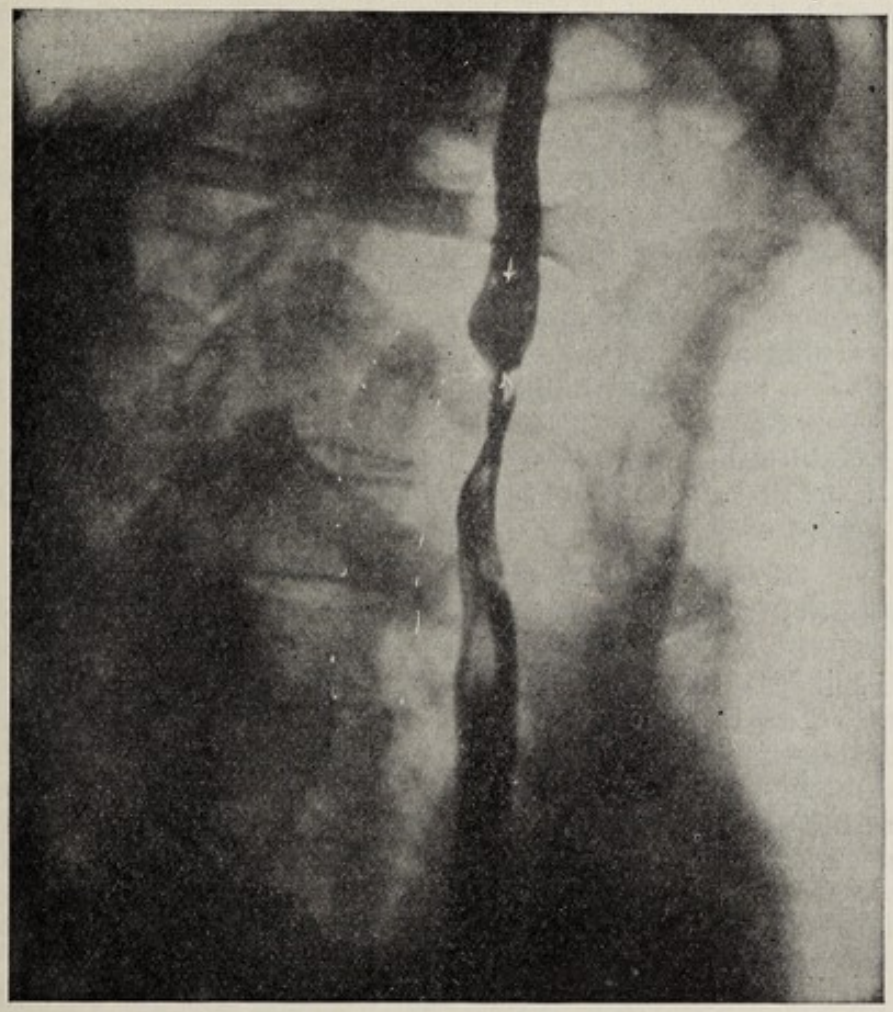


FIG. 174.—STRICTURE OF ESOPHAGUS.

Patient, female, age 43 years. Note dilatation above stricture. Liquids passed the stricture slowly. Patient lived 4 years after picture was made.

remaining embryologic gill pouch. The duodenal tube is found to coil in the esophagus, as was recently the case in one of our cases at the Philadelphia General Hospital.

Differential Diagnosis.—Stricture of the esophagus, although apparently easily diagnosed, must be differentiated from spasm of the esophagus and obstruction the result of external pressure—*e. g.*, from large bronchial glands, thoracic aneurisms, mediastinal abscess, enlarged thyroid, and large pericardial effusion, in all of which conditions the bougie passes quite easily into the stomach. In external pressure from glands, or an enlarged thyroid gland, chronic pleurisy with extensive adhesions, caries of the vertebræ with spinal distortion, the bougie may be passed into the stomach, but its passage excites severe pain. If constriction of the gullet is due to neuroses, the bougie's progress is

suddenly arrested, but soon passes the apparent stricture without extra force. In neuroses the bougie in its transit meets with obstructions at different portions of the tube. The *x*-ray may be of inestimable value in distinguishing between stricture and obstruction due to pressure from thoracic tumors and from bone disease.

Caution.—An esophageal bougie should never be introduced when disease of the heart or of the blood-vessels (aneurism) is present, since such procedure is likely to be accompanied by disastrous results.

Syphilis and traumatism to the esophagus favor the formation of stricture, and old age and a history of carcinoma likewise point to a similar condition in the wall of the tube. Gastric ulcer, typhoid fever, and dysentery may influence slightly a diagnosis of stricture.

DILATATION OF THE ESOPHAGUS

Definition.—A condition in which any portion of the entire esophageal canal becomes expanded. (See Fig. 174, p. 469.)

General Consideration.—A variable amount of dilatation practically always follows stricture of the esophagus, and these expansions vary in direct proportion to the degree of stenosis present. (See Stricture, p. 469.)

General dilatation of the esophagus without stricture is certainly a rare condition, and is distinguished from the localized form by the fact that the esophageal bougie passes directly into the stomach.

The symptoms of dilatation of the esophagus are practically those of stenosis of the tube, except that pain is less common. The swallowing time is prolonged, p. 465.

SPASM OF THE ESOPHAGUS (ESOPHAGISMUS)

Predisposing and Exciting Factors.—Probably the best examples of spasm of the esophagus are seen in hysteria, epilepsy, and hydrophobia. In practically all cases the patient is of a neurotic temperament. Less often spasm may be reflex in nature, and secondary to disease of the stomach—*e. g.*, gastric atrophy and dilatation. Spasm occurs occasionally in aged males, and only in those of nervous temperament.

Principal Complaint.—Difficulty in swallowing is the only inconvenience from which the patient suffers. As a rule, he is able to take solid foods except during the spasm, when they cannot pass through the esophagus. Pain is much less common and more mild than in true stricture of the esophagus.

The patient first complains that he is choking, and this uncomfortable feeling continues until the food has passed the point at which spasm occurs. In many persons of hysteric temperament a variable degree of choking is experienced irrespective of the ingestion of food, and such spasm may be induced by excitement. The swallowing time varies from ten to thirty seconds, (see p. 465).

Diagnosis and Differential Diagnosis.—The facts that hysteric temperament exists and that the attacks are intermittent are positive evidences of the nature of the condition. The freedom from pain and the characteristic vomiting also favor the existence of spasm. (See *X*-ray Diagnosis, p. 461.)

Spasm of the esophagus is differentiated from stricture by the fact that the bougie is usually grasped tightly within the esophagus at a given point, but if permitted to remain for a few seconds, it will pass the constriction without any special effort upon the part of the operator.

Esophagoscopy.—An esophagoscopic examination shows absence of disease of the organ. In one case studied at the Philadelphia General Hospital it was possible, by gliding the bougie through to the esophagus, to excite spasm at different portions of the canal—a positive sign of neurosis.

Fluoroscopic study has to some extent displaced the use of the gastroscope.

CARCINOMA OF THE ESOPHAGUS

Pathologic Definition.—A malignant growth usually developing primarily from the esophageal mucosa, and characterized later by the formation of stricture.

Predisposing and Exciting Factors.—Age is a most prominent factor in carcinoma of the esophagus, the condition being extremely uncommon before the fortieth year. Males are more often afflicted than females. The prolonged use of alcohol is believed to exert some influence. An esophageal ulcer forms a favorable site for the development of epithelioma.

Principal Complaint.—The patient complains of dysphagia, which increases from time to time until it is practically impossible for him to take solid food. Simultaneously with the increasing dysphagia the patient complains of progressive emaciation and of weakness, with or without pain. He regurgitates portions of the food eaten, and such ejecta are often blood-stained, containing a large amount of mucus, and in rare instances shreds of diseased mucous membrane. The food is regurgitated either immediately after attempting to swallow or from ten to fifteen minutes later, the length of the interval varying with the location of the carcinoma. In atypical cases the dysphagia may be slight, or the symptoms may subside as the result of disintegration of the carcinomatous growth. Not uncommonly the patient displays other manifestations of carcinoma, *e. g.*, involvement of the cervical glands.

Esophagoscopy.—It is possible by this method to recognize malignancy of the esophageal wall at an unusually early date, and before there are extensive changes in that portion of the esophagus above the lesion. In carcinoma of the esophagus of long standing the employment of the esophagoscope is attended with a certain degree of danger, since in these cases extensive ulceration is likely to be present. (See *X*-ray Diagnosis.)

Laboratory Diagnosis.—The ejected material is acid in reaction until stenosis develops, when it becomes alkaline. Lactic acid may be present, but hydrochloric acid is absent. Mucus is always present. Red and white blood-cells, epithelial-cells, yeast-cells, fat-globules, starch-granules, particles of food, and shreds of necrotic tissue are among the microscopic findings.

Summary of Diagnosis.—Mediastinal tumors may give rise to symptoms that closely simulate those caused by carcinoma of the esophagus, but the degree of emaciation and the anemia are less marked than in carcinoma. The introduction of a stomach-tube may facilitate the making of a diagnosis, since shreds of mucus and particles of carcinomatous tissue may be dislodged by the tube and recovered in the fluid thus obtained. There is always great danger of perforation when either the stomach-tube or the bougie is introduced into the esophagus.

Course.—The patient's general condition grows progressively worse, and complications, *e. g.*, bronchopneumonia, pulmonary gangrene, esophageal perforation, and hemorrhage, are likely to occur. The disease is fatal, the majority of cases terminating in from three to twelve months after the first manifestation of symptoms.

SARCOMA OF THE ESOPHAGUS

Sarcoma of the esophagus is rather rare, Goldstein finding only 40 references to this condition and in 1908 Hacker gave an abstract of 20 reported cases. Sarcoma is commonest in aged persons.

THE STOMACH AND INTESTINES

EXAMINATION OF THE ABDOMEN

TOPOGRAPHY

Ballance divides the abdomen arbitrarily into regions. He bounds the entire abdomen with a circle, the center of which is the umbilicus. (See Fig. 175.) We have found that this division of the abdomen requires slight modification, necessitated by reason of the difference in stature of the individuals examined. Thus in conducting our examinations we make the vertical diameter of the circle extend from the tip of the ensiform cartilage to the pubic articulation (Fig. 175), and the horizontal diameter extend to the margins of the abdominal wall, at a point approximately midway between the ensiform cartilage and the top of the pubic arch.

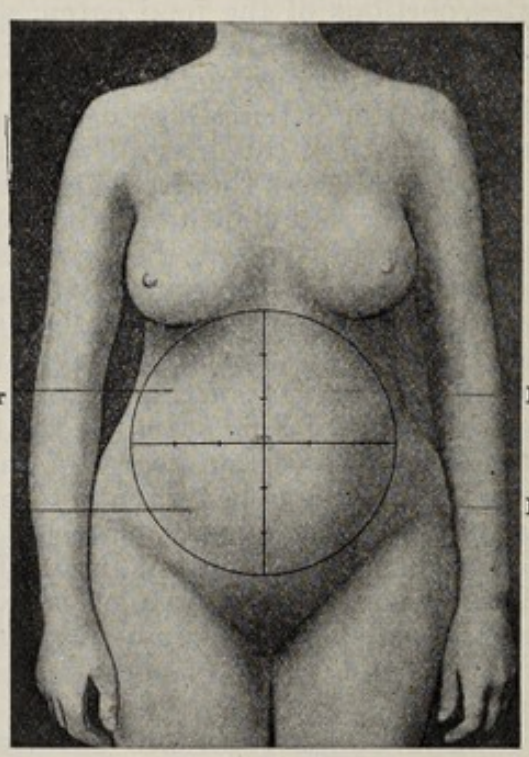


FIG. 175.—ARBITRARY REGIONAL DIVISION OF THE ABDOMEN.

This arbitrary outline, in the average individual, will be found nearly to transcribe the circle, whereas in a tall person the vertical diameter will exceed that of the transverse, and, again, in the obese, the transverse diameter will be found to far exceed that of the vertical. In those displaying an abnormal amount of abdominal fat the umbilicus may be found some distance below its normal location, and in such cases our transverse arbitrary division must be taken at a point near the center of the vertical line extending from the ensiform cartilage to the pubic articulation.

This circular outline of the abdomen is divided by a transverse and a vertical line into four regions (Fig. 175): Those above the level of the umbilicus we speak of as the superior right and superior left quadrant respectively; and of those below the umbilical level as the inferior right and inferior left quadrant respectively. It is often necessary to refer to a

viscus or tumor as occupying one of these regions, and to qualify this statement by referring to other anatomic landmarks of the abdomen.

The advantage of this arbitrary division is further exemplified by supposing that a tumor exists in the left inferior quadrant, and that the center of this tumor is three inches from the junction of the transverse with the vertical line at the umbilicus, and one inch below the line drawn between the umbilicus and the left anterior superior spine (Fig. 179). The size may now be readily determined by taking measurements from the center of the tumor.

Viscera that are bisected by either the transverse or the vertical lines are referred to in a description of them as being situated in either the median or the vertical line, as, *e. g.*, the bladder. Viscera and tumors are also spoken of as occupying a position a definite number of inches

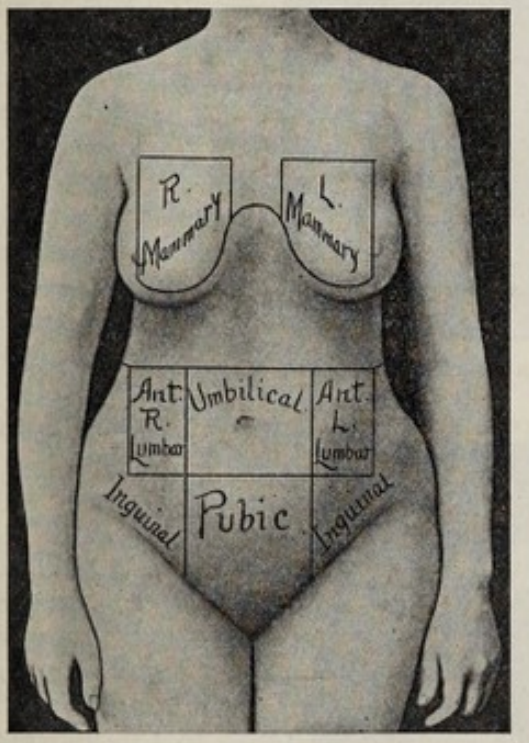


FIG. 176.—ARBITRARY DIVISION OF ABDOMEN AND MAMMARY REGION.

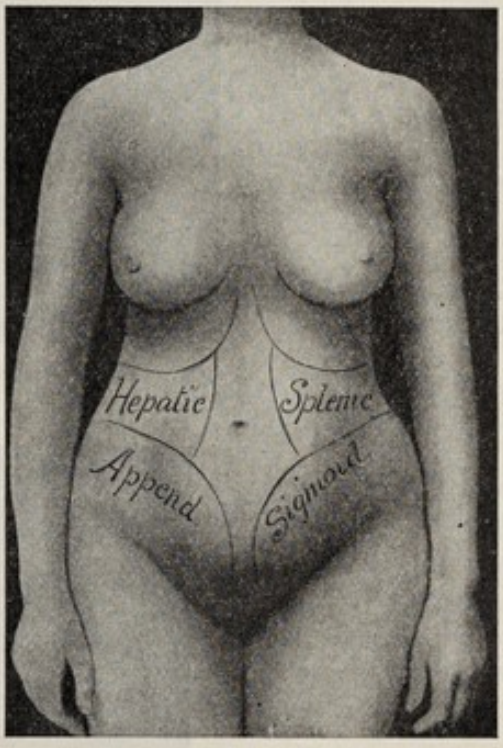


FIG. 177.—SPECIAL ARBITRARY DIVISION OF THE ABDOMEN.

above or below the transverse line or to the right or left of the median line, and a certain number of inches from the pubis, the ensiform cartilage, or the umbilicus (Figs. 175, 176, 179).

Thus, in the case of a growth situated in the right inferior quadrant, this portion of the circle is further divided by a line extending from its center to the right anterior superior spine of the ilium. Again, when locating a tumor or an area of tenderness or of pain in the superior right or left quadrants, these may be subdivided by a line extending from their center to any bony structure present in this region, *e. g.*, ascertain the costochondral articulation, and the exact location of the growth or area of tenderness or resistance may be marked upon this line subdividing the quadrant. It may be that the point in question is a definite distance to one or the other side of this subdividing line. Of further diagnostic service is it to employ a corresponding arbitrary division of the back. Observing the divisions of the abdomen, the normal position of the umbilicus and the fixed bony structures located at or near the periphery of the circle are employed to designate the exact location of a given abdominal tumor or area of tenderness (Fig. 178).

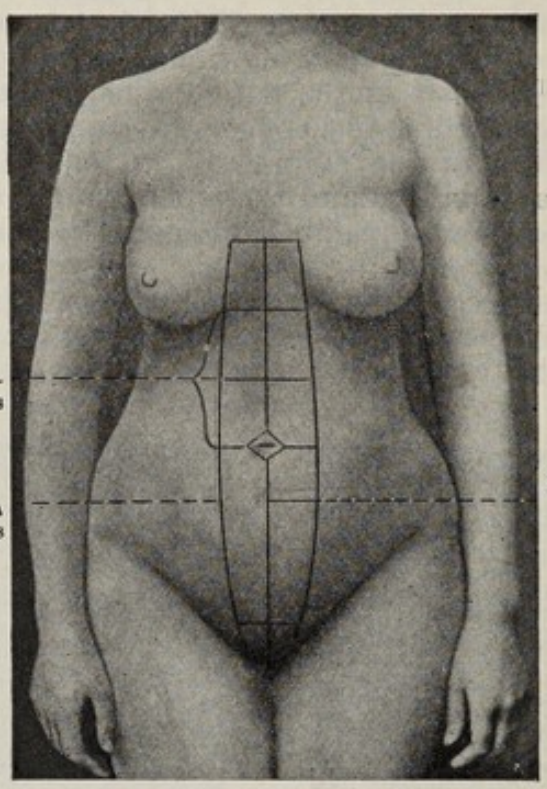


FIG. 178.—LANDMARKS OF THE ABDOMEN.

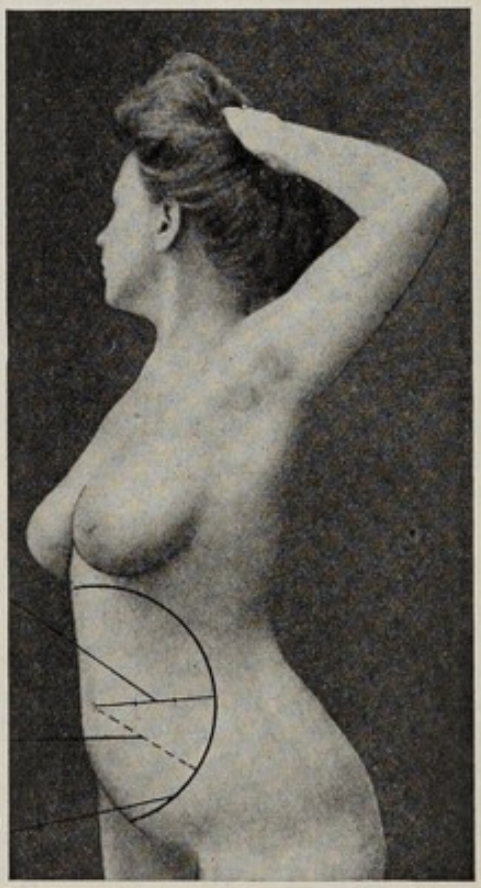


FIG. 179.—LEFT ABDOMINAL HEMISPHERE.

Within the superior right quadrant are two layers of organs, a superficial and a deep layer. In the superficial or anterior group are the right lobe of the liver, the gall-bladder, the hepatic flexure and portions of the ascending and the transverse colon, the head of the pancreas, and the pyloric end of the stomach.

The deep or retroperitoneal layer contains the greater portion of the right kidney and the suprarenal body.

The inferior right quadrant contains a portion of the ascending colon, cecum, vermiform appendix, right ovary, right Fallopian tube, and a portion of the uterus and of the bladder. At the margin of the arbitrary circular boundary is the right inguinal ring. Upon deep inspiration the right kidney is forced down for about half its length.

Within the superior left quadrant will be found, in the superficial layer, the left lobe of the liver, the spleen, the greater portion of the stomach, the splenic flexure of the colon, a portion of the transverse colon, the descending colon, and the tail and about two-thirds of the body of the pancreas. The deeper layer contains the upper portion of the left kidney, the pelvis of the kidney, and the suprarenal body.

In the inferior left quadrant are the left ovary, the left Fallopian tube, a portion of the uterus and of the bladder, the descending colon, and the sigmoid flexure.

According to Holden, the left kidney is situated within the left inferior quadrant only upon deep inspiration. Along the bony margin we find the left inguinal ring.

The position of the small intestines is so variable that they may be found occupying portions of each arbitrary division of the abdomen.

DATA OBTAINED BY QUESTIONING THE PATIENT

This particular class of symptoms will be considered fully under the general complaint for each abdominal malady. Inquiry should be made as to whether or not the patient suffers from local or general sensations of fullness, heat, burning, and pain. The local sensation of weight or of an abnormal degree of fullness in the abdomen is always suggestive of tumor, enlargement of organs, or displacement of a viscus.

The sensation of heat, or of a more or less constant burning, with or without pain, is usually associated with the presence of inflammatory affections of the abdomen, *e. g.*, carcinoma, pyosalpinx.

Character of Pain.—Pain may be either localized or general, dull or lancinating, continuous or intermittent.

Abdominal pain may begin suddenly, being extremely severe from the start, this being best exemplified by the pain of renal and of hepatic colic; or it may begin with slight sensations of discomfort, nausea, or faintness, and progress steadily until a severe type of pain is experienced—*e. g.*, uterine colic, intestinal colic (lead colic).

The sudden development of acute pain points toward inflammation or perforation of some hollow abdominal viscus, although it is often a symptom of flatulent distention of the abdomen, intestinal obstruction, enteralgia, gastralgia, and all types of colic. Sudden pain developing during the course of gastric ulcer, typhoid fever, and allied gastro-intestinal conditions points strongly toward intestinal perforation. Chronic pain is indicative of peritoneal adhesions or of a somewhat acute or chronic inflammatory process. Abdominal pain, chronic in character, is seen to occur in intestinal neuroses, general neurasthenia, hysteria, insanity, locomotor ataxia, and lead-poisoning.

Localized pain is a symptom of gastric ulcer, pyosalpinx, and abdominal affections in which a variable degree of localized peritonitis is present.

The *abdominal pain* may be general in diffuse peritonitis, intestinal colic, and rheumatism of the abdominal muscles and fascia, the last-named condition often causing intense suffering, the muscles being tender and hypersensitive to movement, as *e. g.*, in laughing, coughing, and the like.

A dull, boring pain is associated with the presence of a large stone in the renal pelvis, carcinoma of the retroperitoneal glands, and carcinoma of the abdominal organs. Dull pain is seldom reflected from the seat of its greatest intensity.

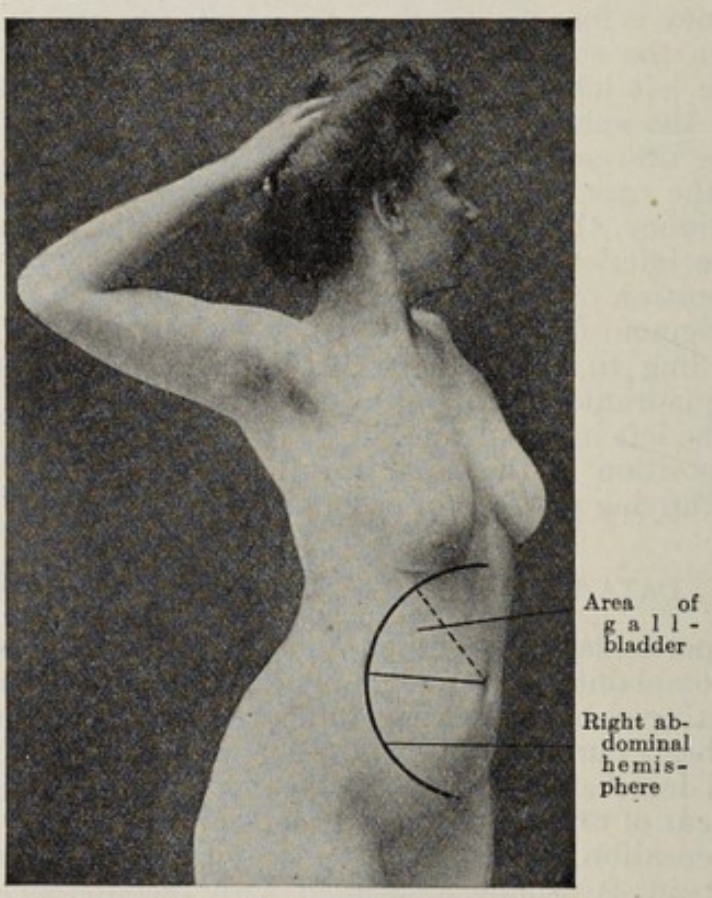


FIG. 180.—RIGHT ABDOMINAL HEMISPHERE.

Lancinating pain is continuous in general peritonitis and in inflammatory conditions in which the peritoneum shows decided involvement; it is also a symptom of carcinoma involving any of the abdominal organs.

The neuralgia and pain ofttimes associated with herpes zoster will be found to follow the distribution of certain spinal nerves. Neuralgic pains are to be distinguished from other forms of abdominal pain by the well-marked areas of tenderness, and by the fact that symptoms of neuritis may be associated.

Again, pain may result from affections of the skin and abdominal wall, *e. g.*, traumatism, abscesses, and ulceration. Pain situated in the abdominal wall may be dependent upon disease of its bony structures, as the ribs, vertebræ, or pelvis. Pain referable to disease of the vertebræ is usually limited to the median line, is intermittent in character, and oftenest described at a definite point between the ensiform cartilage and the umbilicus. We have seen several cases, both in private and in hospital practice, in which this particular type of abdominal pain was excited by pressure of an abdominal aneurism.

Special attention should be called to abdominal pain when present in children. We have considered such pains in the order of their frequency of occurrence:

(*a*) Dysperistalsis of the intestine, including enterospasm, usually excited by irritation. Obstruction or nervous incoördination is by far the commonest cause of abdominal pain in children under one year of age.

(*b*) Disturbance with the motor function of the stomach, together with pyloric spasm, cardiac spasm, and hour-glass contraction are not infrequent causes of abdominal pain during early life.

(*c*) Spasm of the sphincter of the bladder.

(*d*) Acute catarrhal dysentery.

(*e*) Reflex or referred abdominal pain is rather common in children, and may result from disease of the pleura, pericardium, and lung.

(*f*) Spinal caries.

(*g*) Renal colic.

(*h*) Appendicitis and peritonitis.

INSPECTION OF THE ABDOMEN

One of the most important points to be remembered in making an inspection of the abdomen is that diseases involving extra-abdominal

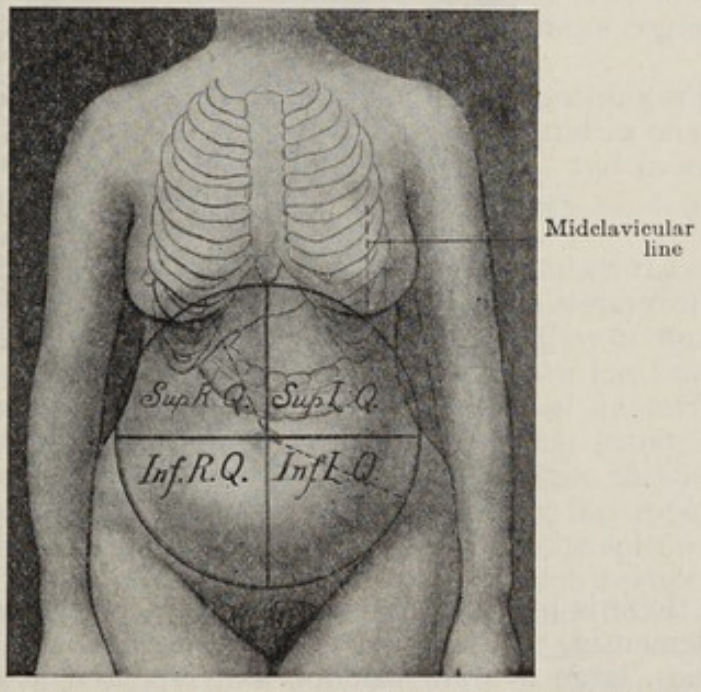


FIG. 181.—ARBITRARY DIVISION OF THE ABDOMEN, SHOWING RELATION OF TRANSVERSE COLON.

organs, *e. g.*, valvular heart disease, may exhibit among their symptoms an abnormal distention of the abdomen. In such conditions the distention is due to ascites. The reverse condition, *i. e.*, abdominal contraction, is a symptom of meningitis and of systemic poisoning, as seen in lead-workers.

Any distention of the abdomen is always suggestive either of unequal muscular development or of disease; in the latter case the form of distention points somewhat directly to the viscus affected. The condition of the skin, whether it be smooth or rough, dry or moist, and the degree of dilatation of the superficial veins should all be taken into consideration in formulating a diagnosis of abdominal affections. The superficial veins of the abdomen are dilated together with the general dilatation of

the veins of the lower extremities, or such distention may depend upon some obstruction to the deeper venous blood in the pelvis or thorax—*e. g.*, organic heart disease, cirrhosis of the liver, adhesive pyelophlebitis, pressure upon the vena cava exerted by tumors of the abdomen or of the thorax. As a rule, the veins are found to be prominent in ascites and in most conditions causing abdominal distention, regardless of whether or not there has been a decided atrophy of the abdominal wall.

A knowledge of the thickness of the abdominal wall is also of decided clinical importance. A thin abdominal wall depends, for the most part, upon an absence of adipose and muscular tissue, and in any given case this may have gone so far as to be due in part to atrophy of the muscular structure. The cause of muscular atrophy should be ascertained, and will be found, in the vast majority of instances, either to depend upon intra-abdominal pressure or to be associated with nutritional affections

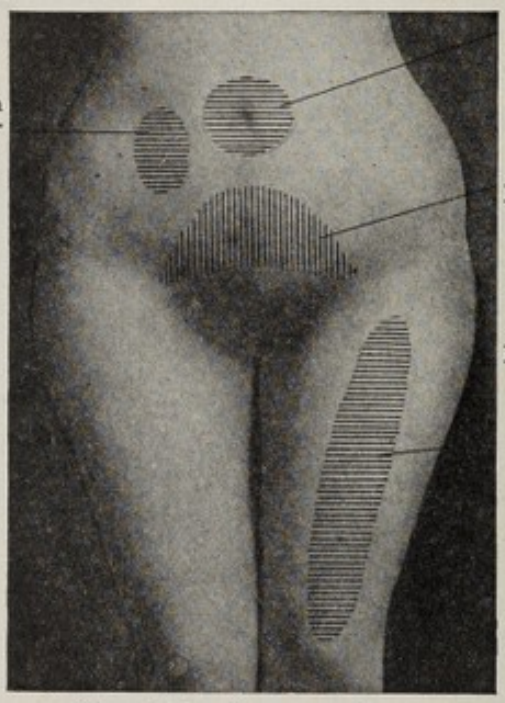


FIG. 182.—AREAS OF PAIN.

in which there is pronounced emaciation—*e. g.*, diabetes, tabes dorsalis, paretic dementia. In the first class of cases should be placed frequent pregnancies, large ovarian tumors, and repeated attacks of ascites, all of which conditions tend to produce a variable degree of atrophy of the abdominal muscles, tuberculosis, and gastro-intestinal catarrh of long standing. When the abdominal wall is thin, the superficial veins are perceptible and may be abnormal.

Further, abdominal distention may result in a separation of the rectus muscles, with hernia-like protrusions between. In several cases seen by us such hernias have followed the exciting conditions previously named; in one case, that of an Italian treated in the wards of the Philadelphia General Hospital, there was pronounced abdominal hernia, the result of enlargement of the liver and of the spleen following malarial infection

Great importance attaches itself to the presence or absence of these hernial projections, and particularly is this true in considering the question of aspiration of the peritoneum. Hernia may be most confusing, as when it appears in portions of the abdomen not commonly affected.

A thick abdominal wall may depend, in part, upon extraordinary muscular development, upon an unusually heavy deposit of fat, or, lastly, upon edema. In health the abdominal thickness is due to muscular development, the position of the umbilicus remaining unchanged. Excessive abdominal fat causes decided folds in the abdomen below the umbilicus, and the umbilical depression will be found below its normal position.

The skin has a somewhat dull appearance, and there are likely to be numerous striæ, but the superficial veins are not prominent. Occasionally, there is an extraordinary dilatation of the veins in the region of the umbilicus, and this mass of dilated veins is referred to as the "caput medusæ."

The abdomen is depressed (scaphoid) in outline during the course of acute dysentery, chronic lead poisoning, and when a duodenal or gastric ulcer penetrates to the peritoneal tissue. There are to be seen distinct furrow-like depressions over the superior portion of the abdomen following perforation of an ulcer. Extreme emaciation may account for the so-called scaphoid abdomen.

Movements of the Abdomen.—Under normal conditions the abdominal movements may depend upon respiration, vascular pulsation, gastric movement, intestinal movements (peristalsis), fetal movements, and the changes of position of floating viscera or tumors coincidentally with the change of the patient's position.

Abdominal movement or the abdominal type of breathing is increased by organic disease of the lungs, a large quantity of fluid in one or other pleural cavity, mediastinal tumor, thoracic aneurism, and in conditions that materially inhibit a lateral expansion of the lungs, as, *e. g.*, pleural adhesions and emphysema.

Under normal conditions the upper half of the abdomen rises and falls synchronously with inspiration and expiration. The respiratory expansion is diminished by the presence of a large quantity of fluid in the peritoneal sac, tuberculosis of the peritoneum, general or local peritonitis, peritoneal adhesions the result either of disease or of operative interference with the abdominal viscera, and by abdominal tumor. Conditions that interfere with the descent of the diaphragm also lessen the abdominal expansion—*e. g.*, ascites, tumors occupying the upper portion of the abdomen, and enlargement of the liver and of the spleen.

In paralysis of the diaphragm a reverse phenomenon occurs with the respiratory movements—*e. g.*, the size of the abdomen diminishes with inspiration, whereas a feeble degree of expansion takes place during expiration. A peculiar respiratory movement of the abdomen is also observed in the presence of obstruction to the larynx and upper respiratory tract, resembling somewhat closely that seen in paralysis of the diaphragm.

If there is enlargement of either the liver or the spleen, the enlarged organ will be seen to rise and fall synchronously with respiration, and the movement of such viscus is usually referred to as "the shadow." Movements of the abdomen are of great value in making a diagnosis of tumors either of the liver or the spleen, since tumors that are not attached to either of these organs are but little, if at all, influenced by respiration. Exceptions to this general rule, however, occur—*e. g.*, when a tumor of the right kidney is seen to fall and rise synchronously with respiration, a phenomenon readily explained by the fact that in such cases the kidney is permanently adherent to the liver.

Vascular Movements.—Abdominal movement due to vascular pulsation is usually observed in the median line, the exception being in the case of pulsation of the liver, a feature sometimes seen to accompany tricuspid regurgitation. In subjects in whom the abdominal wall is thin, pulsation of the aorta is perceptible; and either localized or diffuse pulsation is to be seen when there is aneurism of the abdominal aorta or of one of its branches. Decided pulsation near the umbilicus is suggestive of aneurism of the celiac axis.

Tumors of moderate size overlying the aorta may give rise to movement of the abdominal wall, such movements being synchronous with the impulse of the artery. Epigastric pulsation in the median line or slightly to the left may be the result of a dilated right ventricle. (See Cardiac Dilatation, p. 329.)

Gastric Movements.—The movements of both the stomach and the intestines may be seen through the abdominal wall, and are especially marked when there is a high grade of peristalsis. The peristaltic movements are increased in dilatation of the stomach and gastroptosis, in which conditions they appear in somewhat rhythmic succession, and usually extend from left to right. Movements of the large intestine will be seen to follow the course of the colon, and may appear on either side or in the median line, at the top of the abdomen. In coloptosis the movement of the colon may be in the median line, on a level with or below the umbilicus.

All movements of the intestines, and even those of the stomach, may be increased by any condition in which obstructive lesions of the lumen of the bowel exist. In complete intestinal obstruction a reverse peristaltic wave is commonly visible, becoming more and more evident until there is regurgitation of the contents of the bowel into the stomach, with vomiting of fecal material. Movement of the small intestines may be greatly increased after the ingestion of certain foods—*e. g.*, unripe fruit—and such drugs as jalap, elaterium, sodium phosphate, and magnesium.

Contour of Abdomen.—The general contour of the normal abdomen is familiar to every physician, but in order to obtain the valuable knowledge to be gained by inspection, it is necessary for him to get a front, lateral, and three-quarter view of this portion of the body.

When there is general enlargement of the abdomen, the increase is nearly symmetric. Uniform enlargement results from ascites, provided the abdominal wall is thick and muscular; but if the abdominal wall is relaxed, the contour may be more or less pear-shaped when the patient is standing, and again flattened along the lateral boundaries when the recumbent posture is assumed. The abdomen is pendulous when the enlargement is dependent upon fat deposited in the abdominal wall.

Localized enlargement of the abdomen causes the surface to be irregular at some given point, and will be further discussed in conjunction with diseases of the abdominal viscera. The abdomen may be uniformly distended in hysteria, and a prominence of the lower portion of the abdomen may be dependent upon retention of the urine.

A retracted or scaphoid abdomen is seen during the course of chronic maladies, such as lead-poisoning (Fig. 233), carcinoma, tuberculosis, and diabetes. In these maladies the abdominal wall is found to be very thin, and consequently an undue prominence of the viscera, particularly of the liver, may produce local enlargement.

The size of the abdomen will be found to vary greatly in different persons, this variation depending not only upon the thickness of the

abdominal muscles or the deposit of fat in the abdominal wall, but also upon the amount of fat deposited in the omentum, and upon the caliber of both the small and the large intestines.

The caliber of the small intestine is greatly increased in persons who eat heavily and whose habits are sedentary. Prominence of the abdomen due to the desposit of fat or to enlargement of the intestine is to be distinguished from the enlargement accompanying true obesity, since in the latter condition there is a general deposit of fat throughout the subcutaneous tissues.

Abdominal prominence due to new-growths, ascites, pregnancy, and cysts is easily distinguished from the foregoing types of enlargement, since in the former conditions there are likely to be evidences of a variable degree of emaciation.

Causes for general and local enlargement of the abdomen are divided for clinical study into the following: General enlargement, local enlargement, enlargements due to oversize of solid viscera; to distention of hollow viscera; to fluid; to cystic and solid tumors; to physiologic causes, and to abnormalities (tumors and overgrowths) in the abdominal wall.

General Enlargement

Distention of the bowel and stomach by gas,
Distention of hollow viscera following surgical operation,
Ascites (serous),
Ascites hemorrhagic or chylous,
Obesity,
Adiposis dolorosa,
Intestinal obstruction.

Local Swelling (Upper Half)

Cancer of liver,
Sarcoma of liver,
Cyanotic liver,
Fatty liver,
Amyloid liver,
Leukemic liver,
Malarial liver,
Enlargement of spleen,
Aneurysm of abdominal aorta,
Hypertrophic cirrhosis.

Local Swelling (Lower Half)

Perinephritic abscess,
Sarcoma of kidney,
Hydronephrosis,
Pregnancy,
Uterine fibroid,
Displacement of stomach and intestine.
Ovarian cyst,
Ectopic gestation,
Malignancy,
Distention of bladder,
Enormous dilatation of stomach,
Dilatation of bladder.

Abdominal Wall

Phantom tumor,
Nodules in adiposis dolorosa.

The abdominal contraction method as given by L. Winfield Cohen should be employed routinely in conjunction with other approved methods. Maintained voluntary abdominal contraction and its effects upon the solid and hollow viscera, abdominal wall (its openings), rectal disease, and growths of the female organs of reproduction is today receiving much attention.

Technic.—(1) Direct the patient to inspire deeply (and while the lungs are inflated and the diaphragm lowered by holding the breath):

(2) Bring into action the abdominal muscles, in a "baring down" effort, and at the same time relax the muscles of the perineum (approaching the act of defecation).

(3) The abdominal viscera are forced downward, intra-abdominal tension is increased, the stomach appears to be driven anteriorally in the abdomen, and varying effects are shown in other abdominal organs. Inspection, palpation, percussion, auditory percussion, and auscultation are often facilitated by the abdominal contraction method.

EXAMINATION OF THE STOMACH

General Remarks.—The stomach is an expanded portion of the alimentary canal, the food being retained in this expansion partly for the purpose of effecting solution, and partly in order to become thoroughly saturated by the secretions of the mouth and of the stomach. The stomach-wall is made up of three coats—an interior or mucous coat, a middle or muscular layer, and an external or peritoneal coat. When one or more of these coats become diseased, definite symptoms arise; in many types of gastric disorder all the coats of the stomach may be involved.

It must be remembered that the mucous and muscular coats of the stomach-wall are richly supplied with blood-vessels, and that erosion or congestion of the wall is likely to be followed by an extravasation of blood into the cavity of the stomach. The stomach-wall is also abundantly supplied with nerves, and its relation to the pneumogastric nerve, as well as to numerous sympathetic plexuses, may give rise to certain symptoms. Disease of remotely situated organs may display, as the most prominent symptoms, those manifestations also referable to disease of the stomach.

CHARACTER OF EVIDENCE TO BE OBTAINED BY INQUIRY

Family History.—Heredity is seldom an important factor in diseases of the stomach, except in two conditions, *e. g.*, gastric neuroses and gastric carcinoma.

Social History.—In but few diseases is special inquiry into the social condition of the patient of such vital clinical importance as in gastric affections. Many stomach disorders have their origin in neurasthenia, or in the various forms of dissipation and overwork, *e. g.*, overeating, improper mastication, insufficient exercise, excessive mental strain, overwork, and the abuse of alcohol. They may also arise as the result of the improper functioning of some other organ, as, for example, the liver, pancreas, intestines, kidneys, heart.

(*a*) The time consumed for the ingestion of a meal and the character of the food eaten are matters of special importance. Overeating, and particularly the ingestion of rich and highly seasoned foods, is one of the commonest causes of gastric disorders. Too frequent eating and the habit of taking food between meals are highly detrimental, since the stomach is not permitted to get sufficient rest. Thorough mastication is also important. Unless the food is well mixed with the saliva, starch digestion is materially impaired. Again, the taking of alcoholic stimulants and the excessive use of narcotics and tobacco tend to inhibit digestion.

(*b*) **Exercise and Occupation.**—Persons of sedentary habits are especially prone to develop gastro-intestinal disorders; for this reason the amount of exercise taken daily must be carefully ascertained in order to determine the nature of the disease present.

Occupations that do not allow sufficient outdoor exercise to be taken, or that necessitate frequent or continuous exposure to such toxic substances as lead, arsenic, mercury, and gases, constitute a common cause of gastric disorders. A history of the ingestion of corrosive substances also points strongly toward gastritis. Occupation is of further importance to the clinician, since cooks, clerks, seamstresses, tailors, shoemakers, and carpenters are particularly subject to gastric catarrh and to gastric ulcer.

(*c*) **Mental Strain and Overwork.**—Overwork, either mental or physical, interferes with the proper functioning of the stomach; thus the practice of doing heavy work immediately or within an hour after taking a full meal lessens the activity of the gastric glands and consequently diminishes the gastric secretion. Those who do not rest after the ingestion of a full meal sooner or later develop gastric inactivity.

(*d*) **Local affections,** either intra-abdominal or extra-abdominal, may occur either as a complication of or as a sequel to, disease of the stomach. Impairment of hepatic function of whatever nature gives rise to the development of a variable degree of indigestion. Pathologic changes in the liver that interfere with the return circulation from the stomach are frequent, and are best exemplified by atrophic hepatic cirrhosis, with ascites.

Pancreatic disease may manifest gastric insufficiency as one of its symptoms, and *nephritis* and diseases of the *intestine* may also give rise to the symptoms of indigestion. Organic heart disease, when sufficiently pronounced, is a cause of venous stasis of the gastric mucous membrane, which interferes with gastric secretion.

(*e*) **Age.**—Early adult life—fourteen to thirty years—predisposes to the development of gastric disorders, but such predisposition is probably due to lack of care both as to the character of the food ingested and the regularity with which such foods are taken. In women gastric maladies are common at the menopause.

(*f*) **Sex** exercises but slight influence on diseases of the stomach.

(*g*) **Previous Diseases.**—Gastric disease may follow certain of the infectious conditions, when it is a direct result either of the preceding infection or of imperfect innervation. Any prolonged illness, whether acute or chronic, that materially impoverishes the system predisposes to the development of gastric disease.

(*h*) Finally, any abdominal growth that causes pressure upon the sympathetic nerve-supply of the abdomen may provoke the symptoms of gastric disease. Relaxation of the muscles of the abdominal wall, by permitting displacement of the stomach or of other abdominal viscera, is often followed by symptoms of gastritis; therefore a history of the previous existence of ascites, abdominal tumor, and repeated pregnancies is of great importance to the clinician.

LEADING FEATURES AND THEIR SIGNIFICANCE

Disordered Appetite.—(1) **Anorexia.**—*Definition.*—The appetite is impaired, or there may be no desire whatever for food.

Anorexia is an early symptom in nearly all infections, and also occurs during the course of many chronic afebrile and febrile maladies. In disease of the stomach, however, the presence or absence of anorexia is of great importance in formulating a diagnosis. Loss of appetite may be present in organic disease of the stomach, and more particularly in carcinoma, and is not infrequent in gastric neuroses with gastric hyperesthesia. When the appetite is greatly impaired for prolonged periods, food is often repugnant, and the patient may go for days or even weeks without sufficient food to provide for the general bodily nutrition, and, as a consequence, the symptoms of malnutrition develop.

Prominent among the causes of anorexia are: Excessive mental strain, mental shock, anxiety, imperfectly prepared foods, and starvation. The use of such drugs as digitalis, strophanthus, the salicylates, opium, the iodids, etc., may be followed by anorexia.

(2) **Bulimia, also Known as Hyperorexia.**—*Definition.*—A symptom characterized by an excessive appetite for practically all kinds of food.

Bulimia is nearly always pathologic in origin, although some persons who are apparently healthy consume extraordinary amounts of food both at and between meals. During convalescence from typhoid fever and other prolonged febrile conditions the appetite is, as a rule, excessive. In diabetes mellitus one of the earliest symptoms is overeating, and this usually persists until late in the course of the disease. Bulimia is an occasional symptom in neuroses of the stomach, neurasthenia, and hysteria, and in these conditions epigastric distress and even pain are alleviated by the taking of large amounts of food. A child whose intestinal tract is infested by lumbricoid worms often develops this symptom. An abnormal appetite may develop after hemiplegia, monoplegia, epileptic seizures, or during the course of meningitis, migraine, ataxia, Huntington's chorea and other nervous conditions, and in certain types of insanity.

In a case of carcinoma of the retroperitoneal glands, recently seen, this peculiar type of appetite persisted for several months.

(3) **Polyphagia** is a condition in which the feeling of satisfaction after a meal is so delayed that there is a constant desire for more food.

(4) **Parorexia or Perverted Appetite.**—(*a*) *Malacia* is a condition in which there is a desire for highly spiced and acid foods, *e. g.*, pickles, salads, mustard, pepper, and the like. This symptom is present in neurasthenia, chronic gastritis, intestinal putrefaction, chlorosis, pregnancy, pylorospasm and the secondary anemias of young women.

(*b*) *Pica* is an abnormal craving for substances other than natural food, such as dirt, crayon, the wood from pencils, blades of grass, straw, and the like. The condition is suggestive of neurasthenia and hysteria, and is seen in children infected with intestinal parasites, and in girls at or near the time of puberty. It is also encountered in chronic gastritis and in anemic individuals.

(*c*) *Allotriophagia* is a desire for disgusting substances, such as urine and feces; it has been seen in insane persons.

Thirst.—An excessive thirst may result from a variety of conditions, many of which are not connected with the stomach.

Physiologic thirst develops as a result of free perspiration, and is intensified by the taking of drugs that induce purging, *e. g.*, aloin, elaterium, atropine, salt-foods, and magnesia.

Pathologic thirst is one of the cardinal symptoms of diabetes mellitus, and follows either acute or chronic conditions in which there are excessive evaporation and combustion, such as typhoid fever and scarlet fever. Thirst also occurs in any condition that causes rapid removal of a large quantity of the liquid elements of the blood, *e. g.*, a hot bath, hemorrhage, diarrhea, dysentery, and vomiting.

Thirst is a prominent feature of acute gastritis, and the desire for liquids is increased during the course of chronic gastritis, this symptom becoming markedly intensified whenever an exacerbation of the latter disease occurs.

The ingestion of certain substances increases the desire for liquids, *e. g.*, alcohol and alcoholic substances and highly seasoned foods, particularly salt meats and fish.

Taste.—In diseases of the stomach, particularly in acute and chronic gastric catarrh, the taste is abnormal (offensive). An offensive taste is a prominent symptom of the form of acute gastritis known as *biliousness*. The taste is perverted, dull, or absent during the fastigium of typhoid

fever, at the height of acute gastritis, and during acute exacerbations of chronic intestinal catarrh. In practically all febrile conditions in which the tongue is coated the sense of taste is markedly impaired, and the patient desires only highly spiced and acid foods.

Chronic diseases of the tonsils, pharynx, esophagus, and posterior nares are usually accompanied by an unpleasant taste and halitosis upon rising in the morning although in some instances it may be present throughout the day. In dilatation of the esophagus, gastrectasis, pulmonary abscess, pulmonary gangrene, and abscess of the liver that has ruptured into the lung the taste is somewhat sweet, and more pronounced after coughing, vomiting, and clearing the throat.

A highly acid taste is suggestive of hyperacidity of the stomach, and is frequently seen in gastric ulcer, and in conditions dependent upon an excess of free hydrochloric acid. In dilatation of the stomach with atrophic gastritis and in carcinoma an acid taste is extremely common, and is usually dependent upon increased acidity, due to an excess of lactic and of butyric acid. An alkaline taste is occasionally described by hysteric individuals.

Lastly, taste may be modified or absent as a result of disease of the nerves of special sense, particularly those of taste and of smell. Whenever the sense of smell is absent, the taste is greatly modified, and, as a rule, much less acute than in health.

Pyrosis and Regurgitation.—Definition.—The eructation of either liquids or gases, which cause a burning sensation in the esophagus, throat, and mouth. These symptoms are generally associated with some pathologic condition of the stomach. There may be eructation of gas, liquids, and particles of undigested food, the condition then being known as *pyrosis with regurgitation*. There are exceptional instances in which the fluid that rises to the mouth is alkaline in reaction and comparatively tasteless. Pyrosis must be distinguished from vomiting; in the former the fluid is ejected without any effort upon the part of the patient, and without either gastric discomfort or pain. The fluid brought up, when alkaline, may consist of saliva that has accumulated in some sacculation or expanded portion of the esophagus. Saliva when ejected possesses the power of digesting starches.

Alkaline fluids are regurgitated during or immediately after the ingestion of food, whereas acid liquids are more likely to be ejected one or more hours after food has been taken and points strongly to the existence of stricture of the esophagus.

Pyrosis is a symptom of overeating, acute gastritis, alcoholic gastritis, chronic gastritis with fermentation, gastric ulcer, and other conditions in which there is hyperchlorhydria or hyperacidity of the gastric contents from whatever cause.

Gastric secretion is not without influence by the hormones arising from the adrenal tissue. The only means of diagnosis, in this connection, is through the administration of adrenal nucleoproteid and adrenal extracts. Hyperacidity is not only temporarily relieved, but is controlled in selected cases by the administration of these drugs (therapeutic test).

The regurgitation of foods from the stomach may be accompanied by a burning sensation and the eructation of a variable amount of gas or liquid. At certain times gastric fluid alone is regurgitated, whereas at others large quantities of food are brought up. When the patient chews the regurgitated food and swallows it again, the condition is termed rumination; this is a symptom of neurasthenia, hysteria, and insanity.

Hiccough.—Definition.—A peculiar clicking sound that follows spasm of the diaphragm and the rushing of air through the glottis.

Epidemic hiccough appears as a brief illness of from one to five days, terminating in recovery. It is characterized by attacks where the hiccough occurs from six to ten times per minute. The spasmodic seizures are usually intermittent. A brief prodromal period wherein there is slight fever, vague pains, and malaise usually antedates hiccough. During the attacks there is slight fever, and a sense of exhaustion. Epidemic hiccough has recently been suggested as occurring at the same time when epidemic encephalitis is prevalent.

A diagnosis of epidemic hiccough should be made only after one has exhausted all clinical methods for the detection of an abdominal condition that might account for the spasmodic seizures.

According to the causal factors singultus may be divided into the following clinical varieties: (1) simple; (2) inflammation; (3) irritative; (4) traumatic; (5) specific; (6) neurotic; and (7) toxic.

Simple hiccough may result when the patient changes from a warm to a cold atmosphere; the drinking of cold liquids; cold baths; the eating of certain foods; and from the use of tobacco, narcotics and beverages.

The inflammatory type appears in such conditions as gastritis, appendicitis, suppurative hepatitis, pancreatic diseases, peritonitis and nearly



FIG. 183.—TRACING OF RESPIRATORY MOVEMENTS IN A CASE OF HICCOUGH.

all conditions that are accompanied by high temperature. In acute inflammatory conditions of the abdomen persistent hiccough is of serious omen.

Singultus the result of trauma and shock from operation is a grave feature. In apoplexy and brain tumor, it is always an unfavorable sign. Injury to the various abdominal nerves and handling of the abdominal viscera frequently causes fatal hiccough.

During the later stage of nephritis, singultus may be an annoying feature. Late during the course of gout, malaria, diabetes and chronic heart disease, the appearances of this sign renders the disease more serious. Cheyne-Stokes breathing is often present in persons suffering from hiccough.

Nausea usually precedes vomiting, although in many persons vomiting is apparently impossible, whereas nausea may be a most annoying symptom. Nausea is a feature of many extragastric conditions, but it may follow the taking of certain foods or irritating substances. The odor of a certain food or liquid often excites nausea, and many persons are nauseated at the mere sight of certain forms of food. Hyperacidity of the stomach-contents is a frequent cause of nausea, as are also disease of the esophagus, chronic pharyngitis, and chronic postnasal catarrh.

Nausea may follow the accumulation of toxins within the stomach, and not infrequently occurs after traumatism to the head, brain tumor, at the sight of blood, or on witnessing an accident. It is a common symptom of chronic interstitial nephritis, general arterial sclerosis, organic heart disease with tricuspid regurgitation in which there is an associated venous

stasis of the gastric mucosa. Nausea is occasionally seen in cirrhosis of the liver, obstructive jaundice, and chronic enterocolitis. Abdominal or thoracic tumors pressing upon the sympathetic nervous system, *e. g.*, ovarian cysts, abdominal aneurisms and uterine fibroids, and pregnancy may excite nausea and vomiting.

Whenever the cause of nausea is in doubt, an examination of the external auditory canal should be made, since pressure upon the membrana tympani may give rise to this symptom. Eye-strain, due to defects either in the cornea or in the deeper structures of the eye, may also induce temporary attacks of nausea. Drugs may excite nausea, *e. g.*, digitalis, and morphine.

Vomiting is a phenomenon due to a coincident, spontaneous contraction of the abdominal muscles and diaphragm, together with a relaxation of the muscles at the cardiac end of the stomach. Spasm of the muscles at the cardiac portion of the stomach serves to explain why many persons are unable to vomit even when there is violent retching, due to contraction of both the diaphragm and the abdominal muscles. The center for vomiting is said by physiologists to be located in the medulla oblongata, contiguous to that for respiration. Nerves from practically all parts of the body, and particularly from the liver, intestine, kidneys, lungs, esophagus, uterus, and bladder, and from the special sense centers, convey impressions to the center for vomiting, and this fact serves to explain why vomiting is so often reflex in character.

The vomiting of acute infections, *e. g.*, scarlet fever or small-pox, may be dependent upon a specific irritant circulating through the vomiting center, or upon an associated congestion of some other portion of the body that has direct communication with that center. The latter explanation serves, in a measure, at least, to explain the vomiting of uremia, auto-intoxication, and allied conditions. The question has arisen as to whether or not the vomiting of hysteria is central in origin.

In attempting to determine the actual origin and significance of vomiting careful inquiry must be made into its nature, duration, time of development, the manner in which it began, what is believed to have precipitated the first attack, the quantity of vomitus ejected each time, the character of the material vomited, the condition of the bowels, and the patient's general health.

Types of Vomiting.—(*a*) The vomiting of acute infections and inflammation of the stomach.

(*b*) The vomiting of chronic conditions of the stomach: (1) Chronic gastritis. (2) Vomiting of gastric ulcer. (3) Vomiting of gastric carcinoma. (4) Vomiting of atrophic gastritis with dilatation.

(*c*) Vomiting of acute infectious diseases.

(*d*) Cerebral vomiting.

(*e*) Reflex vomiting: (1) Cyclic vomiting. (2) Vomiting of peritonitis. (3) Vomiting of pulmonary tuberculosis. (4) Uremic vomiting.

(*a*) The **vomiting of acute gastritis** is quite characteristic, since it develops after the free ingestion of indigestible foods and alcoholic liquors; the use of such drugs as opium, the bromids, the salicylates, the iodids, and toxic doses of arsenic and mercury.

Nausea is a precursor of the vomiting of acute gastritis, and epigastric distress or pain is usually present.

The patient is greatly weakened by the act of vomiting, and often, in addition to exhaustion, his skin becomes cold and covered with beads of perspiration. The first vomitus contains particles of undigested food, and after the stomach has been relieved of this, the patient vomits only

mucus, to which is added a large quantity of saliva. If the vomiting continues, the patient ejects a greenish-yellow material which owes its color to the admixture of bile. After repeated attacks of vomiting the vomitus is not infrequently streaked with blood.

The conditions known to cause vomiting of blood are: (1) Acute gastritis. (2) Gastric ulcer. (3) Gastric carcinoma. (4) Ulcer of the esophagus. (5) Carcinoma of the esophagus. (6) Varicosity of the esophageal veins. (7) Prolonged vomiting of doubtful cause. (8) Cirrhosis of the liver. (9) Organic heart disease with tricuspid regurgitation. (10) Introduction of corrosive substances into the stomach. (11) Tuberculosis of the stomach. (12) Profound anemias, either primary or secondary. (13) Vicarious menstruation. (14) Blood swallowed and coming from the mouth, throat, or upper air-passages. (15) Extensive cutaneous burns.

(*b*) **Vomiting in Chronic Conditions of the Stomach.**—(1) The *vomitus of chronic gastritis* differs from that seen in acute inflammation of the stomach in appearance, chemic reaction, and effect upon the patient. "I have repeatedly found the material vomited in chronic gastric catarrh to be acid in reaction, unless, as occasionally happens, the vomiting takes place several hours after eating, when it is sometimes faintly alkaline or neutral" (Anders).

Vomiting does not cause extreme prostration in chronic gastric maladies, and even though marked emaciation is present, it is unsafe to conclude that gastric carcinoma exists without making a chemic analysis of the stomach-contents. The earliest reliable evidence of cancer is obtained by *x*-ray studies.

If the vomitus of chronic gastritis should display an abnormally high total acidity, special quantitative tests should be made to ascertain the amount of free hydrochloric and lactic acid present. Acid salts, lactic acid, and butyric acid may be in excess, and the amount of hydrochloric acid may be greatly below that of the normal. (See Tests for Gastric Contents, p. 507.) The characteristic vomitus of the different types of chronic gastritis will be further considered together with a description of this affection.

(2) *Vomitus of Gastric Ulcer.*—Vomiting is one of the most constant symptoms of gastric ulcer, and occurs either immediately after or within from one-half to one and one-half hours after the taking of food. It is always preceded by acute pain, which subsides as the vomiting ceases.

In ulcer the vomitus contains particles of the food previously ingested, and in approximately 30 per cent. of all cases blood is present. If careful analyses of the vomitus for the presence of blood are repeatedly made, the evidences of minute hemorrhages will probably be found.

(3) *Vomiting of Carcinoma.*—Gastric carcinoma is almost always accompanied by vomiting, although it may not occur until the carcinomatous process has attacked the gastric wall; as a rule, however, vomiting takes place early, and continues until a fatal termination occurs. The location of the carcinoma and the degree of ulceration or of sclerosis of the gastric wall materially influence the time of its occurrence and the character of the vomitus. The macroscopic appearance of the vomitus of carcinoma is not characteristic, as was formerly held.

The frequency of vomiting will be found to vary greatly, depending upon the size of the carcinoma and upon its location on the stomach-wall. Vomiting occurs a variable time after the taking of food, and is preceded by a deep-seated boring pain, which is not relieved by emptying the stomach.

If the carcinoma is situated at the cardiac portion of the stomach, vomiting takes place almost immediately after the ingestion of food, but if the lesion is near the pylorus, it is deferred for some hours. In carcinoma of the pylorus with a variable degree of obstruction dilatation of the stomach follows, and in such instances copious vomiting may occur only once or twice during the week. If there is oozing of blood into the stomach, the vomitus is brownish or bluish in color—the so-called "coffee-ground" vomitus of gastric carcinoma.

Chemically, the vomitus of gastric carcinoma frequently shows a deficiency in free hydrochloric acid, and, indeed, in many instances free hydrochloric acid is absent. A still more constant finding is that of lactic acid, which is usually present in large amounts, as is also butyric acid.

Caution.—A diagnosis of carcinoma of the stomach cannot be made from an analysis of the vomitus alone, unless cancer tissue is found in vomitus, since similar findings are rarely met in the gastric fluids of other chronic conditions in which malnutrition and neurasthenia figure prominently.

(4) *Vomiting of Gastric Dilatation.*—In this condition the character of the material ejected from the stomach is in many ways characteristic of the pathologic changes that have taken place. In striking contrast to the vomiting of gastric ulcer and of gastric carcinoma, we here find that the patient does not vomit at any stipulated time after the taking of food, nor does the character of food taken in any way influence the time of vomiting. Depending upon the degree of dilatation, an abnormally large quantity (from two to eight quarts) of partially digested food is ejected. The vomitus often contains particles of food that have been taken days before, and that have remained in the stomach without undergoing decided alteration. If the degree of gastric dilatation is great, free hydrochloric acid may be absent from the vomitus, whereas lactic and fatty acids are, as a rule, present.

(*c*) *Vomitus of Obstruction of the Esophagus.*—Here the vomitus is expectorated, and not in reality vomited, and the food is regurgitated in practically the same form as taken. When cancer of the esophagus exists, the ejected material may contain blood. Whenever well-marked dilatation of the esophagus is present food taken may undergo decomposition and emit an offensive odor. Material regurgitated from the esophagus presents considerable saliva, which floats upon the surface. Duodenal vomitus is alkaline or neutral in reaction.

(*d*) **Vomiting of Acute Infections.**—Virulent forms of infection, such as small-pox, scarlet fever, yellow fever, or pneumonia, are often ushered in by vomiting, and the severity of the vomiting is directly dependent upon the severity of the type of infection.

The vomitus of the acute infections at first contains undigested food, but later it is nearly mucoid in consistence. If the attack of vomiting continues over a period of several hours, blood may be ejected. When the vomitus contains blood, before retching has occurred, hemorrhagic forms of infection are to be suspected.

Chemic analysis of the vomitus of the acute infections shows that the normal quantity of free hydrochloric acid is present, and at times traces of lactic acid are also demonstrable. There is nothing characteristic of the vomitus of acute infections, and it is often with great difficulty that one is able to distinguish this form of vomiting from that caused by dietetic errors.

(*e*) **Cerebral Vomiting.**—At times the physician encounters severe vomiting that is dependent upon pathologic cerebral conditions, *e. g.*,

brain tumor, acute meningitis, chronic meningitis, and early in apoplexy. The vomiting of apoplexy is associated with definite symptoms and signs of cerebral hemorrhage, whereas other types of cerebral vomiting are not accompanied by characteristic symptoms.

Vomiting of Locomotor Ataxia.—During the course of this disease violent attacks of vomiting and pain occur periodically, which are known as "gastric crises." The vomitus of ataxic crises, in addition to containing particles of undigested food, is highly acid in reaction.

If the vomiting should continue for a prolonged period, there are profound exhaustion and anuria. In asthenic cases of ataxia circulatory collapse frequently follows these gastric crises.

(*f*) **Reflex Vomiting.**—A condition in which vomiting occurs without appreciable pathologic change in the stomach.

As previously stated, vomiting may be induced reflexly, and be dependent upon disease in organs remotely situated from the stomach, or it may be caused by the sight of certain substances, as blood and horrible scenes, or by certain odors. Pain of whatever nature is one of the commonest causes of this symptom.

In determining whether or not the vomiting is of reflex nature, it is necessary for the physician to ascertain the existence or non-existence of disease or irritation of other organs than the stomach. When it is possible to determine the seat of an irritation, an impression of which is in turn conveyed to the vomiting center, the removal of such irritation is followed by relief. Probably the best example of reflex vomiting is that occurring in early pregnancy, before the uterus has risen above the brim of the pelvis, while it exerts pressure upon the pelvic sympathetic nerves. It must be borne in mind that any abdominal growth causing similar pressure may excite vomiting.

(1) *Cyclic Vomiting.*—A pathologic type of vomiting first described by Leyden, characterized by its sudden onset and the severity of the retching. Snow has suggested that the cause of these attacks is probably a gastric neurosis, whereas other writers hold that it is quite difficult to distinguish cyclic vomiting from the vomiting of uremia and that of toxic origin. The vomitus first contains the contents of the stomach, but later becomes mucoid in character. Chemically, the first vomitus is practically normal, but later it may contain no hydrochloric acid. In adults cyclic vomiting is not accompanied by a rise in the temperature, but in children fever is generally present.

Among the symptoms associated with cyclic vomiting are extreme prostration, retraction of the abdominal muscles, and a tendency toward circulatory collapse. After the vomiting has persisted for an hour or more the expression becomes anxious, the cheeks are sunken, and the extremities are beaded with cold perspiration.

(2) *Vomiting of Peritonitis.*—Reflex vomiting may be caused by both acute and chronic peritonitis. The vomitus of peritonitis is likely to contain bile after the stomach has become empty. In persons suffering from renal, hepatic, and uterine colic it is often difficult to determine whether or not peritonitis is present, but the fact that this form of vomiting usually subsides with the disappearance of the pain would indicate that the peritoneum is not involved.

(3) *Vomiting of Pulmonary Tuberculosis.*—In pulmonary tuberculosis with cavity formation the patient usually experiences a paroxysmal attack of coughing soon after rising in the morning, and during this attack the throat becomes so irritated that the contents of the stomach are ejected. It must be remembered that gastric ulcer may be present

in those suffering from pulmonary tuberculosis, in which case the characteristic features of the vomiting of the latter condition may also be present.

(4) *Vomiting of Uremia.*—This type of vomiting seldom, if ever, occurs unless albumin or casts, or probably both, are present in the urine. It should not be forgotten that a urine of low specific gravity may contain neither albumin nor casts, and yet the patient suffers from attacks of uremic vomiting. Again, it is of further interest to note that these patients do, at some time or other, show both albumin and casts in their urine, but the albuminuria is, as a rule, intermittent, and the amount of albumin passed with the urine is slight.

Uremic vomiting occurs most often during the morning hours, but may take place at any time during the day or night. Vomiting commonly follows several hours' exposure to cold, and also occurs after partaking of a meal rich in albumins.

In practically all persons suffering from uremic vomiting the arterial tension is high, the pulse is slow but wiry, the heart-sounds are forcible, and there is evidence of a variable degree of cardiac hypertrophy.

Pain.—Types.—Epigastric pain may be moderate, severe, or intense. The terms *cardialgia, gastrodynia,* and *gastralgia* are used to designate these pains. They are all somewhat synonymous, and all are used in a more or less restricted sense by various writers.

Cardialgia properly means neuralgia of the stomach, but is sometimes defined as "severe paroxysmal pain in the epigastrium in the absence of gastric lesions" (Anders). Cardiospasm is probably accountable for this type of pain.

Gastrodynia is a term applied to severe, cramp-like pains in the stomach region. The phenomenon may or may not be associated with organic disease of the stomach and depends in a great measure upon pylorospasm.

Gastralgia means pain in the stomach.

Flatulence is a term applied to an accumulation of gas in the stomach and intestines.

Attacks of epigastric pain often begin as a mere sensation of discomfort in the epigastrium, which gradually increases until distinct painful sensations of varying severity are experienced. Attacks of pain are seen in atonic dyspepsia, catarrhal gastritis, the gastric neuroses, gastric ulcer, gastric carcinoma, localized peritonitis, etc.

During the paroxysm, the patient displays a variable degree of shock, the severity of which is dependent upon the degree of pain and the length of time it has existed. In severe cases the skin becomes cold, clammy, and beaded with perspiration. The expression is anxious, and the pulse is weak and rapid.

Pylorospasm.—Spasm at the pylorus is indeed the most common cause for abdominal pain. Spasm of the pylorus is, as a rule, a reflex condition, which occurs during the course of disease of the gall bladder, disease of the duodenum (both ulcer and duodenitis); plugging of the common duct; appendicitis; carcinoma, and ulcer of the stomach; diseases of the esophagus (especially ulcer, stricture and spasm). Therefore, whenever pain that is spasmodic in character, located in the epigastrium, it suggests some one of these conditions. Pylorospasm may result after the ingestion of irritating food and corrosive poisons, in which case it accompanies acute gastritis. Pylorospasms result from the intake of certain irritating, but non-poisonous foods; *e. g.*, apples, peaches, grapes, certain nuts, fish, etc., and in this connection it is regarded as anaphylactic.

From the foregoing statements, it is clear that the pain of pylorospasm is to be considered, and weighed carefully in connection with most diseases involving this region.

Cardiospasm causes pain and tenderness at the tip of the ensiform cartilage.

Pain of Ulcer.—During the active stage of ulcer soreness upon pressure over the epigastrium is a constant finding. Upon taking food the discomfort is immediately aggravated, and localized pain occurs. The pain may radiate from the point of localized tenderness to the back, and is most intense just to the left of the spinal column and along the inner border of the scapula. In atypical cases the pain of ulcer may not develop for from one-half to one hour after food is taken.

In uncomplicated cases of gastric ulcer the pain is appreciably lessened, and oftentimes disappears after vomiting. During the course of the disease the patient may develop gastralgia, when the pain will be reflected for considerable distance over the abdomen to the back, and in severe cases down the arm.

Pain of Gastric Carcinoma.—Pain is one of the most constant symptoms of carcinoma, although it is not invariably present. In two autopsies performed by us the patients had never complained of pain during their illness. The pain of carcinoma is less definitely localized than is that of ulcer, and may be reflected over the abdomen to the back. It is not increased immediately after the ingestion of food, but becomes most intense in from two to four hours later. Gastralgic attacks are not unknown in case of carcinoma, and vomiting does not tend to relieve the patient.

Pain of Acute Gastritis.—In this condition the pain varies in direct relation to the degree of gastric involvement present. After the ingestion of acids or of other highly irritating substances the pain is acute and is best described as an epigastric burning. If this symptom follows the too free use of rich foods, alcoholic liquors, and tobacco, the patient complains of a dull pain accompanied by nausea. In acute gastritis pain is excited by making deep pressure over the epigastrium.

Pain of Gastric Fermentation.—Hyperacidity and excessive fermentation may induce acute epigastric pain with overdistention of the stomach, but tenderness over the epigastrium is seldom present.

Epigastric Pain Not Connected with the Stomach.—Cramp-like pain, either mild or intense, situated slightly to the right of the median line and radiating to the right shoulder, is highly suggestive of **hepatic colic.** In severe cases the pain may be reflected over the entire epigastrium, and rarely runs down along the right side of the abdomen, simulating the pain of appendicitis. Hepatic colic is paroxysmal in nature, the attack lasting from ten minutes to several hours. The pain of gall-stones subsides suddenly, and is usually followed by localized tenderness over the epigastrium.

Carcinoma of the common bile-duct or of the liver (with localized peritonitis) may be accompanied by a more or less constant pain, localized to the epigastrium and radiating to the back and over the abdomen.

In *pancreatic disease* epigastric pain is one of the chief symptoms. In acute pancreatic hemorrhage the pain is sudden and intense; collapse, followed by death, soon follows.

Pancreatic colic is marked by a somewhat characteristic, cramp-like pain, localized in the epigastrium. This pain is to be distinguished from that of hepatic colic by the fact that in the former disease the patient is likely to have diarrhea and often complains of salivation.

Carcinoma of the head of the pancreas is often the cause of severe and almost continuous pain in the epigastrium. This pain may be boring or lancinating in character, depending upon the degree of peritoneal involvement present.

The development of a dull pain in the epigastrium in from two to five hours after the taking of a full meal points quite strongly toward pancreatic disease and intestinal indigestion. The pain of pancreatic disease is not continuous, as is that of gastric carcinoma. Cases of angina pectoris occasionally suffer from severe abdominal pains when resting in bed.

Thoracic aneurism and duodenal carcinoma may each cause a distinct boring pain near the ensiform cartilage; and tuberculosis of the vertebra, with necrosis, is not infrequently a cause of epigastric pain.

Cardiac Palpitation.—A decided increase in the heart's action, with pulsation over the greater part of the left chest, is at times a symptom of flatulence. Palpitation may follow overeating or the ingestion of improper foods, and is also a symptom of chlorosis, secondary anemia, and hysteria. Overstimulation from the too liberal use of alcohol or narcotics (tobacco) is often the cause of palpitation.

Palpitation is a symptom of cardiac disease, and in approximating the actual significance of this symptom, it is necessary for the clinician to exclude practically all the conditions previously mentioned.

Dyspnea.—Shortness of breath often follows the too free use of rich foods or overdistention of the stomach by gas; it is a late symptom in gastric ulcer, gastric carcinoma, and chronic gastritis, in which conditions it is dependent on the associated anemia.

Among the extragastric maladies that may cause dyspnea should be mentioned cardiac disease, nephritis, pulmonary disease, and all types of primary and secondary anemia.

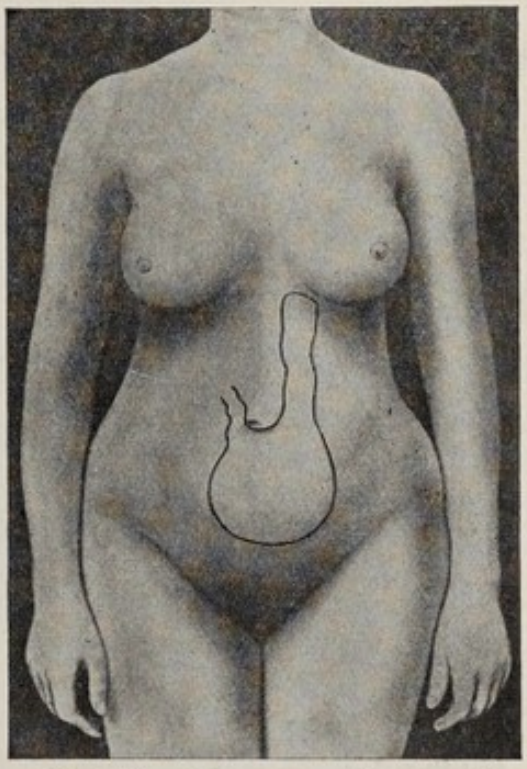


FIG. 184.—SACCULATED FORM OF GASTRIC DILATATION (from clinic, Howard Hospital).

Constipation.—Constipation may result from disease of the stomach, and not infrequently occurs in gastric ulcer and early during the course of gastric carcinoma. In chronic gastritis, especially when there is dilatation of the stomach, constipation is the rule. New-growths situated in the stomach-wall or pressing upon the pylorus and the duodenum are often responsible for obstinate constipation. Constipation may be a precursor of acute gastritis.

Diminished motility of the stomach favors the development of constipation. The variety of food and the amount and character of exercise taken are prominent factors in making definite deductions as to the cause of constipation.

Diarrhea may develop late during the course of gastric carcinoma, gastric ulcer, and chronic gastritis, in which diseases it is probably due to gastric and intestinal fermentation. If the motor power of the stomach

is excessive, food is propelled from the stomach into the intestine before gastric digestion has been completed, and diarrhea results.

Gastric neuroses and alterations in the gastric juice, *e. g.*, lack of sufficient hydrochloric acid, are followed by diarrhea. Diarrhea may also be a temporary symptom of both acute and chronic gastric catarrh. (See Diarrhea.)

Drowsiness.—The patient may become extremely drowsy after the ingestion of a liberal meal if chronic gastritis or constipation is present. In all gastric derangements accompanied by constipation mental dullness and a tendency to sleep during the day, with insomnia at night, are among the symptoms. A marked feature of disordered sleep is that the patient sleeps equally well or better when sitting than when he assumes the recumbent posture.

PHYSICAL EXAMINATION OF THE STOMACH

General Remarks.—Inspection.—The patient should be placed in the recumbent posture. The physician should sit so that the superior

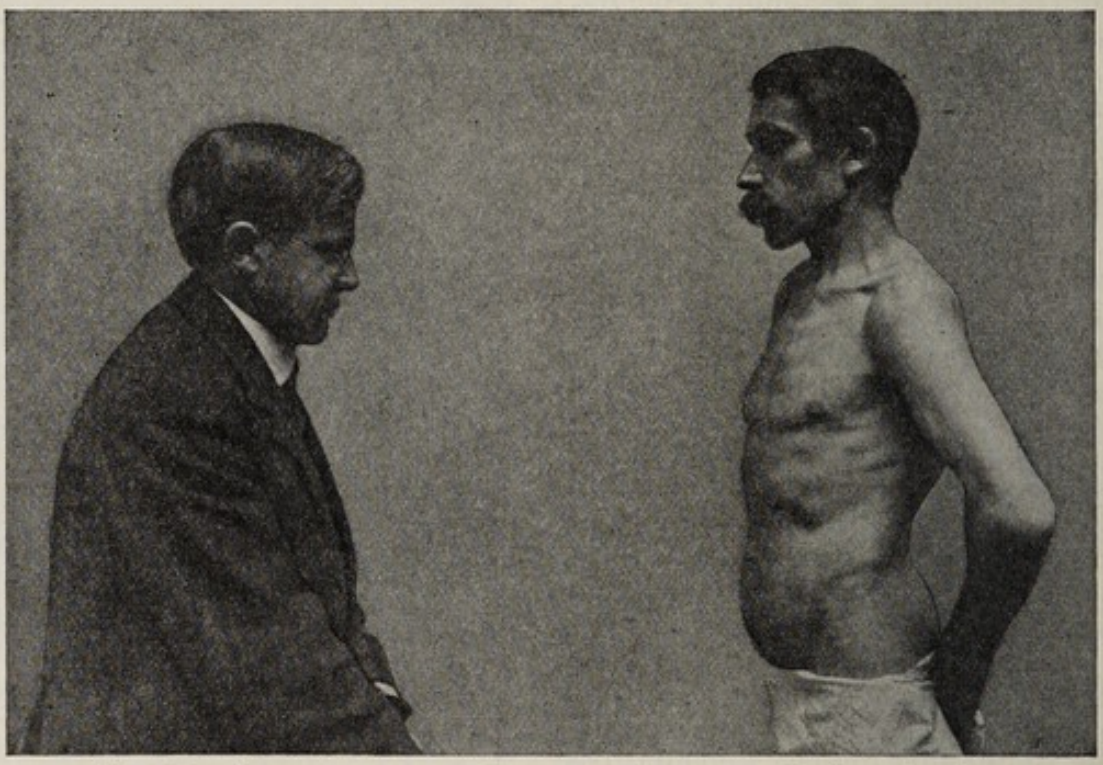


FIG. 185.—INSPECTION OF THE CHEST AND ABDOMEN. Patient standing.

surface of the abdomen is on a level with his eyes, and then inspect the surface closely from both the right and the left side. He should then stand at the head of the bed and inspect the abdomen from the thorax to the pubes, and, lastly, he should stand at the foot of the bed and view the surface of the body from the pubes to the thorax. These three positions should be taken in all cases when inspecting the abdomen, and if the eye is on a level with the patient's body, any abnormality that may be present will readily be detected.

Inspection with the patient in the erect posture is ofttimes of great value. (See Fig. 185.)

In persons who have a small amount of abdominal fat, and in whom the stomach is well distended, the outlines of this viscus are readily traced with the naked eye. The first thing to be observed is the lower curvature,

noting particularly at what level it is seen, *e. g.*, if the greater curvature is below the umbilicus, gastric dilatation or gastroptosis is present (Fig. 187). If the lower gastric line is above the umbilicus, the stomach is not greatly dilated, and may be of normal size. An abnormal bulging in any portion of the epigastrium, and particularly when near the ensiform cartilage, is highly suggestive of carcinoma of the pylorus. Gastric dilatation and bulging at the pylorus are two common signs of gastric carcinoma. When a dilated stomach is markedly distended, there is a distinct furrow or groove extending along the course of an imaginary line drawn from the umbilicus to the left nipple; this depression in the abdominal wall corresponds to the lesser curvature of the stomach. A furrow on the abdominal wall below the umbilicus and to the left of the pubes corresponds to the position of the great curvature.

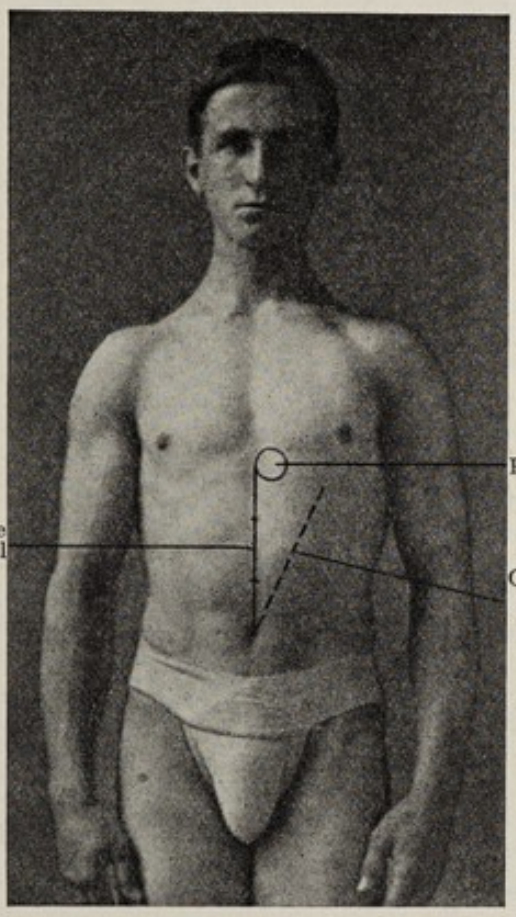


FIG. 186.—SHOWING DIVISION OF ENSIFORM AND UMBILICAL LINE.

It will be readily understood that the physical signs of gastric dilatation just described are subject to great variation, which depends, first, upon the degree of dilatation; second, upon the rigidity or flaccidness of the abdominal wall; and, third, upon the degree of gastric distention.

Peristalsis.—Peristaltic waves are seen over the epigastrium, and correspond to the movements of the stomach; these waves may be produced by applying either cold or electricity to the abdomen. Normally, the peristaltic waves (Fig. 187) should be seen in the upper portion of the epigastrium, but if there is marked gastric dilatation, they are seen to come from beneath the ribs on the left, and to extend toward the umbilicus (Fig. 187). If an abdominal tumor is present, the peristaltic waves may be accentuated over the tumor, but if the tumor is anterior to the stomach, the waves are absent at that particular point. The peristaltic waves

and, in fact, the position of the stomach, are readily outlined with the naked eye when the stomach is distended by air or gas. (See Gastric Dilatation, p. 554. Also Topography of Abdomen, p. 472.)

Palpation.—The patient should preferably be in the recumbent posture, with his thighs slightly flexed upon the abdomen, in order to relax the abdominal wall. Place the hand upon the abdomen, and let all pressure be made with the fingers pressing equally along their entire length (Fig. 188). It is well to make slight rotary movement of the broad hand, increasing the pressure with each rotation, but between the acts of increased pressure the hand should not be lifted from the abdominal wall; in this way deep pressure is made without exciting contraction of the abdominal muscles.

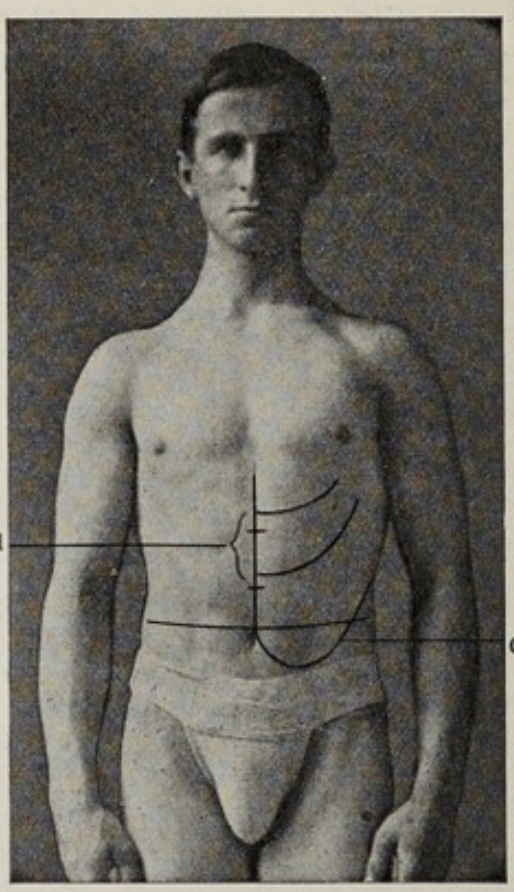


FIG. 187.—UPPER AND LOWER NORMAL WAVE OF STOMACH AND GREATER CURVATURE IN EXTREME DILATATION.

To ascertain whether or not an abdominal mass is movable with a cnange of position of the patient, it is necessary to place the patient upon his side and in the knee-chest position, when, if floating abdominal tumors are present, they will come to the abdominal parieties. Deep palpation will also determine whether or not an abdominal mass moves with respiration.

Epigastric pulsation is of great importance, not only in diseases of the stomach, but in cardiovascular derangements, *e. g.*, thoracic aneurism, abdominal aneurism, tricuspid regurgitation, and cardiac dilatation. Pulsation of the liver is usually the result of tricuspid regurgitation, but may be seen in hepatic abscess. Epigastric impulse may be transmitted as the result of a solid mass overlying the abdominal aorta. In neurasthenic persons, and in those in whom the abdominal wall is extremely thin and relaxed, a wavy pulsation of the epigastrium is quite common.

Increased resistance of the abdominal wall results physiologically from overdevelopment of the muscular coat of the abdomen, and may also be dependent upon an excess of abdominal fat. Distention of the stomach is marked by a decided increase in the resistance of the upper portion of the abdominal wall, and if the stomach is diminished in size and the

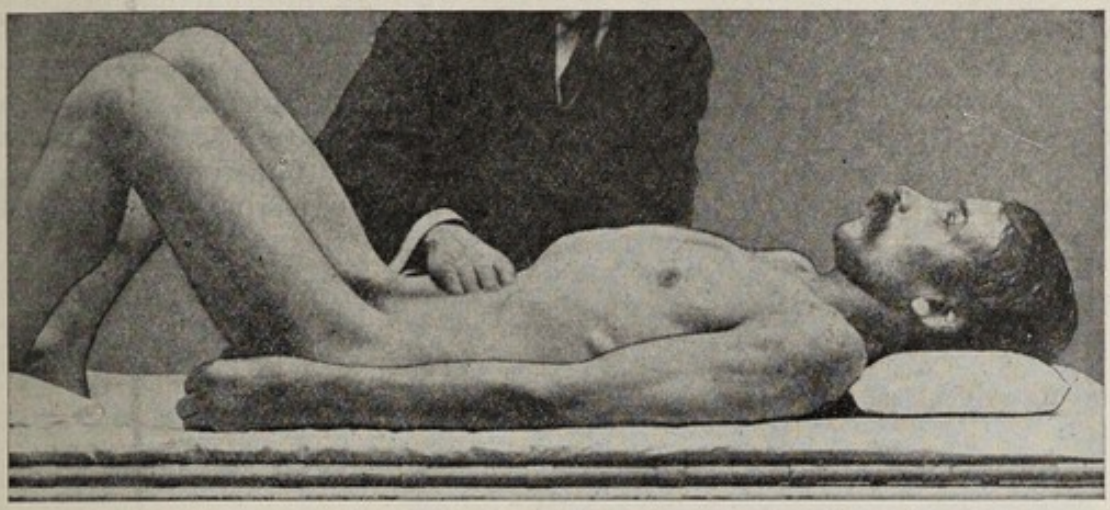


FIG. 188.—POSITION OF PATIENT AND OF OPERATOR FOR ABDOMINAL PALPATION.

abdominal resistance is increased, carcinoma or tuberculosis with a localized involvement of the peritoneum is to be suspected. Increased abdominal resistance is encountered late during the course of atrophic gastritis, in ascites, and in the presence of uterine and ovarian growths. A localized increase in the resistance of the wall of the abdomen, when referred to disease of the stomach, usually occupies the upper right portion of the epigastrium, and is suggestive of pyloric carcinoma.

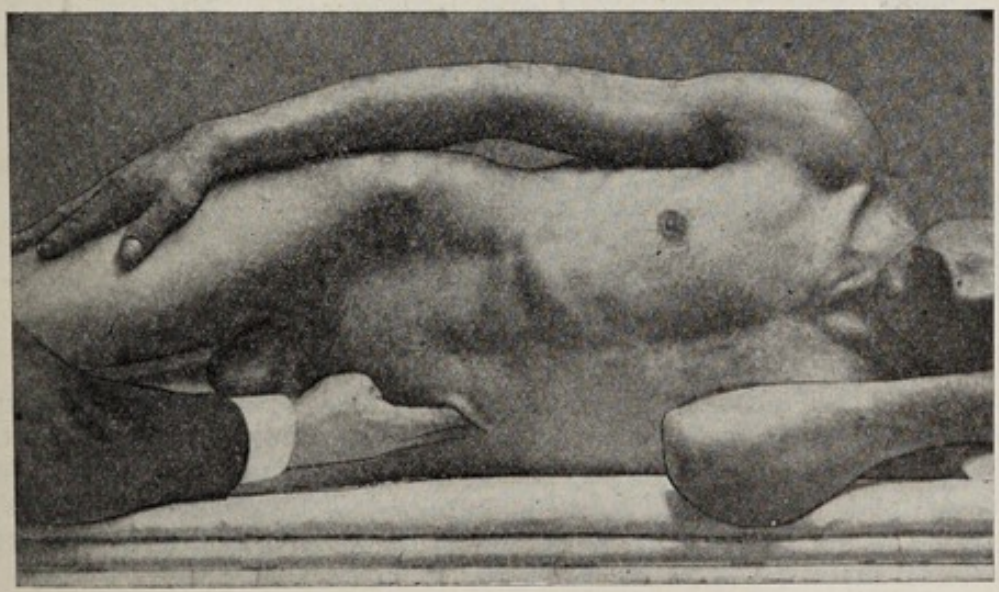


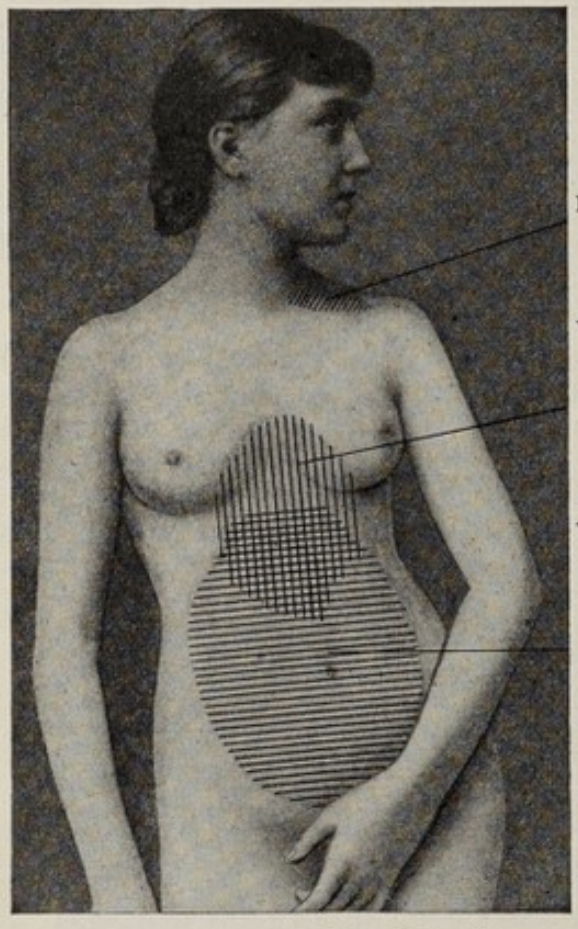
FIG. 189.—ABDOMINAL PALPATION TO DETECT CHANGE OF POSITION OF ABDOMINAL GROWTHS WITH THE CHANGE OF POSITION OF THE PATIENT.

Tumors of the stomach, liver, spleen, pancreas, and peritoneum may cause an increased resistance over the epigastrium. Tumor of the stomach is the only one of the previously named group that is capable of descending *en masse* as it develops; *e. g.*, carcinoma involving the pylorus may be found as low as the umbilicus, and rarely it is seen below this point. The

degree of descent of a carcinoma of the stomach-wall depends upon the associated peritonitis, and upon whether or not adhesions to other epigastric structures exist. If a carcinoma of the stomach is adherent to the diaphragm, the liver, or the spleen, it will display a variable amount of movement with respiration.

Combined palpation of the stomach with an internal exploratory examination may be resorted to in order to determine the actual size of the organ, but this measure is rarely necessary.

Palpation and Pain.—Tenderness over the epigastrium is found in acute gastritis, gastric ulcer, gastric and pancreatic carcinoma, malignant disease of the common bile-duct, acute hepatitis, pancreatic calculus, hepatic colic, and in any condition that may have associated localized



Involvement of the diaphragm, transverse colon, and splenic and hepatic flexure.

Vertical lines outline area of gastric pain. Carcinoma, ulcer, gastralgia, neuroses, acute gastric catarrh, hyperesthesia, duodenal ulcer. Pancreatic disease causes pain near the center of this area, as do also pneumonia in children and disease of the vertebræ.

Abdominal pain. Where the vertical lines cross the transverse lines the pain is excited by conditions named above. Over area of transverse line lead colic, mucous colic, flatulency. Dietl's crises (floating kidney), appendicitis (initial stage), intestinal obstruction, intestinal perforation, mercury poisoning, crises of locomotor ataxia, pneumonia (in children), strangulated hernia, hyperesthesia, rheumatism of the abdominal wall, and rarely Löebstein's carcinoma, abdominal aneurism, Raynaud's disease, and acute pancreatitis.

FIG. 190.—DISTRIBUTION OF PAIN.

peritonitis. It is impossible for one to attach too great diagnostic importance to epigastric tenderness or to pain that is excited by deep palpation.

In gastric ulcer the tenderness is usually localized, whereas in practically all other conditions in which epigastric tenderness is one of the symptoms it is less markedly localized in direct proportion to the extent of acute or chronic peritonitis present.

Percussion.—Normal Position of the Stomach in the Adult.—The position of the stomach will be found to vary greatly within certain limits. These variations, as they occur during infancy, childhood, and in early adolescence, are shown in the accompanying illustrations (Figs. 191, 192, 193). When food is taken the stomach changes its position, and the greater curvature is rotated forward and slightly upward.

For convenience of study Obrastzow's division of that portion of the abdomen between the ensiform cartilage and the umbilicus is to be recom-

mended. An imaginary line extending from the ensiform to the umbilicus is divided into three equal parts. In normal men and women the stomach will be found between the umbilicus and the ensiform, and the lower border of the stomach will usually correspond to the inferior third of this line.

The upper border of the stomach is taken at the left parasternal line; at this point it is normally found at the lower border of the fifth or upper border of the sixth rib, although instances are recorded in which the superior boundary of the stomach corresponded to the fourth rib and to the sixth intercostal space respectively. The upper border of the stomach is a trifle lower at the left nipple-line than at the parasternal line, but is

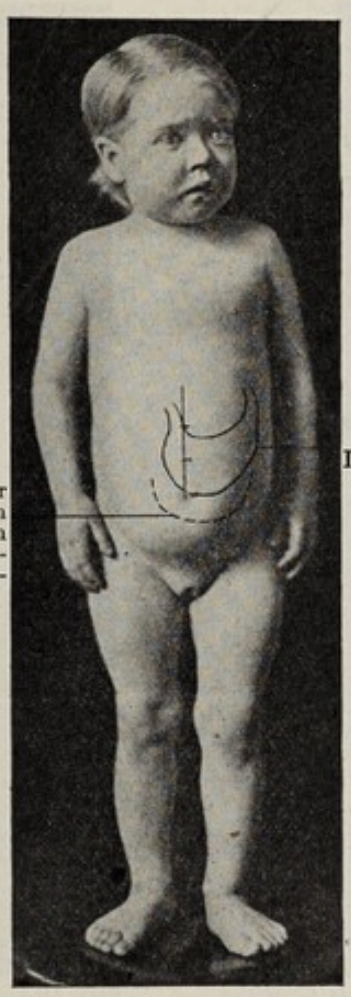


FIG. 191.—LOWER NORMAL POSITION OF STOMACH IN CHILD.

usually found at the fifth interspace or the sixth rib. In the anterior axillary line the superior boundary of the stomach corresponds to the seventh interspace.

Traube's semilunar space is that portion of the left chest overlying the stomach. It is bounded above by the lower border of the heart, the left lung, and the liver; below by the margin of the ribs, and to the left by the spleen.

Tympany.—In outlining the stomach by percussion it is most satisfactory to have the patient in the recumbent posture, with his thighs at right angles to the body, in order to relax the abdominal wall. In infancy the stomach is almost cylindric in outline, and occupies an oblique position, but at the age of one year it will be found in a transverse position

(Fig. 176). It is of great importance to ascertain the change in shape of the stomach when the patient suffers from gastric dilatation.

Percussion-note.—As the stomach always contains some air, a tympanitic note is obtained by percussing over this hollow viscus, and while this note varies greatly, depending upon the degree of distention of the stomach by gas, etc., it is always elevated in pitch, but lower than that of the colon, metallic in character, and displays a certain distinctive quality known as "stomach tympany."

Auscultatory percussion (Fig. 194) may be employed in determining the exact outline of the stomach. (See also pp. 259 and 585.)

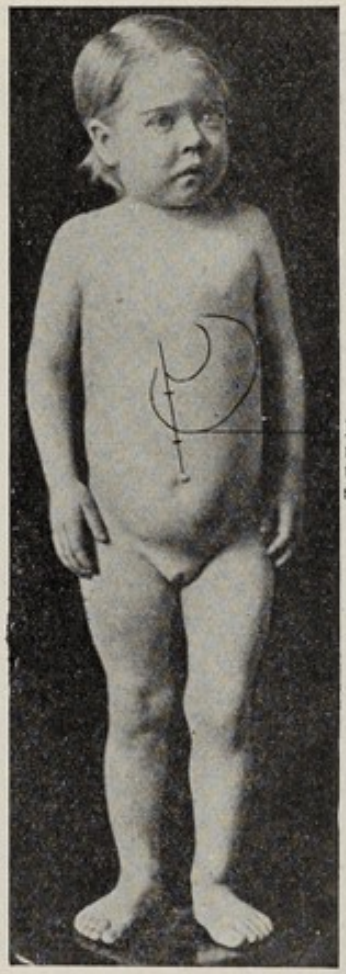


FIG. 192.—SHOWING HIGH NORMAL POSITION OF STOMACH IN CHILD.

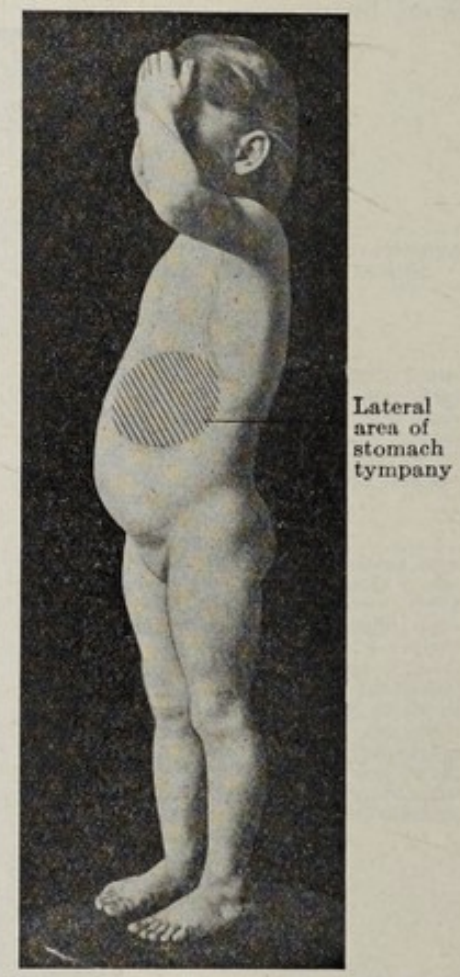


FIG. 193.—LATERAL AREA OF STOMACH TYMPANY IN THE CHILD.

The first essential factor is to localize definitely the pylorus (Fig. 194), and this being done, determine next to what height gastric tympany rises in the left anterior and midaxillary lines; and third, locate the inferior border of the fundus (Fig. 194). One can sketch the exact shape of the stomach on the abdominal wall. This procedure gives the clinician a life diagram which when considered with relation to the other abdominal viscera, and to the patient's general condition, completes a chain of data that holds an important place in abdominal diagnosis. The note of gastric tympany when obtained by auscultatory percussion, and palpation is vastly different from colonic tympany, and from the tympany obtained over the small intestine. (Boston.)*

*Medical Journal and Record, October 15, 1924.

Conditions That May Increase the Area of Stomach Tympany.—A. Those depending upon alterations in the size and shape of the stomach. B. Pathologic conditions not directly connected with the stomach.

A	B
1. Overeating.	1. Fibroid induration of the left lung.
2. Gastroptosis.	2. Adhesive pleurisy (left side).
3. Dilatation of the stomach.	3. Contraction of the liver.
4. Starvation.	
5. Cardiac stenosis.	

The area of stomach tympany is diminished in—

1. Left-sided pleural effusion.
2. Fibroid induration of the stomach-wall.
3. Hour-glass contraction.
4. Left pyopneumothorax.
5. Enlargement of the liver.
6. Enlargement of the spleen.
7. New-growths of the mediastinum.
8. Abdominal tumors, *e. g.*, ovarian cyst, uterine fibroid, carcinoma of the left kidney, echinococcus cyst, pregnancy, and ascites.

Auscultation.—Auscultation is of value in determining whether or not stenosis of the esophagus or disease of the stomach exists. (See Esophageal Stricture, p. 469.) The gurgling sound, audible when the patient swallows liquids, and heard only by placing the stethoscope over the esophagus, is always followed, in from five to ten seconds later, by a second sound, which is caused by the escape of the fluid from the esophagus into the stomach. This second sound is usually referred to as the "deglutition gurgle," or murmur. If there is obstruction to the esophagus, the "deglutition gurgle" takes place later, and is materially modified.

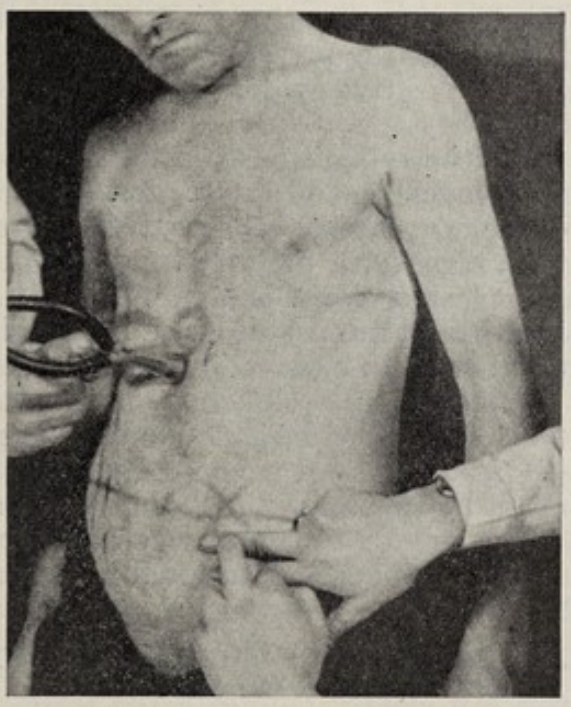


Fig. 194.—Stethoscope Bell Placed Near the Pylorus, Represented by a Circle, While Percussion Is Made from below the Fundus Upward to Determine the Lower Extent of the Stomach. Patient Standing.

The note of stomach tympany obtained by auscultatory percussion is distinctive, independent of what portion of the stomach is covered by the bell of the stethoscope.

By placing the ear over the stomach, either anteriorly or at the back, it is possible to get a decided splashing sound when the patient is shaken rapidly from side to side. The presence of the succussion splash is posi-

tive evidence that the stomach is partially filled with liquid, but it must be remembered that the splash alone is to be taken only as corroborative evidence of other physical signs and symptoms.

The succussion splash may be elicited by external manipulation of the abdominal wall; this is accomplished by placing the left hand over the pylorus and the right hand just at the costal margin in the anterior axillary line, when, by alternating pressure at these points, the succussion splash is produced. Percussion along the margin of the ribs and over the left superior abdominal quadrant is often sufficient to cause a splashing sound.

The succussion splash over the abdomen is at times very loud, and may be heard for some distance from the patient, although the best means of eliciting this sound is for the operator to place his ear against either the abdomen or the back.

Significance.—Under normal conditions, when 100 cubic centimeters of water are taken before retiring, the succussion splash cannot be elicited in the morning. If the succussion splash is present under such conditions, an atonic condition of the stomach-wall exists. The succussion splash should be audible during digestion, and the sounds are of pathologic significance when they are present three hours after the ingestion of an ordinary meal. If the splash is present five to seven hours after liquid food has been taken, it is positive evidence that there is gastric dilatation or defective gastric motility.

Under normal conditions the splash is heard above the umbilicus. In dilatation of the stomach and in gastroptosis it is audible below the umbilicus. In children who are poorly nourished a splashing sound is also audible below the transverse umbilical line. The exact location at which the succussion splash is heard is of value in determining the lower boundary of the stomach, and this is best attained after inflating the organ.

Caution.—Great care should be exercised in differentiating the succussion splash caused by fluid in the stomach from that the result of air and fluid in the left pleural sac. (See Pyopneumothorax, p. 169.)

Gastroscopy.—Gastroscopy is a clinical method of inspecting the interior of the stomach by means of tubes that serve as specula. Ordinarily, the natural passage (esophagus) is chosen for conducting this method of examination, although occasionally abdominal wounds and fistulæ are utilized.

X-RAY EVIDENCE OF DISEASES OF THE GASTRO-INTESTINAL TRACT

The roentgen ray can clearly delineate the form, position, contour, size, and mobility, as well as the motor activity of the stomach during health. Any disease which alters the foregoing features of the stomach is readily detected through roentgenographic study. Purely functional disturbances, both acute and chronic inflammations, and organic diseases which have not caused sufficient alteration to be recognizable with the roentgen ray; *e. g.*, early mucous ulcer and beginning neoplasm are not detected through *x*-ray studies.

It is difficult to cover this subject thoroughly and yet briefly. In general, the gastro-intestinal tract is rendered visible by means of bismuth or barium mixtures, which give an added density of shadow to this canal. The bismuth subcarbonate may be mixed with water, milk, kefir, gruels, or other food (1 oz. to 12 oz. of kefir). Both fluoroscopic and photographic studies are necessary.

One must be familiar with the normal stomach and the variations under normal conditions before much of value can be determined pathologically.

The *filling of the normal stomach* in the standing posture takes place as follows: the upper pole is outlined usually by a small collection of gas, just beneath the left dome of the diaphragm. The remainder of the stomach is collapsed. Along the right border of the collection of gas the bismuth mixture may be seen entering and giving the appearance of a dark streak. This collects below the gas, making a funnel-shaped shadow. One or two swallows may be retained here for several minutes. Gradually this funnel-like shadow becomes elongated until it reaches the lower pole, curving slightly to the right. At the lower pole the shadow is broadened

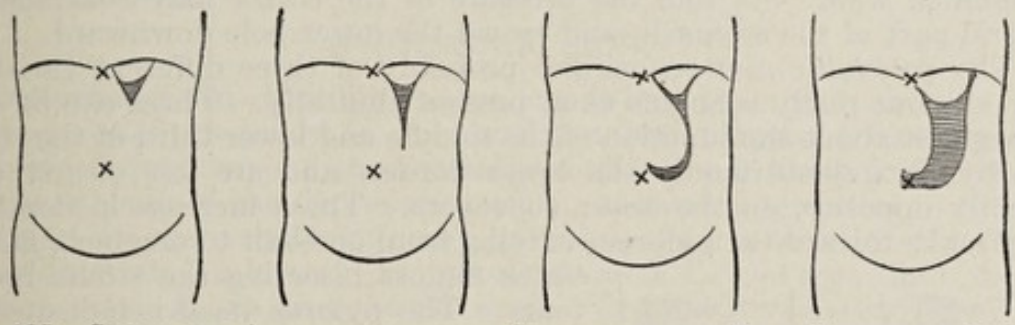


FIG. 195.—SHOWS THE APPEARANCE OF THE STOMACH AS THE FOOD GRADUALLY EXTENDS TO THE LOWER POLE AND THEN FILLS THE ENTIRE STOMACH.

With any further increase the shadow simply increases in area.

with the accumulation of food, and crosses to, or beyond, the median line, perhaps rising slightly to reach the pylorus (Fig. 195).

The form of the normal stomach will vary with the position, sex, stature, and degree of compression. In the standing posture it is elongated, and resembles the form of the letter "J." In the dorsal recumbent posture it takes more the shape of a cow's horn. It is longer in women than in men. It seems to be longer in women after wearing corsets. It is longer in the tall, thin person, and more vertical than in the short, stout individual.

The lower border of the pyloric sphincter in the standing posture is nearly on a level with the lower pole of the stomach, and is located about an inch above the umbilicus. The normal form of the stomach is found in only about one-third of the healthy subjects examined. This departure from the normal occurs and increases with the age beyond puberty. The lower pole moves downward and is more distant from the pylorus. This is probably due to an increasing relaxation of the tissues and to overfilling the stomach, which drags it downward.

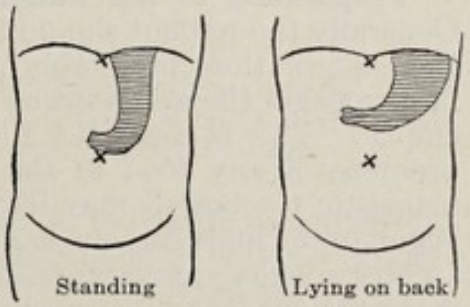


FIG. 196.—SHOWS THE CHANGE IN FORM AND POSITION OF THE STOMACH, WITH CHANGE FROM THE ERECT TO THE SUPINE POSTURE.

The **position of the normal stomach** is influenced by so many factors that all must be considered, or mistakes will be made. One must keep in mind the fact that the stomach is attached only at the cardiac orifice, and just beyond the pylorus, and therefore it is a very movable organ. It is supported in part by the abdominal wall and the bed of intestines below. Therefore it will change its position with change in posture, and with modification in the pressure of the abdominal wall, as well as with the movements of the diaphragm during inspiration.

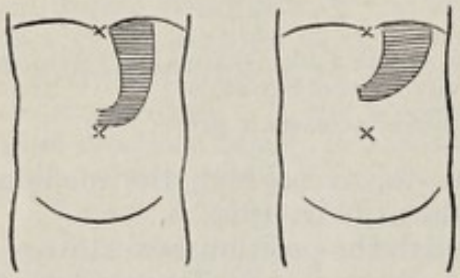
In the *standing posture* the lower pole of the normal stomach will be slightly above the umbilicus, while in the supine, the stomach rises several

inches, the shadow of the fundus increases and occupies the left hypochondriac region; and the stomach as a whole takes a more transverse position, resembling the classic outline given in most of the old text-books (Fig. 196).

If the subject lies upon the right side, one-half to two-thirds of the stomach will cross the median line.

If a person contracts the abdomen, the stomach will be raised several inches. Pressure on the lower part of the abdomen will cause it to rise. The stomach can be moved from side to side by pressure, and even the contents can be moved about by the pressure of the hand through the abdominal wall. So, too, the pressure of the corset may contract the central part of the stomach, and crowd the lower pole downward.

The *peristaltic contractions* are probably of three different varieties, but only one really concerns us at present clinically. These can be seen to begin at about the junction of the middle and lower third of the stomach by an indentation in the lower border, and are less clearly seen directly opposite, on the lesser curvature. These increase in depth as they move toward the pylorus, varying from one-half to one inch, and at times almost bisecting the stomach-contents. The pylorus itself is indicated at intervals by a clear line which separates the bismuth mixture in the stomach from that which has just passed into the first portion of the duodenum. The peristaltic waves are excited by the presence of food or by massage. The wave requires usually from fifteen to twenty seconds to pass from its origin to the pylorus.



Normally relaxed stomach. Contracted stomach.

FIG. 197.

The stomach should empty itself of the normal bismuth meal in from three to four hours. If retained beyond this time, it suggests a decrease in motility.

Preparation of the Patient for a Gastro-intestinal Examination.—Generally the patient should be given a purgative on the night preceding the examination, preferably a bottle of magnesium citrate. It is then best to begin the examination on the following morning with the stomach empty. This is especially important if carcinoma is suspected, for the presence of any food in the stomach may lead to error. Hard fecal masses in the bowels may likewise be misleading. If the examination is begun in the morning, one has the day before him for control observations. In obscure cases, several examinations must be made. In general these examinations are time-consuming and expensive, but unless carefully done, they had better be omitted.

When simply the positions of the stomach and bowel are to be determined, one can give the bismuth with the breakfast on the preceding morning. This will then be found in the bowel (no purgative to be given in such cases), and at least one examination less will be necessary.

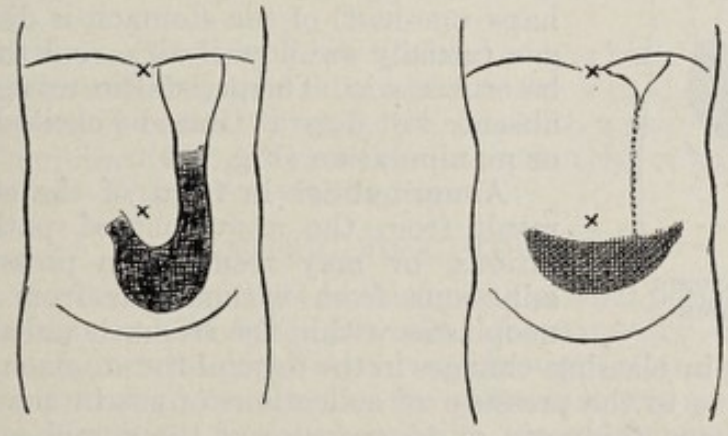
Fluoroscopic Studies.—Spasm and stricture of the esophagus are readily detected, as is cardiospasm. In gastric ulcer altered peristalsis, a small area of retention of barium in the antrum, and absence of peristalsis are evidences. A deformed duodenal cap is often discernible. Areas where peristalsis is lessened or absent call for careful studies, preferable at intervals of several days. A smooth dilatation of the esophagus points to cardiospasm, whereas irregularity suggests cancer. It is all important to observe the barium meal as it enters the stomach. Extensive spasms of the gastro-intestinal tract usually disappear after the

administration of atropine, while spasm of organic origin is seldom influenced by this drug. Antiperistalsis (reverse peristalsis) suggests an obstructive type of lesion, which may be remote in location.

Gastrodiaphany.—Transillumination of the anterior wall of the stomach, is accomplished by introducing an incandescent bulb of suitable size into the stomach. If the patient is located in a dark room it is possible through this method to obtain rather definite information in regard to the size and shape of the organ. Since *x*-ray diagnosis, and the fluoroscope have been perfected these methods have practically supplanted transillumination.

PATHOLOGIC SIGNS

Disturbance in Motility.—Any condition that will depress the nervous system is likely to be associated with impaired motility and retention of food beyond the normal period. One is likely to find delay in neurasthenia of the depressed variety, in gastroptosis, and in pyloric stenosis. In simple gastroptosis I have seen food retained in the stomach at least eleven hours. In pyloric stenosis I have seen the bismuth mixture retained, in part, for a week. Ordinarily, however, even in pyloric stenosis, the retention does not extend beyond six to forty-eight hours.



Gastroptosis with gastrectasis. Pyloric stenosis with gastrectasis.

FIG. 198.—SHOWS THE DIFFERENCE IN APPEARANCE BETWEEN A MARKED GASTROPTOSIS AND A MARKED GASTRECTASIS ASSOCIATED WITH PYLORIC STENOSIS.

The *peristaltic waves* may be absent during an entire examination. This occurs where there is nervous depression or lack of nervous energy. They can usually be excited by massage. Even in marked gastroptosis, the peristaltic contractions may be very deep and strong. When this is true, the patient may be without symptoms. So, too, in pyloric stenosis one often finds the strongest peristaltic waves, and at times a *reversed peristalsis* may be seen. When tumors involve the stomach-wall, the peristaltic waves will at least be absent at the point of involvement.

Restrictions in Mobility.—In the study of the normal stomach we have learned that it is a very movable organ. Therefore any interference with this mobility, as determined by watching the effects of respiration, change of posture, contraction of the abdomen, massage, or pressure by the hand upon the lower part of the abdomen, will indicate adhesions.

Gastroptosis is a pathologic condition that cannot be divided from the "normal" stomach by any sharp line. The stomach that we describe as the "normal" is probably the ideal, since health is consistent with a stomach much lower than the "normal." The preservation of the health is probably due to a compensatory activity of the nervous and

muscular mechanism of the stomach, and when either of these give way, health fails. In general, if the lower pole of the stomach (in the standing posture) is below the umbilicus, one can probably class it as gastroptosis. It may even extend downward as far as the pubes. In such conditions the stomach is much elongated, and the pylorus is also found ptosed and movable.

Gastrectasis is, of course, found associated with pyloric stenosis, but it is also found in gastroptosis and in atonic conditions. It is not wise to fill a stomach in order to determine gastrectasis. The stomach is an elastic organ, and therefore can be distended and distorted to a great degree, and yet little positive information is obtained and harm may possibly result. By watching the process of filling and the outline of the normal bismuth meal more accurate information can be obtained safely.

In **megalogastria** due to pyloric stenosis the food drops quickly to the lower pole and there spreads out into a wide semilunar shadow. The upper border of the liquid is level, the lesser curvature cannot be seen, and when the patient is shaken, the liquid can be seen to splash (Fig. 198).

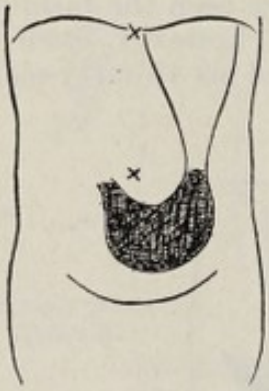


FIG. 199.—ATONIC GASTRECTASIS.

In **atonic gastrectasis** there is, in addition to the gastroptosis, an elongated stomach with a wide lower pole, but the mixture can be seen to fill the pyloric end. The upper portion (perhaps one-half) of the stomach is distended with gas (usually swallowed air), and this is slow to be eructated. The peristaltic waves are usually absent, but may at times be excited by massage or manipulation (Fig. 199).

Abnormalities in form of the stomach may result from the above-named pathologic conditions, or may result from pressure upon or adhesions from without, or from cicatrices or neoplasms within the stomach walls. One must not be hasty in classing changes in the form of the stomach, for deformity may be due to the pressure of collections of gas in the colon, or to misplaced organs (kidney), or to pressure of the spinal column, all of which must be eliminated. This will often require a repetition of the examination on a subsequent day.

Hour-glass contraction may be due to a cicatrix, to adhesions, or to carcinoma, and is recognized by the slow passage of the food from the upper to the lower segment, and finally by the division of the stomach-contents into two portions. Caution is necessary here. The stomach must be manipulated so as to displace a collection of gas in the bowel. Pressure effects must be relieved, the entire meal should be given, and often the examination must be repeated before a definite decision can be made. I have observed a tetanic contraction of the stomach (due to ulcer) which gave all the appearances of an hour-glass contraction, and did not disappear during an observation taking an hour.

Gastric carcinoma can be demonstrated more positively and earlier by this method of examination than by any other. It is recognized by its modification of the course of the first portion of the food through the stomach, by displacement of the stomach-contents, by deforming its outline, and, most important and earliest of all, by an interruption in the peristaltic wave at the point of the disease. In addition, one may find evidence of adhesions which draw the stomach into abnormal positions, or interfere with its normal mobility. The diseased area is more easily demonstrated before much dilatation has taken place.

Diseases of the Bowel.—Evidence of disease of the bowel is found by following the bismuth mixture through the intestinal canal; or in the colon, by injections per rectum. One studies its position, its outline, and the rate of passage of the food. The bismuth mixture makes little, if any, difference in the rate of passage of its contents. Normally, the first part of the food passes through the small intestine in two to three hours, and at the end of four hours a portion is usually found in the cecum. In eight to twelve hours it reaches the first portion of the transverse colon, and at the end of twenty-four hours it has reached the rectum, and at times has passed out. The first bowel movement does not empty the entire colon, but usually only the rectum and descending colon. A portion of the bismuth mixture is often found in the colon after forty-eight hours. I am convinced that the apparent delay in the passage of the bismuth mixture is often due to a readmixture in the colon with the oncoming food, or débris of meals taken subsequently.

Constipation may be studied scientifically in this way; the location of the delay, and often the cause, may be determined. At times this is found to be simply a rectal retention; at others it is due to an apparent "kink" in the bowel, resulting from faulty position; and again it is simply part of a general atony.

Carcinoma will often give obstructive evidence either from below or above or both.

Coloptosis is recognized by a low position of the transverse colon, and accompanying this there is generally a low position of the hepatic and at times of the splenic flexure. Usually there is both a gastroptosis, and an enteroptosis combined, but either may exist separately, or these two conditions may be only a part of a visceroptosis.

GASTRIC FUNCTIONS

The most important function is chiefly one of food preparation rather than food digestion. The fundus is called the secretory chamber while the antrum cares for the great motor mechanism of the organ. Acid secretion is produced at the fundus, the antrum serves as the separator of foods—carbohydrates, fats and proteins, are mechanically separated.

Chemical digestion is pronounced with proteins, slightly with fats and carbohydrates. The connective tissue binding fat cells and muscle fibers is dissolved during the first stages of protein hydrolysis. "The small bowel is the chief digesting organ and the stomach the great safeguard as well as the organ preparing the food for digestion." (Rehfuss.) Gastric analysis is a technique for the measurement of gastric function, secretory and motor; and the detection of pathologic evidence resulting from dysfunction; *e. g.* the presence of substances foreign to normal gastric digestion.

GASTRIC CONTENTS

General Remarks.—Gastric secretion continues normally as long as there is food in the stomach, but during the later stages of gastric digestion the activity of the secretory function of the stomach diminishes. Normally we find comparatively fast and slow stomachs as regards evacuation time. To obtain an accurate knowledge of any pathologic condition of the organ that may be present, an examination of the gastric contents must be made under conditions as nearly like the physiologic as is possible. Reliable results cannot, therefore, be obtained from an examination of the vomitus, but the contents of the stomach must be procured at a definite period after a so-called "test-meal."

The contents of the stomach consist of the fluids secreted by the pyloric and the cardiac glands of the stomach, which provide the active digestive ingredients: the stomach-contents also contain a portion of the buccal secretion, which has gained access to the stomach by swallowing, but at the time we recover the stomach-contents, this secretion from the mouth is considerably altered, owing to admixture with the fluids secreted by the gastric glands. Duodenal fluid that has been permitted to regurgitate to the stomach as the result of diminished pyloric tonus is often mixed with gastric fluid.

Test-meals.—Numerous test-meals have been suggested, but those found to be most satisfactory follow:—Water provides a light load and is now extensively used. "the test-breakfast of Ewald-Boas," the "test-dinner of Riegel," and the "Salzer test-meal" are also in use.

The Ewald-Boas test-breakfast consists of one or two rolls and one cup of tea or water (300 to 400 c.c.). We invariably advise the use of one roll and a glass of water. This meal should be administered early in the morning, when the stomach is empty, before any food or liquid has been taken. The plan that we have adopted is first to wash the stomach thoroughly, making careful note —(1) of the quantity of gas that escapes upon the introduction of the tube; and (2) of the mucus present in this washing.

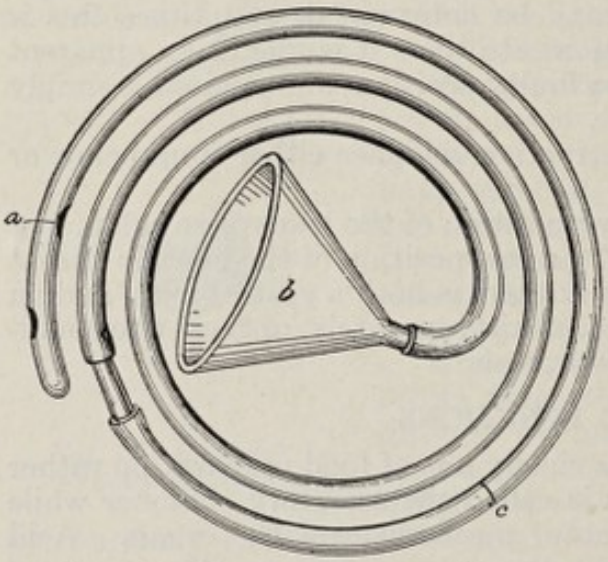


FIG. 200.—STOMACH-TUBE AND FUNNEL.

a, Later fenestræ; *b*, funnel; *c*, mark to indicate the distance from the incisor teeth to the stomach (Morrow "Diagnostic and Therapeutic Technic").

The test-meal is now given, the patient being directed to eat the bread slowly and to sip the water while eating. About an hour after this meal has been taken the contents of the stomach are to be withdrawn, and analyzed both chemically and microscopically. Hydrochloric acid should be the only acid present.

Riegel's test-dinner consists of from 300 to 400 c.c. (9 to 12 fluidounces) of soup, 150 to 200 grams (5 to 6 oz.) of beefsteak, 50 grams (1.7 oz.) of wheat bread or potato, and 200 c.c. (one glass) of water.

Caution.—The steak given at this meal should be chopped fine, lest particles of meat obstruct the lumen of the stomach-tube.

The gastric contents are to be collected by the aid of the stomach-tube in from three and one-half to four hours later.

Salzer Test-meal.—The double test-meal consists of a breakfast of 30 grams (1 ounce) of lean, cold roast-beef, which is chopped sufficiently fine so as not to obstruct the lumen of the stomach tube; milk, 250 c.c. (8 fluidounces); rice, 50 grams (1.7 ounces); and a soft-boiled egg. Four hours later the Ewald-Boas test-breakfast is given, and the gastric contents collected one hour later—five hours after the administration of the first meal.

By means of this double test-meal the gastric juice is obtained when digestion is at its height. The stomach's power of motility is also appreciable, this motility being sufficient under normal conditions, to remove all particles of meat given with the first meal. If the gastric contents contain particles of meat, there is diminished motility of the stomach.

The Water Meal consists in the administration of 240 to 500 c.c. of water. The presence of pathological débris, cell rests, gastric exfoliation, pus, blood and retention from the previous meal are readily demonstrated by the water meal. It not merely produces gastric stimulation, but readily reveals all elements which are foreign to normal digestion. The specimens removed can be subjected to centrifugalization and microscopical examination without further special preparation.

Recovery of Gastric Fluid.—To obtain the contents of the stomach use a soft, flexible rubber tube with an end opening, or, better, with a closed end and one or more lateral openings. The tube should be indelibly marked at a point 21.5 inches (58 to 64 cm.) from the end introduced, thus aiding the examiner to determine whether or not the tube has entered the stomach.

Introduction of the Stomach-tube.—A tube of small caliber gives the best results, and this may be introduced in three ways—(*a*) well lubricated; (*b*) by the aid of fluid; (*c*) after the throat has been swathed with a weak solution of cocaine. Under ordinary conditions the lubricated tube when passed well back over the tongue readily enters the esophagus.

Quantity.—The quantity of fluid obtained from the stomach after the ordinary test-meal varies between 20 and 60 c.c. The residuum of the interdigestive phase is normally 50 c.c. with a specific gravity of 1.0056.

Gastric analysis is a measure of the secretory and motor work of the stomach on the particular food substance that has been introduced as a test. It reveals the sum total of secretory and motor work, together with any exudate or transudate which might be contributed by pathologic lesions. Gastric analysis estimates: (1) gastric motor function, as shown by the duration of digestion manifested after the administration of a test meal: (2) secretory function which is the sum total of all the factors, extragastric and intragastric: (3) the determination of evidence of pathologic condition of the stomach, such as mucus, pus, blood, bacteria, organic acids, or protein, which in themselves are either directly contributed by the lesion present, or are excited by such pathology.

Microscopic Study.—The sediment of the gastric fluid should be examined microscopically in order to determine whether red blood-cells, leukocytes, shreds of mucous membrane, and particles of undigested food are present. It is also possible to determine, by a microscopic study, to what extent the starch-cells have been broken, and whether or not bacteria and fungi are present (the Boas-Oppler bacillus being common in the fluid from gastric carcinoma). Bile when present colors the leukocytes and epithelium a pale yellow. Bartle and Harkins have conducted elaborate bacteriologic studies.*

Fractional Analysis.—This is accomplished by using a stomach tube. The fractional test meal extraction as introduced by Rehfuss is now in vogue and is accomplished in the following manner: A tube of small caliber, carrying a metal tip that is provided with fenestra of a size sufficient to permit the stomach contents to enter (see Fig. 200) is essential. The tube is swallowed when the test meal is given, and a small syringe is attached to the end of the tube. It is possible to draw from the stomach a definite portion of its contents at stated intervals (every 15 or 30 minutes and place each collection in a receptacle, cork and label this specimen designating name of patient and time of extraction. In the above manner the specimens are collected and the test may be continued over any period desired. (See chart.)

*Amer. Jour. Med. Sci., March, 1925, p. 373.

STOMACH CONTENTS

Single Analysis

Date	Amount	Character	Free HCl	Total Acid	Lactic Acid	Blood	Misc.	Reported by

Fractional Analysis

Date		15 Min.	30 Min.	45 Min.	1 Hour	1¼ Hours	1½ Hours	1¾ Hours	2 Hours	2¼ Hours	2½ Hours	Reported by
	HCl.											
	Total											

FECES

Date	Color	Mucus	Blood	Fat	Parasites or Ova	Remarks	Reported by

MISCELLANEOUS

(Including Throat and Pus Smears and Cultures, Vaginal Smears, Basal Metabolism, Etc.)

Date		Reported by

(1) **Technic.**—After the test-meal has entered the stomach insert the Rehfuss tube, and at the end of fifteen minutes draw into the syringe 5 or 6 c.c. of the gastric contents. It is essential that very little traction is employed in the withdrawal of these specimens.

(2) The syringe is then separated from the tube and the specimen placed in a suitable receptacle and carefully labeled.

(3) This process is repeated every fifteen minutes until all the test-meal has passed from the stomach.

(4) The stomach may be completely emptied at the end of the digestive period, and proof of this is that further samples cannot be obtained.

(5) The patient may be placed in several positions when the stomach is found to be empty, to prove that fluid is not present—(1) on his back—(2) resting on his stomach—(3) on the left side—(4) on the right side. In case the stomach is empty fluid cannot be aspirated in any of these positions.

(6) Whenever no more fluid can be aspirated inject a small amount of air through the stomach-tube, and place a stethoscope over the body

of the stomach when fine crackling sounds are audible, and there is an absence of the usual loud, gurgling sounds.

Fractional analysis where an Ewald meal is used and specimens collected until the last aspiration shows no evidence of food, meaning that gastric evacuation is complete, enables one to plot a series of curves indicating digestive work. (*a*) One series will measure the total and free acid content, and also, the combined acidity. (*b*) The amount and nature of the gastic content and secretion can be plotted. (*c*) The presence of blood, pus, mucus, bile, previous retention, and the albumin content of the fluid obtained, are determinable.

Interpretation of Gastric Findings.—We have detailed at some length results of fractional analysis in a number of pathological conditions, and we here emphasize the fact that gastric analysis does not in all cases harmonize clinically with the other evidences at hand. There are many definite cases where analytical findings are in reality foreign to the disease present. "There is no pathognomonic curve in any gastric condition. There is no pathognomonic curve in gastric cancer, ulcer, or, for that matter, any of the gastric conditions. We can only say that it may, and usually does, produce definite types of secretory and motor alterations and definite forms of pathologic elements." (Rehfuss and Hawk.) It is impossible to publish at this time any chart or series of charts characteristic of any one gastro-intestinal malady.

Significance of the Digestive Curve.—Irregularities in the digestive power are of two varieties, secretory and motor: The former is estimated by plotting the results of the fractional examination, and the latter is determined by an accurate delimitation of the complete food evacuation. "Secretory disturbances may be classed in three groups: (1) hypersecretory findings, (2) those following in general a normal curve, isosecretory, (3) those definitely belonging to the hyposecretory group." (Rehfuss.)

(*A*) High acid findings when present in health should not occur at the very inception of the curve, nor should they continue after food digestion in the stomach is completed.

(*B*) Digestion with high acidity but without mucus, pus, or blood indicate an irritability of secretory mechanism, often functional; *e. g.*, psychic, reflex from the vagus, heart, lungs, gall bladder, or the intestines.

(*C*) Forty per cent. of gastric ulcer cases show curve (*B*).

(*D*) High acidity together with hypersecretion during the first hour of digestion is termed larval hyperacidity; and except where food retention and pyloric stenosis are present these cases are also psychic or reflex.

(*E*) A continued high secretion and high acidity continuing into the interdigestive period suggests duodenal ulcer, and is occasionally seen in cholecystitis, appendicitis and in case of peritoneal adhesions.

(*F*) A normal curve does not preclude the possibility of an organic disease of the stomach, since approximately 30 per cent. of the gastric ulcers give a normal acid curve. Previously high secretion is seen during interstitial gastritis with eventual lowering of the acid output, and also when the lesion is in the fundus.

(*G*) Wherever blood and pus are present it may mean cachexia or a malignant neoplasm.

An isosecretory curve in an individual who is known to be hypersecretory suggests disease; and these hyposecretory curves are of four types: (1) general low acid curve; (2) a low, delayed curve where the acid eventually appears; (3) anacidity; and (4) achylia, and these curves all denote definite pathology.

A subacid curve void of mucus, blood, pus or previous food retention, is seen in systemic conditions; *e. g.*, diabetes, gout, nephritis and anemia. Inhibition of chloride metabolism is also observed in focal infection; disturbances in the endocrines (thyroid, adrenals and parathyroids. This curve is characteristic of chronic gastritis. A subacid curve with blood supports a diagnosis of gastric ulcer, hepatic cirrhosis, and less often carcinoma. A subacid curve where mucus, pus, blood and bacteria are present means infected gastritis or ulcerating carcinoma. "*The Anacid Group* comprises anacidity and achylia, the former characterized by the absence of acid but the presence of enzymes, the latter by the absence of both acid and enzymes." (Rehfuss.)

Fractional analysis enables one to distinguish between true achylias and delayed digestion, the former displaying absolute anacidity at every stage of digestion.

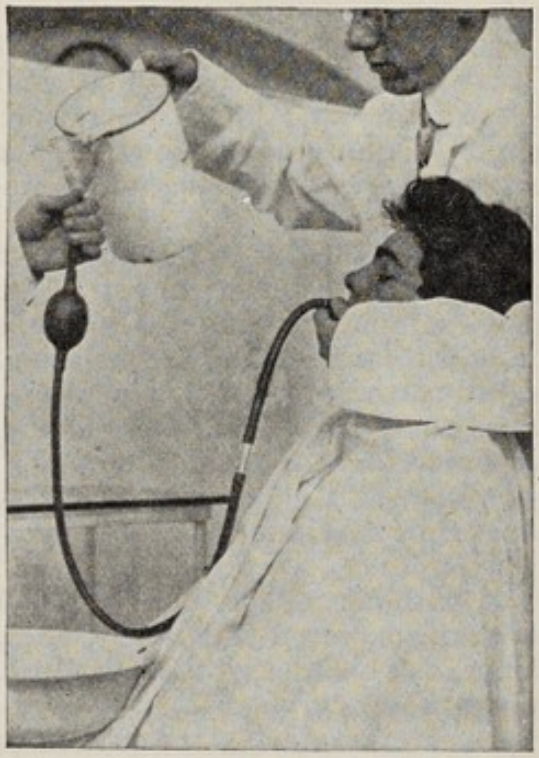


FIG. 201.—STOMACH-TUBE IN POSITION—INTRODUCTION OF LIQUID (Crandon and Ehrenfried).

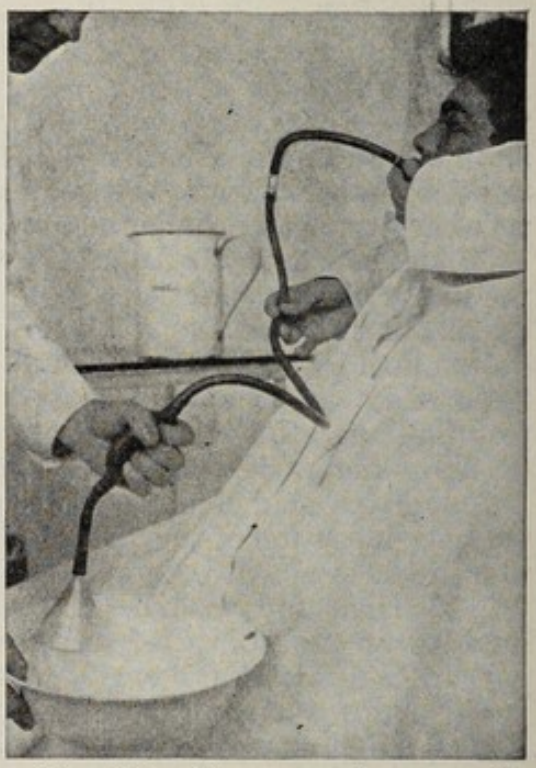


FIG. 202.—METHOD OF INDUCING EXPULSION OF GASTRIC CONTENTS BY SIPHONAGE (Crandon and Ehrenfried).

(1) Anacidity is encountered during the course of maladies displaying secondary anemia, as diabetes, pellagra, thyroid disturbance, pernicious anemia, toxemia, chemical disturbances, syphilis, and atrophic gastritis; total absence of acid and enzymes is seen.

(2) Anacidity with mucus is seen in the early stages of atrophic gastritis, advanced chronic gastritis, syphilis, carcinoma and scirrhous of the stomach.

(3) Anacidity with mucus and blood calls for consideration of syphilis, carcinoma, tuberculosis, purpura and the anemias.

(4) Anacidity accompanied by pus, mucus, blood, bacteria and organic acids, is seen in ulcerating carcinoma, infected gastritis, and syphilis. It is only through consideration of the entire clinical picture and a correlation of all data that a correct interpretation of the gastric curves is deduced.

The Motor End Point.—In healthy subjects an Ewald meal is evacuated in between two to two and a half hours, and this can be accepted as standard for the interpretation of gastric curves. Wher-

ever a meal is evacuated in one and a half hours, or less, there is hypermotility. Should the motor end point reach three hours or more there is hypomotility.

The hypermotility cases are divided in four groups: (*a*) achylia gastrica. In the anacidities and some of the subacidities, the assumption prevails that the acid control of the pylorus is disturbed and the sphincter remains relaxed, allowing rapid evacuation of the gastric contents; (*b*) scirrhous carcinoma with a patulous pylorus and the organ is like unto a rigid funnel and the sphincter is incapable of functions; (*c*) some cases of duodenal ulcer; (*d*) and those due to an exaggeration of peristalsis (functional) associated with a clean digestion.

Physical Properties of the Gastric Fluid.—The gastric fluid is an almost clear, faintly yellow liquid, having a sour taste, a peculiar odor, and a specific gravity varying between 1.002 and 1.003. The reaction of the gastric juice is acid, owing to the presence of hydrochloric acid, and is found to contain about 0.5 per cent. of solids.

Chemistry of the Gastric Contents.—The gastric juice consists of water, free hydrochloric acid, ferments, and mineral acids, saliva, and duodenal fluid.

Acidity.—It has been satisfactorily shown that the acidity of normal gastric juice depends principally upon the presence of free hydrochloric acid. Experimentally, it has been demonstrated that by determining the amount of chlorin and basic constituents present in the gastric juice, the latter substances, after having been thoroughly saturated, still permit a quantity of hydrochloric acid to remain free.

After the introduction of food into the stomach a varying amount of lactic acid, derived from the carbohydrates and acid salts, is also present; in fact, Ewald considers that the gastric acidity during the early stage of digestion depends to a variable degree upon the presence of lactic acid. Hydrochloric acid is also present during the early stages of digestion, but it probably exists in quite close combination with albuminous substances. When all the albuminous substances present in the stomach have become saturated, hydrochloric acid appears free in the gastric juice, and the quantity of lactic acid gradually decreases, since hydrochloric acid inhibits the development of the micröorganisms concerned in the production of lactic acid.

In pathologic conditions the quantity of free hydrochloric acid may display wide variation, and in extreme conditions (gastric carcinoma) it may be absent, or even reach a maximum of 0.5 per cent. (gastric ulcer). The quantity of lactic acid, which, under normal conditions, is but slight or absent during the height of digestion, is often found increased, and fatty acids are likely to be present at this time.

The total acidity of the gastric contents will, therefore, be seen to depend upon the presence of some one or more of the three acids previously mentioned, but a high degree of acidity does not point directly to the presence of any one acid in excess, and it is, therefore, necessary to determine the presence or absence of the various acids and of acid salts in order to draw definite conclusions as to what particular substance present gives rise to the acidity.

Test for Total Acidity.—Reagents: (1) A decinormal solution of sodium hydroxid (approximately 4 gm. in 1000 c.c. of distilled water); (2) a 1 per cent. alcoholic solution of phenolphthalein. In order to make an accurate decinormal solution of sodium hydroxid it is necessary to balance the solution by titration against a decinormal acid solution (preferably oxalic acid) made by careful weighing and measuring. A

solution made by dissolving four grams of sodium hydroxid in a liter of distilled water is only approximately accurate.

We have adopted Jaworski and Ewald's method for the estimation of total acidity, and consider the number of cubic centimeters of decinormal sodium hydroxid solution required to neutralize 100 c.c. of stomach contents to indicate the degree of acidity.

Technic.—(1) Place 10 c.c. of the filtered gastric contents in a beaker.

(2) Add two drops of the phenolphthalein solution.

(3) Add the decinormal sodium hydroxid solution one drop at a time from a buret, stirring the mixture with a glass rod after each addition of the sodium hydroxid solution.

(4) At the point where the gastric contents assume a permanent pink color its acidity has been neutralized by the sodium hydroxid solution, and the number of cubic centimeters of the decinormal sodium hydroxid solution employed is read from the buret.

Let us suppose that it requires 4.8 c.c. of the decinormal sodium hydroxid solution to neutralize 10 c.c. of the stomach contents; the decimal point is then removed one place to the right, giving the figure 48, the number of cubic centimeters necessary to neutralize 100 c.c. stomach contents, which figure represents the total acidity of the stomach contents.

Normal Stomach Contents.—Normal gastric fluid will be found to give a figure between 40 and 60 for Americans and Europeans, while 35 is normal for Japanese and natives from eastern Asia. Many clinicians prefer to estimate the total acidity of the stomach contents in terms of hydrochloric acid, which deductions are attained in the following manner, by the well-known laws of molecular equivalents: 1000 c.c. of the decinormal solution contain 4 gm. of NaOH, which is equivalent to 3.65 gm. of HCl. Each cubic centimeter of the solution, then, is equivalent to 0.00365 gm. of free hydrochloric acid. In order to determine the total acidity of a given specimen of gastric contents multiply the number of cubic centimeters of decinormal solution representing the total acidity by 0.00365. Suppose the total acidity of a given specimen was 48. The total acidity in terms of hydrochloric acid would be 48×0.00365, or 0.17. Normal gastric juice contains from 0.14 to 0.24 per cent. of hydrochloric acid.

Fasting Stomach.—Study of the gastric phenomena throughout the day discloses the fact that gastric digestion is made up of cycles. These cycles are:—(*a*) those in response to the entrance of food into the stomach, (digestive cycle); (*b*) A long or short pause is designated by the interdigestive cycle. The digestive cycle is always changing, from the time food enters into the stomach until it finally passes into the small bowel. It is this series of changes which are represented by the residuum, or contents of the fasting stomach. The interdigestive phase is accompanied in health by tonal faculties, hunger, and a secretion of low velocity. In selected diseases of the stomach, the digestive cycle may encroach on the interdigestive phase and may obliterate it. Where the digestive phase is lengthened, it prevents the long rest period, resulting in the twelve hour retention known to gastrologists.

A study of the characteristics of the residuum or fasting stomach, made by Rehfuss, on 100 normal men showed these factors as characteristic of the interdigestive phase, and 52.14 c.c. as the average quantity.

(1) Fowler and Zentmire, in eighty samples from normal women, found it to be 49.22 c.c. The average normal residuum in health is

approximately 50 c.c. and has a specific gravity of 1.0056 which fluctuates inversely to the total acidity.

(2) The total acidity of the normal residuum, in healthy men is 29.9 and among women 30.3 in terms of tenth normal sodium hydroxid. The average total acidity is 30, which is below one half of the total acidity of the digestive phase. The average free acidity for men is 18.5, and for women 15.6 with 17 the average. This figure contrasts with the free acid figures found during the digesting period when the pylorus tonus is plus and permits of but slight regurgitation from the duodenum.

(3) The pepsin concentration as measured by the Mett method gives and average of 3 for men and women, again different from the digestive phase.

(4) Trypsin tested by the method developed by Spencer, was studied by Rehfuss in sixty-three samples from women, with an average of 5.2 units; and twenty-six from men where the average was 9.1 units, the average was 7.1.

(5) **Bile.**—The observations of Rehfuss and Hawk, and those of Fowler showed the residuum to be bile stained, in from 56 to 68.1 per cent. of specimens. Regurgitation of bile occurs in over half of all normal cases.

(6) "The cryoscopic index in our cases was 0.470, which is distinctly less than that of the blood (0.560) and indicated that there is a tendency for osmosis of material to take place from the blood into the lumen of the stomach." (Rehfuss and Hawk.)

Summary.—The characteristics of the interdigestive or rest phase is a motor phenomena different from what is seen during the digestive phase, and exemplifies clearly three features: (*a*) approximation of the gastric walls; (*b*) relaxation of the pylorus, permitting a regurgitation of alkaline duodenal secretion into the stomach. (*c*) The secretory function is of vital interest since the titratable acidity is less than one half of that found during the digestive phase, and the secretory velocity is slow.

Significance.—A frequent manifestation of disease is observed in shortening of the rest period; (prolongation of the digestive period at the expense of the interdigestive period). "These cases range from mild atonies to pronounced organic obstruction, with a total disappearance of the interdigestive period." (Rehfuss.)

A continued secretion or hypersecretion, with high acid figures after all food has left the stomach indicates some serious gastric disorder. The initial velocity of the digestive period is extending beyond its normal time and into the interdigestive period.

Abnormalities in Gastroduodenal Balance.—In health the normal individual shows evidence of increased regurgitation of alkaline duodenal secretions and presumably from the lessened pyloric tonus. It is probable that in certain gastric disorders with lengthening of the digestive period this automatic mechanism is disturbed.

In health, a satisfactory acid balance is maintained between the digestive and interdigestive periods, but in disease, this balance is disturbed and the interdigestive period is often absent.

Hyperacidity.—An abnormally high degree of total acidity is known to accompany the following conditions: gastric ulcer, gastric dilatation, certain gastric neuroses, and when there is a hypersecretion of gastric juice.

Under pathologic conditions the acidity of the gastric contents may not depend upon hydrochloric acid alone. In fact, the total acidity may

be extremely high in stomach contents devoid of hydrochloric acid, but abnormally rich in fatty acids, lactic acid, and acetic acid.

Hypoacidity.—Rarely, indeed, the gastric contents is alkaline, amphoteric (changes red litmus-paper to blue and blue litmus to red), or neutral. (See Gall-bladder Disease.)

The acidity of the gastric contents is lowered in the mucous forms of chronic gastritis and when the gastric glands have been destroyed. We have found the reaction of the gastric contents to be neutral upon several occasions, but in each case the patient had taken a large quantity of fluid prior to the recovery of the gastric contents, or else he was suffering from a chronic catarrhal condition of the throat or esophagus and consequently swallowed an excessive quantity of buccal secretion.

When the stomach contents are collected as the result of vomiting, an alkaline reaction is commonly obtained, and this alkalinity is in part, if not entirely, due to the admixture of secretions from the throat, mouth, and esophagus.

Hypoacidity is to be seen in diseases of the gall-bladder which result in the loss of a hormone, which under normal conditions is secreted by the gall-bladder. Absence of a hormone inhibits the secretion of HCL, or possibly leads to or accompanies a distribution of intermediate chloride metabolism. Anacidity is present in 70 per cent. of cases following removal of the gall-bladder.

Proportion of Hydrochloric Acid.—In health, pure gastric juice has been estimated to contain from 0.2 to 0.3 per cent. of free hydrochloric acid, but quantities of free hydrochloric acid are to be found only at the height of digestion. The exact period at which the height of digestion is reached is governed by the character and the quantity of the food and liquids previously ingested: the less work there is to be accomplished, the sooner will the stomach contents be found to contain free hydrochloric acid following the ingestion of food. After taking Ewald's test-breakfast, the hydrochloric acid appears in the gastric fluid in from thirty to thirty-five minutes, but the point of maximum intensity is usually reached in from fifty minutes to an hour, and may correspond to 0.17 per cent. After the administration of Riegel's meal, the free acid appears after one hundred and thirty-five minutes, and reaches its highest point, corresponding to 0.27 per cent., in from one hundred and eight to two hundred and ten minutes.

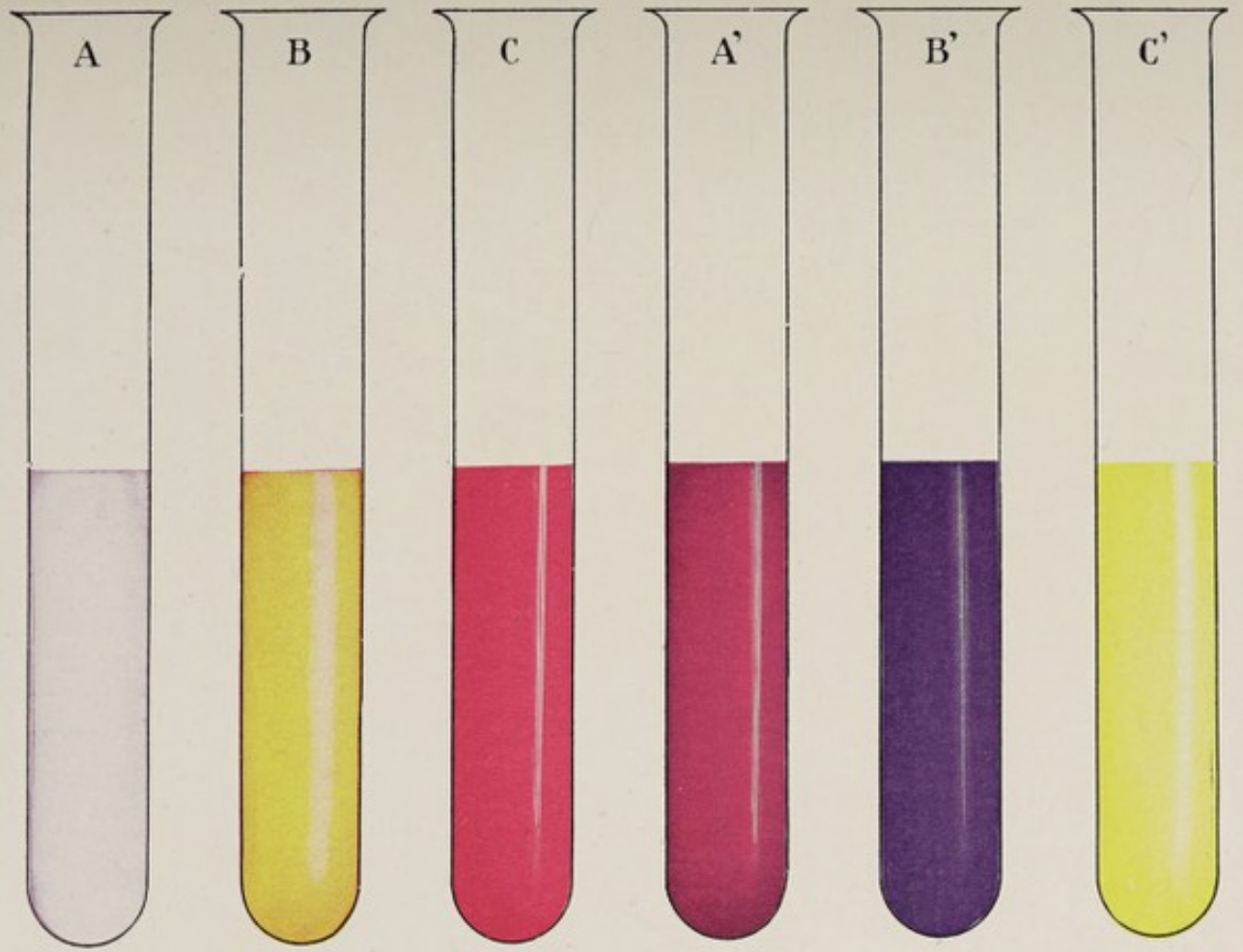
Ohly's experiments support the fact that the gall-bladder secretes a substance or hormone, and it encourages or governs the production of HCl.

Euchlorhydria is a secretion of the normal amount of free hydrochloric acid—varying from 0.14 to 0.24 per cent. This condition is most frequently observed in connection with nervous dyspepsia, and is always to be found when no gastric derangement exists.

Rarely a normal secretion of free hydrochloric acid is found when atony of the muscular wall of the stomach exists. The presence of a normal amount of free hydrochloric acid tends to exclude the existence of chronic gastritis, and favors the presence of neuroses of the stomach.

Hyperchlorhydria is a condition in which the secretion of hydrochloric acid averages more than 0.2 per cent. A hypersecretion of hydrochloric acid, as a rule, indicates gastric neurosis, and is commonly encountered in the gastric fluid of neurasthenic persons. A hypersecretion of hydrochloric acid is at times coupled with a continuous hypersecretion of gastric juice.

Hyperchlorhydria is characteristic of gastric ulcer, and is rarely seen in gastric carcinoma.



A. Gastric fluid to which a 1 per cent. solution of phenolphthalein has been added.
B. Gastric fluid to which a 1 per cent. solution of alizarin has been added.
C. Gastric fluid to which a 0.5 per cent. solution of dimethylamido-azobenzol has been added.
A'. A after titration with a decinormal solution of sodium hydrate.
B'. B after titration with a decinormal solution of sodium hydrate.
C'. C after titration with a decinormal solution of sodium hydrate.

(Boston.)

It was also present in 5 of 61 cases of gall-bladder disease reported by Fravel.* Hohlweg found hyperchlorhydria in 70 to 84 per cent. of persons suffering from gall-bladder disease. The authors experiences have been that 75 per cent. of such cases show hyperchlorhydria at some stage of the disease. The influence of the gall bladder through the production of its questionable hormone is doubtless stimulated when hyperchlorhydria exists (see hypo-acidity).

Hypochlorhydria.—This condition is associated with pathologic states in which the secretory power of the stomach is lessened as the result of disease, *e. g.*, in subacute and chronic gastritis, gastric carcinoma, dilatation, and atony.

Achylia or achlorhydria is an absence of free hydrochloric acid. This condition is most commonly seen in gastric carcinoma. Achlorhydria may also be observed in connection with chronic gastritis and in neurasthenic individuals. The degree of acidity of the gastric contents will fluctuate within wide limits during the course of the various chronic diseases, and especially in those accompanied by cachexia, emaciation, anemia and progressive pernicious anemia.

Tests for Free Hydrochloric Acid.—The following is a list of reagents, named in the order of their delicacy, by the use of which it is possible to detect free hydrochloric acid in the filtered stomach contents:

Dimethylamido-azobenzol	0.02 pro mille.
Phloroglucin-vanillin	0.05 pro mille.
Resorcinol	0.05 pro mille.
Congo-red	
Tropæolin 00	0.3 pro mille.
Emerald-green	0.4 pro mille.
Mohr's reagent	1.0 pro mille.

For general work, the Congo-red and Günzberg tests have been found to be the most satisfactory.

Congo-red Test.—Reagent.—An aqueous solution of Congo-red, 1 :1000.

Method.—1. To a half-filled test-tube of water add three drops of the reagent.

2. Grasp the bottom of the tube between the thumb and index-finger, hold it in a clear light, and allow one or two drops of the gastric contents to fall from a pipet. Hold the tube steady to prevent jarring. As soon as the drop of gastric contents comes in contact with the red solution, a blue color is produced, the upper portion of the liquid changing to a pale and then to a dark blue, and, as the gastric contents traverses through the lower, red stratum of the liquid, it leaves behind a faint blue track, collecting at the bottom of the tube in the form of a light-blue sediment.

We have found Congo-red to be satisfactory for the qualitative determination of free hydrochloric acid, since the other acids capable of producing the reaction are seldom, if ever, present in sufficient amounts to cause confusion.

The best test, however, for free hydrochloric acid in the gastric contents is that known as the Günzberg test. It requires the following reagent: Vanillin, 1.0; phloroglucin, 2.0; absolute alcohol, 30.0. One drop of filtered gastric contents is mixed with one drop of the reagent and the mixture is evaporated to dryness by the aid of gentle heat. In the presence of free hydrochloric acid the residue turns a bright pink color. Other acids in the gastric contents produce a dirty yellow color in the residue produced by evaporation.

*Am. Jour. Med. Sci., Apr., 1920.

For the quantitative determination of free hydrochloric acid in the gastric contents ten cubic centimeters of the filtered gastric contents are placed in a beaker and decinormal sodium hydroxid solution is added one-half cubic centimeter at a time. After each addition of the decinormal sodium hydroxid solution the Günzberg test is done, and when it is no longer positive the buret is read. The buret reading is multiplied by ten and the result is the number of cubic centimeters of decinormal sodium hydroxid solution requisite to neutralize the free hydrochloric acid in one hundred cubic centimeters of gastric contents. The result may be expressed by that number, or the number of cubic centimeters of the decinormal sodium hydroxid solution may be multiplied by the factor for hydrochloric acid, the result then giving the actual amount of hydrochloric acid present in the gastric contents.

Example: Suppose in a given specimen of gastric contents 2.5 c.c. of decinormal sodium hydroxid solution were added to 10 c.c. of the filtered gastric contents before the Günzberg test became negative. The free hydrochloric acid would then be $2.5 \times 10 = 25$, or $25 \times 0.00365 = 0.09$ per cent.

If the free hydrochloric acid be subtracted from the total acidity, the result will represent the combined hydrochloric acid and acid salts in the specimen.

In this country a normal gastric contents may be represented by the following figures: Free hydrochloric acid, 20 to 40; total acidity, 40 to 60.

Clinical Significance.—In selecting a diet for an individual in whom the hydrochloric acid is known to be absent on account of structural changes, it is necessary to direct that proteids be given in such form as will permit them to be subject to pancreatic digestion, obviating all possible delay. It is in such conditions that the administration of predigested foods is indicated. On the other hand, in functional achlorhydria a proteid diet may serve to stimulate the secretion of hydrochloric acid.

At times it is found that the quantity of hydrochloric acid secreted is sufficient to satisfy the albuminous affinities of a moderate-sized meal in which the proteids have been limited, and in such cases, when a suitable dietary is followed, digestion may be perfectly carried on.

Ferments and Proferments.—"It is generally conceded that pepsin itself is not secreted as a product of the chief cells of the glands of the fundus, but that the proferment of pepsin (pepsinogen or propepsin) is secreted. Numerous experiments have proved this statement, and shown that in fasting animals the glands of the stomach do not contain pepsin, but a substance which is not destroyed by sodium carbonate, and which is readily converted into pepsin when brought in contact with hydrochloric acid. It is this substance which has been designated under the caption pepsinogen.

"Pepsin is to be recovered from the mucous membrane of the stomach during the stage of digestion, but during the non-digestive stage, zymogen is to be recovered. Zymogen may be found coexistent with the process of digestion. The time at which zymogen is transformed into a ferment is doubtful. A fair amount of evidence exists, however, to show that this change takes place after it has been secreted."

Clinical Significance.—Free hydrochloric acid generally indicates that pepsin is present, and should these two substances be found in the stomach contents, gastric digestion takes place. A simple test to determine this is as follows: (1) Place 25 c.c. of filtered gastric contents in a test-tube, and to it add 0.05 gm. (approximately, one grain) of the white

of a hard-boiled egg; (2) heat the mixture to a temperature of 40° C., and observe the change that takes place. Under normal conditions, pepsin and hydrochloric acid being present, the coagulated albumin becomes digested in about three hours. If the albumin is undigested by the mixture, add five drops of dilute hydrochloric acid to the gastric contents, shake well, place at a temperature of 40° C., and observe the result. If digestion of the coagulated albumin takes place only after the addition of hydrochloric acid, zymogen or pepsin was present in the gastric juice, but was inactive until the addition was made, which shows conclusively that free hydrochloric acid was absent from the gastric juice. (3) If the coagulated albumin is unaffected by the gastric fluid after the addition of hydrochloric acid, both pepsin and zymogen are absent from the gastric contents.

Digestion of Carbohydrates.—The gastric secretion is in itself unable to digest carbohydrates, but there is evidence suggestive of the fact that a certain amount of starch is transformed into sugar early during gastric digestion, which digestion is dependent upon the action of saliva taken into the stomach with the ingestion of food. The action of the saliva, however, may be inhibited by 0.12 per cent. of free hydrochloric acid. The transformation of starches into sugar is most active in neutral or mildly alkaline solutions. The ferment of saliva first converts raw starch into soluble starch, then into erythrodextrin, achroödextrin, and eventually into maltose. A high grade of acidity of the gastric contents arrests starch digestion early.

Test for the Degree of Starch Digestion.—Place 10 c.c. of filtered gastric contents in a test-tube, and to it add a few drops of Lugol's solution (iodin, 0.1 part; potassium iodid, 0.2 part; distilled water, 300 parts). This solution causes a blue color to appear if soluble starch amidulin is present; if erythrodextrin, produces a purple color. If no color change develops upon the addition of Lugol's solution, achroödextrin, dextrose, or maltose is present. Soluble starch causes the formation of a blackish-blue precipitate with Lugol's solution.

Achroödextrin possesses a greater affinity for iodin than do any of the other intermediary products. It is well to add Lugol's solution freely in order that some of the intermediary products that require large quantities of iodin for the production of the color may not escape notice.

Further evidence of starch digestion may be obtained by the use of Fehling's solution. Maltose and dextrose reduce the copper when this solution is heated.

Clinical Significance of Reagent for Starch Digestion.—In normal carbohydrate digestion no color is produced with Lugol's solution after a test-meal of bread and water.

The violet color with Lugol's solution shows that starch digestion is imperfect, and it now becomes necessary to determine the cause of such imperfect saccharification. Imperfect starch digestion is caused by an excess of hydrochloric acid, a deficiency of saliva, or imperfect mastication of food.

Slight fat digestion takes place in the stomach, but at present it is not customary to estimate the degree of fat digestion in the gastric fluid.

It has been shown repeatedly that the fatty acids of the gastric fluid are somewhat intermediary, connected with the formation of lactic acid.

Test for Butyric Acid.—Gastric fluid rich in fatty acids emits an odor of rancid butter. Extract 10 c.c. of the gastric fluid with 50 c.c. of ether; evaporate to dryness, and dissolve the residue in a few cubic centimeters of water. Add a trace of calcium chlorid, and if butyric

acid is present, it will be precipitated in the form of small, oil-like globules. This precipitation, consisting apparently of oil, will be found to emit a decided odor.

Test for Acetic Acid.—Acetic fermentation may take place in the stomach, although theoretically it is believed to occur only in the presence of alcohol.

Test.—Carefully neutralize the acidity of the gastric contents. If acetic acid is present, sodium acetate will be formed, which will produce a blood-red color on the addition of a 10 per cent. solution of ferrichlorid.

Lactic Acid.—General Remarks.—Appreciable amounts of lactic acid are not present normally in the gastric contents recovered during digestion, but may be ingested with the food.

A decided reaction for lactic acid points to a diminution or an absence of hydrochloric acid. (See Clinical Significance of Hydrochloric Acid, p. 516.)

Test for Lactic Acid.—In order to ascertain the quantity of lactic acid present, it is necessary, first, to introduce the stomach-tube and to wash the stomach thoroughly, employing from 8 to 12 ounces of water. This water is then withdrawn, and the process repeated several times at a single introduction of the tube. In this way any lactic acid that might be present as a result of retained food substances—a feature of gastric dilatation—is removed. Boas' test-meal (p. 508) should now be administered.

Uffelmann's Test.—*Reagents.*—(*a*) A 10 per cent. aqueous solution of ferric chlorid. (*b*) Concentrated solution of pure phenol.

(1) Place 10 c.c. of water in a test-tube, and to it add three drops of solution (*a*) and three drops of solution (*b*); shake the tube gently, when the mixture will assume a bluish-black color.

(2) Add water and shake thoroughly, until a pale amethyst hue results.

(3) Hold the tube in a clear light, and add a small quantity of filtered gastric contents.

Lactic acid causes the upper stratum of the liquid to change to a canary-yellow color, and to avoid confusion it is recommended that 10 c.c. of gastric fluid be placed in a test-tube and from 30 to 50 c.c. of ether be added. Shake thoroughly, and allow it to stand for a few minutes until the ether separates from the gastric contents; then pour off the ether, and to this ethereal extract add Uffelmann's reagent. In the presence of lactic acid a canary-yellow color appears. (See Plate VII.)

Fallacies.—A reaction occurs with Uffelmann's reagent for lactic acid when an abundance of butyric acid, acid phosphates, glucose, and alcohol, is present in the stomach contents.

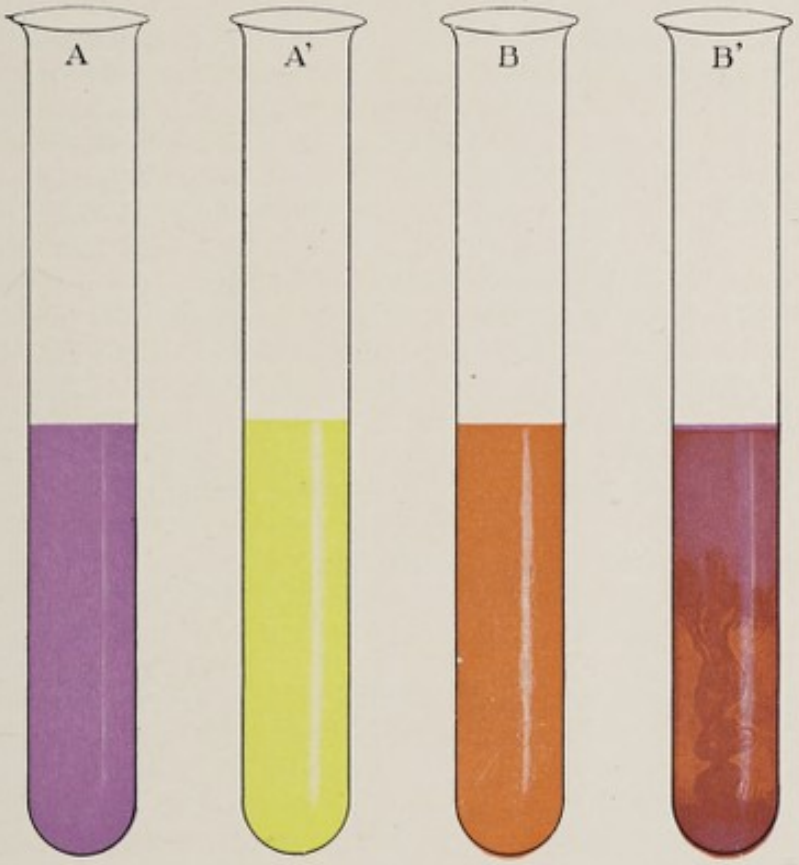
Kelling's Test.—Place 1 c.c. of the filtered gastric contents in a test-tube and dilute with 9 c.c. of water. Hold the mixture in a clear light, and add from one to three drops of a per cent. aqueous solution of ferric chlorid. Lactic acid causes a greenish-yellow color.

Acetone is present in the gastric contents when there is organic disease of the stomach or the intestine, and is occasionally present in carcinoma of the pancreas or of the liver. Acetone intoxication as a cause for vomiting was cited by Gruere in 1840 and acetonemia described by Marfan in 1901. These attacks are common in diabetics and in children. The vomitus of periodic headaches may contain acetone. See p. 696.

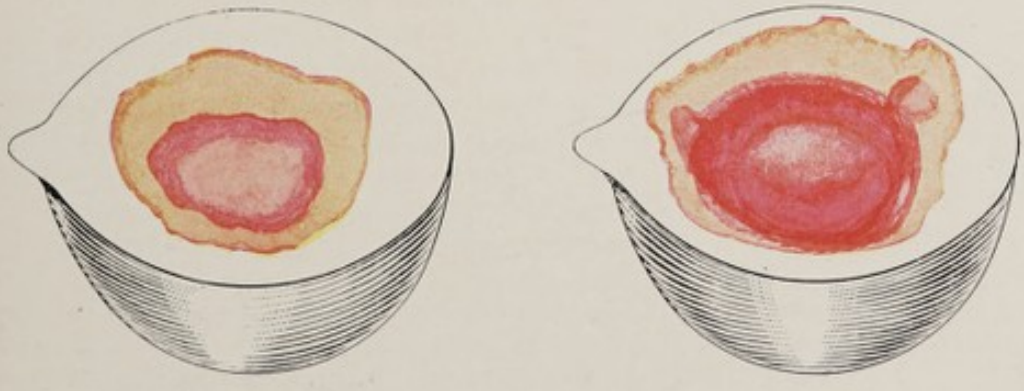
Wolff-Junghans' Test.—Soluble albumin appears in the extract of the aspirated gastric fluid through the agency of gastric enzymes. These authors found an abnormal quantity of soluble albumin in 18 of 20 cases of gastric carcinoma study. Smithies* in the study of 3950 patients

* Cancer of the Stomach, 1916, p. 245.

PLATE VII



A. Uffelmann's reagent.
A'. A after the addition of gastric fluid containing lactic acid.
B. Water to which three drops of Congo-red solution have been added.
B'. Change induced in B when gastric fluid containing free hydrochloric acid is added.
(Boston.)



1. Resorcin test for free hydrochloric acid. 2. Günzburg's test for hydrochloric acid.
(Boston.)

at the Mayo Clinic employed this test in 747 instances where achylia was associated with malignancy and other pathologic conditions.

Technique.—(1) Give the patient one ounce of castor oil at 4 P.M. the day before performing the test. (2) A test-meal of mixed fruit is to be given at 6 P.M. (3) At 7 P.M. 20 raw seedless raisins are to be slowly eaten. (4) 7 A.M. the following morning give the patient 60 grams of stale bread and 200 c.c. of water. (5) Remove this meal 50 to 60 minutes later. (6) Mix the gastic contents; filter through a double hydrochloric-acid-washed paper and test for dissolved albumin.

Reagent.—Phosphotungstic acid (puriss)		3 c.c.
Hydrochloric acid (concentrated)		10 c.c.
Alcohol (96 per cent.)		200 c.c.
Aq. dest	q. s. ad.	2000 c.c.

Mix and keep in a glass or rubber-stoppered flask in a cool place. (*a*) Six narrow test-tubes of 20 c.c. capacity are required for each test. (*b*) Place in each tube respectively, 1 c.c., 0.5 c.c., 0.25 c.c., 0.1 c.c., 0.05 c.c., and 0.025 c.c. of the filtered gastric extract. (*c*) Add distilled water to each tube bringing the volume to 10 c.c. This gives a dilution in the respective tubes varying from 1 to 10, to 1 to 400. These figures are used in terms of units for measuring perceptible albumin. (*d*) Invert the tube several times to insure perfect mixture. One c.c. of the reagent is carefully layered upon the contents of each tube through principal of the original Hellar and Boston tests for urinary albumin. A positive reaction is designated by a white zone at the junction of the reagent with the diluted gastric extract.

Clinical Significance.—(1) Achylia gastrica and instances where achlorhydria exists, give a positive reaction with the Wolff-Junghans' test in 25 to 35 per cent. of all cases. (2) In gastric carcinoma the Wolff-Junghans' reaction with the extract of the gastric fluid is positive in 65 to 75 per cent. of cases. In gastric ulcer with achlorhydria 48 per cent. of positive reactions are obtained; whereas in duodenal ulcer 60 to 65 per cent. of positive Wolff-Junghans' reaction for dissolved albumin are found. (3) During the course of anemia with associated gastric disturbances and achlorhydria a positive Wolff-Junghans' reaction is not uncommon.



FIG. 203.—BOAS-OPPLER BACILLUS FROM NEAR TOP OF FLUID FROM WASHING IN CASE OF GASTRIC CANCER (Observation at Pennsylvania Hospital).

MICROSCOPIC STUDY OF THE GASTRIC CONTENTS

In order to secure any valuable clinical information the gastric contents must be examined microscopically within a few hours after its collection. After a test-meal starch-cells, mucus, epithelial cells, and leukocytes may be found in the gastric contents; but these are present only in small numbers, with the exception of the starch-granules, which are always numerous. Yeast-cells, sarcinæ, and large numbers of bacteria are also found when there is a reduction in the amount of free hydrochloric acid, and even though the total acidity of the gastric contents may be unusually high, bacteria and fungi are present, unless this increase in the acidity is due to hydrochloric acid.

In dilatation of the stomach particles of food may be present that have been ingested some days prior to the recovery of the gastric contents. The

epithelial cells and mucus found in the gastric contents may have escaped from the esophagus or come from the throat, and seldom give positive evidence of gastric disease.

Shreds of necrotic tissue and of gastric mucous membrane are rarely detected in the stomach contents, and when present, are always suggestive of gastric ulceration or necrosis. Intestinal parasites—*e. g.*, ascaris lumbricoides, ankylostoma or hook-worm, and segments of the tape-worm—are occasionally found in the vomitus. The pathologic findings are discussed at length under fractional-gastric analysis and chief among these are;—pus, blood and tissue shreds.

The Boas-Oppler bacillus is quite constantly present in the gastric contents during the course of gastric carcinoma. This bacillus (Fig. 203) appears in long, segmented chains, which often assume a somewhat tortuous course; it stains readily with the ordinary anilin dyes, is Gram-positive, and is not motile. This bacillus is found in the gastric contents when free hydrochloric acid is diminished or absent and lactic acid is abundant. There has been some question as to whether or not the Boas-Oppler bacillus is concerned in the production of lactic acid. It is not uncommon to find quite dense aggregations and clumps of these bacilli disseminated throughout the gastric contents.

The Vomit.—The vomit is usually composed of the contents of the stomach mixed with a variable amount of mucus and saliva. The odor of the vomit is of great diagnostic importance, since in certain conditions it is characteristic; thus a putrid odor suggests pyloric stenosis or ulceration of the stomach; an ammoniacal odor points toward the vomiting of uremia. Certain foods and drugs influence the odor of the vomit (onions, asafetida, garlic), and in phosphorus-poisoning the vomit gives off a decided odor of garlic. Phenol, camphor, and creosote also lend their peculiar odor to the vomit.

VOMITING

In Acute Infections

Scarlet fever,
Yellow fever,
Diphtheria (occasional),
Acute nephritis,
Epidemic meningitis,
Whooping-cough (during a paroxysm),
Asiatic cholera,
Small-pox,
Measles,
Typhoid fever (occasional),
Acute dysentery
Poliomyelitis,
Pulmonary tuberculosis (incipient and advanced stages).

Gastric Causes

Acute gastritis,
Gastric cancer,
Gastric ulcer,
Pyloric stenosis,
Gastric hour-glass contraction,
Gastric dilatation,
Cyanotic congestion (of cardiac or hepatic origin),
Chronic gastritis,
Following diatetic errors (cholera morbus, cholera infantum).

Renal Causes

Acute nephritis,
Chronic parenchymatous nephritis,
Chronic interstitial nephritis,
Acute pyelitis,
Floating kidney,
Renal calculus,
Ureteral calculus (during attack of colic),
Nephritic abscess.

Hepatic Causes

Catarrhal jaundice,
Hepatic calculi (colic),
Acute yellow atrophy,
Acute cholecystitis,
Atrophic cirrhosis,
Hypertrophic cirrhosis.

Intestinal Causes

Obstruction (stercoraceous vomit),
Acute appendicitis,
Acute catarrhal dysentery,
Acute general peritonitis.
Intestinal colic.

PANCREATIC CAUSES

Pancreatic calculus,
Carcinoma of head of organ,
Acute pancreatic hemorrhage,
Chronic pancreatitis.

PHYSIOLOGIC

Pregnancy,
Menstruation.

SHOCK

Injuries sufficient to induce shock,
Profuse hemorrhage,
Sudden excitement,
The sight of certain substances.

DRUGS AND TOXINS

Apomorphin,
Ether anesthesia,
Chloroform anesthesia,
Morphin,
Carbolic acid and corrosives,
Chronic lead-poisoning,
Arsenic-poisoning,
Phosphorus-poisoning,
Illuminating gas-poisoning.

SPECIAL SENSE

Certain odors,
Repulsive sights,
Certain tastes
Hysteria.

NERVOUS CAUSES

Cerebral tumor,
Cerebral abscess,
Concussion,
Cerebral hemorrhage,
Cerebral sinus thrombosis,
Middle-ear disease,
Epidemic meningitis,
Tuberculous meningitis,
Tabes dorsalis (gastric crises),
Increased tension of fluid in spinal canal (uremia and sunstroke),
Epilepsy,
Migraine,
Sea-sickness,
Acute poliomyelitis.

Odor of Stercoraceous Vomiting.—Stercoraceous vomiting is characterized by its fecal odor, which is dependent upon the presence of phenol, indol, and skatol. Fecal vomitus is usually alkaline in reaction.

When vomiting is preceded by nausea, the ejecta will contain an abnormally large proportion of saliva. The time that elapses between the vomiting and the taking of food is of much clinical importance. (See Vomiting, p. 522.) It is also important to distinguish between material ejected from the stomach and that which is regurgitated from the throat or from a dilated or sacculated esophagus. (See Dilatation of the Esophagus, p. 470.)

Bile.—When the vomitus is green in color, bile is generally present, but it is unusual to find bile in the gastric contents that has been recovered through the stomach-tube; we recall but a single instance—that of a neurasthenic female of thirty-five. Rehfuss and Hawk found the residuum bile stained in from 56 to 68 per cent. of normal specimens collected during the interdigestive stage.

Biliary vomiting, when frequent, points to the existence of obstruction either in the lower duodenum or upper portion of the jejunum. The presence of bile in the gastric contents obtained by the stomach-tube is in a measure indicative of pancreatic disease.

(1) Place on a blotting paper a drop of the filtered gastric fluid, and near to it a drop of yellowish nitric acid.

(2) Draw a glass rod through the acid and to the stomach contents.

(3) At the point where the two liquids meet a display of colors develop if bile is present.

Blood.—The vomitus is often blood-stained. (See Vomiting, p. 522.)

Blackford in collaboration with his associates studied 1000 patients that were referred for gastric disease and found that in 25 per cent. of these cases no gastric pathology existed. In 2 per cent. the symptoms followed some operation, in 35 per cent. different pathologic lesions were

discovered in the abdomen, but not in the stomach; and in 18 per cent. the pathologic condition was regarded systemic. (No causal lesions found.) Only 14 per cent. of Blackford's patients displayed definite gastric disease. The accompanying table given by Blackford serves as a clinical explanation of the 1000 cases studied.

FINDINGS IN ONE THOUSAND PATIENTS EXAMINED FOR STOMACH COMPLAINTS

Present Clinical Diagnosis	Number	No. Pts.	Previous Operations			
			Appendix	Gallbladder	Stomach	Pelvis
Organic gastric	... 141					
Carcinoma	38	3	2	1		
Gastric ulcer	16	5	3	..	2	
Duodenal diverticulum	1					
Duodenal ulcer	83	16	9	..	6	
Hair ball	1					
Gastric syphilis	1					
Sarcoma	1					
Reflex gastric	... 345					
Appendix	78	1	..	..	..	1
Gallbladder	155	36	23	9	1	6
Constipation	71	18	15	..	1	3
Colitis	27	7	5	..	..	3
Pelvic	13	2	2	..	..	2
Tapeworm	1					
Systemic disease	... 181					
Pernicious anemia	10	0				
Syphilis	19	3	2	..	1	2
Tabes	5	2	1	..	..	1
Circulatory	50	3	2	1		
Lungs	28	4	2	..	..	1
Kidneys	17	3	1	..	..	1
Migraine	16	4	2	..	1	
Others	36	1	1			
Functional	... 252					
Neurosis	156	42	31	4	2	20
Hyperacidity	44	8	8	1		
Achylia	42	10	6	..	1	3
Psychic	10	1	..	..	..	1
Unclassified	... 59	13	7	3	1	3
Postoperative	... 22	20	8	6	3	9
Totals	... 1,000	202	130	28	19	56

DISEASES OF THE STOMACH

FOREIGN BODIES IN THE PHARYNX, ESOPHAGUS, AND STOMACH

A variety of foreign bodies may lodge in the pharynx and esophagus, and amongst these special mention should be made of small fish bones and other sharp objects which most often lodge in the crypts of the faucial and lingual tonsillar tissues. Pain and discomfort in the throat is customary, and swallowing aggravates the pain. The pharynx can be well covered by the index finger, and this examination should be made in all cases; particularly in cases of delirium and coma. Foreign bodies are occasionally expelled from the air passages by coughing, and lodge in the pharynx. An important symptom in pharyngeal foreign body is violent coughing or choking, and this may be followed by vomiting. In exceptional cases foreign bodies, such as pins, have been found in the pharynx, and been known to have migrated from other portions of the body. Wandering foreign bodies may be found not only in the pharynx, esophagus, and stomach, but in almost any portion of the body.

Foreign Body in the Esophagus.—Inability to swallow serves as the most prominent symptom, and should always suggest to the clinician that some foreign body may either completely or partially

obstruct the esophagus. Complete obstruction is seen when a bolus of meat, or other food, becomes lodged in the upper opening of the esophagus, and such cases are followed by a violent reaction of choking and coughing. Small pointed objects may become lodged in any portion of the esophagus, and in this event the patient may only display an inability to take solid foods.

Spasm of the esophagus with complete temporary occlusion is a frequent feature in connection with foreign body, and this phenomena is best shown by a radiographic study. Foreign bodies have been known to remain in the esophagus for a long time without causing any serious inconvenience to the patient. Pain may assist in localizing a foreign body, but in ordinary cases pain is unreliable. When a sharp or pointed foreign body becomes lodged near the hiatus discomfort is felt in the region of the ensiform cartilage.

Periesophageal inflammation when excited by the presence of a foreign body causes pain when the patient swallows. Esophageal spasm, especially when the irritant is near the hiatus, serves as the chief cause for pain.

Whenever the esophagus is completely occluded by a foreign body salivation is a conspicuous feature, and the excess of saliva may, in some instances, enter the larynx following which there are attacks of violent coughing. As previously stated cough is an early and a late symptom in esophageal obstruction. Dyspnea may depend either upon direct pressure upon the trachea or upon excessive mucous, which eventually escapes into the larynx. There may be interference with phonation. Fever is not a constant symptom, but when present depends entirely upon the character of the local inflammation.

Gastroscopic examination is necessary in all questionable cases of foreign body in these organs. *X*-ray study is also necessary.

NEUROSIS OF THE STOMACH

Definition.—A functional condition of the stomach characterized clinically by intermittent and at times periodic attacks of gastric disturbance, the patient displays but few, if any, symptoms between these attacks. Motor or sensory disturbances may be present, or in fact both may develop in the same individual.

Predisposing and Exciting Factors.—Focal infection located in the mouth, teeth, tonsils or sinuses is the most important etiologic factor. Many cases of gastric neurosis are seen to develop in persons who have previously suffered from neurasthenia or hysteria; the condition may also follow prolonged mental strain, overwork, anxiety, business reverses, grief, sudden emotion, excitement, and practically any condition that impoverishes the system.

Emphasis is to be laid upon the fact that not all persons suffering from gastric neurosis are ill nourished, but, on the contrary, many of them appear to enjoy fairly good health. Gastric neuroses are more commonly seen among the moderately well-to-do and the wealthy classes. They are far more common among females than among males. In a large percentage of cases the condition is secondary to some organic lesion that is oftenest located in the genito-urinary tract.

Principal Complaint.—Anorexia is an early and a constant symptom, and after the taking of food the patient suffers from a sense of oppression in the region of the epigastrium. Following the ingestion of certain foods there are eructations of gas, and in some instances particles

of food are regurgitated, followed by an intense burning sensation along the esophagus and in the pharynx. Vomiting may occur, but is by no means characteristic of gastric neurosis.

The patient complains at times of a rumbling in the intestine, and of decided movements felt in the region of the stomach and over the abdomen. Upon examination these movements will often be found to be due to increased peristalsis.

Constipation and attacks of diarrhea, neurotic in character, are among the symptoms of gastric neuroses.

Physical Signs.—Inspection.—There may be evidence of abdominal distention or the abdomen may be scaphoid. The movements of the stomach can often be detected through a thin abdominal wall, and if gastric dilatation is present certain irregularities in the abdominal wall are apparent.

Palpation.—The muscles of the abdomen contract quickly in response to any irritation, and the movements of the stomach are exaggerated by abdominal palpation. If pain is present, firm pressure over the epigastrium will generally be followed by relief.

Auscultation.—An unusual amount of gurgling is heard both over the stomach and over the intestine, but such sounds do not appear to be associated with intense abdominal distress. There may by an abnormal shortening of the swallowing time (one to three seconds). (See Esophagus.)

Laboratory Diagnosis.—In certain selected cases the stomach will be found to contain a large amount of mucus several hours after the ingestion of food or after a night's sleep, whereas in another group of cases in which there is increased motility, it is impossible to recover any liquid from the stomach after a night's rest and the stomach is often found empty forty minutes after the taking of a test-meal. (See Fractional Analysis, p. 509.)

The hematologic changes displayed by those suffering from gastric neurosis are of two types—first, that in which there is a moderate grade of secondary anemia (see Secondary Anemia); and, second, that displaying no appreciable evidences of anemia; and, in fact, there may be an increase in the number of red cells in a cubic millimeter, and in the percentage of hemoglobin. The number of leukocytes in a cubic millimeter is of but limited value in this disease, since leukocytosis may result from the ingestion of certain foods, exercise, etc. (See Leukocytosis.)

Summary of Diagnosis.—The diagnosis is based on the following:

(1) The etiologic factors present. In this connection it is important to ascertain what possible causative influence may account for, or contribute toward, the production of the gastric symptoms.

(2) The course and duration of the malady and the absence of positive signs and symptoms suggestive of organic disease of the stomach.

(3) The effect of eating indigestible substances—*e. g.*, whether or not this is followed by dyspnea, palpitation, vertigo, etc.

(4) The character of the pain, and the conditions that excite and relieve pain, are of the utmost importance in distinguishing gastric neurosis from gastric ulcer and gastric carcinoma. (See Epigastric Pain, p. 491, and Pylorospasm.)

(5) The gastric contents reveals a disturbance in the normal plotting of gastric function (see Fractional Analysis).

Duration.—The duration of neurosis of the stomach depends largely upon the early application of judicious treatment, both medical and hygienic. The majority of cases recover in from a few weeks to several

months or a year, although occasionally cases are encountered in which this malady persists for an indefinite period.

Neuroses of Secretion

Hyperchlorhydria.—Definition.—An abnormal secretory function of the stomach resulting in the production of an excess of hydrochloric acid in the gastric juice. The percentage of hydrochloric acid in health is approximately (0.2 per cent.). In disease it may reach (0.36 per cent.).

Predisposing and Exciting Factors.—An excessive quantity of hydrochloric acid is not infrequently seen in persons who have recently undergone great anxiety or who are overworked; it is uncommon in the laborer. A history of dietetic errors—*e. g.*, a too liberal ingestion of rich foods and alcohols—is often obtained. Focal infections often antedate this form of neurosis.

Sex.—Men are more likely to suffer from this condition than are women.

Varieties.—Hyperchlorhydria may be continuous, but in the majority of instances it is intermittent, lasting for from a few hours to several days. In the intermittent type the amount of hydrochloric acid secreted by the stomach is not above the high normal limit in the free intervals, but during the attacks the quantity of hydrochloric acid may double or treble that of the normal. The intervals between the attacks of hyperchlorhydria vary greatly in different individuals, and generally last from a few days to several weeks or even years.

Principal Complaint.—The first symptom of which the patient complains is an uneasiness in the epigastrium occurring one, two, or three hours after a full meal. He may have noticed that the epigastric discomfort follows the taking of certain foods, but later the discomfort gradually increases until it reaches the stage of acute pain. At a certain interval after each meal, pain occurs. As the disease progresses the pain becomes more and more intense, and in severe cases may develop two hours after the taking of food; it lasts for a period of from two to four hours, during which time acid eructations may occur.

The greater the quantity of hydrochloric acid in the gastric contents, the more severe is the pain, and the less likely is starch digestion to take place in the stomach. The patient often notices that these symptoms are less severe after a meal rich in albumins—a feature readily explained by the fact that an abnormally large proportion of the hydrochloric acid is employed in satisfying these albuminous affinities.

The patient often volunteers the information that his pain is relieved by the taking of alkaline salts.

When hyperchlorhydria has existed for weeks or months, the patient becomes highly nervous, and complains of attacks of vertigo and headache, and of progressive weakness, although he seldom experiences a decided loss of weight.

Physical Signs.—*Inspection.*—The abdomen is of normal contour or may be scaphoid, although there are exceptions to this rule when intestinal tympanites with distention is present. After nervous symptoms have developed, distinct peristaltic waves may be detected.

Palpation.—Deep palpation over the epigastrium usually elicits a slight degree of diffuse tenderness.

Percussion occasionally reveals an increase in the area of stomach tympany.

Auscultation.—A decided splashing sound is frequently audible over the stomach, even in those cases in which dilatation is but slight.

Laboratory Diagnosis.—A study of the stomach work both during digestion and throughout the interdigestive (rest periods) is necessary. (See Fasting Stomach, p. 514.) The characteristic features of hyperchlorhydria are: (1) When the stomach-tube is introduced while the patient is fasting, the organ is found to be empty, or but a small quantity of liquid is recoverable. (2) An increased total acidity of the gastric contents. (3) An abnormally high percentage of hydrochloric acid. (4) Absence of the organic acids and fermentation.

Summary of Diagnosis.—The clinical facts of greatest importance in establishing a diagnosis are the following: (*a*) The age of the patient, the disease being most common in young adults. (*b*) Occupation, students and those doing clerical work being predisposed. (*c*) The time at which pain develops after the taking of food —two or three hours. (*d*) The preëxistence of some subacute or chronic infection.

Differential Diagnosis.—The distinctive features between hyperchlorhydria and gastric ulcer are that in the former the epigastric tenderness is duffuse, whereas in the latter tenderness is localized and acute.

The time at which pain develops is also a valuable aid in distinguishing between these two conditions—two or more hours after the taking of food in hyperchlorhydria, whereas in gastric ulcer the pain develops immediately and is not relieved until the stomach is emptied by vomiting. The vomiting of blood is quite common in gastric ulcer (30 to 50 per cent. of cases), but rare in uncomplicated cases of hyperchlorhydria.

It is necessary to compare the plotting results. (See Fractional Analysis.)

Gastro-succorrhœa continua chronica is the name applied to a condition in which there is a continuous secretion of the gastric juice, regardless of whether or not food is present in the Stomach. (See Fasting Stomach.)

Neuroses of Motility

This type of neurosis is divided into two subclasses—(*a*) Neurosis with increased gastric peristalsis, which is followed by a propulsion of the contents of the stomach into the intestine before it has completely undergone gastric digestion, by the escape of gas from the stomach through the duodenum, and by the paroxysmal escape of gas from the stomach through the esophagus. (*b*) A rare condition that permits partially digested food to escape from the stomach into the duodenum, and also permits the contents of the duodenum and intestine to be returned into the stomach.

Predisposing and Exciting Factors.—In a large percentage of all cases in which there is eructation of gas from the stomach the patient will be found to be of a hysterical temperament, or at least a neurasthenic. Much of the air is taken into the stomach through the mouth, and is later expelled as the result of increased contraction of the viscus. Authentic cases have been reported in which belching has been due to air expelled from the esophagus, and in which there was an appreciably increased motility or contractility of the stomach.

Principal Complaint.—Eructations of gas, epigastric discomfort, epigastric distention, cardiac palpitation, vertigo, and a feeling of faintness are usually experienced.

Estimation of Gastric Peristalsis.—Empty the stomach by means of stomach-tube and introduce through the tube "Salzer's test-meal, (see p. 508). It is in this form of gastric disorders where fractional study of the gastric work serves as the only accurate means of diagnosis. (See Fractional Analysis, p. 509.)

X-ray studies and observation of the patient under the fluoroscope while food is passing from the mouth to the intestine gives the most conclusive information.

TORMINA VENTRICULI (PERISTALTIC UNREST)

Definition.—A condition characterized by gurgling, which begins during or immediately after the taking of food, and continues for an indefinite period.

Predisposing and Exciting Factors.—Peristaltic unrest is occasionally observed in those cases in which a compensatory hypertrophy of the stomach results from stricture of the pylorus. Cases of this particular type have been seen in which pyloric constriction resulted from carcinoma. Gastric neurosis favors and is at times a causal factor.

Principal Complaint.—Simultaneously with the eructation of gas the patient may complain of a burning sensation in the esophagus and throat, and if continued over a prolonged period, may cause a more or less constant substernal burning. The character of food taken may increase or lessen the degree of pyrosis.

Among the other annoying symptoms of the neuroses of motility may be mentioned the regurgitation of particles of partially digested food into the mouth; these particles are generally remasticated, and again swallowed.

DIMINISHED PERISTALSIS

Diminished peristalsis may be due to relaxation of the pyloric orifice or of the cardiac orifice of the stomach. (See Motor End Point, p. 512.)

Pyloric relaxation is a decidedly rare form of gastric neurosis, which permits the undigested food to escape into the intestine, and, when the stomach is empty, a reverse current is set up, in consequence of which the contents of the duodenum are returned into the stomach.

Detection.—Pyloric relaxation may be detected by inflating the stomach, when the upper intestine will also be seen to become distended by gas. *X*-ray findings are conclusive in these cases.

ATONY (ATONIC DYSPEPSIA)

This particular type of gastric disease may present itself in the form of a neurosis, although in many instances it is secondary to a chronic type of gastritis. A feature of gastric insufficiency presented by atonic dyspepsia is that of hypomotility, and it is characteristic of this condition that the food introduced into the stomach remains in the organ too long. (See Significance of Gastric Fluid, p. 509.) (See Motor End Point, p. 512; also Fasting Stomach, p. 514.)

Principal Complaint.—The patient complains of epigastric oppression, distention of the epigastrium, and a tendency toward permanent abdominal enlargement. The appetite is impaired, and at times perverted. Eructations of gas and constipation are the rule.

The gastric fluid obtained six hours after a test-meal containing finely chopped meat will be found to contain chyme and undigested particles of the meal. Diminished motility of the stomach may also be detected by administering a capsule containing potassium iodid (coated with salol or keratin), when the saliva gives a reaction for iodin with starch-water paper as soon as the capsule passes into the duodenum. Alkaline gastric fluid prevents the accuracy of this test.

Differential Diagnosis.—Roentgenologic study is a certain course to distinguish atony from other gastric disorders.

Relaxation at the Orifices

Definition.—A condition that in many respects resembles paralysis of both the pyloric and the cardiac portion of the stomach.

If relaxation involves the cardia, gas and possibly liquids are returned to the mouth, but this regurgitation does not occur unless the stomach is filled. The symptoms from relaxation of the cardiac orifice must be distinguished from those of regurgitation, previously described in which there are increased motility and possibly spasm of the stomach. If the cardiac orifice is unusually large, increased motility is not essential to such regurgitation. A relaxed condition of the pylorus has also been referred to in this chapter.

Pneumatosis

Definition.—Pneumatosis is a condition in which the stomach is overdistended by gases.

Remarks.—On account of the gastric overdistention the diaphragm is pushed upward and causes it to exert undue pressure upon the heart, and as a result of such pressure the patient is suddenly seized with either a mild or a severe attack of dyspnea.

The cardinal symptoms accompanying pneumatosis are: dyspnea, in which both inspiration and expiration become difficult; cardiac palpitation, accompanied by the throbbing of the carotid and brachial arteries; a sense of fullness of the head, followed by a tendency toward vertigo, and dimness of vision.

The skin becomes cyanosed, the expression anxious and fearful. If the cardiac distention is not relieved by eructations or by the escape of the gas into the intestine, unconsciousness follows. Attacks of pneumatosis (acute indigestion) may be immediately relieved by the introduction of the stomach-tube into the stomach.

Cardiospasm

Definition.—A cramp-like pain at the cardiac portion of the stomach. There are two forms of cardiospasm: (1) Acute cramp of short duration; and (2) chronic cramp, which is more or less continuous.

Exciting Causes.—Cardiospasm occurs after the introduction of irritants into the stomach, and may be sufficiently severe to cause a temporary occlusion of the cardiac orifice. In hysterical and neurasthenic persons both acute and chronic cardiospasm may develop. In the chronic type of spasm atresia has been known to follow.

Clinical Discussion.—The pain which may be either spasmodic or somewhat continuous is usually localized to the lower segment of the sternum, and a trifle to the left of the median line. The patient experiences temporary difficulty in swallowing, accompanied by a pain which radiates through to the spine.

In selected cases there is a regurgitation of the food following spasmodic pain. Where cardiospasm has existed for a long time dilatation of the oesophagus results, and consequently the patient may with comparatively little effort regurgitate a large volume of food, which chemically does not contain the acids of the stomach.

Diagnosis.—This is based largely upon the clinical history, *e. g.*,—neurotic subjects who have occasionally experienced difficulty in swallowing. The regurgitation of food not mixed with gastric juice is also a strong point in favor of cardiospasm. In the study of a series of these cases at the Philadelphia General Hospital we found that the *x*-ray was of greatest value in revealing the actual conditions present in the esophagus

and stomach. Fluoroscopic study will in most instances disclose the lesion.

Pylorospasm

Definition.—A cramp resulting from spasmodic contraction of the ring-like muscles of the pylorus. It is commonly accompanied by spasm of the esophagus with altered swallowing time. Focal infection is now conceded to be the commonest exciting cause.

Pylorospasm may be either primary or secondary, the latter type being far the more common; it is usually the result of local irritation—hyperacidity etc. The stomach is the one viscus that participates in the symptom complex when other viscera are diseased, consequently a reflex cramp in the pylorus (pylorospasm) is commonly traceable to some remote cause: *e. g.*:—gallstones, duodenal ulcer, appendicitis and pathologic changes in the abdominal organs, teeth and sinuses.

Acute attacks of gastric disturbances when depending upon disease of other organs are ordinarily accompanied by a rise in temperature, of 100 to 102°.

Nervous Vomiting

Definition.—A symptom depending upon a reflex neurosis of the stomach, seen at practically all ages, although occasionally more common in adult females of hysterical temperament.

Remarks.—Nervous vomiting does not follow the taking of food nor is it preceded by nausea. The patient seldom complains of a typical vomiting of undigested foods, but of frequently expectorating particles of food.

Neuroses of Sensation

Gastralgia (Cardialgia; Gastrodynia).—Definition.—Paroxysmal epigastric pain developing without known gastric or nervous lesions. (See Cardiospasm and Pylorospasm, pp. 530–531.)

Predisposing Factors.—Prolonged secondary anemia predisposes markedly to the development of gastralgia. **Sex** is an etiologic factor, females being more susceptible than males. A hysterical temperament and heredity are also believed to be predisposing factors. In many instances gastralgia is believed to be reflex in origin. Overwork, anxiety, and grief often predispose to attacks of the disease. Prolonged hyperacidity of the gastric fluid and other types of gastric neurosis may be followed by paroxysmal attacks of epigastric pain.

Gastralgia is in many instances more or less closely associated with the so-called *nervous dyspepsia*, in which the gastric contents show an excess of hydrochloric acid, but it must be remembered that in such patients hyperacidity, and especially hyperchlorhydria, are remittent. Severe nervous maladies are generally experienced by those suffering from gastralgia. "I believe that a very small percentage of cases are caused by malaria" (Anders).

Principal Complaint.—Paroxysmal attacks of pain, occasionally preceded by anorexia or by a sensation of epigastric oppression, are complained of. The pain is agonizing, and radiates from the epigastrium to the back, and in the more severe types there may be girdle pains surrounding the base of the chest. In mild cases the pain lasts for but a few minutes, whereas in the severe types it may continue for one or more hours. A characteristic feature of the pain is that it is always relieved by the eructations of gas, vomiting, or by the introduction of the stomach-tube. In selected cases the patient may state that she is able to relieve the pain, in a measure, at least, by making firm pressure over the stomach.

Laboratory Diagnosis.—A chemic analysis of the gastric contents will be found to give greatly varying results—*e. g.*, the acidity may be excessive, normal, or subnormal. Neurosis of the hypersecretory variety gives readings of 160 to 200 cholesterol in 100 c.c. of blood. This variation is not sufficient to make this finding a strong diagnostic feature.

Summary of Diagnosis.—The diagnosis of gastralgia is made largely by excluding organic disease of the stomach. The violent spasmodic character of the pain, the fact that the attacks occur at irregular intervals, and the effect of eructations of gas or of the introduction of the stomach-tube (relief of pain), will enable the clinician to form a correct diagnosis.

Differential Diagnosis.—The following table serves to show the distinctive clinical features of gastralgia and of the conditions for which it may be mistaken.

Gastralgia	Gastric Crises of Ataxia	Hepatic Colic	Intestinal Colic
1. History of previous attacks of epigastric pain at irregular intervals.	1. History of long-standing trouble. Signs and symptoms of locomotor ataxia present.	1. There may be a history of previous attacks which were followed by jaundice.	1. A history of previous attacks of umbilical pain, which always follow the ingestion of indigestible or unripe foods, commonly obtained.
2. Most common in young females, rarely seen in children or after the fortieth year.	2. Seen in males during early and middle life. Rarely observed in women.	2. Unusual before the age of twenty, common after forty.	2. Common during childhood and in young adults.
3. Pain not excited by food, and develops most often when the stomach is empty.	3. Not affected by food.	3. Most likely to develop within one to three hours after a full meal.	3. Occurs when the stomach is full.
4. Pain is cramp-like, usually of short duration, and when severe, may radiate to the back or partially encircle the base of the chest.	4. Pain resembles closely that of severe gastric pain, encircles chest at about the nipple-line and seldom as low as the umbilicus.	4. Pain develops suddenly, is cramp-like in character, localized to the right hypochondrium, and radiates to right shoulder.	4. Cramp-like pain at the umbilicus and may radiate over entire abdomen.
5. Following the attack the patient is comparatively healthy.	5. Always displays the characteristic signs and symptoms of locomotor ataxia.	5. The conjunctivæ and skin are jaundiced forty-eight hours after the attack.	5. There may be jaundice, due to associated catarrh of the duodenum.
6. Habitual constipation the rule.	6. Constipation the rule, but there is a frequent desire to go to stool. Diarrhea an occasional symptom.	6. Constipation the rule. Stools light or clay-colored.	6. Diarrhea often precedes the pain, and may persist for from six to twenty-four hours.

Gastralgia	Gastric Crises of Ataxia	Hepatic Colic	Intestinal Colic
7. Urine may be that of hysteria, *e. g.*, pale in color, increased in quantity, and of low specific gravity.	7. The urine is likely to contain pus and mucus, the result of an associated chronic cystitis. Power to empty bladder limited.	7. Urine of high color, displays a heavy, yellow froth, and contains bile.	7. Urine scanty, highly colored and rich in indican.

Hyperesthesia.—Definition.—An increase in gastric sensibility, so marked that mild irritants, when introduced into the stomach, excite discomfort and pain, which may be either dull or burning in character.

Remarks.—A hypersensitiveness of the stomach may accompany both organic and functional affections of the organ. Hyperesthesia may be one expression of a general gastric neurosis or of a general neurasthenic temperament, and is common in girls suffering from chlorosis.

Principal Complaint and Probable Etiology.—There is a sense of epigastric fullness and nausea, followed by vomiting after the taking of irritating foods. In severe cases practically all aliment taken into the stomach excites distress, and on this account the patient refuses to eat. When fasting is continued for several days, however, the epigastric distress increases. In many instances the patient will be cognizant of the fact that the taking of certain foods, *e. g.*, strawberries, cherries, peaches, and certain shell-fish, is followed by an attack of epigastric pain.

The gastric symptoms are often accompanied by such cutaneous manifestations as erythema and urticaria, with intense itching. Certain cases are probably due to food idiosyncracies (allergy). Typical attacks of hysteria are occasionally observed.

ACUTE GASTRITIS (Acute Gastric Catarrh)

Pathologic Definition.—A condition characterized by an acute inflammation of the gastric mucous membrane.

Varieties.—(1) Acute catarrhal gastritis, marked by an acute catarrhal inflammatory process involving the great portion of the gastric mucosa. (2) Acute toxic gastritis, in which the inflammation of the gastric mucosa has been excited by the taking of certain toxic or corrosive substances, *e. g.*, phosphorus, acids, and alcohols. (3) Suppurative (phlegmonous) gastritis, which is characterized by a suppurative process of the gastric mucosa and submucosa, and which may have resulted from either one of the preceding types.

Exciting and Predisposing Factors.—Bacteriology.—Fungi have repeatedly been recovered from the gastric contents, and ulceration of the gastric mucous membrane has been known to follow invasion of the stomach mucosa with the Achorion schönleinii (favus fungus), a case of this type having recently come under our observation. The Oïdium albicans (thrush fungus) has also been recovered from the stomach of persons suffering from acute gastritis. Yeast cells and mycelia are not infrequent findings in the gastric contents of this affection, but their pathologic significance is doubtful.

In the vast majority of instances in which acute gastritis attacks those who are in apparent health, the condition is excited by the ingestion of improper foods or by overeating, *e. g.*, an excessive amount of highly spiced and of fatty foods, rich meats, vegetables, nuts, etc. Again, it may follow the eating of decomposing foods, in which case it might be

said to be bacteriologic in origin, although in such instances gastritis is not the result of the action of the saprophytic bacteria ingested with the food, but is due to the activity of the ptomains generated by such bacteria. Gastritis may result from the eating of decomposing canned foods, in which bacteria and a variable amount of acetic, lactic, and butyric acids, together with certain ptomains, have been produced. (See Toxic Gastritis, p. 537 and Botulism.)

Acute gastritis frequently follows the too free imbibition of alcoholic stimulants, and may, in selected cases, result from the excessive use of tobacco and other narcotics.

Attacks of acute gastritis frequently follow the eating of a large amount of pork infected with trichina spiralis. Children infected with round-worms or tape-worm are suject to attacks of gastritis.

Among other predisposing factors should be considered any condition, either febrile or afebrile, in which impairment of the normal secretory or motor power of the stomach is present. (1) Bad hygienic surroundings; (2) chronic anemia, either primary or secondary; (3) malnutrition and the presence of such chronic maladies as gout, rheumatism, carcinoma, parasitic blood diseases (malaria), tuberculosis, and suppurative conditions; (4) diseases of the liver, *e. g.*, cirrhosis, gall-stone, hepatitis, jaundice (acute or chronic), and disease of the bile-duct, are also prominent predisposing factors; (5) chronic gastric catarrh usually manifests acute exacerbations among its prominent features; (6) in children, gastritis is exceedingly common when malnutrition is evident, and during the stage of convalescence from the acute infectious diseases including scarlet fever, diphtheria, and typhoid fever; (7) a tendency toward attacks of acute gastritis is seen in adults suffering from typhoid fever, pneumonia, and remittent and intermittent fevers; (8) disease of the pancreas and of the intestines materially predisposes to attacks of acute gastritis.

Principal Complaint.—In the *milder varieties* of acute gastric catarrh (acute dyspepsia) the patient complains of epigastric pain and vomiting. The pain may begin as uneasiness, which is followed by fullness, a sense of pressure, and distress. Among other symptoms are unusual thirst, eructations of gas, and possibly of liquid, which are later followed by an increased flow of saliva. The vomiting is preceded by nausea. The vomitus at first contains the undigested food with a large amount of mucoid material. Should vomiting continue for some time, the ejecta becomes bile-stained, and in severe types may contain blood.

The patient complains of an unpleasant taste, that his tongue feels thickened from its heavy coating, and that there is a peculiar sticky covering over his teeth. The condition of his tongue varies at different times during the day, being now dry and parched, and again, bathed in saliva. Prostration is not a conspicuous symptom.

In the more *severe types* of gastritis the symptoms just described are present, but are more intensified, constitutional symptoms, *e. g.*, prostration, severe headache, mental dullness, cardiac palpitation, numbness and tingling of the extremities, appearing early. Spots appear before the eyes, and while reading the letters become confused. Not infrequently an erythematous eruption appears that may involve any portion of the body or may be general. Intense itching of the skin and urticaria are by no means uncommon.

Thermic Features.—In the milder types of acute gastritis the temperature is but slightly, if at all, elevated, but in severe cases it will be found between 100° and 103° or 104° F. Fever is of but short duration, and usually subsides soon after the stomach is thoroughly emptied.

Physical Signs.—Inspection.—The patient presents an appearance of distress, and if the pain is severe, the cheeks are some what sunken, the expression anxious, the attitude that assumed in abdominal cramp, and there may be alternate paling and flushing of the cheeks. An eruption may develop, although it is by no means characteristic of acute gastritis. This eruption may be in the form of rough, erythematous blotches that may coalesce to form a more or less complete erythema. Urticaria may be associated, and the entire surface of the body become involved. Underneath the arms and in the inguinal regions clusters of elevated nodules are often seen.

The tongue is at first red, glazed, and moistened, but a few hours later it becomes dry and parched, and by the second or third day it is heavily coated at the base and center. Tooth-marks at the edges of the tongue are common.

The abdomen is at first somewhat distended; but after vomiting has been severe, it may be scaphoid in outline. Herpes labialis commonly develops during the course of acute gastritis.

Palpation.—Deep pressure over the epigastrium elicits a variable degree of localized tenderness.

Percussion.—This method of diagnosis is of but limited value in acute gastritis. A variable degree of dullness is by no means uncommon early during acute gastritis.

Laboratory Diagnosis.—The laboratory findings are in no way characteristic of this affection. The percentage of free hydrochloric acid may be excessive, diminished, or normal, and the same is true of the total acidity.

When a high acid curve is present the cholesterol commonly exceeds 200 mg. in 100 c.c. of blood. The plotted gastric curve may vary greatly (see Fractional Analysis, p. 509).

The urine is usually rich in indican, highly colored, of high specific gravity, and during the severity of the attack the quantity is lessened. If the patient suffers from intense thirst, which is followed by the taking of large quantities of water, the urinary secretion may be increased, the specific gravity low, and the color light. The blood cholesterol has thus far been found of limited diagnostic value in gastric conditions.

Summary of Diagnosis.—The clinical history, and particularly a history of the taking of indigestible foods, alcohols, narcotics, and the like, is important. A sudden rise of temperature, followed by a rapid fall at the end of from the first to the third day, is also of clinical importance. It is necessary for the clinician to recognize acute gastritis when it develops as a complication of some one of the acute infections. The character of the vomiting, the epigastric pain and tenderness, together with the cutaneous manifestations, *e. g.*, pallor, erythema, urticaria, are usually sufficient to enable one to arrive at a diagnosis.

Differential Diagnosis.—Acute gastritis may be confounded with **measles, acute nephritis, epidemic meningitis,** and certain other acute infectious conditions. The following table sets forth the distinctive differential features between acute gastritis, smallpox, and scarlet fever.

TABLE SHOWING THE CLINICAL DIFFERENCES BETWEEN ACUTE GASTRITIS, SMALLPOX, AND SCARLET FEVER

Acute Gastritis	Smallpox	Scarlet Fever
1. History of dietetic errors the rule, and probably of previous attacks.	1. May be history of exposure to smallpox.	1. May be history of exposure or of an epidemic.
2. No chill.	2. Severe rigor at onset.	2. Chill or a series of chilly sensations.

Acute Gastritis	Smallpox	Scarlet Fever
3. Sense of fullness and distress in the epigastrium, which increases until there is intense pain, which may be reflected over the abdomen.	3. Epigastric pain absent although there may be soreness of the abdominal muscles.	3. No epigastric pain or soreness.
4. Pulse 75 to 100, and of low tension.	4. Pulse 90 to 120, tension fairly high.	4. Pulse strong and wiry at 120 to 140 a minute.
5. The fever is of an irregular type, ranging between 99° and 103° F., and usually subsides when the stomach is thoroughly empty. No secondary fever.	5. Temperature 102° to 104° or 105° F., and of the continuous type early, and falls after the eruption develops. Secondary fever four to six days later.	5. Temperature 102° to 105° F., and of the continuous type, declining by end of first week.
6. Throat symptoms absent.	6. Marked soreness upon swallowing and the entire mucous membrane of the throat is reddened.	6. Intense reddening of the mucous membrane of the throat. The child usually holds his head in one position, and complains of severe angina upon swallowing. There is swelling of the glands of the neck.
7. Diarrhea common.	7. Constipation.	7. Constipation.
8. When in bed the patient usually lies with his thighs somewhat flexed upon the abdomen and the chest inclined forward.	8. Rests upon his back, and hesitates to move about the bed on account of muscular soreness.	8. Patient very restless.
9. Urine free from albumin. Contains indican.	9. Febrile albuminuria present. Hematuria in malignant cases.	9. Trace of albumin early; post-scarlatinal nephritis common after second week, when renal casts are present.
10. With the onset the skin is pale, blanched cold, and clammy.	10. Face flushed and skin intensely hot.	10. Entire skin flushed, Dick test positive.
21. Rough, erythematous eruption may appear within the first twelve to forty-eight hours. Eruption is in the form of blotches, and between these are seen slight elevations of urticaria.	11. Eruption is detectable on the second day, when there is a fine erythema on the inner surface of the thighs and arms, and, later, a shot-like eruption over the forehead and about the wrists. Vesicles and pustules appear later (hemorrhagic eruption) in malignant cases.	11. Within the first thirty-six hours the entire body becomes an intense scarlet, so that is it possible to write with the finger upon the chest or back.
12. There may be headache and vertigo.	12. Intense headache early, and severe pains in the muscles of the back, loins, and extremities.	12. Headache the rule.
13. Respiratory symptoms negative.	13. Harsh, non-productive cough, with the physical signs of bronchitis.	13. Respiratory symptoms negative unless they occur as a complication.

Duration.—The milder cases of acute gastritis go on to recovery in from one to three days, whereas in the more severe types the duration is somewhat longer.

Complications.—Among the most frequent complications of acute gastritis should be mentioned constipation, which may persist for days or weeks after the attack.

Catarrhal jaundice, probably the result of extension of the inflammatory process to the duodenum, often develops in from two to four days after an attack of acute gastritis. It is important to note in this connection that the symptoms of acute gastritis are almost entirely masked by those characteristic of jaundice.

TOXIC GASTRITIS

Pathologic Definition.—A condition characterized by a violent congestion of the gastric mucous membrane the result of the taking of irritating substances, such as corrosive poisons, phosphorus, antimony and arsenic, acids, etc., into the stomach. In severe cases there may be localized areas in which there is sloughing of the mucous surface.

Varieties.—(1) Moderately severe toxic gastritis, in which the toxic substances ingested are not corrosive and do not produce either ulceration or sloughing of the gastric mucous membrane, but excite congestion and swelling.

(2) Severe toxic gastritis, caused by the introduction into the stomach of corrosive substances which produce necrosis of the gastric mucous membrane and may be followed by suppuration.

(3) Acute inflammation of the gastric mucous membrane, with edema and swelling, excited by the taking of certain vegetable substances, *e. g.*, peaches, cherries, strawberries, tomatoes, mushrooms, canned ripe olives, and crab meats.

Principal Complaint.—This will be found to vary greatly according to the type of gastritis present; even in the milder cases, however, excited by the taking of fruits and vegetables, the onset is somewhat abrupt and violent. The patient vomits incessantly, and suffers from cramp-like pain in the epigastrium. The vomitus at first contains the offending substance, but after there has been severe retching, and particularly after corrosive substances have been taken, the vomitus may contain blood. In severe cases shreds of mucous membrane are expelled with the vomitus. A few hours later diarrhea develops, and at the same time, there may be intense thirst, burning of the mouth and throat, and dysphagia. After the diarrhea has persisted for a few hours, general symptoms, with prostration, occur.

Thermic Features.—The temperature fluctuates within wide limits, and is governed almost entirely by the character of the exciting substances taken, *e. g.*, in those cases in which stone fruits were the exciting cause, the temperature will be found to vary between 101° and 104° F. Following the taking of corrosive substances the temperature may rise suddenly to 104°, or even higher, but if the quantity taken has been large, the temperature suddenly becomes subnormal, and remains so until death supervenes. In cases with extensive necrosis that are known to recover, a continued type of temperature is the rule.

Circulatory Symptoms.—The heart action is increased in direct proportion to the degree of shock, and in cases in which corrosive substances have been taken, the pulse increases rapidly to from 120 to 160 beats a minute, is weak, thready, dicrotic, intermittent, and compressible.

Even in those cases that terminate in recovery the pulse will be found to vary between 90 and 120 beats a minute.

Nervous Phenomena.—Convulsions and the various types of delirium may develop at any time during the course of toxic gastritis.

Physical Signs.—Inspection.—The patient is usually seen in bed; the expression is anxious, the skin is pale and beaded with perspiration, and the respirations are frequent. There is, as a rule, a variable degree of abdominal distention, and the patient rests with the thighs flexed upon the abdomen.

Palpation.—The skin is cold and clammy, and there is tenderness and pain upon deep pressure over the epigastrium.

Laboratory Diagnosis.—The vomitus contains the offending substance. Phosphorus, phenol, and the alkalies are readily detected in the vomited material. The vomitus usually gives a reaction for blood, irrespective of whether or not there has been necrosis of the mucous membrane. *Microscopically*, the vomitus will display red and white blood-cells, and shreds of necrotic tissue may be present.

The quantity of urine excreted is, as a rule, below that of the normal, and following toxic gastritis excited by phosphorus, mercury, and arsenic, these poisonous substances are detectable in the renal secretion. The urine is often bloody, usually of high specific gravity, and after the taking of phenol displays a peculiar smoky appearance and gives off an odor of phenol.

Albuminuria is common, and granular casts, blood casts, and epithelial casts are rarely present.

The administration of poisons by the mouth may be followed by a rapid disintegration of the blood, in which event the hemoglobin is dissolved out of the red cells, appears free in the blood-plasma, and is excreted by the kidneys. Other evidences of degeneration of the red blood-cells may also be present, depending upon the degree of irritation offered to the gastric and esophageal mucous membrane. Either leukocytosis or leukopenia will be present, the latter occurring when the toxemia is profound.

Summary of Diagnosis.—The history of having taken some substance known to be highly irritating to the gastric mucous membrane, which act was followed by violent vomiting, convulsive seizures, epigastric pain, and a tendency toward circulatory collapse, diarrhea, and intense thirst, are almost positive evidences of toxic gastritis.

The diagnosis is further supported by the detection of eroded surfaces on either the buccal or pharyngeal mucous membranes, and by the discovery, in the vomitus, of the toxic substance taken. If the patient survives the initial shock, there may then be a diminished quantity of urine which is rich in albumin.

Complications and Sequelæ.—The chief complications are acute nephritis and suppurative gastritis. Among the sequelæ should be metioned stricture of the esophagus and gastric ulcer, although these are uncommon unless corrosive substances have been taken.

PSEUDOMEMBRANOUS GASTRITIS

Definition.—An inflammatory disease of the stomach characterized pathologically by the production of a false membrane upon the mucosa.

General Remarks.—Pseudomembranous gastritis is always secondary to some acute or chronic malady, *e. g.*, pneumonia, scarlet fever, smallpox, or diabetes; it may also attack debilitated children. The

condition is an extremely rare one, and cannot be diagnosticated antemortem.

ACUTE SUPPURATIVE GASTRITIS (PHLEGMONOUS GASTRITIS)

Definition.—An acute inflammation with suppuration of the gastric mucosa and submucosa.

Predisposing and Exciting Factors.—Phlegmonous gastritis is almost as rare as pseudomembranous gastritis, and like it, is a secondary disease. "I have observed pathologic evidences of its presence, however, in two cases that came to autopsy, both patients having died of sepsis. The suppurative process is excited by invasion of pyogenic cocci" (Anders).

Varieties.—(1) Diffuse purulent infiltration of the gastric mucous membrane. (2) Circumscribed inflammation of the stomach-wall (stomach abscess).

Symptomatology.—The symptoms are practically those seen in any suppurative process of a viscus, and they are, therefore, not characteristic of suppurative gastritis.

Thermic Features.—The temperature may be either irregular or of the typhoid type—102° or 104° F. The patient soon enters into the so-called typhoid condition, from which he does not rally.

Epigastric pain, nausea, and vomiting are present in the majority of instances. The detection of pus in the vomitus is in no way diagnostic of suppurative gastritis.

CHRONIC GASTRITIS (CHRONIC CATARRH OF THE STOMACH; CHRONIC CATARRHAL DYSPEPSIA)

Physical examination reveals but little, if anything, that is of diagnostic value.

Pathologic Definition.—A disease characterized by a chronic catarrhal inflammation of the gastric mucous membrane, which varies greatly in intensity and may, in certain instances, result in atrophy of the gastric glands.

Varieties.—(1) **Simple chronic gastritis,** in which there is but a slight chronic inflammation of the gastric mucosa, and in which, after an Ewald test-meal, the hydrochloric acid is found to be somewhat diminished and lactic acid may be present. Pepsin and rennin are always present after an Ewald test-meal. Acetic acid is occasionally found, and the fasting stomach usually contains some mucus.

(2) **Chronic mucous gastritis,** in which the essential factors are a mild inflammation of the gastric mucous membrane, together with an excessive secretion of mucus.

(3) **Atrophic chronic gastritis** which is characterized anatomically by atrophy of the gastric glands, and clinically by impairment of the gastric function, which is marked by a diminution in, or even an absence of, free hydrochloric acid, pepsin, and rennin.

Exciting and Predisposing Factors.—Chronic gastritis probably oftenest results from—(*a*) repeated attacks of acute gastritis and the prolonged use of highly spiced and rich foods, alcohols, and narcotics. (See Acute Gastritis, p. 533.) Pyorrhea alveolaris has been found to figure prominently as a predisposing, and also an exciting factor in subacute inflammatory processes involving the gastric mucosa. Those cases of chronic gastritis accompanied by profound anemia are very commonly associated with pyorrhea.

In America where the subject of pyorrhea has been studied most carefully, it has been further shown that this condition ordinarily ante-

dates many chronic inflammatory maladies attacking both the gastric and intestinal mucous membrane.

(*b*) Overeating, when continued for prolonged periods, has been shown to excite chronic gastritis, as has the too liberal use of iced water and cold drinks when taken at meal-times.

(*c*) Chronic gastritis may be secondary to a chronic disease elsewhere in the body, *e. g.*, uterine disease, intestinal catarrh (chronic dysentery or chronic constipation), neurasthenia, and conditions in which there are associated neuroses.

(*d*) Mechanic influence, *e. g.*, valvular heart disease, cirrhosis of the lung, pulmonary tuberculosis, cirrhosis of the liver—in short, any condition known to cause chronic venous congestion of the gastric mucous membrane.

(*e*) Not infrequently chronic gastritis is found associated with such chronic afebrile maladies as gout, chronic nephritis, essential anemia, tertiary syphilis, eczema, and diabetes.

(*f*) Repeated attacks of malaria and infection with Amœba histolytica may be followed by chronic gastritis.

(*g*) Chronic gastritis is also a prominent symptom of gastric carcinoma, gastric ulcer, and gastric dilatation, and in many instances it may precede the last-named condition for months or years.

Principal Complaint.—This will be found to vary within wide limitations in different cases and in different phases of the disease. The majority of patients will complain of certain symptoms, among which should be mentioned headache, particularly upon rising in the morning, disturbed sleep, annoying dreams, general mental depression, drowsiness during the day with wakefulness during the night. The patient does not feel rested in the morning, but rises feeling careworn and irritable, and oppressed by a general sense of languor and indisposition to do either mental or physical work.

The appetite is fickle; thus at one time there is anorexia, and following this the appetite is likely to be abnormally great.

The patient experiences a sense of epigastric oppression and fullness after eating which may later be described as a distinct pain. A burning sensation in the epigastrium and substernal burning, with the regurgitation of acid liquid substances into the throat and mouth, are not infrequent complaints. Hiccough may be annoying, and may develop at any hour during the day, although it more commonly occurs one-half to two hours after the ingestion of a full meal. The gas eructated may be offensive. The tongue and mucous membrane of the mouth are parched, and the patient at times experiences an inordinate thirst.

If there is associated gastric dilatation, vomiting is a common feature of chronic gastritis. Morning nausea, with the expectoration of a large quantity of mucus, is common. (See Cardiospasm, p. 530.)

Physical Signs.—Inspection.—The patient may be either fairly well nourished or emaciated; the skin and conjunctivæ are slightly pale, except in atrophic gastritis, where there is associated emaciation of the epigastrium, and the entire abdomen may be distended. The tongue appears broad and flabby, its papillæ are enlarged, and the tip and edges of the organ are reddened and show indentations or markings of the teeth. Rarely, the tongue is smaller than normal, and slightly coated at its center; the papillæ are red and prominent, and the edges are thin; still less often the tongue presents a normal appearace.

Palpation.—In selected cases there is epigastric tenderness. The epigastrium is usually found to be full, and excessive gastric motility may be detected.

Percussion.—By this means we are able to outline the boundary of the stomach. In those cases in which there is gastric fermentation or associated gastric dilatation the area of stomach tympany is increased. (See Auscultatory Percussion.) In cases characterized by sclerosis and atrophy of the stomach-wall there will be a diminished area of stomach tympany.

Auscultation.—Distinct gurgling may be heard over the stomach both when the organ is empty and after a full meal. In mucous gastritis and in chronic gastritis with dilatation a decided succussion splash may be elicited, and may be heard at some distance from the patient's body.

Laboratory Diagnosis.—The vomitus will vary according to the length of time that elapses between the taking of and the ejection of the contents of the stomach. Ordinarily, the vomitus contains undigested food and a moderate amount of mucus. The vomiting of large quantities of mucus irrespective of the taking of food is characteristic of chronic mucous gastritis. In the chronic gastritis of alcoholics the vomitus is usually acid in reaction, although when there is an associated neurasthenic element, the vomitus may be neutral or even alkaline.

The acidity of the vomitus of chronic gastritis may be due to the presence of both free and combined hydrochloric acid, acid salts, and lactic and butyric acids, whereas alkalinity results from the presence of certain alkaline salts. Through a careful study of the gastric work following a test meal (see Fractional Analysis) and a study, of the gastric secretion during the interdigestive phase (see Fasting Stomach) one is able to classify the type of gastritis present.

Summary of Diagnosis.—A diagnosis is attained chiefly from the evidence obtained from the *clinical history, e. g.*, an impaired or a capricious appetite, epigastric fullness and distress, constipation, absence of extreme emaciation, and the prolonged duration of the present malady. A diagnosis is further aided and confirmed by an analysis of the gastric contents. Hyperacidity, when present, is usually dependent upon an excess of lactic and butyric acids. The recovery of an unusual quantity of fluid from the stomach after a night's sleep is positive evidence of the existence of the so-called mucous gastritis. (See Fasting Stomach.)

GASTRIC ULCER

Pathologic Definition.—A condition characterized pathologically by a clearly outlined ulcer of the wall of the stomach, surrounded at times by a variable amount of inflammation. A single ulcer may be present, but they may be multiple in number. W. J. Mayo,* in a series of 638 operations found multiple ulcers in 28 instances, 534 of these were located on the lesser curvature of the stomach; in 85 the pathologic conditions occupied the posterior wall; while 9 of the cases showed ulcer of the greater curvature; and 5 displayed involvement of the anterior wall. The gross pathologic changes that characterize peptic ulcer are:

(1) It is usually round or oval in contour, and when numerous ulcers unite, the margin is irregular.

(2) At first it is superficial, but later attains considerable depth, and the floor of the ulcer extends to the submucous and even to the peritoneal coat.

(3) Gastric ulcers are usually conical in outline. The base of the cone corresponds to the mucous membrane of the stomach, and the edges of the ulcer slope in toward the apex of the cone. The apex of the cone, which is usually called the base of the ulcer, because it is the deepest part of the lesion, may correspond to the muscular layer of the stomach wall or to the peritoneal coat of the organ.

* Annals of Surgery, July, 1920.

(4) The ulcers vary greatly in size, the average being that of a dime.

(5) The most frequent site of ulcer is upon the posterior wall, and near the pyloric end of the stomach. Healed ulcers leave permanent cicatrices, which, when situated near the pylorus, may produce pyloric stenosis.

(6) Perforating ulcers often excite dense adhesions to the adjacent viscera, liver, gall-bladder, colon, and duodenum, and a fistulous communication between the stomach and other hollow viscera occasionally exists.

Varieties.—Anatomically, gastric ulcer may be divided into—

(1) **Simple ulcer,** a condition in which there may be one or more ulcers of the gastric mucosa, which do not extend beyond the mucous and submucous coats of the stomach.

(2) **Perforating ulcer,** in which the gastric surface of the ulcer is comparatively small, but the ulcer tends to extend to the deeper coats of the stomach and may even perforate the peritoneum.

Clinically, there may be four types of gastric ulcer: (*a*) Those in which no symptoms are present pointing to disease of the stomach; the ulcer being detected postmortem; (*b*) cases in which the symptoms consist of the sudden development of gastric hemorrhage or of gastric perforation; (*c*) cases in which the symptoms of chronic gastritis and of gastralgia are prominent; and (*d*) typical cases with the characteristic symptoms, among which are pain, vomiting, gastric hemorrhage, and localized tenderness.

Exciting and Predisposing Factors.—The **exciting cause** of ulcer of the stomach is generally conceded to be an embolus or thrombus in one of the gastric arteries supplying the ulcerated area. The conic outline of the ulcer and the fact that its base is directed toward the mucous surface of the stomach serve to explain its thrombotic origin.

Among the **predisposing factors**: (1) Focal infection ranks first and is evident in 40 to 60 per cent. of all cases.* The work of Dr. Rosenow has provided valuable information concerning infection in the production of gastric ulcer.† Anemia, either primary or secondary, preceded by diminished alkalinity of the circulating blood. Coexistent with such lowered alkalinity of the blood we frequently find increased acidity of the gastric contents. (See Fractional Analysis, p. 509.)‡

(2) *Age.*—The greatest number of cases is seen between the twelfth and thirtieth years, although ulcer may occur before the tenth year, and we have seen it during the fifth decade. Smithies' clinical analysis of 140 surgical cases gives 92 per cent. between the thirtieth and sixtieth years. Welch, in his analysis of 607 autopsies in which gastric ulcer was present, found but a single case under the age of ten. Leber found but 1 case under ten years among 226 cases of gastric ulcer. Rehn found gastric ulcer in children 9, Fenwick, 18, and Cutler 23 times.

In 390 autopsies performed at a hospital in New York, Wollenstein found gastric ulcer 5 times. Holt reports 8, and Dusser 9, cases of gastric ulcer in children, and Adler furnishes a report of a case in a girl of eight.

(3) *Sex.*—Smithies§ analysing 140 cases shows 75 per cent. of males.

(4) *Occupation.*—Occupation must not be over-estimated, because in more than 40 per cent. of this class of cases ulcer is directly traceable to a focus of infection, and an old ulcer may in turn act as a focus of infection (see Hepatic Cirrhosis and Nephritis). Gastric ulcer is quite common

*The Relation of Teeth to Other Parts of the Body, K. H. Thoma, Ann. Otol. Rhinol. and Laryngol., 33; 498, June, 1924.

† Focal Infection in Peptic Ulcer, Haden and Bohan, Feb. 7, 1925, p. 409.

‡The Relation of Dental Infection to Systemic Disease, Pemberton, Annals of Clin. Med., Vol. 3, No. 10, April, 1925, p. 648.

§ Amer. Jour. Med. Sci., March, 1913.

among shoemakers, carpenters, tailors, and seamstresses, in the following of which occupations either an undue amount of pressure is made over the epigastrium or the individual is compelled to stoop forward, and thus forces the posterior wall of the stomach against the spinal column. The affection is common among cooks, in whom it appears to be due to the taking of extremely hot foods and food between meals.

(5) *Toxic and corrosive substances*, when introduced into the stomach, are at times followed by the development of ulcer.

Principal Complaint.—The patient usually states that she has suffered from dyspepsia and constipation for several weeks or months before consulting a physician. There is a sense of burning in the throat, and often regurgitation of acid liquids and acid gases into the mouth occurs. The appetite is good at first, but later it becomes impaired (75 per cent. of cases), until finally, owing to a diminished desire for food and because of fear, no nourishment is taken. There is also a history of progressive loss of strength together with a moderate degree of emaciation, often 20 pounds without cachexia.

Pain.—The patient suffers from intense epigastric pain, which may at first be localized, but later radiates to the shoulder and back. Pain is in part and probably largely due to spasm of the pylorus. When cardiospasm is present there is tenderness at the end of the enciform. It is excited by the taking of food, beginning within from one to ten minutes after either solid food or liquids are ingested, and increasing until the stomach is emptied by vomiting or by the food passing into the duodenum. The nature of the pain is characteristic, developing first as a dull ache or burning, or at times a gnawing, sensation. At times it is "sticking" in character, increasing until there is a distinct lancinating pain, which persists until the stomach is empty. Gastralgic pains may also be present in those suffering from gastric ulcer, but they are not detectable until decided prostration and anemia, with neurasthenia, are present. (See Gastralgia.) The patient may be awakened from a sound sleep by a dull boring epigastric pain, which when severe radiates to the thorax and back (see Fig. 204). (See Pylorospasm, p. 531.)

The conditions that materially influence the pain of gastric ulcer are—(*a*) Rapid eating, improper mastication, and the ingestion of strongly acid, highly seasoned, and indigestible foods, all of which tend to increase the pain. (*b*) Rest in bed, particularly when the patient lies upon the face, is followed by an appreciable amelioration of the pain; the recumbent posture, however, slightly aggravates the pain. (*c*) Exhaustion is also followed by increased epigastric pain, as are also anxiety and mental strain.

Location of Pain.—In the majority of instances the patient complains of a distinctly localized feeling of distress about two inches below the ensiform cartilage, although the pain may be referred to a point near the umbilicus. We have seen gastric ulcer several times at autopsies performed upon the bodies of persons who never complained of epigastric pain.

Dorsal pain occurs, and may be intense (Fig. 204). It is usually localized exactly opposite to the anterior painful point; between the tenth and twelfth thoracic vertebræ. The patient seldom, if ever, complains of pain when the stomach is empty unless there is an associated gastric neurosis.

It must be remembered that the distribution and intensity of the pain of ulcer are influenced by the presence or absence of peritoneal adhesions and associated gastritis.

Vomiting occurs in about 30 per cent. of all cases, and takes place shortly after eating; it is not attended with retching, and is followed by

almost immediate relief. In rare instances blood may be ejected without the occurrence of actual vomiting. Cases have been reported in which patients vomited from one-half to four pints of almost pure blood as the result of hemorrhage from gastric ulcer. Profuse hemorrhage is always followed by intense weakness, vertigo, dizziness, dimness of vision, and the general symptoms of circulatory collapse.

Physical Signs.—Inspection.—The skin and mucous surfaces are pale, there are evidences of emaciation; and the abdomen is scaphoid. The tongue is always glazed, coated at its center, and may show tooth marks at its edges. The buccal mucous membrane is dry at times, and again a hypersecretion of mucus may be present.

Palpation.—In typical cases it is always possible to outline a localized area of tenderness in the epigastrium; this area is about the size of a dime,

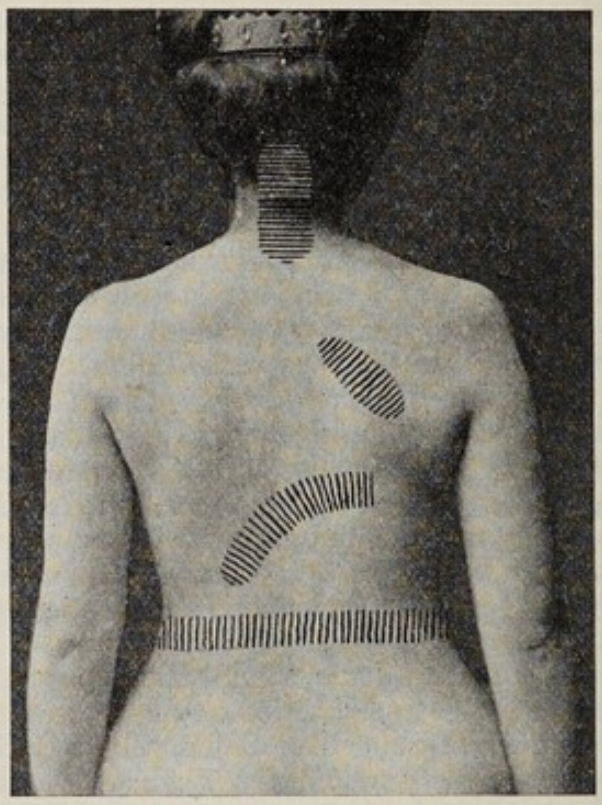


FIG. 204.—PAIN AREAS ON THE BACK.

unless peritoneal adhesions have formed, when it may occupy the entire epigastrium. When gastric ulcer has been present for months or years, a distinct tumor is at times palpable.

Auscultation.—In those cases where there is associated localized peritonitis, fine crackling rale-like sounds are heard when the stethoscope is placed directly over the site of the adhesions. The number of peristalic gurgles is greatly increased over the pylorus, and this sign may either depend upon an increased irritability of the stomach wall, or upon intermittent pylorospasm.* When the number of sounds heard exceed 40 per minute, disease of this region is probable.

Gastroscopy.—With the aid of the gastroscope ulcer involving any portion of the explorable area of the gastric mucous membrane may be detected. By this means both the size and the depth of the ulcer, as well as its location and the degree of infiltration surrounding it, are determined. The secretion covering the base of the ulcer may be secured for

*Boston and Becker, Med. Times, July, 1923.

microscopic study by passing a bit of cotton over the ulcer. Maaloe* has employed Elsner's gastroscope for diagnosis in 500 cases since 1912, and has found it possible to recognize gastric ulcers that had escaped all other methods of diagnosis. In 38 of 47 cases of pyloric ulceration gastroscopic diagnosis was made by Maaloe, and confirmed at operation. Pyloric ulceration was made possible in 48 cases, and 35 of these were confirmed by operation. The Elsner gastroscope was employed.

Laboratory Diagnosis.—Fractional analysis of the stomach's work after the Ewald meal gives a chart rather characteristic. (See Fractional Analysis, p. 509.) Many cases, however, display nothing diagnostic, except occult blood. The macroscopic appearance of the vomitus is not characteristic unless it contains blood. If a large hemorrhage occurs and emesis takes place soon after the escape of the blood into the stomach, the vomitus will be bright red in color. When the blood extravasates gradually into the stomach and is retained for some hours before it is vomited, the ejected liquid will be black—the so-called "coffee-ground vomit."

Chemically, the vomitus will be found to contain blood in practically all instances, although the quantity may be so small as to be unobservable by the naked eye.

On chemic examination the vomitus displays an excessive acidity. In those cases where pyloric stenosis exists the stomach contents six hours after an ordinary meal, shows that much of the food taken has not passed beyond the stomach.

The **urine** is usually of low specific gravity and rich in indican. The experiments of LeNoir shows that there is kidney inefficiency and liver inactivity in cases of gastric ulcer.†

The **hematologic findings** in gastric ulcer are those of secondary chloroanemia, *e. g.*, moderate reduction in the percentage of hemoglobin and in the number of red blood-cells in a cubic millimeter.

Summary of Diagnosis.—A diagnosis is made as the result of a careful analysis of the clinical history, *e. g.*, the presence of etiologic factors and of such symptoms as pain, vomiting of blood, gastralgia, secondary anemia, constipation, and progressive weakness. It is also supported by the characteristic laboratory findings, *e. g.*, an irregularity in the secretory work of the stomach as well as, disproportion between the time length of the digestive phase and the interdigestive cycle. The motor end point is also disturbed (see Fractional Analysis, p. 509) and the presence of either small or large quantities of blood in the vomitus. Feces may give reaction for occult blood. The fact that the local symptoms are intensified by the ingestion of food is characteristic. Again, the prolonged duration and tendency toward remission are confirmatory of chronic ulcer.

Differential Diagnosis.—Gastric ulcer may be distinguished from **gastric carcinoma** by the clinical history and by the knowledge obtained from an analysis of the gastric contents. (See Differential Table, p. 546.) Roentgenologic studies are necessary as is also fluroscopic observations.

Acute pancreatitis, gastric syphilis, and the gastric crises of ataxia are distinguished from gastric ulcer by the history and clinical course of the case under question.

The hemorrhage of ulcer is differentiated from that due to any of the conditions mentioned under Acute Gastritis by the distinctive symptoms of this affection.

* Ugeskrift for Laeger, Copenhagen, March 17, 1921.

† Bulletin de l' Academie de Medecine, Paris, Apr. 19, 1921.

(1) Duodenal ulcer is to be distinguished from gastric ulcer through the fact that the pain is not increased immediately after eating, unless gastric neurosis is also present.

(2) Awakened from sleep by pain in the epigastrium is more common in duodenal than in gastric ulcer. Epigastric pain accompanied by a cold clammy condition of the skin and slight shock is common in duodenal ulcer.

(3) Jackson* in a clinical report of 67 cases of duodenal ulcer found that 39 of these experienced temporary relief from pain after the taking of food. (It must be remembered that in rare cases the taking of food gives temporary relief in gastric ulcer.)

(4) The taking of an alkali such as bicarbonate of soda gave prompt relief in 50 per cent. of gastric cases; but is less effectual in cases of duodenal ulcer. The vomiting of blood has not been a reliable differential point in our experience.

(5) Tenderness over the appendiceal region has been found by Jackson to be more constant in duodenal than in gastric ulcer (see Differential Table, p. 546).

(6) Paroxysmal pain several hours after food, suggests duodenal ulcer. It is commonly due to pylorospasm.

Jackson found that 41 per cent. of his cases displayed definite evidence of focal infection.

Gastralgia may be mistaken for gastric ulcer and, indeed, when ulcer develops in those of a neurasthenic temperament, the diagnosis may be extremely difficult, and may be attained only as the result of an analysis of the gastric contents after a test-meal. The accompanying table, modified from Anders, shows the distinctive features between the gastric neuroses and gastric ulcer.

Gastric Ulcer	Gastralgia
1. History of occupation in which pressure is made over the stomach, or the eating of hot foods.	1. Patient of a neurasthenic type, and gastric symptoms often follow severe mental strain and anxiety.
2. Rare before puberty or after the age of thirty-five.	2. Seldom seen before the twentieth year, and most frequent near the menopause and after the fortieth year.
3. Progressive prostration and emaciation develop early.	3. Less marked, and may be absent.
4. There is vomiting of blood in from 30 to 50 per cent. of all cases.	4. Absent.
5. Pain is excited by the talking of food, and develops immediately or within a few minutes after the food has entered the stomach. The position of the body may influence pain.	5. Pain is experienced several hours after a meal, or when the stomach is practically empty, unless the patient suffers from gastric ulcer and gastric neurosis, in which case pain is also excited by the taking of food. Position has no effect on the pain.
6. Food excites pain.	6. Food relieves pain.
7. Pressure over the epigastrium excites pain, although rarely it causes slight relief.	7. Firm pressure is invariably followed by an amelioration of the pain.
8. The administration of nerve sedatives tends to lessen the pain.	8. Pain is less severe or absent after such treatment.
9. Gastric contents obtained after a test-meal show an excess of hydrochloric acid.	9. No constant findings in gastralgia. Fluid may display hyperacidity or be neutral or alkaline in reaction.
10. Regurgitation of acid fluid to the mouth and a burning sensation beneath the sternum are common.	10. Substernal burning less common; regurgitation of liquids and foods often present, and rumination is occasionally seen.

* Jour. Mich. State Med. Soc., July, 1919.

Gastric Ulcer	Gastralgia
11. In ulcer of long standing a tumor may be distinctly palpable in the epigastrium.	11. Tumor absent.
12. In patients displaying a tumor or constriction of the pylorus gastric dilatation is present.	12. Dilatation absent.

Cholecystitis, and angina with abdominal pain may resemble gastric ulcer.

Gundermann has found that the elimination of water and of salt through the kidneys varies greatly in gastric cancer, ulcer and in gallstones, and that these deviations from the normal frequently serves as a valuable differential point.

(1) Permit the patient to take 1500 gm. of water (fasting) and no further fluids during the day. In ulcer the patients salt output appropriates normal, but only a small amount of urine is voided.

(2) Should cancer be present a relative small proportion of salt is eliminated. Water is voided freely, for a few hours, and then there is a decided retention.

(3) Whenever the condition in question is dependent upon chronic gall bladder disease the elimination of salt is not influenced. (The exception being that empyema of the gall bladder when water is eliminated freely, but there is a retention of the salt.)

Cases of chronic jaundice display a reduction in both water and salt elimination.

The number of cases tested by Gundermann is too small for us to comment upon the infallibility of this test.

The following table sets for the distinguishing features between hemorrhage from the stomach and hemorrhage from the throat and lungs, but these are not sufficient evidence on which to make a differentiation between hemorrhage from the lungs and hemorrhage from the esophagus.

Hemorrhage from the Stomach	Hemorrhage from the Throat and Lung
1. History of organic disease of the stomach or of cardiac embarrassment with tricuspid regurgitation.	1. History of pulmonary disease with cough and expectoration.
2. Previous attacks of eructations of gas, liquids, and food that excited substernal burning.	2. Paroxysmal attacks of coughing, which develop upon rising in the morning.
3. A study of the regurgitated fluid shows it to contain either hydrochloric or lactic acid, and particles of undigested food may be present.	3. Material alkaline in reaction, and may contain tubercle bacilli and shreds of elastic tissue.
4. Epigastric uneasiness precedes hemorrhage from the stomach, and nausea, faintness, and an acid taste are also experienced.	4. Substernal oppression and discomfort, an annoying sensation in the throat, and a saline taste precedes hemorrhage from the lung.
5. Blood and gastric contents are ejected by vomiting, and later there may be coughing.	5. Blood expelled first by coughing, but vomiting is common later.
6. Macroscopically, blood fluid may contain clots of a dark brownish color ("coffee-ground" vomitus). In profuse hemorrhage bloody fluid shows no clotting and contains particles of food.	6. Fluid is bright red in color, and its surface is beaded with froth. Small blood-clots are occasionally seen.
7. There are no external evidences of hemorrhage between the attacks of vomiting.	7. The patient continues to expectorate blood-streaked sputum for some hours or days after the hemorrhage.

Clinical Course and Duration.—Not uncommonly young females suffer from one or more ulcers, their development being separated by wide intervals of apparent health.

Extensive ulceration near the pyloric end of the stomach often results in the formation of a large mass of cicatricial tissue that may interfere with the passing of food from the stomach, in which case gastric dilatation is likely to follow. We have seen cases in which gastric ulcer perforated into the general peritoneal cavity, and in one case, that of a private patient, general peritonitis with a fatal termination occurred one week after an operation. A fatal issue also followed in another case which the ulcer perforated into the pleura.

Complications.—Stenosis of the pyloric orifice or of the cardiac orifice and perforation into the pleura (subdiaphragmatic pneumothorax), the colon, the gall-bladder, or the general peritoneal cavity are among the most serious complications of this malady.

HOUR-GLASS STOMACH

Pathologic Definition.—A condition, either congenital or pathologic, characterized anatomically by a contraction of the stomach-wall near its center, and of sufficient degree to permit only a small opening through which the pyloric and cardiac portions of the stomach communicate.

Predisposing and Exciting Factors.—Hour-glass contraction of the stomach is a physiologic process occurring during the height of digestion, and at times when the stomach is being emptied of its contents; an attempt to outline the stomach by means of the *x*-rays, therefore, should be made only when the organ is approximately empty. Extensive gastric ulcer, followed by the formation of cicatricial tissue, may cause hour-glass contraction. Carcinoma situated near the center of the lesser curvature may be surrounded by adhesions and a general infiltration of the stomach-wall; this in turn may result in hour-glass contraction. Congenital hour-glass contraction seldom causes symptoms characteristic of the condition.

Diagnosis is comparatively easy by use of the Roentgen rays, Fluroscopic studies are also of assistance.

PYLORIC STENOSIS

A pathologic condition where the lumen of the pyloric orifice is appreciably lessened either as the result of congential maltiformation; from inflammatory processes involving the gastric mucosa cicatricial contractions, or new growth of the stomach. (See Gastric Ulcer and Gastric Cancer.) The pyloric orifice may also be diminished in size as the result of pressure from without, *e. g.*, abdominal tumors, and bands of adhesions.

Infantile pyloric stenosis is occasionally observed, and was originally recorded in the early part of the 18th century.* The etiologic factors in infantile stenosis are obscure. Pyloric stenosis favors gastric dilatation, and the later condition develops in direct relation to the degree of interference with the escape of the stomach contents into the duodenum. (See p. 515.) Diagnosis is made by observing the barium solution while it enters the stomach. There is retention of the barium in all adult cases.

CARCINOMA OF THE STOMACH

Pathologic Definition.—A carcinomatous infiltration of the stomach-wall involving the mucous, and later the submucous, muscular,

*J. Epstein, N. Y. Med. Jour., June 30, 1917.

and peritoneal coats. Gastric carcinoma is usually primary, although secondary involvement of the stomach is by no means uncommon. The variety of carcinoma involving this organ is, as a rule, composed of columnar epithelial cells. The entire wall of the stomach may be sclerotic, or there may, in other instances, be colloid degeneration or mere involvement of the glandular tissue, accompanied by softening. Both encephaloid and cirrhotic changes may follow the disease when it develops from the glandular structures.

Exciting and Predisposing Factors.—The exciting cause of carcinoma is, doubtful. Among the predisposing factors are:

Age.—In Welch's analysis of 2038 cases, 75 per cent. developed during the fourth, fifth, and sixth decade. Of 3257 cases reported in the literature, 2.5 per cent. developed before the age of thirty. Osler and McCrae,* in a review of the literature, found reports of 6 cases occurring in children under six years of age, and 13 cases that developed between the sixth and twentieth years. These authors, in their report of 150 cases of gastric carcinoma, gave 4 per cent. of cases under the age of thirty.

Heredity has been shown to figure in from 12 to 15 per cent. of cases.

Gastric ulcer predisposes to a later development of carcinoma, as was well exemplified in Hirschfeld's analysis of 900 cases, in which previous disease of the stomach was found to have existed in 5.6 per cent.

Chronic gastric catarrh is also regarded as a predisposing factor. Carcinoma of the stomach may be secondary to involvement of the liver, gall-bladder, bile-ducts, duodenum, pancreas, and intestines.

General Remarks.—The clinical manifestations of gastric carcinoma are varied, and the disease may exist without appreciable symptoms referable to disease of the stomach, in which case the true character of the condition is not revealed until autopsy. Again, cases of gastric carcinoma have been seen in which the leading symptoms were progressive emaciation, weakness, secondary anemia, and cachexia, without local manifestations.

Secondary carcinoma of the stomach, and even primary involvement of this organ, may be masked by peritoneal adhesions and by carcinoma of adjacent structures, *e. g.*, of the liver and pancreas.† Typical cases of carcinoma are readily diagnosed by the characteristic features of the disease.

Principal Complaint.—In the early stages of gastric carcinoma the patient complains of chronic gastritis. Not rarely the condition begins abruptly, although it may have developed insidiously with a gradual increase in the severity of all the symptoms. The pain is progressive, becoming more and more intense from week to week, and is accompanied by increasing weakness and loss of flesh. The appetite varies from time to time, but, as a rule, there is a steady decline. In other cases there is a desire for food, but the patient does not eat for fear of epigastric pain.

The patient suffers from pain after the taking of food, and even when the stomach is empty. Many cases complain of a continual sense of oppression in the epigastrium, which amounts to true cardialgia, occurring in from two to four hours after eating. In typical advanced cases the patient suffers almost continually from pain, which is not greatly increased by the taking of food.

The character of the pain may vary somewhat in different cases, but, as a rule, the patient complains of a weight or of a dull boring pain in the epigastrium. Lancinating pains are also frequent, and may depend, in part, at least, upon peritoneal adhesions.

*N. Y. Med. Jour., April 21, 1900, p. 581.

†Metastasis, O. H. P. Pepper, Internat. Clin., 2: 269, Ser. 34, June, 1924.

The distribution of the pain in carcinoma is by no means characteristic, and may be localized to the epigastrium or slightly to the left of the median line, and at times as low as the umbilicus. Occasionally we have observed associated gastroptosis where the pain was in the left inferior abdominal quadrant. The pain may radiate to the back, shoulders, loins, and, rarely indeed, it is reflected for some distance over the upper portion of the abdomen. Pressure over the epigastrium always excites acute pain, which is followed, for a period of some hours, by intense, dull pain.

Vomiting occurs late during the course of gastric carcinoma, and the patient may give a history of having vomited material presenting the appearance of "coffee-grounds," or, less often, there may be vomiting of pure blood. (Other conditions known to cause the vomiting of blood will be found under Gastric Ulcer, Differential Diagnosis, and Laboratory Diagnosis, pp. 545, 546.) Early during gastric carcinoma vomiting may be dependent upon a catarrhal inflammation of the gastric mucosa, in which case it may take place shortly after eating. In advanced carcinoma the vomiting occurs in from two to four hours after food has been ingested, unless an associated gastric ulcer is present. In cases in which the carcinomatous growth has caused pyloric stenosis and there is associated dilatation of the stomach, vomiting occurs every three to six days, or even at longer intervals, at which time the vomitus presents the naked-eye appearance of gastric dilatation. (See Gastric Dilatation, p. 554.)

Constipation develops and, indeed, in many cases it precedes disease of the stomach.

Vertigo, shortness of breath, headache, mental hebetude, and general sense of nervousness are described by all who suffer from secondary anemia.

X-Ray Diagnosis.—The *x*-ray constitutes the best method for the early localizing and diagnosis of a carcinomatous lesion in the gastric wall, and the prime requisite is the exact determination and localization of a filling defect. Carman points out that 95 per cent. of gastric cancers give *x*-ray evidence of their presence. Taylor and Miller, in an analysis of 182 cases at the University Hospital, Philadelphia, Pa., found that the *x*-ray gave a positive diagnosis in 96.8 per cent. of cases. And the general consensus of opinion is that about 95 per cent. are recognizable by this means. Pfahler's statistics show 98 per cent. of diagnosis.

Physical Signs.—Inspection.—During the first few months inspection is negative, but after the disease has progressed, there is decided emaciation, the face is wrinkled, the skin cachectic, and there is a puffiness beneath the eyes. The conjunctivæ and mucous surfaces are pale, and the scleræ show yellowish deposits here and there. Inspection of the abdomen is negative, except where there is marked tumor formation, in which case the growth may be seen through the thin abdominal wall. (See Method of Inspection, p. 477.) The tumor may occupy the epigastrium, or may be found at almost any point between the epigastrium and the pubis, and to the left of the median line. Late during the course of gastric carcinoma edema of the ankles may be seen. Venous thromboses developing during the course of gastric disease are highly suggestive of carcinoma. Moorhead* reported four such cases.

Palpation.—Pressure over the epigastrium, and particularly over the site of the tumor, is always followed by an increase of pain (see Fig. 205). When tumor is present, it may or may not change its position with respiration.

*Practitioner, April, 1922.

Percussion.—In cases complicated by pyloric stenosis and gastric dilatation, both percussion and auscultatory percussion are of great service in outlining the stomach. Percussion also gives valuable information regarding secondary involvement and consequent enlargement of the liver. Auscultatory percussion is of value in outlining the liver and the stomach.

Auscultation.—A splashing sound is heard when carcinoma is complicated by dilatation.

Gastroscopy.—When the carcinomatous lesion involves the explorable portion of the stomach, the lesion may be inspected satisfactorily, and in this manner both its extent and the degree of ulceration, if any should be present, may be determined.



FIG. 205.—METHOD OF DETERMINING THE DEGREE OF ABDOMINAL TENSION OVER VARIOUS AREAS OF THE ABDOMINAL SURFACE.

The abdominal tension is increased above the umbilicus near the median line in gastric carcinoma. In new growths of the abdomen the abdominal tension is always increased immediately overlying the growth. A localized increase in tension is present in limited areas of peritonitis. (See Acute Appendicitis, p. 599.)

Laboratory Diagnosis.—The vomitus of gastric carcinoma contains particles of undigested food. It may be dark in color, and display a heavy brownish sediment, resembling coffee-grounds. This coffee-ground sediment is due to an admixture of blood that has escaped into the stomach, and been acted upon by the gastric juice. Shreds of carcinomatous tissue have been found in the vomitus.

Microscopically, the vomitus will be found to contain the food that has been ingested, blood-crystals, free blood-pigment, and scales of epithelial cells. Yeast fungi and sarcinæ are frequent findings. A large non-motile bacillus (Fig. 203), the Boas-Oppler bacillus, may be recovered from the liquid and pus, mucus and tissue are not infrequent.

Chemically, gastric contents obtained after a test-meal is, as a rule, fairly characteristic where the meal is recovered at intervals of every 15 minutes until the stomach is empty. (See Fractional Analysis, p. 509.)

Disease of the gall-bladder is rather common in connection with gastric carcinoma, and in such cases hypoacidity may be dependent upon gall-bladder disease (see Hormone, p. 1084). Lactic acid in large quantities will probably be present, and butyric acid is also common. Contents of the fasting stomach may show particles of mucous membrane, blood, and usually give a reaction for blood-pigments, due to a regurgitation of fluid from the duodenum (see Fasting Stomach, p. 514).

LeNoir finds kidney inefficiency present in 41 per cent. of cases.

Secondary anemia is a constant feature of gastric carcinoma, the hemoglobin falling to between 70 and 30 per cent.; the red cells may be reduced to 2,000,000 in a cubic millimeter, whereas the leukocytes may be subnormal, or increased in number.

Late during the course of the disease, owing to the disintegration of the red blood-cells and the liberation of hemoglobin, the *urine* is dark in color, and may contain the various compounds of iron. Traces of albumin, acetone, and diacetic acid are occasionally present, and indican is an almost constant finding. Blood chemistry may be of diagnostic value.

Summary of Diagnosis.—The diagnosis is usually based upon the age, the family history, and the history of preëxisting disease of the stomach or of carcinoma in other portions of the body. This evidence, together with progressive weakness, emaciation, and the characteristic pain (continuous and most intense some hours after eating), is of great importance in formulating a diagnosis. The occurrence of coffee-ground vomiting points to gastric carcinoma. Contents of the fasting stomach may contain blood.

The absence of free hydrochloric acid and the presence of lactic and fatty acids, together with the symptoms just outlined, are sufficient evidence upon which to base a diagnosis. Friedenwald and Grove conclude that there is present in carcinoma of the gastro-intestinal tract a fairly characteristic curve of sugar tolerance.

The curve presents a high sugar content even in the fasting state, followed by an initial rise up to 0.24 per cent. or higher within 45 minutes after the ingestion of dextrose.

It remains at this level for at least two hours. Other laboratory features are detailed under fractional study of gastric fluid. (See p. 509.)

Differential Diagnosis.—The following table shows the distinctive features between chronic gastritis, gastric ulcer, and gastric carcinoma (elaborated from Anders).

Chronic Gastritis	Gastric Ulcer	Gastric Carcinoma
1. Not confined to any age. More common in the middle-aged or in elderly persons.	1. May occur in middle-aged persons, but is more frequent in females from fifteen to thirty-five years of age.	1. Most common in elderly persons; rarely seen in persons under thirty years of age.
2. Pain in the epigastrium somewhat augmented by food; soreness is also present. Both are constant, although comparatively slight.	2. Pain in the epigastrium follows the taking of food; subsides when this is digested or vomited. Intermissions in the pain of considerable length are frequent.	2. Pain often paroxysmal, severe, and lancinating. Little or not at all affected by food. Pain rarely remits; never intermits for any considerable length of time.
3. Symptoms of indigestion marked.	3. Symptoms of indigestion may be but slight.	3. Symptoms of indigestion prominent. Anorexia the rule.

Chronic Gastritis	Gastric Ulcer	Gastric Carcinoma
4. Vomiting may be present and may develop at any time during the day or night.	4. Vomiting may be present and always gives immediate relief from pain; as a rule, it takes place from a few minutes to one-half hour after eating.	4. Vomiting a very frequent symptom. Occurs from two to four hours after eating.
5. Hemorrhage rare.	5. Hemorrhage from the stomach common. Stools and vomitus may contain blood.	5. Hemorrhage not profuse, but frequently coffee-ground-like. Stools also give reaction for blood.
6. Upon making firm pressure over the stomach there may be slight diffuse tenderness, but pressure never excites actual pain.	6. Localized area of tenderness in the epigastrium, pressure over which excites extreme pain. Tenderness and pain are occasionally present at the lower dorsal vertebræ.	6. Epigastric tenderness not essential, although usually present. Firm pressure may or may not cause pain. The area of tenderness may be between the ensiform and the umbilicus, and to the left of the median line, or when there is gastroptosis, it may be found as low as the crest of the ilium.
7. Tumor of the epigastrium and abdomen absent.	7. In long-standing ulcer there may be a palpable mass at the pylorus.	7. The rule is to detect a mass in advanced cases.
8. Temperature normal.	8. Temperature normal.	8. Intermittent attacks of slight fever may occur, but temperature is often subnormal.
9. Emaciation and cachexia absent.	9. Pallor and debility are extreme.	9. Progressive loss of flesh and of strength. Cachexia and hypertrophy of the peripheral lymphatic glands are prone to occur.
10. Contents of stomach contain free hydrochloric acid.	10. Hydrochloric acid in excess.	10. No free hydrochloric acid in stomach contents.
11. No lactic or fatty acids after the Boas test-meal.	11. No lactic or fatty acid after Boas test-meal.	11. Lactic acid present after Boas test-meal. Butyric acid common.
12. No dropsy.	12. No dropsy.	12. Edema of the ankles common.
13. Disease may be relieved or cured; is often of very prolonged duration.	13. Duration uncertain; may get well or may go on rapidly to perforation.	13. Average duration, two years.
14. *X*-ray negative.	14. Positive.	14. Gives the earliest reliable data.

Complications.—Chief among the complications should be mentioned: (*a*) Perforation of the stomach-wall, which, according to Brinton, occurs in 3.3 per cent. of all cases; (*b*) secondary involvement of the liver and of the gall-bladder; (*c*) involvement of the transverse colon by extension by contiguity; (*f*) pulmonary edema, effusion into the pleural sacs, myocarditis, or bronchopneumonia often end the scene; (*g*) nervous symptoms may be regarded as complicating conditions, and materially

hasten a fatal termination, *e. g.*, the patient becomes somnolent and at times comatose.

Duration.—The course of gastric carcinoma is brief, death usually taking place within two years from the time the diagnosis is made. The average duration of the disease is from nine to fifteen months. "When it occurs in emaciated persons, it pursues a slower course than when occurring in fleshy individuals" (Anders). The disease tends to run a more rapid course in persons under the age of thirty.

SARCOMA OF STOMACH

Goldstein* has reported cases of primary and secondary gastric sarcoma. He collected 266 cases of primary gastric sarcoma from the literature and hospital reports. Obstructive symptoms appear late in the disease. Gastric analysis may be normal. Tumors may reach large proportions. They may occur in young patients.

DILATATION OF THE STOMACH

Pathologic Definition.—An acute or chronic condition characterized by an increase in the size of the stomach. In the chronic form, and after dilatation has existed for some time, the gastric wall becomes thinned and atrophy of the glandular structures of the mucous membrane is generally present. A variable degree of pyloric obstruction exists in a large proportion of all cases, and downward displacement of the organ, with dragging down of the pylorus, invariably follows.

Exciting and Predisposing Factors.—Disease of the supra-renal glands and the unbalancing that follows between the supra-renals, the thyroid, and other members of the endocrine system is frequently responsible for local dilatation of the gastro-intestinal tract. (See Adrenal, p. 1153.) Associated disease of the gall-bladder also exerts an important factor in conjunction with these abnormalities, and has to do with both the atonic condition of the gastric musculature, and with the underproduction of HCl. (See Hypoacidity, p. 516.) Pyloric stenosis is a mechanical exciting factor, and may be due to:

(*a*) Carcinoma of the stomach, cicatrix resulting from gastric ulcer, excessive development of fibrous tissue of the pylorus, and cicatrices the result of the ingestion of corrosive poisons.

(*b*) Pressure upon the pylorus the result of hepatic or pancreatic disease or from abdominal tumor (enlarged lymphatic glands, enlarged gall-bladder, impaction from gall-stone).

(*c*) Chronic peritonitis may result in the formation of fibrous bands that encircle and constrict the lumen of the pyloric orifice.

(*d*) Congenital pyloric stenosis is also recognized as an exciting factor.

Gastric dilatation may exist without the presence of pyloric stenosis, but in the majority of such cases the degree of dilatation is not pronounced.

(1) Prolonged gastritis with atrophy of the muscular coat markedly predisposes to, and may even be the exciting cause of, gastric dilatation. (See Disease of the Gall-bladder, p. 674, Hypoacidity, p. 516, Adrenal Disease, p. 1153.)

(2) Overdistention of the stomach, a condition, as a rule, excited by overeating or excessive drinking, resulting in the generation of gas and consequent distention of the organ. This type of dilatation is also seen in acute dyspepsia.

*Med. Times, Sept., 1921.

(3) Nutritional disturbances of the gastric wall in which there is a weakening of its muscular coat, as in wasting diseases (carcinoma, pernicious anemia, tuberculosis, chronic nephritis).

(4) Impaired muscular power of the stomach, in consequence of which an abnormal quantity of food is retained in the stomach.

(5) Displacement of the stomach (gastroptosis).

Acute Dilatation.—Acute gastric dilatation may develop during—(*a*) the course of infectious fevers, and is possibly dependent upon parenchymatous degeneration of the muscular coat of the stomach.

(*b*) Overloading the stomach with both liquid and solid food is followed by a variable degree of temporary dilatation.

(*c*) It may occur when the nervous energy of the body is at low ebb (during shock). Acute dilatation may also arise during the course of acute mania, dementia, melancholia, and monoplegia.

(*d*) The sudden development of an abdominal mass, an aneurism, abscess, or ulcer, may cause pyloric obstruction, and consequently acute dilatation.

Principal Complaint.—This varies widely in each particular case, since the patient first complains of the results of the initial or causative disease. The symptoms of gastric dilatation are consequently added to those of gastric ulcer, carcinoma, atrophic gastritis, and other affections.

The patient always complains of *intense thirst* throughout the entire course of dilatation, a symptom that, von Weinig claims, is due to the fact that the stomach is unable to take up liquids; extreme hunger probably results from the same cause. Soon after dilatation has occurred the patient notices a diminution in strength, exhaustion following slight exertion, and a progressive though moderate loss of weight.

There is a history of violent attacks of vomiting, during which one or more gallons of liquid material mixed with particles of undigested food are expelled. (See Laboratory Diagnosis, p. 557.) Eructation of gas is one of the most annoying symptoms.

The patient complains of cramps in the muscles of the calf, thigh, arms, and occasionally of the abdominal muscles. Tetany and a tetanic state of the muscles have been observed in those suffering from gastric dilatation. An almost constant symptom is a dragging or weight-like sensation over the upper portion of the abdomen.

As a result of impaired absorption of liquids from the stomach, and the fact that liquids taken by mouth do not reach the intestine, obstinate *constipation* is experienced. The patient voids but a small amount of *urine*. Late during the course of gastric dilatation horrible dreams, nightmare, and insomnia occur. Extreme distention of the stomach by gas may be followed by attacks of dyspnea, palpitation, and cardialgia.

Physical Signs.—Inspection.—That portion of the abdomen above the umbilicus is, as a rule, usually prominent, except immediately after a paroxysmal attack of vomiting, when it is likely to be scaphoid in shape. Prominence of the abdomen, the result of gastric dilatation does not involve the region of the epigastrium, but usually takes place at the umbilical line, and may be most marked in the left inferior abdominal quadrant. If there is a high grade of gastric dilatation, the left half of the abdomen presents two distinct grooves, the upper one of which corresponds to a line drawn from the umbilicus on a parallel with the left nipple, and is limited to the left superior abdominal quadrant (Fig. 179). Asymmetry of the abdomen is not conspicuous in either acute or chronic gastric dilatation unless gastroptosis is also present.

By distending the stomach with gas, either with the aid of the stomach-tube or by the administration of a seidlitz powder, the greater and lesser curvature of the stomach can be readily outlined. A peristaltic wave may also be detected over the left abdominal hemisphere. The skin and conjunctivæ are, as a rule, anemic, the tongue is heavily coated, and the mouth and throat are unusually dry.

Palpation.—In patients with a thin abdominal wall the stomach may be outlined. The movements of the organ can be distinctly felt over almost the entire surface of the stomach.

Palpation combined with auscultation generally gives the most reliable signs of the presence of gastric dilatation, and is performed in the following manner:

(*a*) Place the bell of the stethoscope over the center of the dilated stomach, and let it be held there by an assistant.

(*b*) Place the left hand over the pylorus and the right over the lower portion of the stomach, when, on making pressure alternately with the left and the right hand, a splashing sound is elicited.

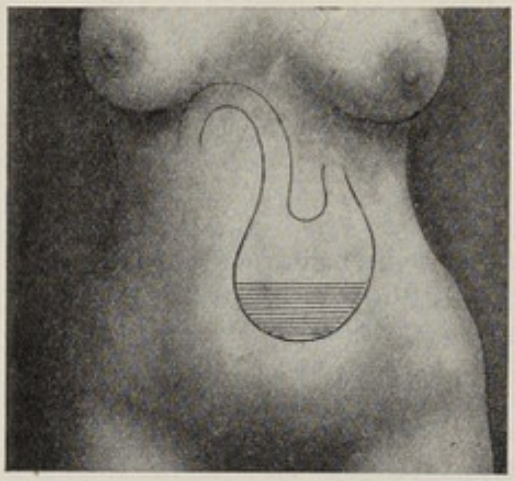


FIG. 206.—DISPLACEMENT OF STOMACH, ILLUSTRATIVE OF PRIVATE CASE.

Percussion.—By this means the area of stomach tympany may be outlined, but in order to be of clinical valve, the stomach should be markedly distended when it is comparatively empty. In gastric dilatation stomach tympany may be elicited at any point to the left of the median line, and between the margin of the ribs and the pelvis. When the lower margin of the stomach tympany with the organ empty is determined, the patient should be instructed to drink at least one quart of fluid, when, if dullness is found below the umbilicus (Fig. 206) and at the point where tympany was previously obtained, the stomach may be said to be dilated. (See also Fig. 207.)

Auscultatory percussion may also be of service in ascertaining the limitations of the stomach. This clinical method will be found of inestimable service. (See page 585.)

Auscultation.—All sounds heard over the stomach have a metallic quality. Placing the ear either on the patient's back or on his abdomen, and shaking him violently, a decided splashing sound will be heard. This splashing sound heard over the stomach is to be distinguished from a similar sound that may result from the presence of air and liquid in the pleural cavity (pneumothorax) and from a dilated colon that is partially filled with fluid.

SUCCUSSION SOUNDS ORIGINATING IN THE ABDOMEN

1. Normal stomach (negro).
2. Dilatation of stomach.
3. Dilatation of sigmoid colon (rare).
4. Dilatation of ascending colon.
5. Pneumoperitoneum following:
   - (*a*) Perforating gastric ulcer,
   - (*b*) Perforating gastric cancer,
   - (*c*) Perforating duodenal ulcer,
   - (*d*) Perforating tuberculous ulcer,
   - (*e*) Perforating typhoid ulcer,
   - (*f*) Infection of ascitic fluid by bacillus coli communis.

6. Subdiaphragmatic abscess (communicating with the stomach).
7. Subphrenic abscess (hepatic, renal, or duodenal origin).
8. Intestinal obstruction (with enormous dilatation of bowel).
9. Ovarian cyst (infection by gas-producing bacteria).
10. Pneumocystitis (so-called pneumaturia), very rare.

Gastroscopy.—This method is of but limited value as a means of recognizing gastric dilatation, since the physical signs are fairly constant in this condition. Gastroscopy may, however, enable one to detect malignancy or infiltration in the vicinity of the pylorus, and in this way reveal the actual cause for dilatation.

X-Ray Diagnosis.—Fluoroscopic study discloses the actual condition as the operator observes the opaque fluid enter the stomach.

Roentgenographs also furnish conclusive data.

Laboratory Diagnosis.—The quantity of saliva secreted is diminished, and the *urine* is, as a rule, below the normal in amount; the latter

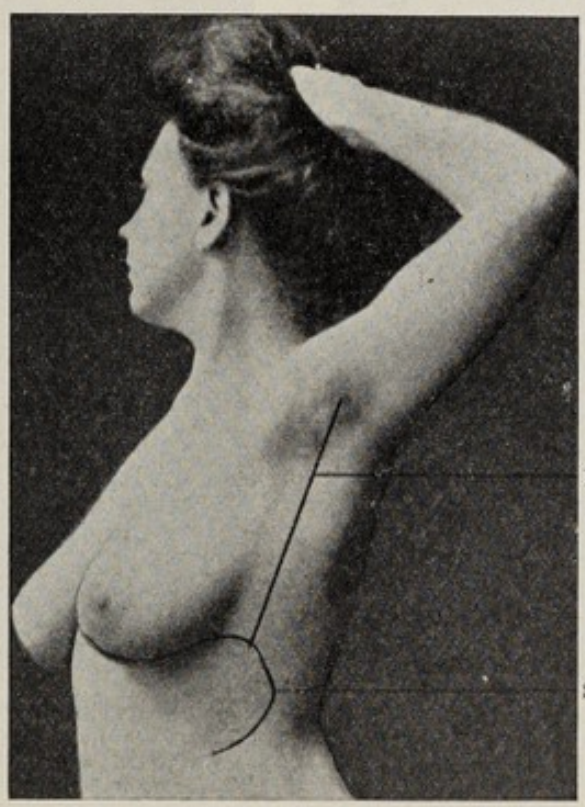


FIG. 207.—AREA OF STOMACH TYMPANY WHEN THE ORGAN IS DISTENDED.

is of high specific gravity and is often alkaline. Indicanuria is common. The blood presents the findings characteristic of secondary anemia.

Vomiting usually occurs every few days or weeks, and large quantities of fluid are ejected. A macroscopic examination of the vomitus discloses the presence of particles of food that may have been ingested several days before the paroxysms. A large amount of mucus is usually present, and rarely the vomitus is tinged with blood. Chemically, both the vomitus and the stomach contents obtained by means of the stomach-tube are found to be rich in lactic acid and in the other acids of fermentation. Hydrochloric acid is often absent, and but seldom, if ever, present in normal amounts.

Gastric fluid obtained from the fasting stomach is of value. (See page 514.) A plotting of the gastric work after a testmeal and during the rest phase of digestion furnishes characteristic findings. (See Fractional Analysis, p. 509.)

This clinical method will be found of inestimable service.

Summary of Diagnosis.—Both the *x*-ray and fluoroscopic studies are necessary to complete diagnostic evidences. Auscultatory percussion and stroking of the skin over the stomach while listening give signs practically equal to that obtained by *x*-ray study. The preëxistence of a disease of the stomach (carcinoma, ulcer, chronic gastritis) that markedly predisposes to dilatation is of great diagnostic significance. The vomiting of large quantities of fluid, and the fact that this vomiting is not influenced by the taking of food, point strongly toward dilatation. Intense thirst and ravenous appetite, together with an undue dryness of the mucous surface of the mouth and throat, are features to be considered. The physical signs, and particularly those obtained by palpation and percussion, are also important in making a diagnosis of gastric dilatation.

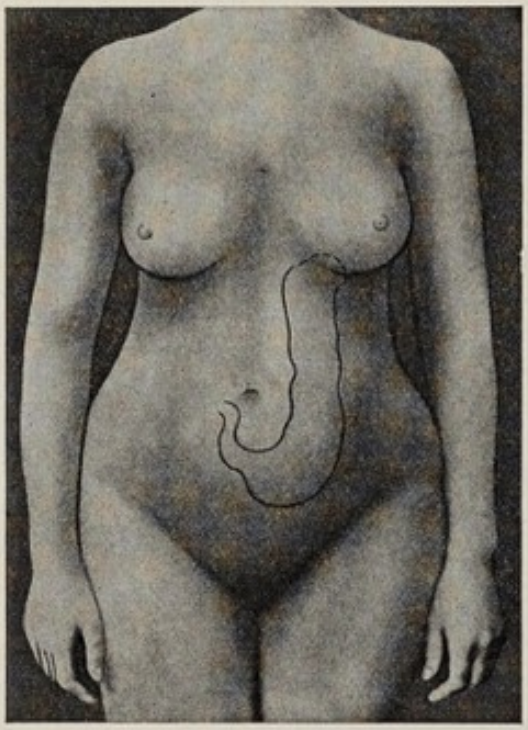


FIG. 208.—GASTROPTOSIS. TUBULAR OUTLINE OF STOMACH-NOTE. ILLUSTRATIVE OF PRIVATE PATIENT.

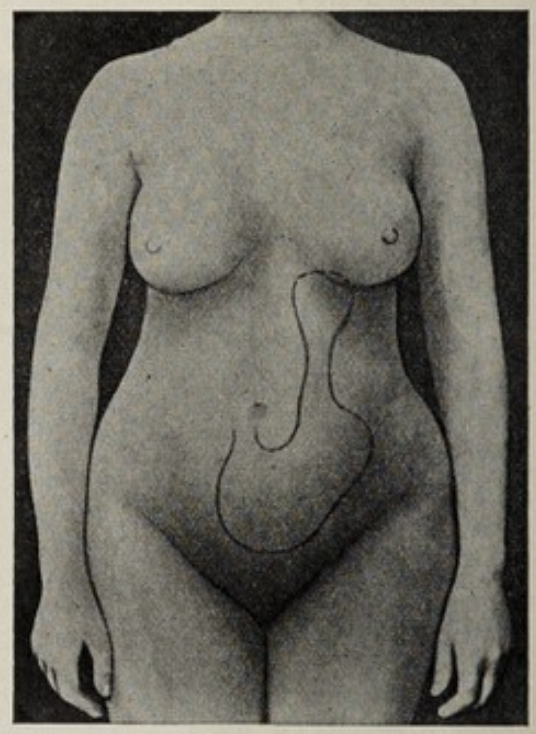


FIG. 209.—DILATATION WITH GASTROPTOSIS. ILLUSTRATIVE OF CASE FROM PRIVATE PRACTICE.

(*b*) **Megalogastria** (abnormally large stomach) is distinguished from gastric dilatation by the fact that the distinctive symptoms of dilatation are absent.

(*c*) **Gastroptosis** displays, as one of the points of diagnostic differentiation, the fact that both the greater and lesser curvatures are below their normal location (Fig. 208). Gastroptosis complicated by dilatation is not infrequently encountered, in which case the symptoms and signs of both conditions are present. (See Fig. 209.)

(*d*) **Ascites** may rarely be confused with dilatation of the stomach. The distinctive signs between these two conditions are elicited by percussion; *e. g.*, when the patient is in the recumbent posture, ascites gives a dull note in the flanks and tympany above the umbilicus, whereas gastric dilatation gives unilateral tympany to the left of the umbilicus and a dull note is not obtained in the flanks. The presence of a fluctuation wave is conclusive evidence of ascites, polyhydramnois, or ovarian cyst, and excludes gastric dilatation. The clinical history and the

presence of long-standing heart, liver, or kidney disease also favor a diagnosis of ascites.

GASTROPTOSIS

Pathologic Definition.—A condition characterized by displacement of both the lesser and the greater curvatures of the stomach, with or without enlargement or dilatation of the organ.

Remarks and Topography.—The *cardiac* end of the stomach is situated beneath the seventh costal cartilage, and one inch to the left of the sternum. The cardic orifice is about opposite the upper border of the eleventh thoracic vertebra. The stomach is suspended by attachment to the diaphragm and also by the esophagus. From the foregoing remarks it is at once apparent that the cardiac extremity is practically fixed, and that it must remain so whether or not the stomach is displaced or dilated.

Normally, the *pylorus* is situated in the median line, but when the organ is filled, it will be found to be from one to two inches to the right of the center. Anatomically, the pylorus rests opposite the first lumbar vertebra, and midway between the tip of the xiphoid cartilage and the umbilicus. The pylorus is almost completely surrounded by peritoneum, as is the upper portion of the duodenum, to which it is attached. The following six to eight inches of the duodenum are firmly attached to the spine and adjacent tissue, depending only upon the peritoneum for support anteriorly. Extensive displacement of the pylorus is improbable on account of the posterior attachments of the duodenum. Again, the gastrohepatic omentum, the so-called "suspensory ligament of the stomach," is directly attached to the lesser curvature. The gastrohepatic omentum, however, is found to lengthen with displacement of the stomach.

G. G. Davis, in making a series of sections of specimens hardened in formalin, found that the shape of the stomach varied greatly, and that the pyloric one-third was at times contracted to nearly the size of the duodenum. "This is the motor part, and the remaining two-thirds the reservoir, and in dilatation it is mainly this portion which is dilated and which prolapses down even to the pelvis." The pyloric portion of the stomach may be expanded, and this expansion may continue through the upper portion of the duodenum.

The fact that during health the greater curvature rises in the left hypochondrium to a point above the esophageal opening is of great clinical importance, and the greater curvature also descends in the median line to approximately a lower level than the pylorus. At or near the median line the lower edge of the greater curvature is found about two inches above, but may be on a level with the umbilicus anteriorly, and the third lumbar vertebra posteriorly.

The questions that immediately suggest themselves are, what is the position of the stomach when displaced (Figs. 206, 208, 209, 214) and what is its normal position? The cardiac end remains in place, but the greater and lesser curvatures are permitted to descend when the organ is dilated. There is some difference of opinion as to the degree of descent of the pylorus that occurs.

It has recently been claimed that the normal position of the stomach is more nearly vertical than was formerly taught. Repeated observations have shown that the cardiac end is opposite the eleventh thoracic vertebra, and that the pylorus is on a level with the first lumbar vertebra, the latter being from two and one-half to three inches below the former.

Predisposing Factors.—(1) **Age and Sex.**—Mienert found 80 per cent. of girls near the age of fourteen suffering from this condition, and 90

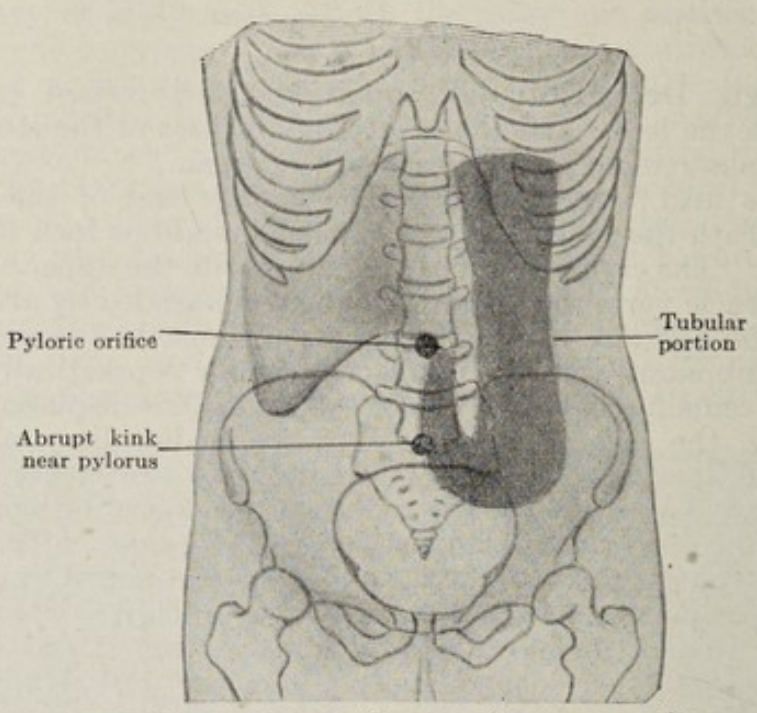


FIG. 210.—GASTROPTOSIS DESCRIBING THE TUBULAR SHAPE OF THE ORGAN, WITH RATHER UNIFORM DILATATION.

Note that the pylorus is far below its normal position. Patient standing.

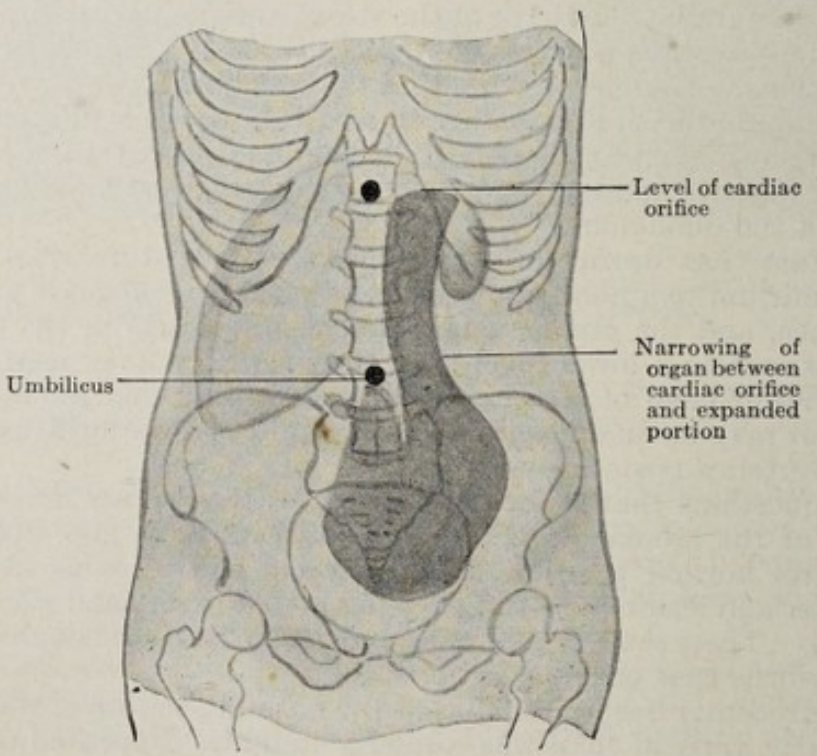


FIG. 211.—PATIENT IN ERECT POSTURE—ILLUSTRATIVE OF GASTROPTOSIS.

The greater curvature resting well in the pelvis.

per cent. of all women examined at his clinic were similarly affected. It has also been found that in Continental Europe 5 per cent. of all males presented a variable degree of gastroptosis. Skiagraphic studies show the stomach to be displaced in a large percentage of all subjects. (2) Dysfunction of the endocrine system (pituitary and adrenals) is often present. (3) **Dislocation of the right kidney and of the hepatic flexure of the colon** is an etiologic factor. (4) **Relaxation of the abdominal wall** as the result of overdistention from whatever cause is among the predisposing features. (5) **Severe muscular strain** and (6) **deformities of the chest and spine** and either congenital or pathologic abnormalities of the trunk and abdomen are etiologic factors.



FIG. 212.—GASTRIC CARCINOMA.

Principal Complaint.—The majority of cases go on for years without exhibiting symptoms, although certain functional disturbances are frequently encountered and are, as a rule, dependent upon the great difficulty with which the stomach is emptied. Sooner or later a variable degree of gastric atony develops, which is followed by impaired gastric secretion, and the symptoms of chronic dyspepsia. (See Chronic Gastritis, p. 539.)

The patient complains of a sense of fullness, oppression, or weight in the abdomen. Her appetite becomes irregular, and may at times be perverted. Repeated attacks of headache, with or without vomiting, vertigo, cardiac palpitation, and dyspnea are among the commoner complaints. There is generally some evidence of malnutrition, and emaciation is not uncommon.

Constipation is the rule, and many patients complain of cramp-like pains in the epigastrium. Marked nervousness and insomnia are by no means uncommon.

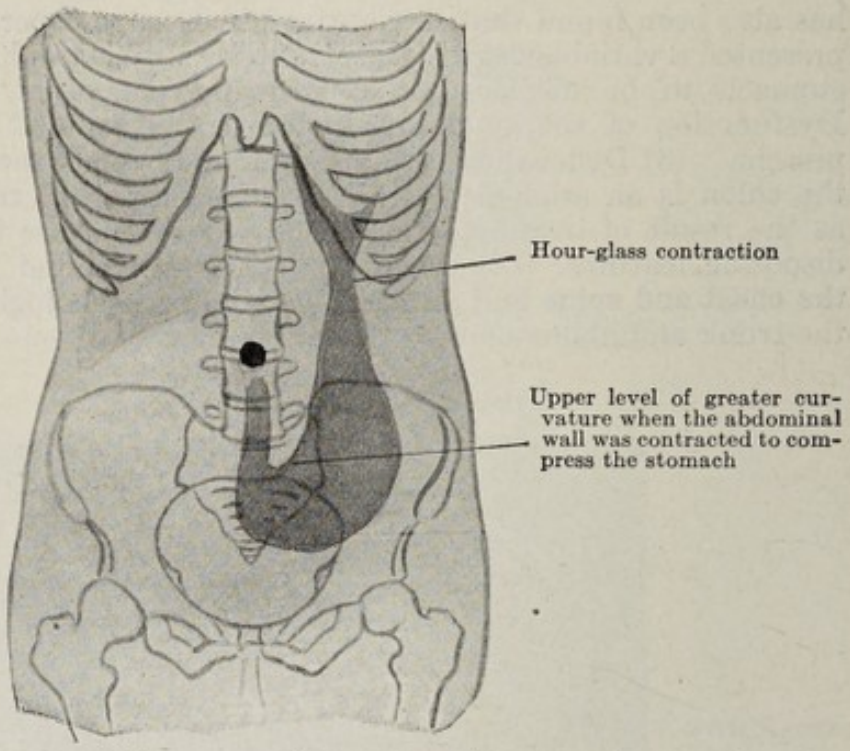


FIG. 213.—GASTROPTOSIS WITH HOUR-GLASS CONTRACTION NEAR THE CARDIAC ORIFICE.
Note also the low level of the pylorus, confirmed by autopsy.

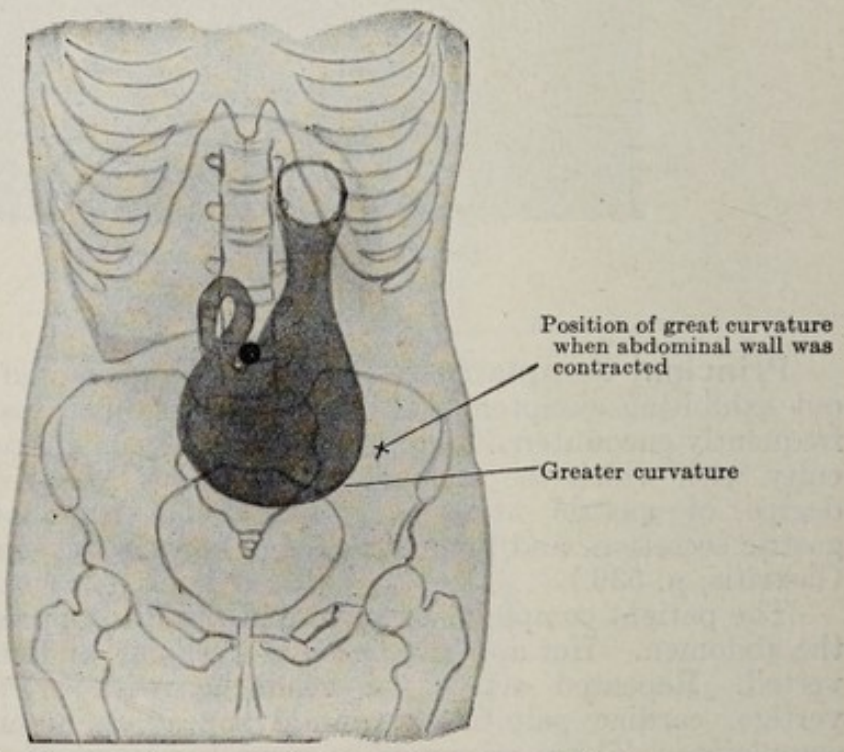


FIG. 214.—PATIENT STANDING, STOMACH CONTAINING FLUID.
In this case the stomach appeared to fill the brim of the pelvis. Note the peculiar looping of the pylorus.

Physical Signs.—Inspection.—When the patient is standing, there is usually undue prominence to the right of the median line and below the umbilicus, with distinct depression at the epigastrium.

Palpation discloses a lack of the normal resistance over the epigastrium, while that in the left inferior abdominal quadrant is slightly increased if the stomach is distended by gas or fluid.

By **percussion** over the distended stomach the organ may be clearly outlined, the tympanitic note being below the umbilicus, and perhaps extending even to the pelvis. The lower border of the greater curvature may be found well within the pelvis.

A sign of great value in diagnosing gastroptosis is the fact that the gastric tympany is absent in the epigastrium and underneath the margin of the left ribs, a point where such tympanitic note should normally be gastric. Gastroptosis with gastric dilatation is by no means unusual,

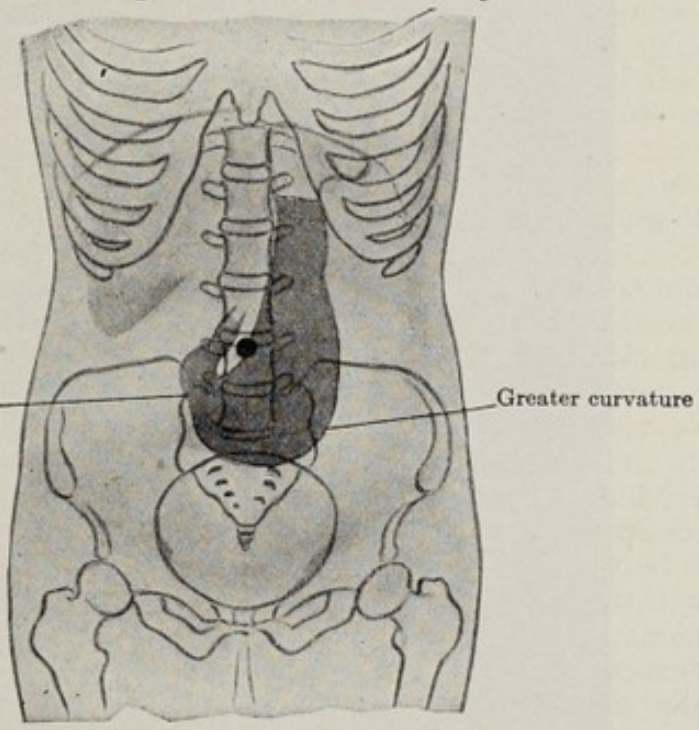


FIG. 215.—PATIENT STANDING.
Gastroptosis, with rather uniform dilatation. Note the low position of the pylorus, after taking solution of bismuth.

and for this reason the area of gastric tympany may be much greater than during health.

Auscultation.—A succussion splash (clapôtement) is audible over the stomach when dilatation is associated, but this sign is not pronounced in simple gastroptosis. It is possible by auscultatory percussion to map out the actual shape and size of the stomach. Place the stethoscope well over any portion of the stomach and percuss (advancing slowly) from some remote part on the abdomen toward the stomach. Whenever the stomach is reached a decidedly tympanitic note is produced.

X-ray Diagnosis.—The *x*-rays are a most valuable aid in formulating a diagnosis. Worden, in his report, based upon a study of 40 cases, found a variable degree of displacement of the stomach 29 times. The most important finding obtained by a skiagraphic study of gastroptosis is the position of the pylorus. Of 32 cases showing gastroptosis, in 28 the pylorus was below its normal level, and the orifice was situated at or near the level of the umbilicus.

Figures 213 to 215 are illustrative of individual cases when the stomach was outlined at our request by aid of the *x*-rays in the hands of the late Dr. Kassabian. In gastroptosis there is generally an associated displacement of the colon.*

Summary of Diagnosis.—A skiagraphic study, however, furnishes the most positive evidence of the existence of this condition. Study of the gastric contents during the rest period gives positive findings (see Fasting Stomach, p. 514).



FIG. 216.—*X*-RAY FINDINGS OF THE STOMACH.

Stomach nearly on a line with the spine. Note large cap-like formation of the duodenum. There was also dilatation of the colon and a patulous ileocecal valve in this patient.

LINITIS PLASTICA (BRINTON'S DISEASE)

A rare condition, following a diffuse hypertrophy of the submucous connective tissues of the gastric wall. The diagnosis is made by *x*-ray.

SYPHILIS OF THE STOMACH

Ofttimes this disorder simulates linitis plastica. The presence of the clinical evidences of syphilis in a patient annoyed by symptoms referable to gastric dysfunction should call for a careful *x*-ray study, and fractional gastric analysis. The Wassermann test is necessary to confirm the diagnosis. The administration of neosalvarsan and of iodides may be necessary to confirm the diagnosis.

CONGENITAL HYPERTROPHIC PYLORIC STENOSIS

A congenital condition where there is extraordinary hypertrophy of the tissues of the pyloric end of the stomach. The diagnosis depends

* Pfahler, Proc. Phila. Co. Med. Soc., November, 1907.

upon the general symptoms of partial pyloric obstruction, chief of which is persistent vomiting. The child may vomit the greater portion of the food taken. Vomiting may occur immediately after the taking of food or it may be delayed for one or more hours.

Alexander* has discussed at length this condition.

THE INTESTINES

METHODS OF EXAMINATION

THE FECES

Collection.—When searching for the amœba coli (Amœba histolytica), it is of special importance that the feces be kept warm. Specimens collected at the patient's residence, or whenever a portion of the feces is desired for clinical study, should be passed into a warm, wide-mouthed bottle, corked tightly, and kept warm while being carried to the laboratory. As soon as the specimen is received in the laboratory the tightly corked bottle should be placed in an incubator at a temperature of 37° C., where it should be kept until the time for its examination.

Constipation and Its Significance.—Obstinate constipation although it is extremely troublesome and annoying, may not be of serious moment. It is an early sign of peritonitis and paralysis of the intestine. It is further suggestive of stenosis of the intestine, fecal impaction, or of obstruction of the bowel. Ribbon-like stools point definitely to a progressive narrowing of the lumen of the lower portion of the intestine.

Diarrhea.—One of the characteristic features in typhoid fever and dysentery are more or less frequent stools, the diarrhea being preceded by constipation. The quantity and character of the food ingested will also be found to influence materially the frequency and the quantity of the intestinal discharges. The rapidity of the peristaltic movements also affects the number of stools—rapid peristalsis exciting frequent bowel movements, whereas sluggish peristaltic waves favor constipation.

Odor.—The odor of the stools may or may not be characteristic of the disease affecting the alimentary tract, or it may be altered by the food or by the medicines ingested (onions, asafetida). As a rule, the odor is dependent upon the presence of indol and skatol in the feces, although at times a decided odor of sulphureted hydrogen may be detected.

Color.—Under normal conditions the color of the feces varies from a light yellow to a blackish-blue, depending upon the character of the food taken. Exposure to the air and light causes the stools to become darker. In health the ingestion of huckleberries produces blackish stools; chocolate gives the feces a dull-gray color; cocoa renders them of a light-gray shade; chlorophyl colors them green; starches effect a yellow color, and fats make them clay-colored. Carrots cause a yellow color while iron, bismuth and grape juice makes the feces black.

Blood.—Following profuse hemorrhage from the bowels the feces are colored blood-red, but when the blood has been gradually extravasated into the bowel and retained there for a prolonged period, the stools become black. Hemorrhage from the stomach, from typhoid ulceration, or from other forms of intestinal lesions is followed by intensely black stools, the color being due to the formation of iron sulphid. When the hem-

*Medical Clinics of N. A., Nov., 1924.

orrhage is quite profuse,—say, when a few ounces of blood have been lost,—the stools are tar-like in color and consistence. The higher the seat of the hemorrhage is in the alimentary tract, the darker are the feces; thus, "coffee-ground" stools are seen after gastric and duodenal hemorrhages.

Tests for Blood.—If blood-cells in the feces cannot be detected by the microscope, special chemic tests for the presence of blood-pigments must be resorted to. Small quantities of blood in the feces may be detected by the method suggested by Müller and Weber.

Karczynski-Jaworski Test.—(1) Place a small amount of the feces in a porcelain dish, and add a smaller amount of potassium chlorid, and one drop of chemically pure hydrochloric acid.

(2) Heat carefully over the flame of a Bunsen burner until the mixture is decolorized (the addition of one or more drops of hydrochloric acid may be required to effect this). During this process chlorin escapes.

(3) Add from one to five drops of a diluted solution of potassium ferrocyanid; the appearance of a distinct Prussian-blue color indicates the presence of blood-pigment.

Fallacies.—When pus is present in the feces in appreciable amount, the same reaction is produced with potassium ferrocyanid.

Occult Bleeding.—The tests employed for the detection, in the feces, of the blood from minute hemorrhages are the guaiac-hydrogen-dioxid and aloin-turpentine tests, and the findings are dependent upon a reaction obtained by the use of an acetic-acid-ethereal extract of the feces.

Technic of the Test.—If the stools are not in a semiliquid condition, they must be rendered so by mixing them thoroughly with distilled water. We usually employ 5 gm. of fecal matter for every test.

(1) After the material has been thoroughly softened, the feces must be thoroughly mixed with at least its own bulk of ether, and the whole well shaken. Treatment with ether is a very necessary part of the procedure, as it removes the fat, which otherwise produces a thick emulsion when the stools are extracted with acetic acid and ether, and renders it almost impossible to obtain a satisfactory ethereal extract.

(2) After being thoroughly shaken, the mixture of feces and ether should be allowed to stand for fifteen minutes or longer, the supernatant liquid being then poured off.

(3) The remaining fecal matter is next mixed with one-third its volume of glacial acetic acid and 10 c.c. of ether. The mixture is again thoroughly shaken, and allowed to stand for at least fifteen minutes. The ethereal extract will rise to the top in a clear layer and can readily be separated.

(4) The solution of aloin is made by dissolving a small quantity of the drug—as much as will go on the end of a small spatula—in a test-tube one-third full of 70 per cent. alcohol.

(5) Two or three cubic centimeters of the clear yellow aloin solution are then mixed in the test-tube with about the same quantity of ethereal acetic acid extract.

(6) Two or three cubic centimeters of ozonized turpentine are then added and the whole is gently shaken.

Reaction.—If blood is present, the reaction may occur in one of several ways: (*a*) The whole mixture may turn pink, the color gradually deepening to a cherry red; (*b*) the solution of aloin may sink to the bottom and form a layer beneath the mixture of ether and turpentine, and this lower layer of aloin in positive tests gradually becomes of a cherry-red color; (*c*) if the ether and turpentine are first mixed and the aloin is then allowed to flow gently down the side of the tube, the two sets of fluids may remain separate, and a deep-red ring will form at their junction.

Caution.—Not more than fifteen minutes should be allowed for the red color to develop, for after this the aloin will gradually turn red, *even if blood is not present.* It is extremely important to make up the solution of aloin as needed, for when it is allowed to stand exposed to light, it assumes the same color seen in the reaction when blood is present. When the test is negative, the color remains a light yellow, becoming red after standing for some time. Hydrogen dioxid does not work satisfactorily as a substitute for turpentine in the aloin test.

The ozonized oil of turpentine should be prepared by allowing a chemically pure oil of turpentine to stand exposed to the air for at least three weeks.

Guaiac Test.—The solution to be employed is made by shaking about a gram of gum guaiac in a test-tube half full of ether, allowing the mixture to stand until it becomes clear. About 2 c.c. of this solution are mixed with the same quantity of acetic acid, ethereal extract of the feces, and hydrogen dioxid. The hydrogen dioxid quickly settles at the bottom of the tube and the ethereal extract floats on top. The blue color that indicates a positive reaction appears very quickly in the supernatant layer, becoming a deep blue, if a decided reaction takes place, although the color may be somewhat masked by the brown tint of the urobilin in the ethereal extract. In such a case the blue is often converted into a purplish-brown, but even this reaction is not infallible. If the reaction is negative, no color change occurs.

The hydrogen dioxid to be used is a full-strength Oakland "Dioxygen." Ozonized turpentine makes an oxidizing agent equally as delicate as hydrogen dioxid, and may be used in its place. When this is done, the turpentine is added to the ethereal extract and guaiac mixture, and becomes intimately mixed with it, and the whole mixture then gradually turns blue. We have found that the guaiac test is easily made by the use of hydrogen dioxid. The solution of guaiac should be freshly prepared, but need not be quite so fresh as the aloin solution.

Bilious Stools.—The so-called "bilious stools" vary in color from bright yellow to dark green, the color being dependent upon the presence of but slightly changed bile.

Clay-colored Stools.—Clay-colored stools are found in all forms of obstructive jaundice, but if the patient is kept upon a diet containing a minimum amount of fat, the feces are of a light-brown color.

It has been proved that the want of color in the feces is not always due to the presence of bile or of fats, and it is, therefore, reasonable to suppose that the decomposition of urobilin may result in the formation of decolorizing products.

Green stools may be due to the development of the Bacillus pyocyaneus or other bacteria that form a green chromogen.

Red Stools.—Carter and MacMunn have reported three cases in which the feces became red upon exposure to the light and air. The latter observer suggests that the chromogen here concerned is closely allied to stercobilin.

Reaction of the Stools.—The stools of an adult are alkaline in reaction, although occasionally they are neutral or even acid. The alkalinity of the feces is dependent upon ammoniacal fermentation. Acidity is due to the presence of lactic or of butyric acid, the formation of either of which may result from fermentation in the intestine. The feces of children on a milk diet should, under normal conditions, give a neutral or slightly acid reaction.

Fatty Acids.—All members of the group of fatty acids, from formic to stearic acid, may appear in the feces.

The detection of biliary acids in the feces is of certain clinical value in the various types of hepatic disease.

Macroscopic and Microscopic Study of the Feces

The presence of many connective-tissue fibers in the feces is conclusive evidence that digestion has not been completed, this being due either to a pathologic condition of the gastro-intestinal tract or to dietetic errors.

Starch.—Starch-granules and chlorophyl are found in some of the undigested vegetable foods, but free starch-granules are not frequent in normal feces unless the patient has taken food composed principally of starch; for this reason, therefore, the feces of children fed upon prepared foods quite commonly contain starch-granules.

Mucoid Stools.—The definite recognition of mucus in the stools is indicative of a catarrhal inflammation of the mucous membrane of the intestine, yet this finding alone should not be regarded as of serious moment, since it may occur in conjunction with but slight intestinal inflammation. Large quantities of sago-like granules are suggestive of catarrh of the large intestine. The discharge of mucus is abundant in the feces in cases of acute intestinal catarrh in which the large intestine is involved.

Casts of the Bowel.—Mucus-cylinders are at times passed with the dejecta. These may be mere shreds of mucus-like material, or they may form a complete cast of the bowel.

Microscopic Study.—Microscopically, these mucous casts are found to consist principally of a faintly opalescent, hazy, homogeneous material (mucus). A number of epithelial cells, leukocytes, red blood-cells mucus-corpuscles, and Charcot-Leyden crystals are rarely seen.

Intestinal Parasites.—Rivas acetic acid and ether concentration method.*

(1) Soften if necessary a portion of the feces, suspend the material in an excess of a 5 per cent. solution of acetic acid by forcible shaking and filter through a layer of cheese-cloth or wire-screen to remove the course and undigested particles.

(2) Collect about 5 c.c. of the filtrate in a centrifuge tube, add equal amount of ether, shake forcibly for few seconds to half a minute till the mixture becomes emulsified and centrifugalize for 2 to 3 minutes.

The mixture becomes separated into four layers: The ethereal extract above, next the soap and detritus in the form of a plug, then the acetic acid solution and last the sediment at the bottom of the tube.

(3) By means of a pipet separate the ethereal extract which may be used for the test for occult blood if desired. Break the soap plug by means of a glass rod or wood applicator and pour out the contents of the tubes. The sediment remains attached to the bottom of the centrifuge tubes.

(4) Collect the sediment by means of a capillary pipet, make fresh coverglass preparations and examine under the microscope.

This method enables the examination of a larger quantity of the material and the concentration of a gram or more of the feces into a drop in the sediment. The concentration may be 50 to 100 when compared with the common direct fresh coverglass preparation method. The ova of intestinal parasites, cysts of amœbæ and other protozoa of the intestine when present are found in large numbers in the sediment.

Rivas recommends passing a duodenal tube and the administration of hot epsom salts solution to remove duodenal parasites.

Blood.—It is unusual to find unaltered red blood-cells in the feces unless an ulceration involving either the lower portion of the bowel or the rectum exists. In acute catarrhal dysentery mucous bloody discharges

* Proceedings Pathological Society, Philadelphia, 1921—Fifth National Medical Congress of Cuba, 1921.

are common, and in them the erythrocytes may be but slightly altered. It is impossible to recognize the red blood-cells as such in the feces when the hemorrhage has occurred high in the intestine, but instead of blood-cells, the feces will contain small, roundish, amorphous masses of a brown-red color. Crystals of hematoidin are occasionally encountered in the feces after intestinal hemorrhage. We have been unable to find red corpuscles in the feces after a hemorrhage occurring during the course of typhoid fever.

Pus.—Pure pus is seldom recovered from the feces, but when it is found, its presence indicates that an abscess probably communicates with the bowel.

In acute dysentery the feces contain blood, mucus, and a large quantity of pus. We have repeatedly seen mucopurulent and seropurulent stools occurring in this disease, and it is uncommon for the pus to form a large proportion of the entire stool.

Intestinal Sand.—The cases of enteric lithiasis reported probably number less than a dozen. Duckworth and Garrod, in addition to reporting a case, give an analysis of the cases furnished by the literature, and John K. Mitchell, of Philadelphia, has reported a case occurring in a male aged forty.

Fatty Feces.—Under normal conditions the feces contain a small amount of fat. Fat in pathologic amounts is usually recognized by the glistening, greasy appearance of the stool, which is often of a grayish-yellow color. When fat is present in large amounts, the stools become gray in color and at times nearly white. When placed under a one-sixth inch objective, fatty feces will show the presence of fat-globules and probably of fatty crystals; when a drop of solution of Sudan III is added to the specimen, the fat-globules are stained pink.

Clinical Significance.—(1) Fat in the stools is suggestive of the ingestion of large quantities of this substance; fat is present (2) during the course of diseases showing progressive emaciation, (3) during the essential anemias, (4) in obstructive jaundice, and (5) in nearly all forms of pancreatic disease.

Bacteria.—Many different forms of bacteria may be cultivated from the feces, but in the present state of our knowledge there are but few bacteria that are of positive diagnostic value.

Tubercle Bacilli.—The detection of the tubercle bacillus in the feces is readily accomplished whenever ulceration of the intestine, due to the development of this organism, exists. Collect a small portion of the mucoid or purulent material from the feces, smear it thinly upon a glass slide, and stain it in the usual way for the tubercle bacillus. When tubercle bacilli are present in the feces, they are oftenest seen in large clusters or dense aggregations, although they may be equally disseminated throughout the field. In tuberculous enteritis the tubercle bacilli are present in large numbers.

Pus-producing Organisms.—At times pus-producing organisms are present in the feces.

The **bacillus of Shiga** may be recovered from the dejecta of persons suffering from acute dysentery. The bacillus of Shiga, when isolated from the feces of acute dysentery, will be found to agglutinate with the patient's serum.

The *bacillus typhosus* may be obtained from the feces by cultural methods in cases of typhoid fever.

The *bacillus coli communis* is a normal inhabitant of the intestinal tract.

DISEASES OF THE INTESTINES

DUODENAL ULCER (POST PYLORIC ULCER)

Pathologic Findings.—A condition characterized anatomically by ulceration in the duodenum. The ulcer may penetrate only the mucous coats, or extend to the peritoneum; in which case there is an extension of inflammation to the adjacent structures. There is, at times, slight leakage from the duodenal ulcer, with abscess formation. The duodenum is not infrequently bound by adhesions to the liver, gall-bladder, or the stomach; in which event there is distortion of the duodenum.

Clinical Consideration.—Diagnosis is made difficult in duodenal ulcer due to the following: (*a*) The organ in which the lesion is located is of small size and is deeply situated within the abdomen. (*b*) The secretion bathing the ulcer is alkaline in reaction, consequently but slight irritation exists. (*c*) Duodenal ulcer may appear in people who apparently enjoy health—it is likewise found in those suffering from chronic maladies and after acute infections. (*d*) Ulcer of the duodenum may go on to perforation and the patient experience but slight gastro-intestinal symptoms; in fact, the pain accompanying perforation may be the first alarming symptom.

Exciting and Predisposing Factors.—Duodenal ulcer occurs most often in persons who have recently experienced some acute infection, or in whom some focal infection of the mouth, teeth, tonsils, or cranial sinuses exists.

J. O. Bower* in reviewing the cases at the Samaritan Hospital since 1912, found 20 in whom duodenal ulcer had perforated; and among these, 19 gave definite evidence of gingivitis, pyorrhea, and dental infection. During the past 8 years one of us (Boston) has examined all duodenal ulcer and appendicitis cases, under the service of Dr. J. T. Schell, at the Northwestern General Hospital. Twelve cases of duodenal ulcer that have come to operation, have—one and all—presented focal infection of the oral cavity, tonsillitis or of the cranial sinuses. Among the cases of appendicitis studied at the hospital during this period (1916–1925) patients either presented an existing focal infection or had recently experienced some acute infection *e. g.*, tonsillitis, acute cold, acute influenza, lobar pneumonia (2 cases), and diarrhea (which was probably an intestinal form of grip). Bower in his elaborate survey of the literature upon this subject, cites numerous records where leading surgeons and gastroenternologists have emphasized focal infection and acute infection as the two common precursors of duodenal ulcer. Disease of the gall-bladder is commonly associated with duodenal ulcer, but it is quite difficult to determine whether the ulcer or the gall-bladder condition was the primary lesion, since the two are equally common after acute infections, and during the course of focal infections. In the case of extensive burns of the skin, duodenal ulcer is rather frequent. Duodenal ulcer is also commonly encountered during the course of cholelithiasis (see p. 610) and chronic nephritis. Males are effected more often than are females, and the disease is rather more common between the twentieth and fortieth years. Statistics collected from both the American and English literature would lead us to suppose that duodenal ulcer is rather more prevelant than is gastric ulcer. This statistical conclusion is, we take it, dependent upon the fact that a larger portion of cases of duodenal ulcer come to operation. Smithies in his collection of 1725 cases, found 1225 of them to suffer from duodenal ulcer, and 500 of them from gastric ulcer alone.

*Medical Journal and Record, October 15, 1924.

Jejunal ulcer, a condition of extreme rarity, may result as a sequel of gastric or duodenal ulceration. The diagnosis of this last condition is rarely determined during life. Gall-bladder disease and other varieties of focal infection are among the commonest exciting factors—*e. g.*, teeth and tonsils. Duodenal cultures may render service.

General Complaint.—The patient has usually suffered from what he describes as acute attacks of indigestion, certain of which are attended with severe pain in the epigastrium. The appetite may be poor, and there are usually eructations of acid substances into the throat and mouth. The patient has often observed that he has been losing weight, and that, hand in hand with emaciation, has developed languor and a sense of prostration Many patients experience a sense of hunger sometimes after the taking of a full meal and before the stomach has yet had time to empty itself. This hunger is often accompanied by pain, more or less boring in character, which is localized to the epigastrium. Pain, when severe, may radiate over the greater part of the superior abdominal hemisphere and to the back. Pain may be paroxysmal, and of such severity that the patient must either sit, or grasp some object to prevent falling. Well marked shock often accompanies this type of pain. Such pains are generally conceded to depend upon pylorospasm and are more common in duodenal than in gastric ulcer. It is unusual for the patient to make reference to discomfort or pain in the region of the throat, mouth or head. There is a history of gastro-intestinal disturbance, which may have existed for an indefinite period. Pain serves as the most definite complaint, and is often produced by spasm of the pylorus. (See Pylorospasm, page 531.)

(1) Pain is not experienced soon after the taking of food, unless some stomach complication exists.

(2) Pain, slight or severe, is always accompanied by a definite weakness, and at times by minor shock; in which instance, the patient becomes beaded by perspiration.

(3) Pain ordinarily causes the patient to stop from whatever he is doing, and often compels him to grasp some object, or to sit quickly, to prevent falling. Such pains are of short duration.

(4) Pain is seldom accompanied by vomiting; although nausea, and slight vertigo are occasionally experienced. Pyrosis, at times, is a forerunner of an attack.

(5) Most characteristic of duodenal ulcer is that the pain often develops during the night, from three to six or more hours after the taking of food. Eructation of gas is commonly followed by an amelioration in the degree of pain.

(6) Whenever a patient is repeatedly awakened from sleep by severe intestinal pain that occurs at rather definite intervals, duodenal ulcer should be suspected, for this is the only abdominal pain that occurs at definite intervals—several hours after the taking of food.

(7) Constipation and intermittent attacks of diarrhea are experienced, but these symptoms are so common in other forms of intestinal disturbance that they are of but limited importance in forming a diagnosis. Attacks of faintness are frequently experienced, and at times such attacks probably result from hemorrhage. The detection of blood in the feces may bear a direct relation to attacks of dyspnea and a sense of faintness. Vertigo is an annoying symptom, and may be intermittent or continuous.

Physical Signs.—Among the most constant are the evidences presented at the site of focal infection, and detailed under Predisposing and Exciting Factors. Transillumination of the teeth and sinuses is likely

to give evidence of focal disease; and whenever such evidence is not apparent to the internist, a clinical opinion of both a specialist and a dentist is necessary. Spasm of the esophagus is present in most cases of duodenal ulcer; and the swallowing time (period required for water to pass from the entrance of the esophagus into the stomach) is altered (see "Swallowing Time," page 514). This sign has been presented in every case of duodenal ulcer studied by the authors where the diagnosis was confirmed at operation.

The abdomen is commonly normal in contour before the ulcer has penetrated sufficiently deep to irritate or perforate the peritoneal coat. In certain cases, there is definite tenderness over the duodenum, but its



FIG. 217.—PRIVATE CASE OF A MALE, AGED 33 YEARS.

Note prominence of duodenal cap and irregularity of the upper border of the stomach. These changes were present at each of several studies. Duodenal ulcer, with extensive adhesions, found at operation—complete recovery.

absence does not militate strongly against the existence of ulcer. Tenderness, when present, may depend upon extensive adhesions, disease of the pyloric end of the stomach, pathology of the pancreas, and disease of the gall bladder; any one of which conditions is commonly associated with duodenal ulcer.

Auscultation reveals an unusually rapid peristaltic wave before the peritoneum is perforated. Place the stethoscope bell directly over the upper portion of the duodenum, compress it firmly, and in the event of ulcer, there are audible fine crackling gurgles, resembling somewhat the finest rales that are heard over the lung. These fine gurgles vary in number from 60 to 120 per minute. The coarse normal gurgles heard in this region seldom exceed 30 per minute. Gurgling over this area is also increased during the course of gastric ulcer, and in inflammatory process of the gall-bladder. The degree of fine gurgles heard over this

area, does not serve to separate gall-bladder disease and gastric ulcer from duodenal ulcer.

After Perforation.—The general phenomena of shocks is present immediately following perforation, but these disappear within a short time. Definite sharp pain is described as first occupying the upper portion of the abdomen, and later radiating over the entire abdomen, and lower portion of the chest. The abdomen becomes scaphoid in outline, and definite grooves are seen to obliquely traverse the upper portion of the abdomen from the medium line, outward, below the lower margin of the ribs. Rigidity is detected over the superior portion of the abdomen.

X-ray Signs.—Pfahler has called special attention to the *x*-ray findings in connection with duodenal ulcer, and, in our opinion, an *x*-ray study is an essential adjunct to diagnosis. Barclay and Haudek have called attention to increased peristalsis, and regard the emptying of the stomach, within a period of less than six hours, suggestive of duodenal ulcer. Some observers have found that in selected cases the stomach may empty itself in less than one hour.

"A remnant of bismuth outside of the duodenal outline, associated with resistance and not easily movable, points toward a penetrating duodenal ulcer." Jackson* first reported 57 instances where there was a definite duodenal cap deformity in cases of duodenal ulcer. Pylorospasm is commonly detected by fluorscopic study.

Constrictions and secondary dilatation may result from contractions of a callous duodenal ulcer, and, when present, serve as confirmatory evidences only, since adhesions, from whatever cause, may produce a similar condition of the duodenum. Pylorospasm, hour-glass stomach, stenosis of the pylorus, or stenosis of the duodenum may be detected. Duodenal diverticula may be seen and is commonest in males after 50 years of age. (See page 502.) Spasm of the esophagus is common, the swallowing time is altered. (See page 465.)

Laboratory Diagnosis.—By fractional gastric analysis it is possible to determine a decided alteration in the time allotted to the digestive phase and that occupied by the interdigestive phase. (See also Fasting Stomach.) Whenever the feces from a previously healthy individual are found to contain a large amount of blood, the existence of duodenal ulcer is suggested. The vomiting of blood is an occasional feature, and suggests that the ulcer is located near the pylorus. Occult blood is found in the feces in acute or active ulceration of the duodenum.

Duodenal Tube.—Einhorn and Gross each devised a special instrument for the purpose of recovering the secretion of the duodenum in man. This instrument (Figs. 218, 219) is in reality an elongated stomach tube, containing a perforated metal bulb at one end.

Winfield Kohn's Duodenal Tubes.—This is designed with the object of isolating the duodenum from the remainder of the alimentary tract. It temporarily separates this portion of the tract from the remainder of the bowel and stomach. Detailed studies can be conducted that are otherwise impossible, and the duodenum and its contents are under our immediate control.†

"The instrument consists of a hollow tube which embraces in its cavity two separate hollow tubes of decidedly smaller calibre, and a columnar hollow space (Fig. 221). The tube is widest down to its pyloric mark and below this point is much narrower, owing to the fact that from

* Jour. Mich. State Med. Soc., July, 1919.
† N. Y. Med. Jour., Sept. 7, 1921.

here down it contains only two avenues of communication. The lowermost avenue communicates with a rubber bag that can be sufficiently dilated with air to approximate the circumference of the duodenum, thus separating the duodenum in its lowermost portion from the rest of the bowel. Above at a certain point corresponding to a position within the stomach just above the pyloric ring, another air bag arrangement exists. This second bag when ballooned hugs the circumference of the

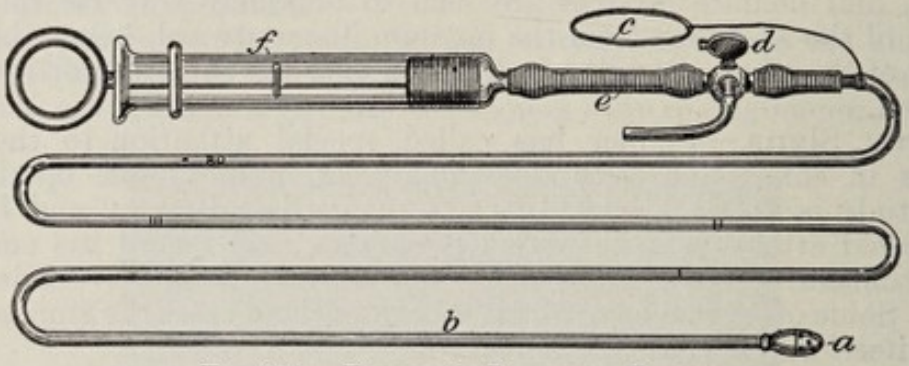


FIG. 218.—EINHORN'S DUODENAL PUMP.

a, Metal capsule, lower half provided with numerous holes, the upper half communicating with tube *b*; I, II, III, marks of I = 40, II = 56, III = 70 cm. from capsule; *c*, rubber band with silk attached to end of tubing, which can be placed over the ear of the patient; *d*, three-way stop-cock; *e*, collapsible connecting tube; *f*, aspirating syringe.

lowermost pyloric part of the stomach, just proximal to the pyloric ring. This bag if allowed to pass into the duodenum may be inflated and drawn upward so as to hug the duodenal side of the pyloric ring. Between these two sites of blockade remains within the duodenum, a small opening in the tube and through this opening the duodenal contents can be aspirated or the duodenum can be filed. The tube for establishing a blockade at the lower portion of the duodenum (Fig. 220) was also devised by Kohn.

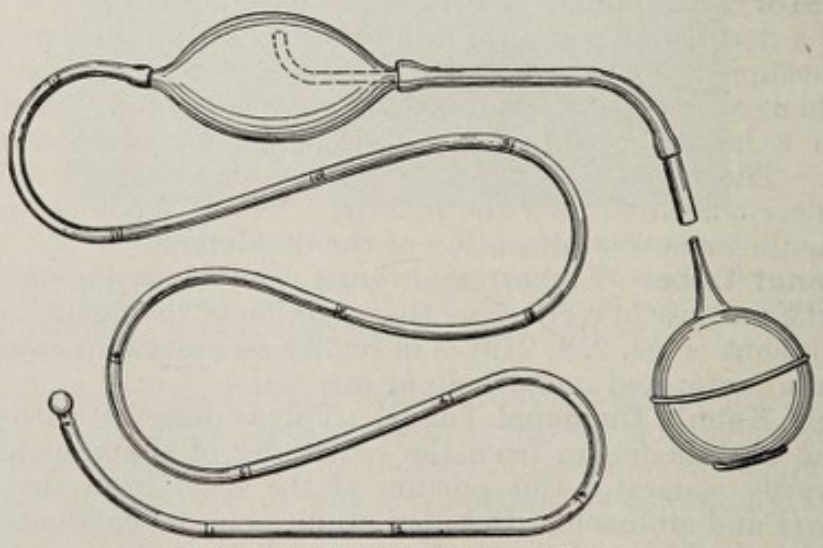


FIG. 219.—GROSS DUODENAL TUBE.

These tubes are of unquestionable value in the direct treatment of this portion of the intestinal tract. This ingenious method devised by Kohn, and later mentioned by others will have a decided value in both diagnosis and treatment, and it provides a means of removing the questions of doubt that have previously shrouded treatment of the liver and its passages through the duodenal tubes.

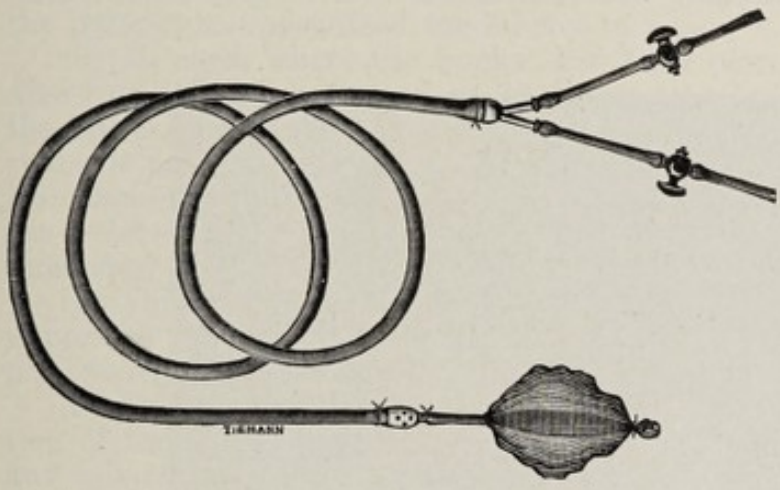


Fig. 220.—Kohn's Duodenal Tube with Rubber Bag for the Establishment of a Blockade at the Lower Portion of the Duodenum.

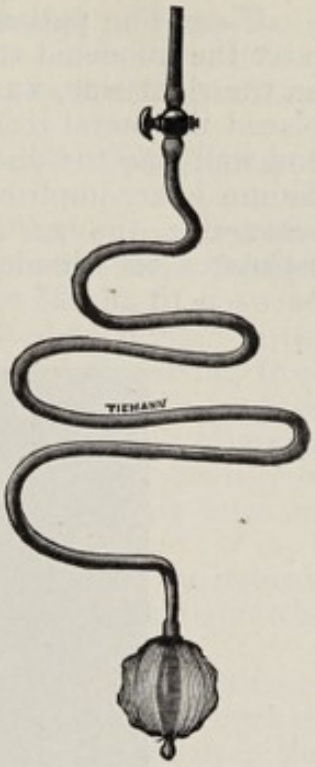


Fig. 221.—Kohn's Duodenal Tube.

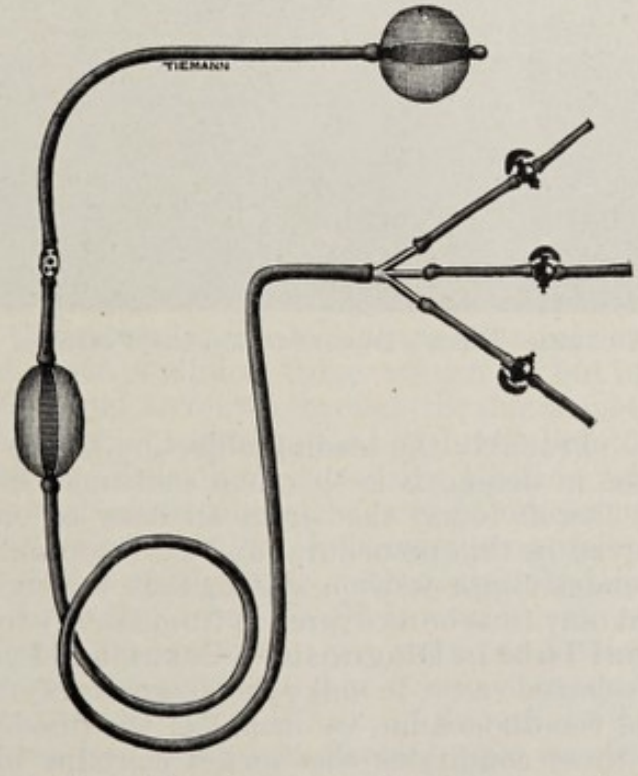


Fig. 222.—Kohn's Three Way Duodenal Tube Showing Rubber Bags for the Establishment of Blockades of the Duodenum Both above and below the Common Duct.

Use.—The patient is given a glass of milk and water, and an hour later the duodenal tube should be swallowed. Direct the patient to lie on the right side, and in course of time the end of the tube, at which is placed the metal ball, will be found to pass through the pyloric opening and well into the duodenum. The recovery of the secretion of the duodenum is accomplished in practically the same way as is described for recovering the gastric contents. Doroff, in his study of 21 cases, estimates the duodenal fluid recoverable by this method to fluctuate between 10 and 25 c.c.



FIG. 223.—KOHN'S DUODENAL TUBE IN POSITION.

Time Needed.—Probably the leading objection to the employment of the duodenal tube in diagnosis is the time consumed in recovering the duodenal fluid. Doroff found that from an hour to one and one-half hours was employed in this procedure, and he recommends placing the patient in the Trendelenburg position, stating that, through his experience, the duodenal fluid may thus be recovered in from twenty to thirty minutes.

The Duodenal Tube in Diagnosis.—Gastric and Pyloric Disease.—It is possible, in selected cases, to make the diagnosis of ulcer of the stomach, pylorus, and the duodenum, by means of the duodenal bucket and string test. In these conditions the bucket contains bile-stained fluid and the string near to the bucket is stained a golden yellow. There may be found on the string a localized staining by blood, and this stain is determined to be a certain distance from the patient's lips (15 to 24 inches).

(1) Should the stain be found between 15 and 16 inches from the lips the cardiac portion of the stomach is involved.

(2) Blood stain between 16 and 21 inches indicates that the lesser curvature is the site of lesion.

(3) Blood stain when found from 21 to 22 inches from the lips makes pyloric ulceration probable.

(4) Should the stain be 22 to 24 inches distant from the lips it indicates duodenal ulceration.

(5) In those cases where the returning duodenal bucket contains bile, and the string is stained a golden yellow below 23 inches from the lips, the pylorus has permitted the bucket to pass.

(6) In cases where the bucket has been permitted to remain in the digestive tract for from 8 to 10 hours (the length of the string from the lips exceeding 25 inches) and the bucket returns without bile, and the string is not stained yellow near the bucket, pyloric stenosis is probable (in cases of jaundice this test is of no value). Both organic stricture of the pylorus and spasm may prevent the bucket from passing into the duodenum.

(7) Differentiation between spasm and organic stricture of the pylorus is possible by repeating the bucket test, and at the same time give the patient from $\frac{1}{100}$ to $\frac{1}{50}$ of a grain of atrophine.

(8) Should the bucket return without a trace of bile, organic obstruction of the pylorus is most likely. The presence of bile in the bucket, and bile staining on the string beyond a distance of 23 inches from the lips, serves as our best evidence of pylorospasm.

Duodenal Fluid.—The quantity usually exceeds 10 c.c., in color ranging from a golden yellow to a greenish yellow, or at times a dark green. The color is influenced materially by the amount of bile present. Gross has been able to recognize duodenal ulcer through the recovery of duodenal fluid that contained blood. Acute and chronic duodenal catarrah and acute duodenitis, when extending to congestion of the papilla of Vater with obstructive jaundice, is easily recognized (see Jaundice) through our general symptoms described under acute jaundice.

Whenever in addition to the symptoms of jaundice the duodenal contents contain a large quantity of mucus or of bile mixed with mucus, the diagnosis of duodenal inflammation is suggested. Chronic duodenal catarrah cannot be determined in all cases by the use of the duodenal bucket.

In the case of inflammatory processes of the gall-bladder and adjacent viscera, where, theoretically, a bacteriologic examination of the duodenal secretion should prove of clinical value, we can see but little advantage in obtaining the duodenal secretion through the duodenal tube, or duodenal bucket, over the method recommended by Lewis Brinton.

Charactertistics.—This fluid is usually alkaline (although it never gives a red color with phenolphthalein) and as indicators for quantitative or qualitative tests, litmus and methyl orange are employed. A standard solution of $\frac{1}{10}$ HCl is employed in determining the degree of alkalinity; and a $\frac{1}{10}$ standard solution of NaOH is used to estimate the degree of acidity (should such be present). We write the figures of alkalinity or acidity to represent the given number of c.c. of either the $\frac{1}{10}$ standard solutions required to neutralize 100 c.c. of duodenal fluid.

Inspect duodenal contents immediately after its withdrawal because changes in color and physical abnormalities soon develop. Normal duodenal fluid obtained in the fasting condition, or after the ingestion of clear fluids, is bile yellow in color and should be clear, viscid, and display a distinct froth after shaking. Its specific gravity fluctuates between 1004 and 1006.

Qualitative Tests for Pancreatic Ferments.—Steapsin—Take one drop of neutral milk, two drops of water, and two to four drops of duodenal contents (and unless alkaline neutralize), and add a small piece of litmus agar, mix in a small test tube and keep at blood temperature. Should steapsin be present the agar changes to red in from 20 to 30 minutes, which color change depends upon the development of fatty acids.

Trypsin.—This substance is determined by using a small piece of the white portion of a hard boiled egg, which is placed in neutralized duodenal fluid, and kept for a few hours at blood temperature. Should trypsin be present in normal amounts the piece of egg albumin disappears.

Amylopsin.—In this test we employ either a solution of boiled starch or starch paper. Mix in a small test tube equal parts of starch solution and duodenal contents, or strips of starch paper may be used. Permit the same to remain at blood temperature for from one-half to one hour then add a small quantity of a weak solution of iodine. In the presence of starch a blue color follows and in the presence of erythrodextrin a red color results.

DUODENAL OBSTRUCTION

This condition is most frequently found in infants and children who display varying symptoms, unless the obstruction be acute. Attacks of duodenal obstructions are accompanied by epigastric pain, vomiting, and constipation. (Rarely constipation alternates with diarrhea) and comprises the chief features. The first vomitus is apt to be acid in reaction, later it may become green and of a fœcal nature. These children are usually underweight, or have experienced a continuous loss in weight.

X-ray study may reveal obstruction. Alternate gastric and duodenal motility whenever present should be most carefully analyzed, as they serve as valuable findings.* Von Salis has given an interesting report of a case of acute obstruction due to duodenal sarcoma.

Differential Diagnosis.—The distinctive differential features between duodenal ulcer and gastric ulcer are set forth in the accompanying table, which has been modified from "Anders Practice."

Duodenal Ulcer	Gastric Ulcer
1. Usually occurs between twenty and forty years, except when due to external burns.	1. May occur at any age after childhood.
2. Males are more frequent sufferers than females, in the proportion of ten to one.	2. Females are the chief sufferers.
3. Onset often marked by intestinal hemorrhage, which may recur at intervals of varying duration.	3. Gastric hemorrhage frequently occurs and is preceded by other gastric symptoms.
4. The melena may rarely be preceded or accompanied by hematemesis.	4. Blood may appear in the stools, but usually after hematemesis.
5. Blood in the discharge is often bright red.	5. The blood in the dejections is dark and tarry from the action of the gastric juices.
6. Hunger pain, due to acid, may come on late, two to four hours after meals. It is localized a little above and to the right of the umbilicus. Pain relieved by eating and by taking alkalies.	6. Pain paroxysmal, greatly influenced by taking food. Pain sharply localized in the epigastric region, about 2 inches below the ensiform cartilage. Pain is aggravated by taking food, as a rule.
7. *X*-ray shows stomach empty in from one to six hours. Deformity of the duodenal cap is present.	7. Retention of food beyond six hours.

* Jour. Am. Med. Assoc., October 29, 1921.

Duodenal Ulcer	Gastric Ulcer
8. Vomiting inconstant without relation to ingestion of food, and affords no relief.	8. Vomiting more common soon after food (during painful crisis) and affords relief.
9. Jaundice occasionally present from occlusion of bile-duct.	9. Jaundice absent.
10. No marked improvement after diet has been regulated.	10. Usually a marked improvement follows regulation of diet.
11. Dorsal pain-point absent.	11. Painful point (between the tenth and twelfth dorsal vertebræ on left side) usually present.
12. A remnant of bismuth outside shadow of duodenum strongly favors perforating ulcer.	12. Absent.

FIXATION OF THE DUODENUM

A condition possibly congenital, where the duodenum is held in abnormal position by hepatoduodenal membranes (Harris' bands). The symptoms and signs similate closely those seen in gall-bladder disease, duodenal ulcer, gastric ulcer, and the conditions where pylorospasm is a common feature. Attacks are separated by an interval of weeks, months, or years.

Diagnosis.—This is made only by a fluoroscopic study.—The duodenum is always abnormal in contour, usually at a low level, and the stomach and colon may also show distortion. Exploratory operation reveals extensive, firm adhesions about the duodenum and adjacent structures.

In selected cases duodenal ulcer may be difficult to distinguish from any one of the following conditions: Cholelithiasis, gastralgia, cancer of the intestines, and appendicitis. All of these conditions have been considered under their respective heads, with reference to their characteristic signs and symptoms.

DUODENAL DILATATION

Consideration.—In man the transverse part of the duodenum is somewhat compressed by the mesentery and the superior mesentery artery, as the result of erect posture. Codman has presented a series of casts of this portion of the duodenum to show definitely the degree of compression that exists in man. The normal constriction of the duodenum is further exaggerated by slight anatomic variations. In selected cases there may be almost complete occlusion of the intestine at this point. Occlusion of the duodenum becomes pathologic, only, when there is sufficient obstruction to cause interference with the muscular efforts of the organ, in which event a variable degree of dilatation must follow.

Visceroptosis results in a dragging down of the mesentery with a resultant compression on the duodenum, consequently duodenal obstruction with dilatation is to be considered whenever there is a general enteroptosis.

Jordon* has conducted an extended radiographic study of cases where duodenal dilatation has existed, and reference to his illustrated article will convey a clear conception of the effect that drawing of the mesentery has upon the duodenum.

General Complaint.—Many of the cases given a history of acute jaundice, which may have developed 1 to 5 years before a marked dilatation ensued. There has usually been vague pains in the upper

* Brit. Med. Jr., 1912, I, 1225.

portion of the abdomen. Patient described his condition as unusually nervous, hyper-sensitive, and many of them become extremists as to habits, political and religious views. Frequent attacks of nausea, and occasional vomiting are experienced. Obstinate constipation with gradual, but progressive loss in weight and strength are to be expected.

Physical examination reveals nothing definite except that there is commonly a marked lordosis, which is often of sufficient magnitude that when the patient rests upon his back there is a distinct aching in the lower dorsal and lumbar regions. The abdomen is commonly scaphoid, and further physical examinations reveal the signs of downward displacement of the abdominal viscera. The *X*-ray findings confirm the diagnosis of duodenal dilatation.

ENTEROPTOSIS

Pathologic Definition.—A condition characterized by descent of the colon from its normal position.

General Remarks.—Displacement of the colon often develops coincidently with displacement of the stomach or of the kidneys. Glénard describes at length the symptoms resulting from a displacement of more than one of the abdominal viscera—a condition known as splanchnoptosis.

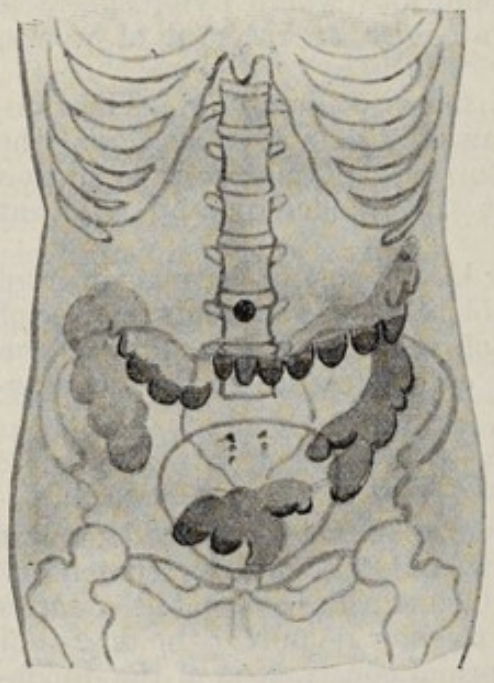


FIG. 223*a*.—TRANSVERSE COLON DISPLACED BELOW UMBILICUS.

Dark areas indicate that portion occupied by bismuth solution.

Exciting and Predisposing Factors.—(*a*) Gastroptosis serves as the most potent factor in the displacement of the transverse colon; (*b*) displacement of the right kidney often carries with it the hepatic flexure of the colon; (*c*) habits of dress figure prominently as causes of displacement of the colon; (*d*) endocrine dysfunction is often accompanied by enteroptosis.

Sex.—The majority of all cases occur in females. Repeated pregnancies, the use of violent cathartics, and rapid emaciation are likely to be followed by prolapse of the colon. Muscular strain, etc., are also said to contribute toward this condition. Both the large and small intestines may take part in the displacement, although the former (coloptosis) is the more common.

Principal Complaint.—The colon may be greatly displaced without causing the patient any inconvenience, and where there is but a moderate degree of displacement symptoms are uncommon. The patient usually complains of gastric or intestinal discomfort (indigestion), and does not gain flesh.

Flatulence is an almost constant symptom both before and after meals. There may be a history of repeated attacks of mucous colitis, especially when the flexures are involved, but such a history is by no means constant. In addition to constipation, the patient complains of a dragging sensation in the abdomen and of attacks of colicky abdominal pains. In well-marked cases of enteroptosis constipation generally alternates with attacks of diarrhea during which many of the symptoms suggestive of gastroptosis are likely to be present.

Among the **nervous manifestations** are headache, general irritability, sleeplessness, mental hebetude during the day, and well-marked hysteria.

Auscultation.—By injecting from 200 to 400 c.c. of water by the rectum it is possible, in many instances where there is ptosis of the transverse colon, to get a splashing sound over the lower portion of the abdomen (Figs. 226 and 231).

Laboratory Diagnosis.—The urine is, as a rule, rich in indican, and is often high colored and of high specific gravity, except in persons of a hysteric temperament, in whom intermittent attacks of polyuria are prone to occur. Acidosis-acetonemia may be present.

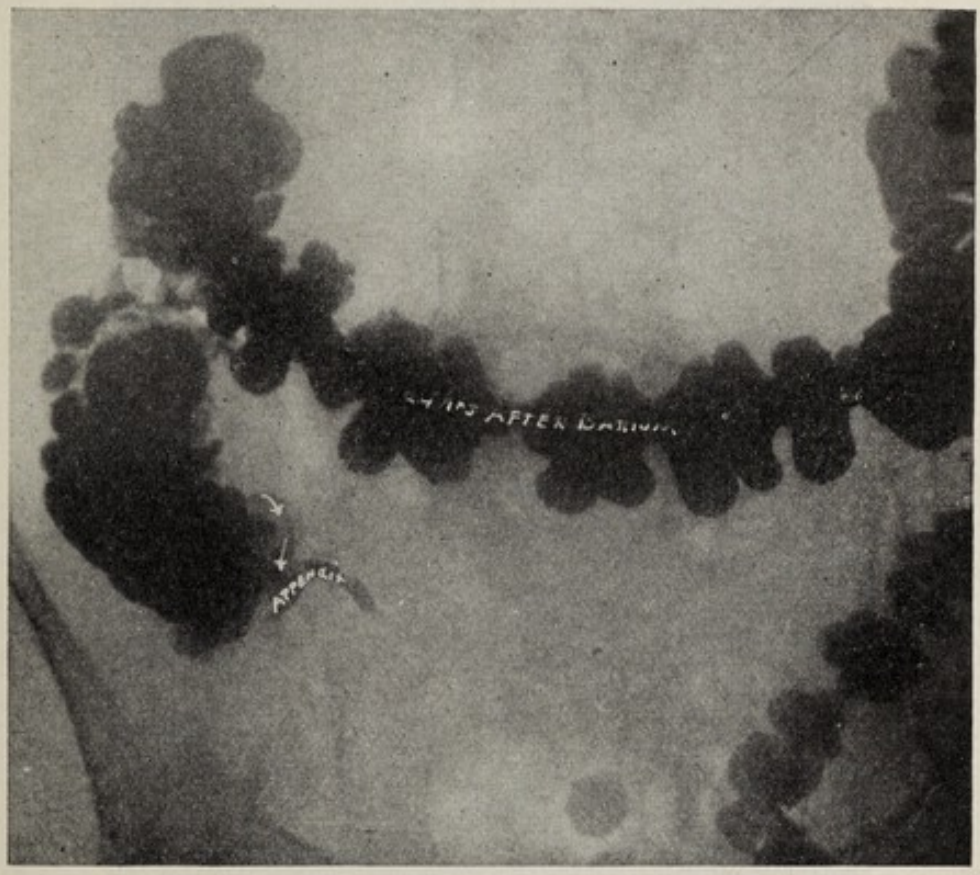


FIG. 224.—ENTEROPTOSIS.

Private Case A. H. D. Note appendix when injected by barium mixture, also patulous ileocecal valve. The capit coli and appendix contain mixture after 72 hours. Clinical proof of inadequate drainage. Patient had previously suffered from three rather typical attacks of appendicitis.

X-ray Diagnosis.—By injecting a solution of barium into the colon it may be readily outlined by the aid of the *x*-rays, a means that gives the most positive evidence of displacement. Fluoroscopic study of the colon while distended by barium solution often reveals pathology. Distention of the peritoneum by gas may be of service in *x*-ray studies.

Summary of Diagnosis.—The only positive clinical evidences of prolapse of the colon are: (*a*) The picture revealed by the use of the *x*-rays; (*b*) the effect of distention of the colon by gas; and (*c*) the absence of colonic tympany in the upper portion of the abdomen. The history and general complaint should be taken into consideration, but they are in no way characteristic of displacement of the colon.

Clinical Course and Duration.—The prognosis as to life is favorable, the condition continuing for many years. Coloptosis may be cured

in many instances by surgical measures, together with judicious medication.

DILATATION OF THE COLON (ECTASIA OF THE COLON)

Pathologic Definition.—A condition characterized by more or less general dilatation of the colon, most marked, in the majority of cases, at the sigmoid flexure. Hypertrophic dilatation of the colon is the rule, and although a marked catarrh is present there may also be ulceration of the mucous surface, and, sooner or later, atony of the muscular coat of

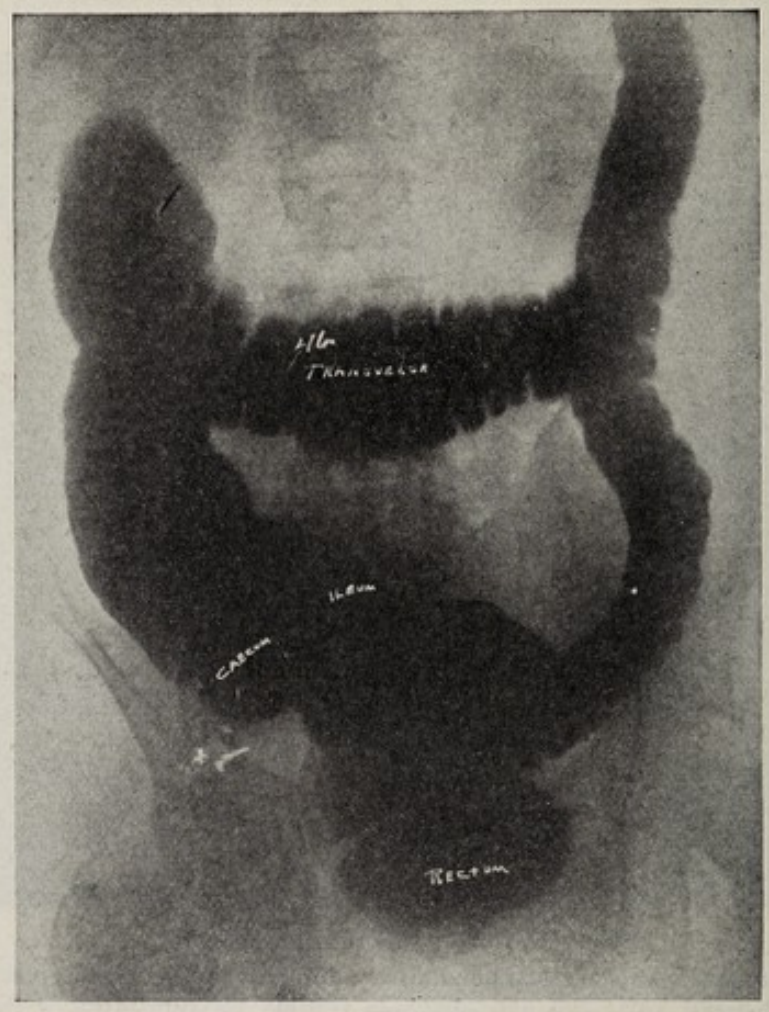


FIG. 225.—*X*-RAY FINDINGS—DILATATION OF COLON.
Private Case D, showing dilatation of the cecum, ileum and rectum, with abrupt doubling of the colon at the hepatic and splenic flexures.

the large bowel occurs. Isolated areas of dilatation of the intestine, particularly the colon, is to be expected in connection with disease of the supra-renal glands. A general atonic condition of the colon is likewise accompanied with supra-renal disease, and incompetency of the ileocœcal valve is not infrequent. Megacolon may exist. (See Endocrinology, p. 1080 and Pituitary 1117.)

Etiologic Factors.—Chief among the exciting factors are malformation (congenital elongation) of the colon, although dilatation may follow extensive ulceration, and is occasionally a sequel of typhoid fever, amebic dysentery, operations on the abdomen, etc. Extra pressure upon the colon from tumors, etc., disease of the adrenal glands, (see p. 1153), and disease of the rectum, involving the region between internal and

external sphincters, are common causes, since these conditions have to do directly with the autonomic nerve supply of the colon. Impingement or undue pressure upon a hernia also interferes with peristalsis, and in turn produces dilatation of the colon. J. Bryant,* in his analysis of 160 cases, finds the length of the colon to vary in adults from 3 feet 4 inches to 10 feet 10 inches.

Principal Complaint.—Constipation figures prominently in all cases, and the history, as a rule, dates from infancy, from an attack of typhoid fever, or following a laparotomy. The patient's abdomen has been unduly prominent for years, with a constant tendency to increasing

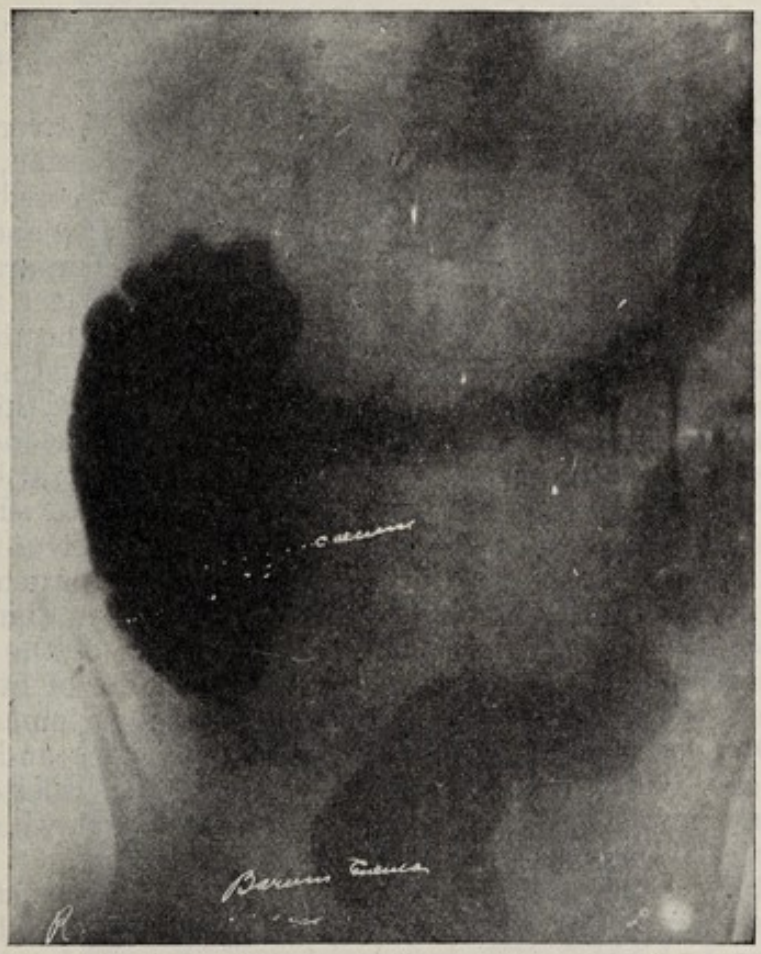


FIG. 226.—*X*-RAY FINDINGS—DILATATION OF THE COLON.

Private case S. I. S. Operation for appendicitis six years ago; no improvement. Note transverse diameter of cecum, dilatation of ascending colon and the comparatively small size of the transverse colon. The cecum showed a large amount of the barium mixture present after 72 hours.

distention. The degree of abdominal swelling is always lessened by an attack of diarrhea, but within the next two or three days the distention returns and continues until again relieved by diarrhea.

Gastro-intestinal derangements are present, and these may vary from anorexia to that of enormous appetite. There is usually moderate loss in weight; although some patients remain well nourished. Periodic attacks of headache are the rule. Mental depression, wanting energy, and in some cases a blood pressure below normal is found. In those cases where ulceration of the colon is present, elevation of the blood pressure may obtain. The majority of patients suffer seriously from mental hebetude, drowsiness, and inability to concentrate their thoughts.

*Amer. Jour. Med. Sci., 1924, CLXVII,499.

Physical Signs.—Inspection.—There may be either localized or general distention of the abdomen, but, as a rule, the distention corresponds to the outline of the ascending colon.

Palpation discloses the presence of a soft, dough-like mass in the region of the cecum, whereas other portions of the abdomen are of nearly normal resistance. A reverse peristaltic wave is occasionally seen over the upper portion of the abdomen.

Percussion.—In cases of true typhlitis there is a variable area of impairment in the region of the cecum. Occasionally the impacted feces are discharged by the bowel, over which a tympanitic note is obtained, but deep percussion will elicit dullness, and this may extend well into the loin. Over the expanded, but not impacted, portions of the colon there is an unusual degree of tympany, which may approach closely that obtained over the stomach.

Auscultation.—A splashing sound is often elicited over the dilated portion of the colon. By means of auscultatory percussion, and placing the stethoscope over a distant portion of the colon it is possible to outline accurately the diameter of the ascending, transverse, and the upper portion of the descending colon. For this process a comparatively small stethoscope bell (diaphragm removed) is employed. Place the bell over a distant portion of the colon and then tap gently over the abdomen from the median line to the right toward the cecum—a distinct difference in sound is produced when the cecum is reached. Mark this point, and start the same tapping process in the region of the right kidney, traveling anteriorly just above the crest of the ilium until the right border of the colon is detected by a distinct change (hollow note). The distance between the two points where colon note was obtained gives the diameter of the cecum as 2½ and 3½ inches when normal (patient standing). In disease, the cecum will be found 3½ to 5½ inches in diameter at this point. Place the stethoscope bell over the center of the cecum, and employ the foregoing technic to determine diameter of other portions of the colon. (See Auscultatory Percussion over the Stomach, p. 500.)

X-ray Diagnosis.—By this method the actual size and position of the colon can be determined. Displacement and isolated areas of dilatation are thus readily distinguished from megacolon, where the entire colon is appreciably enlarged.

Laboratory Diagnosis.—During the attack of constipation the scybala passed are frequently covered with mucus or stained with blood.

The urine is highly colored and rich in indican. Louria found an increase in the blood urea nitrogen in his reported cases.

Summary of Diagnosis.—This is founded largely upon the history of the case and the presence of an undue degree of tympany along the course of the colon, with a palpable, dough-like mass in the region of the cecum.

Differential Diagnosis.—Chronic dilatation of the colon is to be distinguished from ascites and intestinal obstruction. (See Table of Differential Diagnosis, p. 590.)

DILATATION OF COLON WITH HYPERTROPHY (HIRSCHSPRUNG'S DISEASE)

Clinical Consideration.—An idiopathic dilatation of the colon, which may also result from mechanical obstruction of the lower bowel, but, according to Hirschsprung, is present in a large proportion of cases at birth, or develops during early childhood. Dilatation, with hypertrophy, may involve any portion of the colon. It more commonly involves the cecum and ascending colon, but is also seen at the spleen and hepatic

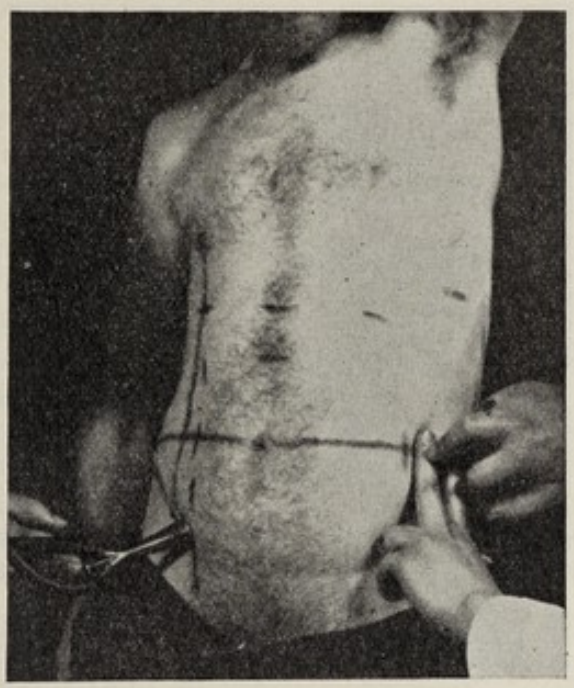


FIG. 227.—THE DESCENDING COLON HAS A FIXED POINT JUST WITHIN THE LEFT ANTERIOR SUPERIOR SPINE. Boston, N. Y. Med. Jour. and Record, October 15, 1924.

Percussion at this point produces a characteristic colonic tympany when listening with a stethoscope bell placed over any other portion of the colon.

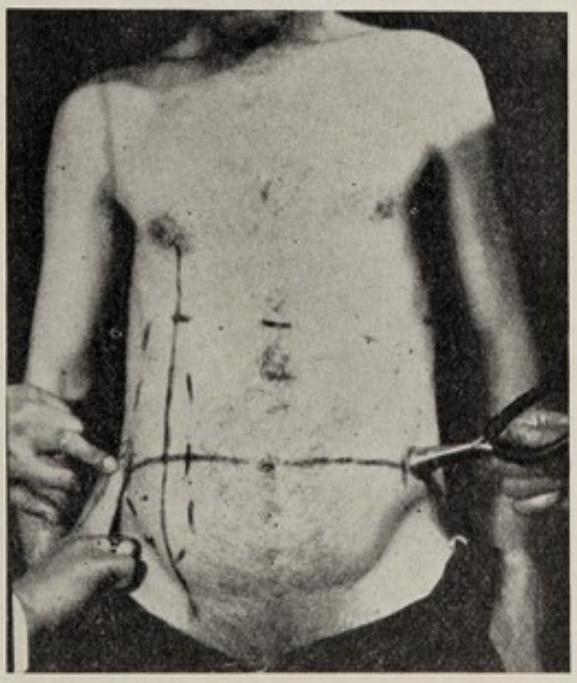


FIG. 228.—PERCUSSION FROM THE RIGHT FLANK, ADVANCING TO THE LEFT, TO OUTLINE THE RIGHT BORDER OF THE ASCENDING COLON. Boston, N. Y. Med. Jour. and Record, October 15, 1924.

Note transverse line at umbilicus—dotted line outlining colon.



FIG. 229.—THE COLON ORDINARILY RISES HIGH IN THE LEFT ANTERIOR AXILLARY LINE, AN ELECTIVE POINT TO PLACE THE BELL OF THE STETHOSCOPE. Boston, N. Y. Med. Jour. and Record, October 15, 1924.

Percussing, from the right flank advancing toward the umbilicus, to determine the right border of the ascending colon or the cæcum. The tuning fork may be used in outlining the colon and other hollow viscera.



FIG. 230.—STETHOSCOPE BELL PLACED OVER THE RIGHT BORDER OF THE ASCENDING COLON; STROKING THE SKIN WITH A FINE FILE, ADVANCING FROM LEFT TO RIGHT, TO DETERMINE THE LEFT BORDER OF THE ASCENDING COLON.

Whenever the stroking reaches the border of the colon a decided tympanitic note is audible. Boston, N. Y. Med. Jour. and Record. October 15, 1924.

flexures. Most writers contend that Hirschsprung's disease in children terminates fatally before puberty. However, it has been our privilege to study several cases, in adults, where there was a history of colonic crises from infancy.

The size of the colon becomes enormous—Its transverse diameter becoming 5 inches or more (see Fig. 226). This form of dilatation is by no means uncommon in adults (Fig. 225). Dilatation with hypertrophy of the colon is a common feature in focal infection about the oral cavity, teeth, tonsils and sinuses.

On account of the rather startling results reported from the use of glandular therapy in these cases, one of us has studied a series of 12 cases, where there was extraordinary dilatation of the colon, and in each and every one of these there was found abnormal bony development of the sella turcica, with encroachment of the posterior clinoid processes upon the pituitary. In Figs. 225 and 226 this condition was present.

General Complaint.—Obstinate constipation is the rule, although there may be intermittent attacks of diarrhea; abdominal distention is always present, and becomes extreme during the colonic crises.

Colonic crises occur at rather regular intervals and are accompanied by:

1. Mild symptoms of shock.
2. Weak and rapid pulse (110 to 140 per minute)
3. Intense pain over the colon.
4. Vomiting.
5. Prostration
6. Extreme tenderness over the colon.
7. Dyspnoea.
8. A variable degree of temperature, 99 and 102 degrees.
9. Mental hebetude and drowsiness antedate each attack.

The attacks last from one to three days, during which time the patient refuses all foods. He returns to his usual condition gradually, and continues in fair health until the approach of another crises.

Auscultatory Percussion.—Previously outlined in this chapter, serves as the easiest physical method for determining the size of the colon.

X-ray Study.—This serves as a positive method for the recognition of dilatation of the colon. It is practical to inject into the colon some opaque mixture, and produce conditions as they are upon the screen.

INTESTINAL OBSTRUCTION

Pathologic Definition.—Any pathologic or anatomic condition that causes either partial or complete occlusion of the lumen of the bowel, and consequently produces mechanic interference with the passage of the intestinal contents. *Sarcoma* of the intestine is rare, but may cause either chronic or acute obstruction. In 600 cases of gastro-intestinal (sarcomatous) malignancy collected by Goldstein, 139 were intestinal sarcoma. (See Appendicitis.)*

Varieties.—For convenience of study two classes of cases are recognized: (*a*) Acute obstruction and (*b*) chronic obstruction.

(*a*) The **acute form** is caused by pathologic conditions that suddenly narrow or obliterate the lumen of some portion of the intestine, usually above the ileocecal valve, and often, without warning, give rise to a group of characteristic symptoms.

(*b*) In **chronic obstruction** the large intestine is oftenest involved, and the symptoms usually develop slowly as the disease progresses. The

*Internat. Clin., June, 1921; Amer. J. Surg.; Aug. and Oct., 1921; Am. J. Med. Sc., June, 1921.

intestinal wall above the seat of obstruction early undergoes compensatory hypertrophy, dilatation taking place very slowly unless chronic obstruction suddenly merges into the acute form—an event that is always announced by a fairly characteristic complex of symptoms.

In carcinoma of the colon below the sigmoid flexure the patient makes little or no complaint until the acute obstruction develops.

Exciting and Predisposing Factors.—(1) **Strangulation** figures as the commonest cause of *acute intestinal obstruction*. It is frequently the result of bands of adhesion that have formed from either recent or old peritonitis. The site at which adhesions are most likely to develop is the iliac fossa, although the formation of extensive adhesions may follow operations upon the abdomen.

Strangulation of an omental hernia is a not infrequent cause of acute obstruction, as are also diaphragmatic, inguinal, and femoral hernias.

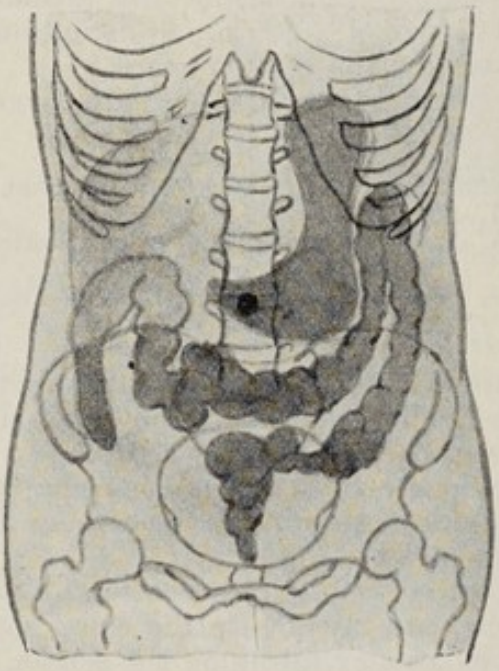


FIG. 231.—DISPLACEMENT OF ASCENDING AND TRANSVERSE COLON; GASTROPTOSIS ALSO PRESENT.

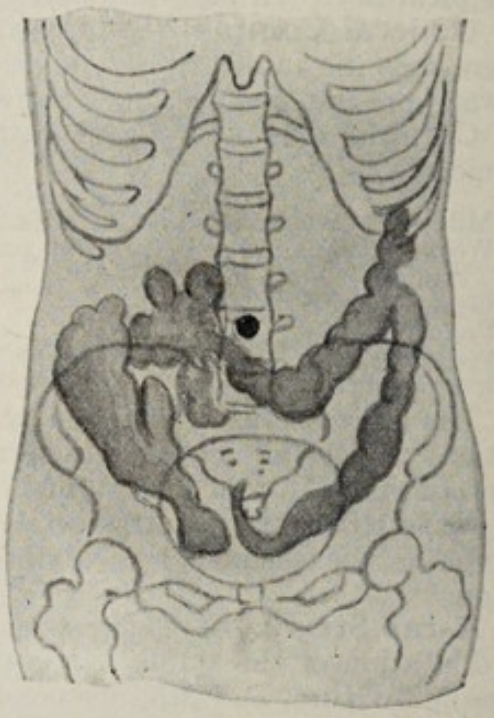


FIG. 232.—GENERAL DISPLACEMENT OF THE COLON INTO THE PELVIS.

(2) **Intussusception** is a condition in which there is an invagination of one portion of the bowel into an adjacent portion. It is believed to be caused by abnormal peristalsis. The site of invagination is oftenest the ileocecal valve, yet it may be encountered at different portions of the colon.

Age predisposes to the development of this form of acute obstruction, children and young adults being most often affected; volvulus, however, has been known to occur in the male after the age of forty. Ileus (paralysis of the intestine) permits of impaction of the colon.

Chronic obstruction results from fecal impaction of the colon, and is favored by obstinate constipation and by dilatation of the colon. Obstruction may be caused by the presence of foreign substances in the bowel, *e. g.*, hardened feces, gall-stones, intestinal parasites (ascaris and tape-worms), pins, fruit-stones, coins, and the like.

Congenital stricture of the intestine is an occasional cause of chronic obstruction.

New-growths formed within the intestinal wall or developing from adjacent structures and pressing upon the intestine may in turn narrow its lumen and produce chronic obstruction. Carcinoma of the bowel or of the peritoneum serves as one of the commonest causes of chronic obstruction. Sarcoma may attack the small bowel and be followed by obstruction, as may also sarcoma of the retroperitoneal glands (Löbstein's carcinoma). Polypoid tumors, glandular tumors, and all types of neoplasm in the abdomen are likely, sooner or later, to cause chronic obstruction.

Bands of adhesions may produce obstruction of the colon or of the small bowel, and chronic obstruction occasionally results from scar formation incident to extensive ulceration of the colon.

Diminished Peristalsis.—This condition is occasionally due to paralysis of the muscular coats of the intestine (ileus). The degree of peristalsis may be greatly inhibited as the result of peritoneal adhesions and impaction of the colon. Focal infection followed by dysfunction of the adrenals, pituitary, etc., are believed to be contributing factors.

Principal Complaint.—In acute obstruction the onset of the symptoms is sudden, the patient's appearance indicating acute suffering. *Pain* is usually present, but is sometimes general instead of being located at the site of obstruction. Intermittent attacks of colicky pain occur early, and later the pain may become agonizing and almost constant. If the obstruction is situated high, hiccough and eructations may precede the vomiting for some hours. *Vomiting* sets in early, and consists, first, of the contents of the stomach, and later of a fluid emitting the characteristic fecal odor.

Thermic Features.—The temperature soon becomes subnormal, and remains so until the obstruction is relieved.

Chronic Obstruction.—The patient describes a series of symptoms among which obstinate constipation and moderate abdominal distention are foremost. These symptoms have come on slowly or have been intermittent. *Constipation* is caused by the slowly advancing obstruction until the irritation causes an accumulation of fluid above the obstruction, when a watery diarrhea, followed by constipation, sets in. Blood is not uncommonly present in the stools, especially when the obstruction is due to an ulcerating carcinoma of the lower bowel. Dull, aching pelvic or sacral *pain* and bearing down sensations are described. *Vomiting* is uncommon.

Physical Signs.—Inspection.—The expression is anxious, the cheeks are sunken, and the skin is cold and beaded with perspiration. According to the location of the obstruction there is a variable amount of abdominal distention (the lower the obstruction, the more decided the abdominal enlargement).

Palpation—The abdomen is at first only moderately distended and soft, but later the abdominal wall is tense, tender, and peristaltic waves may be felt and seen.

Percussion.—An increased amount of tympany is always present, and becomes extreme in those cases in which the site of obstruction is low. The *pulse* is rapid and weak.

Auscultation.—Borborygmi and a succussion splash are to be heard over the abdomen.

Laboratory Diagnosis.—The amount of feces expelled at each defecation is comparatively small, and if the obstruction is low, the stools are ribbon-like in character. Scybalous masses and blood are among the usual findings in carcinomatous obstruction.

Blood Chemistry.—Lowiia in seven cases of intestinal obstruction found the blood urea nitrogen to be increased and fluctuated between 54 and 170 mgm. per 100 c.c.

Summary of Diagnosis.—Acute intestinal obstruction is diagnosed from the presence of pain, absolute constipation, marked, and later stercoraceous vomiting, subnormal temperature, and a tendency toward circulatory collapse. Tympany and abdominal tenderness, when present, are also of value in formulating a diagnosis.

Chronic obstruction is more difficult of diagnosis, since here the history of prolonged constipation, abdominal distress, and paroxysmal attacks of colic, followed by diarrhea and the passing of ribbon-like stools, is to be taken into consideration before it can be definitely determined that chronic obstruction exists.

Differential Diagnosis.—See below.

TABLE SHOWING THE DIFFERENCES BETWEEN DILATATION OF THE COLON, ASCITES, AND INTESTINAL OBSTRUCTION

Dilatation of the Colon	Ascites	Intestinal Obstruction
1. History of obstinate constipation alternating with attacks of diarrhea, and of the passing of scybala since childhood.	1. Chronic heart, liver, or kidney disease or some form of chronic anemia.	1. History of preëxisting hernia, peritonitis, or abdominal growths, and passage of ribbon-like stools.
2. Abdomen prominent since childhood, or dates to acute disease of bowel.	2. Enlargement has developed within a comparatively short period.	2. Enlargement recent (a few hours).
3. Left inferior abdominal quadrant is bulging, and where the ascending colon is enlarged, distention is fairly uniform.	3. Enlargement fairly uniform, except flanks bulging.	3. Irregular enlargement.
4. Reverse peristaltic wave may be seen.	4. Absent.	4. Reverse peristaltic wave common.
5. Soft, dough-like mass palpable in region of the sigmoid flexure.	5. Absent.	5. Absent.
6. Unusual degree of tympany along the course of the colon.	6. Marked tympany at the umbilicus when patient is in the recumbent posture. Location of tympany changes with position of the patient.	6. Tympany is localized and not affected by posture.
7. Vomiting uncommon.	7. May have been vomiting of mucoid material.	7. Vomiting when the obstruction has become complete.
8. Dullness may be localized.	8. Dullness in the flanks when patient is recumbent (see Fig. 241) and over inferior abdominal hemisphere when in the erect posture.	8. Absent.
9. Aspiration of the abdomen negative.	9. Recovery of peritoneal fluid and disappearance of distention.	9. Negative.

TABLE SHOWING THE DIFFERENCES BETWEEN ACUTE GENERAL PERITONITIS AND ACUTE INTESTINAL OBSTRUCTION.—(*Modified from Anders.*)

Acute Peritonitis	Acute Intestinal Obstruction
Etiology	
1. There is a history of causal conditions or diseases (ulcer, appendicitis, hepatic colic, pyosalpinx).	1. There is a history of previous chronic obstruction or of hernia.
2. Adults oftenest affected.	2. Intussusception is common in the young.
Symptoms	
3. Considerable rise of temperature, may be absent later.	3. No early rise, except in volvulus.
4. Pain diffuse and continuous.	4. Pain paroxysmal and localized.
5. Vomiting and hiccough characteristic. No stercoraceous vomiting.	5. Vomiting becomes characteristically stercoraceous after stomach is emptied.
6. Collapse occurs later.	6. Collapse within a few hours.
Physical Signs	
7. Marked general distention of the abdomen.	7. Less marked local distention, unless the obstruction is situated in the lower bowel.
8. No visible peristaltic waves.	8. Visible peristaltic wave when the seat of obstruction is low.
9. Tenderness marked and general.	9. Tenderness not extreme and always localized early.
10. Signs of effusion may appear	10. Rare.
11. Auscultation negative.	11. Loud gurgling and splashing sound audible on auscultation over the abdomen.

Clinical Course.—Acute obstruction is of short duration, and, as a rule, demands prompt surgical treatment. Chronic obstruction extends over a period of weeks, months, or even years, and will in all probability terminate in complete obstruction.

MUCOUS COLITIS

Pathologic Definition.—A condition characterized by changes in the mucous membrane of the colon, with the production of an excess of mucus. Large quantities of mucus may accumulate at certain points in the intestine and here excite violent irritation, hence the name, mucous colic. The mucus changes its location in the intestine from time to time, and is eventually discharged by the rectum.

Exciting and Predisposing Factors.—Direct irritation of the rectum, prolonged constipation, and new-growths of the pelvis, by exerting undue pressure upon the rectum and colon, may be exciting factors. Certain forms of exercise, *e. g.*, bicycle and horseback-riding, are said to be predisposing elements. The patients often display the hysterical temperament.

Age.—Mucous colitis is extremely uncommon in children, usually attacking young adults.

Sex figures prominently, since 80 per cent. of all cases are seen in women.

Principal Complaint.—The patient gives a clear history of obstinate constipation, which may have continued over a prolonged period. Both long and short shreds of mucus are passed with the feces. In many instances the passing of mucus, with pains and tenesmus, occurs at various times during the year. In a case seen by us the pains lasted about two days, and recurred regularly at the end of every three months. The patient may have passed an almost complete cast of the lower bowel.

Prior to the passing of mucous casts the constipation was more obstinate than usual, the intense pain subsiding after the passing of a quantity of mucus.

Attacks of constipation lasting from one to three days alternating with diarrhea are common. The patients declare that following attacks of diarrhea the constipation is more pronounced and colic more frequent. Equally as important as are the somewhat characteristic symptoms of mucous colic is the statement by the patient that she has not lost in weight, and that while the condition has existed for months, or probably years, there has been no decided evidence of weakness.

Laboratory Diagnosis.—Microscopically, the shreds of mucus are found to be composed of granular débris and cylindric and pavement epithelial cells.

Clinical Course.—The majority of cases run a course covering a period of from one to twenty years or even longer, although acute mucous colitis has been observed, this variety terminating favorably in from ten to thirty days.

DIMINISHED PERISTALSIS

Definition.—A condition in which there is an abnormal lessening in the motor function of the intestine, with a loss of desire to go to stool and a tendency toward impaction of feces in the lower portion of the colon. In adults it follows focal infection.

Principal Complaint.—Obstinate constipation may at times alternate with mucous or watery diarrhea.

ENTEROSPASM

Definition.—A condition excited by an undue sensitiveness of the muscular coat of any portion of the intestine, which results in spasmodic contraction, and is characterized clinically by intestinal colic, constipation, and possibly the symptoms of intestinal obstruction.

General Remarks.—Clinically, there is a close resemblance between enterospasm and enteralgia (see p. 563), although abdominal pain may not be present in every case of enterospasm. Constipation is, as a rule, a temporary condition, and may even be absent.

Laboratory Diagnosis.—The stools consist of hard, rounded masses, or they may be thin and ribbon-like in form.

PLUMBISM

(Lead Colic; Chronic Lead Poisoning; Saturnism)

Consideration.—A chronic intoxication due to the slow absorption of lead, and characterized pathologically by destructive changes in the blood (leukocytosis, loss in the percentage of hemoglobin, and basophilic degeneration of the red cells). Multiple neuritis is also seen in advanced cases, and general atheromatous changes in the arteries increase with the duration of the conditions. Owing to a deposit of lead, a blue line is seen on the gum near its junction with the teeth.

Exciting and Predisposing Factors.—The exciting factor is the slow absorption of lead, the result of occupation or of accident.

Among the predisposing factors are:

(*a*) **Personal susceptibility** is quite prominent in a small percentage of all cases.

(*b*) **Sex.**—When subjected to the same environment and exposure, adult females are more susceptible than males.

(*c*) **Age.**—Intoxication takes place more often in adult males than in children or in women, but this is probably due to the greater exposure of men.

(*d*) **Occupation** figures prominently as an etiologic factor. Employees in lead or in paint works who handle either white lead or red lead are extremely likely to develop lead intoxication. Painters become affected in the same manner, and plumbers, owing to the fact that they use a large amount of lead in soldering, are also exposed. Diamond-cutters use an emery pencil that contains a large amount of lead: the tip of this pencil is repeatedly carried to the tongue of the operator while at work. Lead-miners, pottery glazers, type-setters, shot-makers, lace-makers, and dressmakers are likewise exposed. The use of cosmetics containing lead is doubtless the most common cause of mild symptoms of lead poison, in addition atrophy of the scalp, baldness and local paralysis are not infrequent. The kidneys show deposits of rosette shaped masses of lime salt in the degenerated tubules.

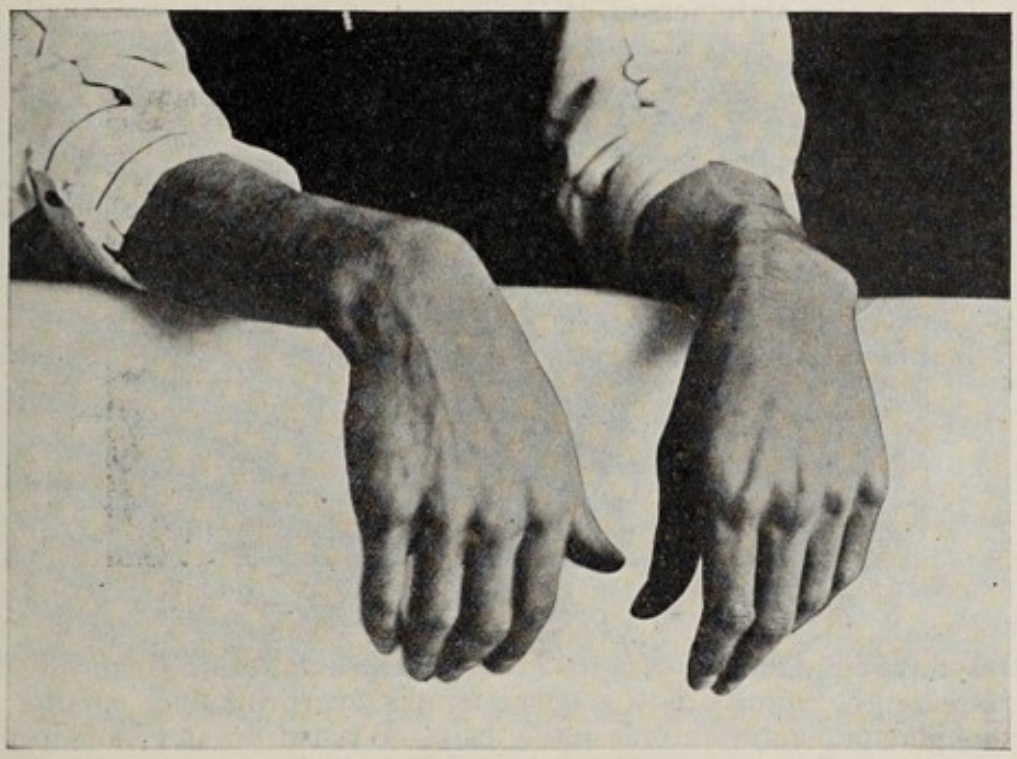


FIG. 233.—DOUBLE WRIST-DROP, AS SEEN IN CHRONIC LEAD WORKERS' DISEASE.

(*e*) The **contamination of foods** and of drinking-water is occasionally the source of lead intoxication. Butter, candy, milk, cakes, and certain breads may be artificially colored by the addition of lead chromate, which in itself serves as the means of introducing lead into the system. "Tobacco wrapped in lead foil has less commonly resulted in symptoms of saturnism" (Anders).

The greater portion of lead enters the human system through the digestive tract, although it is said to enter also through the respiratory tract; moreover, a moderate amount is doubtless absorbed through the skin.

Principal Complaint.—The fact that the patient's occupation necessitates his handling lead is a guide to the diagnosis. There is a gradual loss of strength covering weeks or months, the appetite is irregular, and attacks of obstinate constipation occur. He complains further of extreme muscular weakness, and states that he is unable to grip certain tools or instruments as firmly in his hands as he did formerly.

Developing coincidentally with weakness of the hands there are vague pains in the muscles of the forearms and of the legs. He states that walking is difficult, and that he is continually stubbing his toes. At various times since his present illness he has had paroxysmal attacks of vomiting, and before and after such attacks frontal and occipital headache is severe. He is troubled with sleeplessness, and arises in the morning feeling unrefreshed.

Colic.—There may or may not be a history of previous attacks of intestinal colic. Lead colic is fairly characteristic; the pain is seated in the region of the umbilicus and is severe and griping; in extreme cases it radiates over the entire abdomen. The pain is paroxysmal at first, but later it is continuous for a period of hours or even days. When it is severe and radiates to the epigastrium, paroxysmal vomiting develops. Pain is seldom absent, and there is almost always a sense of weight or discomfort in the abdomen after the initial cramp until treatment has been instituted.



FIG. 234.—METHOD OF DETECTING TREMOR OF THE HAND.

Nervous Phenomena.—Intestinal colic, muscular cramps, and tenderness among the course of the nerve-trunks are prominent among the nervous phenomena of chronic plumbism. Wrist-drop and foot-drop do not develop until the case is well advanced, and when present, there may be some degree of anesthesia over the parts affected. Anesthesia may depend upon lead intoxication or upon an associated hysterical element, since hysteria is by no means uncommon. Paralysis is bilateral, a fact that serves to distinguish it from those forms that are excited by traumatism, uremia, etc. (See Differential Diagnosis.) Early during the course of lead intoxication both fine and coarse tremors are present, and are best detected by directing the patient to extend his hands and to then separate his fingers (Fig. 234). Tremor is markedly aggravated by emotional excitement and by exercise.

Multiplex Neuritis.—Korsakoff's psychosis is seen in multiple neuritis, and is a rather frequent occurrence in the neuritis of lead workers, alcoholics and that developing during pregnancy. The salient features of Korsakoff's syndrome are: Impairment of immediate memory, mental hebetude, mild mental confusion and fabrication.

Sensation.—There may be localized areas of anesthesia, paresthesia, or hyperesthesia. (See Hysteria.)

The chief cerebral symptoms are usually referred to as "*lead encephalopathy,*" which consists of a series of symptoms among which delirium,

aphasia, convulsions, coma, hysteria, and insanity are included. Delirium and even coma are by no means uncommon, and may develop abruptly, although they are, as a rule, preceded by marked tremors and hallucinations. Both epileptiform and hysteric convulsions are among the nervous manifestations of this condition. We have not infrequently seen cases in which mania and melancholia developed during the course of chronic plumbism.

Headaches, joint pains, and stiffness of the joints are likely to be present during the entire course of the disease.

Cramp.—Cramps in the muscles of the arms, forearms, and legs are by no means unusual, and there may be cramp-like pain in the larger joints.

Physical Signs.—Inspection.—The skin is cachectic, and there is usually edema beneath the eyes and at the ankles The abdomen is

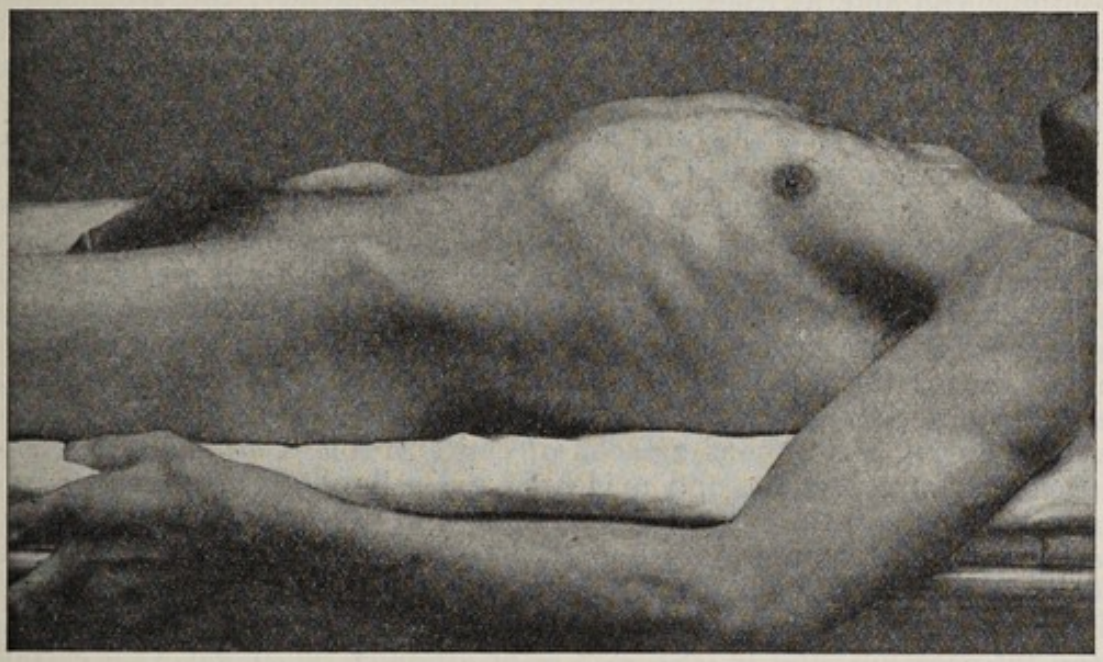


Fig. 235.—Scaphoid Abdomen Seen in a Case of Chronic Plumbism (Philadelphia General Hospital).

scaphoid in shape (Fig 235) and the patient refrains from exerting himself in any way that will cause a movement of the abdominal muscles. The lips are dry and sometimes fissured, and the tongue is heavily coated.

The Lead Line.—A distinctly bluish line is seen upon the gums, located near the junction of the mucous membrane with the teeth. This blue line, which is characteristic of lead intoxication, is best demonstrated by carrying a thin white card on the point of a toothpick underneath the margin of the gum; in this way the lead line is distinctly discernible from any discoloration of the teeth, and is rendered more conspicuous. Wrist-drop and foot-drop, deformities, and wasting of the muscles are also detected by inspection. (See Nervous Symptoms.)

Palpation.—There is decided tenderness along the course of the nerves of the forearms and of the legs. The flexor muscles of the hands are decidedly weakened, and the patient's grip is comparatively feeble. The abdominal muscles are in a state of spasm during an attack of colic, but are quite flaccid between such attacks. When the toxemia is extreme there may be tenderness about the larger joints. The skin of the ankles and of the hands may pit upon pressure, and in long-standing

neuritis the muscles are flabby and there are other evidences of muscular wasting. There may be a hypersensitiveness or diminished sensation over the extremities. The reflexes may be inhibited, and the knee-jerks may even be absent.

Heart.—The pulse is normal or slower than normal, even in cases showing marked weakness. During an attack of colic the heart action is slow and forcible, and the pulse is strong, full, and of increased tension. Arteriosclerosis develops rapidly after lead intoxication.

Eyes.—Failing vision is an occasional symptom in those suffering from lead intoxication. Neuroretinitis, retinal hemorrhage, and hemianopsia have also been described.

Laboratory Diagnosis.—The **urine** is at first increased in quantity, but as the intoxication is prolonged, the quantity of urine gradually diminishes, is of high specific gravity and of high color, and chemically it contains lead and, at times, albumin. Microscopically, the urine shows casts, many epithelial cells, leukocytes, and an occasional red blood-cell. Elimination of lead is also said to take place by the bile and saliva, but such observations have not been confirmed.

The vomitus is usually profuse in quantity, white in color, and is found to contain much lead.

The Blood.—Secondary anemia develops early during the course of lead intoxication. The red cells are gradually decreased; but a more marked decrease in the hemoglobin is observed. There is an increase in the number of white blood-cells in a cubic millimeter. We have observed* that during the initial attack of lead colic the number of leukocytes ranges between 10,000 and 25,500 in a cubic millimeter. An equally important finding is that leukocytosis is less marked and may be absent during subsequent attacks of colic. From 1 to 4 per cent. of myelocytes are present, and nucleated red cells, both normoblasts and megaloblasts, are to be found. There is a proportionate increase in the mononuclear leukocytes. The red cells stain feebly, display an unequal distribution of their hemoglobin, and poikilocytosis is well marked. Punctate basic degeneration of the red cells is constantly present during lead intoxication, and is best seen after staining the blood with carbol-thionin. The isolated areas of degeneration are disseminated throughout certain of the red cells, and stain heavily by the thionin. The basophilic cells are rather characteristic.†

Summary of Diagnosis.—In the majority of cases the diagnosis is strengthened by the patient's history of having worked in lead. The character of the vomitus, the fact that it contains lead, and the detection of lead in the urine are positive evidences of chronic plumbism. Foot-drop and wrist-drop associated with tenderness along the course of the nerve-trunks are also valuable data, but these may not develop until late. The blue line near the junction of the mucous membrane with the teeth is a positive sign. When sleeplessness, hysteria, and mania occur they should be distinguished from similar symptoms excited by lead intoxication. Leukocytosis and punctate basophilia are unusually common in chronic lead intoxication.

Differential Diagnosis.—Chronic lead poisoning is to be distinguished from **postdiphtheritic paralysis,** and the **shifting paralysis of uremia.** The first of these conditions is readily distinguished by a history of a recent attack of sore throat. A history of Bright's disease and the characteristic findings in the urine enable one to distinguish between

* Philadelphia Med. Jour., September 27, 1902.

† The Basophilic Aggregation Test in Lead Poisoning, McCard, Minster and Rehnr, Jour. Am. Med. Assoc., 82; 1759, May, 31, 1924.

uremia and lead intoxication, lead being present in the urine of lead workers only. Traumatic neuritis differs from the neuritis of lead intoxication in the fact that the former is always unilateral.

Duration and Sequelæ.—When patients are placed under treatment as soon as a colic develops, restoration to health follows in from six to twelve weeks, but a second attack is likely to develop when such patients return to their usual work. Lead produces a violent disease of the gums, and teeth, which progresses even after other symptoms of plumbism have subsided, therefore, these patients are especially liable to display clinical manifestations of focal infection years after their initial attack of plumbism.

After repeated attacks of lead colic the prognosis becomes more and more serious with each seizure, and the nervous symptoms are also more prominent, mania and permanent insanity sometimes ensuing. Death results from extensive paralysis, intercurrent complications, or the exhaustion of mania.

INTESTINAL SARCOMA

May occur at any age, and is quite often met with in young adults (Goldstein).

HABITUAL CONSTIPATION (COSTIVENESS)

Remarks.—A condition in which the feces are not evacuated with the normal frequency or in which they are inordinately hard and expelled with difficulty. Constipation is due to diminished activity of the muscular coat of the intestine or to lessened secretion from the mucous membrane, and often to both conditions.

Exciting and Predisposing Factors.—Disease of the suprarenal glands, the thyroid, and others of the endocrine system results in an atonic condition of the stomach, small intestine and colon. Disease of these glands also interferes with the action of the autonomic nervous system, and in turn diminished peristalsis (see Adrenal, p. 1153). The quantity of intestinal fluid (succus entericus) secreted is influenced by such diseases as cirrhosis of the liver, valvular heart disease, etc., conditions that produce a chronic venous congestion of the intestines, and thereby interfere with the function of the intestinal glands. The action of the intestinal glands is also inhibited in wasting diseases, such as tuberculosis, carcinoma, and the anemias. In certain nervous conditions there appears to be an inhibiting action upon the secretory function of the intestine, consequently constipation is generally present in those suffering from melancholia, neurasthenia, mania, ataxia, and myelitis. Constipation the result of spasm of the bowel is exemplified by such diseases as tetanus and chronic plumbism.

Habit is of great importance as an exciting factor in this condition, since neglect to evacuate the bowel at stated intervals is sure to be followed by constipation.

In certain diseases of the nervous system characterized by diminished sensitiveness of the nerves of the intestine constipation prevails, and, indeed, a diminished sensation of the intestine is believed to figure prominently as an exciting cause of habitual constipation.

Local Causes.—Atony of the muscular coats of the intestine, peritonitis,—by reason of the fact that it inhibits peristaltic movements,—hemiplegia, and paralysis of the bowel. *Acute constipation* may result from a strangulated hernia, intussusception, impaction of the colon, and foreign bodies, and the condition may also follow operations upon the upper bowel and the rectum.

New-growths, either within the intestine or extending from adjacent structures, by lessening the lumen of the bowel from pressure, are also exciting causes of constipation.

Principal Complaint.—There is a feeling of fullness, weight, and pressure in the perineum and abdomen. Flatulence, colicky pains, and alternating diarrhea occur frequently. The hurried and often neglected performance of defecation gives rise to the so-called "cumulative constipation," in which the feces are but partially evacuated with each movement, and the rectum is not emptied. After such an action of the bowel a sense of fullness remains, and complete relief is not experienced.

Among the *reflex symptoms* are malaise, hebetude, irritability of temper, headache, flushing, palpitation, cold extremities, anorexia, paresthesia, vertigo, sleeplessness, and nightmare.

Pressure on the sacral and visceral nerves may cause neuralgia.

Physical Signs.—Inspection.—The tongue is coated and the lips and the mucous membrane of the mouth are often dry. The abdomen is, as a rule, distended unless there is gastroptosis, when there is a depression at the upper half of the abdomen, with a correspondingly conspicuous prominence of the lower abdominal hemisphere.

Palpation.—Upon palpation a peculiar dough-like feel is detected over the entire abdomen, particularly along the course of the colon. The flexures of the colon are readily outlined, and a tumor-mass at the sigmoid flexure is by no means uncommon.

Percussion.—There is an irregular distribution of abdominal tympany, and this changes at different times during the day.

Laboratory Diagnosis.—The urine is normal in quantity, of high color, and often displays a high specific gravity. It is rich in indican.

Complications.—Among the complications are ulcerative colitis, dilatation of the colon, hemorrhoids, typhilitis, intussusception, and the formation of intestinal sand.

AMYLOID DISEASE OF THE INTESTINE

The cardinal symptom is diarrhea, which is persistent but mild in character, associated with symptoms of amyloid degeneration in other organs. Enlargement of the liver and spleen and an associated amyloid change in the kidneys are also present.

Laboratory Diagnosis.—The number of stools passed vary between two and six a day, and diarrhea may alternate with constipation.

The *urine* is usually of low specific gravity, nearly colorless, and may contain a moderate amount of albumin. Microscopically, the urine is usually rich in broad, pale casts (amyloid) and leukocytes and epithelial cells are common. The solid constituents of the urine are diminished.

The blood changes are those of a profound secondary anemia.

APPENDICITIS

Pathologic Definition.—A catarrhal, ulcerative or gangrenous interstitial inflammation of the appendix, which may undergo resolution or progress to the formation of abscess. Perforation of the appendix is not uncommon, and following this accident there is localized and at times general peritonitis. In the catarrhal form of the disease the pathologic changes of the mucous surface are practically identical with similar grades of inflammation seen to involve other mucous surfaces. The inflammatory process tends to subside, but there is a pronounced tend-

ency toward relapses. In cases of long standing the appendix is frequently firmly adherent to adjacent structures.

General Remarks.—According to our present views appendicitis is a surgical rather than a medical affection. Since, however, general practitioners are constantly encountering cases of appendicitis, the prompt clinical recognition of the disease is not only a matter of interest, but also of great practical importance, in order that surgical treatment may be instituted at the proper moment, and furthermore because appendicitis ranks first in importance among the diseases of the intestinal tract.

The term "appendicitis" includes the affections known as *typhlitis* (inflammation of the cecum) and *perityphlitis* (a similar involvement of the connective tissue behind the cecum). When the symptoms of typhlitis or of perityphlitis are present, with but few exceptions the appendix was the part primarily affected.

Varieties.—Clinically, appendicitis may be divided into the following subclasses: (*a*) **Acute appendicitis,** in which the initial attack develops somewhat abruptly and without previous evidence of intestinal catarrh; (*b*) **chronic appendicitis,** characterized by a variable amount of discomfort localized in the right iliac fossa; (*c*) **recurrent appendicitis,** in which the patient experiences acute attacks at irregular intervals.

From a pathologic standpoint we may further divide appendicitis into the following classes: *Catarrhal* or *obliterative* appendicitis, *ulcerative* appendicitis, *interstitial* or *parietal* appendicitis, and *perforating* appendicitis.

Exciting and Predisposing Factors.—Acute infections and focal infections are the commonest exciting factors. (See Duodenal Ulcer.) The evidence at hand strongly suggests that no one organism is constant in exciting inflammation of the appendix. The bacillus coli communis, however, is present in from 70 to 80 per cent. of all cases. Various other pathogenic bacteria are also to be found. It has been our privilege to observe cases within the past few years where appendicitis developed secondary to disease of the cranial sinuses (focci of infection). Other patients have been observed where both appendicitis and acute articular disease appeared simultaneously following focal infection. One of us (Boston) has reported an instance where the appendix acted as a focus of infection in acute arthritis. Focal infection with an elective localization of bacteria in the appendix is now conceded to be an exciting factor. Rosenow* states that infections in organs or tissues remote, such as joints, bones, endocardium, gastric ulcer, pancreas, etc., are blood born. (See Focal Infection, p. 453.)

(1) **Congenital structural deformities** contribute freely toward the production of appendicitis, and among these should be mentioned location, size, and length of the appendix. The length and position of the mesoappendix are also regarded as of importance.

(2) **Stricture** near the cecum and **adhesive peritonitis** are also causative factors in appendicitis, and such intestinal pathology is often antidated by focal infection located in the mouth and elsewhere.

(3) **Fecal concretions, foreign bodies,** etc., are said to be contributing factors in about 7 per cent. of cases. Animal parasites are rare exciting factors in appendicitis.

(4) **Ulceration** of the intestinal mucosa and of the appendix, *e. g.*, tuberculosis, typhoid fever, dysentery, and actinomycosis.

(5) Appendicitis at times follows such acute infections as scarlet fever, diphtheria, and measles—conditions wherein a remaining focus of infection is unusually common.

* Surg. Gynecol. and Obstet., 1921.

(6) **Age.**—Appendicitis is especially common between the fifteenth and thirtieth years. It may, however, develop at any age, but very rarely occurs after the fourth decade or before the third year of life.

(7) **Sex.**—Males are attacked more often than females, the ratio being four to one.

(8) It has been conclusively shown that **gastro-intestinal catarrh following influenza** is a potent factor in the production of appendicitis. A clinical fact of great importance is that focal infection is a common sequel of all clinical varieties of influenza, and doubtless has its bearing on the production of appendicitis.

(9) **Heredity.**—Several members of the same family, as well as parent and offspring, have been reported as having appendicitis. Persons of a rheumatic and gouty diathesis are especially susceptible to this affection.

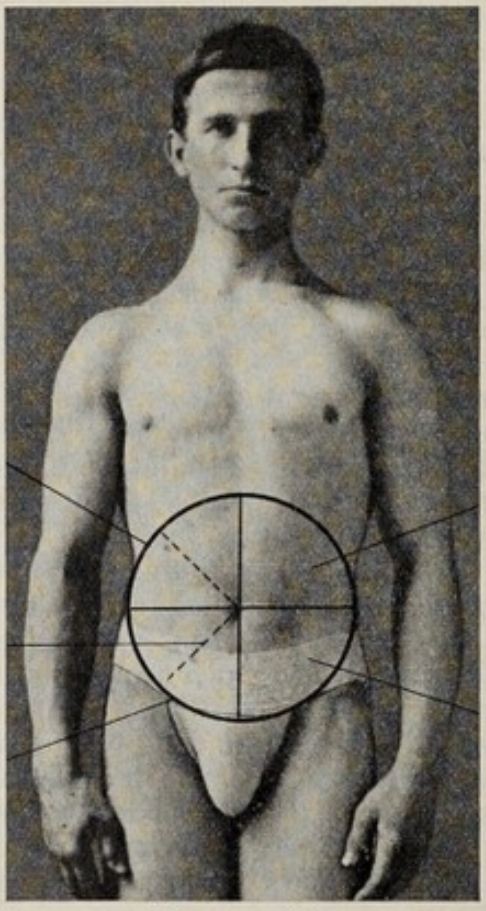


FIG. 236.—ARBITRARY REGIONAL DIVISION OF THE ABDOMEN.

Principal Complaint.—Acute Appendicitis.—In the majority of cases the *onset* is sudden, with *abdominal pain*, which is at first diffuse, but later becomes localized to the region of the appendix. Nausea, vomiting, and constipation are present. Occasionally, the disease is ushered in by a chill or a series of chilly sensations followed by fever; and there may be irritability of the bladder, and, later, retention of urine.

The pain is usually colicky in character, although it may be dull and aching. Not infrequently the pain is reflected over the entire abdomen, but the point of greatest intensity is, as a rule, in the right inferior abdominal quadrant and at McBurney's point. As the disease progresses the pain is usually localized to the site of the appendix, although it may radiate from that point in any direction. Patients not infrequently complain of pain in the right half of the abdomen, radiating to the right thigh and to the testicles. Dyspnea may be annoying.

In acute appendicitis the patient is loath to change his position, as the movement aggravates the pain. A symptom that is often overlooked is diarrhea, and it should be remembered that it may precede the initial pain in acute catarrhal appendicitis.

Thermic Features.—The patient is usually flushed, and the temperature rises somewhat abruptly to 102° to 104° F., mild cases fluctuating between 99° and 101° F. The degree of fever is no guide to the severity of the condition. In severe and fatal cases the temperature may be subnormal throughout the entire course of the disease, and if diffuse or gangrenous changes develop, the temperature may also be subnormal.

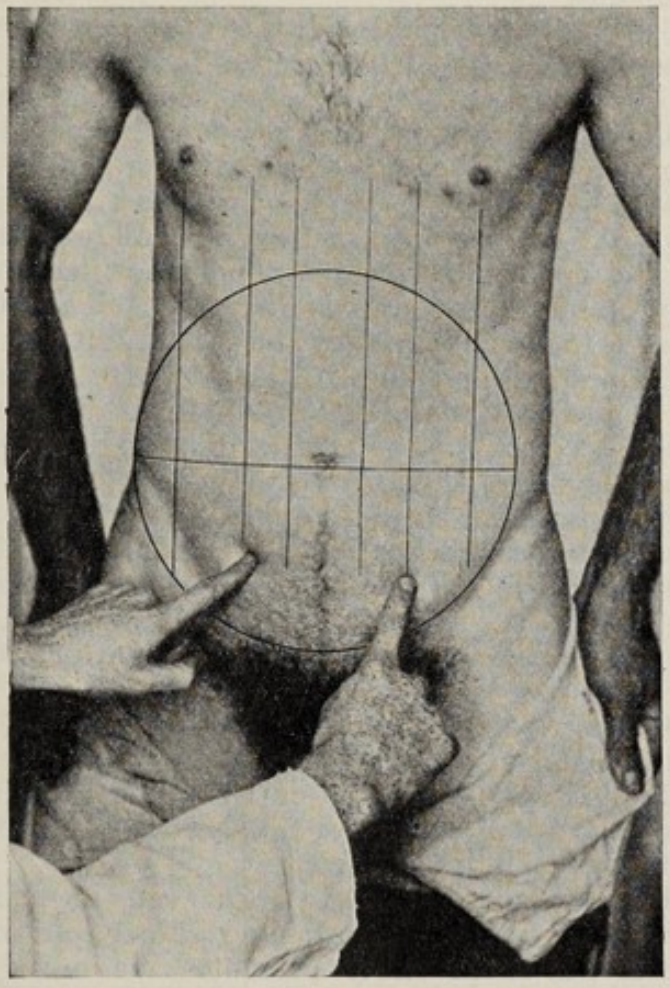


FIG. 237.—METHOD OF DETERMINING THE DEGREE OF ABDOMINAL TENSION, WHICH IS INCREASED OVER ENLARGED SOLID VISCI, PROLAPSED STOMACH, VARIOUS ABDOMINAL TUMORS, FLOATING KIDNEY, AND OVER THE MUSCLES OVERLYING ACUTE INFLAMMATORY PROCESSES.

Tension is universally increased in general peritonitis, ascites, and tympanitis.

Physical Signs.—Inspection.—The patient sits or inclines toward the right side, and the right thigh is usually flexed upon the abdomen. Retraction of the right testicle is common. According to the degree of pain, the face will first be pinched or anxious, pale or blanched. When peritonitis develops as a complication the abdomen is distended.

The *tongue* is coated and moist, and in moderately severe cases the lips are often fissured. In advanced cases the tongue may be brown and deeply fissured, and the buccal mucous membrane dry and harsh.

Palpation.—The pulse is rapid (90 to 100), out of proportion to the fever, and in severe cases it may reach 120 or more a minute. It is strong

and wiry at first, but later it frequently becomes weak, dicrotic, and compressible.

Firm pressure over the site of the appendix (Fig. 236) will elicit a variable degree of tenderness, and often excite pain. Fixed tenderness is practically constant on pressure over a limited area at the center of a line between the anterior superior iliac spine and the umbilicus, and is a very valuable sign in appendiceal inflammation. Fixed tenderness at the right of the umbilicus is extremely unusual, although it has been observed. Tenderness may be distributed at different points of the abdomen (Fig. 236), but within a few hours after the onset it becomes localized at McBurney's point.

Palpation also elicits unusual rigidity over the right rectus muscle, a sign that is present early, even before actual tenderness is evident. The degree of tension of the two rectus muscles should be compared in every questionable case of appendicitis, and although increased tension is not an infallible sign, it is to be regarded as one of great significance in formulating a careful diagnosis (Fig. 237). Circumscribed induration manifests itself about the second day, and is soon followed by swelling and obliteration of the normal curvatures about the iliac spine. In those cases where the top of the appendix is directed back and upward a small area of tenderness is found immediately above the right iliac crest and along the course of the mid-axillary line.

Percussion over any portion of the abdomen discloses the greatest amount of tenderness or pain to be present in the right inferior abdominal quadrant and at the site of the appendix.

Auscultation.—Place the stethoscope bell over the tender area, and in case of an acute process fine friction-like rales are audible (between the normal peristaltic gurgles). These fine friction-like gurgles vary between 40 and 100 per minute.

Due to increased tension of the rectus the respiratory sounds are often audible.

Laboratory Diagnosis.—The urine is scanty, of high specific gravity, rich in indican, and in about 40 per cent. of cases contains a trace of serum-albumin. Frequent urination is by no means uncommon, but the twenty-four-hour quantity seldom equals 50 fluidounces. There may be an increase in the colloidal coefficient.

Leukocytosis is the rule—10,000 to 25,000 cells in a cubic millimeter. If a differential leukocyte count shows over 75 per cent. of polymorphonuclear elements, pus is probably present. We have observed both private and hospital cases when the number of leukocytes per cubic millimeter approximated normal. Pus when encapsulated may exist without exciting leukocytosis, therefore the blood findings are not constant in subacute or in chronic forms of appendicitis. Schnabel,* in the study of 5 chronic cases found them to show 180, 190, 223, 285, and 318 mg. of cholesterol in 100 c.c. of blood.

Summary of Diagnosis.—This is based, first, upon the presence of abdominal pain, which eventually becomes more or less strictly localized to the region of the appendix, the history of previous attacks, the presence of persistent vomiting, and the position of the patient, *e. g.*, he inclines toward the affected side, and the right thigh is flexed upon the abdomen. Careful palpation is also invaluable in formulating a diagnosis, since rigidity of the right rectus muscle and localized tenderness at McBurney's point are among the important signs of this affection.

* Am. Jour. Med. Sci., Sept., 1920.

Moderate fever, when present, should be regarded as an important symptom, yet the absence of fever and the presence of the other essential features of the disease are at times observed.

The character of the attacks, *e. g.*, sudden onset, gradual increase in pain, which eventually becomes localized, vomiting, and constipation, is to be considered in formulating a diagnosis of acute appendicitis.

Differential Diagnosis.—See differential table, as follows.

TABLE SHOWING THE DIFFERENCES BETWEEN ACUTE APPENDICITIS, RENAL COLIC, EXTRA-UTERINE PREGNANCY WITH RUPTURE, AND HEPATIC COLIC

Appendicitis	Renal Colic	Extra-uterine Pregnancy with Rupture	Hepatic Colic
1. History of previous attacks common.	1. History of previous attacks common.	1. History of sterility.	1. History of previous attacks.
2. Pain over the right half of the abdomen, becoming localized later at McBurney's point.	2. Pain may be localized at either side of the abdomen, along the course of the ureter.	2. Pain low and at the center of the abdomen.	2. Pain in upper right abdominal quadrant.
3. As the disease advances the pain becomes circumscribed at McBurney's point.	3. Patient can feel the pain getting lower and lower until stone escapes into the bladder.	3. Pain disappears in a short time, and is followed by the symptoms of internal hemorrhage.	3. Pain radiates to right shoulder.
4. Vaginal hemorrhage absent.	4. Vaginal hemorrhage absent.	4. Vaginal hemorrhage present.	4. Vaginal hemorrhage absent.
5. Temperature, 99° to 102° F. or, rarely, higher.	5. Temperature may be subnormal, followed by rapid rise, and then drop by crises.	5. Temperature subnormal for several hours.	5. Temperature may rise abruptly to 102° to 105° F., and fall by crisis.
6. Frequent micturition; urine rich in indican.	6 Frequent micturition; urine bloody.	6. Negative, urine blood-stained by vaginal flow.	6. Urine contains bile twelve to twenty-four hours after the initial pain.
7. Localized tenderness at McBurney's point, and pressure here intensifies the pain.	7. Localized tenderness not constant. Pressure exercises but slight influence.	7. Pressure negative.	7. Tenderness in the epigastrium and over the gall-bladder.
8. Distension of the right inferior abdominal quadrant within the first twenty-four hours.	8. No distention of the abdomen.	8. May be abdominal distention due to hemorrhage.	8. No abdominal distention.
9. Negative.	9. Negative.	9. Negative.	9. Jaundice twenty-four hours after the attack.
10. Negative.	10. X-ray positive.	10. Negative.	10. X-ray positive.

Among the conditions that may be mistaken for acute appendicitis, **acute indigestion** occupies a prominent place. Fixed pain in the region

of the appendix and localized tenderness are two of the strong clinical points in favor of appendicitis, and in the absence of these symptoms, with intestinal derangement, acute indigestion with colic is highly probable.

Cholecystitis with Distention.—This gives rise to a superficial mobile, pear-shaped tumor, with or without jaundice—all of which features are not encountered in appendicitis. The tumor in appendicitis is generally below the umbilicus, but when the appendix extends upward, the tip may touch the gall-bladder, making an accurate diagnosis impossible.

Acute Peritonitis Due to Pelvic Disease.—When the diseased appendix occupies the pelvic fossa, the differentiation between right-sided salpingitis and appendicitis is difficult. *Right ovaritis*, owing to the presence of pain, tenderness in the right iliac fossa, and fever, often closely simulates appendicitis. In ovaritis, however, tenderness is less pronounced, and the organs of generation show certain disturbances (menorrhagia, etc.). A complete history, coupled with a careful pelvic examination, will usually enable one to distinguish between these two conditions. The following table shows some of the distinctive features between pyosalpinx and appendicitis.

Pyosalpinx	Appendicitis
1. History of gonorrhea, puerperal sepsis, or of long-standing leukorrhea.	1. Negative.
2. Pain most marked at or near the menstrual period.	2. Not appreciably influenced by menstruation.
2. Escape of purulent discharge from the cervix uteri. Periodic discharge of a large quantity of pus from the vagina.	3. Absent.
4. Digital examination shows swelling in in the region of the ovary and tube, and a soft, sausage-like tumor may be present.	4. Tenderness upon digital examination, but a tumor mass is not common.
5. Progressive secondary anemia the rule.	5. Less conspicuous.
6. Vomiting unusual.	6. Vomiting common.
7. Micturition undisturbed.	7. Frequent micturition early during an attack of appendicitis.
8. Temperature irregular (septic) in character.	8. Temperature 99° to 102° F., and of an irregular type.
9. Chills, followed by fever and sweats, quite common.	9. Unusual.
10. There may be constipation or diarrhea.	10. Obstinate constipation the rule.

Perinephritic Abscess.—A diagnosis is made either from the history of previous attacks of nephritic colic or by exploratory incision. Analysis of the urine may be of service if perinephritic abscess communicates with the pelvis of the kidney. Whenever practical the kidney should be studied by the röntgen or graphic rays.

Acute Tuberculous Peritonitis.—In both appendicitis and tuberculous peritonitis there are pain, tenderness, and fever; in the latter condition, however, the onset is more gradual, and the signs of tumor and increased resistance in the ileocecal region are absent. Movable dullness may be present in a tuberculous affection of the peritoneum.

Acute hemorrhagic pancreatitis simulates appendicitis with generalized peritonitis. The deep-seated epigastric pain and shock present in pancreatic hemorrhage are absent in appendicitis. Glycosuria, acetonuria and a blood sugar above normal are present in pancreatic disease.

Dietl's Crises.—In movable kindey all the symptoms may point toward appendicitis. A history of similar attacks, following which the

patient voids large quantities of urine, renders the diagnosis clear. In patients who have suffered from Dietl's crises the kidney is readily palpable. (See Differential Table, pp. 603, 604.)

Acute Intestinal Obstruction.—Here tumor, if present, is not likely to be situated in the right inferior quadrant. The portion of the bowel below the obstruction is at times thoroughly emptied, and the discharges are frequently serous and bloody. Stercoraceous vomiting develops somewhat early in intestinal obstruction, and is an extremely uncommon symptom in appendicitis.

Neurasthenia may also simulate acute appendicitis. (See Fig. 238.)

Lobar pneumonia involving the right base may present symptoms and signs of acute appendicitis. Pleurisy involving the right portion of the diaphragm, and renal calculus are to be distinguished from appendicitis. In one case of "devil's grip" seen by one of us the clinical picture simulated appendicitis. The crises of ataxia are easily separated from acute appendicitis.

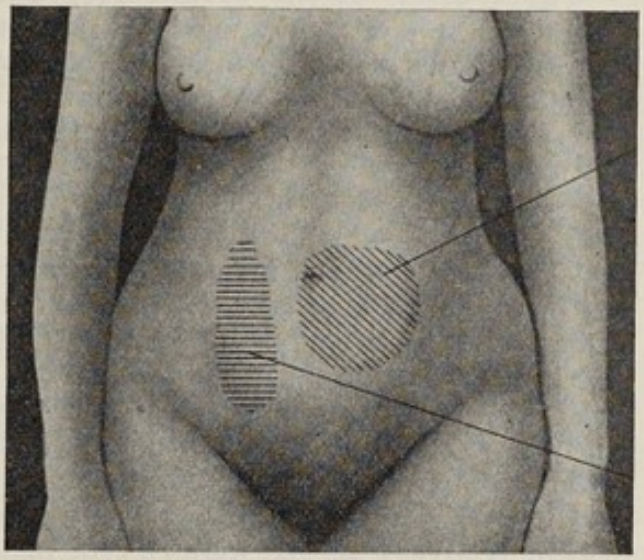


FIG. 238.—LOCALIZED AREA OF HYPERSENSITIVENESS SEEN IN NEURASTHENIC INDIVIDUALS AND LIABLE TO BE MISTAKEN FOR ABDOMINAL DISEASE.

CHRONIC APPENDICITIS

Clinical Definition.—A condition in which repeated attacks occur at intervals of weeks or months, each relapse being characterized clinically by the symptoms and signs of acute appendicitis.

General Remarks.—During the intervals between attacks the patient may be free from symptoms of acute appendicitis, although many patients constantly complain of a sense of discomfort and of moderate soreness about the region of the appendix.

Relapses appear to be brought about by muscular effort, indiscretions in diet, acute gastritis, and constipation.

Nervous Manifestations.—When the patient has been told that he is suffering from appendicitis, and when two or more attacks have occurred, he becomes extremely nervous. Neurasthenia and hysteria may develop, and the general health may become impaired. Friedman* attaches great importance to the fact that repeated examinations of the blood show the number of white cells to range about 10,000 per c.m. In chronic appendicitis the proportinate number of transitional cells is greatly increased, approximately 4 to 1 of the polynuclear variety.

Summary of Diagnosis.—The diagnosis of chronic, as of acute, appendicitis rests largely upon the following factors: (1) The history of localized tenderness; (2) pain at McBurney's point; (3) the existence of fever, which is often slight during each relapse. The presence of fine crackling rale-like gurgling over the site of the appendix further supports the diagnosis.

Differential Diagnosis.—Chronic appendicitis must be distinguished from **carcinoma of the cecum** and from **tuberculosis of the cecum.**

* Am. Jour. Med. Sci., Oct., 1919.

Typhlitis has been considered conjointly with and as resulting from chronic appendicitis.

Carcinoma of the cecum presents certain points of similarity to chronic appendicitis. The amelioration of all the symptoms for a period of weeks or months favors the existence of appendicitis, for in carcinoma there are no distinct intervals of remission. Fever is also a feature of chronic appendicitis, and is, as a rule, unknown in carcinomatous disease of the colon. Emaciation and progressive weakness are more pronounced in carcinoma than in appendicitis.

Appendicitis is a disease of youth and early adult and middle life, whereas carcinoma of the colon is rare before the fortieth year.

Tuberculosis of the cecum does not resemble chronic appendicitis until a variable degree of localized peritonitis is present. In tuberculosis there is no distinct intermission of symptoms, fever is usually absent or mild, and diarrhea is more common than constipation. The detection of tubercle bacilli in the stools makes the diagnosis of tuberculous enteritis positive.

Recurrent Appendicitis

Clinical Definition.—A condition in which successive attacks of acute appendicitis occur in the same individual at intervals of from several months to one or more years.

General Remarks.—Severe attacks may follow comparatively mild ones, or, on the other hand, each successive attack may be more and more mild for an indefinite time. The severity of the previous attack is no guide to the grade of the inflammation of the next recurrence.

Clinical Course.—Mild forms of catarrhal appendicitis tend to go on toward recovery in the majority of instances, although these comparatively mild cases may cause the formation of peritoneal adhesions. Severe cases of catharrhal appendicitis, and particularly those occurring after the patient has had one or more previous attacks, may terminate fatally unless surgical treatment is instituted. There is no means by which it is possible to estimate satisfactorily the danger in any case. The temperature and general condition of the patient may be confusing, and, in fact, in selected cases of appendicits, may be misleading. Irrespective of how mild the symptoms may be, the tendency is for an acute appendiceal process to become more and more general in its distribution, and such extension may take place without materially influencing the pulse, the temperature, or the degree of pain.

Suppuration may follow in those cases that apparently run an insidious course, and it must be remembered that fever is not a constant finding in appendiceal suppuration. It must also be emphasized that in this condition a subnormal or normal temperature may be present in cases that are as serious as those displaying a temperature of 101° or 102° F.

Complications.—Complications of any kind materially increase the danger in all types of appendicitis. Among the more frequent complications are abscess, perforation of the colon followed by general peritonitis, perforation of the colon with localized peritonitis, and localized peritonitis with the formation of adhesions and consequent lessening of the lumen of the intestine.

Ileocecal Spasm

Clinical Consideration.—Certain cases of appendicitis are not relieved by operation, and it is with reference to this particular class that Heile and others have reported spasm of the ileocecal valve sphincter.

The diagnosis is not made positive through an external examination. It should be suspected, however, where there are periodic attacks of pain which simulate closely those present in appendicitis. The fact that operation has done nothing to relieve these attacks is strongly in favor of ileocecal spasm. Some patients refer to the pain as periodic cramp in the side, while others claim that lancinating pains, and definite twinges are felt in the appendiceal region. Distress is frequently worse after the taking of food. Tenderness is absent in most cases, and this sign serves as a valuable distinctive feature between ileocecal spasm and appendicitis.

At the time of an operation for appendicitis the finger may be placed over the ileocecal region, and the somewhat hardened tissue is readily detected in event of spasm.

Heile recommends an operation which consists in a transverse division of the ileocecal muscle, and it is claimed that cure invariably follows this procedure.

Patulous Ileocecal Valve.—In a series of cases that have been studied at the Northwestern General Hospital, we have found through *x*-ray study that a patulous condition of the valve commonly existed in cases where there was dilatation of the ascending colon.

CHOLERA INFANTUM

General Remarks.—A type of diarrhea seen in young children, in which the general symptoms bear a striking resemblance to those of Asiatic cholera, but develop after the ingestion of impure milk or improper food.

Characteristic Features.—The onset is sudden, and is characterized by the passing of an unusually large quantity of feces. A distinctive feature between cholera infantum and the other types of diarrhea previously outlined is that no diarrhea or intestinal trouble antedates cholera infantum.

Gastric Symptoms.—Vomiting is an almost constant symptom, developing early and continuing throughout the attack. There is complete anorexia, and even ice is ejected almost immediately after it is taken. Intense thirst is present.

Thermic Features.—The temperature rises early to 103°, 104°, or 105° F., and may reach 106° or 108° F., but with the approach of the general symptoms of collapse the fever soon falls to normal. Eventually, the external temperature is subnormal in severe cases.

Nervous Manifestations.—The child may be extremely nervous at the onset, but later, as the vomiting subsides, he falls into a semicomatose. state and coma finally develops.

Laboratory Diagnosis.—Within a few hours after the onset the *stools* become watery, and yellowish-green in color, and as the condition progresses the dejecta become watery. To the naked eye the stools contain shreds of mucus and small flocculi. The stools may not emit a distinct odor, although occasionally an odor of musk is present. The frequency of stools varies greatly, numbering from 12 to 50 a day.

The *vomitus* at first contains the contents of the stomach, but later it is often bile-stained and of the consistence of water.

Summary of Diagnosis.—The diagnosis is based upon: (1) The history of the ingestion of decomposed food; (2) the copious evacuation of the bowel and the character of the bowel movements; (3) the rapidity of the heart's action and high temperature that prevail early during the

attack; (4) the great tendency toward collapse; (5) the character of the vomitus.

Clinical Course and Duration.—In practically all cases of cholera infantum the prognosis is guardedly favorable. In those instances in which judicious treatment is instituted early, convalescence may be established in from one to four days, or later by the end of the first week. The intestinal symptoms commonly assume a subacute course between the first and fourth days, after which convalescence may not be established for several days or even for weeks.

NERVOUS DIARRHEA

General Remarks.—A peculiar condition in which no true pathologic lesions are found, but in which there is an increased motor power of the bowel that results in diarrhea. Generally speaking, nervous diarrhea should be regarded as reflex, since it frequently develops after fright, attacks of hysteria, mental strain, and pyschic influences. The number of stools may vary from three to twenty a day, but such stools do not present anything characteristic. Patients afflicted with this condition are, as a rule, well nourished, but of a neurasthenic temperament.

Differential Diagnosis.—Nervous diarrhea is to be distinguished from chronic dysentery, the latter condition being characterized by its prolonged duration and by the character of the stools. (See p. 566.) The fact that the diarrhea always follows nervous excitement differentiates nervous diarrhea from that due to dietetic errors. (See Summer Diarrhea of Children, p. 607.)

ENTERALGIA (INTESTINAL NEURALGIA)

General Remarks.—Neuralgic pain of the intestine may be localized or general, and in those cases in which there is associated enterospasm, the condition may be sufficiently severe to constitute intestinal colic.

Predisposing and Exciting Factors.—Enteralgia is usually the result of a neurosis, occurring in debilitated and neurasthenic individuals. At times it results from the ingestion of certain foods or from excitement. Enteralgia may be reflex in character, and follow the taking of indigestible or metallic substances into the stomach, infection by intestinal parasites, obstinate constipation, and the like.

Enteralgia the result of organic disease is best seen in the crises of locomotor ataxia, and may be due to toxic poisons, as evidenced by the intense abdominal pain of lead workers. (See Enterospasm.) There is unusual sensitiveness of the intestine in persons suffering from chronic appendicitis and from peritonitis of long standing. During the course of hypertension it is rather usual to have the patient experience severe intestinal (abdominal) pains. These are paroxysmal in character and may persist after the blood pressure has fallen to from 150 to 160 mm.

Principal Complaint.—Enteralgia may develop suddenly, or it may set in less abruptly, and is then attended with eructations of gas and flatulence. In the fully developed attack the pain may be so violent as to cause the patient to faint. The pain is described as boring, tearing, or lancinating in character. It is not localized at any particular portion of the abdomen, but, on the contrary, is likely to be diffuse.

Attacks may be brief, or less often they are prolonged for hours or even weeks. Sudden subsidence of the pain is quite characteristic. Recurrences are the rule, but the intervals during which the patient is free from pain vary both in different cases and in the same patient.

Hypogastric Neuralgia.—When neuralgic pain is limited to the epigastrium, it is usually termed "epigastric neuralgia." Examples of this type are seen in locomotor ataxia and in rectal and ovarian diseases.

CARCINOMA OF THE INTESTINE

General Remarks.—Carcinoma of the bowel may be either primary or secondary in nature. Primary carcinoma of the intestine, however, is rare in comparison with the great frequency with which carcinoma occurs elsewhere. Carcinomatous involvement of either the large or the small intestine is a common cause of chronic intestinal obstruction. The occlusion is effected both by direct pressure and by intrusion of the growth upon the lumen of the gut.

Predisposing and Exciting Factors.—Age—after forty—and heredity stand as prominent predisposing factors. Gastro-intestinal catarrh and intestinal ulceration render the patient especially susceptible to carcinomatous disease.

Principal Complaint.—Clinically speaking, carcinoma of the lower portion of the intestine, especially, when it involves the rectum, belongs to a special field of surgery, namely, proctology. The chief symptoms are *distress*, which increases progressively until there is *intense pain*, which may radiate from the rectum. The first discomfort experienced by the patient occurs during defecation, but with the progress of the disease the pain becomes almost constant, although it is always increased during and after defecation. *Diarrhea* usually alternates with constipation, and when a considerable portion of the rectal mucosa is involved, *blood* and *bloody mucus* are passed with the feces. As in carcinoma in other portions of the body, there are progressive loss of strength and emaciation, together with anxiety.

If the carcinoma is situated above the rectum, the patient's symptoms are often vague, and, in fact, there is no definite group of symptoms characteristic of carcinoma of this portion of the bowel. Progressive emaciation and weakness are, however, constantly present. Irregular attacks of lancinating abdominal pains usually occur, generally some hours after eating or after defecation. Nausea, vomiting, and anorexia are the rule. When carcinoma involves the duodenum, the vomiting of bile and jaundice is common.

Physical Signs.—Inspection.—The patient is emaciated and cachectic. When the neoplasm involves the sigmoid flexure of the colon, a peristaltic wave is often seen above the site of the obstruction. In selected cases it may be possible to detect an irregular enlargement of the abdomen. Distention of the abdomen is pronounced.

Palpation.—By means of palpation it is often possible to outline a distinct mass in the abdomen, and the portion of the intestine involved is quite readily approximated by the situation of the tumor. A nodular abdominal growth is almost invariably carcinomatous in nature.

Location of the Growth.—To determine the site of a palpable, supposedly carcinomatous abdominal tumor, the following points may be of service:

(*a*) A hard, nodular mass situated near the median line, between the ensiform and the umbilicus, would suggest a gastric or duodenal lesion. If jaundice is present, the lesion is most probably duodenal.

(*b*) A tumor situated in the right iliac region, probably has its origin in the lower portion of the ascending colon or the cecum.

(*c*) A mass in the left iliac region, or even slightly above the brim of the pelvis, is suggestive of involvement of the sigmoid flexure or descending colon.

(*d*) In neoplasm of the splenic flexure the colon may be drawn from its normal position and the tumor be detected to the left of the median line, and possibly as low as the brim of the pelvis.

Percussion is of value when the tumor mass is large, revealing, as it does, an area of dullness of variable size.

By distending the colon with air or water, it is possible, on making percussion over the distended portion, to determine the exact extent of the carcinomatous involvement, and this means of diagnosis may enable the clinician to distinguish between tumor of the colon and tumor extending from adjacent structures.

Auscultation.—Whenever the peritoneum becomes involved the number of intestinal gurgles is increased (from the normal 20 to 30 at the appendicial region) to above 40 to 80 per minute. A rate of 100 gurgles per minute is by no means uncommon, and is a valuable clinical feature in the diagnosis of abdominal cancer. The breath sounds and heart sounds may be audible over the greater portion of the abdomen.

Laboratory Diagnosis.—The quantity of urine voided during the twenty-four hours is approximately normal, except during the attacks of diarrhea, when it is decidedly lessened. In those cases suffering from chronic obstruction the feces is passed in small nodular masses, or there may be the so-called thread-like or ribbon-like stools, which are quite characteristic. Indican and acetone are common.

Summary of Diagnosis.—In the majority of instances the diagnosis rests largely upon the age of the patient, the nature of the pain, and the fact that it increases progressively from day to day. The character of the bowel movements and the presence of blood and mucus in the stools are also of great importance in formulating a diagnosis.

Differential Diagnosis.—The following conditions may be mistaken for carcinoma of the intestine: (1) Early during its course carcinoma of the rectum is frequently confused with **chronic dysentery,** on account of the blood and mucus that are passed with the stools. Much stress should be laid upon the presence of an abdominal tumor and the detection of the peristaltic wave through the abdominal wall. Progressive emaciation and cachexia, are present. Abdominal distention is a later sign.

(2) **Fecal impaction** may be dependent upon carcinomatous stenosis of the colon, and therefore the distinction between these two conditions may be made largely upon the presence or absence of pain, cachexia, and emaciation, all three of which symptoms are less marked or entirely absent in simple fecal impaction. A mass may be felt in the rectum.

(3) The tumor resulting from **intussusception** differs from carcinoma in that it develops abruptly, the pain being acute, instead of boring, as in carcinoma. Intussusception is of short duration, whereas carcinoma is chronic.

(4) **Carcinoma of the head of the pancreas** differs from carcinoma of the intestine in that the tumor mass is not movable. Jaundice is common. Blood sugar is increased to 130 or more, glycosuria may be present.

(5) **Carcinoma of the gall-bladder** may result in stenosis of the common bile-duct, when distention of the gall-bladder may be confounded with tumor of the colon, and here the differentiation is at times possible after inflating the colon.

(6) **Hydronephrosis and floating kidney** are differentiated from neoplasm of the colon by the fact that these tumors are freely movable when the patient is turned from side to side. The tumor does not interfere with distention of the colon by either gas or water. A fact to be borne in mind is that neoplasm of the abdomen, developing outside the colon, may, by pressure, lessen the lumen of the colon, and in *x*-ray pyelogram may disclose valuable information.

It has been found that thirty-eight per cent. of cases showing gastroptosis do not show displacement of the right kidney, but one or the other kidney is freely movable in about sixty per cent. of cases with gastroptosis and dilatation. The left kidney is more movable than is the right and is palpable in eight per cent. of cases presenting a general enteroptosis.

Clinical Course.—As a rule, carcinoma of the intestine pursues a rapid course, terminating fatally in from a few weeks to six or even twelve months. When the pathologic changes in the colon are cirrhotic in nature, the disease may run a course of two or more years.

Complications.—Among the complications the most serious is perforation of the intestine, which is usually followed by acute suppurative peritonitis. Carcinoma of the rectum is likely to form fistulous openings into the vagina and bladder. Owing to stenosis of the rectum, instances have been reported in which overdistention of the colon was followed by general peritonitis.

CHOLERA MORBUS

(Cholera Nostras; Acute Dyspeptic Diarrhea)

Pathologic Definition.—An acute self-limited disease, excited by the eating of large quantities of indigestible food.

Predisposing and Exciting Factors.—Age.—Children and young adults are most prone to this disease. When it develops in infants the condition is usually referred to as cholera infantum. (See p. 607.) Idiosincrasies for certain foods deserve special consideration. Bacterial infection may be a factor.

Season.—During the *summer months* this disease is quite common, the greatest number of cases being seen during July, August, and September. *Unhygienic surroundings* without doubt contribute toward the production of cholera morbus, although the disease develops among the well-to-do classes quite as frequently as among the poorer. The theory has been advanced that this disease is probably microbic in origin. The variety of food taken certainly plays an important rôle in its production, since the eating of unripe fruits and of vegetables, such as string-beans, peas, egg-plant, cucumbers, etc., is often followed by an attack.

Principal Complaint.—A history of gastro-intestinal catarrh continuing for several days is quite common, and the patient will usually admit having eaten some indigestible substance or unripe fruit and vegetables.

The *onset* is, comparatively speaking, sudden, and is ushered in with acute abdominal pain, followed by violent vomiting, severe diarrhea, and a tendency toward faintness. In addition to *intestinal cramp* there are also cramp-like pains in the calves of the legs, thighs, and at times in the muscles of the forearms. In severe cases there is intense thirst, and the patient is unable to retain either liquids or solids taken by the mouth.

Thermic Features.—The temperature rises abruptly to from 100° to 104°, 105°, or even 106° F., remaining high during the acute stage of the disease; when the symptoms of collapse appear, the cutaneous tempera-

ture may be subnormal, whereas that of the rectum may be above 104° F.

Physical Signs.—Inspection.—The patient usually assumes a recumbent posture, with the legs well flexed upon the abdomen; the expression is anxious, the face is pale, the cheeks are sunken, the lips are cyanosed, and the abdomen is scaphoid in shape.

Palpation.—Tenderness upon deep pressure over the stomach and colon may be elicited. The skin soon becomes cold and clammy, and is often beaded with drops of cold perspiration. The hands, feet and nose are extremely cold. The pulse soon becomes weak, the beats numbering from 110 to 140 a minute, and unless treatment is instituted early, it may become irregular and dicrotic.

Laboratory Diagnosis.—The number of stools voided during the early stages is extremely high. At first they contain only the contents of the bowel, generally partially digested food, each movement being accompanied by the passage of a large amount of flatus. Later the stool may be almost watery, and finally it becomes serous in character.

The vomitus at first contains the contents of the stomach, with some of the food that has been previously taken, but later it may be made up of watery material.

A *bacteriologic study* of the vomitus and of the feces will reveal the presence of a number of bacteria, many of which are non-pathogenic. Finkler and Prior describe a spirillum which they found present in a large percentage of cases, but since streptococci and staphylococci are also occasionally present, it is quite difficult to estimate the pathogenicity of any one special organism cultivated from either the vomitus or the dejecta.

The *urine* is diminished in quantity, high in color, rich in indican, and often contains a trace of albumin.

Summary of Diagnosis.—A history of the ingestion of a large amount of indigestible food, and particularly of unripe fruits, is highly important. Violent vomiting, together with purging, intestinal colic, and cramps in the muscles of the extremities, are in themselves quite characteristic of cholera morbus. The appearance within the course of a few hours of extreme pallor, subnormal temperature, a weak, rapid pulse, and the fact that the patient's face is beaded with perspiration, all further substantiate the diagnosis. Breath may give odor of acetone.

Differential Diagnosis.—The general clinical picture of cholera morbus is quite similar to that of **Asiatic cholera,** but the geographic location and the absence of an epidemic, together with a clear history of the eating of certain unripe fruits, will be of great value in making a differentiation (see Botulism, p. 1359).

A bacteriologic study of the feces and of the vomitus will enable one to distinguish positively between these two conditions, since the comma bacillus is always present in those suffering from Asiatic cholera. Great care should be exercised in obtaining a careful clinical history, as this will serve to exclude the possibility of ptomain poisoning and of poisoning by drugs (*e. g.*, arsenic).

Clinical Course and Duration.—In the majority of cases of cholera morbus that tend to terminate favorably all the alarming symptoms subside in from three to six hours. In severe types of this condition the acute may be followed by a series of subacute symptoms, which may continue for from twenty-four to seventy-two hours. When cholera morbus develops in individuals who were previously healthy, a fatal termination is rare, and, in fact, the vast majority of all cases terminate

favorably when judicious treatment is instituted early. The element of danger is that of profound collapse, and with this in mind, the physician is usually able to apply the treatment necessary to ward off this fatal symptom. Complications and sequelæ are rare.

EPIDEMIC COLIC

A condition occurring in tropical and semi-tropical districts and usually affecting a large percentage of the inhabitants in a certain locality.*

The characteristic symptoms are violent abdominal pains, symptoms referable to intestinal obstruction, and apyrexia. The pain is rather localized to the colon being most severe at the hepatic and splenic flexures. Abdominal pain may similate that of renal colic, and of appendicitis. At the expiration of the first week the symptoms gradually become more intense, the stools are liquid, contain some mucous, and emit a characteristic fetid odor. Convalescence begins from the fifteenth to the seventeenth day.

DISEASES OF THE PERITONEUM

ACUTE GENERAL PERITONITIS

Pathologic Definition.—A disease characterized by an acute inflammatory process involving an extensive portion of the peritoneum.

Predisposing and Exciting Causes.—Age.—Acute general peritonitis occurs oftenest between the fifteenth and forty-fifth years, developing at a time in life when all the abdominal organs are most active. General peritonitis has been said to exist even in intra-uterine life, although it is quite uncommon in infants, Holt having found it but four times in 726 consecutive autopsies. In an analysis of 187 cases of acute general peritonitis occurring in children, Holt found 25 per cent. to have occurred in the new-born, 21 per cent. between the first and fifth years, and 54 per cent. between the fifth and sixteenth years. The high percentage of cases found to affect the new-born is attributed to direct infection through the umbilical cord.

Sex serves as predisposing factor by reason of the great frequency of suppurative processes along the genital tract, and particularly in the uterus, ovaries, and Fallopian tubes. Again, young females are more likely to suffer from gastric perforation due to ulcer than are males. Gall-stones contribute toward the production of general peritonitis in older subjects, but this condition is usually followed by a local inflammation of the peritoneum, and unless rupture occurs, a general involvement of the serous sac is not to be expected. Pneumococcic peritonitis is more common in young females, see page 618.

It is generally believed that peritonitis may be a primary disease, but it is found to occur more often as a terminal complication of gout, general arteriosclerosis, rheumatism, and chronic Bright's disease. In the vast majority of all cases acute peritonitis develops as the result of infection from an adjacent viscus the surface of which is covered with peritoneum, or from rupture of one of the hollow abdominal viscera, *e. g.*, the colon, appendix, or stomach, tuberculous ulcer of the colon, or carcinoma of the intestine. Abscesses in this region may either rupture into the peritoneal sac or infect the peritoneum by the spread of their infection by contiguity. Acute peritonitis follows abscess, perinephritic abscess, empyema, or hepatic abscess. Peritonitis occasionally occurs as a sequel to septicemia pyemia, wounds of the peritoneum and acute infections.

* (D'Afflitto Polyclinic, Rome, April 3, 1922.)

Bacteriologic Causes.—Many microörganisms are capable of producing acute general peritonitis; among these are bacillus coli communis, Staphylococcus pyogenes, streptococcus pyogenes, the bacillus of Friedländer, the pneumococcus, and bacillus pyocyaneus. In one case seen by us acute general peritonitis was due to micrococcus tetragenus. The peritoneal surface appears to be well adapted for the development of pyogenic bacteria. Peritonitis due to pneumococcus is seen in young subjects, p. 618.

(*a*) The peritoneum is highly sensitive to the absorption of ptomains, and toxins, a fact that serves to explain the high mortality rate in this affection.

(*b*) Peritonitis may result from the application of chemic irritants when these are placed directly upon the serous surface.

(*c*) Mechanical irritation, such as that produced by hernia, may give rise to a localized peritonitis that, in turn, may become diffuse. Secondary peritonitis may follow the introduction of certain toxic substances into the intestine, or may be the result of a slight inflammatory process involving the pleura.

(*d*) Both acute and subacute peritonitis may arise from remote foci of infection. The disease may result from the direct extension of acute or chronic infections from adjacent organs.

Principal Complaint.—This will be found to vary widely, such variations depending upon the character of the onset and the presence or absence of a preëxisting suppurative process covered by some portion of the peritoneum, with rupture of this abscess and the discharge of its purulent contents into the peritoneal sac. If general peritonitis follows a localized peritonitis due to an inflammatory process of one of the adjacent viscera, the onset is insidious, extending gradually over the entire peritoneal surface. If pus containing pyogenic bacteria is set free in the peritoneal cavity, the onset is sudden, and the height of the clinical phenomena is reached within a few hours. The early symptoms of peritonitis may be masked by those of the local inflammation that exists within the abdomen, and it is only by the exercise of great care that the clinician can arrive at an accurate interpretation of the clinical features.

Pain.—Pain constitutes the chief feature of diffuse peritonitis, and may be of equal intensity over all parts of the abdomen, or, as is common, an acute pain may be localized. It is generally conceded that the area of intense pain corresponds to the site of the initial infection of the peritoneal surface—*e. g.*, intense pain in the region of the epigastrium and reflected toward the back and shoulder points somewhat strongly toward gastric ulcer. In one case seen by us in consultation there was rupture of the stomach, probably the result of an ulcer of long standing; in this case the extreme tenderness and intense pain were in the epigastrium, near the median line, and reflected over the right half of the abdomen, becoming most intense in the right inferior quadrant—McBurney's point. At operation, twenty-four hours after rupture, the peritoneal sac was found to be distended with the contents of the stomach, the appendix was normal, and there was no appreciable disease of the liver or of the intestine other than the diffuse peritonitis. Following rupture of a gastric ulcer the pain may be most intense in the lower half of the abdomen, and cases are recorded in which the referred pain was limited to the bladder. After general peritonitis is well established it is practically impossible for the patient to inhale deeply, on account of the intense pain. The pain of peritonitis is continuous, although in asthenic patients it may be remittent or intermittent.

The *abdomen* becomes tympanitic within the first twenty-four hours, the pain appearing to be exaggerated by such distention. The abdominal muscles are spastic, and the movements of the abdomen are restricted. The patient complains that he is unable to take a deep breath, and that he must flex his thighs well upon the abdomen and lie upon his back in order to get relief.

Hiccough.—In patients whose strength has been well conserved prior to the onset of peritonitis, hiccough occurs early, and is apt to recur at intervals of but a few minutes, or at longest from one to two hours. Between attacks of *vomiting* hiccough is an annoying symptom, and is suggestive of extensive peritoneal involvement. In the case previously cited vomiting was not an annoying symptom, whereas hiccough was more or less constant after the first twenty-four hours following gastric rupture.

Thirst is absent during the early stages of acute general peritonitis, but develops with the progress of the disease. The patient complains that his mouth and throat are dry and parched, and that his tongue appears to stick to the surface of his lips, teeth, and cheeks. In advanced peritonitis there may be deep fissures of the tongue and lips, from which blood-stained serum may ooze. Again, the tongue may be somewhat rolled together in the back of the oral cavity, and the patient be unable to protrude it.

Vomiting is produced by the taking of food and by increased peristalsis, although in many instances the vomiting is more or less continuous. At first the material ejected from the stomach may contain particles of food; later it is yellowish or greenish in color, and contains shreds of mucus. As the disease progresses the *vomitus* may be brownish in color and emit a fetid odor.

Constipation is a fairly constant feature of acute general peritonitis, and may be attributed either to spasm or to paralysis of the muscular coats of the intestine. Occasionally a case may be seen in which *diarrhea* is present throughout the entire course of the disease. Such diarrhea is attributable to a catarrhal infection (possibly septic) of the intestinal mucosa.

Thermic Features.—Peritonitis developing in the robust and previously healthy is likely to be ushered in with a decided rigor or a series of chills; even in the asthenic chilly sensations are experienced. Following the chill, provided there has been a rupture of one of the hollow abdominal viscera, there may be shock, which is accompanied by all the nervous and circulatory phenomena of this condition, as, *e. g.*, a subnormal temperature, cold, clammy skin, anxious expression, and a weak, rapid pulse. A few hours later the symptoms of shock subside and the temperature rises steadily until it reaches 100° to 101° or 102° F., at which point it remains with moderate remissions. An intermittent temperature is occasionally seen. (See Pneumococcic peritonitis, p. 618.)

Acute general peritonitis due to infection with the bacillus coli communis may be accompanied by but slight elevation of temperature, the average being from 99° to 101° F. Generally speaking, it should be stated that hyperpyrexia is unusual in general peritonitis, and when present, is probably due to an acute purulent process outside the peritoneum (puerperal sepsis, for example). In the last type of case, and occasionally in peritonitis affecting the previously healthy, the chill may be followed by a rapid rise in temperature, which may reach 104° or 105° F. within a few hours. In these septic cases the temperature assumes the continued type, reaching 104° or 106° F. by the third or

fourth day of the disease. In sthenic subjects the temperature may rise abruptly, but during the first twenty-four hours following it may remit, reaching about 101°, and continuing at or near this point throughout the course of the disease. "Rectal temperature is often relatively high" (Anders).

Cardiovascular Peculiarities.—If the patient is seen during the stage of shock, the heart action will be extremely rapid, the pulse feeble and easily compressed. With the advance of general peritonitis the pulse becomes rapid, ranging between 120 and 160 beats a minute, and later it will be found to be intermittent, dicrotic, and compressible, the general evidences of circulatory collapse occurring, as a rule, between the fifth and twelfth days of the malady.

Owing to a general loss of cardiovascular tension and to extra muscular effort on the part of the heart there is often a decided pulsation of the vessels of the neck. The heart's apex impulse may be at the fourth and even the third interspace in the nipple-line. The heart displacement depends upon the elevation of the diaphragm due to abdominal distention. The area of relative cardiac dullness is seldom greatly increased, whereas the area of absolute cardiac dullness is increased and slightly elevated.

Respiratory Symptoms.—The respirations are rapid, varying in number from 25 to 45 a minute; the expansion is limited to the apex of the chest (superior thoracic type), although there is an apparent increased lateral expansion at the base. Owing to absence of the movements of the diaphragm, abdominal respiration does not occur. The patient is unable to take a full breath, and the acts of sneezing and coughing are accompanied by intense abdominal pain, which is likely to be followed by vomiting. The breath-sounds are decidedly altered and numerous râles are audible.

Nervous Manifestations.—In the majority of uncomplicated cases of general peritonitis these are not pronounced, and, in fact, it is customary for the mind to remain clear throughout the entire illness, except, say, for a few hours during the night. In certain instances delirium may be mild or extreme, and late in the disease it may terminate in coma. The fact that the patient states that he feels comparatively well except for the abdominal pain should be regarded as a grave symptom. There may be hypersensitiveness to light and sound, and the slightest jar of the bed causes agony.

Physical Signs.—**Inspection of the abdomen** reveals a general symmetric enlargement; the transverse diameter of the abdomen is increased in proportion to the amount of fluid present. Abdominal distention is also influenced by the degree of relaxation of the abdominal muscles; consequently in the strong there may be but moderate enlargement. Generally speaking, however, the more decided the abdominal distention, the more virulent is the type of infection. The entire abdomen is immobile. The Philadelphia County Medical Society has recently issued a chart, to be used in the study of abdominal maladies.

PHYSICAL EXAMINATION

General appearance — Veins
Visible or palpable coils of intestine
Visible peristalsis
Wave of fluctuation
Movable dullness
Palpable mass — Position — Character
Liver — Spleen — Kidneys
Splash on palpation — Extent
Tenderness — Position — Effect of deep inspiration — Effect of sudden relief of pressure
Muscle resistance

Palpation.—Rigidity of the abdominal wall is more or less pronounced, and is usually extreme after perforation of a hollow viscus. There is marked tenderness at every point overlying the peritoneal sac. After peritonitis has existed for some days, a friction fremitus may be detected over the abdomen. When there is great distention, the edge of the liver is not palpable, and at the upper portion of the abdomen there is a decided paramesial bulging between the tip of the sternum and the cartilages of the ribs.

Percussion over any portion of the abdomen causes great pain, and the note elicited is decidedly tympanitic. We have examined a number of cases in which liver dullness was absent, except in that portion occupying the posterior part of the superior right abdominal quadrant. This absence of liver dullness may be noted irrespective of whether or not perforation of the stomach or colon has occurred. We have found at autopsy on subjects dead of acute general peritonitis that absence of liver dullness depended upon the fact that portions of the intestine had been forced between the surface of the liver and the abdominal wall.

It may be difficult, and at times impossible, to outline the area of splenic dullness in advanced peritonitis. Movable dullness due to the presence of free fluid in the peritoneal sac is at times detectable, yet in the majority of instances the fluid present does not change rapidly with the position of the patient, or the quantity may be too small to give rise to definite physical signs. We have seen cases at postmortem in which several pints of thick, tenacious fluid occupied the peritoneal sac.

The pulmonary resonance does not extend as low as normal, and the margin of the lung is elevated in proportion to the degree of abdominal distention. As previously stated, the area of cardiac dullness is elevated as shown in a case reported by one of us.

Auscultation of the heart has been referred to under Cardiac Phenomena. Decided gurgling, due probably to intestinal fermentation as well as to peristalsis, is heard over the abdomen. When peritonitis has existed for a few days, it is possible to detect peculiar friction murmurs that resemble in character those heard over the pleura, but they are less likely to be rhythmic, although in a few instances we have found such murmurs to be synchronous with respiration.

Laboratory Diagnosis.—Fluid obtained from the peritoneum will be found to contain pathogenic bacteria, the bacillus coli communis, the streptococcus, and the staphylococcus being the organisms most commonly encountered; any pus-producing bacterium is, however, capable of causing acute peritonitis. The peritoneal fluid is rich in albumin, and microscopically is seen to contain many pus-cells, leukocytes, red blood-cells, and bacteria.

The *urine* is diminished in quantity during the entire course of the malady, but this diminution is commonly in direct proportion to the quantity of liquids taken. After the disease has progressed for forty-eight hours or more, albuminuria frequently develops, and the urine may contain hyaline and granular casts. In one of our cases the urine contained blood-casts and red blood-cells in large numbers. Indicanuria develops early during the course of peritonitis and continues throughout, fluctuating in more or less direct relation to the degree of tympany present.

The *blood* displays decided evidence of suppurative infection, the number of leukocytes rising abruptly to form 10,000 to 20,000 in a cubic millimeter, and a much higher count may be observed. A differential count of the leukocytes shows the increase to affect chiefly the polymorphonuclear elements (which normally comprise 65 to 72 per cent. of the

total number of white cells), which may equal 85 to 95 per cent. of the total number of leukocytes present. In selected cases leukocytosis is absent.

The number of red blood-cells in a cubic millimeter is but slightly, if at all, altered until peritonitis has advanced for several days, when there may be a corresponding decrease in the number of red cells and in the percentage of hemoglobin (secondary anemia). Studies of the blood chemistry have not been found to be of diagnostic service.

Pneumococcic Peritonitis.—The profession is indebted to Charles L. Gibson, for the clinical description of this rapidly fatal type of peritonitis. Gibson's original communication including six authentic cases appeared in 1921, and in March 1925, he reported four additional cases before the Philadelphia County Medical Society. The pneumococcus is found present in the peritoneal exudate and provides the only positive diagnostic evidence. The involved peritoneum is bathed in an odorless, vicid, milk like fluid, containing much granular fibrin.

Etiology.—Children are most often attacked, and girls are more susceptible than are boys. Unsanitary surroundings apparently favors infection. The condition has been known to complicate lobar pneumonia.

Symptoms.—(1) The onset is sudden, accompanied by high fever, (102 to 104° F.). (2) Vomiting is a common feature and there may be diarrhea which alternates with constipation. (3) Mental habitude develops early, the patient soon becoming drowsy, progressing to stupor and convulsions are reported. (4) Cyanosis, herpes labialis, and flushing of the cheeks appear early, and continue throughout the febrile period. (5) Leukocytosis is present and varies between 15,000 and 50,000 per cmm. with the polymorphonuclear cells equaling 90 to 98 per cent. (6) Prostration, abdominal tension, and tenderness are less conspicuous early in this, than are they in other forms of acute peritonitis.

ACUTE LOCALIZED PERITONITIS

Pathologic Definition.—An acute, circumscribed inflammation of some portion of the peritoneum that overlies an organ known to be the seat of an inflammatory process.

Varieties.—Localized peritonitis is often referred to as pelvic, in which cases it arises from extension of an inflammatory process affecting the uterus (perimetritis), ovaries (peri-ovaritis), bladder (pericystitis), or appendix. If the circumscribed inflammation is located in the superior right abdominal quadrant, it is designated as perihepatitis or subdiaphragmatic peritonitis; when the peritoneum covering the spleen is involved, the condition is known as perisplenitis. Circumscribed areas of inflammation may arise at any portion of the peritoneum as the result of carcinoma, tuberculosis, or rheumatism.

Predisposing and Exciting Factors.—Puerperal sepsis, gonorrhea, pyosalpinx, appendicitis, gall-stone, abscess of the liver, ovarian abscess, tuberculosis of one of the glands of the abdomen or of either the hollow or the solid abdominal viscera, primary carcinoma of the peritoneum or secondary carcinoma. Foci of infection about the teeth and tonsils is regarded as a cause.

Principal Complaint.—Localized tenderness of the abdomen with acute lancinating pains upon movement or upon deep pressure over the tender area, constitute the chief complaint in connection with localized peritonitis. The degree of pain and of discomfort varies in direct correla-

tion with the area of peritoneal surface involved and with the amount of movement common to the abdominal wall overlying the inflamed peritoneum.

These symptoms are milder than those seen in acute general peritonitis, and are often entirely concealed for a time by the symptoms referable to the organ known to be the primary seat of the infection. If the acute localized peritonitis becomes general, all the symptoms of acute diffuse peritonitis previously described (p. 615) appear within the first twenty-four hours. There is often a tendency for acute localized peritonitis to subside gradually between the third and tenth days, and to continue for an indefinite period, running a subacute course.

Thermic Features.—The temperature in localized peritonitis varies with the character of infection from which it has arisen—*e. g.*, in pelvic peritonitis following puerperal sepsis the temperature may be high—102° to 104° F.—and of the continuous type, although we have seen cases in which the temperature did not exceed 101° F. In perihepatic and localized peritonitis the temperature is more likely to be lower (100° to 101° F.) than when the peritoneum of the pelvis is involved, this peculiarity probably depending upon the fact that pelvic peritonitis is likely to be excited by virulent pus-producing organisms.

Differential Diagnosis.—Pleurisy, pericarditis, typhoid fever, and dysentery may rarely simulate acute peritonitis. A careful analysis of signs and symptoms present will invariably lead to a correct diagnosis.

SUBPHRENIC PERITONITIS (SUBDIAPHRAGMATIC ABSCESS)

Pathologic Definition.—An acute inflammation of the peritoneum, which may or may not be suppurative in nature, limited to the right or left lobe of the liver, or at times to the lesser peritoneal cavity and the adjacent peritoneal covering of the diaphragm. Subphrenic abscess may contain air. Rarely, abscess of the liver due to infection with the bacillus coli communis may extend to the subphrenic peritoneum and cause a similar abscess, the walls of which are distended by gas. The bacillus aërogenes capsulatus is also capable of producing abscess formation and of generating gas.

Predisposing and Exciting Factors.—Extension of inflammation from: (*a*) Perforating gastric ulcer; (*b*) appendiceal infection is by far the commonest cause; (*c*) perforation of the intestine; (*d*) perforating duodenal ulcer; (*e*) from extension by contiguity from abscess of the liver or the pancreas.

Principal Complaint.—The patient complains of symptoms referable to the preëxisting pathologic condition of the abdomen—*e. g.*, gastric ulcer, appendicitis, hepatic abscess, duodenal ulcer, etc. He usually states that the condition began somewhat abruptly, with extreme pain and the vomiting of a large quantity of bile-stained or of bloody material. He declares that his breathing was difficult at the time this pain occurred and that there was a tendency toward faintness. Within the first forty-eight hours the patient experiences a chill or a series of chilly sensations, which are followed by profuse drenching sweats; night-sweats are likely to continue. The appetite is poor, there is great prostration, and at times the fever is that characteristic of suppuration.

Instances are recorded in which subdiaphragmatic abscess has ruptured through the diaphragm and communicated with the bronchi; in such cases the patient expectorates a portion of the contents of the abscess. One of us has reported a similar case, in which abscess of

the liver following amebic dysentery communicated with the lung, and the patient expectorated large numbers of amœba histolytica. Pneumothorax may be produced by rupture of an abscess into the pleural cavity, and it also occasionally results from a gastric ulcer perforating the diaphragm.

Cardiovascular Peculiarities.—If subdiaphragmatic abscess follows rupture of the stomach or duodenum, the pulse will become weak, rapid, and irregular at the onset; but after the symptoms of shock subside, the pulse remains full and strong, with but moderate acceleration, until the symptoms of sepsis—*e. g.*, chill, fever, sweats, etc.—appear. In one instance, seen at the Philadelphia General Hospital, the pulse remained at 140 for a period of twenty-eight days, when a fatal termination occurred.

Physical Signs.—Inspection.—There is usually bulging of the upper portion of the abdomen, and if the abscess is situated between the liver and the diaphragm, there is a bulging below the costal margin, due to the liver having been pushed downward. In one case, studied at the Philadelphia Hospital, the outline of the margin of the liver could be readily seen through the abdominal wall, and reached a point almost on a level with the umbilicus. The epigastric angle may be bulging in subdiaphragmatic abscess, and there may be prominence of the chest on the affected side. Movements of the affected portion of the abdomen are limited, and if there is extensive peritonitis, the respiratory movements of the abdomen are decreased.

Palpation elicits more or less extensive tenderness in the region of the diaphragm, its extent depending upon the degree of involvement of the peritoneum. The upper portion of the abdomen is tense, owing to distention from the abscess and to peritonitis (muscular spasm). The liver or the spleen may extend for some distance below the costal margin.

Percussion.—In the presence of an abscess that does not contain air, the upper margin of the liver dullness will be found to extend to the fourth rib, above which there will be pulmonary resonance in the nipple-line. If the abscess contains air or gas, there is a distinct area of tympany between the upper margin of the liver and the lower border of pulmonary resonance. Again, the area of liver dullness will be found to change slightly with the position of the patient, and its upper border will be far below the lower margin of the fifth rib.

If the abscess is situated at the left of the median line, a zone of tympany will be found between the splenic dullness and the lower border of lung resonance. In one instance in which a large subphrenic abscess was present, the area of cardiac dullness was displaced upward. Rarely, the lesser cavity of the peritoneum becomes filled with pus, when there is dullness in the left superior quadrant of the abdomen. If the lesser peritoneal sac is distended by gas, percussion will elicit a tympanitic note in the particular area affected. It is highly important to differentiate between the tympanitic note due to gas in the peritoneum or in the abscess, and the note obtained over the transverse colon. Tympany or dullness depending upon subdiaphragmatic abscess is always above the area of the colonic note. When the abscess is well distended by air, tympany may be elicited as high as the fourth rib in the left mammary line.

Auscultation.—There is an absence of breath-sounds over the affected area, whereas the normal respiratory murmur is heard above the abscess. Vocal resonance is also absent over the involved area, unless adhesions to the pleura have been formed and there is a direct communication with the lung, in which case voice-sounds are feebly heard. In the case of a large

abscess, the lung may be decidedly compressed, and the respiratory sounds and voice-sounds over such lung are markedly intensified. Friction murmurs due to pleuritic or to peritoneal adhesions are not uncommon.

In two cases of subphrenic abscess studied by us the diaphragm on the right side of the thorax had been elevated to the lower border of the third rib, and in both of these cases the physical signs closely simulated those of pyopneumothorax, the distinctive feature being that voice-sounds were not well transmitted to the lower level of the chest.

Laboratory Diagnosis.—Aspiration of the abscess may be of great value in the diagnosis, since the fluid recovered will usually contain albumin, many pus-cells, few red blood-cells, and various forms of bacteria, among which the colon bacillus, the streptococcus, and the staphylococcus deserve special mention. (For complete laboratory diagnosis see Empyema, p. 166.)

Summary of Diagnosis.—A history of the existence of disease of the stomach, duodenum, or liver, with the sudden development of acute pain in the upper abdomen, followed by the general symptoms of shock. Gradual onset may terminate in a decided tenderness along the diaphragmatic margin and beneath the diaphragm. Later, characteristic features appear—*e. g.*, temperature (septic in type) and the general symptoms of pyemia. Leukocytosis, indicanuria, and, less commonly, albuminuria are present.

The physical signs of subphrenic abscess are of great importance in formulating the diagnosis. (See Physical Signs.)

Differential Diagnosis.—The accompanying table is designed to show by comparison the distinctive clinical features of pyopneumothorax and subphrenic abscess.

Pyopneumothorax	Subdiaphragmatic Abscess
1. History of pulmonary tuberculosis or of traumatism to the chest.	1. History of gastric or hepatic disease or traumatism to the abdomen or base of the chest.
2. Develops suddenly with severe pain in the side, followed by the symptoms of shock.	2. Develops insidiously.
3. Cough accompanied by free expectoration.	3. Dyspnea with cough, and when expectoration is copious, it is apt to be bloody and to emit a fetid door. The breath may also be foul.
4. Practically no expansion on the affected side of the chest.	4. The expansion limited at base of chest on affected side.
5. Clavicle elevated and neck apparently shortened on affected side.	5. Not a conspicuous feature.
6. The voice and breath-sounds may show a metallic quality over the affected side.	6. Absent.
7. Normal breath-sounds absent over affected side.	7. Absent at base of thorax on affected side. Exaggerated at apex of same side.
8. Succussion splash audible when the ear is placed over any portion of the chest on the affected side.	8. Heard at base.
9. High tympanitic note is heard over the entire pleura on affected side.	9. Tympanitic note over base of affected side seldom extending above the level of the nipple.
10. Bell tympany (coin test) present over entire pleura on affected side.	10. Present over base of chest on affected side and not infrequently indistinct.

Clinical Course and Duration.—The duration is usually from ten days to twelve weeks, and this condition should be regarded as a purely surgical one.

CHRONIC DIFFUSE PERITONITIS

Pathologic Definition.—An extensive chronic inflammation of the peritoneum involving both the lesser and the greater sac.

Predisposing and Exciting Factors.—Remote suppurative processes are possible etiologic factors; *e. g.*, tooth, sinus, or other foci. Infection with the tubercle bacillus is the most common cause, although general chronic peritonitis may result from infection extending from a previously localized peritonitis, as, *e. g.*, in carcinoma or inflammatory disease of the liver, uterus, intestine, kidney, or retroperitoneal glands. Actinomycosis, syphilis, and wounds of the peritoneum may in turn excite peritonitis.

Principal Complaint.—In addition to that volunteered by the patient, there are general abdominal soreness and tenderness, which are increased upon movement of the abdominal muscles and upon deep inspiration. The patient always complains of a variable amount of discomfort that he cannot well describe—a sensation of fullness, or as though something were pulling in his abdomen.

After general peritonitis has existed for some months or even years, numerous adhesions of the peritoneum have formed, and the intestines are everywhere bound together by both fine and coarse filamentous bands. In many instances the parietal and visceral layers of the peritoneum are united, and small sacculations filled with serous fluid may be formed. During the early stage of chronic diffuse peritonitis ascites may be present, but later there is little if any abdominal fluid.

Physical Signs.—Palpation.—Rigidity of the abdominal muscles is an early symptom, but becomes less decided with the progress of the disease. A tumor-like mass is often palpable in the region of the umbilicus, and is due to a rolled-up condition of the omentum. In other cases a similar mass is felt between the umbilicus and the transverse colon.

Laboratory Diagnosis.—The blood urea nitrogen is increased in 80 per cent. of all cases.

Clinical Course and Duration.—The disease usually lasts over a period of one or more years, although at no time does the patient enjoy perfect health.

CARCINOMA OF THE PERITONEUM

Remarks.—Primary carcinoma of the peritoneum is not common, but secondary involvement of the peritoneum by extension from contiguous structures is often seen—*e. g.*, extension from carcinoma of the liver, stomach, uterus, gall-bladder, ovaries, and rectum.

During the course of carcinoma of the peritoneum the patient, in addition to carcinoma of the organ primarily affected, develops ascites. We have found it possible, in a few instances, before ascites develops, to palpate small nodules through the abdominal wall, and after ascitic fluid has been removed, these carcinomatous nodular masses are readily palpable. The general features of carcinomatous peritonitis are very similar to those described under Chronic Diffuse Peritonitis. Metastatic involvement of the other glands, inguinal and axillary, generally occurs.

Laboratory Diagnosis.—Fluid obtained from the peritoneal sac is likely to be blood-stained and to contain the usual amount of albumin present in sanguineous serous fluids.

Microscopically, the fluid shows red blood-cells, white blood-cells, and occasionally small sheets of desquamated, peritoneal endothelium—the so-called "carcinoma cells." Since microscopic sheets of cells are to be

found in the peritoneal fluid in tuberculosis of the peritoneum, it is not wise to formulate a diagnosis of carcinoma of the peritoneum upon a microscopic study of the sediment alone.

Auscultation.—The degree of gurgling over the peritoneum is increased. Sounds simulating friction murmurs are audible and vary from 50 to 90 per minute. This sign is present early and ranks as one of our most reliable clinical evidences of peritoneal carcinoma.

Summary and Differential Diagnosis.—Carcinoma of the peritoneum is readily diagnosed when it is known that carcinoma of some one of the adjacent structures existed. It is extremely difficult on many occasions to distinguish between carcinoma and tuberculosis of the peritoneum. Age serves as the most distinctive feature, tuberculosis being more likely to attack the young and carcinoma the aged. A nodular condition of the abdomen may be due to the presence of small cysts, and in two cases of chronic peritonitis believed to be due to tuberculosis it was found that the condition depended upon a number of hydatids that occupied the omentum.

Clinical Course.—Carcinoma of the peritoneum goes from bad to worse, terminating fatally in from a few weeks to two years.

TUBERCULOSIS OF THE PERITONEUM

Pathologic Definition.—A subacute or chronic affection excited by the bacillus tuberculosis, and characterized by miliary tubercles of the peritoneum. It is usually secondary to tuberculosis elsewhere in the body, and may follow an acute outbreak of a one-time quiescent tuberculous focus.

Varieties.—(*a*) Primary miliary involvement of the peritoneum with ascites; (*b*) tuberculosis of the peritoneum with the formation of a fibrous exudate and numerous adhesions; (*c*) ulceration of the peritoneum, tuberculous in character; (*d*) a localized tuberculosis of the peritoneum due to direct extension from the mesenteric glands; and (*e*) localized tuberculosis of the peritoneum from direct extension from a tuberculous focus in the liver, kidney, ovary, or a retroperitoneal gland.

Predisposing and Exciting Factors.—Among the predisposing factors should be mentioned pulmonary tuberculosis. Phillips' analysis of 107 cases showed 99 of them to be secondary to tuberculosis of the lung; in 60 of these cases he found the pleura involved, and 80 of them showed tuberculosis of the kidney. Tuberculosis of any one or more of the abdominal viscera materially increases the danger of infection. The ingestion of uncooked beef or pork and the drinking of large quantities of milk that has not been sterilized favor general infection. Tuberculosis elsewhere, *e. g.*, Pott's disease, pulmonary tuberculosis and glandular tuberculosis predispose to peritoneal infection.

Age figures prominently in tuberculosis of the peritoneum, as is shown by Holt's collection of 156 cases, 71 of which were under three years, 26 between the third and eighth years, and 23 between the eighth and tenth years. In 119 autopsies upon the bodies of children under three years of age this author found that 8.5 per cent. of them showed tuberculosis of the peritoneum. The frequency with which tuberculosis attacks children after the third year is further substantiated by the statistics of Ashby, who found that 105 autopsies on children dead of tuberculosis 36 per cent. showed the peritoneum to be involved.

Biedert analyzed the reports of 883 autopsies made upon children, and found that 18.3 per cent. of them showed tuberculosis of the peritoneum. The greatest number of cases of the condition are to be found between the

tenth and fortieth years, whereas after the forty-fifth year it is decidedly uncommon.

Sex appears to exert little, if any, influence on children, whereas adult females are more prone to be attacked than are adult males. The ratio based upon sex is as 3 is to 2, in favor of the female.

Race and Nationality.—The American Indian is more susceptible to tuberculosis of the peritoneum than members of any other race, yet the negro and the Mongolian (Chinese and Japanese) are far more susceptible than the Caucasian.

Principal Complaint.—The chief complaint of patients suffering from general miliary tuberculosis of the peritoneum will be found to vary with the virulence of the type of infection, and will depend upon whether or not the patient has suffered from tuberculosis of some other portion of the body for an indefinite time. If the onset is sudden, the patient complains of such severe symptoms and constitutional disturbances as *nausea*, *vomiting*, *pain* and *tenderness* over the abdomen, and either *diarrhea* or *constipation*. As tuberculosis of the peritoneum progresses the pulse quickens and the general symptoms of secondary *anemia* appear —*i. e.*, palpitation, shortness of breath, and vertigo. The condition progresses rapidly until the patient assumes the so-called *typhoid state*, when the tongue is parched, the lips are fissured, there is intense thirst, and there may or may not be ascites.

A child may complain of nothing that would lead one to suspect that there is any involvement of the peritoneum, and ascites is unusual.

Cutaneous Manifestations.—Pigmentation of the skin of the abdomen is not unusual, and may appear in the form of blotches localized near the median line, or in the form of a general pigmentation of the skin of the abdomen and back. The von Pirquet and other cutaneous tests are positive.

Thermic Features.—The patient complains of feeling feverish, and the temperature will be found to vary between 101° and 104°, although we have seen cases in which the temperature did not exceed 100° F.

Auscultation.—The number of fine friction-like sounds over the abdomen are markedly increased, from 75 to 100 per minute. Exudate of lymphoid character may mask this sign.

Laboratory Diagnosis.—The blood changes of secondary anemia (p. 404) are found after the disease has progressed for but a short time; thus the hemoglobin falls to below 70 per cent., with a corresponding decrease in the number of red cells in a cubic millimeter. Leukocytosis is commonly found in those suffering from tuberculous peritonitis, although leukopenia is the rule before suppuration is present in some other portion of the body.

The urine gives a reaction for indican; and may contain albumin. In three cases studied at the Philadelphia General Hospital in which tuberculosis of the peritoneum followed an initial tuberculosis of the kidney, tubercle bacilli were found in the urine throughout the entire course of the illness.

Summary of Diagnosis.—Tuberculin skin reactions are usually positive. (See von Pirquet, Needle Track, and Old Tuberculin Tests.) The recognition of tuberculosis of the lung or of some one of the abdominal viscera, together with the characteristic symptoms described above, points rather conclusively toward tuberculosis of the peritoneum. In many instances it is practically impossible to determine the exact nature of the peritonitis without opening the abdominal cavity. In a number of cases following operation upon the uterus and ovaries we

have seen tuberculosis of the peritoneum develop in from three to five years, but in none of the cases observed was a careful pathologic study of the tissues removed from the uterus or ovaries carried out. In two cases diagnosticated as uterine fibroid, tuberculosis of the peritoneum developed five years later.

Differential Diagnosis.—See table below.

TABLE SHOWING THE DIFFERENCES BETWEEN CHRONIC GENERAL PERITONITIS, GENERAL TUBERCULOSIS OF THE PERITONEUM, AND CARCINOMATOUS PERITONITIS

Chronic Generalized Peritonitis	Generalized Tuberculosis of the Peritoneum	Carcinomatous Peritonitis
1. History of rheumatism or of tonsillitis.	1. Family history of tuberculosis or of some chronic infection of the lungs common.	1. Family history points toward carcinoma, and there is usually evidence favoring carcinoma of the stomach, liver, or rectum.
2. Social history negative.	2. In many instances the patient has been more or less intimately associated with a person suffering from pulmonary tuberculosis.	2. Social history negative.
3. Occurs most often in the obese and in those displaying a gouty tendency.	3. Develops in slender and ill-nourished subjects.	3. Seldom develops until the patient shows decided emaciation.
4. May develop at any age, but is oftenest seen between the thirtieth and fiftieth years.	4. Common in children and during early adult life. The greatest number of cases appear between the sixteenth and thirty-fifth years.	4. Rare before the fortieth year, although we have seen one case in a female aged thirty-three years.
5. Sex appears to exercise but little influence.	5. More common in adult females. In children both sexes are equally affected.	5. Slightly more common in the female, due to extension from carcinoma of the uterus.
6. Ascites absent.	6. Ascites the rule.	6. Develops after a fairly large surface of the peritoneum has become involved.
7. Abdominal tenderness appears to be uninfluenced by climatic changes. Symptoms are materially lessened by medication.	7. Tenderness constant, and not influenced by treatment.	7. Unaffected by treatment.
8. Disease advances sloedy, and may remain stationary for years.	8. Progresses rapidly from bad to worse, a fatal termination ensuing within from a few weeks to one year.	8. Terminates fatally in from three to eighteen months.

Clinical Course.—Tuberculosis of the peritoneum runs a somewhat rapid course, progressing steadily from bad to worse, and terminating fatally, as a rule, in from three months to one year.

SARCOMA OF THE RETROPERITONEAL GLANDS

(LÖBSTEIN'S CANCER)

Pathologic Definition.—A sarcomatous growth in the retroperitoneal glands near the attachment of the mesentery. It develops somewhat rapidly from a growth the size of a goose egg to that of a human head. There is comparatively little pain, but slight constitutional symptoms and no fever is present. Malignant tumors are common in this region.

Predisposing and Exciting Factors.—Sex.—So far as we know J. Dutton Steele's analysis of 65 reported cases furnishes the only tangible data regarding the etiology of retroperitoneal sarcoma, and shows that males are more susceptible than females, in the ratio of 12 to 8. A pathologic analysis of the 65 cases showed that 39 per cent. were of the spindle-celled variety; 34 per cent. of the round-cell variety; and 14 per cent. were lymphosarcomata. A history of traumatism to the abdomen and spine is occasionally obtained.

Age.—In Steele's analysis retroperitoneal sarcoma was shown to develop more commonly during the first decade, and between the fourth and fifth decades, of life.

Principal Complaint.—The onset is insidious, and the patient first becomes conscious of his condition when he detects a *hard, ball-like mass* in the abdomen. The tumor is not tender, and he often states that he is able to move the mass to various portions of the abdomen. Again, he may state that the tumor falls from side to side of the abdomen with change of posture.

After the tumor has attained sufficient size to interfere with the circulation of the abdominal viscera, the following symptoms may be described: nausea, anorexia, constipation, and intermittent cramp-like pains. According to the size of the tumor, the patient will suffer from a decided drawing or pulling sensation in the back and loins, and a sensation as of a weight in the abdomen. As the tumor increases in size it is likely to interfere materially with the venous return blood-currents, and edema results.

Pain.—As the result of pressure upon the nerve-filaments and nerve-trunks, the patient suffers from intense neuralgic pains in the lower extremities, abdominal wall, lumbar region, and genitalia.

After retroperitoneal sarcoma has continued for several months, the patient becomes anemic, and then complains of palpitation, marked prostration upon exertion, and a general feeling of malaise.

Physical Signs.—Inspection.—In patients in whom the abdominal wall is thin a peculiar irregularity, due to the presence of the tumor, is at once apparent. In selected cases the tumor mass may be seen to rise and fall slightly with the respiratory movements. In a case now under our observation the tumor is not affected by respiration, and in a series of cases studied by us the tumor was firmly adherent to the peritoneal tissues.

Palpation.—Early, the tumor is not tender to the touch, and it may be apparently moved by forcibly pressing over the mass. The growth is always hard, more or less irregular in outline, and situated at one or the other side of the median line, a portion of the mass commonly resting over the spine.

After there has been extreme pressure upon the abdominal nerve-trunks, there may be marked tenderness over the lower extremities, and in one case seen by us hypersensitiveness of the left testicle was an early

and annoying feature. When there is decided interference with the circulation through the spermatic veins, the testes will be found swollen and soft to the feel, with the general signs of varicocele.

Percussion tends to confirm palpation. The size and shape of the tumor are readily outlined, and surrounding it the normal tympanitic note due to the presence of the intestine may be demonstrated. Ascites frequently develops late during the course of retroperitoneal sarcoma. (See Ascites, below.)

Laboratory Diagnosis.—The blood changes are those of secondary anemia. The urine becomes pale, and later, after the development of ascites, it may contain indican and albumin.

Duration.—The disease terminates fatally in from six to eighteen months.

ASCITES

Pathologic Definition.—An accumulation of fluid (serous, sanguineous, purulent, or chylous) in the peritoneal sac, with consequent distention of the abdomen. Disease of the suprarenal glands may influence osmosis, and thus favor an accumulation of fluid in the peritoneal sac, (see Suprarenal, p. 1153).

General Remarks.—This symptom is considered separately, since it displays so wide a variety of physical signs and aggravates an equally large number of other annoying symptoms. The conditions capable of causing an accumulation of liquid in the peritoneal cavity are: (1) Cirrhosis of the liver. (2) Pulsating liver (secondary to tricuspid regurgitation). (3) Echinococcus cyst of the liver. (4) Perihepatitis. (5) Peritoneal adhesions binding down the portal vein as it enters the liver, and general peritoneal adhesions, both of which conditions interfere with the return blood-current from the mesentery. (6) Tuberculosis of the peritoneum. (7) Carcinoma of the peritoneum. (8) Retroperitoneal sarcoma or Löbstein's cancer. (9) Sclerosis of the mesentery. (10) Tumors of the uterus—fibroma, myoma, and carcinoma. (11) Tumors of the ovaries—sarcoma, tuberculosis, and abscess. (12) Tumors of the kidneys—sarcoma, hypernephroma, and hydronephrosis. (13) Enlargement of the spleen (malarial, leukemic). (14) Perisplenitis. (15) Essential anemias, leukemia, and less often pernicious anemia and chlorosis. (16) Secondary anemia, as is seen in ankylostomiasis, pernicious malaria, and chronic mineral poisoning. (17) Chronic parenchymatous nephritis and late in chronic interstitial nephritis. (18) Valvular heart lesions with tricuspid insufficiency. (19) Cirrhosis of the lung. (20) A large pleural effusion. (21) Tumors of the abdomen pressing on the ascending vena cava or portal vein. (22) Mesenteric thrombosis, and visceral syphilis.

The following table may serve in classifying the causes of ascites under their respective subheadings:

(*a*) Diseases of the Peritoneum:

Tuberculous peritonitis.
Carcinomatous peritonitis.
Non-suppurative acute peritonitis.
Peritoneal adhesions.
"Simple" chronic peritonitis.
Hydatid cysts in the peritoneal cavity.
See Disease of the Suprarenal Glands.

(*b*) Obstruction to the Main Portal Vein:

Non-suppurative thrombosis.
Peritoneal adhesions.
Aneurysm.

(*c*) Tumors and Enlargements of Adjacent Organs:

Liver.	Duodenum.
Pancreas.	Colon.
Kidney.	Suprarenal capsule.
Stomach.	Retroperitoneal sarcoma.

(*d*) Hepatic Causes:

Atrophic cirrhosis.	Carcinoma.
Hypertrophic cirrhosis.	Sarcoma.
Perihepatitis.	Cyanotic liver with enlargement.
Syphilis.	Pulsating liver (chronic).
Hydatid disease.	

Any condition accompanied by extensive enlargement of the liver may, from obstruction by tortion or pressure of the portal vein, be accompanied by ascites. (See Causes of Hepatic Enlargement, p. 616.)

(*e*) Obstruction of the Inferior Vena Cava:

Thrombosis.	Congenital cysts.
Obstruction of thoracic duct.	Filariasis.
Rupture thoracic duct.	Stenosis by chronic mediastinal adhesions.
Rupture of the receptaculum chyli (chylous ascites).	Occlusion by mediastinal growth.
Chronic adhesive pleurisy.	

(*f*) Chronic Valvular Heart Conditions Usually Accompanied by:

Tricuspid regurgitation.
Mitral stenosis.
Mitral regurgitation.
Aortic stenosis.
Aortic regurgitation.

Myocarditis	Fatty degeneration.	Fibroid heart.
	Fatty infiltration.	Primary alcoholic heart.
	Fatty superposition.	

Adherent pericardium.

(*g*) Nephritis:

In Bright's disease ascites may be caused in different ways:
Part of a general dropsy.
Secondary to hypertrophy and dilatation of the heart, followed by failure of compensation and tricuspid regurgitation.

(*h*) Essential Anemias:

Splenomedullary leukemia.	Aplastic anemia.
Lymphatic leukemia.	Splenic anemia.
Hodgkin's disease (rare).	Pernicious anemia.

Varieties.—In the vast majority of all cases fluid obtained from the peritoneal sac will be found to be **serous** in character; and when studied microscopically, it will be seen to contain white blood-cells, endothelial cells, and an occasional red cell. This type of ascites is usually considered under the head of **serous** or **true ascites,** and results from mechanical causes or a mild inflammation of the peritoneum.

In still other cases we encounter a more dense exudate—*e. g.*, in tuberculosis of the peritoneum and carcinoma of the peritoneum, while a *sanguineous* exudate is by no means uncommon. Ruptured ectopic gestation also causes the peritoneal fluid to be bloody. In certain instances the fluid is merely a transudate, *e. g.*, following valvular heart disease, renal insufficiency, and leukemia.

Purulent ascites may follow a chronic suppurative process involving a portion of the peritoneum, and occasionally there is a purulent infection of the entire peritoneal surface. Pus from caries of bony structures rarely enters the peritoneum.

Chylous ascites is the name applied to two rare conditions in both of which milky fluid collects in the peritoneal cavity.

Principal Complaint.—The patient states that his abdomen has been enlarged, and that his clothing has been uncomfortably tight for a period of weeks or months. He also complains of a sense of weight in the lower part of the abdomen, and usually suffers from such gastro-intestinal disturbances as nausea, anorexia, vomiting, and hemorrhoids. Since the majority of symptoms due to ascites are more or less common to many of the pathologic conditions from which it arises, it is considered unnecessary at this point to discuss at great length the symptomatology of this condition.

Physical Signs.—Inspection.—When the patient is resting in a supine position, the abdomen bulges laterally between the ribs and the



Fig. 239.—Position of the Patient and Method of Employing a Binder in Aspiration of the Abdomen for Ascitic Fluid.

crests of the ilia, and there is a variable degree of flattening at the umbilicus. When there is a large amount of fluid and the distention is extreme, there is but little change in shape as the result of position, except when in the standing posture, when the anterior portion of the abdomen below the umbilicus is somewhat pendulous. The skin overlying the abdomen becomes shiny, and the veins are prominent. There is often seen at the umbilicus a network of dilated veins—the so-called "caput medusæ." There is swelling of the lower extremities and the genitalia, and edema of the prepuce and scrotum may be most annoying.

Palpation.—If the amount of peritoneal fluid is small, palpation is negative; but when there is a liberal quantity of liquid in the sac, it is possible to obtain a wave of fluctuation, which is elicited by placing the palm of the left hand against one side of the abdomen, and then tapping the opposite side of the abdomen with the right hand while an assistant holds his hand upon the abdomen at the median line, in order to break any jar that may be conveyed through the abdominal wall.

The abdominal wall may be hard and lusterless, owing to the general effusion of the serum into the alveolar tissue, and a characteristic sensation is detected by palpating over the "caput medusæ." The lower portion of the abdominal wall, particularly in the region of the hips and loins, pits upon pressure and is rarely sensitive.

Percussion.—When the patient is resting upon his back, there is a varying area of flatness in both flanks, and above and anterior to this area a tympanitic note is obtained (Fig. 241). The area of liver dullness is, as a rule, approximately that of the normal, but a large collection of ascitic fluid may force a portion of the bowel between the surface of the liver and the anterior abdominal wall, making it impossible for the examiner to outline the lower border of hepatic dullness anteriorly. Posteriorly, the level of liver dullness will be found to be from one-half to one and one-half inches higher than normal. The area of splenic dullness is changed by the presence of a large accumulation of ascitic fluid. The area of cardiac dullness is higher in cases in which a large amount of peritoneal fluid is present, and after ascites has existed for some time, the area of cardiac dullness is often found to be increased as the result of an effusion into the pericardium. (See Hydropericardium, p. 627; also Figs. 241–242.)

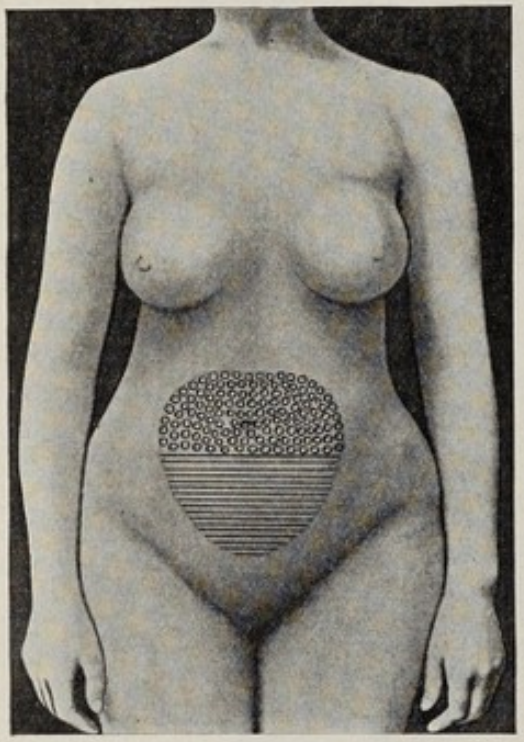


Fig. 240.—Lines Indicate Area of Flatness Due to Distention of the Bladder or the Uterus.

Dotted area indicates that portion of the solid mass where intestine is interposed between it and the abdominal wall, and over which area modified tympanitic note is obtained.

Upon change of posture—*e. g.*, on sitting or standing—the area of flatness due to the presence of fluid will occupy the lower portion of the abdomen, whereas the area of tympany will be transferred to the upper portion. Again, on turning the patient from side to side the area of flatness disappears from the superior side, to be replaced by a corresponding area of tympany. Lastly, the level of flatness will be found to change perceptibly while the patient is sitting merely by tilting him backward or forward.

Summary and Differential Diagnosis.—Distention of the abdomen with the presence of an area of flatness that changes its position with the change of posture of the patient is positive evidence of the presence of free fluid in the peritoneal cavity. The detection of a wave of fluctuation is further confirmatory, but by no means infallible, evidence of the existence of ascites. Cysts of the peritoneum, tympanites, ovarian cysts, and hemoperitoneum are to be separated from ascites.

The table on p. 631 is designed to set forth the definitive features of ascites, etc. (See also Fig. 241.)

CHYLOUS ASCITES

Remarks.—For convenience of study, two types of chylous ascites are described—true and false. The former arises from a rupture of the

Ascites.	Polyhydramnios.	Overdistended Bladder.	Ovarian Cyst.	Chronic Tympanites.
1. History of chronic heart, liver, or lung disease, one of the conditions known to cause ascites.	1. History of pregnancy.	1. History of urethral obstruction or of some disease of the spinal cord from which the muscular power of the bladder has become impaired.	1. A history of a long-standing tumor of the abdomen which is continually progressing in size.	1. History of abdominal fullness, which varies in degree, and is somewhat influenced by the taking of certain foods and by constipation.
2. Contour of the abdomen shows flattening at the umbilicus and bulging in the flanks when in the recumbent posture.	2. Less decided flattening.	2. Bulging in the flanks moderate.	2. More marked in one than in the other flank.	2. Position of the patient does not change the contour of the abdomen.
3. In the erect posture there is a pouting of the abdomen below the umbilicus.	3. Distention appears to occupy the center of the abdomen and the area below the umbilicus.	3. Distention occupies the lower portion of the abdomen, seldom extending above the umbilicus.	3. Distention over the pelvis, seldom rising high in abdomen.	3. Distention general, and at one or other side or at the top. The abdomen may be unevenly distended.
4. Fluctuation wave is present.	4. Fetal movements present. There may be a distinct wave of fluctuation.	4. Fluctuation rare, yet possible, but when present is limited to the lower part of abdomen.	4. Fluctuation present, but is usually limited to certain portions of the abdomen, giving evidence of a loculated cyst.	4. Absent.
5. The abdominal wall overlying the fluid has lost its normal feel.	5. Less marked change.	5. Seldom is the degree of distention sufficient to have destroyed the ordinary feel of the abdominal wall.	5. Abdominal wall resembles closely that found in ascites if the cyst is large.	5. Abdominal wall normal.
6. When resting on the back there are flatness in the flanks and tympany in the region of the umbilicus and at the top of the abdomen.	6. Less pronounced tympany in the region of the umbilicus, but markedly tympanitic above the uterus.	6. No tympanitic note between the bladder and the anterior abdominal wall.	6. There may or may not be tympany anterior to the cyst.	6. Tympany over all portions of the abdomen, and particularly below the umbilicus.
7. Normal gurgling heard over the abdomen.	7. Fetal heart-sounds heard after the seventh month.	7. Negative.	7. Negative.	7. Increased gurgling over all portions of the abdomen.
8. Aspiration recovers either serous or chylous fluid, the latter being readily distinguished from any other substance found in the peritoneal sac. Serous ascitic fluid has a specific gravity of between 1.005 and 1.010.	8. May recover amniotic fluid, which is usually rich in crystals of cholesterin.	8. Specific gravity of fluid varies between 1.015 and 1.025.	8. Specific gravity of fluid usually 1.020 to 1.025, pale and cloudy, may contain cholesterin crystals and rarely blood.	8. No fluid recovered by aspiration.
9. Fluid contains serum-albumin, and if chylous, is rich in well-emulsified fats.	9. Fluid contains some albumin and emits a characteristic heavy odor.	9. Fluid contains urea in liberal amounts, and emits an odor of urine.	9. Fluid contains albumin.	9. Negative.
10. Microscopically, fluid contains few leukocytes and epithelial cells from the peritoneal wall of the abdomen. Should the fluid be chylous, fat-gobules and epithelial débris are present	10. Microscopically, the fluid may contain crystals of cholesterin and granular débris.	10. Microscopically, the fluid contains epithelium from the bladder or the kidney, and, rarely, renal casts, white blood-cells, and erythrocytes.	10. Fluid is usually rich in crystals of cholesterin and contains much granular matter.	10. Negative.

thoracic duct, or from some pathologic condition that interferes with the passage of chyle through the lymphatics into the receptaculum chyli. In 128 cases of milky ascites analyzed by one of us* many were chylous, others

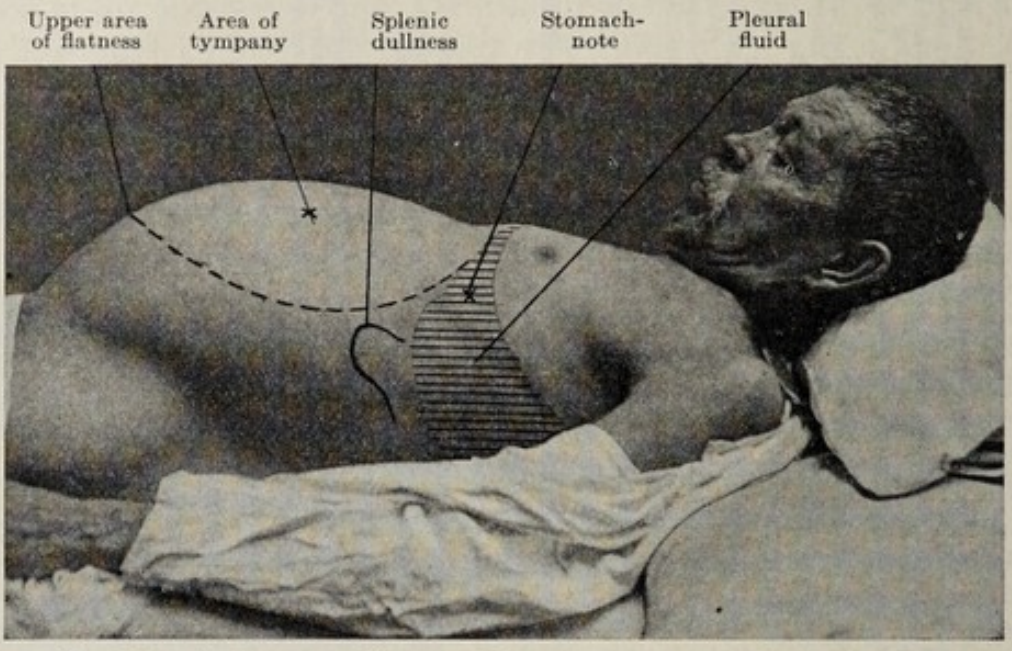


FIG. 241.—ASCITES AND PLEURAL EFFUSION, AREAS OF TYMPANY, ETC.

pseudochylous, and in probably 20 per cent. the records as to what caused the turbidity of the peritoneal fluid were incomplete.

Pseudochylous ascites is a condition in which the peritoneal fluid is milky (chyloid), its turbidity and color being due to the presence of degenerated epithelial cells, microscopic particles of fat, and pigment resulting from such degeneration.

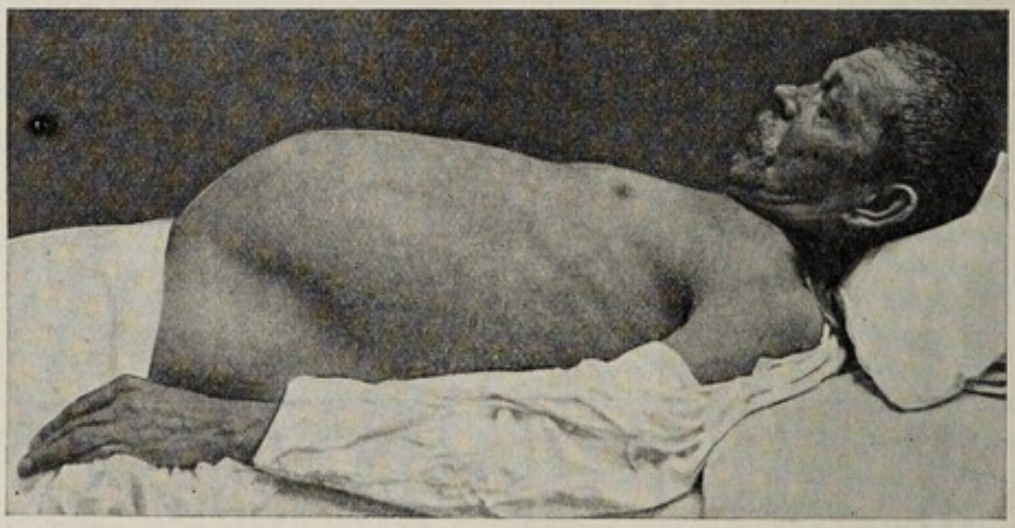


FIG. 242.—ASCITES.

Predisposing and Exciting Factors.—In the series of cases previously cited, chylous ascites was found to complicate carcinoma of the peritoneum in 24; tuberculosis in 17; cardiovascular conditions in 11; rupture of the thoracic duct in 11; disease of the liver in 8; puerperal sepsis in 7; rupture of the receptaculum chyli in 7; congenital cysts in 4; and infection with the filaria bancrofti in 3.

* Jour. Amer. Med. Assoc., February 18, 1905.

Age.—A further analysis as to the number of cases according to the various periods in life gave 6 under one year of age; 3 between one and

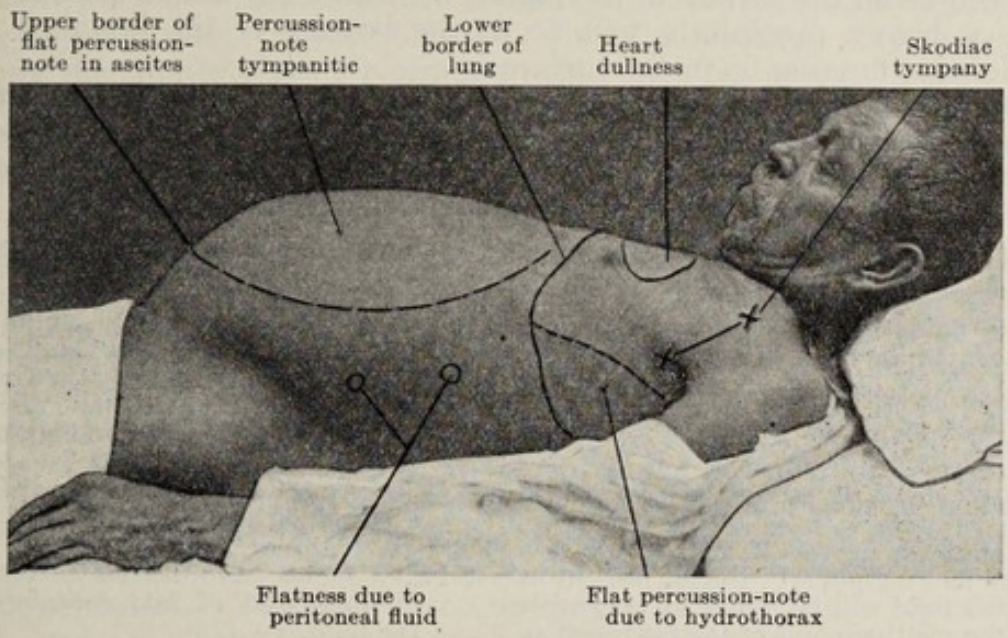


FIG. 243.—CASE OF ADVANCED CARDIAC DISEASE COMPLICATED BY NEPHRITIS WITH EFFUSION INTO THE PERITONEAL AND PLEURAL SACS (studied at Philadelphia General Hospital).

five years; 13 between five and ten years; 9 between ten and twenty years; 12 between twenty and thirty years; 34 between thirty and fifty years; and 24 after the age of fifty.

Sex.—Sixty of the cases analyzed were females, 50 were males, and in the remainder the sex was not given.

Laboratory Diagnosis.—Tuberculosis Peritonitis.—The peritoneal fluid usually shows lymphocytosis, but polynuclear cells are also numerous. Endothelial cells may be present, but their number varies depending upon the stage of the disease at which time the fluid is obtained. Ascites dependent upon hepatic disease displays few cellular elements, and these chiefly of the endothelial type.

True chylous peritoneal fluid always results from an admixture of chyle, yet pseudochylous fluid is by far the more common finding. It was first pointed out by Pagenstecher that the milky appearance of ascitic fluid depended upon fatty degeneration of the cells derived from the serous membrane, or upon an alteration in an inflammatory exudate—possibly an admixture of mucoid substance.

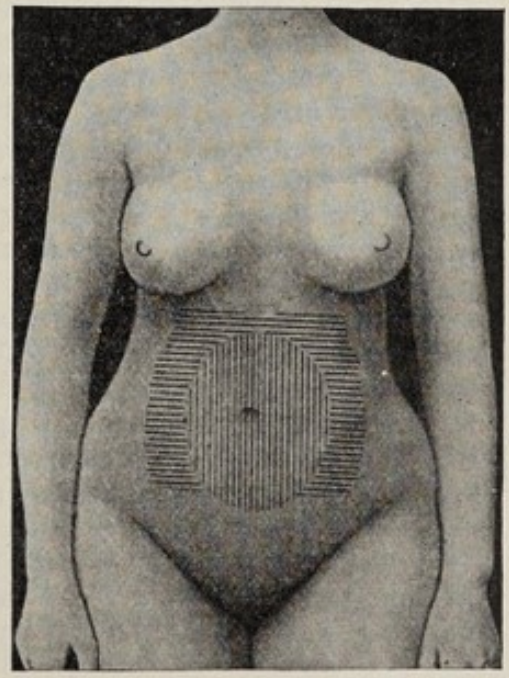


FIG. 244.—ASCITES.

Transverse lines indicate area of flatness when patient is in the recumbent posture, while the vertical lines transcribe the area of tympany.

Chylous ascitic fluid will be found to have a specific gravity of about 1.013, and according to Pagenstecher it contains 3.06 per cent. of albumin, 2.087 per cent. of fat, and 0.32 per cent. of sugar. Chylous fluid, when

allowed to stand in the cold, will show a heavy precipitate upon the top and bottom of the fluid. If the fluid is truly chylous, the heavier precipitate will be on the surface of the liquid, whereas if the fluid is pseudochylous, a heavy precipitate will be at the bottom of the liquid, a few oil-globules floating upon the surface.

Microscopically, chylous fluid is found to consist, for the most part, of well-emulsified fats (small globules), a variable amount of pigment, large fat-globules, and granular débris. In both varieties red blood-cells may be present. (See Method of Aspiration, Fig. 239, p. 629.)

DISTINCTIVE FEATURES OF CHYLOUS AND PSEUDOCHYLOUS FLUIDS

Chylous Effusion	Pseudochylous Effusion
1. The fluid consists of a fine emulsion containing but few cellular elements.	1. A less perfect emulsion, containing large numbers of epithelial cells, which are seen to display the various stages of degeneration and to contain few fat-droplets and granular débris.
2. It accumulates rapidly after removal by tapping.	2. Collects more slowly, varying with the exciting pathologic causes.
3. It contains sugar.	3. Sugar is absent, as a rule.
4. The melting-point of the fat present in the fluid will be found to vary with the melting-point of the fat taken as food.	4. Fatty foods have no effect on the melting-point of fats contained in the fluid.
5. The fat-droplets are small and uniform in size.	5. Great variation in size of fat-droplets.
6. The amount of fat present is in direct relation to the amount of fats ingested.	6. The amount of fat present is not affected by diet.

Clinical Course of Ascites.—An accumulation of fluid may remain in the peritoneal sac for long periods of time, and we have seen cases in which the quantity of fluid in the sac varied greatly at different examinations covering a period of several years. In the majority of instances ascites, when pronounced, is a precursor of a fatal termination, which may occur within a few months or, at the longest, within one year. Rest, stimulation, tapping, and surgical interference materially modify the duration and general course of ascites and prolong life.

We have seen several cases in which surgical intervention (Talma operation) has effected a cure, and one instance in which chronic peritonitis following aspiration resulted in the formation of extensive adhesions and the disappearance of fluid from the peritoneal cavity.

If the ascites is cardiac in origin, the peritoneal sac will be found to fill with fluid when the patient overexercises; and, on the other hand, as the result of rest and medication, such fluid will be absorbed. Although ascites, irrespective of its cause, is a somewhat unfavorable symptom, it is by no means a positive sign of an early fatal termination in all cases, and it is, therefore, to be regarded as a symptom amenable to treatment whenever it is possible to combat the exciting factors.

MESENTERIC EMBOLISM AND THROMBOSIS

Pathologic Findings.—A condition characterized by atheroma and, at times, occlusion of the mesenteric vessels. Trotter in his analysis of 366 cases found the arteries concerned in 53, veins in 41, and both arteries and veins in 6 per cent. Mesenteric aneurysm has been reported.

Etiology.—Occlusion may be embolic, arising from both acute and chronic endocarditis, aortitis and endocarditis. The mesenteric veins are the site of thrombi, during the course of portal stasis, hepatic cirrho-

sis, pylephlebitis and suppurative processes in the appendix and pelvic organs. Peritonitis may be complicated by infarction and necrosis.

Complaint.—Sudden severe abdominal pains, nausea, vertigo, vomiting and a variable degree of shock. Bowel movements may be bloody. Rarely the clinical picture resembles acute intestinal obstruction.

Signs.—Tympanites develops early. The signs of acute peritonitis appear later. Rarely a mesenteric tumor (hematoma) is palpable.

MESENTERIC ANGINA (ANGINA ABDOMINALIS)

The pathologic changes are those of cirrhosis of the mesenteric and intestinal arteries. The condition is always associated with or may occur late during the course of general arterial degeneration.

Predisposing and Exciting Factors.—Among these focal infection of long standing is the most potent factor. High blood-pressure when continued over a long period is liable to induce abdominal angina. Angina pectoris is not infrequently a precursor of angina abdominalis. Late in the course of high blood-pressure, and at a time after myocarditis is well advanced, the blood-pressure may be normal or subnormal, and at the same time recurrent attacks of abdominal angina exist.

Complaint.—The attacks occur independently of the ingestion of food, and are likely to develop when the patient is reclining. There are commonly other features, including paroxysmal hypertension of the pulse and transient paresis of the segment of bowel involved, together with tympanites and obstinate constipation. Vomiting may rarely occur, and the abdomen at times is sensitive during the seizure.

Differential Diagnosis.—The pain in mesenteric angina resembles closely that seen during certain stages of gastric ulcer, hemorrhagic pancreatitis, muco-membranous colitis, pylorospasm, and the so-called pain of acute indigestion. However, the frequency of the attacks, the existence of atheroma in other arteries, together with the all important symptom that the pain is worse when the patient is lying in bed, serves to separate angina abdominalis from these conditions.

THE LIVER

METHODS OF EXAMINATION

TOPOGRAPHIC ANATOMY OF THE NORMAL LIVER

In considering the liver, it must be borne in mind that the organ is a somewhat wedged-shaped, solid viscus, suspended from the upper portion of the abdomen, and that, on account of its peculiar contour, it is forced to occupy a position chiefly to the right of the spine, immediately beneath the right lung. The thinner portion of the organ crosses the spinal column, and extends to the left as far as the left parasternal line, at the lower border of the fifth rib. Sometimes, indeed, the left lobe of the liver reaches to the spleen.

The superior surface of the right lobe is decidedly convex (dome-like), and is covered by the diaphragm; it fits snugly into a concavity extending well up into the base of the right lung (Fig. 245). The convexity of the right lobe elevates the diaphragm to the lower border of the fourth rib in the right midclavicular line, from which point it descends somewhat

abruptly toward the sternum and the right axillary line. (See Figs. 245 and 247.) Consequently, the greater area of parietal dullness (uncovered liver) is found in the right midclavicular line. In the right scapular and midaxillary lines the liver is found as low as the eleventh rib. (See Figs. 247 and 248.)

The inferior surface of the right lobe of the liver is adjacent to the pyloric end of the stomach, duodenum, hepatic flexure of the colon, and top of the right kidney. The inferior surface of the left lobe is in contact with the stomach, and its lower rounded edge sometimes rests upon the transverse colon, whereas the extreme left superior surface is immediately beneath the heart (Fig. 249).

The antero-inferior margin (rounded edge) of the liver extends from the right body wall obliquely between the ninth and tenth costal cartilages, and thence across the median line at the junction of the upper one-third with the lower two-thirds of a line extending between the tip of the ensiform cartilage and the umbilicus, to the left eighth costal cartilage. The peculiarly curved outline of the rounded edge of the liver is shown in Figs. 248 and 249. The interlobular notch is in the median line.

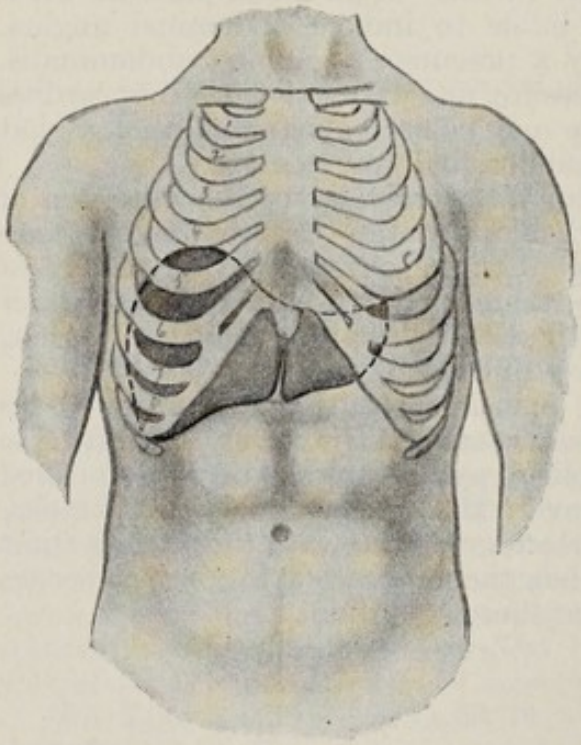


FIG. 245.—NORMAL AREA OF LIVER AND ITS RELATION TO THE ABDOMEN AND THORAX.

The gall-bladder projects from beneath the liver at the point at which the right linea semilunaris crosses the ninth right costal cartilage.

Age and Posture.—The liver is relatively larger in children than in young adults, and the rounded edge (antero-inferior margin) extends from one to one and one-half inches below the costal margin in the midclavicular and midaxillary lines (Fig. 247). After the fiftieth year the size of the liver is reduced (due to atrophic and sclerotic changes), the lower border being one inch above the margin of the ribs, in the right midclavicular line. It is important to estimate accurately the topography of the liver in the aged, in order to eliminate the possible existence of hepatic cirrhosis.

Owing to the function of the suspensory ligament, the position of the liver changes slightly with the position of the patient—*e. g.*, when lying upon the left side, the right lobe descends for a distance of an inch or more, whereas the left lobe displays a corresponding rise (Fig. 251; see also Fig. 250) and is seen well up underneath the heart.

Deep inspiration forces the liver downward, so that, in subjects with thin or relaxed abdominal walls, its rounded edge can be distinctly palpated immediately below the costal margin.

ESTIMATION OF LIVER FUNCTION

Thus far the aim of most function tests as applied to the liver has been directed toward the discovery of some dye, that would be eliminated

through the hepatic secretion in a manner somewhat analogous to the phenolsulphonephthalein tests in vogue for the estimation of kidney function. Indigo carmine when injected intravenously in doses of 0.16 gm. appears in the bile in an appreciable amount within twenty minutes. The bile partakes of a grass green color upon the appearance of indigo carmine. The green color attains its maximum in two or three hours following the injection. At the expiration of three hours the intensity of the green color gradually diminishes until the sixth hour.

Significance.—Liver function is regarded normal when elimination begins in twenty minutes and reaches tis maximum by the end of three hours. In hepatic disease (without jaundice) 0.16 gm. of indigo carmine may be followed by no appreciable appearance of its color in the bile. In diabetes an increased elimination of the dye is common and this hyperpermeability of the liver is claimed to be fairly characteristic of this condition.

Our colleagues Drs. G. M. Piersol and H. L. Bockus have conducted a series of tests in the laboratory of the Graduate School for Medicine, University of Pennsylvania and presented a paper upon their findings, in fifty cases of hepatic disease, before the Association of American Physicians, held at Washington, D. C. May 4, 1922.

Technic: (1) With the tip of the duodenal tube in the duodenum 150 mgms. of the disodium salt of phenoltetrachlorphthalein are injected intravenously. (Supplied in ampules by Hynson, Westcott and Dunning, each cubic centimeter of solution containing 50 mgms. of dye.)

(2) Time of injection is recorded.

(3) Five-hundred cubic centimeters of water is given by mouth every half hour to insure a constant drip from the tube. The dye is not injected until this drip has been established.

(4) The bile stained fluid is collected in white basins. The appearance time of the first (faint pink) color is recorded as the first appearance time. The maximum intensity of color (purple) is recorded as the maximum color change. (Three or four cubic centimeters of 40 per cent. NaOH is added to the basins to bring out the color.)

(5) All the bile eliminated through the duodenal tube over a period of two hours following the injection of the dye is collected in basins, each half hour's output being segregated.

(6) The dye excreted is separated from the bile and the amount estimated by a simple colorimetric method.

Conclusions: "quoted" (1) We have presented here a technic in detail which we believe yields information of decided value concerning the functional competency of the liver.

(2) As the duodenal tube is now being generally used, this test can be carried out in the average clinic with ease.

(3) In a series of fifty (50) cases we found that in a general way a delay in the appearance time of the dye is proportionate to a decrease in the dye output.

(4) In 15 normal cases the average appearance time of the maximum color was 11.6 minutes. In 10 cases with grossly pathologic livers it was 23.2 min. In 25 cases with moderate and slight liver disease there was a proportionate delay in the appearance time, as a rule. The appearance time of the maximum color is of more significance than that of the first (faint pink) color.

(5) The dye output in two hours in the normal series averaged 22.4 mgms.; in the grossly pathological cases it averaged but 2.7 mgms.

(6) In grossly pathologic livers the maximum color is twice as long in making its appearance as in normal cases. (23.2 min.; 11.6 min.), but

the dye output in grossly pathologic livers averaged but one eighth that for normal cases (2.7 mgms.; 22.4 mgms.). The dye output is of more significance than the appearance time of the dye.

(7) Thirty to thirty-five per cent. of the dye was recovered in the feces in 48 hours in normal cases by the older method. We recovered 15 per cent. of the dye in two hours with the duodenal tube in normal cases.

(8) In the normal cases the 24 hour urine following the injection was free from dye.

(9) Piersol and Bockus believe that in this test we have a method of measuring the functional capacity of the liver when it is clinically negative to other methods of examination. It is in this group of cases particularly that the quantitative two hour output (Rosenthal's method) will be of significance.

Fouchet's Test for bile pigment in the blood is positive in a dilution up to 1 in 60,000. Place 3 drops of serum on a white porcelain surface, add 3 drops of reagent (20 c.c. H_2O, 2 c.c. of 10 per cent. $FeCl_3$, 5. g. trichloracetic acid). A whitish coagulum results. Should the reaction be positive the coagulum turns a greenish-blue colour, reaching the maximum in twenty minutes. It suggests liver dysfunction.

DISEASES OF THE LIVER

ANOMALIES OF POSITION

Anomalies of position are occasionally encountered, the organ being displaced downward or laterally. The common cause of displacement is

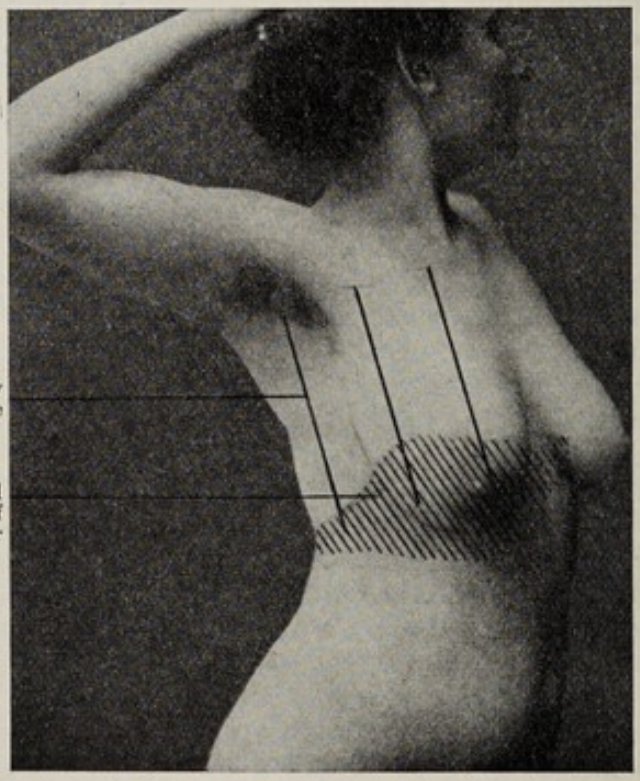


FIG. 246.—ARCHED PORTION OF LIVER SHADED TO SHOW RELATION TO THE NIPPLES IN THE FEMALE AND EXTENT TO RIGHT OF MEDIAN LINE.

an unusual lengthening of the suspensory ligament, which may permit the viscus to occupy any portion of the abdomen. A relaxed abdominal wall and ptosis of other abdominal viscera, *e. g.*, colon and stomach, are usually found to accompany hepatoptosis. In 1908 Savelieff collected

from the literature 118 reports of cases, and Andresen* reported five (5) cases in 1911.

Clinical Varieties.—(*a*) Hepatoptosis, without any annoying symptoms; (*b*) wherein the symptoms of chronic gastritis are prominent; (*c*) hepatalgic types, where hepatic and scapular pains are annoying; (*d*) cases where hepatic colic is the leading complaint, and (*e*) cases showing dyspnea and at times asthmatic seizures.

Diagnosis.—Hepatic displacement is more easily recognized by employing an auscultatory percussion (patient standing, see Fig. 252, also topography, p. 635). It will be found in selected cases that the upper level of liver dullness varies according to posture, and when the patient is erect the liver note is one or two interspaces higher, than when in the recumbent. This condition is believed to depend upon tonus of the diaphragm and intra-abdominal tension.

Recognition.—Anomalies in position are recognized by the fact that the liver dullness is absent in the area in which it is normally present, and that dullness and a palpable mass are present elsewhere in the abdomen. Upon firm palpation and change of posture the liver may be returned to its normal position, except in cases of transposition of the viscera. The liver is also transferred in transposition of viscera.

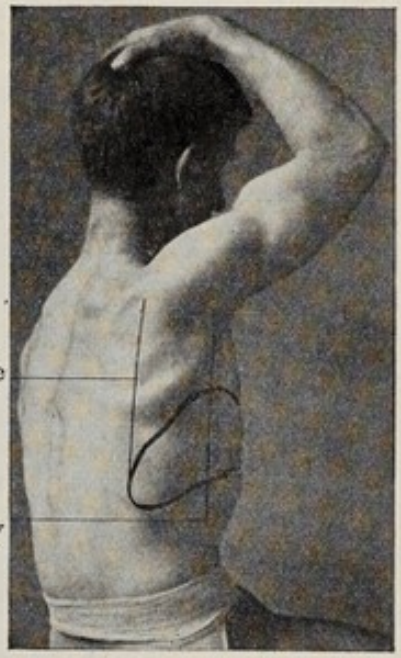


FIG. 247.—RELATION OF LIVER TO AXILLARY AND SCAPULAR REGIONS.

Abnormalities in contour are extremely rare, and can be definitely demonstrated only upon those persons in whom the abdominal wall is thin and flaccid.

Abnormalities of the liver do not concern us clinically, except in so far as they are associated with annoying symptoms, *e. g.*, a weight in the abdomen, discomfort, or pain that may radiate to the right shoulder and to the back. Intense acute pain may follow a sudden jar with marked traction or with torsion of the suspensory ligament.

Clinical Considerations.—Clinically speaking, we have found it practical, for teaching purposes, to divide diseases of the liver into four classes: (*a*) Those conditions in which there is a permanent, abnormal enlargement of the organ; (*b*) acute temporary enlargement; moderate but temporary enlargement is a feature of most of the acute fever, *e. g.*, typhoid fever, scarlet fever, yellow fever, etc.; in this type of enlargement the liver usually assumes its normal size during convalescence; (*c*) pathologic states resulting in an undue contraction of the viscus; and (*d*) conditions in which jaundice and the many symptoms associated with it are present.

(*a*) Permanent enlargement of the liver is found in the following conditions: (1) Hypertrophic cirrhosis. (2) Hepatic carcinoma. (3) Sarcoma. (4) Cyanotic congestion (due to organic heart lesions). (5) Abscess. (6) Echinococcus cysts. (7) Distended gall-bladder. (8)

* N. Y. Med. Jour., Dec. 23, 1911.

Fatty degeneration. (9) Fatty infiltration. (10) Amyloid disease. (11) Leukemia. (12) Early stage of atrophic cirrhosis. (13) Perihepatitis (early stage). (14) Tuberculosis. (15) Obstruction to the cystic duct. (16) Hemochromatosis, (17) Splenic anemia.

(*c*) Among the pathologic conditions known to produce an abnormally small liver are: (1) Syphilis (inherited). (2) Syphilis (chronic). (3) Atrophic cirrhosis (late stage). (4) Acute yellow atrophy. (5) Phosphorous-poisoning. (6) Capsular (Glissonian) cirrhosis.

INFECTIOUS JAUNDICE

Historical Note.—The flagellate acting as a causal factor in this malady, spirocheta icterohemorrhagica, was first described by Inado and Ido. These observers recovered it in the blood of patients suffering from infectious jaundice (Weil's Disease). The leptospira was first detected in Japanese subjects, but reports have been received from other sections of the world. The flagellate is also found in the spinal fluid, the urine and in the tissues, between the tenth and fifteenth days of the disease. The microorganism is variable in size, measuring from 5μ to 20μ in length.

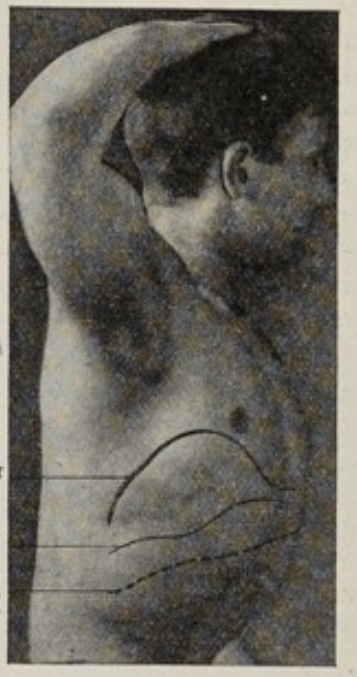


FIG. 248.—EFFECT OF RESPIRATION UPON THE POSITION OF THE LIVER.

Clinical Features.—The disease is as a rule epidemic, developing suddenly with a chill, headache, abdominal distress, pain, nausea and vomiting. The fever ranges between 102° and 104°. Aching of the muscles is present, and a variable degree of jaundice appears in from the third to the fifth day, when the liver shows moderate enlargement. The urine is rich in albumin, contains the spirocheta and many casts. An examination of the blood reveals leukocytosis and the spirocheta icterohemorrhagica. Hemorrhage into the mucous membrane is seen in severe cases, and the nervous symptoms of nephritis are often present. Eye complications and psychoses are occasionally observed. Goldstein has published a brief paper on the subject.*

HYPERTROPHIC CIRRHOSIS

Pathologic Definition.—The organ is increased in size, and the lower margin is several inches below the border of the ribs. The inferior margin of the liver is somewhat rounded and thicker than normal. The organ cuts with unusual resistance, and the cut surface presents a mottled, yellowish, slightly green appearance.

Microscopically, there are round-cell infiltration of the peripheral zone of the hepatic acini, with the formation of embryonal tissue, and hyperplasia of the interlobular connective tissue. Late during the course of the disease the interlobular connective tissue undergoes hyperplasia and produces obstruction of the bile-ducts, with retention of bile.

* Med. Times, N. Y., October, 1923.

French writers refer to biliary cirrhosis in which there is also obstruction of the bile-ducts with retention of bile and swelling of the organ. The microscopic changes in this form of cirrhosis simulate in many respects those just described for the hypertrophic variety of the disease, except that the hepatic cells are more deeply bile-stained, and that isolated areas of necrosis are present in the peripheral zone of the acini. The formation of new ducts and liver-cells may also be observed.

Varieties.—(*a*) Hypertrophic cirrhosis of Hanot; (*b*) biliary cirrhosis, which is probably precipitated by obstruction of the bile-ducts. The action of the bile, when under high tension, upon the liver tends to produce sclerotic changes later, but clinically the majority of cases of this type are quite identical with those of hypertrophic cirrhosis, although pathologically they are not the same. The following types are recognized:—splenomegalic, hypersplenomegalic, metasplenomegalic and (where the

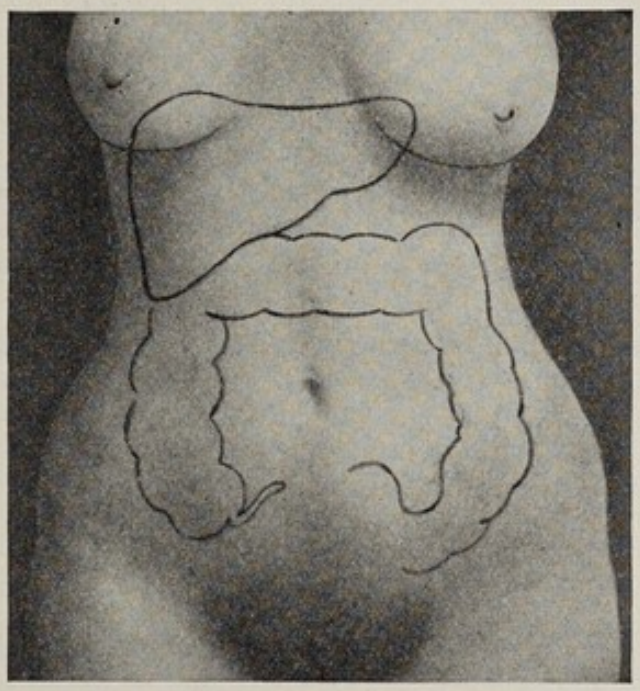


FIG. 249.—RELATION OF LIVER AND COLON TO THE GENERAL ANTERIOR AREA OF THE ABDOMEN.

large spleen is the first sign) presplenomegalic. It is not deemed advantageous to enter into further discussion of these subvarieties of hepatic cirrhosis.

Predisposing Factors.—Sex.—Males are most frequently affected, the ratio being six to one. **Age** exerts some influence, the majority of cases occurring during early adult and middle life. Hypertrophic cirrhosis in children is extremely uncommon. Cirrhosis may accompany sarcoma and carcinoma.

More recently considerable attention has been given to disease of the gall-bladder, and of the gastro-intestinal tract in connection with this affection. Some cases appear to be traceable to focal infection, and in this connection disease of the rectum deserves special mention.

Principal Complaint.—The patient grows progressively weaker, and, in addition to being easily exhausted, he is unable to concentrate his mind. With the progress of the condition there is moderate delirium at night, which may become so severe as to demand restraint. Maniacal delirium, carphologia, and jactitation are seen late.

The *appetite* is variable, and later there is but little desire for food. *Nausea* is not uncommon, and the vomiting of bile-stained material is an occasional complaint. *Itching* may not be an annoying symptom, although the patient is almost continuously unconsciously irritating the skin.

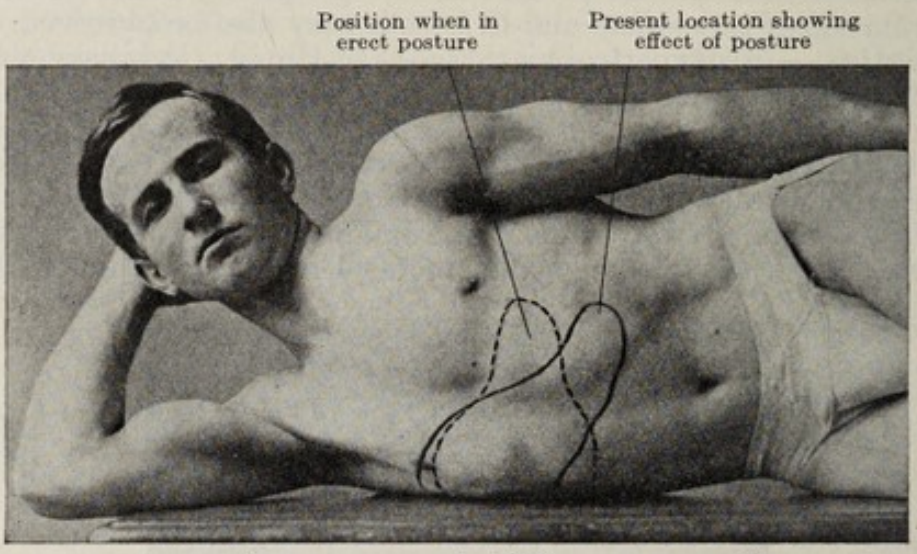


FIG. 250.—EFFECT OF POSTURE UPON THE POSITION OF THE NORMAL LIVER.

Hand in hand with increasing weakness there is a gradual enlargement of the abdomen. *Paroxysmal cramp-like pains* are often experienced, although they are, as a rule, less severe than are the pains of hepatic colic. Hemorrhoids and ascites may or may not develop.

Thermic Features.—Early the temperature may be normal, and there are occasional instances in which fever is absent throughout the

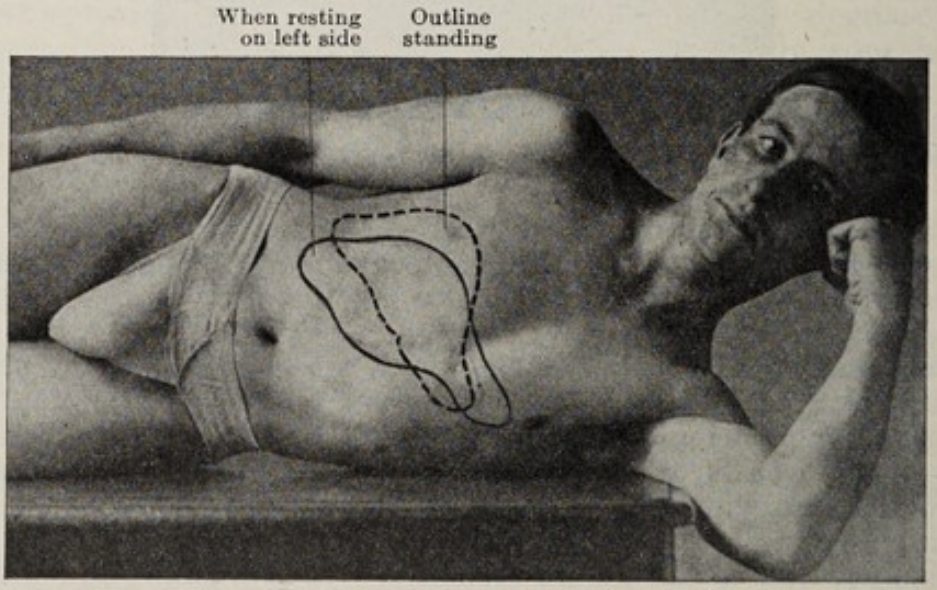


FIG. 251.—EFFECT OF POSTURE UPON THE POSITION OF THE NORMAL LIVER.

entire course of the disease. As a rule, however, the temperature ranges between 99° and 100° F. at the time when there is but slight jaundice, but later, and when there are other severe symptoms, *e. g.*, profound jaundice, delirium, ecchymoses, and constipation, the temperature fluctuates between 101° and 104° F.

Physical Signs.—Inspection.—The skin is slightly jaundiced even during the early stage, the jaundice becoming more and more intense as the disease advances. The tongue is glazed at first, but later becomes heavily coated, fissured, and there may be sordes upon the teeth. Small hemorrhages into both the skin and mucous membranes usually develop, and the veins over the chest and abdomen are distended. The abdomen is prominent early, and increases in size until death. The conjunctivæ are jaundiced, and profuse sweating in the axillary and inguinal regions is the rule. (See Jaundice, p. 640.) Telangiectases common.

Palpation.—The skin is somewhat roughened to the touch, and may at times display a slightly elevated eruption. The pulse is at first nearly

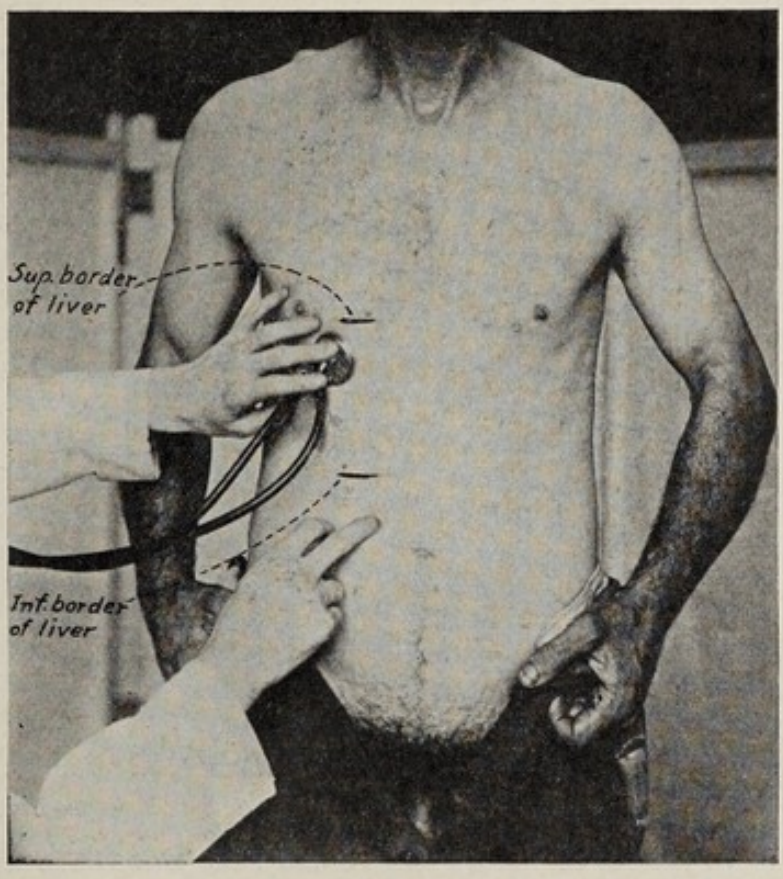


FIG. 252.—OUTLINING THE LIVER BY AUSCULTATORY PERCUSSION.

Begin away from the liver and strike the abdominal wall every one-half inch, approaching the liver until the note produced shows a decided change. This marks the outer margin of the liver.

normal, but with increasing prostration it becomes weak, rapid (100 to 120), compressible, and dicrotic.

There is increased resistance over the superior right abdominal quadrant, and the entire upper portion of the abdominal wall displays undue tension. The rounded edge of the liver is readily palpable, smooth, and may extend below the level of the umbilicus and well to the left side of the abdomen, as was observed in the patient shown in Fig. 254. In cases in which hepatic enlargement is extreme, ascites occasionally develops. (See Physical Signs, p. 633.)

Percussion confirms palpation as regards the area of hepatic enlargement. In those cases in which ascites develops there is flatness in the flanks, which is replaced by tympany when the position of the patient is

changed. Splenic enlargement with increased area of splenic dullness may be present.

Auscultation.—The heart-sounds become weak, and hemic murmurs are audible in the advanced stage.

Laboratory Diagnosis.—In those cases in which vomiting is present the vomitus is usually bile-stained, and contains particles of undigested food and, rarely, blood and shreds of mucus.

The stools are, as a rule, dark—the so-called "bilious stools." There may be sufficient hemorrhage from the intestinal mucous membrane to produce free blood in the stool. The bleeding may, however, be so slight as to be detected only on applying the test for occult blood. Bleeding from hemorrhoids must always be excluded when the occult blood test is positive.

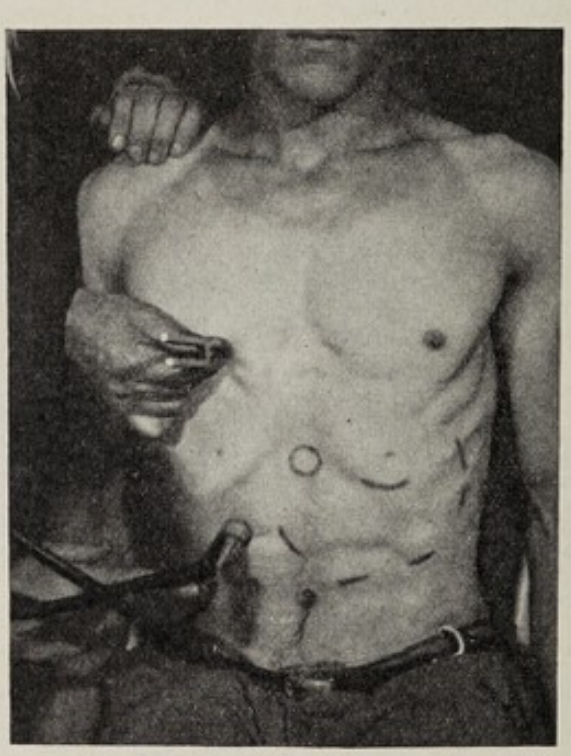


FIG. 253.—AFTER LOCATING THE INFERIOR BORDER OF THE LIVER—FIG. 252—PLACE THE STETHOSCOPE AT THIS AREA, AND SET THE VIBRATING TUNING FORK AGAINST THE CHEST WALL ABOVE THE LIVER. MOVE THE TUNING FORK DOWNWARD WHILE VIBRATING. WHEN THE SURFACE OVERLYING THE LIVER IS REACHED THERE IS AN UNMISTAKABLE CHANGE IN SOUND.

The *urine* is at first slightly colored by bile-pigment, but later it becomes deeply stained; its specific gravity varies between 1.025 and 1.030; upon shaking it displays a heavy froth, and upon standing a decided sediment. *Microscopically*, the leukocytes and epithelial cells are bile-stained, and casts, when present, are likewise stained a pale yellow. Albuminuria is common, but is of moderate consequence, unless tube-casts are present. Crystals of leucin and tyrosin (Fig. 276) are occasionally found in the urine in cases of hypertrophic cirrhosis. The freezing point of the urine is high. Leukocytosis may be present. The blood shows the changes of secondary anemia.

Summary of Diagnosis.—A diagnosis is based upon the presence of persistent jaundice, hepatic enlargement, progressive weakness, hemorrhages into the skin and mucous surfaces, decided nervous symptoms, and fever. In those cases in which fever and nervous symptoms are absent, the diagnosis is made with great difficulty.

Differential Diagnosis.—Hypertrophic or biliary cirrhosis is to be distinguished from *hepatic abscess*, from which it is differentiated by the fact that in abscess the symptoms develop abruptly, the temperature is septic in type, and leukocytosis is of a high grade—15,000 to 30,000 in a cubic millimeter. Biliary cirrhosis is infrequent and examination of the blood will disclose enlargement due to malaria. Obstruction to the common duct, either from conditions within or without the liver, may cause a distinct enlargement of the organ with jaundice, but in such cases prostration, nervous symptoms, and fever are less conspicuous features than in hypertrophic cirrhosis. The fever of gall-stones is usually characteristic. Weil's disease, Banti's disease and syphilis are to be distinguished. The compliment fixation test serves to separate syphilis.

Clinical Course.—The majority of cases terminate fatally in from a few months to one and one-half years.

CARCINOMA OF THE LIVER

Pathologic Definition.—A disease characterized by malignant growths situated in various portions of the liver, which differ in no way from carcinomatous changes found elsewhere. These growths are altered greatly in shape as the result of pressure. The entire organ is markedly enlarged, and whitish or yellowish tumor masses may be seen over its surface, and at times these elevate the hepatic capsule. The cut surface of the organ displays similar growths more or less equally disseminated throughout.

Microscopically, giant-cells and areas of pigment—"brown granules"—are to be found within the carcinomatous masses. The so-called colloid degeneration is also present, and immediately surrounding the carcinoma nests both hyaline and myxomatous degeneration is common. Carcinoma may involve but one lobe of the liver, although a more or less general involvement is somewhat characteristic. Eggels has collected 133 cases of primary hepatic carcinoma, and makes special reference to the frequency with which carcinoma is associated with atrophic cirrhosis. See also Goldstein's survey of the literature.*

Varieties.—Primary carcinomatous involvement of the liver is conceded to be extremely rare. Hepatic carcinoma secondary to carcinoma of the stomach, duodenum, rectum, and bile-ducts comprises by far the majority of all cases of carcinomatous involvement of this viscus.

Exciting Factors.—In primary hepatic carcinoma this is unknown, whereas in secondary carcinoma it is either due to direct extension or to the disease traveling through the blood-vessels or the lymphatics and lodging in the liver, which is best exemplified by hepatic carcinoma following epithelioma of the rectum.

Predisposing Factors.—These are somewhat numerous, and among those known to exercise a decided influence should be mentioned:

(1) **Age.**—The disease is uncommon before the thirtieth year, but common during the fourth and fifth decades.

(2) **Sex.**—Males are more often affected than females.

(3) **Heredity** has long been known to play an important part in the etiology of carcinoma. Lichtenstein analyzed 1137 cases, and found heredity to be a factor in 17 per cent. of them.

(4) **Cholelithiasis.**—Carcinoma of the liver not infrequently follows cholelithiasis, yet it is possible that in these cases the carcinomatous growth originated either in the gall-bladder or in the common duct. It

*American Physician, Aug. 22, 1922, p. 577.

is to be remembered that gall-bladder pathology is a secondary condition, and often due to focal infection. Hepatic cirrhoses may be one link in that clinical chain of focal infection. Goldstein reported an interesting case of primary carcinoma of the liver affecting the region of the fissure and biliary passages. Other cases have appeared from time to time in the literature.

Principal Complaint and Symptoms.—Cases are occasionally encountered in which there are but few, if any, symptoms referable to the liver. We have seen cases at postmortem in which well-advanced carcinoma of the liver existed without having produced any symptoms distinctly referable to that organ. The location of the carcinomatous nodules influences the chief complaint in this disease, viz., pain.

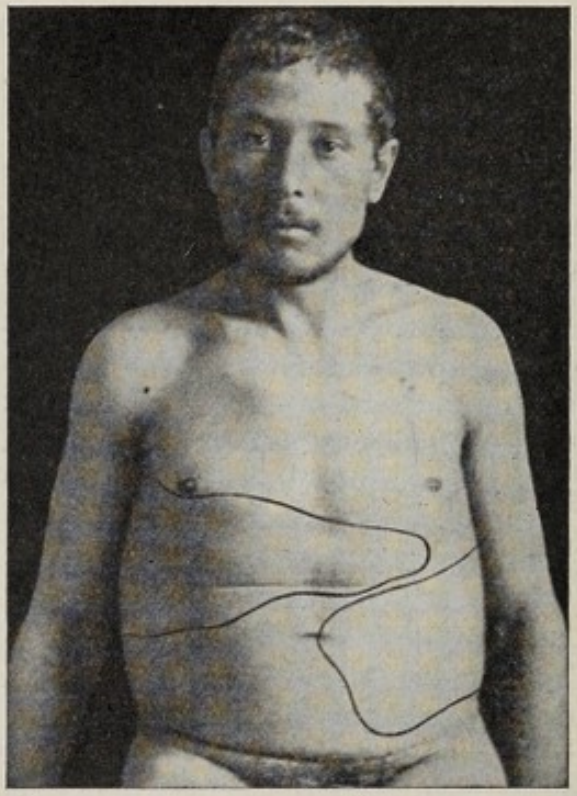


FIG. 254.—EXTREME ENLARGEMENT OF THE CHEST AND ABDOMEN ACCOMPANYING ENLARGEMENT OF THE LIVER AND SPLEEN.

Position of liver and spleen as shown by auscultatory percussion. (Photograph obtained through courtesy of Dr. David Riesman.)

Pain, when present, is more or less constant, dull, boring, and sometimes lancinating, and, as a rule, localized to the superior right abdominal quadrants. When there is considerable peritoneal involvement, or when the bile-ducts are likewise attacked by the carcinomatous process, the pain will be found to radiate to the right scapular region. Pain becomes more annoying with the advance of the disease, and is not relieved by local applications.

Loss of Strength and Emaciation.—Irrespective of the character of the principal complaint, there is always a decided and progressive loss in strength during the entire course of the disease, and the patient always observes that he is becoming markedly emaciated. The face may not show evidences of emaciation as early as do the muscular regions.

The *appetite* is fair at first, but anorexia, constipation, and intermittent attacks of diarrhea soon occur. An annoying feature in many cases

is a peculiarly parched condition of the tongue and buccal mucous membrane. The patient frequently complains of *acid eructations*. Vomiting is by no means a common complaint, yet there are certain cases of hepatic carcinoma that closely resembles carcinoma of the pylorus, and in these the general complaint is similar to that described for gastric carcinoma (see p. 548). The carcinomatous process may extend to the peritoneum, in which case an effusion may accumulate in the peritoneal sac; in this class of cases there are added to the foregoing general complaint those symptoms characteristic of ascites. At least two-thirds of all cases terminate without the development of ascites.

Nervous Phenomena.—There may or may not be nervous symptoms, but in the advanced stage they often appear—*e. g.*, mental hebetude, headache (possibly due to anemia), delirium (rarely), and coma may end the scene.

Thermic Features.—Fever is not a feature early during the course of hepatic carcinoma, but late in the disease the temperature will be found to fluctuate between 99° and 104° F., moderate temperature, however, being the rule. The fever is decidedly irregular in type.

Physical Signs.—Inspection.—Slight jaundice may be observed, and becomes profound whenever the bile-ducts are involved. Harley's studies of 100 cases showed jaundice to be a common occurrence at some time during the disease. In our experience mild jaundice has been present in a larger percentage of cases than is shown by Harley's statistics. It is readily understood that jaundice is not an essential feature of hepatic carcinoma unless the growth obstructs the bile-ducts or there is associated involvement of the gall-bladder or of the common duct. Jaundice, when present, will be accompanied by a series of symptoms described under Jaundice (see p. 633). Cachexia is the rule.

There is distinct emaciation, the upper portion of the abdomen is unduly prominent, and there may be prominence of the superficial abdominal veins. The inferior border of the liver may be seen to rise and fall with respiration through a thin and relaxed abdominal wall. In advanced cases there are slight puffing beneath the eyes and at the ankles. The cardiac impulse is feeble but diffuse, and there is throbbing of the vessels of the neck.

Palpation.—The lower margin of the liver is felt distinctly through the abdominal wall, and when the patient is directed to inspire deeply, it is often possible to outline the nodules upon the surface of the liver. The margin of the liver may extend but a short distance below the right costal border, but in advanced cases it has been found at or even some distance below the level of the umbilicus. Metastatic lymph nodes may be palpable above the clavicle.

Carcinomatous hepatic enlargement appears to affect mostly the right lobe, consequently the degree of enlargement may, comparatively speaking, be moderate. We have examined patients in whom the lower margin of the liver extended below the umbilicus, and yet no nodules were present upon the surface of the organ.

The spleen is usually palpable in those cases in which ascites develops as the result of extension of the carcinomatous process to the peritoneum, and the physical signs of ascites are also to be expected.

The heart inpulse is extremely weak, and a distinct pulsation is felt over the right carotid. Edema of the feet and of the hands is a late finding.

Percussion gives positive findings as to the degree of enlargement of the liver and the spleen, and regarding the presence or absence of peritoneal

fluid (movable abdominal flatness). It is not uncommon to find the degree of liver dullness extending from the lower border of the fourth rib to the crest of the ilium in the anterior axillary line, although, as a rule, the superior border of dullness is found at the fifth rib or the fifth interspace.

Laboratory Diagnosis.—The blood changes are those of secondary anemia, the red blood-cells falling to 3,000,000 or below, while the hemoglobin displays a corresponding decrease, except in those cases in which jaundice is present, when the estimation of hemoglobin is difficult. The presence or absence of leukocytosis is of but little importance in connection with hepatic carcinoma, since it is impossible to estimate to what degree

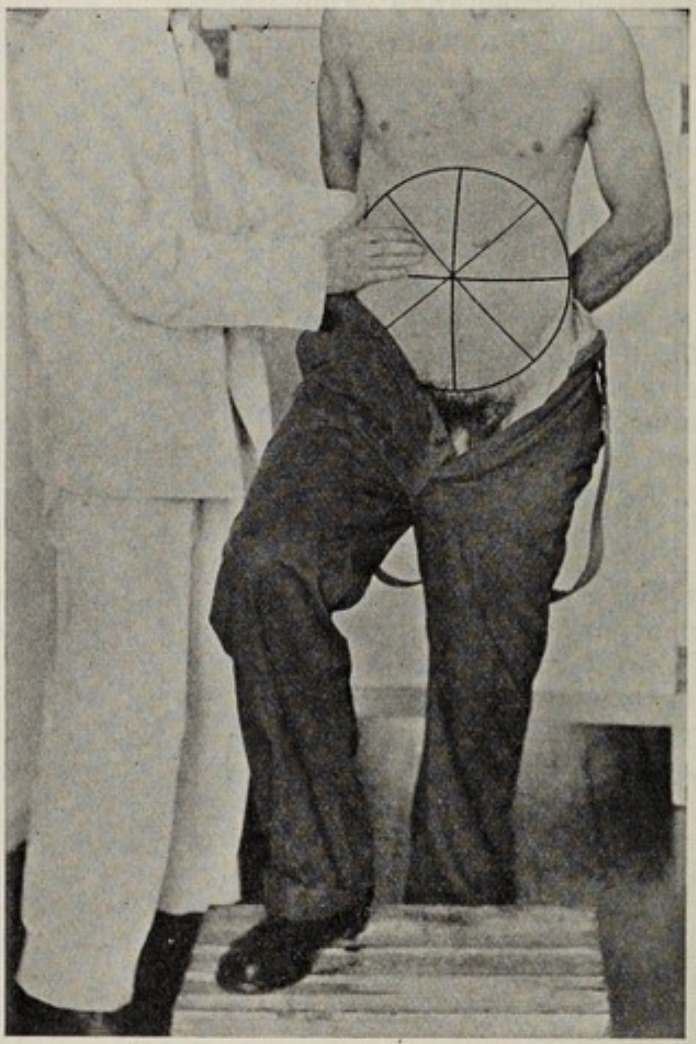


FIG. 255.—HERE THE PATIENT RESTS THE RIGHT FOOT UPON A SMALL BOX, WHICH GIVES IDENTICALLY THE SAME RESULT AS STANDING WITH BUT A SMALL PORTION OF HIS WEIGHT ON THE RIGHT TOE (Boston, N. Y. Med. Jour., Nov. 1, 1913).

the peritoneal surface is involved, and also what other modifying conditions coexist.

The character of the *urine* is influenced largely by the nature of the food taken and by the condition of the digestive tract; evidence of kidney disease is rare. If jaundice is present, the urine is highly colored and its organic sediments are also colored by bile-pigment. It is to be remembered that jaundice when continued over a long period, produces the inflammatory renal changes indicated by the presence of albumin and renal casts in the urine.

Metabolic Rate.—The experiments of Aub and Means* show that the metabolic rate of men while suffering from liver disease is essentially

*Arch. Int. Med., May, 1921.

normal and these writers, therefore, conclude that in men the liver is not a regulator of metabolic rate.

Summary of Diagnosis.—The age of the patient (after forty years), the history of carcinoma existing elsewhere in the body, the character of the pain, the presence of cachexia, and the fact that the patient has lost from twenty to sixty pounds in weight, point strongly to hepatic carcinoma. The detection of nodular enlargement of the liver makes the diagnosis practically certain.

Differential Diagnosis.—Carcinoma of the pylorus may be mistaken for hepatic carcinoma, yet a point ever to be borne in mind is that the latter is frequently secondary to pyloric involvement; consequently by the time the patient consults the physician, and when the symptoms are well marked, there is likely to be a primary carcinomatous process in the stomach, with secondary involvement of the liver. Carcinomatous tumor limited to the pylorus displays but a single nodule, which nodule differs from those of hepatic carcinoma in that it is depressed by deep inspiration, but is not elevated by forced expiration. If firm adhesions bind the stomach to the liver, palpation is negative. Gastrectasis, if present, points to involvement of the pylorus, and the diagnosis can often be confirmed by associated gastric symptoms.

Carcinoma of the Colon and Omentum.—Here carcinoma is, as a rule, secondary. Carcinoma of the intestine involves most often the sigmoid flexure, and is characterized by the symptoms of chronic intestinal obstruction without jaundice or ascites. In carcinoma of the liver the pain is higher in the abdomen, there is hepatic enlargement, and there may be jaundice. Carcinomatous growths developing from the colon and omentum can, as a rule, be shown to be differentiated from those involving the liver by auscultatory percussion—an invaluable sign.

Carcinoma of the Suprarenal Body.—Rarely, carcinoma involves primarily the suprarenal body, and spreads by direct extension to the inferior surface of the liver. We have observed two such cases, but in both the symptoms of hepatic carcinoma were obscure, and symptoms referable to adrenal disease were present early—*e. g.*, pain, tenderness, a mass in the region of the right kidney, and bronzing of the skin.

Hypertrophic cirrhosis can be mistaken for that unusual form of carcinoma only when the carcinomatous nodules are equally disseminated throughout the liver, with uniform enlargement of the organ, thereby giving a rounded edge to that portion of the liver projecting beneath the costal margin. The age of the patient, the character of the pain, and the late development of fever, together with extreme emaciation, will indicate carcinoma.

The distinctive features between hepatic carcinoma and **hepatic abscess** are shown in the accompanying table (modified from Anders):

Hepatic Carcinoma	Hepatic Abscess
1. May be hereditary. History of carcinoma elsewhere in the body—rectum, stomach, etc.	1. History of dysentery, traumatism, gall-stones, or suppuration elsewhere.
2. Occurs after middle life.	2. Commonest in early adult life.
3. Fever present only during the latter stage of the disease.	3. Septic fever throughout.
4. Cachexia a constant feature.	4. Absent.
5. Pain dull and constant.	5. Pain sharp, boring, and paroxysmal.
6. Chills unusual.	6. Chills and profuse sweating prominent symptoms.
7. Increased area of hepatic dullness extends downward.	7. Extends upward and may reach above the lower margin of the fifth rib.
8. Aspiration negative.	8. Aspiration may recover pus containing liver-cells, pus-cells, bacteria, or amebæ.

The distinctive features between *hepatic carcinoma* and *sarcoma* will be found under consideration of the latter condition (below), as will also that of *hydatids* (p. 1048) and *amyloid disease* (p. 657). Echinococcus disease is readily diagnosed, see p. 1040.

Duration.—All cases tend to terminate fatally in from a few months to one year.

Complications.—Most serious of these are perforation of the colon or of the stomach. There is also likely to be carcinomatous peritonitis and carcinoma of certain of the other abdominal viscera.

HEPATIC SARCOMA

Pathologic Definition.—A disease characterized by infiltration of the hepatic tissue by a sarcomatous growth, together with enlargement of the organ. Sarcoma may be primary, but in the majority of instances it is secondary to a similar lesion elsewhere. Melanotic sarcoma commonly attacks the liver after sarcoma of the choroid has been present. The enlargement is fairly uniform, and the organ may occupy the greater part of the abdomen, extending below the brim of the pelvis, and as far to the left as the left midclavicular line. In a record of the literature Goldstein,* found 75 reported cases where either the liver or gall-bladder were primarily affected with sarcoma.

Predisposing and Exciting Factors.—The liver is often attacked by sarcoma following the removal or incision of a sarcomatous growth elsewhere in the body. Following the removal of sarcoma of the choroid, melanotic sarcoma of the liver may develop in from one to two and one-half years. Sarcomatous growths removed from the scalp are especially likely to recur in the liver, as are also those situated upon the lower extremities. Generally speaking, the liver is the viscus most likely to be secondarily attacked after the removal of a sarcoma.

Principal Complaint and Symptoms.—In general, the symptoms of hepatic sarcoma are those of mechanical obstruction, *e. g.*, gastritis, ascites, and in certain cases, hemorrhoids. There are distinct anemia and progressive emaciation, both of which appear to result from malnutrition. The liver is uniformly enlarged, extending below the costal margin.

Laboratory Diagnosis.—There is a somewhat progressive secondary anemia. When there is extensive metastasis to other organs and the sarcoma is of the melanotic type, the urine may be brownish or blackish in color (melanuria).

Differential Diagnosis.—Hepatic sarcoma is differentiated from *hepatic carcinoma* by the following diagnostic features: Sarcoma is more common in the young, and often follows in the wake of a tumor of the eye. Pain is less frequent in sarcoma and cachexia is not so common. The hepatic surface is not nodular.

Duration.—All cases tend rapidly toward a fatal termination.

PASSIVE HYPEREMIA

Pathologic Definition.—A secondary condition excited by cardiac insufficiency (tricuspid regurgitation) and characterized by dilatation of the hepatic veins, with uniform enlargement of the liver.

Exciting Factors.—This is clearly tricuspid regurgitation, since the blood regurgitating from the right ventricle to the right auricle continues its backward current through the inferior vena cava until it reaches the liver—the first organ capable of being expanded.

* Internat. Clin., June, 1921, p. 73.

Predisposing Factors.—Among the predisposing factors are: All diseases of the heart, lungs, or even those of the blood itself, in which there is a tendency toward the formation of blood-clots. Any condition that favors or excites tricuspid insufficiency predisposes to venous hepatic congestion—*e. g.*, disease of the left heart, myocarditis, increased blood tension in the lung, anemias, and thoracic tumors of whatever nature pressing upon the ascending vena cava.

Such local conditions as pressure over the portal area by new-growths, cysts, etc., and abnormalities of the walls of the veins, as is seen in syphilitics and in thrombosis of the hepatic vessels, are among the predisposing factors.

Principal Complaint and Symptoms.—The patient complains of an undue *sense of fullness* in the upper portion of the abdomen that often increases to a distinct distress. Such gastric symptoms as nausea, vomiting, anorexia, and constipation are likely to be present. *Dyspnea* is a common symptom, and the patient frequently complains of an annoying *cough*, which may be accompanied by expectoration.

Physical Signs.—Inspection.—The upper right abdominal quadrant is unduly prominent, and in advanced cases edema of the feet and of the hands is seen. Jaundice, while not common, is occasionally observed, and when present in a marked degree, the patient also displays the clinical features usually associated with jaundice. (See p. 668.)

Palpation confirms inspection, and in addition enables one to outline the liver, the anterior inferior margin of which will usually be found some distance below the costal cartilages, and may even extend below the umbilicus. When the veins of the liver are greatly distended and tricuspid regurgitation is pronounced, the entire organ is found to pulsate. Place the tip of the finger immediately beyond the tip of the ninth rib, make rather firm pressure, and the liver is found to pulsate synchronously with the heart.

Percussion and Auscultatory Percussion.—Percussion confirms palpation as to the size of the liver, and is of further service in determining the outline of the heart (cardiac dullness usually blending with liver dullness).

Auscultation.—In pronounced cases a distinct murmur is heard over the liver. The heart-sounds are weakened, as a rule, and murmurs are present in those cases that have reached the stage of cardiac dilatation.

Laboratory Diagnosis.—The blood-findings are those of secondary anemia. In cases showing jaundice the stools are clay colored, and the urine is of high color, of high specific gravity, and often contains a trace of albumin, which may be the result of passive renal congestion.

Duration.—This is governed entirely by the cause. In those cases resulting from valvular heart disease the liver may return to its normal size after the institution of judicious treatment. The rule is for the hyperemic condition of the liver to return as soon as treatment of the cardiac condition is stopped or the patient exercises beyond a limited degree.

ACUTE HEPATIC ABSCESS (SUPPURATIVE HEPATITIS, HEPATIC PYEMIA)

Pathologic Definition.—A circumscribed accumulation of pus in the liver substance, with destruction of the hepatic tissue. The organ is, as a rule, enlarged, and such enlargement is often symmetric, whereas to the feel one or more areas of softening are detected. A single abscess is usually located in the right lobe near the superior surface, yet multiple abscesses are by no means uncommon, and may involve the left lobe. The tissues immediately surrounding the abscess are deeply congested, and

in decidedly acute cases no well-marked abscess-wall is present, but in the subacute variety of abscess a distinct wall of demarcation is produced. Upon cutting through the abscess it is found to be filled with a liquid which contains pus-cells, necrotic tissue (liver-cells), and a variable amount of serous exudate. (See also Amebic Abscess.) The amount of fluid contained in a hepatic abscess may vary from a few ounces to two or three quarts.

Microscopically, many of the hepatic cells are distorted in shape and devoid of nuclei. Round-cell infiltration is seen in the vicinity of the blood-vessels, and certain of the smaller vessels are plugged by emboli. Streptococci and staphlococci are usually present.

Varieties.—Clinically speaking, abscess may be acute, subacute, or chronic in character. A special heading is usually employed to designate amebic abscess, which is not in reality a true abscess, since it does not of necessity contain pus-producing bacteria.

Exciting and Predisposing Factors.—The introduction of pathogenic bacteria (cocci, bacilli and spirillae) into the liver substance excites acute abscess.

Climate is the most potent predisposing influence, the majority of cases developing in tropical or subtropical districts or in those persons who have recently lived in the tropics. Occlusion of the bile-ducts, including that resulting from gall-stones, antedates nearly 50 per cent. of cases. *Disease of the gall-bladder* and other hepatic conditions were found by Kobler to be present in nearly 25 per cent. of cases; he also found that 13 per cent. of his cases followed pyemia. *Gastric ulcer* is frequently followed by hepatic abscess, as is also ulceration of the colon and appendix. Kelsch, in his analysis of 500 cases, found that 85 per cent. of them followed *dysentery*. Manson refers to 3680 fatal cases of dysentery on which autopsies were made (collected by Woodward), in 21 per cent. of which abscess of the liver existed. (See *x*-ray p. 655.)

Suppurating wounds of the scalp are not infrequently followed by hepatic abscess, as are also operations upon the rectum. Intestinal parasites may find their way into the gall-bladder and excite acute cholecystitis, which may terminate in abscess, as is shown by Leik's report of 19 cases following migration of the ascaris lumbricoides to the gall-bladder. Liver-flukes and hydatids may excite the initial inflammation which terminates in hepatic suppuration. Foreign bodies taken into the stomach occasionally reach the liver, and there produce abscess; among such mechanic irritants are pins, fish-bones, needles and buttons. Acute or chronic local infections antedate nearly all cases.

Principal Complaint and Symptoms.—**Pain,** a constant feature, is in the hepatic region, and radiates to the shoulder. The more superficially the abscess is located, the more severe is the pain, which is due to involvement of the peritoneum. The patient describes his pain as dull and boring in character. Pleuritic pain is experienced when the abscess is situated near the superior surface of the liver, and has excited an inflammation that involves the diaphragm and the pleura. Relief is afforded when the patient is in certain positions, and his agony is intensified by pressure over the right costal margin and by lying on the left side.

Chills, and even distinct rigors, are frequently experienced, and these are followed by profuse sweating.

In chronic hepatic abscess there are progressive weakness, emaciation, and the general symptoms of chronic sepsis.

Gastro-intestinal symptoms are constant, but are of such nature as to be of but limited service in formulating a diagnosis; they consist of

flatulence, epigastric uneasiness, nausea, and vomiting, all of which symptoms become intensified as the disease progresses.

Nervous Symptoms.—The rule is for the patient to remain rational during the first thirty-six-hours, after which period the nervous manifestations depend upon the degree of hepatic destruction and the grade of intoxication. Cephalalgia, muttering delirium, tremor of the tongue and hands, mental hebetude, and finally coma are seen in cases that terminate fatally.

Thermic Features.—In those acute cases in which there is rapid, extensive destruction of liver tissue the temperature rises somewhat abruptly, reaching 103° or 104° F. during the first thirty-six hours. The character of the fever is distinctly irregular, and, as a rule, intermittent, resembling that of malaria. In those case in which hepatic abscess is about to terminate fatally the temperature becomes subnormal, and the general condition is that of collapse.

Physical Signs.—Inspection.—The face is flushed at first, but later becomes pale, and jaundice may develop, depending upon the degree of hepatic destruction and the location of the abscess, as well as upon an associated involvement of the gall-bladder and the bile-ducts. Bulging over the region of the liver is present only when there is extensive abscess formation. Chest expansion is often limited upon the right side, due to an abscess resting near the surface of the diaphragm, and consequently exciting diaphragmatic and possibly pleural irritation. The tongue is coated, the lips are dry and fissured, and the teeth are often covered with sordes.

Palpation.—By deep palpation it is usually possible to elicit distinct tenderness along the costal margin. The liver is often felt below the margin of the ribs, and when the patient is directed to inspire deeply, the lower hepatic outline presents a smooth surface. In unusually large abscesses fluctuation may be elicited. Abscess of the left lobe of the liver is decidedly uncommon, yet when present, is quite easy of recognition. In those cases in which the adjacent peritoneum is involved, a friction fremitus may be felt. The abdominal muscles overlying the liver are at times unusually tense, which materially interferes with palpation.

The *pulse* becomes rapid and bounding during the first twenty-four hours, but as the disease advances, its frequency is increased, whereas its volume and force are diminished. In subacute and chronic cases the pulse is that of general sepsis, *e. g.*, weak, rapid, dicrotic, compressible, and irregular.

Percussion.—An increased area of liver dullness may or may not be present, although in typical cases the liver note will be found above the lower border of the fourth rib, and rises high (fifth rib) in the axillary line. Posteriorly, hepatic dullness usually extends to the angle of the scapula. In outlining the area of hepatic dullness by auscultatory percussion it will be found that the liver extends for a slight distance below the normal level.

Pulmonary Symptoms and Signs.—There is *cough*, which may be severe and non-productive, although in characteristic cases there is moderate expectoration of a reddish-brown, mucosanguineous material.

Auscultation reveals numerous fine and coarse râles over the base of the right lung, and rarely a friction murmur is detected.

Laboratory Diagnosis.—The blood changes are those of sepsis—*e. g.*, leukocytosis with a proportionate increase in the number of polymorphonuclear cells. As the disease progresses the hemoglobin and red cells are gradually decreased. During the height of the fever albuminuria is

present, and casts and leukocytes may be found. In those cases developing jaundice the urinary sediment is colored, and in other respects the urine is that of jaundice. (See p. 668.) Indicanuria is to be expected.

Summary of Diagnosis.—A history of dysentery, gastric ulcer, or operation upon the intestinal tract (rectum) is of great help in formulating a diagnosis. The character of the pain, the presence of tenderness over the liver, an increased area of hepatic dullness when associated with leukocytosis, and an increase in the polymorphonuclear elements of the blood strongly favor hepatic abscess.

Fever, while not characteristic, is highly suggestive of this condition, its main features being that it is decidedly irregular at first, but assumes the intermittent type as the disease advances. Chills and profuse sweating are likewise of clinical importance.

Differential Diagnosis.—Malaria.—Abscess, when developing in those residing in malarial districts, is likely to be mistaken for malaria on account of the periodicity with which the chill, fever, and sweating recur. Again, hepatic tenderness and splenic enlargement are characteristic of both conditions. Although there are many slight differences between acute hepatic abscess and malaria, in the light of our present knowledge there appear to be but three actually distinctive features: (*a*) Finding of the plasmodium of malaria in the blood; (*b*) the recovery of pus by aspiration of the abscess; and (*c*) leukocytosis is a feature of hepatic abscess and leukopenia is a characteristic feature of malaria.

Hepatic Colic.—There is usually a history of previous attacks that were followed by jaundice. The paroxysms (chills, fever, and sweat) of hepatic colic do not occur with such regularity as do those of hepatic abscess. Extreme pain with each seizure is characteristic of gall-stone colic, whereas in abscess a deep burning pain may be almost constant. In those cases in which a gall-bladder is impacted with stones there may be persistent jaundice, with practically all the symptoms known to accompany this condition, whereas in uncomplicated abscess of the liver jaundice is by no means constant.

Hepatic carcinoma can scarcely be confounded with hepatic abscess. (See Carcinoma, p. 548.) *Echinococcus cyst*, while it may present enlargement of the liver resembling that of abscess, is characterized by a normal or subnormal temperature, unless the cyst becomes infected with pathogenic bacteria, in which case it becomes a true hepatic abscess. The prolonged existence of hepatic enlargement, the absence of tenderness, the possible intimate association with dogs, and a residence in a country in which echinococcus disease is indigenous, all taken together, go far to support the diagnosis of hydatid cysts.

DISTENTION OF THE LIVER AND OF THE GALL-BLADDER

Pathologic Definition.—A condition produced by obstruction to some one or more of the hepatic ducts, and characterized further by an abnormal distention of the ducts of the liver, with enlargement of the organ. In certain cases, as the result of undue pressure, there may be destructive changes in the parenchyma of the organ.

Exciting Factors.—Any condition that obstructs any one or more of the bile-ducts must of necessity be followed by a variable degree of hepatic enlargement.

Intrahepatic Conditions.—These may be acute or chronic and are in some cases secondary to focal infection. (1) Gall-stones, by blocking the common duct or the cystic duct; (2) carcinoma of the common duct;

(3) nodular carcinomata of the liver pressing upon one of the ducts; (4) catarrhal inflammation of the common duct with obstruction by edema of the mucous lining (excited by cholecystitis, liver flukes, and extension of catarrh from the duodenum); (5) perihepatitis (syphilitic), by constriction and eventual interference with the flow of bile through the common duct.

Extrahepatic Causes.—(1) Carcinoma of the head of the pancreas, by pressure and obstruction of the common duct; (2) epithelioma of the duodenum, by extension to the duodenal orifice of the common duct; (3) gastric ulcer with extensive peritoneal adhesions, resulting in obstruction to the common duct; (4) abdominal tumors pressing upon the common duct or upon the inferior surface of the liver; (5) displacement of the liver (floating liver), with a variable amount of torsion; (6) blocking of the common duct by migrating intestinal parasites.

Principal Complaint.—There is a sense of fullness or discomfort in the superior right abdominal quadrant. There may or may not be pain, this symptom depending upon the cause of the enlargement.

Physical Signs.—Inspection.—The patient is, as a rule, jaundiced, although jaundice is not an essential feature of cystic distention. There is prominence of the right superior abdominal quadrant.

Palpation.—The pulse is unusually slow in those cases displaying jaundice. When enlargement follows carcinoma, the pulse becomes weak, thready, and almost imperceptible as the disease advances. One is able to outline the peculiar sausage-shaped mass projecting from the lower hepatic margin in those persons in whom the abdominal wall is not unusually thick. The enlarged gall-bladder may attain an enormous size, extending to a point on a level with or below the umbilicus. The tumor is usually dough-like in feel and may display fluctuation, and firm pressure does not excite pain.

Percussion.—Both percussion and auscultatory percussion confirm palpation with reference to the size of the gall-bladder and the liver.

Auscultation.—In those cases in which there have been quite extensive peritoneal adhesions, a friction murmur may be heard by placing the stethoscope over the lower margin of the liver, and then directing the patient to inspire deeply. If this sound is dependent upon obstruction of the common duct and impaction of the gall-bladder with calculi, then auscultation combined with firm palpation over the liver may result in producing a grating sound caused by friction of the calculi.

X-ray Diagnosis.—Graham and Cole have devised a means for visualizing the gall-bladder.* By injecting the sodium salt of tetrabromphenolphthalein into the vein, the gall-bladder shows as plainly as the bone of a rib. The picture of the gall-bladder is faint seven hours after the injection, and at the end of twenty-four hours the outline of the gall-bladder is unmistakable. The gall-bladder cannot be detected by X-ray fifty hours after injection.

Laboratory Diagnosis.—In those displaying jaundice, both the blood and the urine are tinted yellow. The urinary sediment is likewise colored by the bile. If jaundice has existed for more than three weeks, the urine is especially likely to show albumin and casts. The froth of the urine is excessive, and of a yellowish tint, which is in itself characteristic of jaundice.

The feces are clay colored, and when studied *microscopically*, are found to be rich in globules of fat which are responsible for the peculiar color. The blood changes are those seen in secondary anemia.

*Annals of Clin. Med., Vol. 3, No. 1, July, 1924, p. 99, Jour. Am. Med. Assoc., May 31, 1924.

FATTY INFILTRATION AND FATTY DEGENERATION WITH HEPATIC ENLARGEMENT

Fatty Infiltration.—Definition.—Fat infiltration may be found to involve localized areas of the organ in which the deposit is so intense as to give the cut surface of the liver a shiny or oily appearance. If fatty infiltration is general, the liver is enlarged, and the edge of the organ is rounded. A cut section of the infiltrated hepatic tissue does not sink in water to the same degree as does that of the normal organ.

Microscopically, the normal hepatic cells are encroached upon by the deposit of fat, and fatty infiltration appears to favor the later development of fatty degeneration. Consequently, these two conditions may be found in the same case.

Predisposing Factors.—General obesity is most common, although fatty infiltration may be the result of interference with oxidation of the blood; consequently it is occasionally seen during the course of chronic organic maladies, *e. g.*, tuberculosis, and also in chronic conditions characterized by a severe type of anemia (chronic malaria, carcinoma, syphilis).

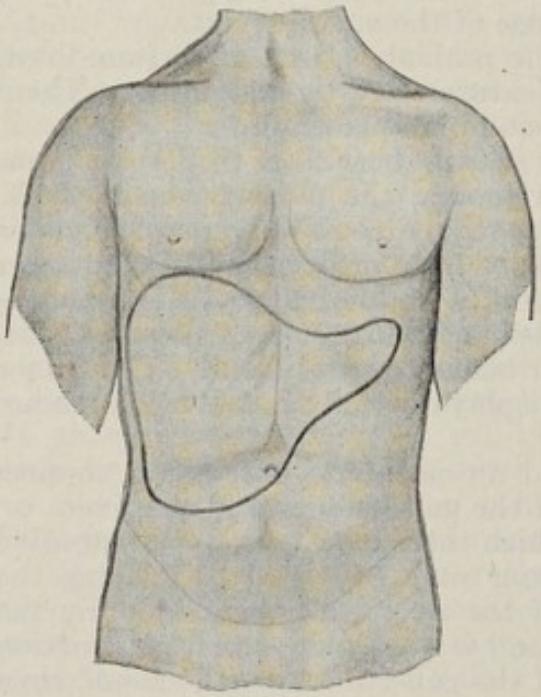


Fig. 256.—Private Case. Illustrative of Fatty Liver

Principal Complaint.—There are no symptoms known to be characteristic or even highly suggestive of fatty infiltration, although in the majority of cases the patient states that he has not felt in perfect health for some months. There is a continuous sense of weight in the abdomen, while pain is absent. Clinically speaking, hepatic enlargement without symptoms is, to say the least, suggestive of fatty infiltration.

Physical Signs.—Inspection.—The expression of the patient and the degree of emaciation will depend entirely upon the conditions that antedated hepatic enlargement. In most cases the right superior abdominal quadrant is unduly prominent.

Palpation discloses the lower border of the liver at some distance below the costal margin, and we have occasionally found it below the umbilicus. The edge of the liver is decidedly thickened and smooth, and firm pressure upon it does not produce pain. When the liver is extremely large and rests upon the descending aorta, distinct pulsation is felt over the hepatic area, which pulsation must be distinguished from that arising from aneurism of the abdominal aorta, the chief differential feature being that pulsation transmitted through liver substance is not expansile, as is the pulsation of an aneurism.

Percussion.—Both percussion and auscultatory percussion usually show the outline of liver dullness to be markedly increased. The liver note is seldom found above the fifth rib in the nipple-line, and is usually at about the same level in the axillary line, a point where, normally, the liver is more than an inch lower than in the mammary line (Fig. 256).

The left lobe of the liver will be found to extend well across the median line, and to be from two to four inches in breadth at the left border of the sternum, and between the ensiform and umbilicus. The spleen remains nearly of the normal size, although exceptions to this rule are encountered.

Differential Diagnosis.—In **amyloid disease** of the liver the distinctive features are that the spleen is also greatly enlarged, the urine is of low specific gravity, contains a trace of serum-albumin, and may display casts.

Leukemia causes an enlargement of the liver that closely resembles that resulting from fatty infiltration, but in leukemia, as in amyloid disease, the spleen is enlarged. The history of repeated hemorrhages from the mucous membranes and of submucous hemmorrhage points strongly toward the existence of leukemia. An examination of the blood gives findings (see pp. 415, 421) that distinguish positively between the large liver of leukemia and that of fatty infiltration.

FATTY DEGENERATION OF THE LIVER

Pathologic Definition.—Any condition dependent upon fatty degeneration of the hepatic cells. On examining the organ, its size is not materially altered, but the cut surface presents a yellow color, and is soft and friable. The normal relation between the interlobular connective tissue and the acini is lost, the latter being replaced by fat. Equally disseminated throughout the substance of the organ small areas of pigmentation are to be seen.

The liver-cells have lost their normal shape, and their nuclei are indistinct or absent. Crystals, shreds, granular débris, cholesterin, and tyrosin are at times seen in the degenerated tissue.

General Remarks.—Fatty degeneration seldom results in hepatic enlargement, although such examples are occasionally encountered. After fatty degeneration is well established, there are usually present certain atrophic changes in the hepatic substance which keep the liver at or near its normal size, and, indeed, the dimensions of the organ may be far below the normal. Acute poisoning is often followed by fatty degeneration—*e. g.*, phosphorus (see p. 661), chloroform, and arsenic. Fatty degeneration is also present in acute yellow atrophy and in certain acute fevers.

Symptoms.—These are in no way characteristic, and the diagnosis is based largely upon the clinical history, which is often that of profound anemia resulting from some acute infection, such as dysentery, or from toxic poisoning.

The **physical signs** are of distinct clinical value only when hepatic enlargement is present.

AMYLOID DISEASE OF THE LIVER

Pathologic Definition.—A condition characterized by amyloid (waxy) degeneration of the hepatic tissue, the walls of the blood-vessels being first affected, with uniform enlargement of the organ. Amyloid change in the liver is usually but one feature of a more or less general amyloid disease, the same pathologic changes affecting the kidneys, and less often the intestines and other portions of the body.

Predisposing Factors.—All chronic suppurative processes (foci of infection) markedly predispose to the development of amyloid change in the viscera, and it must be remembered that when it affects the liver, it is but a portion of a more or less general amyloid degeneration. A similar change is also found, as a rule, affecting the kidneys and the spleen.

Tuberculosis or syphilis of the bones and, in fact, all types of chronic suppurative bone disease, are likely to be followed by amyloid degeneration. Syphilitic ulceration of the soft tissues (*e. g.*, rectum) also predisposes to amyloid change, and the condition occasionally follows carcinoma.

Principal Complaint.—The patient's general complaint is that of one suffering from a somewhat high grade of secondary anemia, *e. g.*, weakness, shortness of breath, palpitation, occasional attacks of vertigo, and gastro-intestinal disturbances. When the colon is also affected, there may be diarrhea.

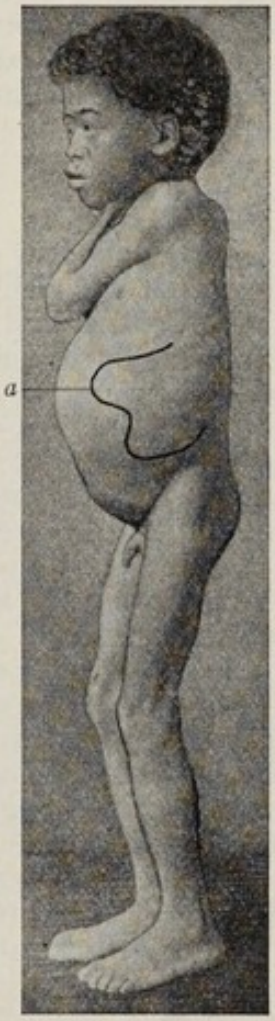


FIG. 257.—(*a*) OUTLINE OF SPLEEN AND SPLENIC DULLNESS IN AMYLOID DISEASE (courtesy of Dr. Edwin E. Graham, of Philadelphia).

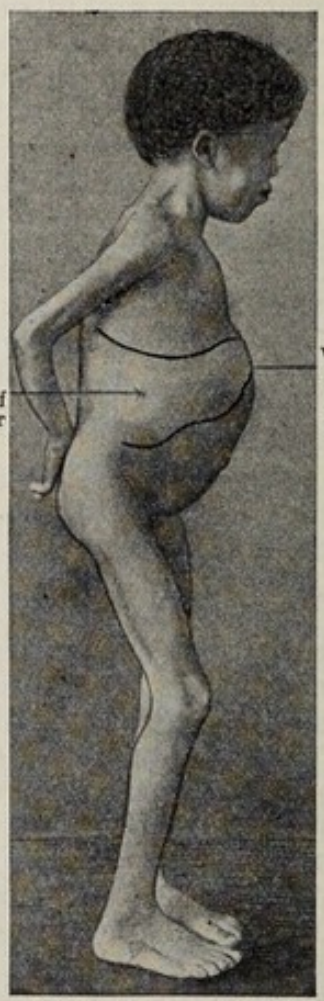


FIG. 258.—OUTLINE OF LIVER IN AMYLOID DISEASE (courtesy of Dr. Edwin E. Graham, of Philadelphia).

Physical Signs.—Inspection.—The skin of the face and extremities is of a peculiar milk-white tint, although in some cases there is a slight bronzing. Puffiness beneath the eyes and at the ankles is common. The upper portion of the abdomen is usually prominent, and in thin subjects, when the patient inspires deeply, the outline of both the liver and the spleen may be seen through the abdominal wall (Fig. 257).

Palpation.—Both the liver and the spleen (Fig. 257) are found to be distinctly enlarged, although their surfaces are smooth and pressure does not elicit either pain or tenderness. As the disease advances, the pulse

becomes weak and more and more rapid, and the apex-beat may be feeble and wavy.

Percussion confirms palpation in the detection of an abnormally large area of hepatic and of splenic dullness.

Laboratory Diagnosis.—There is usually coexisting amyloid change in the kidneys, in which case the quantity of urine voided during the twenty-four hours is normal (40 to 50 fluidounces) or may be markedly increased. It is pale, usually of low specific gravity, and contains a trace of serum-albumin and at times of serum-globulin. *Microscopically*, if the condition affects the renal tubules, hyaline and waxy casts are present, but amyloid disease of the kidneys may exist and the urine contain no waxy casts.

The *feces* are often pale or milk-white in color, but bile-pigment is present. Digestion of fats may be impaired, but not to the degree seen in pancreatic disease. The blood is often that of secondary anemia. An increase in the proportionate number of lymphocytes is an occasional finding.

Summary of Diagnosis.—A history of prolonged suppuration, emaciation, weakness, and anemia, together with enlargement of the liver, strongly suggests amyloid disease. The diagnosis is confirmed, however, by the fairly characteristic urinary findings when there is an associated amyloid change in the kidneys. Pale, watery stools, when seen during the latter stages of the disease, are of great diagnostic significance.

Differential Diagnosis.—Amyloid enlargement of the liver is to be distinguished from fatty infiltration (see p. 656) and from sarcoma (see p. 650).

Clinical Course.—This depends entirely upon the nature of the predisposing and exciting conditions, *e. g.*, should the case in question be one of syphilitic origin, the course is modified by antisyphilitic treatment. In those depending upon pulmonary disease with cavity formation the course is of short duration.

SYPHILIS OF THE LIVER

Syphilis of the liver may be either inherited or acquired. The congenital variety is seen in children and deserves mere mention in this connection. In early congenital syphilis, the child may die in utero, be born with symptoms of the disease, or in selected cases, appear healthy at birth but soon displays evidences of luetic infection. The liver and spleen are enlarged.

Late Congenital Syphilis

This form of syphilis, involving the liver, makes its apearance during the second decade. These patients are, as a rule, poorly developed and show various evidences suggesting the existence of syphilis; *e. g.*, disease of the bones and viscera, enlargement of the spleen and of the liver. There is occasionally present atheroma of the arterial system, and obliteration of the arteries has been reported. Cases where multilobular cirrhosis of the liver is present may display the following: ascites, both hepatic and splenic enlargement, jaundice, epistaxis, vomiting of blood, and the presence of occult blood in the feces.

Acquired Hepatic Syphilis

The first evidence of this condition may appear during the secondary stage, and is marked by jaundice, a combination of secondary lesions and

of jaundice, makes the diagnosis positive. Pruritus is absent during the jaundice of acquired syphilis. Bile is not present in the urine until jaundice becomes intense. The gastro-intestinal symptoms present in catarrhal jaundice are mild, and in many instances absent.

During the tertiary stage of syphilis gummata of the liver may develop, and when of sufficient size definite nodular masses are detected. This form of hepatic syphilis is likely to be accompanied by gummata of the kidneys. The symptoms and signs that develop during this stage of hepatic syphilis are as a rule due to pressure.

Acquired syphilitic, hepatic cirrhosis may be indistinguishable from the common type of portal cirrhosis.

Physical Signs.—During the late stages hepatic symptoms, resembling closely those seen in cirrhosis of the liver.

Laboratory Findings.—The Wassermann reaction is positive, as are also other serum reactions for syphilis. During the eruptive stage the spirochete is present in the discharge from lesions and may be found in the nasal secretions, and in the discharge from mucous patches. The spinal fluid gives a positive Wassermann reaction.

Summary of Diagnosis.—Hepatic syphilis when present in children may present deformity of the bones, Hutchinson's teeth, deafness, keratitis, roughness of the skin of the palms of the hands and soles of the feet; and the new-born infant may present an aged appearance, in which instance the skin is profoundly wrinkled.

Should congenital syphilis appear during the second decade, the symptoms and signs are those of hepatic cirrhosis with jaundice.

In acquired syphilis, the earliest evidence of liver involvement is the appearance of jaundice during the secondary lesions. The clinical history ordinarily includes definite information regarding either the initial lesion or the secondary eruption of syphilis. The tertiary manifestations of syphilis of the liver are irregularity in the contour of the liver, luetin reaction, ascites, jaundice, perihepatitis and edema of the lower extremities. In all clinical varieties of syphilis of the liver the Wassermann reaction is positive with the blood, and with the spinal fluid.

ACUTE PERIHEPATITIS (ACUTE SYPHILITIC PERIHEPATITIS)

Pathologic Definition.—A syphilitic involvement of the capsule of Glisson, characterized clinically by hepatic tenderness, hepatic enlargement, jaundice, ascites, and fever. (See p. 668.)

General Remarks.—This type of perihepatitis is extremely rare, but one case having been seen by us at the Philadelphia General Hospital. This condition has been described by White and Martin and by other writers upon genito-urinary diseases. It is secondary to either general or focal syphilitic diseases.

Clinical Features.—Late during the second or at the beginning of the third stage of syphilis the patient develops a more or less continuous type of temperature, which ranges between 101° and 105° F. There is intense jaundice, which is accompanied by the other symptoms characteristic of this condition (slow pulse, mental hebetude, biliuria, etc.).

The liver is distinctly enlarged, and may extend for two or more inches below the costal margin, and the gall-bladder may be distended. The liver is usually somewhat tender, but this symptom rapidly disappears following the administration of antisyphilitic treatment. Ascites, when pronounced, makes the detection of hepatic enlargement difficult, but this may usually be overcome by turning the patient from side to side while making the physical examination.

Summary of Diagnosis.—This condition usually develops during the course of secondary syphilis, and is characterized clinically by enlargement of the liver, and extreme tenderness over the lower edges of the liver—jaundice, nausea, anorexia; a temperature varying between 101 and 103 degrees and a positive Wassermann reaction are the rule.

TUBERCULOSIS OF THE LIVER

Pathologic Definition.—A condition usually secondary to tuberculosis elsewhere in the body, characterized by the presence of multiple tuberculous foci in the hepatic tissue, hepatic enlargement, and in many instances localized and at times diffuse tuberculosis of the peritoneum. The disease may accompany any form of tuberculosis.

Exciting Cause.—Infection with the bacillus of tuberculosis.

Predisposing Factors.—Tuberculous lesions situated along the course of the mesenteric veins are most likely to be followed by general tuberculosis of the liver. Tuberculous lesions, wherever located, may antedate hepatic tuberculosis. In general miliary tuberculosis the liver is also involved.

Physical examination shows the liver to be enlarged, its edge rounded, and, as a rule, smooth, although tubercles palpable upon the superior surface of the liver have been reported.

Clinical Course.—All cases terminate fatally in from a few weeks to several months.

THE LIVER IN PHOSPHORUS-POISONING

Pathologic Definition.—A condition excited by the entrance of phosphorus into the system, and characterized by fatty degeneration of the hepatic parenchyma. The liver is enlarged, light brown or yellowish in color, and presents a more or less mottled appearance. The substance of the organ is soft and friable. The cut surface shows decided mottling, and is streaked with areas of fat, the acini standing out more prominently than the interlobular tissue. Selected areas of the organ are deeply bile-stained, and the substance obtained by scraping the cut surface is composed mainly of bile and fat-globules. There is extensive disintegration of the liver-cells, and spheres of leucin, as well as crystals of tyrosin and cholesterin, are present. In this condition the destructive pathologic changes are not limited to the liver alone, but the gastric mucous membrane is thickened, opaque, and yellowish in appearance, and ulcerative gastritis may be present. Degenerative changes are also found in the kidneys, and are characterized by extensive fatty changes.

The exciting factor is the introduction, in various ways, of phosphorus into the system.

Predisposing Factors.—(1) **Occupation.**—Those working in match factories are necessarily exposed. Large amounts of phosphorus may also be taken in with certain foods, and poisonous doses may be accidentally swallowed.

Remarks.—This condition will be found to vary greatly, depending upon the rapidity with which phosphorus has been introduced into the system; *e. g.*, where the condition attacks a worker in a match factory or one exposed to the handling of phosphorus, the symptoms often develop quite insidiously, whereas in those having recently taken a single lethal dose of the drug the symptoms develop acutely.

Principal Complaint.—From three to twelve or even twenty-four hours after the system has become charged with phosphorus the patient complains of a general sense of uneasiness, nausea, and oppression over

the epigastrium, which may develop into a dull pain, accompanied by vomiting. In favorable cases vomiting subsides within two or three days.

Nervous Features.—Among the nervous phenomena are headache, wakefulness, vertigo, and at times maniacal delirium. The patient may become comatose, from which state he seldom rallies.

Constipation is present at the onset, but may alternate with attacks of diarrhea. (See Laboratory Diagnosis.)

Thermic Features.—The temperature is by no means characteristic, but is generally between 99° and 101° F. A subnormal temperature is of unfavorable prognostic omen.

In chronic poisoning the mucous surface of the mouth may display ulceration, and destruction of the maxillary bones is also seen.

Physical Signs.—Inspection.—In acute phosphorus-poisoning inspection reveals distinct jaundice of the skin and mucous surfaces.

Palpation.—On making deep palpation it is possible to detect the lower border of the liver two or three inches below the costal margin. In those cases in which there has been a chronic poisoning of the system with phosphorus, the liver is rarely found to be appreciably smaller than normal. Tenderness is elicited upon making deep pressure over the hepatic region.

Laboratory Diagnosis.—The vomitus at first contains the contents of the stomach, but later it becomes bile-stained. The characteristic feature of the vomitus is that, when placed in a dark room, the liquid is phosphorescent, and that the presence of phosphorus may be demonstrated chemically. After a high grade of irritation of the gastric mucous membrane is produced or after marked alteration has taken place in the blood, hemorrhage into the stomach follows, and the vomiting of blood that has been acted upon by the gastric fluid (black vomit) occurs.

The quantity of urine voided during the twenty-four hours is diminished; it is bile-stained, its specific gravity is high (above 1.025), and chemically there are to be found bile-pigment, sarcolactic acid, and albumin. *Microscopically*, crystals of leucin and tyrosin (Fig. 276) may be seen, and the detection of casts, fat-globules, and renal epithelial cells is quite common.

Summary of Diagnosis.—The diagnosis is based upon the following salient points: (*a*) A history of having taken phosphorus or of following an occupation that necessitates the handling of phosphorus; (*b*) the vomiting of material that becomes phosphorescent when placed in the dark; (*c*) the development of jaundice; and (*d*) the fact that the urine is bile-stained and albuminous, and also contains sarcolactic acid. Lesions of the mucous surface of the mouth and of the maxillary bones also aid in the diagnosis.

Differential Diagnosis.—The condition with which acute phosphorus-poisoning is most likely to be confounded is **acute (hepatic) yellow atrophy,** and the differential features between these two conditions are set forth in the following table (modified from Anders):

Acute Phosphorus-poisoning	Acute Yellow Atrophy of the Liver
1. There is a history of accidental taking of poison (match-heads, rat poison), or of occupation with exposure to phosphorus.	1. Indefinite.
2. The onset is sudden, with violent nausea, vomiting, and pain over the region of the liver.	2. A slow onset, with malaise, nausea, and vomiting.

Acute Phosphorus-poisoning	Acute Yellow Atrophy of the Liver
3. Jaundice appears on the second or third day.	3. Jaundice is a beginning symptom.
4. Nervous symptoms appear late in the disease, and are always preceded by jaundice.	4. Nervous symptoms may appear early —even before the occurrence of jaundice.
5. The vomit and stools are phosphorescent. Black vomit precedes death.	5. Black vomit occurs early, and persists throughout. It is never phosphorescent.
6. Temporary arrest of symptoms between the occurrence of jaundice and black vomit.	6. Progressive increase of symptoms with no remission.
7. Sarcolactic acid is present in the urine, and leucin and tyrosin but rarely present.	7. Leucin and tyrosin are common in the urine.

Clinical Course.—This is short—from a few days to six weeks—and, in the majority of cases, fatal. In chronic poisoning the condition may tide over weeks or months and recovery follow.

ACUTE NON-SUPPURATIVE HEPATITIS

Predisposing and Exciting Factors.—This condition frequently arises during the course of acute infections; *e. g.*, typhoid, pneumonia, local subacute and acute infections.

Clinical Consideration.—The onset is comparatively sudden, but varies with the type of infection. The disease is actually ushered in by a series of mild chills, or chilly sensations, and physical depression. Nausea, vomiting and pain in the epigastrium are among the early symptoms. There is intense thirst, restlessness, headache and mental apathy. A sense of weight over the liver is common. Pain may, in rare instances, radiate to the right shoulder. Jaundice develops early, when the characteristic yellowness of the skin appears.

Thermic Features.—The temperature is elevated to 101 or 102 degrees. When acute nonsuppurative hepatitis appears there is to be expected a rise of approximately one degree in the temperature produced by the pre-existing malady.

Laboratory Findings.—The vomitus ordinarily contains bile, and at times blood. The feces emits an offensive odor. Diaorrhea is not uncommon. The urine is heavily colored from bile. In those cases developing during the course of typhoid fever, typhoid bacilli may be present in the feces and in the urine. Laboratory findings of the pre-existing disease are also present when non-suppurative hepatitis develops as a complication.

Diseases in Which the Size of the Liver Is Diminished

ATROPHIC CIRRHOSIS

General Remarks.—During the early stage of atrophic hepatic cirrhosis the liver may be moderately enlarged, although such increase in size is but temporary, and is followed, within a few months or a year, by a diminution in the size of the organ. At the beginning the symptoms and signs are often vague and indistinct. (For further symptomatology of this malady, see p. 640.)

Pathologic Definition.—A chronic condition characterized by extensive pathologic fibrous changes in the liver substance or in its capsule. The organ is somewhat enlarged during the early stage of the disease, and, in fact, a more or less permanent enlargement is possible, although in typical cases the size of the liver is reduced and the capsule thickened. The organ feels firm, and may at times be decidedly altered in shape.

It cuts with resistance, and displays grayish-white bands of connective tissue coursing through the cut surface. The liver may be mottled and show yellowish areas, which at times project above the surface. The organ may display a roughened surface, the so-called "hob-nailed" appearance.

Microscopically, the pathologic changes are seen to begin as an increase in the connective tissue surrounding the terminal branches of the portal vein. Later, the liver-cells are compressed, and the portal veins are also encroached upon by fibrous tissue. Early during the disease atrophic changes involving the hepatic cells are apparent, and the biliary canaliculi may be appreciably increased in number. In atypical cases of alcoholic cirrhosis the liver is enlarged, smooth, faintly granular, and somewhat soft.

Varieties.—(1) Atrophic cirrhosis (Laënnec's cirrhosis, alcohol or gin-drinker's liver); (2) Glissonian or capsular cirrhosis, in which the fibrous changes are limited to the capsule of Glisson; and (3) syphilitic cirrhosis.

Remarks.—Foxwell has recently shown that during the early stage of alcoholic cirrhosis the liver commonly shows moderate enlargement, although the organ becomes decreased in size as the disease progresses. The investigations of Morse throw a somewhat confusing light upon this subject, since his examination of the records of 37 cases of hepatic cirrhosis discloses the fact that 13 of them showed enlargement of the liver, in 11 the size of the organ was normal, and in 12 the liver was abnormally small. In Glissonian cirrhosis the diminution in the size of the organ is due to the capsule of Glisson being greatly thickened, and ofttimes the organ is surrounded by dense bands of fibrous tissue that, by their contraction, compress the liver at various points, giving it an extremely roughened surface, which has given to it the designation of "hob-nailed" liver.

Predisposing and Exciting Factors.—(*a*) Practically all writers are agreed that the excessive use of **alcohol** materially predisposes to, and is probably the exciting factor of, atrophic cirrhosis in a large percentage of all cases. In the present light of focal infection we must not over-look the fact that many cases are antedated by gastro-intestinal disturbance, and questionable evidence of gall-bladder disease. Cirrhosis will also be found to follow disease of the teeth and frontal sinuses. Alcohol probably predisposes as much, or more to focal infection than does it to hepatic cirrhosis.

(*b*) **Sex.**—Males are affected more often than females.

(*c*) **Age.**—Early adult and middle life is a prominent predisposing factor, more than 60 per cent. of all cases developing during the third and fourth decades.

(*d*) **Congenital syphilis, gout, chronic malaria,** and **chronic tuberculosis,** either of the lungs or of the bones, are believed to act as predisposing factors to the development of atrophic hepatic cirrhosis.

(*e*) **Fatty cirrhosis** is said to result from the excessive use of malt liquors, and is also seen to occur in persons suffering from obesity.

(*f*) **Chronic passive hyperemia** of the liver, the result of cardiac incompetency (tricuspid regurgitation) or of interference with the circulation through the lungs, may in time lead to the development of cirrhosis of the liver.

(*g*) **Acute Infections.**—Rarely, hepatic cirrhosis is seen to follow certain acute infections.

Principal Complaint.—The symptoms of atrophic cirrhosis are often vague until there is interference with the portal circulation; therefore, characteristic symptoms appear late in those cases in which the superficial abdominal veins are expanded to compensate for the impaired circulation through the liver.

The patient complains early of having lost flesh and of *morning nausea;* his tongue and teeth are frequently covered with a peculiar gummy substance upon rising after a night's sleep. Constipation develops early, and has often existed for years before the physician is consulted. As the disease advances the patient, in addition to being nauseated, may *vomit* once or twice during the twenty-four hours, and the vomitus may be blood-stained. As interference with the portal circulation becomes more marked the nausea and vomiting gradually increase, until the patient vomits nearly every morning. One of the earliest complaints of business men suffering from atrophic cirrhosis is of mental hebetude and inability to concentrate the mind, such patients often declaring that it tires them to think.

The continuous expectoration of blood-streaked sputum is an occasional late symptom, and is caused by *minute hemorrhages* from dilated esophageal veins. In conjunction with hemorrhages from the stomach and esophagus the patient develops hemorrhoids, and now complains of hemorrhage from the rectum. The severity of the hemorrhage from the rectum may vary greatly: at first but a small quantity—a few drops—is passed with each movement of the bowels, but the quantity increases until one or two ounces of blood may be expelled at each evacuation. Throughout the entire course of the malady there is a gradual but progressive *loss* in both *strength* and *flesh*.

Nervous Phenomena.—Toxemia may develop at any time during the course of the disease, but is most often seen in advanced cases, and is believed to be due to some toxic substance having entered the blood as the result of imperfect hepatic function. The nervous symptoms of toxemia usually develop at a time when there is inactivity of the kidneys, and, indeed, they closely resemble those of uremia. Severe headache may be continuous for days or even weeks, and periodic outbreaks of headache are not unusual. Confusion of ideas and even maniacal delirium may be seen, whereas convulsions and coma are occasionally observed.

Thermic Features.—Fever may be present at any time during the course of the disease, and ranges between 99° and 102° F. It is to be borne in mind, however, that atrophic cirrhosis may run its long course without showing an elevation of temperature.

Physical Signs.—Inspection.—*Skin.*—The complexion is somewhat sallow, and there is slight evidence of jaundice in 25 per cent. of cases, although distinct jaundice may not appear at any time during the disease. Bronzing of the skin (hemochromatosis), as described at length by Opie and others, is rarely observed.

The expression is anxious, the face is pinched, and there is emaciation of the chest and of the extremities. The abdominal veins are usually enlarged, and even the veins of the chest may attain an enormous size. Immediately surrounding the umbilicus there is often seen a plexus of dilated veins—the "caput medusæ." A nodular dilatation of the hemorrhoidal veins is seen at the rectum. After ascites sets in the abdomen becomes enormously distended. As the disease advances, the lower extremities become more and more edematous; edema of the scrotum, prepuce, and labia is a late annoyance.

Palpation.—The skin of the ankles and often of the lower limbs pits upon pressure, and later there is pitting over all dependent portions of the

trunk and chest. The pulse is of good tension, but becomes weak and more rapid with the advance of the disease. In those uncommon instances in which jaundice develops the pulse-rate is somewhat slower. Following the accumulation of fluid in the peritoneal cavity all the physical signs of ascites are present. (See p. 642.) Prior to the development of ascites or after the peritoneal fluid has been removed by aspiration the spleen is readily palpable, whereas the liver *is not* palpable.

Percussion.—The area of liver dullness in the midclavicular line is greatly diminished, and is usually found to extend to a level of one or more inches above the costal margin, whereas under normal conditions hepatic dullness extends to the margin of the ribs. Posteriorly, hepatic dullness is found to begin at a lower level than it does under normal conditions.

In cases exhibiting typical symptoms of atrophic cirrhosis the area of liver dullness may be increased or normal; it has been our experience to find such cases, when followed to autopsy, display other associated pathologic abdominal conditions.

Auscultatory percussion often enables one to ascertain the actual size of the liver (p. 643) in those cases in which ascites is present and where percussion is of little value.

Laboratory Diagnosis.—The *vomitus* displays nothing characteristic, although the morning vomiting of bloody material is highly suggestive of atrophic cirrhosis. The sputum may be blood-streaked. Late in the disease the urine is often highly colored and of high specific gravity. In those cases in which jaundice develops the urine is rich in bile. Albumin was found in but a single instance in 28 cases studied by Henry; in our experience albuminuria is common late in the disease, but urines rich in serum-albumin are not always found to contain renal casts. The quantity of urine and the amount of urea excreted during the twenty-four hours are below normal. Indicanuria is a common feature of atrophic cirrhosis.

The *hemic changes* are those of chronic secondary anemia, *e. g.*, the hemoglobin and red cells are decidedly diminished, and these changes may or may not be accompanied by alteration in the number of leukocytes

Summary of Diagnosis.—Progressive emaciation, gastric catarrh with morning vomiting, hematemesis, and blood-streaked expectoration which is cleared from the throat and not expelled by coughing, all support the diagnosis of hepatic cirrhosis. Hemorrhoids, ascites, edema of the lower extremities, secondary anemia, splenic enlargement, and diminution in the size of the liver are also among the cardinal features of atrophic cirrhosis.

Differential Diagnosis.—Late during its course atrophic cirrhosis is to be distinguished from both acute and chronic conditions that are known to exhibit ascites as one of their features.

Renal Disease.—Hepatic cirrhosis is distinguished from *renal disease* by an examination of the urine, which in the latter condition is rich in albumin and contains many casts. (See Chronic Parenchymatous Nephritis, p. 729.) The blood chemistry, and kidney function tests are of service in separating these two conditions.

Valvular heart disease, when accompanied by ascites, is distinguished from atrophic cirrhosis by the fact that the liver is enlarged in cardiac conditions and small in cirrhosis, whereas the spleen is enlared in both of these conditions. The exception to the foregoing statement is seen in those cases in which atrophic cirrhosis follows prolonged cyanotic congestion of the liver resulting from cardiac insufficiency.

Clinical Course.—Nearly all cases of atrophic hepatic cirrhosis are rapid in their course, and terminate fatally in from a few months to one year after symptoms of portal obstruction develop. Rarely, indeed, compensatory circulation is established through the superficial veins, and the patient lives for years.

WILSON'S DISEASE

A disease characterized pathologically by extensive cirrhosis of the liver, which changes are not entirely comparable to either portal or to syphilitic cirrhosis; although in most cases the functional disturbances correspond with those seen in portal cirrhosis. Pathological changes found in the spleen are the result of portal stasis. There are also degenerative changes of the nucleus lentiformis.

Remarks.—Progressive lenticular degeneration has been described at considerable length by Wilson, Gowers, and Mammack, and each of these writers has called especial attention to a mixed cirrhosis of the liver in connection with a rather symmetrical degeneration of the lenticular nuclei.

The first of this class of cases, a series of twelve, were described by Wilson in 1916. Geissmar in 1916 reported a detailed study of four cases including autopsy findings. During life those suffering from Wilson's disease exhibit progressive muscular weakness, dysphagia, and involuntary, rhythmic, muscular twitching. Gowers has referred to these cases as being closely allied to tetanoid chorea; and Geissmar has given an autopsy report in connection with three brothers having suffered from this disease. The patient's condition progresses from bad to worse.

Physical Examination.—These patients resemble in many respects those of ordinary hepatic cirrhosis and likewise they present many of the physical signs characteristic of this disease—*e. g.*, ascites, diminution in the size of the liver, undue pallor, and at times varying degrees of pigmentation of the skin. Geissman* observed jaundice in two reported cases. At certain stages during the course of this malady there may be bilateral tremor without actual paralysis.

GLISSONIAN CIRRHOSIS

Pathologic Definition.—A disease characterized by an abnormal fibrous thickening of the capsule of Glisson, with contraction of the liver, destruction of the hepatic cells, and a diminution in the size of the organ, with the symptoms of atrophic cirrhosis.

General Remarks and Etiology.—Perihepatitis is believed to be syphilitic in origin in the majority of instances, although certain other conditions are named as predisposing factors, as, *e. g.*, prolonged tight lacing, the following of occupations that make undue pressure over the liver, and suppurative processes of the liver and adjacent structures.

Glissonian cirrhosis may assume a decidedly chronic course, without giving evidence of interference with the flow of the return blood from the stomach and from the intestine.

Summary of Diagnosis.—An antemortem diagnosis is quite impossible. The features that point most strongly toward Glissonian cirrhosis are a history of syphilitic infection, a diminution in the size of the liver, pain over the right superior abdominal quadrant, and the amelioration of the symptoms after the application of antisyphilitic treatment. (See Syphilis of the Liver and Acute Perihepatitis.)

* Frank. Ztschr. f. Path., 1916, xviii, p. 305.

MULTIPLE SEROSITIS

(Adherent Pericarditis with Ascites (Pick's Disease))

Pick described this condition in 1896, and attributed the ascites to obliterative pericarditis, which was present in his reported instances. It has since been found that long standing hepatic congestion and pathologic findings of the serous membranes lead to this condition. Curschmann in a necropsy study of an individual case referred to the condition as "sugar-iced liver," and this cirrhotic condition of the liver is present to a variable degree in practically all cases. In brief, there is present the various stages of cirrhosis (nutmeg liver). Kelly collected from the literature 39 reported cases in 1903.

Clinical Consideration.—The chief features presented by Pick's Disease are ascites, without proportionate edema of the legs; enlargement of the liver, which may later become small in size; and the existence of perihepatitis and pericarditis is not uncommon. Patients suffering from Pick's disease may give a history of repeated aspirations of the peritoneum and of the pleura. Chronic adhesive pleurisy is to be considered in connection with multiple serositis.

In conclusion, one must weigh the clinical evidence carefully in consideration with all forms of cirrhosis of the liver, syphilis of the liver, hydatid disease of the liver, amoebic abscess of the liver, and chronic organic heart disease, with subsequent enlargement of the liver.

ACUTE YELLOW ATROPHY (Malignant Jaundice)

Pathologic Definition.—An acute, possibly infectious disease, characterized pathologically by extensive destruction of the hepatic parenchyma, diminution in the size of the liver, multiple cutaneous hemorrhages, and jaundice. (See Infections of Bile Passages and Liver, p. 672.)

Predisposing Factors.—Age and Sex.—The majority of cases develop between the age of fifteen and thirty-five years; females are affected more often than males, and the condition is said to follow childbirth.

Acute fevers, general sepsis, and syphilis are also regarded as exerting slight predisposing influence, whereas alcoholism and chronic atrophy of the liver are possible predisposing causes.

Principal Complaint.—The patient complains early of indisposition and gastro-intestinal disturbance, neither of which, however, is characteristic of the disease. When the condition is well established, there are more or less continuous *headache*, periodic attacks of *nausea* accompanied by *vomiting*, and complete *anorexia*.

Within the course of one or two weeks the acme is reached, and *grave nervous symptoms* develop, as *e. g.*, mental hebetude, followed by restlessness, excruciating pains in the head, and, later, there is generally either low muttering delirium or maniacal outbreaks. *Convulsions* may develop late, and are commonly followed by stupor, which gradually merges into coma. The development of nervous symptoms is of unfavorable prognostic omen, as the patient usually becomes *comatose* in from twenty-four to forty-eight hours thereafter.

Thermic Features.—At the onset there may be moderate fever, although it is in no way characteristic. The temperature may remain

practically at the normal until near the close, reaching 101° to 103° F. a few hours before death.

Physical Signs.—Inspection.—Within a few days after the initial symptoms the skin becomes jaundiced, and with the progress of the disease this symptom becomes intensified until the entire body is of a greenish-yellow hue. Petechial hemorrhages into the skin are a feature of acute yellow atrophy, and larger ecchymotic areas are not uncommon. The lips become dry and fissured, and the tongue is at first moderately coated, but may assume the so-called typhoid appearance late in the disease.

A coarse tremor of the hands and of the tongue is present. The mucous membrane of the mouth may show minute hemorrhages, and bleeding from the oral and nasal mucous surfaces may occur.

Palpation.—The liver is not readily palpable except during the initial or first stage of the disease, when the lower margin may be felt. As the disease progresses there is a distinct recession of the anterior inferior border of the liver, and this is most readily detected over the left lobe. Firm pressure over the liver elicits tenderness and may excite pain.

The *pulse* is not greatly accelerated at first, but the volume and tension are both diminished. As the disease progresses to the typhoid state the pulse becomes weak, rapid, and dicrotic.

Percussion.—At the onset the area of hepatic dullness is normal, or possibly slightly increased, but after the patient has entered into the typhoid state the area of liver dullness is markedly diminished. A characteristic feature is that this area lessens appreciably from day to day. Cases are recorded in which the liver was increased in size.

Laboratory Diagnosis.—Vomiting during the premonitory state is of common occurrence, and the vomitus contains, first, the contents of the stomach, and later, as a rule, blood is vomited; blood may also be extravasated into the mouth.

Constipation usually obtains, and the stools are often clay colored. When the disease reaches its acme, hemorrhage from the bowel occurs.

The urine voided during the twenty-four hours is smaller in quantity than normal, is of high color (stained with bile), and the specific gravity ranges between 1.025 and 1.035. *Chemically*, serum-albumin is present, there is a diminished excretion of urea, and hemorrhage from the bladder is not unusual.

Microscopically, the urine contains casts, leukocytes, and epithelial cells, all of which are bile-stained. Crystals of leucin and tyrosin (Fig. 276, see p. 715) are frequently seen. Red blood-cells are an almost constant finding.

Summary of Diagnosis.—The clinical factors—gradually increasing jaundice, moderate rise in temperature, and progressive increase in severity of the nervous symptoms—and the urinary findings, *e. g.*, choluria, hematuria, and the presence of leucin and tyrosin, are sufficient to warrant a diagnosis.

Differential Diagnosis.—Acute yellow atrophy is distinguished from **hypertrophic cirrhosis**—(*a*) By its gradual onset; (*b*) by the fact that leucin and tyrosin are seldom present in the urine; and (*c*) by the presence of enlargement of the liver in the latter condition.

Acute yellow atrophy closely simulates **acute phosphorus-poisoning,** and at times it is difficult to distinguish between these conditions.

Clinical Course.—Acute toxemia develops early, the cases usually progressing from bad to worse, until grave nervous symptoms develop. A fatal termination invariably follows.

JAUNDICE AND THE PATHOLOGIC CONDITIONS OF THE LIVER, GALL-BLADDER, AND BILE-DUCTS IN WHICH JAUNDICE FORMS A PROMINENT SYMPTOM

JAUNDICE

Pathologic and Clinical Consideration.—A symptom of any condition characterized by obstruction of the passage of bile through the biliary ducts or from the hepatic cells, and by staining of all the body-tissues with bile. Choluria, intense itching, urticaria, furunculosis, anorexia, constipation, clay-colored stools, headache, vertigo, insomnia, and a slow pulse comprise the other features of jaundice.

General Remarks.—It must be remembered that jaundice is but an expression of some underlying pathologic condition. In dealing with jaundice under a special heading we are simply considering at length the conditions capable of producing it, and, clinically, the many symptoms and signs that are invariably present. In other words, if the statement is allowable, we are here dealing with the "symptomatology and signs of a symptom," and not with a disease itself.

Varieties.—Two types of jaundice are recognized: (*a*) Hepatogenous (obstructive jaundice), and (*b*) hematogenous or jaundicing of the skin the result of degeneration of the blood-cells and liberation of their pigments. At present the latter condition is extremely rare, and some authors go so far as to refuse to recognize this type of jaundice; for these reasons we shall consider only that type which is of hepatic origin, and which certainly includes the vast majority of cases.

Exciting Factors.—(1) Obstruction to the common duct (as, *e. g.*, by gall-stones); (2) invasion of the common duct by round-worms (rare); (3) the existence of liver flukes in the bild-ducts (rare); (4) carcinomatous growths within the common duct; (5) acute catarrh of the common duct; (6) acute catarrh of the gall-bladder; (7) purulent inflammation of the gall-bladder; (8) empyema of the gall-bladder; (9) stricture of the common duct following ulceration or traumatism from gall-stone; (10) reduced blood-pressure in the liver, which is followed by the absorption of bile by the blood; (11) rapid destruction of the liver tissue, as is seen in phosphorus-poisoning, and also interference with the escape of bile from the hepatic cells, as is seen in hypertrophic cirrhosis and acute yellow atrophy; and (12) pressure upon the common duct from without, which may result from tumor of the omentum, pancreas, liver, stomach, floating kidney, pregnancy, abdominal aneurism, etc.

Clinical Picture.—Cutaneous Manifestations.—Yellowing and pigmentation of the skin are among the earliest signs of jaundice, and there is also discoloration of the conjunctivæ. In this condition it is important that the patient be examined by sunlight, since the cutaneous pigment of jaundice is not discernible with artificial light. After jaundice has persisted for several weeks, the skin is tinted a greenish hue, and may even assume a greenish bronze color.

Pruritus and *itching* are troublesome, and the more chronic the condition, the more pronounced are these symptoms. *Urticaria* may develop at any time during an attack of jaundice, and is often persistent. Furunculosis is common, and infection of the skin by pus-producing organisms probably takes place from attempts to relieve the intense itching. Profuse *sweating* is the rule, and may be either general or localized. The palms of the hands, soles of the feet, and the skin overlying the abdomen are favorite sites for profuse sweating, and the axillary and inguinal regions may be similarly affected. See p. 693.

Xanthelasma, the development of bright yellow, slightly elevated spots upon the skin, may follow in those cases in which jaundice is protracted, and the favorite site is about the eyelids. Cutaneous ecchymoses (see Acute Yellow Atrophy) and ecchymoses of the mucous surface are also an occasional feature in grave types of jaundice.

Gastro-intestinal Features.—The symptoms of gastro-intestinal catarrh are usually present, *e. g.*, anorexia, nausea, hiccough, a sense of fullness over the epigastrium, and flatulency. In the more serious types of the condition vomiting, intestinal pain, pain over the liver, and hepatic tenderness are quite common. In jaundice following a chill (severe rigor) vomiting is the rule. Constipation is the rule, the stools being of a glazed slate color, and having a pronounced odor. Diarrhea may develop at any time during an attack.

Thermic Features.—Fever is not an essential feature of jaundice, and when present, will be found to vary in direct accordance with the exciting cause of the jaundice, or some other associated febrile malady.

Nervous Phenomena.—Mental dullness, inability to concentrate the mind, forgetfulness, irritability of temper, insomnia, headache, and vertigo develop early, and increase in severity as the condition progresses. Maniacal or low muttering delirium and coma may develop in those cases in which auto-intoxication is profound. When marked nervous symptoms are present, the condition is generally referred to as acholia or cholemia, although the true nature of the toxic agent responsible for such symptoms is doubtful.

Ocular Peculiarities.—In cases of deep jaundice the vision is sometimes yellow—a condition known as *xanthopsia*. In very rare instances the tears are tinged with bile.

Secretions and Excretions.—The *urine* is colored by the bile, and displays a distinctly yellowish or yellowish-green hue. When shaken, the urine of jaundice displays a heavy froth, which is also bile-stained—a feature that serves to distinguish the froth of choluria from that of other conditions. The organic sediments of the urine—*e. g.*, casts, leukocytes, red blood-cells, and epithelial cells—are also bile-stained.

Milk.—When jaundice develops while the mammary glands are functionating, the milk is stained by bile-pigment; and when jaundice has persisted for a long time, there is slight yellowing of the saliva. A fact to be borne in mind in this connection is that the lacrimal secretion which is colored by the bile escapes into the nose and may find its way into the mouth. The blood does not coagulate normally and bleeding is to be feared when even operations are necessary.

Clinical Course.—The intensity of discoloration of the skin, secretions, and excretions depends entirely upon the character of the causal factor in each case, and upon the length of time jaundice has existed. In those cases due to simple catarrhal inflammation of the bile-ducts that has probably extended from the duodenum, the icteroid tint disappears in from ten days to three weeks, but where there is obstruction of the duct, the condition may persist for weeks and even for months. When jaundice is the result of infection of the gall-bladder by pyogenic bacteria (cholecystitis), the already prominent symptoms of the preëxisting or underlying affection are simply aggravated, as is exemplified by the jaundice occasionally seen to complicate lobar pneumonia and other acute infections.

CATARRHAL JAUNDICE

Pathologic Definition.—A condition excited by the extension of a simple gastro-duodenal catarrh to the common bile-duct, with temporary

obstruction, as the result of swelling of the lining mucous surface of the duct. There is also jaundice of the skin and viscera.

The **exciting factor** is, as a rule, extension of a catarrhal process from the duodenum.

Among the **predisposing factors** are: (1) Dietetic errors—(*a*) Overeating and the eating of rich and improperly cooked foods; (*b*) rapid eating which necessitates imperfect mastication; (*c*) the excessive and prolonged use of such irritating beverages and stimulants as alcohol, strong coffee, and tea. (2) Exposure to cold and wet. (3) Overwork, mental anxiety, and undue mental strain. (4) The condition may develop during the course of acute infections. *e. g.*, typhoid fever, pneumonia, etc., but the jaundice of malaria seldom belongs to this particular type. (5) Rarely, indeed, epidemic outbreaks of catarrhal jaundice have been reported; and (6) interference with the portal circulation, such as is seen in chronic heart, lung, and kidney conditions, may contribute toward the development of catarrhal jaundice.

Principal Complaint.—*Gastric disturbance* is present for two or more days prior to the development of jaundice, and consists of anorexia, inordinate thirst, fullness over the abdomen, slight discomfort in the region of the liver, and flatulence. Vomiting may also be present.

Diarrhea, lasting from a few hours to as many days, may appear early. *Constipation*, however, is the rule. Following the initial symptoms the patient exhibits malaise, general weakness, stupor, and a tendency to sleep during the day, whereas at night he is often wakeful.

Thermic Features.—The temperature may be normal at the time jaundice is detected, although prior to its development the fever is that of catarrhal gastritis. (See p. 533.) Until the pigmentation begins to disappear, there may be a temperature ranging between 99° and 101° F. A high temperature is suggestive of approaching complications.

Physical Examination.—While the patient is examined by daylight the first evidence of the presence of jaundice is a slight yellowing of the conjunctivæ, which discoloration rapidly deepens to a bright lemon yellow; when jaundice persists for two or more weeks, the skin and conjunctivæ may display a greenish tint.

The signs, symptoms, and general characteristics of the conditions accompanying jaundice are described under the general consideration of jaundice (see p. 670), and are, as a rule, present in simple catarrhal jaundice. The essential fact to be borne in mind is that the characteristic features of jaundice vary in severity, depending entirely upon the duration of the attack. See p. 670, Sweating 693.

Duration.—The majority of all cases tend toward recovery by the end of the second week, although the condition may rarely continue for six to eight weeks. "If symptoms continue longer than two months, grave doubts may be entertained as to the case being one of simple jaundice" (Anders).

SUPPURATIVE CATARRH OF THE BILE-DUCTS

Pathologic Definition.—A condition characterized by a secondary septic process involving the mucous surface of the bile-ducts and resulting in temporary obstruction. The skin, mucous surface, and viscera are also jaundiced.

Etiologic Factors.—(1) Direct extension of a suppurative process from one of the adjacent structures. (2) The entrance into the common duct of animal parasites such as the liver fluke is also regarded as an exciting cause. (3) The passage of gall-stones may have occasioned an

initial inflammation that renders this a favorable site for infection. (4) Carcinoma of the common duct is a predisposing factor. (5) The condition may also follow operations upon the rectum, and acute sepsis and infections.

Summary of Diagnosis.—It is with great difficulty that one is able to make a positive diagnosis of suppuration of the bile-ducts, since in the majority of such cases there is likely to be a suppurative process of the gall-bladder (purulent cholecystitis). The symptoms and signs displayed by suppuration of the bile-passages resemble closely those occurring in other forms of disease of the liver. A clinical history of sepsis elsewhere, or of an attack of gall-stone colic, when jaundice is present, together with high, irregular fever and marked prostration, are suggestive of the existence of a purulent inflammation of the mucous surface of the bile-ducts.

CHRONIC CATARRH OF THE BILE-DUCTS

Pathologic Definition.—A condition characterized by chronic obstruction to the common bile-duct, with chronic inflammation of the mucous surface of the bile-passages. The mucosa of the ducts and the gall-bladder is covered by a heavy, mucoid exudate, and the epithelial cells are destroyed.

Predisposing Factors.—The predisposing factors are the passage of gall-stones, pressure from without, malignant disease, and stricture of the common duct.

Varieties and Characteristics of Each.—(1) In complete obstruction of the common bile-duct there is usually a history of repeated attacks of hepatic colic, and during some of these attacks there may have been distinct temporary enlargement of the gall-bladder. With distention of the gall-bladder there is increasing jaundice. The temperature remains approximately normal. Persistent enlargement of the gall-bladder is strongly suggestive of the extension of malignant disease, while intermittent enlargement indicates that gall-stones are the exciting factors.

(2) If incomplete or temporary obstruction to the common bile-duct is due to gall-stones, there are recurrences of paroxysmal pain, accompanied by chills, fever that rises abruptly to from 103° to 105° F., and falls rapidly to the normal, and profuse sweats. (See p. 693.) The paroxysms of incomplete obstruction to the common bile-duct resemble closely the paroxysms of malaria (quotidian, tertian, or quartan fever).

In certain selected cases jaundice is persistent, but in the majority of them it is intermittent, and its intensity is influenced by the length of time it has existed. Again, the patient becomes more and more jaundiced after each attack. The general clinical picture of incomplete obstruction to the common bile-duct is that described under Cholelithiasis.

HEMOLYTIC JAUNDICE

Pathologic Definition.—A chronic type of anemia with persistent non-obstructive jaundice and splenomegaly. The spleen is enlarged, there is congestion of the sinuses, and pigmentation in the liver, kidneys, and bone-marrow.

Clinical Consideration.—There is chronic jaundice of varying intensity, without biluria, and cutaneous itching. Jaundice may almost disappear and then return in marked exacerbations. Associated with the subicterus there is an anemia which fluctuates in severity in direct relation to the jaundice. The blood shows diminished resistance of the

red cells, "finding which is almost pathognomonic of the condition." There is an excessive urobilin output. The spleen is enlarged. These hemolytic crises become more frequent and more severe, and are accompanied later by pain in the region of the liver and spleen. A rise in temperature is seen during acute attacks.

CHOLELITHIASIS

(GALL-STONES; BILIARY CALCULI; CALCULOUS CHOLECYSTITIS)

Pathologic Definition.—A condition resulting from the pathologic precipitation of salts from the bile and the formation of calculi within the gall-bladder or the bile-ducts. There may also be a subacute or chronic inflammatory process involving the mucous surface of the gall-bladder and of the larger bile-ducts. At times pronounced inflammation results in an appreciable diminution in the size of the gall-bladder, the organ becoming thickened and shriveled.

Varieties.—Clinically, there are two great classes: (1) That in which there is no hepatic colic, and which probably comprises more than 50 per cent. of all cases; (2) that in which hepatic colic forms a most prominent feature.

Exciting Factors.—(*a*) Concentration of the bile, which results in a precipitation of its salts. (*b*) The belief is now quite general that the initial excitant is an infection of the gall-bladder with microörganisms, *e. g.*, members of the "colon group" of bacteria. Cholecystitis either acute or chronic should be considered in this connection. Bacterial infection of the gall-bladder may be a complication in acute infectious diseases, and also in chronic focal infections; consequently focal infection should not be ignored in searching for the cause of gall-bladder maladies. The cholesterin content of the blood in cholelithiasis and in hepatic cirrhosis was found by Sisto to range from 0.93 to 6.10 per thousand.

Predisposing Factors.—Age and Sex.—Acute infections and focal infection serve as the exciting factors in most cases. Although biliary calculi may form at almost any age, they usually occur during the fourth and fifth decades. Women are far more frequently subject to this condition than men, the ratio being approximately four to one. Kehr in operating on 954 cases found duodenal ulcer in 29 of them, and of these patients 26 were males. Binet and Gastón-Durand in the analysis of 1286 cases of gall-stones in women found that the attacks appeared with regular periodicity, and in 1037 of the cases occurred with menstruation.

Sedentary habits greatly predispose to the formation of gall-stones, as do also overeating of rich foods and excessive indulgence in alcoholic beverages. Inflammation of the inner surface of the gall-bladder may result from infection by the liver fluke in some of the adjacent gall-ducts. Again, disease of the gall-bladder may complicate typhoid fever, pneumonia, or other of the acute infections, and in such cases there is probably a specific infection of the gall-bladder which precedes the formation of an excess of mucus and favors precipitation of bile salts.

Constipation, chronic duodenal catarrh with partial obstruction of the common duct, pancreatic disease, and extrahepatic conditions (tumors, causing constriction of or pressure upon the common bile-duct) favor the development of gall-stones.

General Remarks.—Brockbank, in an analysis of over 13,000 post-mortem records, found gall-stones in 7.4 per cent. Probably the majority of those having gall-stones never display symptoms referable to this condition. Gall-stones may be unusually small, and escape through

the common bile-duct without causing any irritation either of the common bile-duct or of the surrounding tissues. On the other hand, calculi may be too large to enter the common duct, and thus the symptoms of colic are absent. In those cases in which the gall-bladder is filled with one or more calculi the organ itself becomes greatly thickened and is often actually diminished in size. See *x*-ray p. 655.

Principal Complaint.—In the absence of hepatic colic the diagnosis is made largely from the clinical history and the physical signs. Given an individual over forty who complains of slight discomfort over the region of the liver and displays the following signs, one should always suspect the presence of cholelithiasis. Pain resembling angina pectoris is by no means uncommon.

Physical Signs.—Inspection.—As a rule, the skin presents a slightly icteroid hue, with somewhat brownish circles beneath the eyes.

During the attack the patient usually writhes in pain, and lies with his chest bent forward and his thighs flexed well upon the trunk. His general appearance suggests agonizing intestinal colic, so that it becomes necessary to differentiate carefully between hepatic, renal, and intestinal colic. (See Differential Diagnosis, p. 625, 631.)

Jaundice develops within forty-eight hours after an attack, when occlusion of the common bile-duct occurs. In those cases in which repeated attacks take place, jaundice will be intensified after each paroxysm. Slight prominence of the hepatic area may be present. The symptoms and signs characteristic of jaundice (p. 670) are also present in hepatic colic, and Fitz claims that jaundice is present in about 50 per cent. of all cases. Infective foci, of long standing are often demonstrable. (See Focal Infection, p. 453.)

Palpation.—It is usually possible to elicit slight tenderness over the region of the gall-bladder, and by combined auscultation and palpation, when more than one stone is present, a distinct crepitus is often audible. Place the stethoscope over the margin of the gall-bladder, and while auscultating, carry the palpating fingers well underneath the costal margin, and endeavor to compress the gall-bladder. Gall-stone fremitus is a positive finding, and enables one to make the diagnosis irrespective of the presence of colic.

If the attack is mild, the pulse is stimulated, but during a severe attack of gall-stone colic the pulse becomes weak, rapid, small, and dicrotic. After jaundice develops the pulse is practically that of catarrhal jaundice, and will be found in uncomplicated cases to number between forty and sixty beats a minute.

The edge of the liver is felt beneath the costal margin, and distention of the gall-bladder is quite common.

Firm pressure over the region of the liver at approximately a level with the gall-bladder, will reveal small areas of tenderness. In order that the examiner does not overlook this sign it is well to start at the right nipple line on a level with lower margin of the liver and press firmly on this line, with one finger, ascending the line and making pressure with one finger between the ribs until a level with the nipple is reached. In like manner exert pressure on the anterior axillary, mid-axillary, posterior-axillary and scapula lines from below upward.

Many areas of tenderness are found as a rule, in both inflammation of the gall-bladder and in cholelithiasis.

The evidence obtained by palpation, when present, calls for a careful study. We have grown to regard tenderness over the liver as a valuable diagnostic feature in both gall stones and gall-bladder disease.

Ulnar Percussion.—This method was first employed by our colleague Dr. Riesman in an effort to elicit gall-bladder tenderness, in cases where in event of gall-bladder disease other physical methods gave negative evidence.

Technique.—Direct the patient to inspire as deeply as possible, and to hold the breath.

Strike a sudden but gentle blow with the ulnar surface of the hand across the right rectus, (at a point on the mid clavicular line and midway between the costal margin and the umbilicus).

The patient experiences a sharp deeply localized pain in event of gall-bladder disease.

This method is of value in determining areas of tenderness in kidney, gastric, intestinal, and pelvic lesions.

Caution.—Compare the results after percussing the two sides of the abdomen.

Biliary Colic.—*Pain.*—When calculi become impacted or lodged within the hepatic duct, the cystic duct, or common bile-duct, there is agonizing pain, usually described as cutting, tearing, or boring in character. Pain always begins in the superior right abdominal quadrant, and when it becomes severe, radiates to the back, particularly to the right scapula and shoulder In the majority of cases the patients are able to localize the seat of the pain, and in these it is two or three inches to the right of the median line, and probably two inches from the costal cartilages. Pain is occasionally localized to the region of the gall-bladder, and is then said to be a symptom of occlusion of the cystic duct; acute cholecystitis, however, will also give rise to pain in this region.

Hepatic colic often develops some hours after a meal, and it may rarely appear with such suddenness and severity as to produce a state of collapse within a comparatively short period. When the calculus escapes from the common bile-duct, pain immediately subsides. In those cases in which the common bile-duct is occluded for a prolonged period, the pain may abate for a time, but does not completely disappear. When the pain is severe, vomiting is especially likely to occur.

Chills.—An attack of gall-stone colic is frequently ushered in with a severe rigor, and during and after the chill the temperature will be found to have risen abruptly to 101° or even 102° F. It should be remembered that hepatic calculi may pass through the common bile-duct and enter the duodenum without giving rise to any symptoms, unless, perhaps, they set up sufficient irritation to cause cholecystitis.

Repeated attacks are the rule, but a history of previous attacks is in no way suggestive of the severity of the present attack.

Sweating.—Following the chill and fever there is a drenching sweat, during which the patient is likely to fall asleep. (See p. 693.)

Laboratory Diagnosis.—The *feces* are clay colored, and emit a very offensive odor. Gall-stones may escape through the common bile-duct into the intestine, or through fistulous communications between the intestine and the gall-bladder. Hepatic calculi, varying in size from that of a kernel of corn to that of a walnut, have been discovered in the feces.

Meltzer,* advanced certain theories regarding the action of drugs upon the function of the gall-bladder and liver, and called attention particularly to the innervation of the gall-bladder with reference to its contractile mechanism, and also to the existence of a true sphincter at the papilla of water. In 1919 Lyon† acting upon the suggestion of Meltzer, suggested a treatment for gall-bladder disease through which he introduced certain

* Am. Jour. Med. Sci., 153: 469, April, 1917.
† Jour. Am. Med. Assoc., Sept. 27, p. 980.

substances into the duodenum through the duodenal tube. The successive steps in the Lyon theory, for diagnosis are as follows:

(1) The introduction of magnesium sulphate solution into the duodenum at the fasting state relaxes the sphincter at the mouth of the common duct.

(2) A flow of bile (common duct bile) follows, and was designated "A" bile.

(3) The gall-bladder contracts and gall-bladder bile or "B" bile appears in the duodenum, and may be recovered through the tube.

(4) In successive order follows "C" bile, or bile from the common ducts, and still later "D" bile, or pure liver bile.

The various types of bile are collected, and examined with reference to their naked eye appearance, microscopic findings, and variations in color and consistency, which features suggest disease.

Croh, Reiss, and Radin,* have employed the Lyon test, following 20 of their cases to operation, and conclude that the Lyon test is unreliable, and misleading.

Neuhoff,† states that in the case of four patients who had no gall bladder the introduction of magnesium sulphate into the duodenum brought about the same amount of bile as in persons with gall bladder intact.

The *urine* is bile-stained, and frequently contains serum-albumin and casts. Glucose may be present in small amounts; Exner asserts that he found it present in 39 of 40 cases examined. It may here be stated that the copper or Fehling test is unreliable when bile acids are present in the urine. The observations of Fausch, which include a study of 85 cases, showed glycosuria to be present in but one of them. The blood sugar shows an abnormal increase in cases complicated by pancreatitis. The *gastric contents* may show an excess of free hydrochloric acid. (See Hyperchlorhydria, p. 516, also Hypoacidity, p. 515.)

Summary of Diagnosis.—Owing to the obscure clinical features displayed by those cases in which hepatic colic is not present, a diagnosis is made with extreme difficulty. The presence of tenderness over the region of the gall-bladder and the eliciting of gall-stone crepitus are most valuable in attaining a diagnosis.

When the calculus becomes impacted in the duct and the general clinical picture is that of biliary colic, the diagnosis is based on—(*a*) the presence of colic-like pain in the epigastrium, radiating to the shoulder; (*b*) the development of jaundice within seventy-two hours; (*c*) the characteristic fever; and (*d*) the recovery of hepatic calculi from the feces.

Differential Diagnosis.—Hepatic colic may be confused with practically any condition in which paroxysmal pain in the abdomen occurs. It is readily distinguished from **uterine colic,** since the latter recurs with distinct periodicity and always antedates or develops during menstruation.

The **colic of lead-workers** can readily be distinguished from hepatic colic by a history of employment that necessitates the handling of lead. The lead line on the gums, the presence of lead in the urine, marked anemia (with basophilic degeneration of the red cells), and obstinate constipation are pathognomonic of chronic plumbism.

Gastralgia is seen only in neurasthenic individuals, and its characteristic features are: (*a*) Paroxysmal pain in the epigastrium, encircling

* Jour. Am. Med. Assoc., June 4th, 1920, p. 1567.
† Jour. Missouri State Med. Assoc., May, 1921.

the base of the chest, and extending to the back; (*b*) the pain begins when the stomach is empty; (*c*) it is relieved by the taking of food and by making firm pressure over the epigastrium; (*d*) it is an afebrile condition, and (*e*) there is an absence of jaundice. These features are all widely different from those found in hepatic colic.

Intestinal Colic.—Here there is usually a history of dietetic errors, as, *e. g.*, of overindulgence in unripe or decomposing fruits. The pain at first extends over the entire abdomen, but soon becomes localized to the umbilicus (not to the hepatic region), and in contradistinction to that of hepatic colic, it does not radiate to the right shoulder. Abdominal distention is quite common; vomiting is profuse, and the vomitus contains undigested food. Diarrhea may develop during the attack, and the general clinical picture may be that of cholera morbus (p. 611). Characteristic fever is absent.

Tabetic crises, acute appendicitis, renal colic, angina pectoris (with abdominal pain) and acute pancreatitis may all cause pain resembling biliary colic.

Course.—As a rule, the attacks recur. Cardiac palpitation is present, and may be followed by circulatory collapse. If infection of the parts follows an attack, the case becomes one of purulent cholecystitis.

Complications.—**Rupture of the common bile-duct** is a rare but serious complication, and is usually followed by extensive peritonitis. **Localized peritonitis** may result from direct extension of the infectious process, but is seldom fatal.

Intestinal obstruction may result from impaction of the cecum with hepatic calculi, and fistulous communications between the gall-bladder and the colon are also among the rare findings. **Hepatic abscess,** when complicating cholelithiasis, immediately becomes of serious moment.

TABLE SHOWING THE DISTINCTIVE FEATURES BETWEEN HEPATIC COLIC, RENAL COLIC, AND APPENDICITIS

Hepatic Colic	Renal Colic	Appendicitis
1. A history of having recovered gall-stones from the feces at previous attacks.	1. Possible history of having passed calculi with the urine.	1. Negative.
2. Attack begins some hours (two to four) after a full meal.	2. Not influenced by eating.	2. Pain may develop at any time.
3. Paroxysmal pain, radiating to the scapula or right shoulder.	3. Pain radiates along the course of the ureter, and patient may feel the site of pain getting lower and lower as the stone passes toward the bladder.	3. Pain at first over entire abdomen, but later becomes localized at McBurney's point.
4. Pain disappears abruptly.	4. Disappears abruptly.	4. Lessens gradually.
5. Tenderness in the region of the gall-bladder and in the epigastrium at right of the median line.	5. Tenderness may be elicited along the course of the ureter, but is often absent.	5. Tenderness at McBurney's point, and rigidity of the right abdominal wall.
6. Temperature rises abruptly to 100° to 102° F., and falls by crisis.	6. Temperature resembles closely that of hepatic colic, except in severe cases, when it becomes subnormal.	6. Temperature 99° to 101° F.; irregular in type.

Hepatic Colic	Renal Colic	Appendicitis
7. Chill antedates the pain.	7. Chill less common	7. Absent.
8. Jaundice usually develops within the first twenty-four to forty-eight hours.	8. Absent.	8. Absent.
9. Urine bile-stained.	9. May be bloody or contain calculi.	9. Indicanuria.
10. Calculi may be passed with the feces.	10. Absent.	10. Absent. Constipation the rule.
11. *X*-ray positive in 25 per cent. of gall-stones.	11. In 60 per cent.	11. Negative.

CARCINOMA OF THE BILE-DUCT

Pathologic Definition.—An epitheliomatous process, with primary involvement of the mucous membrane of the common bile-duct. There is a tendency toward metastasis to the liver and adjacent viscera, and the disease may spread by direct extension to the gall-bladder.

Predisposing Factors.—Among the predisposing influences are **mechanical irritation,** such as is produced by the passing of gall-stones through the duct. Confirmatory of this are the researches of Osler, who found that seven of every eight persons dead of carcinoma of the gall-duct had suffered from cholelithiasis.

Herdity is not without effect, and the disease is seldom seen in persons before the forty-sixth year.

Sex.—Carcinoma of the gall-duct is more common in females than in males, the ratio being as four is to one. Primary carcinoma of the bile-ducts, appears 4 times in Goldstein's collection of 12 cases reported.

Principal Complaint.—A clear history of previous attacks of hepatic colic is usually given. These attacks may have continued over a period of years. When there is only partial obstruction of the common bile-duct, the patient may display some of the features of *jaundice,* although distinct pigmentation of the skin is not an essential factor at this stage. Epigastric distress, a sense of fullness in the region of the liver, and vague pains in the hepatic region are generally experienced, although none of these symptoms is characteristic.

Physical Signs.—Inspection.—Evidences of emaciation and cachexia are seen early. Jaundice, with its characteristic cutaneous and scleral pigmentation, develops early, and persists throughout the disease. Abdominal distention occurs as a late symptom in those cases in which ascites develops.

Palpation usually reveals the fact that the gall-bladder is somewhat enlarged, but not tender, and the peculiar doughy mass felt to protrude beyond the costal margin is quite characteristic of obstruction of the common bile-duct. The surface of the liver may become nodular from metastatic growths.

Laboratory Diagnosis.—The urine is early colored with bile-pigment, as are all its organic sediments. When obstruction becomes complete, there is an absence of bile-pigment in the feces.

OBSTRUCTION AND STENOSIS OF THE BILE-DUCT

Obstruction and stenosis of the bile-duct have been considered at length; both conditions are characterized by jaundice.

DISEASES OF THE PORTAL VEIN

THROMBOSIS

Pathologic Definition.—A condition resulting in occlusion of the lumen of the portal vein by an organized blood-clot. Ascites, general venous stasis, hemorrhage into the mucous surfaces, and jaundice are present.

Predisposing Factors.—This rare condition may have an obscure etiology, although its development is favored by traumatism to the abdomen, hepatic cirrhosis, carcinoma, and pressure from tumors within the liver or other abdominal growths (enlarged glands, abscess, carcinoma, etc.). Rarely does thrombosis follow ulcerative processes of the intestine, as, *e. g.*, appendicitis, tuberculous enteritis, and catarrhal dysentery operations on the rectum, etc. Impaired circulation through the liver, as is seen in valvular heart disease, and those blood conditions characterized by splenic enlargement, are also believed to favor the formation of a clot in the portal vein.

Principal Complaint.—In the majority of instances the symptomatology of thrombosis is indefinite, and a diagnosis is made only with extreme difficulty. In many cases the symptoms are slight, the patient complaining only of general weakness and of slight gastric and intestinal disturbances.

Complete Occlusion of the Vein.—Here the patient early manifests *hemorrhage* from the mucous surfaces; thus the vomiting of blood is quite common, as is also hemorrhage from the bowel. *Jaundice* and the many symptoms that accompany it develop early, and continue through the course of the disease. There are anorexia, general weakness, and, possibly, diarrhea. *Nervous symptoms*, as, *e. g.*, delirium, stupor, and coma, appear when the disease is at its height.

Physical Signs.—Inspection.—The abdomen may be somewhat distended; the skin and conjunctivæ are jaundiced, and the expression is anxious.

Palpation.—The liver is found to extend perceptibly below the costal margin, and firm pressure over the organ elicits tenderness. There is also splenic enlargement. In those cases complicated by ascites, movable dullness and fluctuation are present.

Sequelæ.—When thrombosis is due to the presence of septic emboli, abscess-formation generally occurs.

PURULENT PHLEBITIS

Pathologic Definition.—A purulent inflammation of the portal vein or of its tributaries, following ulcerative processes in the abdomen or infection through the umbilical cord of the new-born.

Etiology.—Phlebitis of the portal vein follows purulent appendicitis probably oftener than any one other preëxisting condition. It has also been known to develop during the course of pyemia, tuberculosis of the intestine, typhoid fever, dysentery, and ovarian abscess, and to follow infection through the umbilical cord.

Principal Complaint.—The symptoms are, as a rule, obscure, the diagnosis being based largely upon the existence of an actively septic process. *Pain* is usually present, but is in no way characteristic. In a case recently under observation at the Philadelphia General Hospital intense pain was experienced in the epigastrium, and was reflected over the upper portion of the abdomen.

Chills are likely to occur every twenty-four hours, and are always followed by a rise of temperature and by profuse sweating. *Nausea* and *vomiting* develop early, and may continue throughout the attack. *Diarrhea* is not uncommon.

Nervous Symptoms.—Stupor and low muttering delirium are present from the first day, and with the advance of the disease the delirium becomes maniacal. Coma is a grave symptom, and continues until death.

Thermic Features.—The temperature is irregular, ranging between 99° and 104° F., but as the disease advances, it commonly assumes the continued type.

Physical Signs.—Inspection.—The skin is jaundiced, but assumes more of a muddy hue than that of distinct icterus. The upper portion of the abdomen is slightly prominent. The tongue is heavily coated, the teeth are covered with sordes, and the lips are parched and often fissured.

Palpation.—The pulse soon becomes thready, numbering 120 to 140 beats a minute, and as the disease advances, it grows, weak, dicrotic, and compressible. The liver may or may not extend below the costal margin. In those cases in which abscess exists the liver is distinctly enlarged. There is also some tenderness over the upper portion of the abdomen, and splenic enlargement is the rule.

Percussion shows an increased area of splenic dullness, which is best detected in the axillary line. The area of liver dullness may be increased.

Laboratory Diagnosis.—Examination of the blood shows the number of leukocytes to be between 12,000 and 30,000 in a cubic millimeter, and this increase concerns chiefly the polymorphonuclear cells. Cultures from the blood may show the presence of pathogenic bacteria, as was recently observed in two cases under observation at the Philadelphia General Hospital.

Course.—All cases terminate in death in from seven to twenty-eight days.

ICTERUS NEONATORUM

Pathologic Definition.—A condition brought about by alteration in the blood-pressure in the hepatic vessels, by destruction of red blood-corpuscles, or by congenital obstruction of the common bile-duct.

Varieties.—(1) The so-called physiologic variety is often referred to as the simple type, and follows ligation of the umbilical cord. (2) The pathologic variety is usually dependent upon a congenital deformity in the hepatic ducts or upon syphilitic hepatitis, and under this heading should also be considered septic phlebitis following infection of the umbilical cord.

General Remarks.—By some a variable degree of icterus following ligation of the umbilical cord in the new-born is regarded as a physiologic process. Jaundice develops by the end of the third day after birth, and the cutaneous phenomena resemble those of jaundice in the adult. The urine is not bile-stained unless the degree of jaundice is extreme, and the feces are of the normal color, since there is no obstruction to the escape of the bile into the duodenum.

The severe pathologic and congenital types are of grave prognostic moment. Jaundice becomes extreme by the third to the fifth day after birth. The stools are clay colored, and a fatal termination is the rule.

THE SPLEEN

TOPOGRAPHY

Under normal conditions the spleen measures about three by five inches. Anatomically, it extends posteriorly to a point one and one-half inches to the left of the spine, and anteriorly to the axillary line. It is bounded above by the lower margin of the eighth rib, below by the eleventh rib, and its long axis is practically parallel with the ribs (Figs. 263 and 266). Posteriorly, the organ is in direct apposition to the top of the left kidney. Its superior surface is in contact with the diaphragm, whereas anteriorly and inferiorly it is in touch with a portion of the stomach, transverse colon, small intestine, and diaphragm (Fig. 262). The notch situated about the center of the anterior border of the spleen is of great clinical significance in determining the size of the organ when this indentation is recognized by palpation.

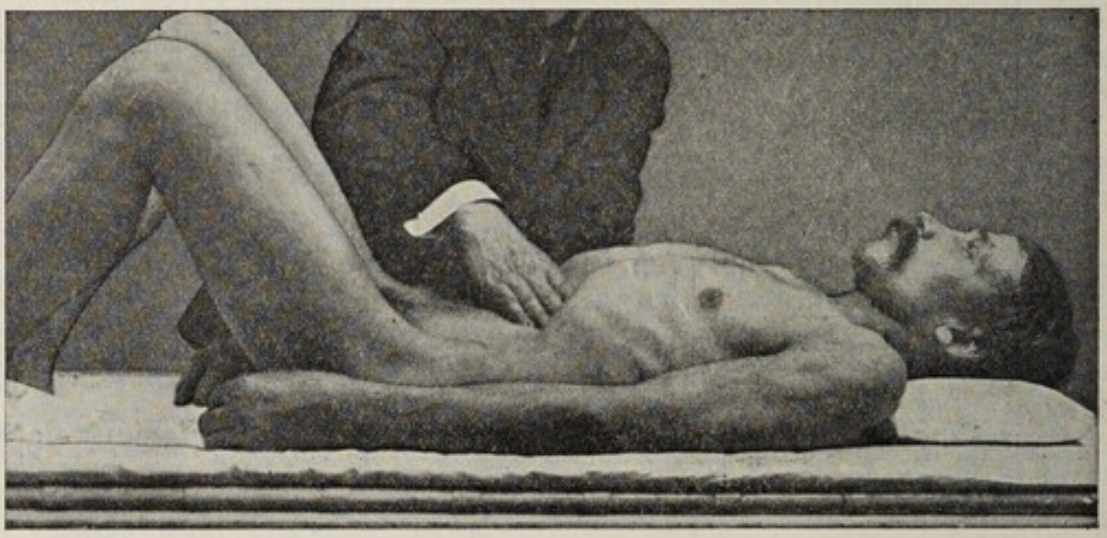


FIG. 259.—METHOD OF PALPATING THE SPLEEN.
When the operator's hand is in this position, the patient is directed to inspire deeply.

Abnormalities in Position.—A floating spleen is the result of congenital lengthening of the ligaments suspending this organ, or of undue over-stretching of such structures either by abnormal weight of the organ itself or by violence. This condition is found more commonly in women than in men, and frequently accompanies general visceroptosis. Floating spleen is detectable by palpation, and, unless the abdominal wall is unusually thick and tense, it is possible for one to outline the shape of the spleen and to return it to its normal position. (See Fig. 259.)

Clinical Significance.—In those cases in which there is a general displacement of the abdominal viscera, the prognosis is unfavorable as to cure, but favorable as to life. Surgical treatment may be of assistance in certain cases.

DISEASES OF THE SPLEEN

DISPLACEMENT OF THE SPLEEN

The spleen is often forced downward as the result of a left pleural effusion, tumor of the thorax, pyopneumothorax, and bilateral emphysema.

In any of these conditions the edge of the spleen may be felt below the costal margin. A diagnosis is readily attained from an analysis of the physical signs present over the left lung. The clinical importance of displacement of the spleen from pulmonary conditions is but slight.

In well-marked tympanites the spleen may be elevated above its normal position, and the same condition may result from extensive adhesive pleuritis or a fibrous tuberculous process involving the left lung.

ENLARGEMENT OF THE SPLEEN

Causes for Chronic Enlargement of the Spleen.—The following classification, while it may in certain respects appear wanting, it will under average conditions serve as a guide for the determination of the character of enlargement present in the individual cases under consideration. Removal of the spleen has been found to diminish the production output of antibodies.

Pronounced enlargement of the spleen:

Splenomedullary leukemia.
Lymphatic leukemia (rare).
Mixed leukemia.
Chronic malaria.
Kala-azar.
Splenomegalic polycythæmia.
Splenomegalic cirrhosis.
Splenic anemia.
Pseudoleukemia infantum.
Amyloid disease (focal infection).
Tricuspid regurgitation.
Gaucher's disease.

Moderate enlargement may be encountered in the following conditions:

Rickets.
Congenital syphilis.
Hodgkin's disease.
Cirrhosis of the liver.
Thrombosis of the portal vein.
Pressure on the portal vein by enlarged lymphatic glands or by adjacent tumor.
Hydatid disease
Focal infection*

Acute enlargement of the spleen is observed during the course of the following acute infections:

Typhoid fever.
Paratyphoid fever.
Relapsing fever.
Ulcerative endocarditis.
Malaria.
Erysipelas.
Septicemia.
Puerperal sepsis.

Less often seen in:

Pneumonia.
Diphtheria.
Scarlet fever.
Small-pox.
Typhus fever.
Influenza.
General acute tuberculosis.

Among the pathologic conditions characterized by enlargement of the spleen are:

Amyloid Degeneration.—Diagnosis.—This is made from the physical signs of splenic enlargement, with or without decided increase in the size of the liver, although the latter condition is usually present. The history of conditions that lead to amyloid degeneration of the viscera, *e. g.*, chronic suppuration and syphilis, together with the symptoms and signs of amyloid disease of the kidney (p. 737) and the liver (p. 657), goes far to support the diagnosis and, in fact, often amply confirms it. Distant foci of infection and of chronic suppuration are ordinarily present.

Clinical Course.—This, owing to the associated amyloid changes of the other viscera, is decidedly unfavorable. Occasionally, surgical treatment may remove the disease upon which the enlargement depends, after which the patient is greatly improved. In selected cases antisyphilitic treatment is also followed by improvement.

Leukemia.—Here there is enlargement of both the spleen and the liver, and not uncommonly the spleen is enlarged to a greater degree than the liver, although these viscera may increase in size simultaneously.

* Minot, Medical Clinics of N. A. March, 1925, p. 1411.

Diagnosis.—This is based upon an examination of the blood (see Leukemia, p. 415), although the physical signs, together with the general symptoms and signs of leukemia, must be taken into consideration in order to distinguish between splenic enlargement of leukemia and that of chronic sepsis.

Cyanotic Congestion Resulting from Valvular Heart Disease.—In valvular heart disease in which there is both tricuspid regurgitation and myocarditis, there is, first, a venous stasis of the liver, which results in an enlargement of this organ and materially interferes with the return circulation from the spleen. After hepatic enlargement has existed for some time the spleen becomes enlarged, although to a much less marked degree than the liver.

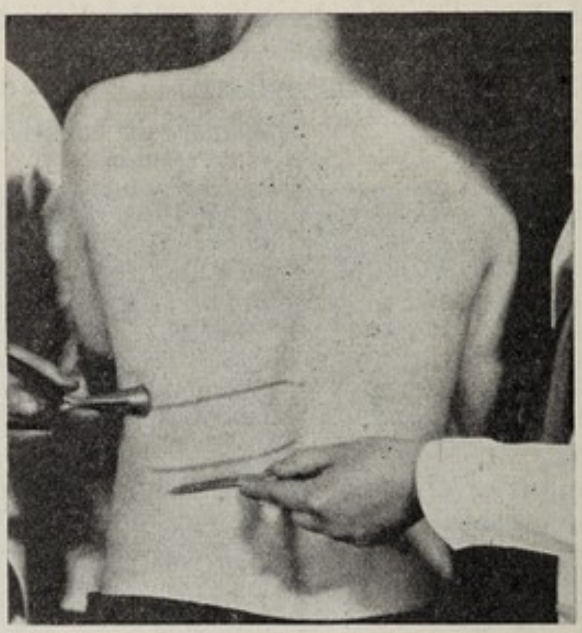


FIG. 260.—STROKING OF THE SKIN WHEN THE STETHOSCOPE BELL IS PLACED BETWEEN THE NINTH AND ELEVENTH RIBS SERVES AS A POSITIVE METHOD TO OUTLINE THE SPLEEN.

To prove your findings, reverse the performance, and place the bell on the line indicating the lower border of the organ, and stroke the skin from above the spleen downward. When the organ is reached a distance change of sound is produced.

Cirrhosis of the Liver with Splenomegaly (Banti's Disease).—This symptom-complex is regarded by the majority of writers as the terminal stage of splenic anemia. (See p. 432.)

Certain acute infections, as, *e. g.*, malaria, acute sepsis, subacute suppuration, typhoid fever, typhus fever, scarlet fever, etc., manifest splenic enlargement as a clinical characteristic.

Malaria.—In all forms of malaria splenic enlargement develops early and continues, becoming more marked as the disease progresses. In chronic malaria the spleen may attain an enormous size, extending as low as the umbilicus, and occupying the greater portion of the left superior abdominal quadrant. There is, as a rule, an associated enlargement of the liver. Hepatic tumor, however, disappears after the application of treatment, but the spleen may remain enlarged for months or even years after an attack of pernicious malaria. We have observed that a large proportion of Italians admitted to the Philadelphia hospitals show a variable degree of splenic enlargement, and in practically all such cases there is a history of the patient having had malaria in his native country. Enlargement of the spleen in those who have lived in the tropics should

always be regarded as possibly of malarial origin, until proof of the non-existence of malarial infection has been established.

Clinical Course.—The spleen may remain large for months, but seldom causes annoying symptoms.

New-growths of the spleen, while extremely rare, may result in enlargement of the organ, and chief among these are echinococcus cysts and sarcoma, more commonly of the melanotic variety. Tuberculosis and gummata may exist, but are seldom if ever, detected during life. Secondary carcinoma of the spleen is often found at autopsy, but is of no clinical significance. Gummata of the spleen and amyloid degeneration may be present in the same organ, although there is no known means by which these conditions could be diagnosed antemortem.

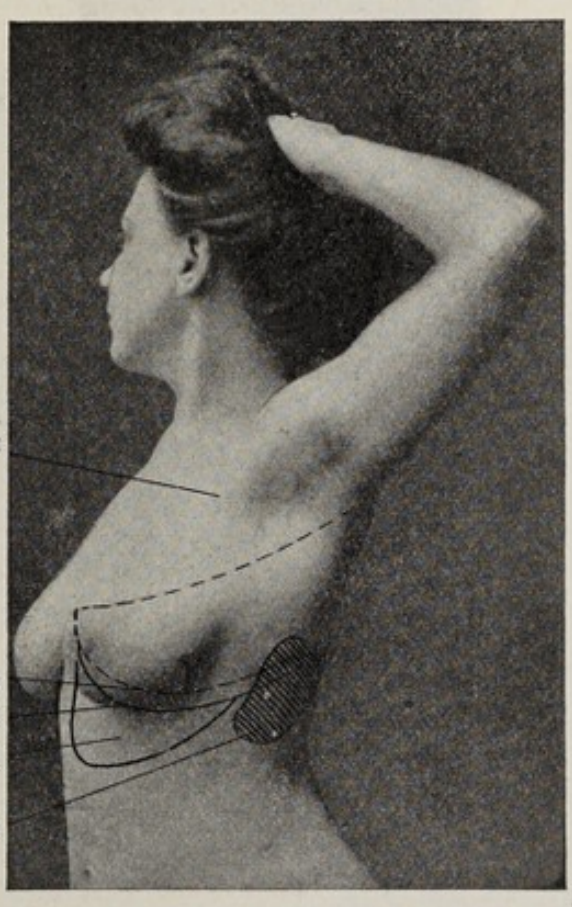


FIG. 261.—TOPOGRAPHY OF LEFT LUNG, STOMACH, PLEURA, AND SPLEEN.

Acute enlargement of the spleen is characteristic of the **acute infections,** but is more common in typhoid than in other types of continued fever.

Enlargement of the spleen following **subacute suppuration** is easily diagnosed, since there is always a history of a subacute process that most often involves the bony structures. *Tumors* of the spleen are rarely primary. Sarcoma and carcinoma are reported. Lyphangioma, angio-fibro-sarcoma, cysts and angioma are rarely seen, as shown by Goldstein's review of the literature.*

SPLENITIS

Pathologic Definition.—Either an acute or a chronic proliferative or suppurative process involving the substance of the spleen. This condition is commonly secondary to metastatic inflammation and to embolic

*Amer. Jour. Surgery, Mar., 1922, p. 57.

infarction (focal infection). Benign splenic embolus is quite common during the course of valvular heart disease, and such infarcts are usually surrounded by serohemorrhagic infiltration; at the site of such infiltration there may later be necrotic softening, calcareous changes, or a fibrous cicatrix. Splenic infarcts, when infected by pus-producing microörganisms, go on to abscess formation, with more or less extensive destruction of the splenic tissue. Perisplenitis usually results in adhesion of the organ to the stomach and colon. In acute splenic tumor with active congestion there are round-celled infiltration and moderate proliferation of the splenic cells. The organ is also enlarged, soft, and friable.

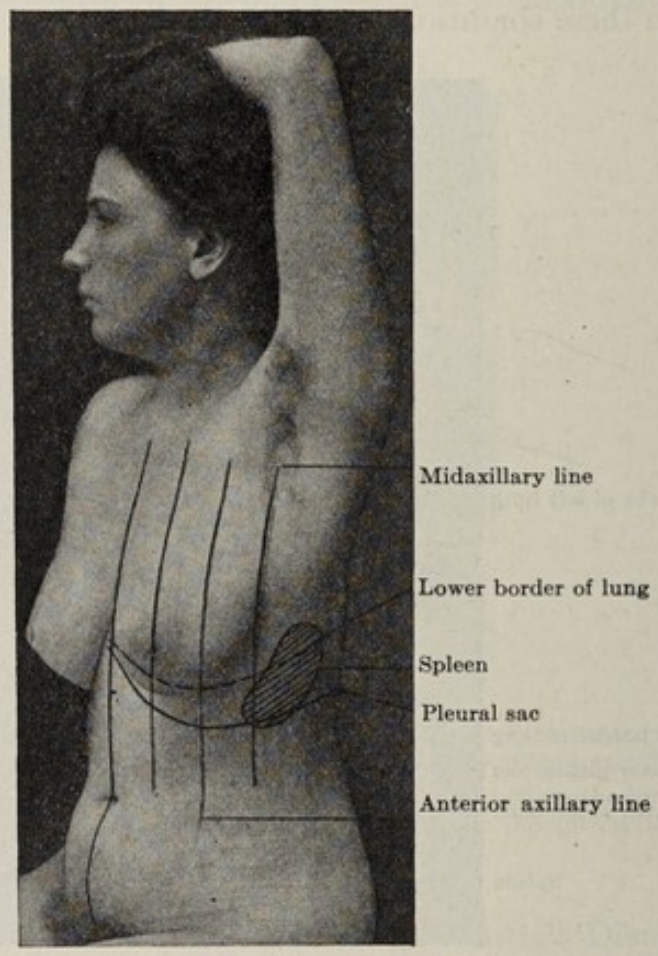


FIG. 262.—RELATION OF SPLEEN TO THE LUNGS, PLEURÆ, AND ANTERIOR LATERAL SURFACE OF THE CHEST.

Varieties.—Acute hyperplastic splenitis (acute splenic tumor) is a feature of acute infections, as, *e. g.*, typhoid and typhus fever, malaria, etc., whereas chronic splenic enlargement is associated with chronic infections or repeated attacks of acute infections and passive congestion of the spleen. (See Causes of Enlargement of the Spleen pp. 683, 690.)

General Symptomatology.—In more than 80 per cent. of all cases the symptoms are indefinite or absent. Among the characteristic features are: (1) Absence of pain and tenderness, the latter being present only when perisplenitis exists. (2) A sense of weight in the abdomen when the organ is markedly enlarged. (3) Occasionally shortness of breath and cyanosis upon exertion, these being most common in cases in which profound anemia is associated. Further physical examination reveals those features characteristic of splenic enlargement.

Summary and Differential Diagnosis.—**Acute suppurative splenitis** is extremely difficult to diagnose, since it often resembles acute gastric and pancreatic conditions. A careful analysis of the symptoms, together with the presence of an abdominal tumor, is usually sufficient to enable one to discriminate between acute splenic suppuration and *gastric* or *pancreatic carcinoma.* A laboratory study of the secretions and excretions is of great importance in this connection, the feces being laden with fat-globules in pancreatic disease, whereas a negative result is obtained in acute suppurative splenitis. Pancreatic disease shows the leukocytes to be normal or subnormal in number, while in acute splenitis leukocytosis is present. An analysis of the gastric contents is usually sufficient to enable one to determine the existence or non-existence of *gastric carcinoma.*

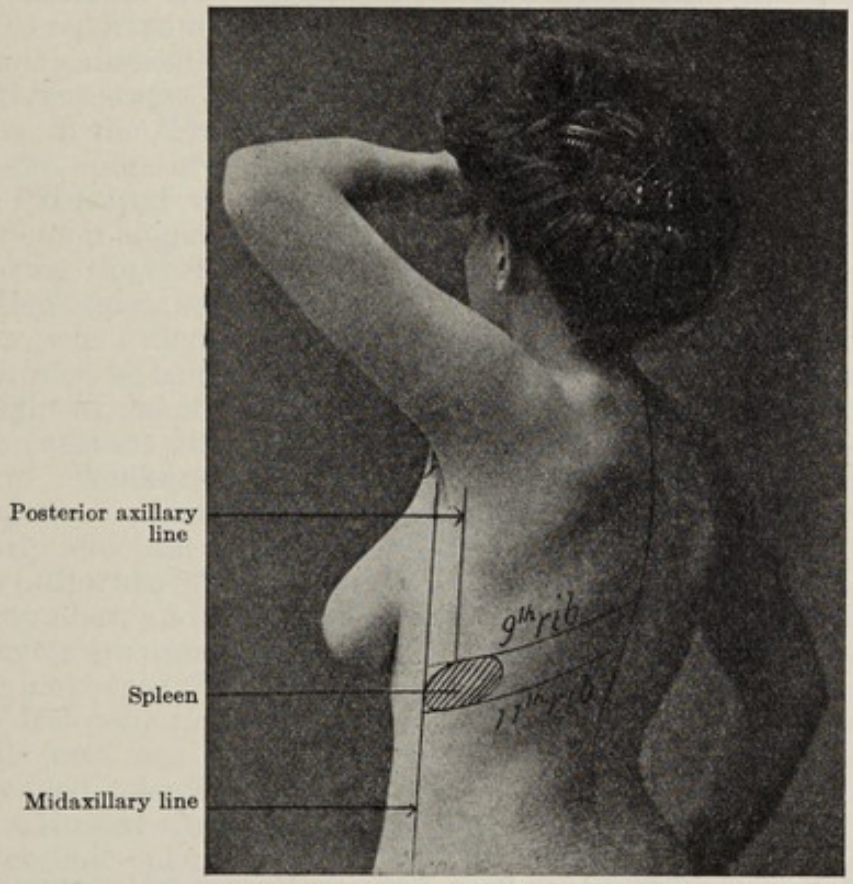


FIG. 263.—NORMAL POSITION OF THE SPLEEN IN THE ADULT FEMALE.

Splenic enlargement is to be distinguished from **hepatic tumor,** but in this there is seldom, if ever, any difficulty, the rule being that firm abdominal palpation results in distinctly separating these two organs. Of still greater value is auscultatory percussion (p. 666). The characteristic change of note elicited when percussion is made over a solid viscus is incapable of misinterpretation, and is a most valuable method for outlining the viscera. The other methods employed for distinguishing between hepatic and splenic tumor will be found of service in differentiating between splenic and **renal tumors,** splenic and **omental growth,** and splenic and **ovarian tumors** or **cysts.** The examiner should ascertain definitely that a pleural effusion has not forced the spleen below the costal margin, and that the organ itself is not enlarged, but merely displaced.

Fecal impaction of the splenic flexure and of that portion of the colon between the splenic flexure and the rectum differs from splenic tumor in the following respects: (*a*) Fecal impaction lends to the palpating finger a peculiar "doughy feel," whereas splenic tumor is always solid and clearly outlined; (*b*) distention of the colon by feces is found to give irregular areas of dullness and tympany; (*c*) by passing a rectal tube into the colon and injecting from one-half to one and one-half pints of olive oil, distention due to impaction usually disappears following a copious evacuation of the bowel.

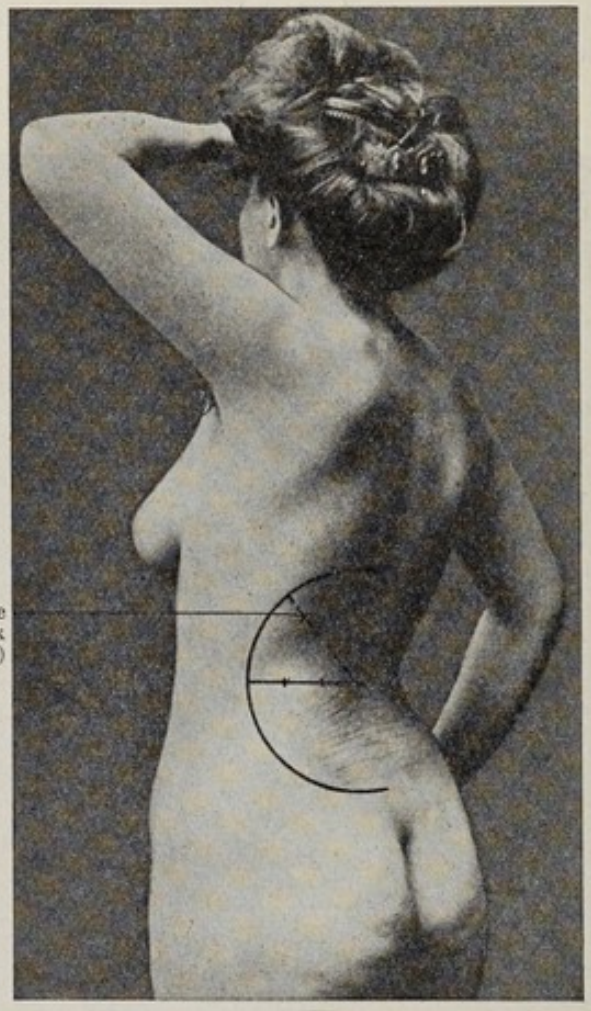


FIG. 264.—LEFT HEMISPHERIC DIVISION OF BACK, SHOWING METHOD OF LOCATING THE SPLEEN.

RUPTURE OF THE SPLEEN

Remarks.—Rupture may result from extreme hyperemic engorgement of the organ, such as is seen in cardiac conditions and in abscess. This accident rarely occurs in typhoid fever, and is said to have followed malaria.

Clinical Picture.—The initial symptoms resemble those of intestinal or of gastric perforation, and, indeed, one of these conditions is usually present when actual splenic rupture has taken place. Rupture of the spleen is seldom diagnosed except at autopsy.

Clinical Course.—This will vary with the character of the pathologic changes that have taken place in the spleen prior to rupture. If merely the capsule has ruptured and hemorrhage into the peritoneal sac is not profuse, recovery is possible. In the event of splenic abscess rupturing into the general peritoneal cavity, purulent peritonitis results.

SPLENOMEGALY (TYPE OF SO-CALLED SPLENIC ANEMIA)

Pathologic Definition.—A chronic affection of unknown origin, characterized by the presence of enlargement of the spleen, anemia of a chlorotic type, leukopenia, hemorrhages into the skin, from the nose, and from the gastric mucous membrane, and a terminal stage in which hepatic cirrhosis, ascites, and persistent jaundice of the skin, mucous surfaces, and viscera develop (Banti's disease).

Predisposing and Exciting Causes.—Sex.—Males are affected more often than females, the ratio being approximately as 5 is to 3. It is not uncommon among persons who have resided in malarial districts, although all cases do not give a previous history of malaria. Foci of infection should be sought for in this condition since the disease presents many clinical features commonly present in this variety of infection.

General Remarks.—It is reasonable to presume that many of the cases reported in the literature as cirrhosis of the liver with splenomegaly, Banti's disease, splenic anemia, and simple splenomegaly are in reality different stages of one and the same condition, and that the slight variations in the clinical pictures accompanying each report are due entirely to the stage of the disease present at the time the report was made.

Principal Complaint.—There is but slight loss of weight. The patient is languid, however, and does not feel rested after a night's sleep. During the early stages the appetite is somewhat variable, although the patient takes sufficient food for nourishment; in the terminal stage, however, when there is venous stasis of the gastric mucosa due to changes in the liver, he complains of dyspepsia, constipation, and a continual sense of weight in the abdomen. When splenic enlargement is conspicuous, there is a constant dragging sense of distress in the upper portion of the abdomen. Weakness is progressive, and becomes extreme during the later stages, at which time the patient continually complains of cold, particularly affecting the extremities.

Laboratory Diagnosis.—The red blood-cells are moderately reduced in number, and there is a decided reduction in the hemoglobin. The leukocytes are usually reduced in number. We have seen two cases in which the leukocyte count was below 4500.

Metabolic Rate.—We find record of a single instance where the metabolic rate was 8 per cent. above normal in Banti's disease; and in the so-called splenic anemia, a rise from 3 to 5 per cent. is to be expected.

Clinical Course and Duration.—Osler,* in an analysis of 25 cases of chronic splenomegaly, gives the following figures: Over five years, 9 cases; between one and five years, 9 cases; in 7 the duration was unknown, and the longest period during which any case suffered from chronic splenic enlargement was eleven years.

GAUCHER'S DISEASE

A condition characterized by chronic splenic enlargement, which may begin during infancy or childhood, and is less frequently seen in adults. Among the characteristic features are:—enlargement of the spleen, followed by enlargement of the liver, discoloration of those portions of the skin exposed to light, and an appreciable thickening of the conjunctivæ. There are leukopenia, and a tendency toward hemorrhage from the mucous surface.

Pathology.—The organs affected are—the spleen and liver, which are hypertrophied. There is also involvement of the lymph nodes, and

* Amer. Jour. Med. Sci., August, 1902, p. 751.

of the bone marrow. Microscopically there are to be found in these organs the presence of large cells, (Gaucher cells) which display a peculiar type of cytoplasm not duplicated in other pathologic conditions. In two cases reported by Mandlebaum,* the spleens weighed 4250 grams, or 9 pounds and 6 ounces, and 3500 grams, or 7 pounds, 11 ounces, respectively. Scrapings from the cut surface of the spleen in these cases displayed numerous large cells with multiple nuclei.

Diagnosis.—A microscopic study of the involved glands serves as a positive means of diagnosis.

CHLOROMA

Historical Note.—Meyer and Berger found record of 100 reported cases of this condition. The pathologic findings are numerous greenish tumors along the sacral and sternal regions, with hyperplasia of the bone marrow and metastisis of the spleen, liver and other glands. Initial symptoms are fatigue, polyuria, and pains (sciatic) in the lower limbs. Within the course of a few months, there are progressive anemia, asthenia, headache, vertigo and ocular symptoms. Palpation discloses sternal sensitiveness, enlargement of the spleen, with marked enlargement of the liver.

Laboratory Findings.—The blood picture resembles closely that of a grave type of aplastic anemia; the blood bilirubin is increased.

*Amer. Jour. Med. Sci., March, 1919.

DISEASES OF THE URINARY SYSTEM

TOPOGRAPHY OF THE KIDNEYS

These two glandular organs symmetrically located on the back wall of the abdomen, one occupying each lumbar region.

The right kidney is placed immediately below the liver, and rests alongside of the lower thoracic and upper three lumbar vertebræ (Fig. 266). The right twelfth rib crosses the right kidney on a level with the junction of its upper third with the lower two-thirds of the organ (Fig. 268). The outer border of the right kidney is located by drawing a transverse line about 4 inches (10 cm.) from the spines of the vertebra. (See Fig. 268.)

In front of the right kidney are placed the ascending portion of the colon and the descending portion of the duodenum. Immediately above the right kidney is the suprarenal capsule. The kidneys are posterior to the peritoneum. (See Arbitrary Division of the Abdomen, p. 268, and Arbitrary Division of the Posterior Abdominal Wall, Fig. 267.)

The left kidney is located slightly higher than the right and usually corresponds to the eleventh thoracic vertebra or the top of the twelfth rib. (See Fig. 266.) In front of the left kidney are: the tail of the pancreas, the fundus of the stomach, and the descending portion of the colon. Above is the left suprarenal capsule, and the spleen also overlaps the kidney (Fig. 265).

X-RAY EVIDENCE IN DISEASES OF THE KIDNEYS, URETERS, AND BLADDER

At present the rays are used to discover and locate stone in the kidney, ureter, or bladder; to determine the presence, size, and shape of the kidney; to outline the pelvis of the kidney; to determine the course of the ureter; and to outline the bladder.

Renal calculi are at times the cause of very obscure symptoms, such as dull pains in the back (lumbago), pains in the appendiceal or hepatic region, or septic symptoms (pyonephrosis). The classic symptoms are often absent, and equally often the classic symptoms of calculi are present without the presence of stone. While other methods of examination will lead one to suspect stone, in the determination of either the presence or absence of stone we are dependent upon the Röntgen rays.

Preparation of the Patient.—Every patient should have an active purgative on the night preceding the examination. We prefer a bottle of magnesium citrate, which is more reliable than pills, and gives good, full, watery evacuations. Every practitioner should bear this in mind, because it serves to eliminate fecal concreta, pills, compressed tablets, fragments of bismuth, and other foreign bodies in the intestines, which are liable to lead to error, or to cause unnecessary delay, annoyance to the patient, and expense in repeated examinations.

The shadows cast by renal calculi vary much in density, shape, location and number, and they can be confused with at least twenty other

conditions. The differentiation, technic, etc., must be left to special works on roentgenology.

Ureteral calculi are even more obscure in their symptoms and more difficult to diagnose by any method than renal calculi, but with careful technic can be demonstrated by means of the Röntgen rays. At times it is necessary to pass ureteral sounds into the ureters and then repeat the *x*-ray examination, in order to make differentiations. As an example of the obscurity of symptoms in ureteral calculi, I will mention the recent case of a young woman of twenty-six years, who has had paroxysmal pains in the left labia majora for nineteen years, with no other symptoms. I found a stone ⅜ inch in diameter in the lower end of the left ureter. This condition had been diagnosed by a number of physicians as a neurosis.

The Presence, Size, Shape, and Position of the Kidney.—Before the removal of a kidney is decided upon, one should determine the presence of

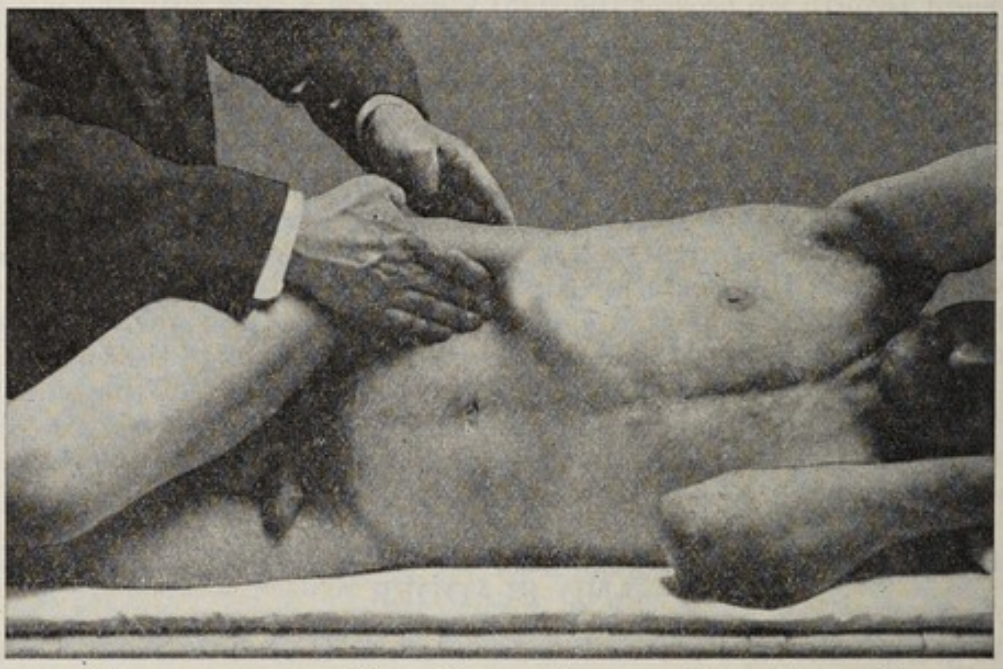


FIG. 265.—PALPATION OF THE RIGHT RENAL REGION, RIGHT THIGH FLEXED UPON ABDOMEN.

the opposite kidney. One can determine the presence of two ureters by ureteral catheterization, but it is possible for both to come from one kidney. By means of modern technic one can demonstrate, in the great majority of patients, the outline of the kidney, thus determining the *presence, size,* and *shape* at once. Its size and shape will at times give a clue to such diagnosis as tumor, hydronephrosis, or pyonephrosis.

A definite statement as to the position of a kidney, and especially as to its mobility, is more difficult to make, since when the patient is in a recumbent posture (the usual position of a kidney examination), even a floating kidney may drop into its normal position. However, if one finds a difference in the relative position of the two kidneys, even in the recumbent posture, it is evidence of displacement, and may suggest movable kidney, or a displacement due to new-growth.

To demonstrate mobility of the kidney, one must demonstrate the shadow in the recumbent, and again in the upright or semi-recumbent position. It is much more difficult to show the shadow of the kidney in the upright position, especially in stout or muscular subjects.

The outline of the pelvis of the kidney and the ureter can be demonstrated by injecting an opaque substance into the ureter (collargol, colloidal silver), or the ureter can be outlined by passing a leaded catheter into it, and then making an *x*-ray examination. Such combined cystoscopic and *x*-ray examinations are tedious, but will give valuable information, in determining an elongated ureter, or an anomalous position, or in diagnosing a dilated kidney pelvis (pyonephrosis).

The bladder may show calculi by means of the *x*-rays. A diverticulum is best located by filling the bladder with an opaque solution.

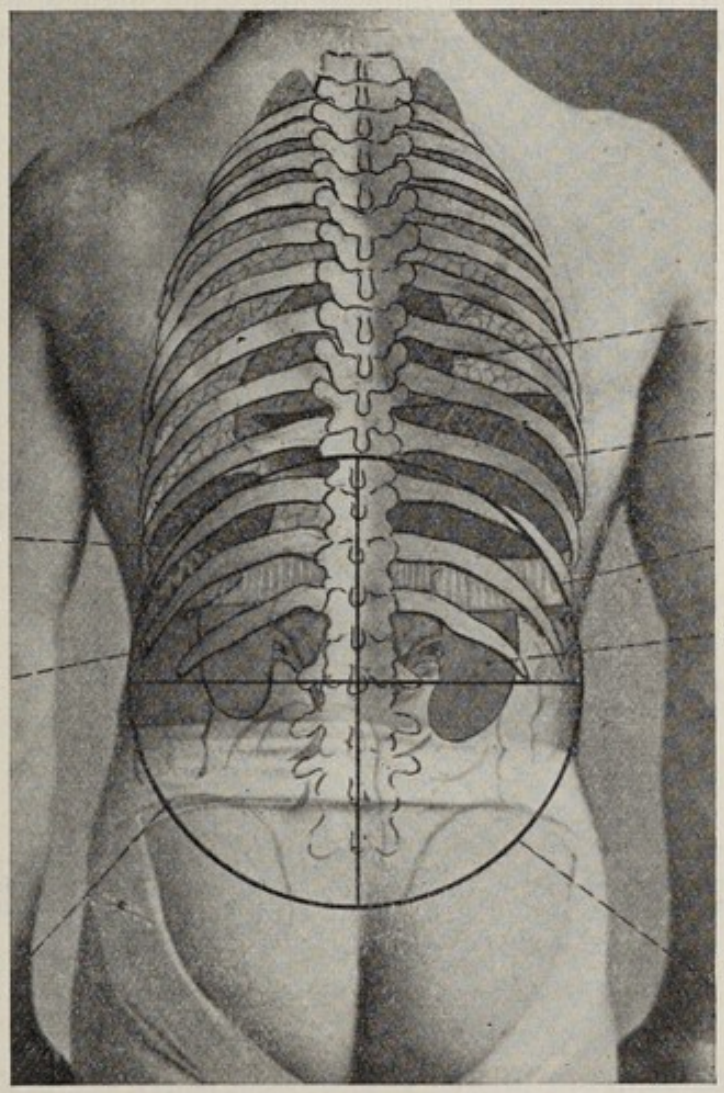


FIG. 266.—POSTERIOR VIEW OF ABDOMEN AND THORAX; MUSCULAR TISSUE REMOVED.

SWEATING

"The perspiratory function of the skin is of the utmost importance, as a means by which effete materials are removed, and the temperature prevented from rising above the normal." It has been deemed advisable to give here this clinical phenomena, since it is to be correlated with laboratory findings.

Whenever the quantity of perspiration is altered beyond the physiologic normal for the individual in question, then this action of the skin becomes an important feature in diagnosis. In certain maladies there

may be not only alterations in the quantity of perspiration, but also in its color and odor.

Hemidrosis is characterized by the escape of bloody fluid from the skin, and is a clinical feature rarely observed in neurotic women, and may occur in such subjects with rather distinct periodicity.

Chromidrosis described a condition where sweat may be either of a yellowish, greenish, reddish, or blackish color.

Coloration of the sweat may be found to affect certain portions of the body, *e. g.*, face, abdomen, hands, feet, arm-pits, and genitalia. The varying color of the sweat may at times depend upon the prolonged use of iron, and to the presence of indican and other pigments that are present. Chromidrosis is far more common in females than in males, as is shown by Dr. Foot's analysis of 46 cases, in which 40 developed in

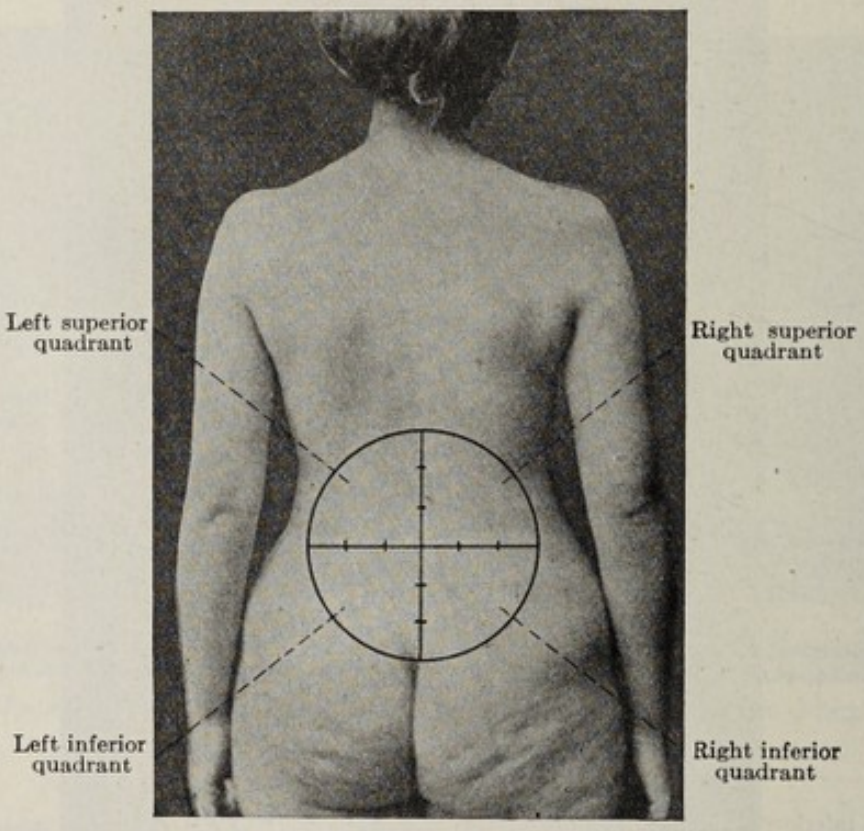


FIG. 267.—ARBITRARY REGIONAL DIVISION OF BACK.

women. A reddish, brown, and blue color of the sweat may depend upon the development of certain bacteria upon the skin. The sweat occasionally displays a greenish tinge after the continued use of copper, iodin, phosphorus, turpentine, and a diet rich in fish. It is also a rare finding in connection with pulmonary tuberculosis and malaria. In jaundice, from whatever causes, the sweat is yellow and discolors the patient's clothing.

Bromidrosis is commonly a functional disorder of the sweat-glands characterized by a production of sweat which emits a disagreeable odor. Ordinarily the quantity of sweat is increased. Offensive odor of the sweat may result from the ingestion of certain drugs and foods, and also from the development of the bacillus fœtidus in the perspiration. It is also a clinical feature in connection with neurotic and psychic individuals. This condition usually affects the feet, axillary, inguinal, mammary, and perineal regions.

Hyperidrosis.—Collectively speaking, this term includes any condition wherein there is an increased amount of sweat. Over-production of sweat may be more or less continuous, remittent, intermittent, or periodical. This condition may also be either acute or chronic.

Profuse sweating and also sweating of the head and neck are common features among the continued fevers, *e. g.*, typhoid fever, pneumonia, and ulcerative endocarditis. Profuse drenching sweats may occur during sleep as a result of profound exhaustion; pulmonary tuberculosis with cavity being a typical example of disease in which this type of hyperidrosis is seen.

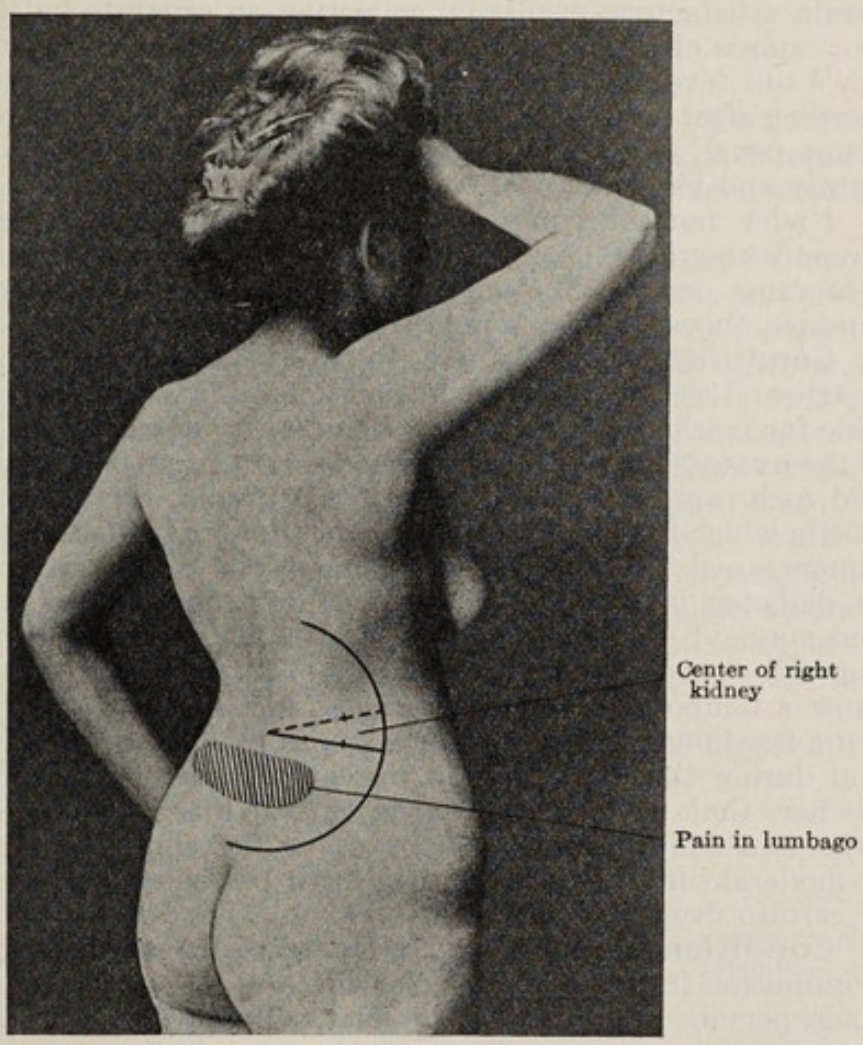


FIG. 268.—RIGHT HEMISPHERIC DIVISION OF BACK TO LOCATE KIDNEY.
Transverse lines on level with spine of second lumbar vertebra.

Lastly the skin may be beaded by drops of perspiration, and yet the cutaneous temperature be normal or subnormal, a clinical feature characteristic of all conditions accompanied by shock.

Anidrosis (decreased or complete cessation of sweat) is a clinical feature in connection with certain cutaneous maladies involving the sweat-glands; and it is also a conspicuous feature in diabetics, nephritis, scurvy, and such constitutional conditions as cretinism, exophthalmic goiter, and myxedema. In all patients displaying anidrosis the skin is dry and harsh to the feel, and if the condition persists for weeks or months, decided roughening develops.

EXAMINATION OF THE URINE

We shall not attempt to discuss at great length the examination of the urine, but shall endeavor to explain certain practical methods that will enable the physician to collect specimens for examination, and, at the same time, we will describe certain approved methods by which albumin, glucose, acetone, and other pathologic urinary constituents are to be distinguished.

Collection of the Urine.—Whenever possible, the specimen for examination should be taken from the urine collected during the twenty-four hours, the quantity being measured. We have found it possible to obtain satisfactory results by collecting, in separate bottles, from two to four ounces of the urine voided three hours after a full meal and after the day's toil (evening urine), and the same quantity of urine voided in the morning after a night's sleep. The bottles should be thoroughly cleansed before using, and after placing the urine in them, they should be corked tightly and kept in a cool place.

Under normal conditions the quantity of urine excreted should measure about 1500 c.c. (50 fluidounces), but owing to various conditions that cause decided fluctuation in the quantity of the twenty-four hours' product, this standard is not essential.

Conditions That Cause Excessive Excretion of Urine.—Barometric and thermometric conditions (humidity, temperature) are responsible for marked fluctuation in the quantity excreted daily. An increase in the quantity of urine excreted occurs during the early part of the night and early morning hours. Exposure to cold, certain conditions of the skin in which free perspiration is impossible, and the too free imbibition of liquors are also responsible for an increase. In such pathologic conditions as diabetes insipidus, diabetes mellitus, chronic interstitial nephritis, and amyloid disease an increase in the urine voided during the twenty-four hours occurs. Hydronephrosis, floating kidney, and hysteria may cause a temporary increase, but such increase is intermittent, lasting for but a few hours. True polyuria is seen in diabetes mellitus and insipidus and during the absorption of serous exudates. It is to be remembered, further, that between the paroxysms of intermittent fever the flow of urine is usually increased—a feature well exemplified by relapsing fever. A moderate increase in the urine will be seen after the administration of certain drugs.

Conditions That Cause a Decrease in the Excretion of Urine. Diminution in the quantity of urine excreted occurs during deep sleep, when persons are taking a dry diet. Pathologically, we find the urine diminished in acute nephritis, acute exacerbations of chronic nephritis, chronic parenchymatous nephritis, during the fastigia of acute fevers, and in robust and gouty individuals in whom the quantity of liquid taken during the day is extremely small. Oliguria may also develop as a result of interference with the renal circulation, as occurs, *e. g.*, in chronic heart disease, cirrhosis of the liver, ascites, cardiac embarrassment, anemias, abdominal tumors, pleural effusion, and other conditions.

Suppression of the urine is a common feature of uremia and of conditions in which a large quantity of fluid has been excreted from the body-tissues, as, *e. g.*, in hemorrhage, Asiatic cholera, and dysentery. Suppression, toxic in origin, may follow the administration of such drugs as mercury, oxalic acid, arsenic, turpentine, and others, although some of these drugs are capable of causing a moderate increase in the renal secretion when administered in medicinal doses.

CHYLURIA

Chyluria, or milky urine, as a rule results from the rupture of lacteals into the urinary tract.

Clinical Significance.—Chylous urine is seen in those cases in which infection with the filaria bancrofti has occurred. (See p. 1054.) It is also seen in disease of the bladder and following surgical operations along the genito-urinary tract (traumatic chyluria), and a few cases are reported that followed severe injury to the kidney, bichloride poisoning and phenol poisoning. In one instance chyluria followed septic infection of the pelvic organs, and in two cases it occurred after operations upon the pelvic viscera. The detection of embryo filariæ in the urine will serve to separate parasitic from traumatic chyluria.

HEMATURIA AND HEMOGLOBINURIA

Definition.—The former term is applied to a symptom the result of blood entering the genito-urinary tract, whereas the latter term designates a state in which merely the coloring-matter of the blood escapes with the urine.

Remarks.—Hematuria occurs in acute nephritis, and may follow the administration of drugs (renal irritants) bichlorid of mercury, and phenol or traumatism of the kidney. The condition may develop during the course of severe anemia, malarial cachexia, purpura, etc. Hematuria is a symptom of pyelitis, renal calculi, cystic calculi, cystitis, enlarged prostate, vesical polypi, tuberculosis of the bladder, tuberculosis of the kidney, carcinoma of the bladder or of the kidney, and urethral stricture. It is also a characteristic feature of Bilharz's disease (see pp. 1048, 1054) and of infection of the bladder with other animal parasites. Walther* in his study of 78 cases found that 51 per cent. of them presented new growths of the bladder, and that 70 per cent. of these were malignant. Urinary calculi and renal tuberculosis are the other frequent causes of hematuria. Hemophilia is to be considered in the study of hematuria as are also all types of secondary anemia.

Causes.—The following is a list of the chief causes for blood in the urine:

Renal Causes

Pronounced hematuria.
Sarcoma.
Carcinoma.
Papilloma of pelvis.
Calculus.
Tuberculosis of pelvis.
Injury to the loins.
Eustrongylus gigas.
Hematuria may be slight.

Hydronephrosis.
Polycystic disease.
Nephritis (acute).
Drug-poisoning, turpentine, carbolic acid, cantharides, quinin. Urotropin.
Calculus (renal).
Traumatism.
Oxaluria.
Tuberculosis.
Floating kidney.

Vesical Causes

Papilloma.
Villus-covered carcinoma.
Prostatic enlargement (adenoma or carcinoma).
Traumatism, usually instrumental.
Bilharzia hematobia.

Acute cystitis.
Epithelioma.
Tuberculosis.
Calculus.
Traumatism.
Filariasis.
Strongyloidis stercoralis.

Disease of the Adjacent Tissues Involving the Urinary Tract

Carcinoma of the vagina.
Carcinoma of the rectum.
Carcinoma of the uterus.

Acute salpingitis.
Pelvic abscess.
Tuberculosis of intestine (rare).

* Medical Record, May 19, 1917.

GENERAL MALADIES AND INFECTIONS

Small-pox.	Purpura.
Malaria.	Scurvy.
Yellow fever.	Leukemia.
Hemophilia.	Endocarditis.
	Acute fevers.

MacKenzie analyzed 821 cases at the Royal Victoria Hospital, and found 192 of these to depend upon renal calculi; 133 new growths; 88 renal tuberculosis and 143 surgical infection of the ureters and kidneys.

Detection of Hematuria.—The recognition, microscopically, of red blood-cells in the urinary sediment is positive evidence of the existence of hematuria, and unless the examiner is skilled in laboratory methods, will prove his most reliable test. (See also Blood-pigment in Feces, p. 566.)

Recognition of Hemoglobinuria.—Whenever the urine is of a bloody color and it is impossible to detect by microscopic examination red blood-cells in the urinary sediment, the condition in question is probably one of hemoglobinuria.

Method.—In order to demonstrate the presence of hemoglobin in the urine powdered tannic acid is added to the filtered urine until a heavy precipitate is produced. This precipitate is collected on a filter-paper, thoroughly washed with distilled water, and allowed to dry in the air. A small granule of this precipitate is then put on a microscopic slide with a granule of sodium chlorid of the same size, and a few drops of glacial acetic acid are added. A cover-glass is then put on the mixture and the slide is warmed over a flame until the acid steams. If the acid evaporates completely, more is added, until there is a brown color in the fluid. After cooling, the specimen is examined with a $\frac{1}{6}$-inch objective, and if there is hemoglobin in the urine, the characteristic crystals of hematin will be discovered.

Caution.—In performing this test the slide must not be heated too hot and the cooling must take place slowly. Good crystals are obtained by allowing the mixture of precipitate, sodium chlorid, and glacial acetic acid to stand overnight at room temperature.

LEUKOCYTURIA

Remarks.—Normal urine, when studied microscopically, will be found to contain an occasional leukocyte, but white cells are seldom demonstrable unless the urine be centrifugalized and a large amount of sediment be employed for microscopic study.

Whenever leukocytes are found in a urinary sediment in large number, pus is said to be present.

Pathologic leukocyturia is found whenever there is congestion of the kidneys or any irritation of the pelves of the kidneys, pyelitis, ureters, bladder, prostate, or urethra, at which times the number of leukocytes present depends entirely upon the degree of irritation and the size of the area of mucous membrane affected. Leukocytes often enter the urine as the result of an inflammatory process of the prostate or of the seminal vesicles. Leukocyturia is also a feature of endometritis, vulvitis, vaginitis, and sexual excesses; also whenever an inflammatory process is present in any of the structures adjacent to the urinary tract.

PYURIA

Definition.—The presence of pus in the freshly voided urine.

Naked-eye Appearance.—There is a white or milky white sediment that collects if the urine is allowed to stand for a few hours, and upon shaking the bottle this sediment is found to be extremely heavy, and to

float up through the clear liquid, assuming a more or less fringed-rope appearance. Pus may be found in either acid or alkaline urines, although it is more common in the latter.

Microscopic Appearance.—Microscopically, this sediment is found to contain many pus-cells (Fig. 269), and at times red blood-cells.

Pus-cells are round objects of fairly uniform size, each of which contains a polymorphous nucleus. In some specimens the nucleus is so obscured by the granules in the cell cytoplasm as not to be easily distinguishable. In such a case a crop of 50 per cent. acetic acid, if allowed to flow under the cover-glass will dissolve the granules and bring the polymorphous nucleus into view. The pus-cells, or leukocytes, are the smallest round granular cells seen in urinary sediments. Renal epithelium, the cells of which have a single nucleus, in contradistinction to the polymorphous nucleus of the pus-cell, is about one and one-half times as large as the pus-cell; while round, pelvic, ureteral, vesical, and prostatic epithelial cells are from two to seven times as large as the pus-cell.

Clinical Significance.—Pus-cells appear in the urine as the result of inflammatory processes along the genito-urinary tract. In pyonephrosis, pyelitis, and the more severe forms of cystitis and urethritis erythrocytes are also present. Pyuria not infrequently results from the escape of pus from other tissues into the urinary tract, and it may depend upon the admixture of leukorrheal discharge.

It is of great importance to determine the origin of the pus in a given specimen of urine, and by examining the genito-urinary tract, it is usually possible to determine this point. It has been stated that pus-cells coming from the kidney and from the pelvis of the kidney are equally disseminated throughout the urine, but in our experience we have found many exceptions to this rule. The deposit of pus as a thick, ropy sediment depends, in great measure, upon the amount of mucus present in the specimen.

ALBUMINURIA

Remarks.—Albumin may appear in the urine as the result of a number of varied pathologic conditions, and some writers believe that the urine may contain albumin under normal conditions—the so-called physiologic albuminuria. The question that concerns the clinician most is, whether or not, in a given case, the albumin is renal in origin; and this point it is frequently difficult to determine. We have found many cases of albuminuria in which it was quite impossible to determine whether or not we were dealing with a true renal albuminuria. For convenience of study we have considered albuminuria under the following subheadings:

Renal Albuminuria.—A symptom resulting from temporary irritation of the renal tissue, or inflammatory or degenerative disease of the kidney, and depending upon the escape of albumin into the uriniferous tubules. If there should be disease of the pelvis of the kidney, albumin might enter the urinary tract at this point, and the condition should be considered as one of renal albuminuria. The changes capable of exciting the escape of albumin into the uriniferous tubules are of two types—(*a*) Inflammatory, in which there is congestion or inflammation of the kidney substance; and (*b*) degenerative changes, in which case evidences of acute inflammation are wanting. The former variety of albuminuria is to be seen occasionally in acute nephritis; the latter type is best exemplified in the chronic nephritides. Without doubt we have, at times, to deal with albuminuria resulting from the combined action of these two pathologic processes.

During the early stages of acute nephritis the amount of albumin that escapes with the urine is extremely high, and may equal one or one and ½ per cent. by the Esbach method.

Caution.—The urine of a patient with nephritis which is voided after eating and exercise will contain more albumin than that collected after rest and sleep.

Toxic Albuminuria.—Renal albuminuria may be toxic in origin, and is to be seen after the administration of certain renal irritants, as, *e. g.*, copaiba, turpentine, phenol, following ether anesthesia, etc.; acting probably in a similar manner we find the toxins of certain acute diseases (diphtheria, scarlet fever, typhoid fever, pneumonia) capable of exciting the escape of a large amount of albumin with the urine. It is quite impossible to separate febrile from toxic albuminuria, since they frequently occur together.

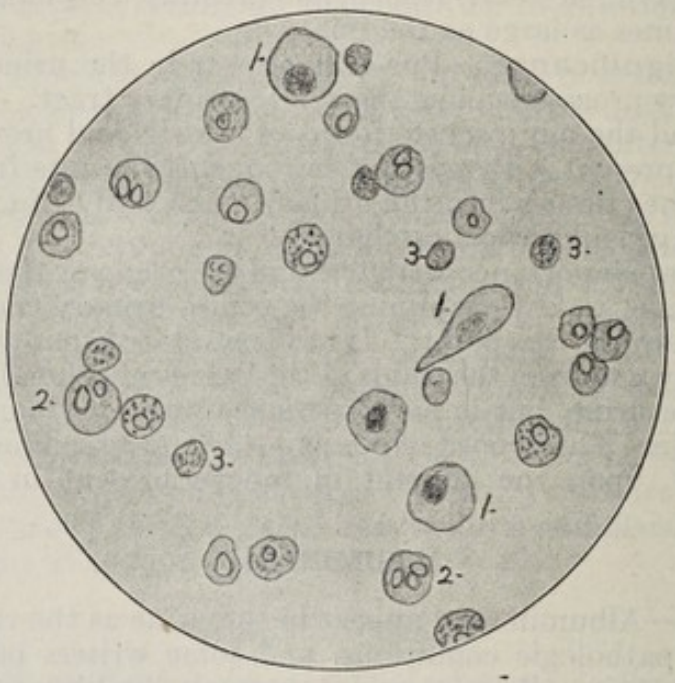


Fig. 269.—Urinary Sediment from Case of Pyelitis (Boston).

1, Epithelial cells, probably from pelvis of kidney; 2, large pus-cells; 3, small pus-cells (obj. Spencer one-sixth).

Intermittent and Remittent Albuminuria.—Renal albuminuria may be intermittent, remittent, or continuous in character, and, in fact, it is not unusual to find all three of these types of albuminuria in chronic diseases of the kidney, as, *e. g.*, in interstitial nephritis, mild parenchymatous nephritis, and early during amyloid disease. In these chronic conditions the quantity of albumin passed may be comparatively small, and, in fact, it is necessary to concentrate the urine before one is able to detect this body. Clinically speaking, we do not consider albuminuria a pathologic condition unless the albumin is capable of detection by the methods ordinarily employed for this purpose. Orthostatic, postural, alimentary, and cyclic albuminuria are special varieties of the intermittent type.

During the course of an acute exacerbation of a chronic type of nephritis the amount of albumin passed during the twenty-four hours is high, and may even exceed that excreted in primary acute nephritis. In general, however, the larger the amount of urine excreted, the lower the percentage of albumin present.

(*a*) **Traumatic albuminuria** may follow injury to the kidney, abdominal massage, traumatism to the head, and severe injury to the extremities.

(*b*) **Alimentary Albuminuria.**—Following the ingestion of foods rich in albumin, the urine not infrequently contains albumin in pathologic amounts. We have repeatedly seen this form of albuminuria in patients taking from six to twelve eggs a day. It seems that when uncooked eggs are taken, albuminuria is more likely to follow, yet our series of experiments is not sufficiently large to enable us to state positively that this is the rule, although it was found by us in nearly 60 cases.

(*c*) During the course of certain chronic and malignant maladies there may be a decided impoverishment of the blood, in consequence of which albumin escapes from the kidney into the uriniferous tubules. Thus we find albuminuria in both primary anemias (leukemia) and secondary anemias. The albuminuria that accompanies chronic lead-poisoning does not belong strictly to this second class, and there is room for question as to whether or not the albuminuria of anemia is not toxic in origin.

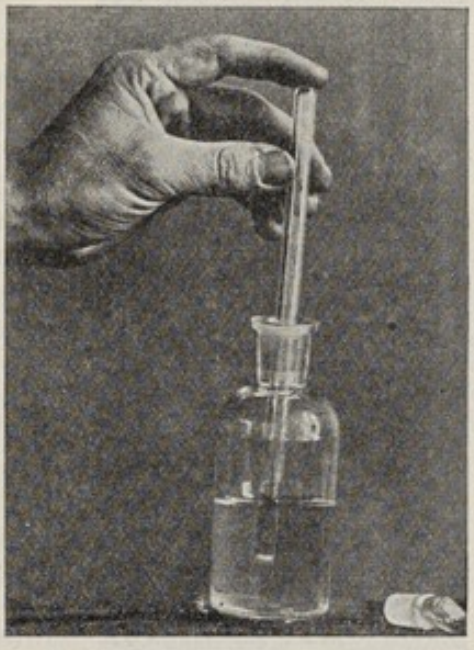


FIG. 270.—BOSTON'S METHOD OF FILLING LOWER PORTION OF PIPET, THAT CONTAINS URINE TO BE TESTED, WITH NITRIC ACID.

Extrarenal Causes of Albuminuria.—General Consideration.—Inflammatory processes involving the pelvis of the kidney, ureter, bladder, prostate, or urethra are capable of exciting albuminuria, and in this connection it may be well to mention especially such maladies as stone and tuberculosis of the pelvis of the kidney, stone in the ureter, and torsion of the ureter due to movable kidney; vesical polypi, ulcerative cystitis, vesical calculus, and tuberculosis and carcinoma of the urinary tract may in turn produce albuminuria.

Pus generated along the genito-urinary tract or escaping from other tissues with the urine may be responsible for albuminuria, and blood and blood-serum (filariasis; Bilharzia disease), when added to the urine, cause this condition.

Prostatic Albuminuria.—Experiment has shown that in massage of the prostate the seminal fluid passes into the bladder without any escape of semen from the meatus; again, the urine may be free from albumin prior to prostatic massage, whereas following this operation the urine may contain albumin. In view of the foregoing facts this variety of albuminuria has been termed prostatic, and we regard the albuminuria of prostatic, ovarian, and uterine congestion as extrarenal in origin.

Albuminuria of prostatic origin is most likely to develop after exercise, hot and cold baths, etc.; this renders it difficult to distinguish between it and the so-called intermittent, cyclic, orthostatic, and transitory albuminuria, which is common after inflammatory processes of the urethra, prostate, or in conditions known to irritate these tissues. In prostatic albuminuria the urine is likely to contain spermatozoa.

Parasitic Albuminuria.—Infection with the Schistosomum hæmatobium causes hemorrhage into the bladder, and consequently albuminuria. There may be infection of the bladder with round worms—ascaris, oxyuris, anguillula—or with rhabiditiform embryos, all of which excite albuminuria. The animal parasites known to infect the kidney in man are: Eustrongy-

lus gigas, which usually inhabits the pelvis of the kidney, and is quite common in the lower animals, and the Tænia echinococcus, which most often invades the substance of the kidney. Infection of the kidney with these parasites may be accompanied by both hematuria and albuminuria, and we have studied cases representing each of these types of infection.

Recognition of Albumin.—Boston's Pipet Method.—*Reagents.*—(1) Concentrated nitric acid; or (2) nitric acid, 1 part, and saturated solution of magnesium sulphate, 9 parts.

"Albumin causes a white cloud to appear in the form of a ring at the zone of contact of the two liquids (reagents and urine) (Figs. 270, 271), and this test, when carefully applied, must be regarded as one of great value."

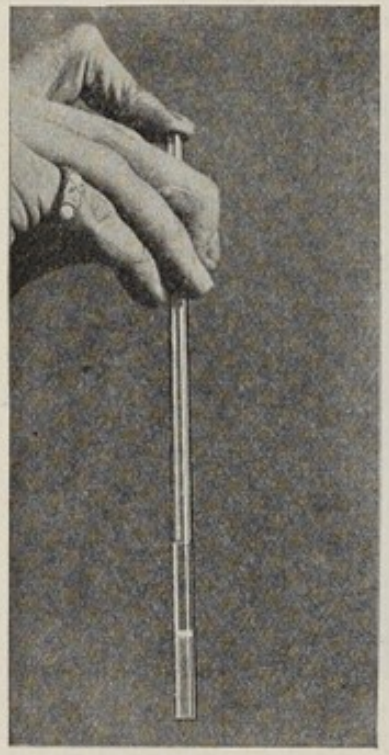


FIG. 271.—BOSTON'S METHOD. PIPET CONTAINING AN UPPER STRATUM OF URINE, A LOWER STRATUM OF NITRO-MAGNESIUM SOLUTION, AND SHOWING A WHITE LINE (ALBUMIN RING) AT ZONE OF CONTACT.

1. A pipet is filled for a distance of from one inch to one and one-half inches with the urine to be tested. The urine is then removed from the surface of the pipet by washing or by wiping.

2. The pipet, with its contained urine, is then placed near the bottom of a bottle containing nitric acid, when the pressure of the index-finger is lessened and the acid allowed to flow gradually up into the pipet.

3. When the pipet is seen to contain about equal amounts of acid and urine, the finger is again pressed firmly upon the top of the pipet, which is then removed from the bottle and held toward the light on a level with the eye. If albumin is present, a distinct white ring of coagulated albumin appears at the junction of the urine and the reagent. "The ring is often intensified by placing the pipet in different lights or against a dark back-ground. The hand, when placed back of the pipet and carried slowly above and then below the level of the ring, serves this purpose."

The Heat and Nitric Acid Method.—Fill a test-tube three-quarters full of filtered urine, and boil the top layer. In the presence of phosphates or albumin a precipitate will be produced. The addition of one drop of nitric acid will dissolve this precipitate if it be due to phosphates. If it be due to albumin, the precipitate will not be dissolved, and the drop of acid, as it falls through the unboiled portion of the urine, will produce a second precipitate by its coagulating action on the albumin.

Heller's Test.—About three cubic centimeters of nitric acid are placed in a test-tube, and filtered urine is allowed to flow down the side of the tube so that it lies in a layer above the acid. In the presence of albumin a white line of coagulated albumin will be seen at the junction of the two layers of fluid. A brownish ring due to acid urates is formed a short distance above the line of junction of the two fluids, and is to be differentiated from the ring of albumin. After the administration of copaiba and other balsamic drugs the urine contains substances that produce a brownish ring below the junction of the two fluids.

The Acetic Acid and Potassium Ferrocyanid Test.—A small quantity of filtered urine is acidulated with five drops of acetic acid, and a 10 per

cent. solution of potassium ferrocyanid is added to the mixture one drop at a time. In the presence of albumin a white precipitate will be produced.

Significance.—The heat and nitric acid test is the most reliable method for the detection of serum-albumin in the urine. The other tests will give positive reactions for other albuminous substances than serum-albumin. It occasionally happens that the amount of serum-albumin in the urine is so small, or that fermentative changes have taken place in the specimen to such an extent, that the heat and nitric acid test is difficult of intepretation. Under such circumstances the other reactions suggested may be used as confirmatory tests. The acetic-acid-potassium-ferrocyanid test will give a precipitate with mucin and other albuminoid bodies, and is not to be used in the routine examination of urine for albumin.

Frequency.—Certain foreign authors claim to find albumin in about 7 per cent., and others in 20 per cent., of cases studied; in patients under our observation we have not found albuminuria so common. In fact, we incline to the belief that those who found so high a percentage of urines to contain albumin must have been considering all the coagulable substances, and that they have included reactions caused by the presence of the albumoses (peptones), mucin, phosphates, and the like.

Esbach's Method.—The Esbach method for the quantitative determination of albumin is the best method available for clinical work. The instrument has been tested against estimations made by precipitating out and weighing the albumin and has been found to be quite accurate. The following solution (Esbach's solution) is used: picric acid, 10 gm.; citric acid, 20 gm.; distilled water, 1000 c.c.

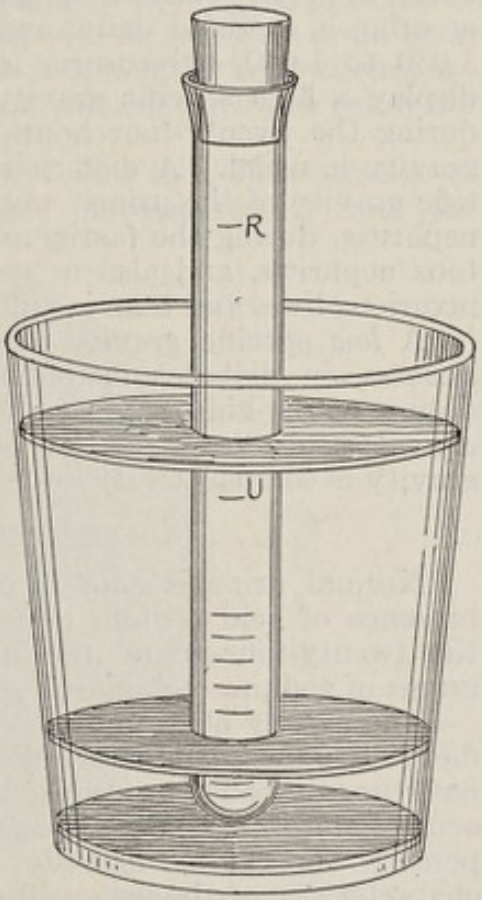


Fig. 272.—Receptacle for Esbach's Albuminometer, Devised by Dr. W. G. Mudie.

In the bottom of an ordinary tumbler place a piece of heavy cardboard and cut central openings in two other cardboards which are glued in position.

Process.—Fill an Esbach tube with filtered acid urine to the mark U, and add the reagent until it reaches the mark R. Then place a cork in the mouth of the tube, and invert it several times to insure perfect mingling of the urine with the reagent. The tube should now be placed in a special receptacle (Fig. 272) and allowed to stand for twenty-four hours, when the sediment that collects at the bottom of the tube will consist of serum-albumin, serum-globulin, albumoses, uric acid, and creatinin. The amount of sediment is read directly from the scale, and indicates the amount of albumin in grams in 1000 cubic centimeters of urine.

Caution.—When the specific gravity is above 1.008, the specimen should be diluted with water to reach this density. The temperature of the room should be 15° C. (59° F.). The urine must be acid in reaction.

Colloids (Stalagmometry of Urine).—During the course of disease, the curve shows pathologic values but gradually returns to normal as the

condition inproves; in chronic or progressive processes, the curve remains high. The S. Qu. curve is of prognostic significance.

Thus far there are too few clinical and laboratory reports available to enable us to comment further upon the importance of stalagmometry of the urine.

SPECIFIC GRAVITY

Consideration.—The specific gravity of the urine for healthy Americans is given at 1.020 and for Chinese 1.004 to 1.012. It usually varies in inverse ratio to the quantity excreted daily. If a large quantity of urine is excreted daily, and such urine is of high specific gravity,—1.030 to 1.040,—glycosuria is to be suspected. Urines rich in solids display a high specific gravity, and when the quantity of urine voided during the twenty-four hours is far below the normal, a high specific gravity is usual. A diet rich in albumins also tends to increase the specific gravity of the urine. As a rule, the specific gravity is high in acute nephritis, during the fastigium of acute fevers, in chronic parenchymatous nephritis, and also in specimens recovered from persons who live luxurious lives and take insufficient exercise.

A *low* specific gravity occurs after ether anesthesia, after *hysteric seizures*, in diabetes insipidus, chronic interstitial nephritis, amyloid disease of the kidneys, and after imbibing too freely of liquids. During convalescence from acute nephritis and from acute fevers the specific gravity is comparatively low.

REACTION OF THE URINE

Normal urine is acid in reaction, such acidity depending upon the presence of acid sodium phosphate, (NaH_2PO_4). The total acidity of the twenty-four-hours' product is estimated to be equivalent to 14 grams of sodium carbonate.

The acidity of the urine is **increased** by violent muscular exercise, a diet rich in meats, mineral acids, during certain fevers, in scurvy, diabetes mellitus, diabetes insipidus, leukemia, gout, rheumatism (chronic and acute), and in the acute infections. Increased acidity is also present in persons who eat too heartily, and who take insufficient exercise. It is characteristic of the uric-acid diathesis and of oxaluria, and is commonly observed when the quantity of urine passed during the twenty-four hours is below the normal. When an oxalic or a uric-acid stone of either the bladder or the kidney exists, the urine is often highly acid.

Decreased acidity may follow the ingestion of a light meal, a vegetable diet, and the ingestion of alkaline carbonates. Decreased alkalinity is also seen following profuse sweating, paroxysmal vomiting, and more rarely under other circumstances. The acidity may be lowered during certain hours of the day. Standing lessens the acidity of the urine.

Neutral and Amphoteric Urines.—Rarely, one encounters a urine which causes no change in either red or blue litmus; such a specimen is neutral. Occasionally, the urine will give both an acid and alkaline reaction with litmus-paper, when it is styled amphoteric. This phenomenal reaction is dependent on the presence of both acid and neutral sodium phosphates, which substances are held in equal suspension. This reaction is of no clinical significance.

CHLORIDS

Remarks.—Sodium in combination with chlorin forms the chief alkaline constituent in normal urine, from 10 to 15 grams being excreted

during the twenty-four hours. It should be stated that chlorin, in combination with calcium, potassium, ammonium, and magnesium, is also present in normal urines.

Decrease.—During health the amount of sodium chlorid excreted is in direct proportion to the quantity and quality of the food taken. The chlorids are decreased in such febrile conditions as scarlet fever, smallpox, typhoid fever, typhus fever, acute hepatic atrophy, and in disease in which starvation occurs. It is asserted that the chlorids are diminished or absent in croupous pneumonia. The chlorids are diminished slightly in certain diseases of the insane in proportion to the degree of involvement of the kidney. In maladies attended with an excessive drain upon the system, such as diarrhea, and in disease in which the body tissues are imperfectly nourished (*e. g.*, carcinoma), the chlorids are much below the normal limit.

Increase.—A marked increase is seen to follow the administration of potassium salts, whereas a less pronounced increase results from the

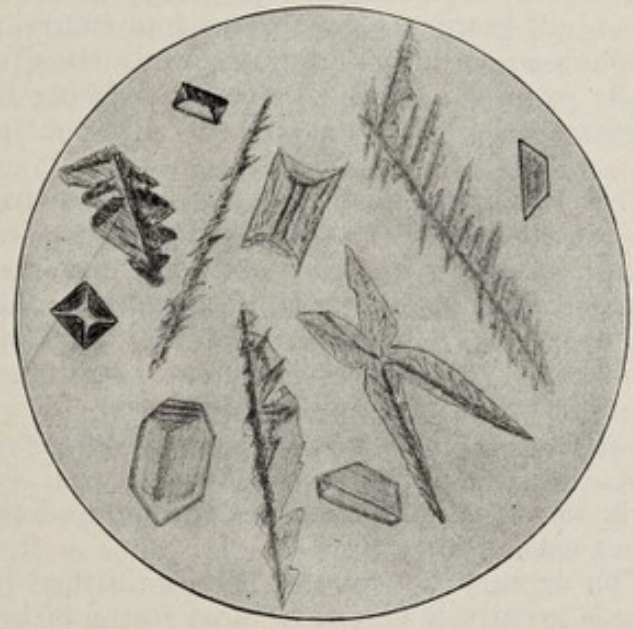


FIG. 273.—CRYSTALS OF PHOSPHATES (Boston).

absorption of the serous exudates, during diabetes insipidus, convalescence from fever, the afebrile stage in intermittent fever, and after epileptic seizures.

Recognition of Chlorids.—Reagents required: (1) Nitric acid; (2) solution of silver nitrate (1 dram of the crystalline salt to the ounce).

The foregoing solution of silver, when added to albumin-free urine, is capable of precipitating the chlorids when the urine is first acidulated by adding a few drops of nitric acid. This precipitate appears as an opaque, milk-white silver chlorid. Normal urine contains from $\frac{1}{12}$ to 1 per cent. of chlorids.

Application.—(1) From 10 to 15 c.c. of albumin-free urine are placed in a test-tube—and to it are added a few drops of nitric acid, and the mixture shaken gently.

(2) The silver solution is added drop by drop, careful note being made of any changes that may occur.

Each drop of the solution causes a curdy white clump to fall to the bottom of the tube; in normal urine this mass does not become dissemi-

nated upon shaking the tube, nor does the entire liquid tend to become milky.

Should the chlorids be reduced to 0.1 per cent., the drop of solution merely causes an opalescence, whereas in the absence of chlorids, no change is observed, a feature seen in lobar pneumonia. A copious precipitate is indicative of an increase in the amount of chlorids present. The precipitate due to chlorids is soluble in ammonia, but *insoluble in nitric acid.*

Although the quantitative estimation of chlorids is desirable in certain instances, it is not within the scope of this volume to give the details of such a test.

PHOSPHATES

Consideration.—The twenty-four hours' urine should contain from 2.05 to 3.05 grams of phosphoric acid. Most of the phosphoric acid enters into combination with sodium, whereas the remainder of it is found to be united with calcium and magnesium. The earthy phosphates (calcium and magnesium) are found in a proportion of 33 to 67, and constitute one and one-half grams of the twenty-four-hours' product.

Alkaline phosphates (sodium and potassium) consitute the greater portion of the daily excretion, sodium phosphate being by far the more abundant. Approximately, four grams of alkaline phosphates are excreted daily.

Increase.—The urinary phosphates are found to be decidedly increased during convalescence from the acute fevers, in diabetes insipidus, leukemia, diabetes mellitus, and phosphatic diabetes.

Drugs.—An increase in the excretion of phosphates may be due to the administration of drugs, as, *e. g.*, alcohol, chloral, chloroform, vegetable acids, and the bromids. Violent exercise, mental strain, anxiety, and hot baths are likewise followed by a moderate increase.

Phosphatic Diabetes.—This term is descriptive of a condition in which the symptoms of diabetes accompany phosphaturia. Here the most decided increase in the urinary phosphates is seen, and the twenty-four-hours' product may exceed for grams.

Decrease.—The urinary phosphates are diminished in conditions in which the vitality is greatly lowered, in most forms of anemia, rheumatism, chronic plumbism, and atrophic hepatic cirrhosis. The phosphates have been found below the normal in melancholia, but observations upon the insane are highly unsatisfactory.

In estimating the amount of phosphates, it is important to ascertain that the patient has not been taking cocain, strychnin, alcohol, valerian, quinin, and phosphoric acid, since these drugs cause a temporary diminution in the excretion of phosphates.

Estimation of Phosphates.—For a description of the methods of estimating the amount of phosphates in the urine the reader is referred to special works upon clinical diagnosis.

SULPHATES

Remarks.—During health, from two to three grams of sulphates are secreted during the twenty-four hours, the amount being influenced largely by the quantity of proteid food ingested, and by the tissue destruction that is taking place.

Increase.—The daily excretion of sulphates will exceed three grams when the patient is fed upon a diet rich in animal proteids. During acute fevers and in inflammation of the meninges and of the serous sacs there is a rise in the output of urinary phosphates. A decided increase is occa-

sionally seen in diabetes mellitus, eczema, pseudohypertrophic paralysis, muscular atrophy, and myeloid leukemia.

Drugs.—It must be remembered that sodium salicylate, antifebrin, morphin, and the bromids cause a somewhat marked increase in the urinary sulphates.

A feature of great clinical importance is that whenever the percentage of hydrochloric acid is lessened, the ethereal sulphates are increased; consequently an increase is present in intestinal fermentation.

Decrease.—The total sulphates are diminished following a diet rich in vegetables. After diarrhea, depleting conditions, and when the gastric juice is found to contain lactic and butyric acids in excess, the ethereal sulphates are also diminished.

Recognition of Sulphates.—*Reagents.*—(1) Solution of barium chlorid (1:8).

(2) Acetic acid (specific gravity, 1.04).

Application.—(1) Place 10 c.c. of urine in a test-tube.

(2) Acidify with acetic acid.

(3) Add about 3 c.c. (one-third volume) of barium chiorid solution, 1 c.c. at a time, shaking gently after each addition.

Reaction.—A white, milky precipitate indicates the presence of sulphates in normal amounts; but should the liquid assume the consistence of cream, sulphates are present in excess. If the liquid becomes opalescent, sulphates are diminished.

For the quantitative estimation of sulphates see special works upon Laboratory Methods, since the clinical employment of such knowledge scarcely warrants further description in this volume.

SULPHUR

Loosely combined sulphur, when present in the urine, is a characteristic feature of disease of the bones (myelomata), and this unusual condition is, as a rule, associated with albumosuria. See Myelomata and Bence-Jones' Albumosuria (p. 1075). Urine containing sulphur when heated with a solution of lead acetate causes a brown or blackish precipitate.

UREA

Physiologic Quantity.—From 20 to 40 grams (300 to 600 grains) of urea constitute the normal quantity for twenty-four hours.

Increase.—The amount of urea excreted is influenced by the rate of tissue destruction; consequently after prolonged exertion the urea-content is in excess of 40 grams a day. An increase is also a feature of scurvy, leukemia, pernicious anemia, paralysis, diabetes mellitus, cyanosis, epilepsy, intestinal fermentation, chorea, and pregnancy.

Drugs.—The prolonged use of such drugs as caffein, the chlorids, morphin and its derivatives is followed by an increase in the urea output, as is also the drinking of lithia waters. Owing to direct effect upon the tissues, the proportion of urea increases after the application of electricity and in poisoning by phosphorus.

Decrease.—The quantity of urea is said to be decreased in acute yellow atrophy of the liver, and following such decrease leucin and tyrosin, the result of destructive changes in the liver, appear in the urine. A lessened excretion of urea is expected in such chronic conditions as hepatic cirrhosis, jaundice, lead-poisoning, melancholia, paresis, nephritis, eclampsia and hysteria; this is also commonly seen in Addison's disease and in certain nervous affections. It is generally believed that gastro-intestinal derange-

ments materially influence the excretion of urea, but when the amount of urea is studied in conjunction with the various conditions that may influence the output of this secretion, it becomes difficult for the clinician to draw any definite deductions from the amount of urea excreted during the twenty-four hours.

Recognition of Urea.—Hypobromite Method.—The procedures of physiologic chemistry give the only accurate methods for the estimation of urea, the chief nitrogenous excrementitious product in the urine. The total nitrogen content should be determined by the Kjeldahl method, and this may be expressed as urea. Such a procedure, however, is too complicated for clinical work, and we are obliged to use a less accurate method for such a determination. It must be remembered, however, that the determination of urea by any method is of no value unless a portion of a twenty-four-hour specimen of urine is used.

The Hypobromite Method.—The hypobromite method is the most convenient for clinical work; but it has been shown by Ryan and Marshall that an average of 92.56 per cent. of the nitrogen of urea is liberated as free nitrogen gas in the tube.

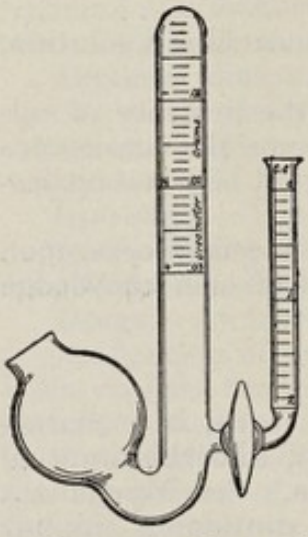


FIG. 274.—HINDS' MODIFICATION OF THE DOREMUS UREOMETER.

The Doremus-Hinds ureometer is the instrument most used in this method. The vertical tube and bulb are filled with a solution of sodium hypobromite made by dissolving 100 grams of sodium hydroxid in 250 cubic centimeters of water and adding 25 cubic centimeters of bromid. The side arm of the tube is then filled with urine to the one cubic centimeter mark, after opening the stopcock sufficiently to allow the reagent to fill its lumen. The stopcock is now opened wide and the one cubic centimeter of urine is allowed to mix with the reagent. The reaction liberates nitrogen gas, which collects in the vertical tube, and after the bubbles have subsided the volume is read off. The graduations represent grams of urea per cubic centimeter of urine. This figure multiplied by the number of cubic centimeters in the twenty-four-hour specimen will give the amount of urea eliminated during the day.

URIC ACID

Consideration.—The daily elimination of uric acid for normal man is given as 0.2 to 0.5 gram. After a time, uric acid usually collects at the bottom of the specimen in the form of a brick-red, crystalline sediment. Microscopically, these crystals are seen to take the form shown in the accompanying illustration (Plate VIII). Crystals of uric acid precipitate from urines of high and low specific gravity, but, as a rule, this sediment is most copious in urines in which the specific gravity is above 1.025.

Increase.—The amount of uric acid excreted is influenced largely by the foods ingested, *e. g.*, such animal foods as liver, thymus gland, brain, and kidney cause an increase in the amount excreted daily. Violent exercise results in cell destruction, affecting particularly the leukocytes, which is followed by a similar increase. In from four to six hours after a meal rich in meats, during the paroxysmal stage of gout, during high temperature, and in acute articular rheumatism an increased elimination of uric acid occurs. The urine of leukemia contains a high percentage of uric acid.

PLATE VIII



Crystals of Uric Acid from Permanently Mounted Specimen Slides (obj. B. and L. one sixth; eye-piece 2). (Boston.)

Decrease.—A vegetable diet, lead-poisoning, nephritis, muscular atrophy, and chlorosis show a decrease in the amount of uric acid excreted. A decrease is also usually associated with the primary and the secondary anemias. The great difficulty encountered in estimating the uric acid of the urine renders a knowledge of this excretion of comparatively little clinical value. Personally, we have been unable to draw any deductions from our own observations, and even a review of the literature has not provided us with sufficient facts from which to draw valuable conclusions.

CARBOHYDRATES

Clinical Consideration.—Clinically, we are concerned with but two sugars that occur in the urine: glucose and lactose. Occasionally, levulose is to be detected in urines in which glucose is also present, and less commonly maltose, saccharose, and pentose are found in the urine.

Glucose.—We shall first discuss the clinical significance of glucose (dextrose or grape-sugar) when it appears in the urine. The presence of glucose in the urine is usually considered under the heading of glycosuria. It may be stated here that the mere presence of glucose in the urine does not denote that diabetes mellitus exists, unless the other essential symptoms of the disease—progressive weakness with emaciation, intense thirst, hyperglycemia, excessive appetite, and polyuria—are also present. If any of these symptoms are absent, we are possibly dealing with alimentary glycosuria.

Clinical Significance.—Under normal conditions slight traces of glucose are found in the blood (*glycemia*), but it is doubtful whether it is present in sufficient amounts in the urine to be detectable by the clinical methods ordinarily employed for its recognition, "except after the ingestion of an excess of food rich in saccharin or starchy substances" (Anders). Consequently whenever this substance is present in the urine in sufficient amounts to induce a reaction with Fehling's solution, glycosuria exists. (See Diabetes Mellitus, p. 1061, for clinical varieties of gycosuria.)

Alimentary glycosuria follows the free ingestion of carbohydrates, and is not infrequently seen in those who eat heavily and take but little exercise. Again, alimentary glycosuria may be seen in certain diseases in which malnutrition is prominent.

Toxic glycosuria follows the administration of lethal doses of hydrochloric acid, sulphuric acid, mercury, strychnin, glycerin, alcohol, nitrobenzol, lead, arsenic, phosphorus, potassium iodid, caffein, thyroid extract, sodium salicylate and tuberculin.

Caution.—After the administration of any of the aforementioned drugs, and when any of the coal-tar products have been taken, the fermentation test should always be employed before deciding that glucose is present, since these drugs may cause a reduction of the copper in Fehling's solution. Pancreatic disease and pregnancy are reasons for careful study in this connection.

Pathologic toxic glycosuria is the term applied to a condition in which glycosuria is found to develop during the course of acute and chronic infections as, *e. g.*, cerebrospinal meningitis, cholera, relapsing fever, typhoid fever, diphtheria, phthisis, some of the exanthemata (scarlet fever), hepatic cirrhosis, rachitis, gastritis, malarial paroxysms, scarlatinal nephritis, chronic interstitial nephritis, cholelithiasis, syphilis, asthma, and whooping-cough.

Glycosuria may occur during the course of cerebral hemorrhage, brain tumor, brain abscess, epilepsy, neuralgia, sclerosis of the spinal cord, and the various forms of insanity. Maladies in which there is

general loss of *circulatory equilibrium*, as *e. g.*, exophthalmic goitre, myxedema, etc., are not infrequently accompanied by glycosuria.

Nervous glycosuria is that form of the disease in which the nervous manifestations are most prominent, *e. g.*, neuroses, psychoses, traumatic neuritis, brain injury, and permanent lesions of the nervous system. Certain *emotions*, anxiety, mental strain, financial embarrassment, etc., are also capable of causing a temporary glycosuria, and if such contributing causes persist for an indefinite period, a permanent glycosuria may follow.

Traumatic Glycosuria.—Traumatism to the head, trunk, and extremities is occasionally followed by glycosuria.

Puerperal glycosuria is somewhat unusual, whereas lactosuria is of common occurrence during the latter months of gestation and during the puerperal period. The blood sugar should be the signal for alarm.

Intermittent Glycosuria of Arthritis.—Glycosuria may develop during the course of certain chronic affections of the joints, and is most likely to make its appearance while one or more joints are acutely involved. This form has been called the "glycosuria of gout and obesity."

Test for Glycosuria.—Experience with the various tests for the recognition of sugar in the urine has caused us to employ Fehling's test for routine work. Although we have found other recognized tests—*e. g.*, Nylander's (bismuth) test and the phenylhydrazin tests of value, though less practical than the Fehling's test as now employed.

Fehling's Test.—*Reagents—Solution A.*—Powder, 34.64 grams of pure crystallized sulphate of copper, and dissolve in 200 c.c. of warm distilled water; cool, and add distilled water to make 500 c.c. *Solution B.*—Crystallize Rochelle salts, 180 grams, and dissolve in 300 c.c. of distilled hot water; filter, and add 70 grams of pure caustic soda; cool, and add distilled water sufficient to make 500 c.c. This solution should be kept in a colored-glass stoppered bottle. Benedicts Test is also popular.

Collection of Urine for Examination.—It is our practice to secure 2 to 4 oz. of the first urine that is passed upon rising in the morning, and an equal quantity passed during the evening, preferably three hours after the heaviest meal of the day. In specimens thus collected the morning urine usually shows the smallest, while that voided after exercise and a full meal is liable to contain the largest amount of sugar that is present during the twenty-four hours.

All specimens thus collected should be filtered before tested, and it is further to be remembered that ammoniacal urine may not give a satisfactory reaction with Fehling's solution.

(1) Place in a test-tube an equal quantity of Solutions A and B, which, when mixed thoroughly, results in an "alkaline solution of potassic cupric tartrate" (1 c.c. of this solution is reduced by 5 mgm. of glucose). When employing the test for qualitative analysis, add to the above mixture approximately three times its volume of water, which will result in a deep amethyst blue solution.

(2) Fill a test-tube two-thirds with the diluted Fehling's or Benedict's reagent and heat the upper portion of the reagent to the boiling-point. Then should it remain clear add drop by drop from a pipet the urine to be tested, boiling after each additional drop.

(3) In the presence of glucose in pathologic amount the upper and heated portion of the solution becomes first slightly turbid, and changes to a reddish or yellowish color. The color produced by glucose varies, greatly depending upon the quantity of this substance present. The addition of from five (5) to twenty (20) drops of filtered

urine free from albumin is usually sufficient to give a characteristic reaction should glucose be present. Whenever the reaction is uncertain, allow the tube containing it to stand for a time, then if the substance in question be sugar it will fall to the bottom of the liquid as a granular precipitate.

Caution.—Never employ a urine for analysis that has not first been filtered and proved to be free from albumin. The upper portion of the liquid in the test-tube should not be boiled briskly, and the lower part should not receive any heat from the Bunsen burner.

Where the amount of glucose present is but slight, a characteristic precipitate may not appear until the mixture (diluted reagent and urine) is allowed to cool.

Substances Reducing Copper.—While many of these are given in our own experience, but two of such substances have actually confused the reaction for glucose, these being glycuronic acid and lactose. Among the several precipitates seen when adding urine to diluted Fehling's solution as previously outlined none of these substances are seen to fall through the clear unheated reagent as is characteristic of glucose.

Substances producing a result which may be and is mistaken for glucose in Fehling's and in Trommer's Tests: uric acid, hippuric acid, mucin, xanthine bases, homogentisic acid, creatinine, glycuronic acid, milk sugar, phosphates, pyrocatechin, hydrochnion, urine containing the products of ingestion of chloral, chloroform, ether, glycerine. Chloroform, chloral, and formaldehyde gives a positive reaction to Fehling's test. It is therefore better to use a *boric acid tablet* or a little *toluene* as a *preservative* for urine.

Quantitative Estimation of Sugar.—This may be readily accomplished when it is remembered that 1 c.c. of a solution containing equal parts of reagent A and reagent B is reduced by five (5) mgm. of pure glucose.

Fermentation Test.—This method is probably quite as reliable as are certain of the more complicated laboratory methods, and is much more readily employed by the general practitioner.

Method.—After it has been shown by Fehling's or some other reliable test that sugar is present in a given urine render a portion of such urine acid by the addition of tartaric acid, after which boil for several minutes. Add to the urine a portion of a cake of yeast (⅛ to ¼ inch square), shaking until the mixture is free from lumps, and then place this prepared urine in an Einhorn Saccharimeter, nearly filling the expanded portion, then place the thumb over the mouth of the apparatus and incline the tube so as to compel the yeast mixture to occupy the graduated portion. Place the filled saccharimeter at a temperature of from 77° to 95° F.; when at the expiration of twelve hours should sugar be present, the carbon dioxid formed will have collected at the top of the tube and have displaced the urine, as shown by the graduation on the perpendicular limb of the saccharimeter. The reading obtained from the saccharimeter should be multiplied by the degrees of dilution (2 to 10) of the urine employed.

Caution.—Since yeast may give rise to the formation of a small volume of gas, in the absence of sugar it is advisable to conduct at the same time a control test with normal urine. Maltose, lactose, and levulose, when present in the urine, may give a similar reaction to that obtained with glucose, although these substances are usually excluded through the cautious employment of Fehling's solution.

Lactosuria.—Whenever there is a reduction of Fehling's solution or a reaction by the bismuth test and negative results are obtained with the

phenyl-hydrazin and fermentation test, the presence of lactosuria should be suspected.

Clinical Significance.—Lactosuria frequently occurs during the period of lactation, and is seen to develop when there is some interference with the flow of milk. The amount of lactose in the urine is no direct guide to the degree of interference with the mammary function. Lactosuria is likely to develop on the second or third day after delivery, and disappears in from five to seven days (physiologic lactosuria). It should be remembered that milk-sugar may be placed in the urine by hysteric individuals.

Pentosuria.—Clinical Features.—Traces of pentose are present in normal urine, and pathologic pentosuria may develop during the course of glycosuria. Cases have been reported which show that pentosuria, like glycosuria, may develop in several members of the same family. A fact to be borne in mind is that pentose is capable of reducing Fehling's solution, and that it gives the phenyl-hydrazin test for glucose. The clinical significance of pentosuria remains doubtful.

Test for Pentose.—To five cubic centimeters of filtered urine add an equal quantity of hydrochloric acid (sp. gr. 1.19) and 30 milligrams of phloroglucin. Mix the ingredients and warm. In the presence of pentose a red color appears in the solution, and, on examining it with the spectroscope, an absorption band will be seen in the green. Lactose and galactose give the same color reaction as do the pentoses; but, of course, a different spectroscope absorption band.

CHOLURIA

General Consideration.—Both bile-pigments and the bile acids may enter the urine as the result of disease, the rule being to find these two substances in the same specimen, the pigment occurring in profusion while the acids are but scanty. The yellow color of the urine, the presence of a heavy yellow froth, and the detection, microscopically, of bile-stained epithelial cells serves as positive evidences of choluria. There are many clinical tests by which bile in the urine may be detected, but they are also reactions for other organic substances, a fact that further emphasizes the importance of the color of the froth and of the staining of microscopic organic cells as valuable diagnostic points.

Clinical Significance.—Choluria results when there is any interference with the hepatic circulation or with the flow of the bile through the hepatic ducts or through the common bile-duct, or when the hepatic cells are diseased. Choluria develops during the course of cholelithiasis, cholecystitis, parasitic disease of the liver (echinococcus cyst, ascaris infection, liver flukes), hepatic abscess, carcinoma of the common bile-duct, gall-bladder, or head of the pancreas, and duodenal catarrh. Pressure of new growths upon the liver or upon its ducts may cause choluria.

Test.—In the presence of bile the urine froth is yellow. (See Tests for Bile in Gastric Fluid, p. 509.)

ACETONE

In the progress of diabetes mellitus acetone, diacetic acid, and β-oxybutyric acid are found in the urine. Acetone is the first of these bodies to appear; when from 0.4 to 0.5 gram is present in the twenty-four-hours' urine, diacetic acid may also be found; but β-oxybutyric acid does not usually occur until the amount of acetone exceeds one gram. After the β-oxybutyric acid appears it is the substance to which the increase in these acid substances is chiefly due. Sometimes the β-oxybutyric acid

excretion reaches as high as 180 grams in twenty-four hours, while acetone and diacetic acid together rarely exceed 7 or 8 grams.

Acetone.—250 c.c. of urine and 5 c.c. of strong sulphuric acid are placed in a distilling flask and 5 c.c. or 10 c.c. of distillate are collected in a test-tube (a condenser is not necessary). The distillate is rendered alkaline with 10 per cent. sodium hydroxid solution and a few drops of Lugol's solution are added (iodin, 1.0; potassium iodid, 2.0; water, 300). In the presence of acetone yellow crystals of iodoform are produced which have a characteristic odor.

Another but less satisfactory test is the sodium nitroprussid test. A quarter of a test-tube of filtered urine is mixed with an equal quantity of freshly prepared dilute solution of sodium nitroprussid and five drops of acetic acid are added. A 10 per cent. solution of sodium hydroxid is then added, one drop at a time, and, in the presence of acetone, a strong purple color is produced.

Significance.—Acetone may appear in the urine when the patient is suffering from any disease accompanied by high temperature, such as typhoid fever, scarlet fever, pneumonia, measles, and smallpox. The condition is known under such circumstances as *febrile acetonuria*. Tonsillitis, acute diarrhea, acute gastritis and dietetic indiscretions may may be followed by acetonuria. *Diabetic acetonuria* is the most common and most grave form. Acetonuria occurs sometimes in cases of carcinoma independent of inanition.

Diabetic acetonuria is the most common and most grave form.

It occurs in persons who are not sufficiently nourished, consequently in cases of gastric ulcer in which sufficient nutriment is not being absorbed. It is seen in certain of the psychoses, in digestive derangements, as an expression of autointoxication, and in chloroform narcosis.

Diacetic Acid.—A small quantity of filtered urine is treated with a 10 per cent. solution of ferric chlorid. If a white precipitate of phosphates forms, it should be filtered out and more ferric chlorid solution added. In the presence of diacetic acid a Bordeaux red color is produced. Salicyluric acid gives the same color reaction with solution of ferric chlorid; but salicyluric acid is not volatile, while diacetic acid is volatile. Consequently, when this test is positive upon first application, a fresh portion of the urine should be boiled briskly, and, after cooling, the ferric chlorid solution should be added. If in this specimen the Bordeaux red color fails to appear, the original reaction was due to diacetic acid. If the Bordeaux red color develops in this boiled specimen, salicyluric acid is present.

β-oxybutyric Acid.—The test for β-oxybutyric acid are too complex and require too expensive instruments for use in the laboratory of the general practitioner, and consequently are not described in this work. In a case of diabetes mellitus, however, the presence of acetone and diacetic acid in the urine in increasing amounts, as shown by the intensity of the reactions, may be taken as an indication of the existence of β-oxybutyric acid and of the imminence of coma.

OXALURIA

Consideration.—The oxalic acid in normal urine is probably derived from two sources: as the result of vegetable diet and from tissue destruction. Oxalic acid is also produced by oxidation of uric acid and from the imperfect oxidation of carbohydrates. Under normal conditions from 10 to 20 mgm. (0.31 grain) of oxalic acid are excreted daily. Oxalic

acid, when present in pathologic amounts, may be detected by the microscope, the envelop crystals being found. Should no crystals collect in the sediment, cautiously neutralize the urine by adding a few drops of ammonia, and stand the specimen aside for a few hours, when a copious sediment, rich in crystalline calcium oxalate (Fig. 275), results if oxalates are present in the urine in excess.

Increase.—A pathologic increase in the oxalic acid excreted with the urine is observed after the ingestion of large amounts of certain vegetables, among which should be mentioned spinach, carrots, tomatoes, string-beans, celery, onions, rhubarb, and asparagus. Apples and grapes cause a similar increase. Oxaluria often accompanies gastro-intestinal derangements, and this in all probability depends upon the imperfect oxidation of carbohydrates.

Calcium oxalate is often present in the urine during the course of chronic diseases of the skin. Localized erythematous areas affecting the backs of the fingers, the nose, the eyes, the lips, and, rarely, portions of the chest and abdomen, disappear when oxaluria subsides as the result of treatment. Decided itching of the skin, particularly at the junction of the skin with the mucous membranes, appears to be occasioned by the excretion of oxalic acid. At times these cutaneous manifestations of oxalic acid intoxication are most pronounced when the amount of oxalic acid excreted daily is comparatively low.

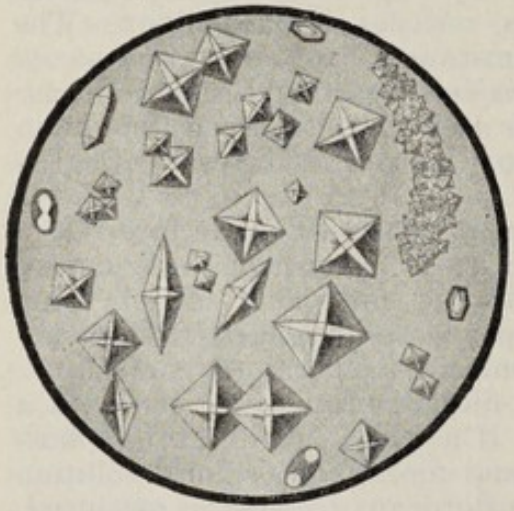


Fig. 275.—Calcium Oxalate Crystals (Jakob).

Calcium oxalate is a common constituent of the urine during the course of gastro-intestinal derangements, and particularly during the course of chronic gastritis. Oxaluria is also influenced by obstinate constipation. It must be remembered that oxaluria is most common in early adult and middle life, although we have repeatedly found it present in children under ten years of age and in those over sixty. In our experience oxaluria is unusually common in those cases in which there are oxalate calculi in the bladder or in the pelvis of the kidney; a few such instances have come under our observation.

The urine of hemophiliacs is often heavily charged with calcium oxalate, and when these patients are unable to take sufficient exercise, the oxaluria can be relieved only with difficulty. In fact, the oxaluria increases with the development of a ravenous appetite.

Course.—In practically all cases the condition is relieved by treatment. The real cause of oxaluria is commonly found in the gastro-intestinal tract or in the faulty hygiene of the patient, particularly as regards his exercise and diet. Oxaluria, when permitted to exist over a long period, is likely to irritate the kidney sufficiently to cause mucus cylindroids to appear in the urine. In fact, we have found cylindroids to accompany oxaluria more often than any other pathologic condition of the urine in which there is no true nephritis.

LEUCINURIA AND TYROSINURIA

Consideration.—Leucin and tyrosin appear in the urine as a result of the decomposition of albumins. These substances are to be found in the

urine of persons suffering from acute yellow atrophy of the liver, acute phosphorus-poisoning, and during the course of the severer forms of small-pox, yellow fever, typhoid fever, and other maladies in which the decomposition of proteids is rapid. The detection of leucin and tyrosin crystals in the urine of pernicious anemia, leukemia, and septicemia is an

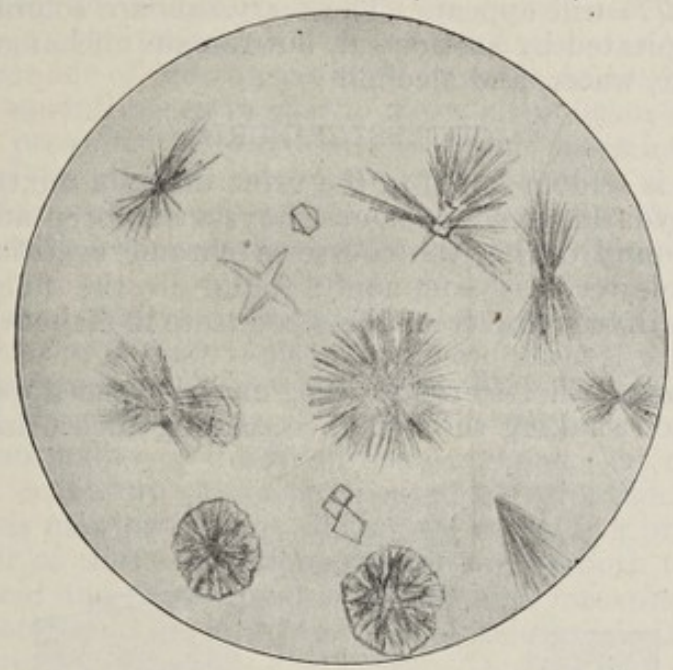


Fig. 276.—Leucin Discs and Tyrosin Crystals (Boston).

occasional finding. Leucin and tyrosin are, as a rule, found in the same urine, and may be precipitated out as characteristic crystals (Fig. 276).

Characteristics of Crystals.—Crystals of tyrosin are soluble in both acids and alkalis.

Differentiation.—Crystals of tyrosin must be distinguished from the crystals of acid and neutral phosphates. Crystalline tyrosin resembles

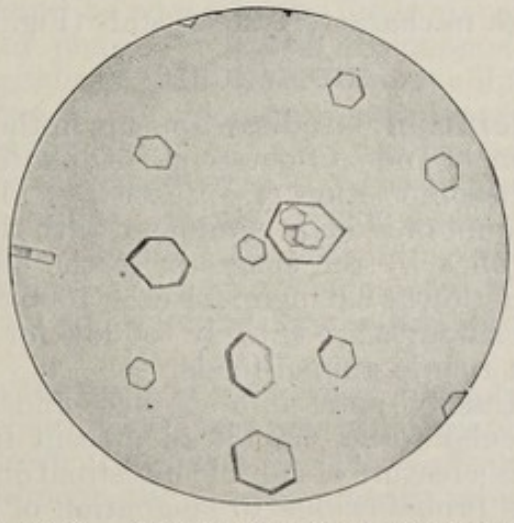


Fig. 277.—Crystals of Cystin (Boston).

fat crystals to some extent, from which it is distinguished by the fact that tyrosin is not dissolved in ether, whereas fat is.

CYSTINURIA

Consideration and Significance.—The presence of large numbers of cystin crystals in the urine is an extremely rare finding, but these crystals,

when present, cause a milky-white sediment to appear. Cystinuria has been known to occur in several members of the same family and shows a tendency toward calculi formation.

Recognition.—Place a drop of the sediment on a slide, and examine under a $\frac{1}{6}$-inch objective, when, if cystin is present, the characteristic crystals (Fig. 277) will appear. These crystals are soluble in ammonia and are reprecipitated by acetic acid, but remain unchanged upon treatment with ether, water, and alcohol.

CHOLESTERINURIA

Cholesterin is seldom found in the urine unless a mixture of chyle or of fluid from hydatid, ovarian or other cysts has been added. Rarely, cholesterin is found during the course of chronic cystitis and in acute nephritis. Cholesterin is commonly found in the fluid from cysts, abscesses of the liver, fluid from the serous sacs in diabetes, jaundice and fatty liver.

Recognition.—Cholesterin is recognized by the appearance of the urine; *e. g.*, upon shaking the bottle containing such urine small, snow-

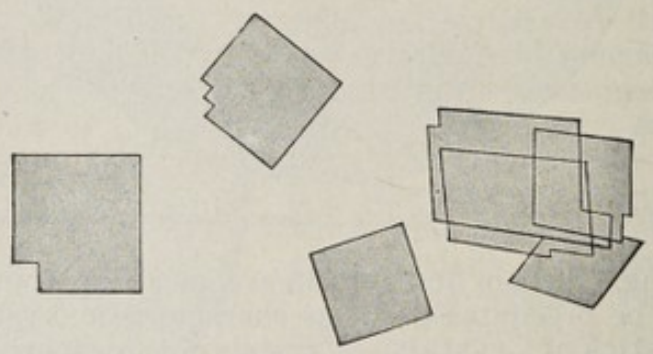


Fig. 278.—Cholesterin Crystals (Ogden).

flake-like bits are seen floating through the fluid. Microscopically, we find the specimen rich in characteristic crystals (Fig. 278).

INDICANURIA

General Consideration.—Indican appears in the urine in pathologic amounts in the form of indoxyl-potassium sulphate. It is said to be formed during the decomposition of an excess of albuminous material.

Although the amount of indican eliminated with the urine daily is to a certain degree controlled by the character of the diet taken, Gaffé has fixed the normal excretion at 6.6 mgm. for each 1000 c.c. of urine. It will be found that Gaffé's figures are entirely too low for healthy individuals who live upon a diet rich in animal foods.

Significance.—Indoxyl-potassium sulphate and indoxyl-sodium sulphate are the particular forms of indican present in pathologic urines.

(*a*) Indicanuria is a feature of chronic intestinal obstruction, and while in this instance it is probably due to stagnation of the contents of the intestines, some observers believe it to result from the action of the colon bacillus and other bacteria. Indicanuria is a feature of chronic constipation, acute peritonitis, wasting diseases, such as, *e. g.*, dysentery, cholera, Addison's disease, carcinoma, and other affections. It is absent in diseases of the pancreas.

Indican is found in pathologic amounts in practically all diseases in which a high degree of intestinal putrefaction exists. Clinical observa-

tion points strongly to the fact that the amount of indican bears a more or less close relation to the acidity of the gastric juice, and an increase in the amount of urinary indican is often associated with hypochlorhydria. We would suggest that in gastro-intestinal conditions the indican and the hydrochloric acid be studied correlatively. The special diseases in which this variety of indicanuria is seen are gastric carcinoma and ileus.

Exceptions to the foregoing rule are ocasionally encountered, *e. g.*, an excessive amount of indican is found in acute and subacute gastritis, and is not infrequently seen in gastric ulcer, a condition in which hyperchlorhydria is present. The maladies in which intestinal putrefaction takes place are so numerous that it appears unwise to mention each condition in which indicanuria may occur. We repeat that the degree of indicanuria is, with few exceptions, an index to the digestive power of the stomach.

(*b*) Diminished peristalsis contributes toward the elimination of an increased amount of urinary indican, in consequence of which indicanuria is the rule in acute and chronic peritonitis and in ileus. It should be borne in mind that the increased production of indican often depends upon some abnormality of the small intestine, and that pathologic indicanuria is not a feature of uncomplicated constipation. Gastroptosis and enteroptosis may be present when indicanuria is a prominent symptom, but either of these conditions may influence both the secretion of hydrochloric acid and the peristalsis of the small intestine, which makes it difficult to determine the exciting cause of indicanuria in these peculiar misplacements of the viscera.

(*c*) In accord with the view formerly held, that albuminous putrefaction results in indicanuria, we find it a feature of pulmonary gangrene, of the extremities, emphysema, puerperal sepsis, and in certain of the acute infectious diseases. For reasons which are not readily explained indican is often present when the leading primary feature is oxaluria.

Test.—To 10 c.c. of filtered urine add one drop of a 1 per cent. potassium chlorate solution, then 5 c.c. of chloroform, and, lastly, 10 c.c. of pure fuming hydrochloric acid (specific gravity, 1.19). It is necessary that the reagents should be added in the order given.

Mix thoroughly by pouring repeatedly from one test-tube to another. By this method the indican (indoxyl-potassium sulphate) is oxidized to indigo, which dissolves in the chloroform and imparts a blue color to it. In about ten minutes the maximum coloration has been reached, and the whole should again be thoroughly mixed. The chloroform will be colored more or less blue according to amount of indigo set free.

If the urine contains iodids, the chloroform will be colored violet. This color may be removed by adding three drops of a 5 per cent. aqueous solution of sodium thiosulphate, whereupon the blue coloration will appear.

Indigo appears in the urine in the form of amorphous débris, in which there are fine, needle-like crystals that possess a variable degree of blueness. The reaction of the fresh urine has little, if any, effect upon the formation of these crystals, although they are commonly present in decomposing urines.

Diazo-reaction.—A reaction commonly present during the course of high fever and dependent upon the presence of a chromogen in the urine.

Reagents.—(1) A solution of sulphanilic acid (1 gm. to every 100 c.c.) in 5 per cent. hydrochloric acid.

(2) Solution of sodium nitrate, ½ per cent. It is necessary that both solutions be fresh.

Method.—Place 10 to 20 c.c. of urine in a test-tube and to it add an equal volume of solution No. 1, shaking gently to effect a perfect mixture; then add from 3 to 6 drops of solution No. 2, and shake until a heavy froth collects. Render alkaline with ammonia. The diazo-reaction consists in the liquid becoming a port-wine color; the froth is also red.

Clinical Significance.—The diazo-reaction is a fairly constant symptom of typhoid fever after the end of the first week of the disease. We have found it present in cases of measles, tuberculosis (with cavity), meningitis, croupous pneumonia, in a number of obscure conditions with high fever; and less often in scarlet fever, acute miliary tuberculosis, erysipelas, pyemia, diphtheria, puerperal sepsis, and tonsillitis. The value of this reaction in diagnosis is limited.

DISEASES OF THE KIDNEY

ACUTE NEPHRITIS

(ACUTE PARENCHYMATOUS NEPHRITIS; ACUTE GLOMERULONEPHRITIS)

Pathologic Definition.—An acute, diffuse inflammation of the kidney, which may vary greatly as to severity, duration, and extent of destruction of renal tissue. Special varieties of acute nephritis, as, for example, acute degenerative, exudative, and productive, have been described. For clinical purposes we shall consider them all as acute nephritis. Reference may be made to the types of acute inflammation attacking the kidney substance, such as acute tubular, acute glomerular, and acute diffuse nephritis, although it is impossible to distinguish clinically between these pathologic subvarieties. The microscopic appearance of the kidney will be found to vary greatly, depending upon the severity and extent of the infection, but in the average case, however, the organ is slightly enlarged, swollen, and appreciably softened. The pathologic changes of acute nephritis have been produced in both monkeys and guinea-pigs, by the use of a filter-passing coccus obtained from the blood and urine of persons sick of the disease. Before the kidney is sectioned it displays a somewhat reddened or bluish appearance, and there is a distinct mottling of its surface. Occasionally there are minute hemorrhages beneath the capsule (acute hemorrhagic nephritis). The kidney cuts with ease, and the cut surface of the parenchyma shows decided mottling, while the pyramids are intensely reddened. The capsule strips with ease. Acute unilateral hematogenous nephritis is a rare condition. The cortex of the kidney becomes infected with microorganisms, consequently this disease is conveyed to the kidney through the blood stream.

Microscopically, there is infiltration with intrusion upon the tubules, and the Malpighian tufts also show inflammatory changes. Later, cellular necrosis, and also fatty degeneration, may be present.

Predisposing and Exciting Factors.—A filter-passing virus containing cocci varying from 0.3μ to 0.6μ in size, and which occurred in cultures as short chains, have been isolated from the urine of acute nephritis by Bradford, Bashford, and Wilson. In the urinary sediment this organism appears in distinct pairs, is Gram-positive, and passes through Berkefeld N. and V. filters. This coccus is anaërobic and survives a temperature of 56° C. for 30 minutes. It has also been isolated from the blood in cases of acute nephritis, and has been found capable of producing the disease in both guinea-pigs and monkeys. The recognition of a filter-passing virus in nephritis may serve to explain the relation between infectious foci and acute nephritis. Herrold and Culver,* report 12 cases of renal

*Jour. Infect. Dis., Feb., 1919.

infection by a gram-negative colon-like organism. Mixed infection was present in some of their cases and is not unusual.

Among the *exciting causes* are: (*a*) Both acute and chronic cutaneous diseases, as, *e. g.*, conditions in which the skin is inactive either from disease or from exposure to cold and following extensive burns. Antonius and Czepa in an *x*-ray study of the cases in Falta's clinic found that occult pus foci played an important etiologic factor in from 68 to 92 per cent. of all cases of nephritis. (See Focal Infection, p. 453.)

(*b*) *Chemic Causes.*—Either excessive doses or the prolonged use of any one or more of the following drugs may result in the production of acute nephritis: Ether, as in prolonged ether anesthesia, phenol, salicylic acid, iodin, the iodids, turpentine, phosphorus, lead, arsenic, mercury, and potassium chlorid. The kidneys may also be irritated as the result of the ingestion of certain adulterated foods.

(*c*) *Biologic Causes.*—Under this head we must consider the poisons resulting from the development of bacteria within the human economy, as is well exemplified in nephritis complicating scarlet fever (second or third week of convalescence), typhoid fever, relapsing fever, cholera, dysentery, pneumonia, diphtheria, rheumatism, and allied conditions. Septicemia, septicopyemia, and severe pyogenic infection, such as is seen during the course of pulmonary tuberculosis with cavity formation, are also capable of exciting an acute inflammation of the kidneys. Rarely, indeed, nephritis follows measles, chicken-pox, syphilis, and a single attack of malaria, but it must be remembered that repeated infection with the malarial parasite is productive of true nephritis and of hematuria and hemoglobinuria. Considerable has been written recently regarding nephritis due to infection of the kidney by living micro-organisms. Here nephritis first attacks the filter portion of the kidney. This type of nephritis doubtless figures prominently in all cases where nephritis accompanies or follows the acute infectious diseases, and focal infections. Unilateral nephritis while uncommon, may exist.

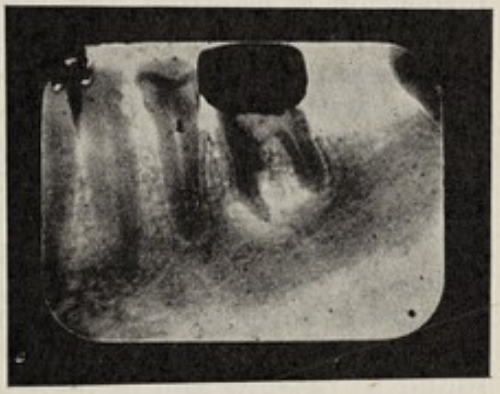


Fig. 279.—Apical Infection of Teeth in Private Case, Age 23. Acute Nephritis.

(*d*) *Traumatism to the kidney*, and at times traumatism to the trunk and the extremities, is followed by acute nephritis.

(*e*) *Pregnancy.*—Nephritis may develop at any time during gestation, but it is far more common in primiparæ after the seventh month. Hypofunction of the parathyroids is present.

(*f*) Latent and insidious chronic nephritis may be the cause of the onset of acute nephritis (Anders).

Principal Complaint.—The patient's description of his illness will vary greatly, depending upon the grade of nephritis present, but, as a rule, he will be found to complain of chilliness or of a series of chilly sensations, slight pains in the loins, with nausea, decreased appetite, and at times vomiting. Within the next twenty-four hours there will be a variable degree of headache, edema, and mental apathy. Extensive edema usually accompanies increased concentration of chlorides in the blood plasma. In children, the onset not infrequently begins with a convulsion, the child having been apparently well up to this time. The

patient early observes the characteristic swelling of the ankles and puffiness beneath the eyes, and in severe cases the edema of the skin becomes quite general. Epistaxis and conjunctival hemorrhage are among the less common symptoms. Acute unilateral hematogenous nephritis is marked by the sudden onset of severe pain in the region of one kidney. Nausea, vomiting, rigidity of the abdominal muscles (on the affected side), rise in temperature, and an increased leukocyte count are the cardinal symptoms of this condition.

Thermic Features.—The temperature begins to rise after the prodromal symptoms, gradually reaching about 100° to 101° F.; it is of an irregular type, declining to the normal whenever the acuteness of the renal inflammation subsides. Fever, while usually present, is by no means a constant feature of acute nephritis, although in severe cases the temperature may occasionally reach 102° to 104° F.

In mild cases the nephritis is not detected until an examination of the urine is made; we have seen many cases in which malaise was the only other symptom present.

Physical Signs.—Inspection.—In mild cases of acute nephritis inspection is negative, but later slight edema beneath the eyes and at the ankles may be detected. In moderate and in more severe types of the disease the skin is pale, and there is swelling of the feet, ankles, and fingers, with edema of the eyelids and face, all of which vary greatly with the severity of the type of disease present. General anasarca may follow, at which time there is edema of the scrotum, prepuce, and labia. The face may be so distorted as to make recognition impossible.

Palpation.—There is pitting about the ankles, and over all edematous tissues the skin is dry, and at times rough to the touch. The cardiac impulse is forcible, and the apex-beat is usually diffuse. The pulse is accelerated, except when uremic toxemia has developed, when it will be found to be slow and of high tension. When repeated attacks of acute nephritis have occurred, the heart is hypertrophied, and the apex-beat is found below the fifth interspace and to the left.

Percussion.—There may be evidence of the presence of fluid in the pleural sac; this is manifested by bilateral flatness, which extends only to the top of the fluid, and above about this point there is compensatory hyperresonance. It is ofttimes possible to detect fluid in the peritoneum, and hydropericardium may be present, which gives an increased area of cardiac dullness. This area is conoid in outline, the apex being directed downward. Not infrequently the area of cardiac dullness is increased, owing to hypertrophy of the left ventricle, but this area differs from that caused by pericardial effusion in that the apex of this triangle is directed downward and to the left. In extreme cases the triangular area of dullness is directed downward.

Auscultation.—Early during the course of acute nephritis the heart-sounds are clear and forcible, and their frequency is slightly increased, but after uremia has developed they are slow, clear, and the second aortic sound is decidedly accentuated. During the course of unfavorable and fatal cases the heart-sounds become very rapid, feeble, and intermittent, but it must be remembered that slow cardiac action is characteristic of uremia before cardiac dilatation has developed.

The respiratory murmurs are at first apparently normal; later the respirations may become slightly accelerated, but until circulatory embarrassment and edema of the lungs develop, the breath-sounds are clear. The respirations become slow and shallow at first, but as the disease advances, or after cardiac dilatation supervenes, they become feeble,

PLATE IX



Various Forms of Urinary Casts (Boston): 1. Hyaline casts from case of puerperal eclampsia (original) (obj. B. and L. one-sixth).

2. B. J., age twenty-two, female, suffering from puerperal eclampsia. Urine showing large, finely granular casts (original) (obj. Queen one-sixth; eye-piece 2).

3. S. A., age fifty-eight, male. Urine showing granular and fatty casts; post-mortem showed chronic parenchymatous nephritis (original) (obj. Queen one-sixth; eye-piece 4).

4. J. D., age fifty-four, male, suffering from cancer of the common duct and head of the pancreas. Urine showed bile-stained casts (original) (obj. Queen one-sixth; eye-piece 4).

5. A. G., age fifteen, male, suffering from acute nephritis. Urine showed granular casts (original) (obj. Queen one-sixth; eye-piece 2).

6. C. A., age nine, male. Scarlatinal nephritis, third week of convalescence. Urine showed granular casts (original) (obj. Queen one-sixth; eye-piece 2).

rapid, and are accompanied by numerous bubbling râles. Cheyne-Stokes breathing occurs late.

Nervous Manifestations.—Headache, mental dullness, and twitching of the muscles are commonly seen. Paroxysmal vomiting, difficulty in speaking, marked by thickness of the voice, the floating of specks before the eyes, vertigo, and even convulsions may develop during the course of acute nephritis. When the condition is that of an acute exacerbation of a chronic nephritis, localized paralyses, involving most often the muscles of the arms, face, or eyes, are to be seen. These paralyses are shifting in character, and may disappear promptly upon the administration of the proper remedies, only to reappear and involve some other portion of the body—the so-called shifting paralyses of Bright's disease. Maniacal delirium is occasionally present, and is at times the initial symptom of an acute exacerbation of chronic nephritis. Uremic coma is quite characteristic, and is to be distinguished from coma due to other causes.

Uremia of Children.—Vomiting, convulsions, blindness and hypertension accompany the glomerular type. Albuminuria, edema, without hypertension and previous infection are seen in acute tubular nephritis.

Special Symptoms.—The productive type of acute nephritis most often develops during the course of some other infectious malady, in which case the symptoms of acute nephritis are added to the symptoms of the initial disease; *e. g.*, in typhoid fever the development of a high temperature, maniacal delirium, and the urinary phenomena of acute nephritis are suggestive of this complication, and there may be added dyspnea, diarrhea, vomiting, and coma.

Laboratory Diagnosis.—The amount of perspiration excreted is decidedly lessened during the course of acute nephritis, and the more active the inflammatory process in the kidneys the more reduced is the activity of the sweat-glands. (See p. 693.)

The Urine.—In mild cases the quantity of urine excreted is moderately diminished, but with the advance of the disease it gradually lessens until, in severe types of nephritis, but a few ounces of fluid may be voided during the twenty-four hours, and, in fact, there may be anuria.

Naked-eye Study.—The urine is of high color, cloudy, acid in reaction, of high specific gravity. In hemorrhagic nephritis it is bloody, and a dark-red sediment collects upon standing. Should the hemoglobin escape with the bloodserum into the urine, the urine is of a bloody hue.

Microscopic Study.—In mild cases of nephritis the urinary sediment will be found to contain granular and hyaline casts, a few red blood-cells, and many leukocytes. (Plate IX.) In severe cases, in addition to the findings just mentioned, there are present renal epithelium, blood-casts, many red blood-cells, and blood-pigment.

Chemistry.—The urine will be found to contain large amounts of albumin, the quantity of which fluctuates with the degree of irritation present in the kidney and with the amount of urine voided during the twenty-four hours. Such urines may give a reaction for hemoglobin. (See Blood Chemistry, p. 371.)

The inorganic constituents of the urine are lessened in acute nephritis, but during convalescence from such attacks these substances reappear in the urine in abnormally large amounts, the increase, however, being of but short duration.

In mild cases of acute nephritis the *blood-findings* are of little if any clinical value, whereas in nephritis complicating other diseases the blood-findings of the primary disease are present. In severe nephritis in which uremia is well established the blood flows sluggishly from the site of

puncture in the skin and is dark in color. Normally the blood plasma chlorid equals 562 to 625 mgm. per 100 c.c. of blood plasma, and there is a relative increase above this point in direct relation to the severity and type of nephritis present. In edematous cases the chlorid of the blood plasma is increased. The normal uric acid in the blood is 1.5–2.5 or 3 mgm. and the creatinine of the blood is 1–2 mgm. per 100 c.c. of whole blood. Figures over 3.5 should be viewed with grave concern, while figures over 5 mgm. suggest an early fatal termination (except in acute cases). A case studied in the Philadelphia General Hospital during our services of 1924 showed a creatinin of 26 mgm. in 100 c.c. of blood—this patient lived for six months. The percentage of hemoglobin is often above the normal, as is also the number of red cells in a cubic millimeter, but this increase is dependent upon the presence of general cyanosis. When the disease has persisted for some time there is an appreciable reduction in the blood protein with some increase in the blood lipoids. Where protein food is administered the protein content of the blood serum is rapidly increased, and with this a corresponding reduction in the blood lipoids is observed. When nephritis accompanies certain acute infectious maladies, such as typhoid fever, microörganisms may be found in the blood in great numbers, and are likewise present in the urine. Judging from the cases reported, no standard as to the degree of importance to be attached to the demonstration of bacteremia and bacteriuria can be established.

Nephritic, Cardiac and Pleural Fluids.—The endothelial cells are plentiful and are often found in masses of from 5 to 15 cells. The nuclei are distinct, and other cellular elements are infrequent. In exudates of cardiac origin polyneuclear cells are present in connection with those found in the nephritic form. In the pleural fluids of children polyneuclear cells are more abundant than in the fluid obtained from adults. In selected cases great numbers of red blood cells may be present.

Duration of the Disease.—When acute nephritis does not occur during the course of some other disease, it is of but short duration, running its course in from a few days to a few weeks; but if the patient's resistance is undermined by some infection, the nephritis may last longer and may tend toward chronicity. In repeated attacks of acute nephritis each successive attack lasts longer than did the preceding one.

Summary of Diagnosis.—The recognition of acute nephritis depends almost entirely upon the detection of albumin and of casts in the urine, since these two findings afford positive evidence of the existence of the disease. Dryness of the skin, thirst, parched lips and tongue, and constipation are early manifestations of the disease. Later, the quantity of urine is decreased, and headache, mental dullness, and even stupor may supervene. In children nausea, vomiting, chilly sensations, and headache appear to be among the cardinal complaints, whereas in the adult there are usually stiffness and soreness of the muscles, slight pain in the back, and general malaise. (See p. 721.)

Course and Gravity of Disease.—The prognosis is dependent, to a great extent, upon the primary disease or causal factor of the nephritis, as well as upon the degree and character of the renal inflammation. When nephritis is the result of exposure to cold and wet, a permanent recovery is likely to ensue. Postscarlatinal nephritis is far less likely to be followed by permanent restoration of the function of the kidney than is the previously described variety. In the acute infections (typhoid fever, diphtheria, etc.) and in pregnancy the acute parenchymatous degenerative type of renal infection is present, and recovery is the rule. Occasionally

one encounters a virulent type of renal infection during the course of some other infectious disease, and this grade of nephritis is not unusual in acute yellow atrophy of the liver, cholera, and following poisonous doses of mercury, phosphorus, etc. In this last class of cases the manifestations of renal insufficiency are grave, and the patient grows rapidly worse until symptoms of uremia appear.

The factors that warrant a favorable prognosis are an increase in the quantity of urine excreted, the amount of urea and other solids being also increased, the skin, at the same time, recovering its normal color and moisture. The edematous areas disappear rapidly after the increased flow of urine, as does also the fluid that has accumulated in the serous sacs (pleura, pericardium, peritoneum).

Among the most serious symptoms of acute nephritis are edema, effusion in both pleural sacs, and such nervous manifestations as stupor, partial paralysis, convulsions, and coma. The development of complications such as pneumonia, meningitis, and pericarditis renders the prognosis unfavorable. Throughout the course of acute nephritis the prognosis is either favorable or unfavorable, depending directly upon the quantity of urine excreted during the twenty-four hours (the smaller this quantity, the less favorable the prognosis), upon the presence or absence of complications, and upon the ability of the physician to institute proper hygienic and therapeutic measures. After the renal process has assumed a productive character, the life of the patient is, as a rule, prolonged over months and at times years, but complete recovery seldom follows.

ACUTE INTERSTITIAL NON-SUPPURATIVE NEPHRITIS

Pathologic Definition.—An acute inflammation of the kidneys, either localized or diffuse, resulting in the production of a non-suppurative exudate in the interstitial tissue, without accompanying degeneration of the parenchyma. The kidney is enlarged and its surface mottled. There is a distinct proliferation of the cells in the interlobular tissue, and these changes are in excess of those found in the parenchyma. The proliferative changes are especially conspicuous about the venous and capillary epithelium. Plasma cells, lymphocytes, and polymorphonuclear leukocytes are present in the exudate.

General Consideration.—Thus far the majority of recorded cases of this type of nephritis have developed after such acute infections as scarlet fever and diphtheria, although they have been known to follow typhoid fever, pneumonia, meningitis, and measles. A pathologic study of the kidneys reveals the presence of streptococci in the interstitial tissue. Some authors believe that this type of nephritis is the result of the action of powerful toxins, and that bacteria enter the kidneys secondarily. In view of the foregoing statement a diligent search for a focus of infection is essential in this variety of nephritis, and the course of the case depends largely upon the detection and eradication of such focci. (See Predisposing and Exciting Factors of Acute Nephritis, p. 718.)

Clinical Picture.—The characteristic clinical features of this type of nephritis are: (1) That it develops during the course of some other infection; (2) the patient rapidly enters a moribund state; and (3) edema is slight and often absent.

ACUTE EPIDEMIC NEPHRITIS, (TRENCH DISEASE)

An acute and probably infectious disease characterized by glomerulotubular involvement of the kidney.

Etiology.—The greatest number of cases have been seen during warm weather. The exciting factor remains in question.

Clinical Course.—The disease develops rather abruptly with mild fever, headache, pain in the larger joints, edema of the face, and extremities, and a varying degree of dyspnea.

Gabbi (Riform Medica, Sept. 25, 1916) called especial attention to this type of nephritis, noting particularly that they were liable to progress from bad to worse, as were the ordinary cases of acute nephritis. Among the more serious evidences of the disease, are retinal hemorrhage, and parotiditis; and uremia is seen in about 2 per cent. of all cases.

Laboratory Diagnosis.—Bacterial examinations of both the blood and the urine has thus far failed to reveal anything of a definite nature. In typical cases the urine is very pale in color, and of low specific gravity. It contains a comparitively large percentage of albumin, and both hyaline and granular casts with few epitheal cells are detected. Red blood cells and leukocytes are present in the more severe types of the disease.

CHRONIC NEPHRITIS (EXUDATIVE)

CHRONIC BRIGHT'S DISEASE; CHRONIC PARENCHYMATOUS NEPHRITIS; CHRONIC DIFFUSE NEPHRITIS WITH EXUDATION; CHRONIC TUBAL AND CHRONIC DESQUAMATIVE NEPHRITIS; CHRONIC GLOMERULONEPHRITIS; LARGE WHITE KIDNEY; SECONDARY OR FATTY AND CONTRACTED KIDNEY

Pathologic Definition.—A diffuse, chronic, inflammatory process, involving both kidneys, and characterized by epithelial degeneration, with the formation of permanent connective tissue and the escape of certain portions of the blood (serum and pigments) into the renal tubules.

Several types of pathologic kidney are present in this disease, but the distinctive differences as to size, etc., are dependent upon the varying causal factors and the stage and duration of the case in question. In cases of contracted kidney extensive mineral deposit consisting chiefly of calcium carbonates and calcium phosphates are to be found where parathyroid pathology exists.

The clinical findings that are present in such cases are a marked retention in the blood of the urinary constituents *e. g.*—uric acid and nonprotein nitrogen. (See Arterial Sclerosis p. 265—and Chronic Nephritis p. 731 and Parathyroid Glands p. 1107.)

(1) The large white kidney (without amyloid degeneration) is either enlarged or of normal size, and of a pale or yellowish color. The surface of the organ is smooth, and its capsule strips with ease. The cut surface displays a yellowish-white color throughout, with certain opaque areas and here and there some mottling with red. Microscopically, the destructive changes are pronounced; the renal epithelium is swollen; and hyaline, granular, and fatty degeneration is conspicuous. The glomeruli are appreciably enlarged, owing to overgrowth of the capsular epithelial cells. The interstitial tissue is seen to be increased.

The small white kidney is generally believed to be but the result of a later stage of the preceding variety, in which, owing to advanced degeneration and overgrowth of connective tissue, contraction has taken place. The organ, in addition to being small, is firm and resistant to the knife, and its capsule is adherent. The cut surface is grayish or yellowish in color, and at times mottled. Distinct foci of fatty degeneration are usually disseminated throughout the cortical portion of the organ.

The large red kidney, in addition to being swollen and congested, or mottled, frequently shows distinct irregularities or humping on its surface. Here the capsule is somewhat adherent, especially at the points of indentation. The cut surface of the organ also shows many irregularities and at

times slight hemorrhages, and its mottling is shown microscopically to depend upon various stages of degeneration. In certain respect the microscopic changes simulate those described for the large white kidney.

Varieties.—This type of nephritis has been divided into several varieties, according to the peculiar grade of pathologic change present in the kidney; in our experience it has been found generally difficult, and sometimes impossible, to ascertain, either by an examination of the urine or by other clinical methods, the exact type of kidney present.

Predisposing and Exciting Factors.—Age.—Chronic parenchymatous nephritis may be found at practically all ages, but it is especially common in children who have suffered from scarlatina, as well as in young adults, and the disease is by no means uncommon during the fourth, fifth, and sixth decades. The age at which both men and women are subjected to hard work and exposed to cold and wet appears to be the most susceptible period. The etiologic factors are often indentical with those present in chronic interstitial nephritis see p. 731, and see also Acute Nephritis, p. 718. Disease of the parathyroid glands with hypo-function may be a factor (see Parathyroids, p. 1107).

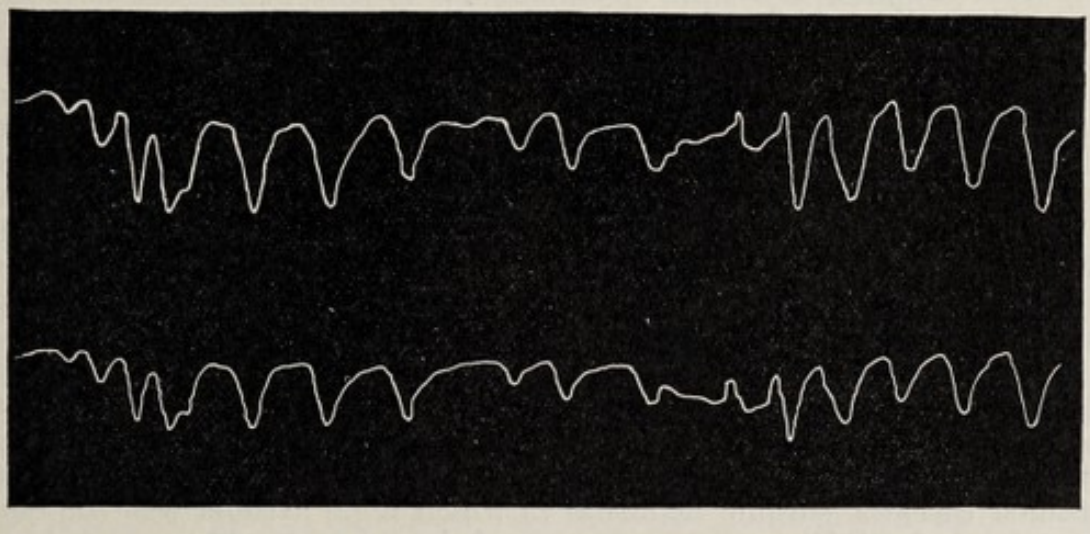


FIG. 280.—BILATERAL PNEUMOGRAM SHOWING RESPIRATORY ARRHYTHEMIA, FROM A CASE OF UREMIA STUDIED AT THE PHILADELPHIA GENERAL HOSPITAL.

Note especially the great variations in amplitude of the curve, also variations in time of the respiratory movements (distance between summits). (See Movements of Chest, p. 139.)

Persons who eat heavily of rich foods and who take but a moderate amount of exercise are especially prone to this malady, as are also those who imbibe too freely of alcohol, beer, malt, and other intoxicating liquors. Exposure to cold and wet, and employment in which the temperature is extremely high, as in the case of firemen, workers about furnaces, etc., are predisposing factors—dependent either upon the intense heat or upon the sudden change of temperature in passing from a hot into a cold atmosphere.

The toxins of acute infectious diseases excite in themselves an acute nephritis that becomes subacute, and eventually chronic, in nature. Practically all conditions that favor the development of acute nephritis figure prominently in the etiology of chronic parenchymatous nephritis.

Climate is believed to contribute slightly toward the development of this disease, and it is said that the disease prevails in humid and marshy localities. We have observed it in certain persons living in regions known to be highly malarial. Persons suffering from any malady in which chronic

suppuration is a feature are especially likely to develop this type of nephritis; this variety has been considered under the head of amyloid disease of the kidney.

Principal Complaint.—The symptoms present in acute nephritis are nearly all present during the course of chronic parenchymatous nephritis, although they are less conspicuous, since each individual symptom is not so acute, but more persistent. Headache is a conspicuous symptom in this type of nephritis, and is present every day, in various degrees of severity, affecting either the frontal or the occipital region. There are also dull, wandering pains in the muscles and progressive weakness, which eventually becomes extreme. Nausea is commonly experienced, and the appetite is lessened at the onset of the disease and lost entirely in extreme cases. Paroxysmal attacks of indigestion, accompanied by headache, mental dullness, sleeplessness, and vertigo occur. Coma may follow a gastric attack. In many cases we have observed an inordinate appetite for eggs and other albuminous foods.

With the progress of the disease the patient observes that he cannot open his eyelids widely when he awakens in the morning, and that there are also present bagginess of the skin of the cheeks and swelling of the ankles, which latter symptom increases rapidly until anasarca appears. The swelling of the face present on rising in the morning lessens during the day, whereas the swelling of the feet is less evident in the early morning hours and becomes more apparent after the day's exertions.

Dyspnea is a common complaint, and becomes more marked as the disease advances. It may be toxic and nervous in character, or it may depend upon mechanic interference with the pulmonary circulation. Cardiac dyspnea, which is dependent upon faulty action of the heart, is always present in the course of chronic parenchymatous nephritis, and is aggravated on assuming the recumbent posture. Dyspnea not due to cardiac insufficiency may be dependent upon vasomotor constriction, and should be regarded as of serious prognostic moment; indeed, we have studied cases of chronic nephritis in which renal asthma was the chief complaint; for this reason an analysis of the urine should be made in all cases of asthma.

Catarrhal bronchitis is frequently associated with this form of Bright's disease. Without doubt it contributes toward the dyspnea and cough, as well as to the free expectoration.

The patient's discomfort is materially increased by the presence of complications, among which should be mentioned retinitis with failing vision, diseases of the skin, pericarditis, endocarditis, pneumonia, and colitis. Certain of these conditions may give rise to fever, which is not present in uncomplicated chronic nephritis. The symptoms common to these complicating maladies are added to those of the primary nephritis.

Physical Signs.—Inspection.—During the first few months inspection is practically negative, but as the disease advances there are decided pallor of the skin, edema of the face, eyelids, and extremities, particularly of the ankles, and prominence of the superficial veins of the face, calves of the legs, abdomen, and chest; small red blotches may also appear on the skin. The hair and that portion of the skin covered by clothing are lusterless, slightly roughened, and covered with fine scales, which are seen to surround the roots of the hair.

After the accumulation of fluid in the peritoneal sac has taken place, there is prominence of the abdomen. The respirations are hurried, and the attitude of the patient is altered in accordance with the degree of serous exudation, in order to enable him to breathe

more easily. Before pericardial effusion occurs the cardiac apex-beat is displaced downward and to the left, whereas after the accumulation of fluid in the pericardium it is seen at the third or fourth interspace and in the midclavicular line. In ascites the breathing is thoracic, and the superficial veins of the abdomen and chest are seen to be greatly enlarged. There is generally decided edema of the lower extremities and of the genitalia, as well as edema of the hemorrhoidal veins and hemorrhoids.

Palpation.—The skin is often dry and harsh, but when it is edematous, it pits upon pressure. Palpation serves to confirm inspection as to the position of the apex-beat of the heart; it is further found to be forcible early during the course of this malady, but late in the disease it is weak and irregular, and in both pericardial effusion and acute cardiac dilatation it may be scarcely perceptible. The expansion of the chest is greatly lessened when either pleural or pericardial fluid has accumulated.

In order to demonstrate the presence of free fluid in the peritoneal cavity an assistant makes pressure with the ulnar border of one of his hands in the median line of the abdomen, while the examiner, with the palm of one hand pressed against the skin of one flank, taps gently against the skin of the opposite flank with the tip of one of the fingers of his other hand. If fluid is present, a transmitted wave will be apparent to the palm of the palpating hand. Polyhydraminos, large ovarian cyst, hydronephrosis, chylous cyst, and a distended bladder may give such a wave.

Percussion.—The area of cardiac dullness is increased downward and to the left early, and it is decidedly increased in the transverse diameter, owing to hypertrophy of the left ventricle. In pericardial effusion the area of cardiac dullness is likewise enlarged, but forms a triangular area, the base of the triangle being directed downward, whereas its apex rises to the second left interspace. The three conditions that cause the area of cardiac dullness to be increased are: (1) Hypertrophy of the left heart; (2) pericardial effusion; (3) acute cardiac dilatation. These are readily differentiated by the aid of physical signs other than percussion, and it is important to remember that they may all be present at different stages during the course of chronic parenchymatous nephritis. (See Differential Table.)

Hydrothorax is readily detected by the fact that it gives bilateral dullness at the base of the chest, which dullness changes with the position of the patient.

The presence of free fluid in the abdominal cavity in cases of nephritis with associated cardiac failure is indicated by dullness on percussion in the flanks and above the pubes, with tympany above the dullness. If both ascites and pleural effusion are present, a continuous area of dullness may be detected throughout the lateral region of the trunk from the axilla to the brim of the pelvis.

Auscultation.—The breath-sounds are unaltered at first, but later, and especially after the accumulation of fluid in the serous sacs, numerous small crackling and large bubbling râles are audible over both lungs. The respiratory murmurs become more and more rapid, depending upon the amount of fluid in the serous sacs and the degree of cardiac embarrassment. The heart-sounds are first accentuated, most marked over the aortic cartilage, and this bounding element in the sounds persists while the hypertrophy continues, but when the hypertrophy has reached its limit and cardiac dilatation begins, the sounds become weak, rapid, and fetal in character. If there is pericardial effusion, the cardiac tones are extremely weak, distant, and muffled.

Laboratory Diagnosis.—The quantity of urine voided during the twenty-four hours may be normal or moderately increased, at times

falling to between ten and thirty ounces. The color is high, and the specific gravity ranges between 1.016 and 1.030. (The larger the quantity of urine, the lower the specific gravity.) Chemically, this urine contains quite a large amount of albumin. It is generally conceded that the greatest amount of urinary albumin is lost in this type of Bright's disease. The amount of solids voided during the twenty-four hours is, as a rule, decreased, and this decrease becomes more and more pronounced with the advance of the disease. Urine of low specific gravity that percipitates an unusual amount of uric acid (sand) may be an early symptom of chronic nephritis, and is most commonly observed in the interstitial variety, and where adrenal disease exists.

Microscopically, the urinary sediment is found to contain many long and short granular casts and a few epithelial and leukocytic casts. Leukocytes, which are present in normal urines, appear in pathologic numbers during the entire course of parenchymatous nephritis. Red blood-cells are seldom seen except during an acute exacerbation of this condition, but when found, they are of grave clinical significance.

An estimation of the renal function is given through the Ambard quotient, and this method has occupied a rather prominent position among certain clinicians. Jonas and Austin,* have dealt exhaustively with this subject, and from their paper the following conclusions may be taken:—

(*a*) The Ambard formula in its original form, or as modified by McLean, does not express precisely the law of renal function with respect to the elimination of urea or to urea concentration.

(*b*) The maximum limit of blood urea is non-nephritic and normal subjects when under ordinary conditions of diet and exercise is about 0.35 gram urea per litre of blood.

(*c*) Jonas and Austin while using McLean's modification of Ambard's formula, found that in most cases of nephritis a lowering of the index was accompanied by an increase of the blood urea to above 0.35 gram per litre.

(*d*) In certain cases the index may be lowered while the blood urea is within normal limits. This last feature is especially true in arteriosclerotic cases, and in those cases where cardiac decompensation exists.

(*e*) The urea index estimated repeatedly in the same nephritic subject exhibits less variations than does it in the normal. (See Blood Urea, p. 371.)

Hematologic Study.—Throughout the entire course of parenchymatous nephritis the percentage of hemoglobin will be found to be below the normal limit; with the progress of the malady it shows a decided decline—to even below 50 per cent. in the latter stages of the disease. The erythrocytes likewise show a proportionate decrease in number, falling to below 2,000,000 during the height of the disease. The leukocytes are normal in number early, but may be found moderately increased in advanced cases. The skin is less moist than normal, and the moisture of the breath is above 85 per cent. Widal, Weil, and Laudat have discovered that lipemia is rather common in those cases which show retinal hemorrhage. Chauffard found that cholesterinemia is also present and that it runs parallel with the degree of lipemia. Likewise cholesterinemia may be present in other conditions where there is a so-called simple albuminuria, and where there is retention of chlorids or nitrogen. The naked-eye appearance of the blood-serum simulates that of milk.

* Amer. Jour. Med. Sci. Oct., 1916.

Blood Chemistry.—In parenchymatous nephritis a blood retention of chlorides exists while the nitrogen retention is comparatively small. Normally the chloride content of the blood (sodium chloride) amounts to 0.45–0.50 per cent.

In cases of nephritis complicated by edema there is an increase in the chloride content of the blood.

The cholesterol content of the blood is increased by a diet rich in lipoids (fats); in cases of obstruction of the common bile duct, during pregnancy, in diabetes, nephritis, and arteriosclerosis. Phosphate retention may be present throughout the entire course of the disease, and becomes more pronounced as the disease advances, consequently, a progressive increase in the plasma phosphate of from 4 to 10 times the normal is to be expected. (See Blood Chemistry, pp. 371, 735.)

Summary of Diagnosis.—Progressve loss of strength and of weight, anemia, dyspnea upon exertion, diminished excretion of urine, which is rich in albumin, and numerous granular casts serve as the cardinal symptoms of chronic parenchymatous nephritis. When, associated with these findings, there are cardiac hypertrophy, dropsy, headache, and gastro-intestinal disturbances, the diagnosis becomes quite clear, irrespective of the urinary findings, which are in themselves characteristic of the disease.

Differential Diagnosis.—Chronic parenchymatous nephritis is differentiated from chronic interstitial nephritis with difficulty, since both processes may be progressing in the same patient. In pure types, however, the urine in the case of chronic parenchymatous nephritis is usually less than normal in quantity; of rather high specific gravity; and contains a moderate amount of albumin—0.1 to 0.5 per cent. by the Esbach method, and pale and dark granular and hyaline casts. The urine in the typical case of chronic interstitial nephritis, on the other hand, is increased in quantity; is of low specific gravity; and contains little or no albumin and a few hyaline casts. The associated arteriosclerosis and the more marked nervous manifestations are important characteristics of chronic interstitial nephritis. A history of prolonged suppuration or of syphilis is highly suggestive of amyloid kidney. The table below shows the chief characteristics of chronic interstitial nephritis.

TABLE SHOWING THE DIFFERENTIAL FEATURES BETWEEN CHRONIC PARENCHYMATOUS NEPHRITIS, AMYLOID KIDNEY (WAXY), AND CHRONIC INTERSTITIAL NEPHRITIS

Clinical Features

Chronic Parenchymatous Nephritis	Amyloid Kidney (Waxy)	Chronic Interstitial Nephritis
1. History of one or more attacks of acute Bright's disease.	1. History of prolonged suppuration or of syphilis involving the bones.	1. Commonly follows high living and excessive indulgence in alcoholic liquors.
2. Commonest during early adult and middle life, but may occur at any age.	2. May appear during childhood or early adolescence.	2. Usually noticeable after the age of forty.
3. Duration, two to seven years.	3. May persist over a long period, and apparent recovery or improvement follows removal of the cause or the institution of proper treatment.	3. Duration, ten to thirty years. Death usually results from some intercurrent infection, as, *e. g.*, pneumonia, influenza, etc.

Chronic Parenchymatous Nephritis	Amyloid Kidney (Waxy)	Chronic Interstitial Nephritis
4. Dropsy of the face and ankles, with general anasarca, common.	4. Not pronounced, although moderate edema of the face and ankles may be seen.	4. Dropsy absent, unless it be the result of cardiac insufficiency or during an acute exacerbation of the renal process.
5. Anemia with extreme pallor develops early and increases steadily with the progress of the disease. The hemoglobin and red cells are relatively reduced.	5. Hemoblogin and red cells show decided reduction.	5. Less marked anemia in proportion to the duration of the disease.
6. Leukocytes uncommon.	6. Leukocytes common, but not constant.	6. Leukocytes may be present during the latter stages and during complications.
7. Nervous symptoms do not appear until the other clinical evidences of the disease are prominent.	7. Not a characteristic feature.	7. Nervous manifestations appear early, as *e. g.*, shifting paralyses, headache, neuralgia, asthma, and coma.
8. Pallor of the conjunctiva and of the retina. Retinal hemorrhages rather common until disease is well advanced.	8. Extreme pallor or conjunctiva and retina. Amyloid deposits in retina.	8. Retinal hemorrhages common, and choking of the disc is occasionally seen.
9. Liver and spleen of normal size.	9. Enlargement of spleen and liver common.	9. Liver usually small.
	Laboratory Findings	
10. Quantity of urine voided during the twenty-four hours normal or subnormal.	10. Normal or increased.	10. Decidedly increased—70 to 150 ounces a day.
11. Specific gravity, as a rule, above 1.018.	11. Specific gravity normal or often extremely low—1.015 to 1.005.	11. Specific gravity low—1.015 to 1.005.
12. A high percentage of albumin is present.	12. A low percentage of albumin.	12. Merely a trace of albumin, but when this is studied in comparison with the large quantity of urine voided, the amount of albumin lost during the twenty-four hours is quite large.
13. Numerous short, thick, granular casts, with few hyaline casts present.	13. Most of the casts are of the hyaline variety, and at times there are to be seen the so-called amyloid casts (Fig. 282). Wide hyaline casts with hyaline-like epithelial cells upon their free surface common.	13. Hyaline casts predominate, and they are, as a rule, long and narrow, at times appearing as mere shadows. Wider casts are seen during the early course of the disease. Renal epithelial cells are often present.
14. Hypertension.	14. Absent.	14. Hypertension early feature.

Course and Duration.—During the first six months there are slight edema of the face and ankles, some pallor, and pronounced dyspnea, after which the disease advances, as a rule, rapidly from bad to worse.

Judicious treatment may prolong life for a period of several years. We have seen cases showing slight pallor, somewhat scanty urine of high specific gravity, with albumin, but with no other complaint for years, develop severe attacks, with dropsy and dyspnea, lasting for several months, thus showing that the disease may run an intermittent course. We have also seen severe cases that terminated fatally within a few months, during which time the patients manifested uremia, dropsy, acute cardiac dilatation, and intercurrent complications, such as bronchopneumonia. When parenchymatous nephritis has existed for more than a year, recovery is not likely to occur. Rarely, indeed, an apparently permanent recovery follows this type of nephritis in the young, and we have had under our care several such cases in which there was no recurrence for a period of several years.

CHRONIC INTERSTITIAL NEPHRITIS

(Chronic Nephritis (Non-exudative); Chronic Bright's Disease; Primary or Genuine Contracted Kidney; Cirrhotic Kidney; Red Granular Kidney; Chronic Productive (Diffuse) Nephritis without Exudation (Delafield); Gouty Kidney)

Pathologic Definition.—A chronic disease of the kidneys, characterized by the presence of inflammatory changes, with the extensive production of fibrous tissue and a consequent lessening in the size of the organ, obstruction to some of the uriniferous tubules, and a tendency toward the formation of cysts in the parenchyma of the kidney. The parathyroids show pathologic changes in one-fifth of all cases dead of nephritis (see Parathyroids).

In 1904 MacCallum published his postmortem findings in a young subject supposedly dead of chronic renal disease where a parathyroid tumor was found.

Bergstrand has described parathyroid pathology in connection with ten cases of nephritis and found that the parathyroid cells were poor in fat and devoid of colloid in nephritic subjects.

Harbitz has also described at length struma of the parathyroids in nephritis. (Barker, Endocrinology and Metabolism, Vol. 1) cites the findings of Thomas and Wentworth that illustrates the relation between hyperplasia of the parathyroid glands and chronic renal disease.

Cases of nephritis showing extensive atheroma and deposits of lime in the arterial system, and in the tendons, and bursa have been found at autopsy to display parathyroid pathology. Calcarious deposits in the kidney substance or in the renal pelvis, suggests strongly associated pathology of the parathyroids. (See Arterial Sclerosis, Chronic Nephritis, and Parathyroid Glands.)

The size of the kidneys is greatly diminished, being reduced to about one-third or one-half that of the normal. The capsule is appreciably thickened, often opaque, and decidedly adherent. The surface of the organ is usually reddened, somewhat granular, and may display distinct nodules and cysts. The kidney cuts with difficulty, and the cut surface shows the cortical portion to be greatly thinned (the result of atrophic changes), and mottling is effected by dark-red banks that course through paler areas of the organ. Cysts, varying in size from that of a millet-seed to that of a walnut, may be seen in any part of the cortical portion.

The essential microscopic change is an increase in connective tissue, and such increase is most conspicuous in the cortical portion of the organ, and is always accompanied by a variable degree of atrophy and degeneration of the renal parenchyma.

Predisposing and Exciting Factors.—(*a*) Either acute or chronic inflammation or suppurative process in any part of the body are commonly followed by first, either acute, or sub-acute nephritis, and later by chronic interstitial nephritis. In such focal infection as is seen in disease of the gums and teeth, chronic sinusitis and ear disease, nephritis may develop insidiously, assuming a chronic form from the onset. A filter-passing virus is to be given consideration in connection with all forms of nephritis. (See Acute Nephritis).

(*b*) Heredity stands as a prominent predisposing factor in interstitial nephritis. Endocrine disorders are especially prevalent in inherited maladies, (see Tetany, Eclampsia, and Parenthyroids).

(*c*) Adult and advanced middle life are the periods at which this type of nephritis is most likely to develop.

(*d*) Sex figures prominently, males being far more commonly affected than females.

(*e*) The prolonged use of such toxic substances and chemic irritants as alcohol, chronic lead-poisoning, the so-called uric-acid diathesis, gout, chronic gastritis, etc., are believed to favor sclerotic change in the kidney substance. Again, such biologic irritants as the toxins of malaria and syphilis serve as potent factors in the production of chronic interstitial nephritis.

(*f*) Persons who indulge too freely in rich foods and in alcoholic drinks are especially likely to suffer from this form of Bright's disease, and it may here be stated that the prolonged daily use of small quantities of alcoholic stimulants is also followed by sclerotic change in the kidney.

(*g*) Those who are inactive or whose occupations necessitate confinement indoors during the day are frequently attacked by this affection.

(*h*) Nervous strain, the result of bereavements, financial embarrassment, and anxiety, is believed to exercise a decided influence upon the production of this type of renal affection.

(*i*) Sclerotic changes in the kidney may follow irritation of these organs from hydronephrosis, pyelitis, retention of stone, either in the bladder or in the renal pelvis, and any interference with the flow of the urine through the ureters.

Principal Complaint.—The disease comes on insidiously, and may exist for years without causing the patient much discomfort, although his friends may see that his health is gradually failing. The first symptoms observed by the patient may not appear until late in life, at a time when the kidneys may be in an advanced stage of degeneration. Indeed, the physician often detects nephritis while making a routine examination of the urine or of the cardiovascular system. Attacks of uremia are occasionally one of the early symptoms, and among the phenomena that accompany these should be mentioned headache, stupor, nausea, vomiting, dyspnea, especially upon exertion, and later convulsions. At times the patient hears a constant roaring, and states that he hears his heart beat when lying at rest. He further describes attacks of palpitation, and may be annoyed by the forcible beats of his heart. Epistaxis may be an early and distressing symptom.

Curiously enough, many of the most distressing of these symptoms may disappear for an indefinite period, to return with increased violence. Even during the intervals of comparatively good health the patient com-

plains of drowsiness or insomnia, headache, dyspnea, and indigestion, but all these symptoms are of a mild form. Early during the course of chronic interstitial nephritis there is frequent micturition, and following an interval of subsidence of the symptoms a severe uremic attack may occur which may terminate fatally. If, however, the patient recovers, there will be progressive loss of weight and strength and failing vision, which is due to retinal hemorrhages. At times the patient is annoyed by specks floating before his eyes, and these may be described even before retinal hemorrhage has taken place.

Uremic Asthma.—Spasmodic dyspnea may be an early symptom of chronic interstitial nephritis, and a correct diagnosis is reached only by making a chemic analysis of the urine, and the additional fact that the dyspnea is promptly relieved after free diaphoresis has been effected.

Paralyses.—Attacks of monoplegia and of paraplegia may be experienced at any time during the course of chronic interstitial nephritis, but these paralyses, like the spasmodic dyspnea, may disappear promptly upon the institution of treatment. Indeed, the paralyses may disappear from one side or from one portion of the body, to reappear in a few days or weeks on the opposite side.

Physical Signs.—Inspection.—Early during the course of this disease there is a variable degree of pallor, which becomes more marked as the disease advances. The skin of the face and ears is also roughened, of a slight lemon tint, and there is an absence of luster. The nails are clubbed and brittle. The temporal arteries stand out prominently, and in advanced cases they are often tortuous and may show slight pulsation. The superficial fat appears to be fairly well preserved, although the skin hangs in folds and wrinkles. The apex-beat is usually displaced down and to the left, and if there is an organic lesion of the heart, pulsation of the vessels of the neck and over the main arteries occurs. During the later stages of chronic interstitial nephritis there may be cardiac dilatation, at which time there will be noticed pulsation in the epigastrium, at the third interspace on the right, and pronounced throbbing of the vessels of the neck. The tongue is likely to be dry and coated, and the patient describes a sticky condition of the mouth.

Palpation.—The skin is dry and rough, and gives a somewhat graty feel to the palpating hand. The hair is also dry. Throughout the entire course of chronic interstitial nephritis the arterial tension is increased, the pulse is small and wiry, and the arteries display an unusual hardness; in advanced cases the radials are wiry, and the temporal arteries are readily outlined by the finger. A fact to be borne in mind is that persons suffering from chronic interstitial nephritis are especially prone to have, in conjunction with the general arteriosclerosis, which is so characteristic of this disease, disease of the valves of the heart, and consequently they display the symptoms of organic heart disease. As a rule, therefore, a patient who has suffered from chronic interstitial nephritis for a long time will show the pulse more or less imperfectly characteristic of either mitral or aortic disease, and it is for this reason that we seldom find a pulse that can be said to be characteristic of chronic interstitial nephritis that has advanced for several years. With loss of compensation the pulse becomes weak, rapid, dicrotic, and irregular. The apex-beat is felt to be displaced downward and to the left, and is decidedly forcible during the early stage of the disease, but after dilatation has resulted, there is diffuse feeble pulsation over the precordium, and, depending upon the variety of organic lesion of the heart, impressions may be conveyed to the hand. Edema of the skin is seldom present except in the later stages of the

disease or after cardiac dilatation has taken place. During an acute exacerbation of a chronic nephritis there may be edema of the skin of the extremities and of the face, and, in fact, ascites may result from the same cause, in which case a wave is transmitted over the abdominal fluid.

Percussion reveals nothing of special importance, and simply confirms previous findings—cardiac hypertrophy or dilatation and, rarely, the presence of fluid in the peritoneum, pericardium, or pleural sacs. The area of cardiac dullness is shown to extend downward and to the left, ofttimes reaching the midaxillary line at the lower border of the seventh rib transversely. This degree of cardiac hypertrophy will be seen to increase gradually from year to year, so long as compensation remains complete. Cardiac dilatation is likely to follow after the rupture of compensation, and it is in these cases that we find the greatest area of cardiac dullness. We have seen cases in both hospital and private practice in which the transverse diameter of the area of cardiac dullness during acute dilatation extended for ten inches.

Auscultation.—There is decided accentuation of both the aortic and pulmonic second sounds, and the first sound of the heart is also forcible early during chronic interstitial nephritis. After myocarditis and consequent cardiac dilatation have developed the heart-sounds are weak, feeble, and even fetal in character. Auscultatory percussion serves as an easy method to outline the heart in cases of dilatation.

Laboratory Diagnosis.—Urinary Findings.—The quantity of urine voided during the twenty-four hours is always above that of the normal, and, in fact, often exceeds 100 ounces. This urine is pale, clear, of a specific gravity of 1.005 to 1.016, acid in reaction, and does not show an abundant sediment upon standing. Chemically, the urine is found to contain a small percentage of albumin, except in those cases in which there is an acute exacerbation of the renal condition, and also after cardiac compensation has been ruptured, when the urine contains a comparatively large amount of albumin. It may be absent altogether, especially from the urine voided in the morning. The apparent trace of albumin present in the urine of chronic interstitial nephritis, when studied in relation to the large quantity of urine voided during the day, discloses the fact that the patient is constantly losing a large amount of this substance—a feature of vital clinical importance, and one that deserves most careful consideration.

The solids (urates, phosphates, sulphates) and the percentage of urea are lessened in the urine of chronic interstitial nephritis, and the clinical evidence that solids are not eliminated from the body is strongly suggestive that other substances (toxic in character) that should be eliminated with the urine are likewise retained in the body tissue.

Microscopically, the urine is found to be deficient in crystalline substances, and to contain a few small, narrow hyaline casts, with an occasional granular cast. Leukocytes and epithelial cells are present, and the latter may be seen clinging to the surface of the hyaline casts.

Blood Findings.—A study of the *blood* reveals the presence of secondary anemia. Rarely, the blood is decidedly concentrated in chronic interstitial nephritis, consequently the number of red cells in a cubic millimeter may be but moderately reduced, or, rarely, it may be above that of the normal, whereas the total number of cells in the body is far below the normal. After cardiac insufficiency and cardiac dilatation have developed, the number of red cells in a cubic millimeter may be far above the normal average (5,000,000 in a cubic millimeter), this peculiarity depending upon the presence of cyanosis, and it may be well to mention

that, late in the course of kidney disease, cyanosis is the commonest cause of error in making an estimation of the number of red blood-cells.

The *hemoglobin* usually falls to between 75 and 50 per cent., except late in the disease, and shortly prior to a fatal termination, when the hemoglobin in the circulating blood may register near the normal (80 to 95 per cent.); this apparent increase in the percentage of hemoglobin, like the pseudo-increase in the number of red cells, is dependent upon the existence of cyanosis, and is of somewhat unfavorable prognostic significance.

The moisture of the skin is below that of the normal, and may fall to 40 or even to 25 per cent. The moisture of the breath is increased, registering above 80.

Blood Chemistry.—Phosphate retention is to be expected and the blood plasma will show an increase in the phosphates, which increase corresponds to the severity of the symptoms presented.

Early in the course of chronic nephritis a rise in the uric acid of the blood is seen; but as the kidney function becomes impaired the urea-nitrogen of the blood increases; and instead of 12–15 mgm. per 100 c.c. of whole blood (normal) a reading of 50 to 100 mgm. and as high as 200 mgm. may exist.

Whenever the reading for urea-nitrogen in hospital patients on the usual restricted diet is 30 to 325 mgm. it suggests impairment of renal function.

In the essential hypertension of Allbutt and Janeway, one may find a fairly marked increase in uric acid but there is not urea-nitrogen or creatinine retention. The phthalein test does not show a retention in all cases and the phthalein output may be 60 to 75 per cent. In other cases the phthalein output is 30 to 35 per cent., or zero.



FIG. 281.—HYALINE CASTS (NARROW) FROM CASE OF CONTRACTED KIDNEY.

Observed at Philadelphia General Hospital (obj. B. and L. one sixth).

In nephritis of arterioscleroic type with hypertension there is an increase in the blood urea-nitrogen, non-protein nitrogen and creatinine

Summary of Diagnosis.—Progressive anemia, pallor, and polyuria persons in whom the skin is dry and the breath emits an odor of urine serve as points on which to base a diagnosis of chronic interstitial nephritis disease. The presence of relatively small amounts of urinary albumin, together with the finding of small, narrow hyaline casts and a few leukocytes and renal epithelial cells, are almost conclusive evidence of the existence of this form of nephritis. The marked tendency toward nervous symptoms, the progressive weakness, the frequency of headache, and the duration of the malady are all common to chronic contracted kidney. Blood chemistry reveals a retention of urea nitrogen.

Differential Diagnosis.—Contracted kidney is seen after middle life, and there is often a history of overeating, alcoholism, gout, chronic rheumatism, and sedentary habits. The symptoms of uremia, when manifested, are practically the same in all forms of nephritis. Shifting paralyses and retinal hemorrhages are far more common in chronic interstitial than in other forms of nephritis. The low specific gravity of the urine and the large quantity voided during the twenty-four hours serve to differentiate this disease from chronic parenchymatous nephritis.

The absence of edema, anasarca, and ascites in chronic interstitial nephritis is valuable. The foregoing symptoms aid when this malady is to be differentiated from chronic parenchymatous nephritis, in which these symptoms are common. During the course of an acute exacerbation of chronic interstitial nephritis it is impossible to differentiate chronic interstitial from chronic parenchymatous nephritis, either by the urinary findings or by the general clinical picture.

Clinical Course of Disease.—Chronic interstitial nephritis extends over a period of from ten to thirty years although the duration depends largely upon the presence or absence of certain other acute infectious conditions (*e. g.*, pneumonia). In the absence of these intercurrent infections and of accidents, such as cerebral apoplexy, the course of the disease may be lengthy.

The prognosis as to life is good, but as to permanent recovery, it is unfavorable. Persons with chronic interstitial nephritis seldom, if ever, enjoy perfect health, although, by the institution of judicious treatment, many of them are enabled to attend to their duties and derive a limited amount of pleasure out of life, going on from year to year, and showing no decided change in their physical condition.

CHRONIC NEPHRITIS OF CHILDREN

Remarks.—It is generally recommended by internists to follow a rather simple clinical classification, in considering chronic nephritis of children. The disease may be advantageously divided into two groups: (1) The ordinary type of chronic nephritis, which is further sub-divided into the mild and severe forms. (2) Chronic interstitial nephritis, occasionally referred to as nephritis with infantilism. The latter condition is rare. It is the mild form of chronic nephritis that is characteristic of the disease in children. The blood pressure may be high, for the child's age.

Predisposing and Exciting Factors.—The majority of cases develop secondary to tonsil, ear, sinus or tooth infection. The acute infectious diseases of childhood, or any acute or chronic infection, may be the exciting factor of chronic nephritis. We usually find the disease is focal in origin.

General Complaint.—The mother reports the child as having a poor appetite, lack of energy, failure to gain weight. Physical examination ordinarily detects nothing except pallor of the skin, emaciation, and weakness.

Urine.—The characteristic feature in the urine is the finding of a small amount of albumin, few red blood cells, an unusual amount of white blood cells, and few hyaline, and an occasional granular cast. In the urine from some of the mild cases only albumin is present; and this may appear in the urine during the day while the child is exercising, and be absent in the urine after a night's sleep. Moor* claims that intermittent albuminuria is not always accompanied by disease of the kidney.

In employing the phenolsulphonephthalein test it is to be remembered that the normal for a child is proportionately higher than for the adult. Hill,† states that the lowest he has seen for a normal child is 64 per cent., and the average of some 30 normal cases was 76 per cent. This test is not diminished in mild chronic nephritis, unless there be present an acute exacerbation. The authors are inclined to question the value of the phenolsulphonephthalein test when applied to children; although Hill

* British Med. Jour., May 7, 1921.
† Jour. Am. Med. Assoc., Aug. 28, 1920.

claims that a test below 55 to 60 per cent. is positive of severe damaging of the kidneys.

Blood-pressure.—In striking contrast to the nephritis of adults we ordinarily find the blood-pressure normal, and at times below normal. High pressure may be seen.

AMYLOID DISEASE

Pathologic Definition.—Amyloid degeneration of the kidney, while at the present time generally conceded to be a rare disease, is encountered during the course of certain chronic conditions (suppuration, syphilis). It differs widely from other forms of nephritic degeneration. The kidney is usually enlarged, pale in color, displays some mottling, and does not offer decided resistance to the knife. The cut surface of the organ shows the cortical portion to be thickened and waxy in appearance. Microscopically, there is amyloid degeneration of the epithelium.

Predisposing and Exciting Factors.—Amyloid kidney may occur at any age, although it is more common during early adult and middle life. The conditions that predispose to amyloid kidney are: (1) General amyloid disease, which is usually marked by amyloid degeneration and enlargement of the liver and spleen; (2) prolonged suppuration, *e. g.*, pulmonary tuberculosis with cavity, and syphilis with lesions of the bones, and any infectious focus.



FIG. 282.—EPITHELIAL AND AMYLOID CASTS (Boston).

Patient a female, aged forty-two years, suffering from septicopyemia with amyloid kidney.

Principal Complaint.—In a few instances the patient appears to enjoy fairly good health, and when symptoms arise, they are dependent on the marked secondary anemia; consequently the patient complains of general weakness, dyspnea, palpitation, tinnitus aurium, anorexia, chronic dyspepsia, and attacks of apparent acute gastritis. The abdominal protrusion may be distressing, and is due to enlargement of the liver and of the spleen, although in some cases ascites has been seen. Rarely, a moderate amount of edema of the ankles is present. Headache is the rule, but severe nervous symptoms are unusual. The patient complains early of specks floating before the eyes, but albuminuric retinitis is uncommon until late in the disease. Chronic dysentery may be distressing. The general complaint differs slightly from that of chronic parenchymatous nephritis, with which it may be confounded, and the differentiation will depend chiefly upon the clinical history, the evidences of general amyloid disease, and the late appearance of edema.

Laboratory Diagnosis.—The quantity of urine voided during the twenty-four hours is, as a rule, increased, although it has been seen to be normal, and in two instances the quantity was slightly subnormal.

A feature of great importance in connection with amyloid disease of the kidney is that the quantity of urine excreted varies at different stages of the disease (the more advanced the condition, the larger the quantity of urine) until late, when it may display a great diminution. The quantity of urine voided is also influenced by the presence of complications, being lessened when such conditions as dysentery, diarrhea, and paroxys-

mal vomiting coexist. The specific gravity of the urine fluctuates with the quantity voided during the twenty-four hours, but is seldom above 1.015; as a rule, it is between 1.005 and 1.010. A well-marked trace of albumin is always present in the urine of amyloid kidney, and a high percentage is not unusual, the amount of albumin lost during the twenty-four hours being quite large. The urinary solids are diminished. Only limited work is available regarding the blood in amyloid disease.

Microscopically, the urine contains many hyaline casts (Fig. 281) some of which are wide, plump, and tapeworm-like in outline—the so-called amyloid casts (Fig. 282).

Summary of Diagnosis.—The diagnosis of amyloid disease is dependent largely upon a clinical history of suppuration or of syphilis and upon the urinary findings, neither of which, however, is characteristic of this affection. We have sometimes found cases of amyloid disease of the kidney at autopsy in which there were no positive evidences of this condition during life.

Course.—Usually, when the disease complicates pulmonary tuberculosis with cavity formation, the course of the disease is protracted; but should it develop during chronic bone suppuration, surgical interference may effect an apparently permanent cure. In syphilis, specific treatment often gives relief, and life may be prolonged for a number of years.

PSEUDO-UREMIA

This term is applied to a clinical syndrome, resembling in many respects that found in classic cases of uremia. Pseudo-uremia is clinically conspicuous by the absence of certain symptoms that are invariably present in uremia; *e. g.*, delirium, transient paralyses, ocular phenomena (except those due to changes in the fundus).

Nitrogen Retention.—The essential clinical features connected with the syndrome of nitrogen retention are: mental apathy, drowsiness—which gradually merges into coma—headache, restlessness, vomiting, muscular twitching and increased tendon reflexes. Feinblatt* suggests that only those cases where the symptoms are dependent upon nitrogen retention be regarded as true uremia. It is difficult, however, from the literature at hand, to make a classic clinical distinction between true uremia (nitrogen retention) and pseudo-uremia, a clinical phenomena present in certain cases of nephritis.

INANITION EDEMA

Famine Edema, War Edema, Prison Dropsy, Nutritional Edema

Numerous outbreaks of edema have been recorded during the late war, but the disease was prevalent during the Middle Ages, and it is contended that Heraclitus, who lived 2300 years ago, succumbed to this condition.†

The edema dependent upon inanition is easy of diagnosis, especially if the clinician inquires carefully into the habits and customs of the patient (quantity and variety of food taken). Pallor, diarrhoea (stools large in proportion to the intake of food) progressive weakness, loss of weight, edema first involving the eyelids and ankles, and later becoming general. Anorexia, gastric disturbances, nervous symptoms and dyspnoea are always present.

Laboratory Diagnosis.—Blood chemistry findings are, as a rule, within normal limits, and the individual red and white blood counts deviate but slightly from the normal. The bowel movements are copious,

* Med. Jour. & Record, June, 1924.

† C. C. Wolferth: Medical Clinics of N. A., November, 1924, p. 785.

brownish gray in color, and contain an abnormal amount of undigested vegetable material and fat. The basal metabolic rate is 10 per cent. to 20 per cent. below normal. The urine may contain albumen, and in some instances casts are present.

Differential Diagnosis.—(1) Inanition edema is most often mistaken for some form of nephritis. Evidences obtained from blood chemistry, and a careful study of the urine are sufficient to separate this condition from kidney disease. (2) Diabetes Mellitus is to be distinguished from inanition edema through the marked difference in the clinical history, and a study of the urine and blood. (3) Pernicious anemia, leukemia, and the terminal stages of chronic infections may likewise be confounded with inanition edema. (4) Scurvy and beri-beri are to be considered in the differentiation of inanition edema; and in fact these two conditions may be a close kin to the one under discussion. (5) Allergic manifestations rarely take the form of both local and generalized cutaneous edema. (6) The prolonged use of such drugs as iodine and arsenic is to be distinguished from inanition edema. (7) Persons suffering from anchylostoma (hook worm) infection may develop edema which resembles closely that seen in inanition. History of living in a climate where hook worm disease is prevalent, finding of the ova in the feces and the blood changes of hook worm disease serve to separate these two conditions.

TROPHEDEMA (MEIGS' DISEASE—MILROY'S DISEASE)

This disease is to be distinguished from inanition edema through the fact that the majority of these cases present clinical features known to hypothyroidism. Symptoms and signs pointing definitely to both the kidneys and heart are absent in trophedema. Alterations in the colloids of the blood serum have been reported, as has also the accelerated Kotmann reaction. There is a high viscosity of the serum.

HYDRONEPHROSIS

Pathologic Definition.—An accumulation of urine within the pelvis and calices of one of the kidneys. The fluid, by exerting pressure, may produce pyelitis, dilatation of the renal pelvis, atrophy, and cystic degeneration of the parenchymatous tissue; an abdominal tumor may also be present, which may suddenly disappear after the passage of a large quantity of urine.

Predisposing and Exciting Causes.—Hydronephrosis is generally a secondary condition, although it may be classified as either congenital or acquired. It is always dependent on occlusion of the lumen of the ureter. Among the causes of hydronephrosis are:

(1) Congenital malformation in the urinary passages, and in this class of cases it may be bilateral. Instances are recorded in which congenital hydronephrosis in the fetus was known to complicate labor.

(2) Hydronephrosis among adults is far more common in the female than in the male, and this is especially true of women who have borne many children. Rarely, indeed, the disease is bilateral in the adult, and when such is the case, the obstruction is in either the bladder or the urethra.

(3) Impaction of renal calculi in the pelvis of the kidney.

(4) Inflammatory disease of the ureter, which results in narrowing of the lumen of this membranomuscular tube.

(5) Floating or movable kidney, with torsion of the ureter.

(6) Adhesions following pelvic and abdominal operations.

(7) Pressure upon the ureter from abdominal tumors, among which should be considered new-growths, ovarian cysts, fibroid uterus, prolapsed spleen, ectopic gestation, and normal pregnancy.

(8) Impaction of a calculus at the junction of the ureter with the bladder. There are but few recorded instances of this condition being the predisposing cause.

(9) Tumors and sclerotic changes of the bladder, with the production of new tissue and the consequent closure of the orifice of the ureter.

(10) Urethral obstruction, dependent on either an enlarged prostate or upon urethral stricture.

(11) Vesical paralysis.

Principal Complaint.—In the presence of an abdominal tumor in the infant, hydronephrosis should be suspected. The mother often describes increasing prominence of the child's abdomen, and this abdominal distention is less likely to disappear in children than it is in the adult. It is possible for a congenital hydronephrosis to exist without evincing any marked symptoms, and the patient may continue in comparatively good health, the condition being discovered later in life, and possibly not until uremic symptoms develop.

In bilateral hydronephrosis the patient shows symptoms of uremia early. In adults the intermittent form of hydronephrosis may be marked by the presence of a periodic or a constant tumor in the abdomen. The tumor mass decreases in size or disappears with the passing of an increased quantity of urine, and, on the other hand, while the mass gradually increases in size, there is a diminished flow of urine. The patient may complain of a tumor-mass in the abdomen, which is decidedly prominent, and which does not show any apparent change in size—a variety of hydronephrosis usually seen after the pelvis of the kidney has been dilated for months or even years. There is some loss in flesh, but secondary anemia is not common, unless uremic intoxication is also present.

Pain occurs in practically all cases, and in intermittent hydronephrosis it disappears with the subsidence of the tumor, but returns with the reappearance of the abdominal distention. In the majority of instances the patient believes that straining or violent exercise induces the accumulation of fluid in the pelvis of the kidney, and not infrequently there is a history of pains having followed some violence of this kind. The pain, which is often excruciating, may last for from one to twelve hours, after which the patient observes a gradual swelling of the abdomen.

Sufferers from hydronephrosis may continue in fairly good health for weeks, months, and even years during the intervals, or while the pelvis of the kidney is not distended with urine.

Acute symptoms are by no means uncommon in hydronephrosis, and following the initial pain there may be a chill, succeeded by an elevation of temperature to 102° to 104° F., after which there is a drenching sweat. These three stages simulate somewhat closely the malarial paroxysm. Nausea, obstinate vomiting, and increased respiration and pulse-rate are often present. Constipation is frequently an annoying symptom, yet it is by no means constant in hydronephrosis.

Nervous Symptoms.—The majority of women suffering from hydronephrosis are of the neurasthenic type, and suffer from headache, neuralgia, and the like. Paraplegia has been known to complicate hydronephrosis, and there may be extremely acute pains, which are described as shooting in character, and radiating down the thighs to the calf muscles and the ankles; cramp of the lower limbs is often distressing.

Thermic Features.—When, as previously stated, the obstruction is due either to torsion of the ureter or to plugging of the ureter with a calculus, the temperature may rise suddenly. If the severe pain continues over a period of several hours, the temperature will first rise suddenly to say 100° to 103° F., and may then fall to the normal, or in severe cases to a subnormal, level, and remain at this point for an indefinite period—the so-called renal intermittent fever. During the stage of hypopyrexia the skin is blanched. cold, and clammy. and the general condition is that of shock.

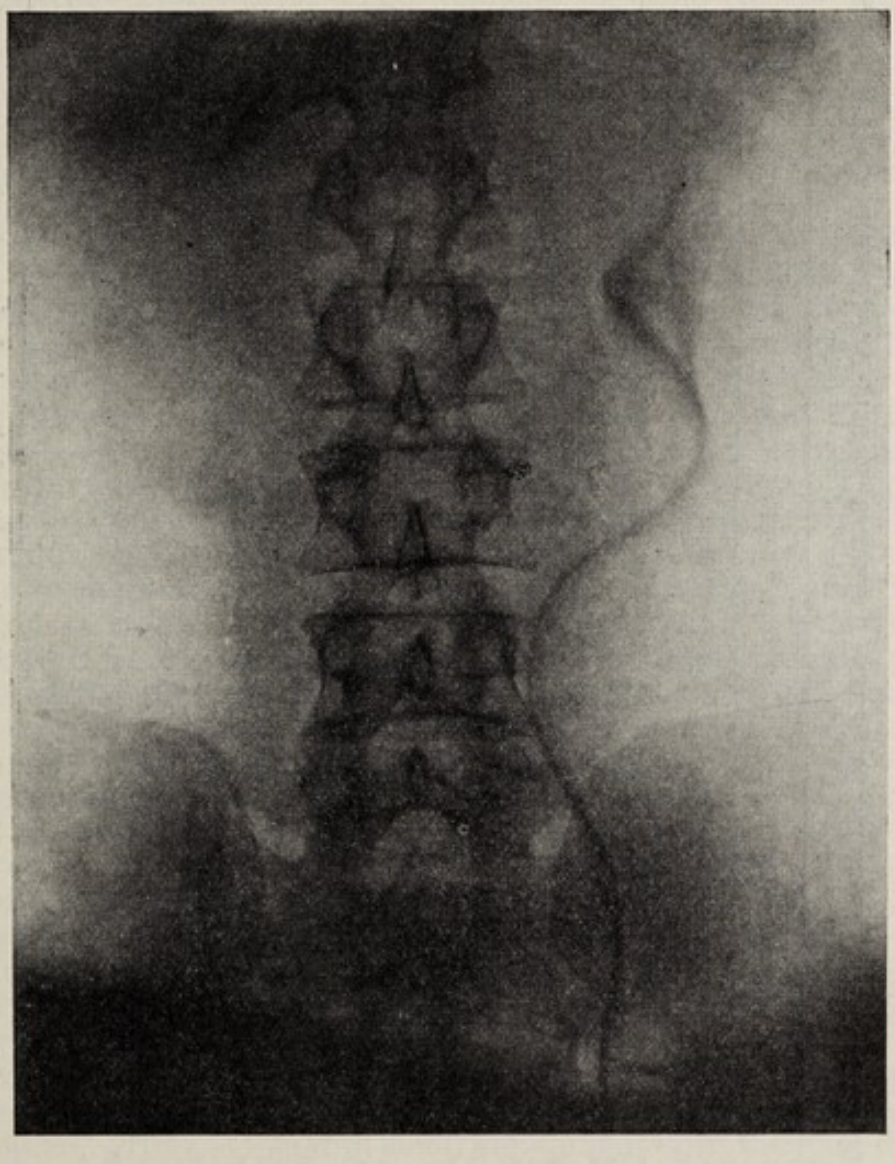


FIG. 283.—FLOATING KIDNEY.
Private case, male, age 32 years. Note course of catheter and renal pelvis.

Physical Signs.—**Inspection** reveals the presence of asymmetric abdominal distention.

Palpation.—It may be possible to palpate the kidney and to find it freely movable in the abdominal cavity when the pelvis is not filled with urine. When, however, the pelvis of the kidney is distended, a distinct mass is readily palpable, and a wave may be transmitted through the fluid. This mass is usually soft and doughy, and commonly occupies the brim of the pelvis, although a hydronephritic tumor may be found on

TABLE SHOWING THE DISTINCTIVE DIFFERENCES BETWEEN HYDRONEPHROSIS, DISTENDED GALL-BLADDER, FLOATING SPLEEN, OVARIAN CYST, AND DISTENDED BLADDER.

Hydronephrosis.	Distended Gall-bladder.	Floating Spleen.	Ovarian Cyst.	Distended Bladder.
1. A history of renal colic or of intense pain in the region of the kidney.	1. History of pain in the region of the liver. Pain radiates to right shoulder.	1. Pain less common.	1. There is seldom, if ever, pain.	1. Distress in the region of the bladder, which may increase to a dull pain.
2. Commonest in hysteric women, after traumatism, and following repeated pregnancies.	2. Occurs after middle life and after several attacks of gall-stone colic.	2. Common in those displaying a hysteric temperament.	2. Usually occurs after the age of thirty.	2. Commonest in the male as the result of urethral stricture and of enlarged prostate.
3. Pain cramp-like, and may radiate to the pubic region. Dull, constant pain at times.	3. Pain may persist for several hours, and then disappear suddenly. Radiates to right shoulder.	3. Pain epigastric or in left hypochondrium.	3. Pain absent.	3. Pain confined to pubic region, may be at meatus urinarius.
4. Abdominal tumor develops quite abruptly and disappears suddenly.	4. Tumor may disappear suddenly, following which there is usually one or more copious bilious discharges from the bowel.	4. Tumor may develop suddenly, but there is no change in its size.	4. Develops slowly, but with constant increase in size.	4. Develops within twenty-four to forty-eight hours, during which time the quantity of urine passed is small.
5. Tumor is not affected by passing catheter into bladder.	5. Tumor not changed by catheterization.	5. Tumor not changed by catheterization.	5. Tumor not changed by catheterization.	5. Tumor disappears upon passing catheter into bladder.
6. During the disappearance of the tumor the patient passes a large quantity of pale urine of low specific gravity.	6. Urine bile-stained.	6. Urine not affected.	6. Urine not affected.	6. Urine not affected.
7. The appearance of the tumor is decidedly intermittent.	7. Tumor intermittent where it follows hepatic colic, always in right hypochondrium.	7. Tumor unchanged in size, and on left side of abdomen.	7. Tumor unchanged in size or in position.	7. It is unusual to have repeated attacks.
8. There may or may not be disease of the prostate.	8. Prostate normal.	8. Prostate normal.	8.	8. Urethral stricture and prostatic disease common in male subjects.
9. Jaundice rare	9. Jaundice persistent.	9. Absent.	9. Absent.	9. Absent.

X-ray studies with catheter in situ give positive findings in hydronephrosis.

either side of the abdomen, quite irrespective of the particular kidney involved.

Percussion is of but little value in making a diagnosis of hydronephrosis unless the intestines are comparatively free from gas; in our experience we have found this condition to be generally associated with a variable degree of tympanites.

Peritoneal adhesions are also likely to anchor portions of the bowel over the tumor-mass, which interferes materially with the value of the percussion-note.

Laboratory Diagnosis.—The quantity of urine passed during the twenty-four hours is usually diminished prior to and during the development of the tumor, and in intermittent hydronephrosis an increased flow of the urine is observed during the disappearance of the tumor. The urine is usually pale, of low specific gravity, and at times contains a trace of albumin. We have seen two cases in which bloody urine followed hydronephritic tumor.

Microscopically, the urine contains many leukocytes and few solids, and red blood-cells are occasionally seen. Aspiration of such cysts may recover either a clear, bloody, or yellowish fluid. Ordinarily such fluid contains uric acid, and urea, but this finding is not a positive feature, because pancreatic cystic fluid, and ovarian cystic fluid may contain these substances; and rarely urea and uric acid are absent in the fluid from renal cysts. *X*-ray studies are often necessary (see Fig. 283).

Summary of Diagnosis.—The diagnosis is based largely upon the somewhat rapid development of a tumor in the abdomen, accompanied by pains, and the passing, from time to time, of a large quantity of urine, irrespective of whether or not there has been a subsequent decrease in the flow of urine. The disappearance of the tumor coincident with the discharge of an abnormally large quantity of urine is almost positive evidence of the presence of hydronephrosis. In abdominal tumors of the new-born and during infancy hydronephrosis should be considered a prominent cause.

Differential Diagnosis.—This is reached by excluding such abdominal masses as *ovarian cysts, a distended urinary bladder*, and *chylous cysts*.

Rarely, if ever, does the tumor of hydronephrosis attain sufficient size to warrant its being mistaken for ascites.

Percussion is of little value in diagnosticating hydronephrosis, since in most abdominal growths the colon is anterior to the tumor-mass. Tapping of these cystic or fluid tumors by abdominal puncture cannot be recommended as a safe diagnostic measure, although a study of the aspirated fluid aids materially in distinguishing between such tumors of the abdomen. Urea is found in small amounts in both the fluid from the pelvis of the kidney and in that from an ovarian cyst, whereas red and white blood-cells may be present in practically any fluid tumor of the abdomen. Catheterization of the ureters serves as a means of diagnosis when unilateral hydronephrosis is present.

Clinical Course.—It is common for hydronephrosis to run a somewhat chronic course, although this is in a measure modified by the etiologic factors in each case. Surgical intervention is necessary to correct the condition.

PYELITIS (PYELONEPHRITIS; PYONEPHROSIS)

Pathologic Definition.—A purulent inflammation involving the pelvis of one or of both kidneys. The suppurative process may also

extend from the renal pelvis to the kidney substance, and, rarely, both the pelvis and the parenchyma of the organ become distended by pus (pyonephrosis). The condition may be found to depend upon infection with pus-producing bacteria, and in many instances tuberculosis of the pelvic mucosa has preceded the condition. Stone in the pelvis of the kidney is at times the exciting factor. An important feature in this connection is that infection of the pelvis is commonly secondary to a similar suppurative process involving the bladder. Acute and chronic infections are recognized as possible predisposing causes.

Varieties and Pathology.—(1) **Catarrhal pyelitis** is a condition in which the pathologic changes in the pelvis of the kidney are mild, and consist of reddening and swelling, with loss of luster of the mucous membrane. The greater part of the mucous membrane is covered with a mucopurulent exudate in which many desquamated epithelial cells are present.

(2) The **moderately severe forms,** in which, in addition to what is found in catarrhal pyelitis, there are numerous ecchymoses into the mucous membrane. This type is often the result of renal calculi or of virulent infection with pyogenic bacteria. All urine contained in the pelvis of the kidney is purulent from the admixture of pus.

(3) **Calculous Pyelitis.**—Calculi not infrequently set up a catarrhal inflammation of the pelvis of the kidney, which in turn becomes infected with pyogenic bacteria.

(4) **Extraneous Pyelitis.**—Abscess of the kidney occasionally empties into the renal pelvis and excites a purulent inflammation of the lining of this mucous surface.

(5) **Pseudomembranous Pyelitis.**—The formation of a false membrane in the renal pelvis has been known to develop during the course of certain infectious fevers.

(6) **Tuberculous Pyelitis.**—In tuberculosis of the pelvis of the kidney it is customary to find small irregular ulcers in the mucous membrane. The surface of these ulcers is covered with mucopurulent exudate. Their edges are thin and slightly irregular. Tuberculosis of this structure may be chronic in its course, in which case caseous masses may be formed within the walls of the pelvis of the kidney. The early diagnosis is effected through cystoscopic study, and catheterization of the ureter of the affected kidney. Tubercle bacilli may be demonstrated in the urine. Urine from a tuberculous kidney when mixed with food and fed to guinea-pigs causes death of the animal within a period of 6 to 8 weeks. A turbid discharge from one ureter calls for a microscopic examination, and an *x*-ray study for accurate diagnosis.

(7) **Suppurative Pyelitis.**—When the pelvis of the kidney becomes infected from the bladder (*e. g.*, following a severe cystitis), it is usually referred to as ascending pyelitis, and when the suppurative process extends to the renal parenchyma, it is called surgical kidney.

(8) **Obstructive pyelitis,** which is dependent on obstruction to the flow of urine from the kidney, is described under Predisposing and Exciting Factors.

Predisposing and Exciting Factors.—Pyelitis is usually secondary to some preëxisting pathologic condition, and among the numerous maladies and conditions it complicates or in which it appears as a sequel should be mentioned:

(*a*) Renal calculus. (*b*) Torsion of the ureter and hydronephrosis. (*c*) Direct extension of an inflammatory process from the ureter (ureteritis), bladder (cystitis), urethra (urethritis), or enlarged prostate (prostatitis). (*d*) Dilated pelvis of the kidney, in which the urine may become

decomposed. (*e*) Acute nephritis. (*f*) Renal tuberculosis. (*g*) Renal carcinoma. (*h*) Foreign bodies in the bladder, such as vesical calculus. (*i*) Such chemic irritants as turpentine, cantharides, cubeb, and copaiba contribute toward the development of pyelitis. (*j*) It has been known to follow infectious fevers, as, *e. g.*, typhoid fever, scarlet fever, smallpox, diphtheria, typhus fever, etc. (*k*) Obstructive pyelitis may follow plugging of the ureters with a small calculus, and the constant irritation produced by the passing of large amounts of uric acid is also capable of exciting true pyelitis. Portions of large calculi occupying the pelvis of the kidney would in turn irritate its mucous membrane. (*l*) Severe traumatism to the kidney is also followed by the development of obstructive pyelitis. (*m*) Pyelitis occurs during the course of such nervous conditions as hemiplegia and paraplegia, but here it is probably secondary to cystitis and in the puerperal state.

Parasitic pyelitis may result from infection of either the kidney or its pelvis with the tænia echinococcus, eustrongylus gigas, and filaria.

Age.—Pyelitis may develop at practically any age, but it is somewhat more common after the thirtieth year.

Principal Complaint.—This varies greatly with different stages of the disease, and also with the virulence of the type of infection. When pyelitis occurs during the course of the infectious fevers, it does not cause any inconvenience to the patient unless the suppurative process is a severe one. Generally speaking, however, even in mild types of infection of the renal pelvis there are backache, tenderness upon deep pressure in the loins and over the kidneys. As the disease progresses all these symptoms become exaggerated until the distress in the loins is painful, and the patient may describe pains that are boring or tearing in character.

At the onset of the disease there is usually a chill or a series of chilly sensations, which may last for from a few minutes to several hours, and, as a rule, is followed by moderate fever. The effect of the suppurative process upon the general health becomes apparent early, and the patient complains of weakness, emaciation, anorexia, palpitation, headache, dyspnea, and lassitude. Night-sweats are occasionally a troublesome symptom late in the disease.

We have seen cases in which, after several weeks, general infection of the kidney developed, which was followed by septic foci in different parts of the body. One of our cases terminated in abscess of the brain, and another in ulcerative endocarditis. Septicemia has been known to follow pyelitis, and in such instances the symptoms are those of septicemia plus the symptoms resulting from infection of the special organ showing most marked involvement (brain, lung, heart, etc.).

At times pyelitis becomes chronic, and this is especially true when the infection is tuberculous in nature.

Thermic Features.—Pyelitis, when it develops during the course of any other infectious condition, causes an exaggeration of the symptoms of the initial disease present, causing a moderately increased elevation in the temperature. If the fever has been regular, it may be converted into either the remittent or the hectic type. In mild pyelitis the temperature is usually elevated from one-half to two degrees, but in the severer type it is common to see an elevation of from two to four degrees in the afternoon. When pyelitis alone exists, the temperature is that of general sepsis displaying evening exacerbations with morning remissions, and at times intermissions—the so-called septic temperature. A fact ever to be borne in mind is that suppuration of a mucous surface may exist without any coincident marked febrile changes.

Septicemia not infrequently follows, when the temperature assumes a continuous type, and the patient suffers from the so-called typhoid state. Should meningitis, endocarditis, multiple abscesses of the kidney, or abscesses of the perinephritic tissue develop during the course of pyelitis, a high temperature of the continuous type is usually observed.

Physical Signs.—Inspection is negative except in cases in which the pelvis of the kidney is greatly distended with pus, or in which perinephritic suppuration is associated, when the physical signs are practically those of perinephritic abscess. Early during the course of pyelitis there may be but slight, if any, evidence of anemia, but as the disease advances extreme pallor and a hectic flush appear, and at times a muddy or dusky complexion is presented.

Palpation discloses slight rigidity of the muscles of the affected side of the abdomen and of the loin. Upon deep pressure with the finger-tip it is possible to outline a tumor-mass when the nephritic or perinephritic tissue is involved.

Catheterization of the Ureters.—This means of diagnosis is of great aid, and is especially applicable in pyelitis in the female, but even in male subjects it is possible to catheterize the ureter of the affected side and thereby determine whether or not the urine from that kidney contains pus.

Cystoscopic examination is often invaluable, revealing, as it does, the presence of suppuration of the bladder; it may also disclose the vesical condition to which pyelitis is secondary. (See Contributing and Exciting Causes.)

Laboratory Diagnosis.—The healthy kidney may become hypertrophied, in order to compensate for its fellow when pyelitis has incapacitated one kidney, and it is for this reason that a knowledge of the quantity of urine voided during the twenty-four hours is of but little, if any, diagnostic value. The characteristic feature of the urine is that it contains pus-cells. This secretion also shows the presence of shreds of mucus, red blood-cells, leukocytes, and bacteria. Whenever the calices and larger renal tubules become involved, large hyaline and granular casts are commonly present. Cylindric shreds of mucus that are covered with bacteria are probably the most characteristic microscopic findings in pyelitis.

Chemically, mucin is one of the earliest urinary findings in pyelitis, and we have observed cases in which mucinuria persisted for months without giving any other symptoms referable to pyelitis. The reaction of the urine may be either acid or alkaline, being controlled largely by the variety of pyelitis present, and by whether or not it exists as a complication of some infectious fever. *Albuminuria* is an early symptom, and continues throughout the course of the disease, the amount of albumin fluctuating with the type of infection present. Indicanuria and hematuria are occasional findings.

A bacteriologic study of the urine is of great service in diagnosticating tuberculosis of the renal pelvis, since tubercle bacilli in the urine are quite common in this condition. Other bacteria are nearly always present, and it is the rule to find colon bacilli and many pyogenic cocci and bacilli in the urine in cases of chronic pyelitis.

The Blood.—Pyelitis may exist for prolonged periods without showing any decided effect upon the blood, a feature characteristic of suppurative processes of the mucous surfaces in general. When there are suppurative foci in the renal tissue or in the perinephritic structures, leukocytosis develops, and this increase in the number of white cells affects for the most part the polymorphonuclear elements. The red cells and hemoglobin are relatively decreased in advanced cases of pyelitis, and the blood displays the other findings characteristic of secondary anemia.

A bacteriologic study of the blood may show the presence of bacteriemia when there is general sepsis or such complications as ulcerative endocarditis, meningitis, hepatic abscess, and the like.

Summary of Diagnosis.—Pain and tenderness over the region of the kidney, with a possible history of traumatism or of tuberculosis, together with pyuria, are essential factors in formulating a diagnosis of pyelitis. A history of repeated attacks of renal calculi or of inflammatory processes of the bladder contributes liberally toward the formation of a diagnosis, and catheterization of the ureters, with the recovery of urine containing pus from the affected side, is conclusive evidence of the existence of pyelitis.

Calculous pyelitis may be revealed by an *x*-ray examination, and the detection of tubercle bacilli in the urine likewise indicates the existence of tuberculous disease of the renal pelvis. Lumbar pains and tenderness on one side of the back and abdomen are likewise suggestive of pyelitis. It is to be remembered that in certain cases the pain of pyelitis is vesical rather than lumbar, and that vesical tenesmus may be present.

Differential Diagnosis.—Pyelitis is to be distinguished from perinephritic abscess, cystic kidney, tuberculosis of the suprarenal body, and impaction of the colon. The accompanying table may serve, in a measure, to differentiate these conditions, which are distinguished only with extreme difficulty.

TABLE SHOWING THE DISTINCTIVE FEATURES BETWEEN PYELITIS, NEW-GROWTHS OF THE SUPRARENAL CAPSULE, TYPHLITIS, WITH IMPACTION OF THE COLON AND PERINEPHRITIC ABSCESS

Pyelitis	New-growths of the Suprarenal Glands	Typhlitis with Impaction of the Colon	Perinephritic Abscess
1. History of renal calculi common.	1. Tuberculous diathesis.	1. History of obstinate constipation which has existed for a long time.	1. History of renal colic the rule. Traumatism to the region of the kidney.
2. Pain and tenderness in the region of the kidney. In extreme cases the pain becomes tearing or boring in character. Pain continuous, and may rarely be localized in the bladder.	2. Pain boring in character, and located at the tenth rib on the right and at the eleventh on the left.	2. Some pain and tenderness along the ascending colon.	2. Pain quite general, and limited to one or other loin.
3. Temperature 100° to 103° F., and is usually of the hectic type.	3. Temperature normal	3. Temperature normal or but slightly elevated.	3. Temperature of the hectic type with morning remissions and evening exacerbations. Fluctuates between normal or subnormal, and 102° to 104° F.

Pyelitis	New-growths of the Suprarenal Glands	Typhlitis with Impaction of the Colon	Perinephritic Abscess
4. Contour of the loin not distorted.	4. Often slight fullness posterior and below the twelfth rib.	4. Contour of the loin distorted, and there may be bulging of the abdomen over the impacted colon.	4. Distortion of the normal contour of the loin. (See Figs. 284–286.)
5. In uncomplicated pyelitis the kidney is not palpable.	5. Hard tumor palpable above kidney.	5. A soft, dough-like tumor which is readily outlined.	5. It is usually possible to palpate a mass in the region of the kidney.
6. Urine contains pus, albumin, mucus, and at times blood. Large casts covered with bacteria are occasional findings.	6. Urine normal.	6. Urine contains a large amount of indican.	6. It is usually possible to palpate a mass in the region of the kidney.
7. Urine contains tubercle bacilli or the bacteria of suppuration.	7. Bacteriologic study negative.	7. Bacteriologic study negative.	7. Bacteriologic study negative unless complicated by pyelitis.
8. Blood may show evidences of secondary anemia, with a moderate increase in the number of leukocytes.	8. Secondary anemia, leukocytes normal.	8. No leukocytosis.	8. A decided leukocytosis develops early, and continues throughout the disease.
9. *x*-Ray may reveal the presence of calculi in the renal pelvis.	9. *x*-Ray negative.	9. *x*-Ray negative.	9. *x*-Ray negative.
10. Catheterization of the ureter of the affected side recovers urine containing pus.	10. No pus in urine.	10. No pus in urine.	10. No pus unless kidney tissue is involved.

Course and Duration.—Mild cases of pyelitis are of but short duration, and, in fact, in many instances would not be detected unless an examination of the urine were made. Usually, the milder types, which are seen during the course of infectious fevers, go on to recovery in from a few days to one or two weeks.

Calculous pyelitis tends to assume a chronic condition unless the stone is removed from the pelvis of the kidney.

Tuberculous pyelitis, so far as we are aware, is not curable, yet we have known patients to suffer from this type of the disease for a number of years. In one instance, a private patient, the diseased kidney was removed, and after three years the patient was in good health.

Severe and chronic types of pyelitis may last for from a few months to several years, during which time the patient suffers extreme pain and displays the general symptoms of secondary anemia.

NEPHROLITHIASIS

Pathologic Definition.—A condition characterized by the formation of hard, stone-like masses in either the substance of the kidney or the renal pelvis; these concretions may be either large or small, smooth or rough, and regular or irregular in contour. When located in the renal pelvis, the mucous surface first becomes congested, and later a catarrhal inflammation develops, which has a tendency to become infected by pathogenic bacteria.

Varieties and Pathology.—Nephrolithiasis may be divided primarily into renal nephrolithiasis and pelvic nephrolithiasis. The condition is again classified in accordance with the size and character of the concretions present: (*a*) Renal sand, in which the inorganic substance is composed of small particles that appear to have been finely pulverized. (*b*) Renal gravel, composed of concretions varying from the size of a millet-seed to that of a pea. (*c*) Renal calculi, that vary from the size of a hazel-nut to a mass that fills the entire renal pelvis; these large stones, as a rule, present rough surfaces. (*d*) Dendritic or coral calculi, which, as their name implies, are irregular in contour, may fill a large portion of the renal pelvis, and present irregular indentations and projections that extend into the kidney.

Renal calculi may be classified according to their chemic composition. The uric-acid calculus is the most common variety; although it is possible to find a renal calculus that displays, upon section, a more or less laminated appearance, the different strata being ofttimes composed of various inorganic substances. Other varieties of calculi may be composed, for the most part, of calcium oxalate, calcium phosphate, or ammonium urate. Occasionally we encounter renal calculi composed largely of xanthin or of cystin (light yellow color), displaying an amyloid luster. Calcium carbonate, fibrin, indigo, and mucous débris may form renal concretions, but these are uncommon.

The pathologic changes induced by the presence of renal calculi vary in direct proportion to the intensity of the irritation produced by them, and to the length of time this irritation has existed. The changes caused by a dendritic calculus are more pronounced than are those of calculi with smooth surfaces. "In one of my own patients the left kidney was, apparently, nearly twice the normal size, owing to the presence of a large coral calculus (uric acid and urates), connected by an isthmus with a rounded stone in the inferior portion, quite as large as a large walnut. The pelvis of the right kidney also contained a dendritic calculus" (Anders).

Stones may be lodged in the kidney pelvis for years without causing decided pathologic change, although pelvic calculi in nearly all instances excite a pyelitis. (See Pathology of Pyelitis, p. 744.) By pressure large renal concretions may cause necrosis of the pelvis of the kidney, and the projecting spines of dendritic calculi pressing upon the kidney tissue may cause renal atrophy. Small calculi may become lodged in the ureters. (See Hydronephrosis, p. 741.)

Predisposing and Exciting Factors.— Age.—Practically all ages are subject to nephrolithiasis. We have seen this condition present in early childhood, in young adults, and in the aged, although our experience has been that renal calculi are far more common before the age of fifteen and after the age of fifty.

Males appear to be affected oftener than females. The uric-acid or lithemic diathesis and gout serve as contributing factors. Persons of sedentary habits and those who indulge too freely in rich foods and alco-

holic intoxicants are especially subject to this disease. Nephrolithiasis is frequently seen in several members of the same family, which fact would suggest that heredity pays a rôle in the production of this disease.

Catarrhal pyelitis, through the production of mucus in the renal pelvis, contributes liberally toward the condition, since these particles of mucus act as foreign substances around which the urinary solids collect, and the prolonged use of renal irritants in a similar way favors nephrolithiasis. Chemic changes that enhance the precipitation of the normal solids of the urine certainly play an important part in the production of renal calculi. When the urine contains abnormal quantities of uric acid, calcium oxalate, cystin, phosphates, or chlorates, nephrolithiasis is especially likely to supervene. Stricture of the ureter, pressure upon the ureter, and adhesions may be contributing factors.

Again, pus and blood, when of renal origin, may become lodged in the pelvis of the kidney and become covered with renal sand. Parasites in the pelvis of the kidney may excite pyelitis. In the vast majority of instances the crystalline substances of the urine collect upon particles of mucin, epithelium, bacteria, blood, renal casts, or the ova of parasites, and it is highly probable that these figure prominently in the production of renal calculi.

Principal Complaint.—Symptomatology.—There is often gradual failing in the health, and the patient becomes weak and anemic, and has a sensation as of weight or soreness, which is localized to one or the other side of his back. In fact, it is possible for a calculus to remain in the pelvis of the kidney for a number of years without giving rise to any acute symptoms, and patients often pass large amounts of uric acid for a period of many years without any attending discomfort. Tenderness over the kidney, slight backache, and occasional attacks of hematuria are complained of by nearly every subject of nephrolithiasis. Anorexia, dyspepsia, nausea, flatulence, and constipation vary at different stages of the disease. Nervousness, irritability, and even hysteria are occasional findings. In cases where hydronephrosis develops Dietl's crisis may be seen.

Thermic Features.—When a renal calculus becomes lodged in the pelvis of the kidney, and in turn excites a variable degree of inflammation of the mucous surface of the renal pelvis and of the kidney itself, moderate fever, ranging between 99° and 102° F., is likely to be present. The so-called renal intermittent fever is due to the lodging of a calculus in the ureter, and is ushered in by renal colic, following which the temperature rises suddenly to from 101° to 104° F., and falls by crisis to normal or subnormal as soon as the calculus has been dislodged or expelled into the urinary bladder. In a few instances the calculus remains in the ureter for a long time or the ureter itself may rupture—in either case the temperature falls to normal or subnormal. There may be a subsequent rise of temperature the result of traumatism received by the ureter. Renal intermittent fever closely resembles Charcot's intermittent fever, which is associated with cholelithiasis.

Uremic Manifestations.—There may, at times, be a destruction of the renal tissues, and such patients may develop symptoms of uremia, among which are headache, vertigo, numbness of the hands and feet, renal asthma, dimness of vision, and floating of specks before the eyes. Nervous twitchings may occur, and, in fact, coma may follow in this class of cases.

Frequency of micturition and pain are also among the symptoms of renal calculus, and may result from—(*a*) Inflammatory processes in the

kidney, ureter, or bladder; (*b*) pain from an impacted stone in the ureter; (*c*) pain from pressure of large calculi lodged in the renal pelvis; (*d*) pain from the passage of concentrated urine, as is not only found in nephrolithiasis, but also in certain acute fevers, gout, and after the administration of renal irritants; (*e*) it is often a reflex symptom, and is more or less constant in inflammatory disease of the genito-urinary tract. As a rule, the patient does not complain of frequency of micturition, and it is only when the physician makes inquiry as to the number of times the patient is compelled to rise during the night that this symptom is detected.

Renal Colic.—In several cases we have obtained a history of violent exercise having been indulged in just prior to the development of renal colic, and it has been asserted that the impacted calculus is often dislodged by violent exertion.

The onset is sudden, and there may be a slight chill or chilly sensations, followed by intense pain in one or the other loin. The patient describes this pain as descending lower and lower, following the course of the ureter from the kidney to the bladder. The pain may radiate to the back, but more often it passes to the inguinal and pubic regions. Retraction of the testicle is common, and the pain may at times extend down to the thigh, in the region of the femoral ring, when it is likely to be excruciating in character.

The pain of renal colic is described as tearing in character, and continues until the stone has been dislodged from the ureter. In a few instances we have seen cases of renal colic in which the pain began in the region of the kidney, and was then reflected over the entire abdomen, but in these the characteristic area of distribution of the pain developed a few hours later. Vesical tenesmus may be present, and is due to spasm of the vesical sphincter.

Collapse.—If the pain is severe or is prolonged for several hours, the patient may enter into a state of collapse, in which case there are nausea, vomiting, a weak, thready pulse, decided tremor, restlessness, and syncope. After an attack of renal colic the patient usually falls into a deep sleep, from which he awakens drenched in perspiration. Between attacks of renal colic the patient usually enjoys fairly good health, although he may experience occasional attacks of slight pain in the region of the kidney, together with vesical tenesmus and hematuria.

Physical Signs.—Inspection of loins is negative, unless nephrolithiasis is complicated by perinephritic abscess, in which case there is a fullness over the area of the affected kidney. (See Figs. 284, 285, 286.) The patient's attitude is quite characteristic: If sitting, he is bent forward and reclines toward the affected side; if seen in bed, he is usually somewhat restless, and the thigh of the affected side is, as a rule, flexed upon the abdomen. When a stone has been lodged in the ureter for some time, the patient's expression is anxious, the face is beaded with perspiration, there is extreme pallor, and the general appearance is that of collapse.

Palpation.—It is possible to isolate the area of tenderness in the region of the kidney, and while the stone is passing through the ureter, its exact position can often be ascertained by making deep pressure over the course of that structure (Fig. 265). If the ureter remains obstructed for an indefinite period, hydronephrosis follows, and it is then possible to palpate a tumor-mass in the renal region. The abdominal muscles may be somewhat rigid during the attack of colic, and in certain cases this rigidity is most pronounced upon the affected side. The testicle on the affected side is retracted and tender.

Percussion is of but little value in making the diagnosis unless nephrolithiasis is complicated by hydronephrosis or by perinephritic abscess.

Roentgen Diagnosis.—Stones in the kidney and in the ureter may be recognized by means of the *x*-ray, and this is a most reliable diagnostic measure. Urograms (sodium bromide solution) are of great value.

Lenard* states. "The most striking proof of the accuracy of the Roentgen method is that it has shown that ureteral colic and ureteral calculi are more frequent than renal colic, and that it has led to a differentiation between the symptoms of these two conditions." Again, in speaking of calculi of the ureter, he remarks: "There is no greater evidence of its accuracy (Roentgen diagnosis) than the fact that it has shown ureteral calculi to be much more frequent than was previously supposed, and, in fact, they have been shown to be more frequent than renal stones in a series of 330 cases examined. Their ratio has been 33 to 66, including cases not operated upon, yet confirmed by the passage of the calculus, and 29 to 40 in cases confirmed by operation or the passage of the urethral calculi."

Laboratory Diagnosis.—When the gravel passed is small, it is customary to find uric acid crystals, crystals of the phosphates (Fig. 273), cystin (Fig. 277), and amorphous urates in the urinary sediment. A marked feature of the urine of nephrolithiasis is that, upon standing it precipitates a heavy sediment rich in one of these inorganic substances. When the calculus is large, the urinary sediment may contain crystals of the substance of which the stone is composed. It is customary for a calculus lodged in the renal pelvis to be composed of the same substance that is being passed in crystalline form with the urine. When the calculus produces sufficient irritation in the pelvis of the kidney or in the kidney proper, the urine contains mucus, large flakes of epithelial cells, pus, blood, and, sometimes, casts of the larger renal tubules.

Stone in the kidney substance does not give rise to urinary symptoms suggestive of its existence. Urine obtained by catheterization of the ureter of the diseased side may contain blood, mucus, and other substances suggestive of renal inflammation, whereas the urine from the opposite side is generally clear and approximately normal.

Summary of Diagnosis.—Among prominent diagnostic features should be mentioned catarrh of the renal pelvis and highly acid urine, which has been present over a prolonged period. The existence of mucinuria and the presence of an excess of uric acid or of phosphates are valuable features in arriving at a diagnosis of renal calculus, and are present even before renal colic has developed. Renal colic is recognized by the cramp-like pain, which radiates to the penis or pubis, and which is felt down the side along the course of the ureter. Frequent micturition, with the passing of bloody urine, is valuable evidence in diagnosing renal calculus. In children, the examination of the urine is a practical method of arriving at a diagnosis, since a description of the characteristic pain cannot be obtained.

Repeated attacks of colic, intermittent fever, and sweats are always suggestive of renal calculus. The *x*-ray provides a positive means of recognizing renal and ureteral calculi.

Differential Diagnosis.—Renal calculus is to be distinguished from hepatic biliary calculus, vesical calculus, and intestinal colic. The accompanying table serves to point out the distinctive differences between these four conditions: Dietl's crisis, due to obstruction of the ureter by kinking or twisting, may give symptoms resembling renal calculus.

* Lancet, xvii, 1905, p. 1635.

TABLE SHOWING THE DISTINCTIVE FEATURES BETWEEN RENAL CALCULUS, BILIARY CALCULUS, VESICAL CALCULUS, AND INTESTINAL COLIC

Renal Calculus	Biliary Calculus	Vesical Calculus	Intestinal Colic
1. History of pain and soreness over the region of the kidney.	1. Soreness in the right hypochondrium, and possibly history of previous attacks of jaundice.	1. History of an irritable condition of the bladder.	1. History of a too liberal ingestion of rich, uncooked or unripe foods.
2. Patient complains of pain upon receiving a sudden jar, as in alighting from a carriage or in descending a stair.	2. Jar does not cause pain.	2. Jar excites pain at pubes	2. Jarring does not cause localized pain.
3. Pain in the region of the kidney, described as boring or tearing in character, and radiating along the ureter to the pubes, femoral ring, and thigh.	3. Pain in the region of the liver and radiating to the angle of the right scapula.	3. Pain in the pubic and perineal regions, over the bladder, and at the glans penis.	3. Pain in the epigastrium and umbilicus, reflected to a variable degree over the entire abdomen.
4. Deep palpation elicits tenderness over the kidney and along the course of the ureter.	4. Tenderness in the epigastrium and over the gallbladder.	4. Tenderness over the urinary bladder.	4. Tenderness seldom localized.
5. Nausea and vomiting may follow when the pain is intense. The vomitus is usually composed of mucus and particles of food.	5. Vomiting common.	5. Vomiting unusual.	5. Vomiting of undigested food. Vomitus ofttimes bilestained.
6. Temperature rises abruptly to 102°, 103°, or 104° F., and falls by crisis to normal or subnormal with the cessation of the pain.	6. Temperature resembles that of renal colic, but is usually higher.	6. Temperature is usually normal unless there is acute cystitis, when a temperature of 100° to 102° F., of the continuous type, may be seen.	6. Temperature 100° to 103° F. at onset, but may become normal within a few hours. No decided rise and fall, as is seen in renal and hepatic colic. A subnormal temperature is seen when purging is severe.

Renal Calculus	Biliary Calculus	Vesical Calculus	Intestinal Colic
7. Frequent painful micturition, with the passage of bloody urine.	7. Frequency of micturition not affected.	7. Frequent micturition, and the urinary flow may end abruptly, to return in a few minutes. Pain is reflected to head of penis.	7. Frequency of micturition not affected.
8. No discoloration of the skin and conjunctivæ.	8. Jaundice one or two days after the attack.	8. Jaundice absent.	8. Catarrhal jaundice may follow.
9. Urine contains blood and mucus during the attack, but is usually clear twenty-four hours later.	9. Urine clear during the attack, bile-stained twenty-four to forty-eight hours later.	9. Urine may contain blood, pus, mucus, and albumin.	9. Urine of high color, high specific gravity, and rich in indican.
10. Bowels not affected.	10. Stools clay colored, and show an absence of bile during the attack, with an excess of bile following the dislodgment of the gallstone. Calculus may be found in the feces. Feces rich in fats during attack.	10. Feces normal.	10. Diarrhea and purging the rule, and indol and skatol conspicuous.
11. Examination by Roentgen-rays discloses the presence of a stone in the pelvis of the kidney or in the ureter.	11. *x*-Rays may show the existence of stone in the gall-bladder, although this is less definite than in renal calculus.	11. Vesical calculus is easily recognized.	11. *x*-Ray examination negative
12. Catheterization of ureter using a waxed catheter gives definite results.	12. A calcified lymph node may resemble ureteral calculus. Phlebolith refers to calcification within the vein and may cause confusion in *x*-ray studies.	12. *x*-Ray positive.	12. *x*-Ray studies negative.

Appendicitis simulates closely calculus of the right kidney, and it has been our privilege to treat cases where the appendix had been removed during the existence of ureteral calculus. An *x*-ray study serves as a positive differential point. Jaundice and tenderness in the region of the gall-bladder with pain that radiates to the right shoulder, should favor the existence of hepatic rather than renal colic. Pelvic examination is often of value in females displaying pyosalpynx and pelvic adhesions. Partial obliteration of the natural body curve over-lying the kidney is a strong diagnostic point in this disease. (See Figs. 284 and 285.)

Clinical Course.—The urine may contain renal sand for a period of several years, and yet the patient suffer no inconvenience. When evidences of a catarrhal pyelitis are present, the malady becomes more serious, and the likelihood of renal colic is materially increased. It is not unusual to find persons who have had many attacks of renal colic, and who apparently enjoyed perfect health during the intervals between such attacks. When renal calculus gives rise to acute symptoms, surgical intervention may become necessary. Such complications as acute nephritis, nephritic abscess, pyelitis, and perinephritic abscess add materially to the seriousness of the disease. A fatal termination is rare in uncomplicated cases.

PERINEPHRITIC ABSCESS

Pathologic Definition.—A condition characterized by an accumulation of pus in the retroperitoneal tissues surrounding the kidney.

Anatomic Consideration.—The perinephritic tissue becomes the seat of suppuration, usually posterior to the kidney. It may be limited to a single abscess of varying size, or, in severe cases, the pus may be found to have infiltrated nearly all of the retroperitoneal tissue. The pus shows a tendency to burrow into the pelvis, and may follow the course of the psoas muscles, commonly pointing in the vicinity of Poupart's ligament. When the course of the pus is deflected backward, the abscess may open on the skin surface. Rarely, the pus is reflected upward and forced through an opening in the external arcuate ligament of the diaphragm, when the signs of empyema will appear coincidentally with a lessening in the size of the lumbar tumor. Occasionally, the lung may be adherent to the parietal pleura, when the pus will escape directly into the bronchi, whereupon the symptoms of purulent bronchitis with copious expectoration follow.

There are numerous records of perinephritic abscess having perforated the urinary bladder, the gall-bladder, the general peritoneal sac, the colon, and the vagina. The relative frequency of points of rupture in places other than the loin is best shown by Küster's table of 230 cases of perinephritic abscess, of which 34, or 14.78 per cent., belonged to this class:

Pleura and bronchi	18
Intestine	11
Peritoneal cavity	2
Bladder and vagina	2
Bladder alone	1

The surrounding peritoneum is thickened, and shows evidence of prolonged inflammation.

Predisposing and Exciting Factors.—Traumatism serves as a potent etiologic factor, although in the vast majority of cases perinephritic abscess is secondary to a similar suppurative process elsewhere, *e. g.*, in the pelvis of the kidney, in the ureter, appendix, liver, Fallopian tubes, and bladder; it may also be secondary to abscess of the pelvis and caries of the spine.

Renal colic, hepatic colic, and stone in the urinary bladder each contribute toward the development of perinephritic abscess. Indeed, perinephritic abscess may be directly traceable to a suppurative ureteritis, following which infection of the upper portion of the urinary tract has occurred.

Küster, in his recent complete report of 230 cases, found that 59, or one-fourth of the total number of cases, followed abscess of the kidney, and that of these, 31 were due to renal calculus. Guiteras, in a recent paper, holds that in nearly all cases perinephritic abscess is secondary to renal diseases. His analysis of 15 cases gives:

Calculi	4
Tuberculosis	4
Pyonephrosis	3
Ascending pyelonephritis	2
Rupture of kidney	1
Empyema	1

In a few recorded cases perinephritic abscess has followed echinococcus cyst and tuberculosis of the suprarenal body and adjacent structures.

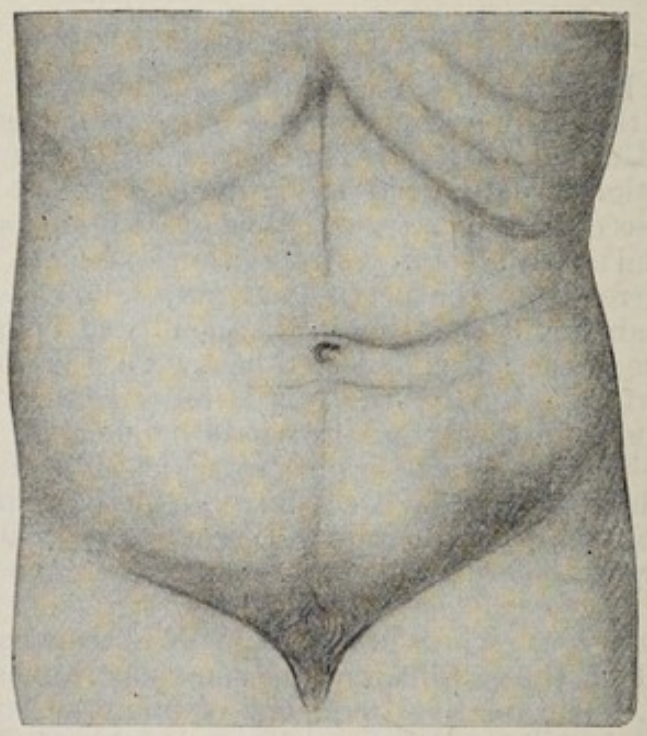


FIG. 284.—SHOWING THE OBLITERATION OF THE CURVE UNDER THE RIBS IN A CASE OF PERINEPHRITIC ABSCESS ON THE RIGHT SIDE (Guiteras).

Stab wounds and gunshot wounds are not infrequently followed by the formation of perinephritic abscess.

Age and Sex.—In Guiteras's series of 15 cases the age of the oldest was fifty; the youngest was twenty, and the average age was thirty-three years. Perinephritic abscess is found at practically all ages: it has been observed at the fifth week of life, but is more common during early adult life or between the ages of twenty and forty-five.

Sex figures prominently in this connection, two-thirds of all cases being found in males.

Perinephritic abscess is occasionally seen as a complication of typhoid fever, smallpox, and typhus fever.

Varieties.—Secondary abscess, resulting from a similar process elsewhere, is by far the commonest variety.

The perinephritic tissue may follow traumatism and tuberculosis of the kidney or suprarenal body. In some instances the pus of a large empyema may burrow its way through the diaphragm, posterior to the peritoneum, accumulating in the perinephritic tissue. Bilateral perinephritic abscess is rare, Guiteras having found it but twice in an analysis of 197 reported cases.

Principal Complaint.—One of the most pronounced symptoms is a dull, throbbing *pain* immediately over the affected area, the pain being aggravated by motion and by deep pressure. Occasionally the pain is described as radiating to the front of the pelvis and down the thigh, being reflected along the course of the nerve-trunks. From pressure of

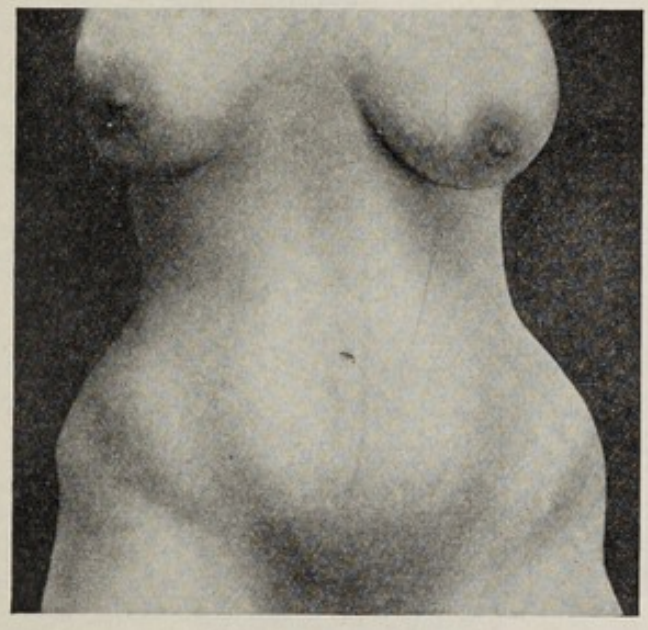


FIG. 285.—FULLNESS OF LEFT LOIN IN PERINEPHRITIC ABSCESS, ILLUSTRATIVE OF PRIVATE CASE.

the abscess tingling and numbness of the hips and lower extremities of the affected side at times occur. There is progressive loss of flesh and strength, together with a more or less pronounced secondary anemia. Headache, vertigo, palpitation, insomnia, and anorexia are common symptoms in this affection.

When the pus of perinephritic abscess burrows posteriorly and upward it may, as previously stated, pass through the arcuate ligament of the diaphragm and escape into the pleural sac; here it may accumulate rapidly, and give rise to cough, dyspnea, and cyanosis, and increased pulse and respiration rate may develop coincidentally with a lessening or disappearance of the swelling in the loin (Fig. 285). Occasionally the pus gains access to the bronchi, and when this occurs, a copious expectoration of blood-streaked pus follows.

If the pus ruptures into the peritoneal cavity, general peritonitis results. In a few reported instances the abscess ruptured directly into the intestine, and the discharge of a large quantity of purulent material from the rectum, together with a lessening in the size of the tumor in the loin, followed. Guiteras and others have cited instances in which the abscess ruptured into the ureter or bladder and the pus appeared in the

urine. Statistics show that 85 per cent. of these abscesses point externally, in which case the general symptoms of abscess of the superficial tissues are present. Young in a report of 1300 cases of perinephritic disease found renal hematuria a symptom in 40 per cent. of them.

Thermic Features.—The temperature early becomes hectic in character, showing decided evening exacerbations with morning remissions; at times it may be of the intermittent type, particularly if pyemia supervenes. These exacerbations of temperature are usually followed by

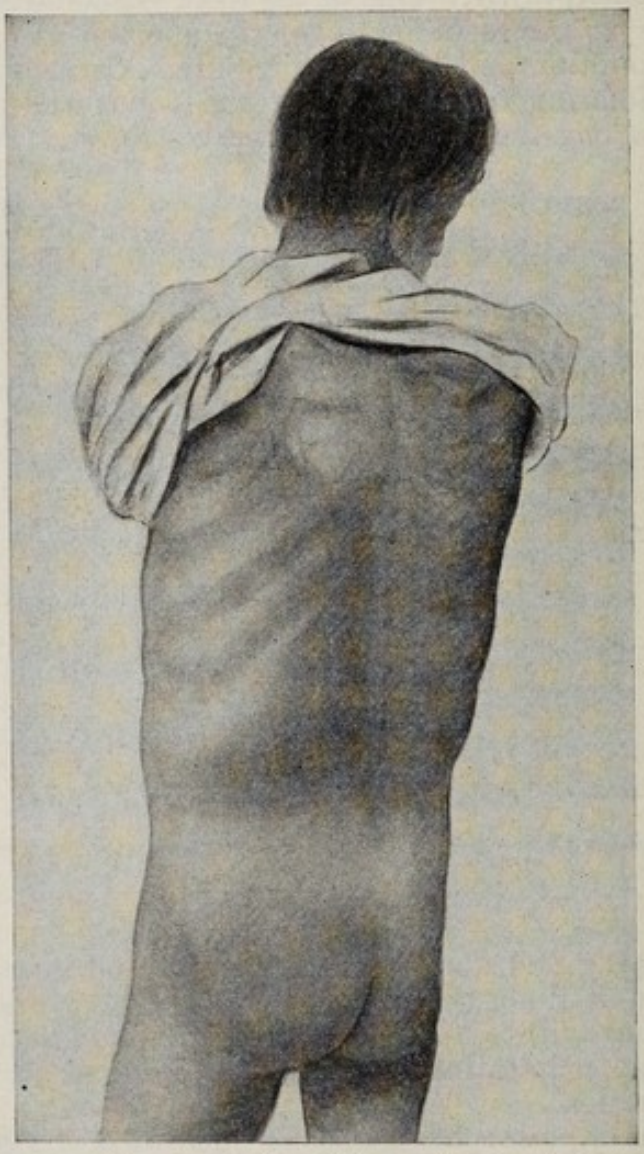


FIG. 286.—PERINEPHRITIC ABSCESS OF LEFT SIDE. NOTICE OBLITERATION OF NATURAL CURVE OF LOIN (Guiteras).

profuse sweats, after which the patient is profoundly prostrated. In severe cases the temperature may continue high with but slight remissions for a period of days or even weeks—the typical continued type of pyrexia. The temperature is likewise influenced by the nature of the infecting organisms and by the presence of a fistulous communication with the kidney, the intestine, or the skin.

Physical Signs.—Inspection.—The sufferer always inclines toward the affected side, both when standing or sitting; and when resting in bed, he flexes the thigh of the affected side well upon the abdomen and the leg upon the thigh—all of which positions are assumed to relieve the gen-

eral tension. When the patient is standing with the arms folded across the chest or with the hands elevated on a level with the top of the head, a decided bulging of the affected on a level with the top of the head, a decided bulging of the affected side (Fig. 286) is to be seen; bulging of the loin is equally conspicuous on an anterior or a posterior view of the patient (Figs. 284 to 287). The natural curve of the loin is obliterated in perinephritic abscess, and, indeed, a decided bulging of this region is frequently observed (Fig. 284). In walking the patient inclines toward the affected side, and takes short steps with the corresponding foot, lifting it but slightly above the floor.

The skin and mucous membranes are pale, and ofttimes present a muddy tinge. The superficial fat seems to have disappeared, and the bones are quite prominent.

Palpation.—The skin covering the abscess is tense and pits upon pressure, and deep pressure increases the pain. The edema of the skin may extend for some distance around the abscess. Fluctuation is commonly present, and is usually more conspicuous at some one point of the distended area. The rigidity of the abdominal muscles is decidedly increased on the affected side.

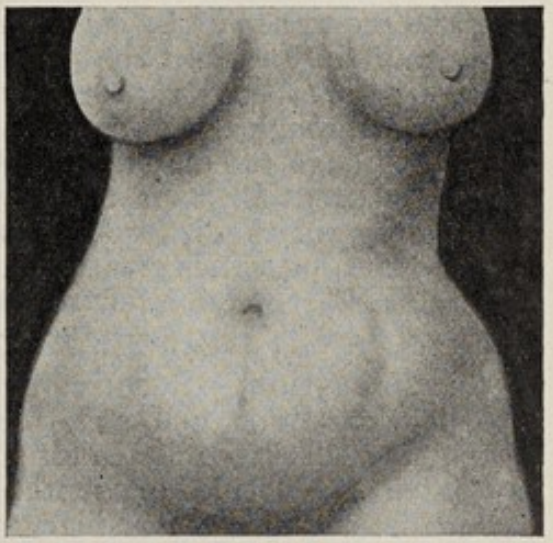


Fig. 287.—Illustrative of Case of Right Perinephritic Abscess, Showing Prominence of Right Flank.

The pulse is rapid, and after the abscess has existed for some time, it is likely to be weak, thready, and irregular.

Percussion is of but limited value in the majority of instances in which the pus is confined to the abdominal cavity, but it is invaluable in cases in which the pus has escaped into the pleura.

Auscultation is negative over the affected area. The heart action is rapid, and its sounds are accentuated, a soft, systolic murmur may be heard over the base of the heart in cases in which anemia is prominent. When the pus drains through the lungs, numerous mucous and bubbling râles are heard over the affected side.

Laboratory Diagnosis.—The urine is practically normal in quantity, and contains albumin in varying amounts. If the abscess does not communicate with the urinary tract, but little albumin may be present in the urine, but when there is a direct communication between the abscess and the pelvis of the kidney, the urine is highly albuminous. A microscopic study shows the presence of pus-cells, shreds of mucus, and red blood-corpuscles. A bacteriologic study of the urinary sediment will reveal the presence of streptococci, stapylococci, and, in certain cases, tubercle bacilli.

The blood is deficient in hemoglobin, and the red cells are correspondingly reduced, whereas a leukocytosis of from 10,000 to 25,000 is usual, and concerns, for the most part, the polymorphonuclear elements, which may equal 85 to 90 per cent. of the total number of leukocytes.

Stained specimens show degeneration of the erythrocytes.

Summary of Diagnosis.—The diagnosis of perinephritic abscess is based largely upon the character of the pain, the presence of edema and

tenderness over the loin, bulging of the affected side (Figs. 284 to 286), and the presence of pus and of pus-producing bacteria in the urine.

Differential Diagnosis.—Perinephritic abscess is to be distinguished from a **large dendritic calculus** and from **pyelitis,** both of which conditions it simulates closely; it is, in fact, often secondary to these affections. The continuous boring pain and the hectic temperature, together with the bulging of the affected side, serve as the salient points that favor the existence of perinephritic abscess. Among other conditions for which perinephritic abscess may be mistaken are **lumbago, nephralgia, Pott's disease, psoas abscess, lumbar hernia in Petit's triangle, hematoma** following renal injury, **new-growths** of the kidney, and **hydronephrosis,** but in the vast majority of instances a careful consideration of the clinical history, together with a physical examination, will enable one to distinguish between them.

Clinical Course.—Whenever a diagnosis is attained the surgeon should be consulted. The course of the abscess varies greatly: (*a*) It may become walled off by connective tissue, and eventually be absorbed; (*b*) it may rupture into the peritoneal cavity and terminate in general peritonitis; (*c*) it may rupture into any of the abdominal viscera and be evacuated through the urinary or intestinal tracts; (*d*) it may discharge its fluid through the diaphragm into the pleura or the lung, and the pus be expectorated; (*e*) it may rupture into the gall-bladder; (*f*) a far more common termination is for the abscess to rupture externally.

The duration varies greatly in different cases, but, as a rule, perinephritic abscess lasts from a few weeks to several months.

CARCINOMA OF THE KIDNEYS

Consideration.—Renal carcinoma may be either a primary or a secondary condition, and, as a rule, it develops late in life, although it is occasionally observed in children. The abdominal growth is usually associated with decided pigmentation of the skin and an abnormal growth of hair in the pubic and axillary regions. Renal hemorrhage is a most prominent symptom, and when there are repeated profuse hemorrhages, the condition is most likely to be malignant. Pain may or may not be present until late in the disease, when, as a rule, a dull pain occurs in the loin and lumbar region. Varicocele may develop as the result of pressure upon the spermatic veins.

Urinalysis gives negative results except in those cases in which renal hemorrhages have occurred. *Microscopically,* the urine may contain red blood-cells and pus, and certain observers have found fragments of carcinomatous tissue in the urinary sediment.

SARCOMA OF THE KIDNEY

Consideration.—This malignant growth may be either primary or secondary in nature, and may occur at any decade of life. The statistics of Roberts, collected from the literature, show that of 75 cases, 67 occurred in children under ten years of age. Sarcoma of the kidney, therefore, holds a prominent place among the abdominal tumors of children, and the possibility of its existence should always be considered in examining a child with a unilateral abdominal enlargement. The multiple sarcoma of Kaposi is to be considered; since it may cause hematuria.*

Principal Complaint.—In many cases the only complaint is of slight discomfort in one or the other loin, which eventually becomes painful. The pain is dull, is confined to the lumbar region, and seldom radiates to the pelvis and thigh. A history of repeated attacks of hematuria is often obtained.

* Dillard and Weidman, Arch. Dermat. and Syphilol. 11, 203 Feb., 1925.

Physical Signs.—Inspection.—As a rule, the skin retains its normal luster, and the mucous surfaces are not extremely pale. The normal curve of the loin is lost (see Figs. 284 to 287), and there is bulging of the abdomen anteriorly, which sometimes extends beyond the median line; we have, however, seen a child three and one-half years old whose entire abdomen was greatly distended, the autopsy revealing a sarcomatous kidney weighing 9¼ pounds. In another case, that of a child of four and one-half years, the kidney removed at autopsy weighed 5¼ pounds. There may be pigmentation of the chest, abdomen, face, and extremities. In girls, there is a precocious growth of hair in the pubic and axillary regions.

Palpation.—Palpation will outline a smooth tumor, located well posteriorly in the abdomen. The tumor is covered anteriorly by the colon, which gives a more or less doughy sensation to the palpating finger. Mensuration is of great importance in the diagnosis of sarcoma of the kidney, since these tumor-masses grow with great rapidity. In sarcoma of the kidney the tumor is always firm, whereas in rapidly growing carcinoma of the kidney the tumor is soft and less symmetric in contour. Upon deep respiration the tumor-mass is seen to rise and fall with the movements of the diaphragm. Few observers have noted pulsation over a sarcomatous tumor of the kidney.

The pulse is slightly accelerated early, and continues to increase in rapidity with the general interference with the circulation produced by the development of the tumor.

Percussion confirms the findings of both inspection and palpation. A tympanitic note is generally obtained anteriorly, due to the colon overlying the tumor, whereas at the side and posteriorly the note is dull. In a few instances the growth may be of such extraordinary size as to flatten the portion of the colon which is anterior to it, when a variable degree of dullness will be obtained by percussion over the anterior surface of the tumor.

Laboratory Diagnosis.—Early during the course of sarcoma of the kidney the blood is practically normal, but when there is a decided evidence of malnutrition, secondary anemia is the rule. Hematuria occurring during early life, especially when the attacks are frequent and the quantity of blood lost is large, is always suggestive of sarcoma, and this is especially true if it occurs in young females.

Summary of Diagnosis.—A rapidly developing unilateral abdominal distention in a child is always suggestive of sarcoma of the kidney. The smoothness of the tumor, the presence of the colon anteriorly to the mass, and the limited motion of the tumor on deep respiration favor a diagnosis of renal sarcoma. The absence of secondary anemia early during this malady points toward sarcoma, whereas in carcinoma secondary anemia develops early, and, while the tumor is yet small, constitutes a prominent feature.

Differential Diagnosis.—Sarcoma of the kidney is to be distinguished from retroperitoneal sarcoma (see Lobstein's Cancer, p. 626). Cysts of the abdominal cavity may in selected cases resemble tumor of the kidney. A distinctive feature, however, is that emaciation is seldom induced by costs. Abscess of the kidney develops more rapidly than does sarcoma and is accompanied by toxic symptoms. Frequent attacks of hematuria are suggestive of sarcoma.

Duration.—Sarcoma of the kidney terminates fatally in from a few months to one and one-half years.

THE BLADDER

DISEASES OF THE BLADDER

VEGETABLE PARASITES IN THE URINE

Under normal conditions the freshly voided urine is practically free from bacteria and fungi, but on standing exposed to the air, normal urine soon becomes loaded with organisms that are, as a rule, saprophytic in nature.

Fungi are common in diabetic urine. When there is general infection with the *actinomyces*, the urine may contain this fungus, and in local actinomycotic infection of the genito-urinary tract the actinomyces is present in the freshly voided urine. In general aspergillosis the aspergillus fumigatus may invade the kidneys and appear in the urine. Both the aspergillus and the actinomyces have been detected in the urine of persons suffering from *acute cystitis*.

BACTERIURIA

It must be remembered that the urine may contain both pathogenic and non-pathogenic bacteria; when, however, they occur in large numbers, their presence is to be regarded as a serious symptom, regardless of the variety of bacterium present. Bacteriuria is an essential symptom of the acute infectious maladies in which bacteremia exists; and the best example of this type of bacteriuria is seen in typhoid fever, in which it is found in more than 30 per cent. of cases at some time during the course of the disease (Fig. 288). Bacteriuria occurs, however, during the course of ulcerative endocarditis, pyemia, gonorrhea, septicemia, streptococcemia, glanders, syphilis, and relapsing fever, infectious jaundice (Weil's disease), and tularemia.



Fig. 288.—Typhoid Bacilli in Urine.

Third week of disease. Stained with carbolfuchsin (Boston).

Bacteriuria is one of the symptoms of acute nephritis, and both cocci and bacilli are commonly found in the urine of children suffering from nephritis. In the acute nephritis complicating pneumonia, diplococci are occasionally present, but in sixteen cases in which cultured studies were made by us, pneumococci were not recovered from the urine. In one of our cases, that of a youth of fourteen years, the urine contained large numbers of streptococci for a period covering several months, following an attack of tonsillitis. Bacteriuria is encountered in cystitis, pyelitis, obstinate constipation, diphtheria, and scarlet fever. This finding has but limited clinical significance, except in cases of cystitis and when tubercle bacilli are found. The following diagram is designed to classify the various bacteria that are found in the urine and the types of infection present when bacteriuria is a symptom:

General Infections Excited by:

Streptococcus pyogenes. Pneumococcus. Micrococcus melitensis. Gonococcus. Staphylococcus pyogenes aureus. B. typhosus. B. coli communis. B. paratyphosus.	Nephritis need not necessarily be present.

Local Infections of the Genito-urinary Tract:

Nephritis. Pyelonephritis Ureteritis. Cystitis. Prostatitis.	B. coli. B. tuberculosis. B. pyocyaneus. B. pneumonia (Friedländer's bacillus). Streptococcus pyogenes. Pneumococcus. Gonococcus. Staphylococcus pyogenes. Streptococcus pyogenes.
Urethritis	Gonococcus. Staphylococcus pyogenes aureus and albus. Pneumococcus. Streptococcus pyogenes. Micrococcus catarrhalis.

Acute Cystitis.—Probably 50 per cent. of all urines in cases of acute cystitis show the presence of the bacillus coli communis (commonly in pure cultures). A high degree of acidity is seen in colon bacillus infection, whereas in a staphylococcus infection the acidity is seldom marked. The staphylococcus pyogenes albus occurs in from 15 to 25 per cent. of cases, and the staphylococcus aureus is far less frequently found. The bacillus pyocyaneus reveals its presence by the greenish color it lends to the urine; this green color is increased if the urine is kept at body-temperature. Brown* reports a case of infection with the bacillus pyocyaneus, and we have found it present in the urine of two cases of acute cystitis—once in pure culture. The bacillus proteus vulgaris has been found by Brown in alkaline (ammoniacal) urine containing both blood and pus.

Chronic Cystitis.—In a study of 24 cases Brown† recovered the bacillus coli communis from the urine eleven times and the bacillus tuberculosis once; staphylococcus pyogenes aureus was present three times, staphylococcus pyogenes albus twice, and in two cases pyuria existed with sterile urine.

Acute and Chronic Pyelitis.—In nearly 50 per cent. of cases in which the urine is obtained by catheterization of the ureters the colon bacillus will be found, and the reaction of the urine will be acid. The bacillus proteus vulgaris figures in from 20 to 30 per cent. of cases (urine alkaline). When the process is tuberculous, the bacillus tuberculosis is found by staining and by inoculation of animals with the suspected urine; cultivation of this organism from the urine, is however, impracticable.

Tubercle Bacilli.—In cases of tuberculosis of the bladder and of the kidney, tubercle bacilli may be found in the urine. It is always necessary to differentiate between bacillus tuberculosis and bacillus smegmæ, which is a normal inhabitant of the external genitalia in both sexes. To accomplish this differentiation care must be taken in the collection of the specimen, and an acid-alcoholic solution must be used in the decolorization process, since the latter organism is not alcohol-fast, although it is acid-fast. The acid-alcohol solution to be used in decolorizing is composed of sulphuric acid, 2.0: 95 per cent. alcohol, 25.0: water, 75.0.

* Johns Hopkins Hosp. Rep., vol. x, No. 1, 2.
† Ibid., vol. x, No. 1, 2.

Method.—Withdraw the urine by a sterile catheter into a sterile conical urine glass. The urine so withdrawn is allowed to stand until the sediment collects. The supernatant fluid is poured off and the sediment is centrifuged. The supernatant fluid is poured out of the centrifuge tube, the tube filled with distilled water that is free from tubercle bacilli, shaken so as to wash out the urinary salts, which interfere with the staining, and centrifuged again. This process is repeated once or twice. The sediment remaining after the third centrifugation is smeared on clean glass slides and allowed to dry in the air. The smears are fixed by passing three times through the flame, and then stained for five minutes with warm carbolfuchsin, washed in water, submitted to the action of the acid-alcohol solution for one minute, washed in water, counterstained with Löffler's alkaline methylene-blue for thirty seconds, dried, and examined under a $\frac{1}{12}$ inch oil immersion objective. If acid-fast bacilli are found by this method, a second smear should be decolorized in the acid solution overnight, washed in water, and counterstained in the Löffler's alkaline methylene-blue in order to be sure that they are not smegma bacilli.

Urine obtained by the catheterization of the ureters may be treated in the same way.

ACUTE CYSTITIS

Pathologic Definition.—A disease characterized by an acute inflammation of the mucous membrane of the bladder, with or without punctate hemorrhages or ulcerations of the mucous surface. The surface of the bladder may be greatly congested, somewhat mottled, and covered with a catarrhal exudate, which may be mucous during the early stage of the disease, but later is frequently purulent.

Anatomic Features.—By means of a cystoscopic examination congestion, redness, edema, and at times minute hemorrhages and ulcers of the vesical mucosa may be detected antemortem. The point of the mucous surface showing the most redness is in the vicinity of the trigonum. The entire surface of the vesical mucous membrane is covered with a thick, tenacious mucus that is at times purulent in character. Areas over which the epithelium has sloughed from the mucous surface are not usually seen. When the exciting cause is sufficiently virulent, the entire mucous lining of the bladder may be so swollen as to make the distinction of any of its blood-vessels impossible.

Phlegmonous cystitis is a condition in which small, punched-out ulcers and necrotic areas are scattered over the vesical mucous surface. Post-mortem findings are confirmatory of those obtained by the aid of the cystoscope.

Exciting and Predisposing Factors.—(1) Among the exciting factors should be mentioned disturbance of the vesical circulatory system, which results most often from exposure to cold and wet, and here cystitis is possibly preceded by an inactivity of the skin.

(2) Retention of urine may be the only apparent cause for the production of an acute attack of cystitis, and tumors pressing on the bladder and new-growths of the bladder-wall are potent exciting factors. Obstruction to the flow of urine from whatever cause is capable of exciting cystitis. Failure of the bladder completely to empty itself during urination,—a condition commonly seen in paralysis of the bladder or of the lower extremities,—as well as cystocele and enlarged prostate, are among the causes. Exfoliating cystitis, in which there is an extensive destruction of the lining epithelium of the vesical mucosa, may follow overdis-

tention of the bladder, but, as a rule, there has also been exposure to cold and wet.

(3) A high degree of acidity of the urine and a urine too rich in solids, particularly in uric acid and in calcium oxalate, is capable of exciting cystitis.

(4) Bacterial infection of the bladder by unclean instruments that have been introduced into this organ, and bacteria that have gained access to the bladder from other sources,—the circulation,—are responsible for what is known as septic cystitis.

(5) Cystitis sometimes results from the direct extension of gonorrhea from the urethra.

(6) Again, septic cystitis may develop during the course of scarlet fever, diphtheria, acute articular rheumatism, typhoid fever, and tuberculosis, and it is probable that all such cases are bacterial in origin.

(7) Certain drugs, when introduced into the system in both medicinal and lethal doses, are capable of exciting an acute inflammation of the vesical mucous membrane; among these are copaiba, capsicum, cubebs, turpentine, cantharides, phenol, mercury, and certain of the coal-tar products.

(8) Traumatism to the bladder and the pressure induced by labor are frequent causes of cystitis. Impaction of feces and foreign bodies, such as cystic calculus, may in turn inflict true traumatism on the bladder. Operation upon the bladder is likely to cause local, and at times diffuse, cystitis.

(9) Direct extension of inflammation from adjacent structures—vaginitis, urethritis, pyelitis, ureteritis—and malignant disease of any of the pelvic viscera are common causes of acute cystitis. In several of our cases cystitis has followed salpingitis and pelvic abscess.

(10) Parasitic cystitis results from infection of the bladder or of its wall with schistosomum hæmatobium. Rarely the vinegar eel and the oxyuris are found in the bladder, and cause acute cystitis.

Principal Complaint.—Acute cystitis is usually preceded by such prodromal symptoms as malaise, anorexia, muscular soreness, lumbar distress, and constipation. Pain is the chief source of complaint in acute cystitis, and this is first described as a mere, dull ache in the lumbar region; later it becomes severe, and is accompanied by frequent micturition. After the disease has existed for several hours vesical tenesmus becomes the most prominent symptom, and is usually accompanied by more or less rectal tenesmus. The quantity of urine voided at each act is small, and may not exceed a few drops, and it is in this last described condition that vesical and rectal tenesmus is most marked.

Pain.—In severe cases the pain is most marked over the suprapubic region, radiating from this point to the sacral area, perineum, along the upper portion of the thighs, and to the glans penis. It is most severe preceding micturition and for some time after emptying the bladder, but when the bladder is empty, the patient is comparatively free from pain. The pain of acute cystitis is relieved by assuming the recumbent posture, whereas firm suprapubic pressure aggravates it. In cases of abscess of the bladder-wall pain and tenderness are also present, there is an almost constant desire to urinate, and the vesical and rectal tenesmus are most agonizing. In severe acute cystitis accompanied by an exfoliation of the epithelial lining of the bladder the patient rapidly enters into the so-called "typhoid state." The lips are parched and fissured, and may display large blackish areas of sloughing epithelium. The tongue is brown and furrowed and the teeth are covered with sordes. The patient's

general condition progresses from bad to worse until decided nervous symptoms are added.

Nervous Symptoms.—In mild cases of cystitis there are restlessness, slight headache, and insomnia; but in the severer types, and particularly in those suffering from malignant cystitis, there are generally intense headache, which may be frontal or occipital, delirium, subsultus tendinum, persistent vomiting, stupor, and coma.

Thermic Features.—An attack of acute cystitis is occasionally preceded by a distinct rigor or chill, but more often the patient experiences a slight chill or a series of chilly sensations. There is usually a moderate elevation in temperature, which ranges between 100° and 102° F., the fever continuing until the acuteness of the vesical inflammation subsides.

In the malignant cases the temperature rises rapidly to from 103° to 105° F., and may remain high for several days, displaying either slight or decided morning remissions, which are controlled by the type of the infection. In pseudomembranous cystitis a continued type of temperature is common, although this is by no means a constant feature.

Physical Signs.—**Firm palpation** over the suprapubic region elicits deep-seated vesical pain that radiates to the sacral region and to the perineum and is reflected down the anterior surface of the thighs. Pressure over the bladder also produces a desire to urinate, and an intense, cramp-like pain that is reflected to the glans penis.

Laboratory Diagnosis.—The quantity of urine voided during the twenty-four hours is approximately normal. The urine is usually acid in reaction; it is cloudy, and macroscopically numerous small, flake-like particles are seen. Upon standing, such urine deposits a heavy sediment, that is divided into three layers: an inferior layer, which is quite dark, a middle layer, which is lighter, and a superior pale zone. Microscopically, the sediment contains desquamated vesical epithelial cells, shreads of mucus, pus-cells, and, in cases in which there is virulent infection, red blood-cells are also seen.

Chemically, the urine of acute cystitis may contain albumin in small quantities, although this is by no means a constant finding.

Summary of Diagnosis.—Frequent micturition and the voiding of a small quantity of urine at each act, together with the presence of suprapubic pain, which radiates to the back and thighs, and vesical tenesmus, are the cardinal symptoms. Both the macroscopic and the microscopic study are of inestimable service in formulating a diagnosis.

Differential Diagnosis.—Acute cystitis may be confused with the frequent urination that occurs during the early months of **gestation** and with **chronic cystitis.**

Duration and Prognosis.—The duration of acute cystitis varies in accordance with the type of infection of the bladder mucosa and with the form of treatment instituted. In the majority of cases the acute symptoms subside in from twelve to forty-eight hours after treatment is begun. In a few instances, however, the condition progresses rapidly until a false membrane is formed, in which case a fatal issue commonly ensues. Cystitis developing during the course of one of the acute fevers may last for from a few days to two weeks.

CHRONIC CYSTITIS

Pathologic Definition.—A disease of the urinary bladder, characterized by a chronic inflammation of its lining mucous membrane, a variable degree of hypertrophy of the mucosa and bladder-wall, and the formation of indentations or pockets in the mucous membrane.

Early during the course of chronic cystitis the mucous surface of the bladder becomes swollen and lusterless, but with the progress of the disease the mucosa gradually thickens and becomes pale. In advanced cases the entire bladder-wall is found to be thickened, and there are numerous ridges and deep furrows upon the mucous surface, which form small identations and sacculations. It is these sacculations that prevent the bladder from completely emptying itself at each act of urination.

The prostate gland is hypertrophied, and the mucous lining in the region of the vesical trigone in such cases displays marked change. Vesical calculus more or less completely encysted in the bladder-wall and new-growths of the bladder are frequently found in chronic cystitis. The adjacent structures of the pelvis are likely to become involved by direct extension of the pathologic process of the bladder; thus a similar inflammation of ureters and the pelvis of the kidney may follow chronic cystitis.

Predisposing and Exciting Factors.—Acute cystitis may terminate in a chronic form of the disease. Enlarged prostate, atony of the bladder, and urethral stricture are among the commonest causes of chronic cystitis. Vesical calculus, vesical polypi, and infection with animal parasites are frequent causes, and occasionally there is extension of inflammation from the pelvic viscera. Carcinoma and tuberculosis of the urinary bladder always give rise to chronic cystitis. Chronic cystitis frequently develops during the course of locomotor ataxia, monoplegia, hemiplegia, and arthritis deformans; and, generally speaking, it may be said to complicate practically all diseases of the spinal cord. We have found chronic cystitis quite common among hospital patients suffering from paretic dementia and other mental diseases. In women it frequently follows injury to the urethra and pelvic inflammatory conditions.

Principal Complaint.—Frequent micturition, with vesical and lumbar pain that may radiate to the pubic and perineal regions and thighs, forms the leading symptom of chronic cystitis. When chronic cystitis complicates different forms of insanity and diseases of the spinal cord, there may be an absence of pain. Frequent desire to void urine is less decided in chronic than in acute cystitis, and, in fact, the bladder may hold the normal amount of urine without causing any great discomfort. When chronic cystitis is caused by vesical calculus, there is intermittent pain, which is caused by jarring the body, as in alighting from a carriage or in walking downstairs. Headache, malaise, and anorexia are common.

Thermic Features.—There may be no elevation in temperature during the entire course of chronic cystitis, even if the urine contains a large amount of pus. A feature ever to be borne in mind is that, unless ulceration of the bladder mucosa exists, fever (in chronic cystitis) is suggestive of inflammatory or suppurative conditions elsewhere.

Physical Signs.—Deep **palpation** over the suprapubic and perineal regions may elicit tenderness, although it seldom causes pain.

Laboratory Diagnosis.—The quantity of urine voided during the twenty-four hours is practically normal. The urine may be either acid or alkaline in reaction, and upon standing precipitates a heavy white or grayish-white sediment, which, when agitated, floats up through the supernatant liquid, giving it the so-called "ropy" appearance. Upon attempting to lift this sediment it will be found to be highly tenacious.

Microscopically, the urinary sediment contains many pus-cells, epithelial cells, and shreds of mucus. Red blood-cells are found when there is vesical calculus or ulceration of the bladder mucosa. Crystals of calcium oxalate, ammoniomagnesium phosphate, and ammonium

urate are frequently found, and in two instances we have seen crystals of cystin in the urine of chronic cystitis.

Clinical Course.—The course of the disease varies in direct accordance with the etiologic factors concerned. In cases in which there is atony of the bladder or paralysis the course is protracted, but when cystitis is dependent upon an irritating urine, vesical calculus, or enlarged prostate, the disease is amenable to treatment.

NEUROSES OF THE BLADDER

Pathologic Definition.—A condition characterized anatomically by mild congestion of the vesical mucous membrane immediately surrounding the orifice of the urethra, and clinically by frequent urination, which is increased by nervous excitement.

Anatomic Features.—Owing to the fact that these cases seldom, if ever, terminate fatally, its pathology remains obscure. Cystoscopic examination reveals the presence of a moderate congestion of the vesical mucous membrane, particularly in the region of the trigone, and, on the other hand, it has been asserted, upon good authority, that in certain cases no change in the mucous membrane is apparent, although there is a marked hypersensitiveness of the mucous membrane immediately surrounding the urethra. This congestion of the vesical mucosa may extend for some distance from the opening of the urethra and ureters.

Predisposing and Exciting Factors.—The majority of sufferers are of the neurotic type; consequently this condition occurs, as a rule, in hypochondriasis, hysteria, and melancholia. Severe grief, financial difficulties, menstrual irregularities, dysmenorrhea, ovaritis, endometritis, and masturbation are often precursors of vesical irritability. Vesical neurosis may be but one manifestation of a general trend of symptoms known to follow such gastro-intestinal derangements as dyspepia and hyperchlorhydria. Among other predisposing factors should be mentioned improper hygienic surroundings, malnutrition, and weakness.

Lithemia no doubt contributes liberally toward the development of vesical neurosis, and in such instances the neurosis may result from local irritation caused by a highly acid urine. Neurosis of the bladder not infrequently accompanies disease of adjacent structures, as, *e. g.*, the ureter, urethra, rectum, and uterus, in which case it should be termed sympathetic neurosis. It may accompany cephalalgia and facial and lumbar neuralgia. Attacks of vesical neurosis may also occur with pronounced periodicity, and are often seen to follow the acute infectious fevers.

Principal Complaint.—Irritability of the bladder is manifested by the following symptoms: frequent micturition, together with vesical and rectal tenesmus. Emptying of the bladder does not always relieve the pain, and occasionally it may be equally marked or more pronounced after urination than it was before the beginning of the act. When there is spasm of the muscle of the bladder, there is likely to be extreme pain for some seconds, and at times for several minutes, after the emptying of the bladder. In a few of our cases the pain was sufficiently severe to necessitate the use of morphin. In the severer types of vesical neurosis the urine may be voided spasmodically, or there may be vesical spasm at some time during the act of urination.

Laboratory Diagnosis.—The quantity of urine voided during the twenty-four hours approximates the normal, except in hysteric individuals, in whom periodic attacks of polyuria occur.

Summary of Diagnosis.—Frequent painful micturition developing in persons of neurotic temperament, the urine showing none of the urinary findings of cystitis, is highly suggestive of vesical neurosis.

TABLE SHOWING THE DISTINCTIVE DIFFERENCES BETWEEN NEUROSIS OF THE BLADDER, PREGNANCY, CYSTITIS, AND IRRITABILITY FOLLOWING DISEASE OR TRAUMA OF THE URETHRA

Neurosis of the Bladder	Cystitis	Neurosis of Pregnancy	Irritability Following Disease or Trauma of the Urinary Tract
1. History of previous attacks accompanying a general breaking down of the nervous system. No history of organic disease of the bladder or of the urethra.	1. There may or may not be a history of previous attacks, but it is not associated with general nervous debility.	1. History of similar complaint during the early months of gestation only.	1. History of gonorrhea, urethral stricture, or surgical operation upon the urethra or bladder.
2. The patient is of a neurotic temperament.	2. May develop in any individual, irrespective of temperament. Frequently follows exposure to cold and wet, catheterization or washing of the bladder.	2. Usually develops about one month after conception, and continues until the third month of pregnancy, when it is lessened in severity or disappears to reappear after the eighth month of gestation.	2. Urethral stricture of long standing and enlargement of the prostate.
3. Pain severe, and may be worse after micturition.	3. Pain marked before micturition, and continues during the act, but is relieved after the bladder is emptied.	3. Pain is uncommon, but a decided desire to empty the bladder is present.	3. There is a more or less constant desire to void urine, and pain may be slight, absent, or at times severe.
4. The constitutional symptoms are those of nervous depression.	4. Symptoms vary with the severity of the type of infection.	4. Symptoms absent.	4. There is seldom evidence of constitutional symptoms unless the condition has existed over a long period.
5. The duration is from weeks to months, and is controlled by the general nervous state of the patient.	5. Of short duration, except in chronic cases, in which it may last for months or even years.	5. Present during first to third and the latter month of gestation.	5. Usually of long duration.

Neurosis of the Bladder	Cystitis	Neurosis of Pregnancy	Irritability Following Disease or Trauma of the Urinary Tract
6. The urine is that of hysteria, being at times pale, of low specific gravity, acid in reaction, and excessive in quantity, while at intervals the urine may be concentrated and highly acid.	6. The quantity of urine is approximately normal; microscopically it contains desquamated epithelium, pus, shreds of mucus, albumin, and in severe cases blood.	6. Approximates normal, although some writers claim to have found an increase in the phosphates.	6. Does not reveal anything of diagnostic value.
7. Cystoscopic examination is, as a rule, negative. Rarely there is hypersensitiveness of the mucosa of the trigone and about the vesical orifice of the urethra.	7. Cystoscopic examination reveals a pathologic condition of the vesical mucosa. May detect vesical calculus or tumor.	7. Cystoscopic examination negative.	7. Cystoscopic examination negative.
8. The duration is always protracted.	8. In acute cystitis it varies from three to fifteen days, but in the chronic form it may continue for months or even years.	8. Duration short.	8. Usually continues for a long period and until the cause is successfully treated.

Course.—A fatal termination is practically unknown, yet in the majority of instances this malady continues for several months or even for years. Recovery may follow judicious treatment, but there is a great tendency of a repetition of the attacks whenever the general nervous vitality of the patient becomes reduced.

INCONTINENCE OF URINE

Definition.—Inability to retain the urine owing to hyperesthesia of some portion of the urinary tract or to disease of the spinal cord.

Predisposing and Exciting Factors.—Incontinence of urine is sometimes due to a lesion of the spinal cord that involves the sphincteric center of the bladder; it is also a symptom of such nervous maladies as locomotor ataxia, tumor of the spinal cord, and disease of the central nervous system, a condition commonly referred to as paralytic incontinence. Prostration with general bodily weakness, as seen after the acute infectious diseases, abnormal conditions of the bladder, such as malformation, diminution in size, etc., urethral stricture, and traumatism to either the bladder or the urethra from whatever cause may result in partial or complete paralysis of the sphincter muscles. Overdistention of the bladder with partial paralysis of the muscles is ofttimes responsible for incontinence, and is usually referred to as "*the incontinence of retention.*" Vesical calculi, vesical polypi, anteflexion of the uterus, vesical parasites, and cystitis may each in turn be contributing factors.

Irritability of the compressor muscles of the bladder (*spasmodic incontinence*) is, as a rule, the result of the passage of a highly irritating urine, although Bierhoff believes that the essential or ultimate condition is a hypersensitiveness of the deep urethra. Local irritation, however, may depend, in the male, upon contraction of the urethral meatus, masturbation, an elongated and adherent prepuce, or neglect of the proper toilet of the child. In girls there may be adhesions of the labia, with a binding down of the clitoris.

Nocturnal enuresis is a term employed to describe a condition common to neurotic children, and believed to depend upon a neurosis of either the bladder or the urethral mucous membrane. In this condition a pricking sensation is felt in the urethra. At times the affection appears to be psychic, the child giving a history of having had a peculiar dream, or of being frightened during sleep.

Principal Complaint.—Nocturnal enuresis as seen in children is a condition in which the child is unable to control the sphincter muscles of

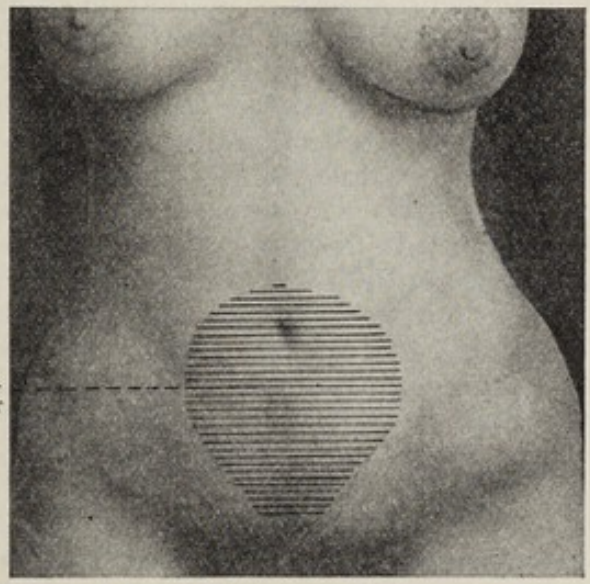


FIG. 289.—AREA OF FLATNESS DUE TO EXTREME DISTENTION OF THE BLADDER BY URINE.

the bladder. As a result, during the hours of sleep, usually in the early part of the night, the bladder is partially or completely emptied, the child being generally unconscious of having voided urine until he awakens some hours later.

Paralytic enuresis is characterized by a more or less constant dribbling, which alternates with spurts, of urine, whenever the voluntary or involuntary muscles are brought into action, as in coughing, sneezing, laughing, or during violent exercise. Paralytic incontinence may be the result of a general weakness, and is likewise seen after prostration.

When incontinence is the result of overdistention of the bladder, pain is unusual. When the incontinence depends upon the presence of vesical calculus, polypus, vesical ulceration, or similar conditions that are accompanied by cystitis, pain is present. Enuresis the result of a hypersensitive condition of the bladder or urethral mucous membrane seldom gives rise to intense pain.

Physical Signs.—Palpation.—When incontinence results from lesion of the spinal cord, abnormal sensory changes may take place over the limbs and abdomen; among these are anesthesia, paresthesia, and hyperesthesia. Deep pressure over the bladder discloses the presence of tender-

ness in certain cases in which vesical calculus, tumors, or cystitis may be present. If the incontinence is dependent upon overdistention of the bladder a tumor-mass may be readily outlined in the region of the bladder (Fig. 289). In females a hypersensitiveness of the clitoris and adhesions of the labia may be present, and the vulva may be swollen and inflamed.

Percussion is of diagnostic value only when the bladder is distended with urine, in which case there is dullness over the lower portion of the abdomen.

Clinical Course.—Enuresis of children disappears when the exciting cause is removed, although in many cases we have known it to continue until the child was ten to twelve years of age. The condition is, as a rule, amenable to treatment, but in the adult, medication has but limited effect. Incontinence depending upon lesion of the cord or upon other grave nervous and mental maladies is seldom curable.

When the enuresis is dependent upon general prostration or upon delirium, it disappears as soon as the general vitality and the mental condition of the patient become normal.

ACUTE INFECTIOUS DISEASES

FEVER

Definition.—Fever in its unrestricted sense is a term used to designate a rise in body temperature. Elevation of temperature, however, does not *per se* constitute fever. In our modern conception of fever we recognize an abnormal condition, occupying a certain interval of time characterized by an elevation of body temperature, general malaise, cerebral phenomena, weakness, loss of appetite, thirst, quickened pulse and respiration, slight albuminuria, and derangement of metabolism.

Determination of Body Temperature.—The only accurate method for the determination of body temperature is by the clinical thermometer. The places usually selected for the taking of the temperature are (*a*) mouth, (*b*) axilla or armpit, (*c*) the rectum, and (*d*) the vagina.

The temperature of the mouth is about one degree higher than that in the axilla and lower than of the rectum. The mouth is a convenient and accurate place to take the temperature, the thermometer being placed under the tongue. On account of possibilities of the thermometer being a carrier of disease-germs the axilla has been found a more suitable place.

The temperature as recorded in the axilla is lower than that in the mouth and rectum. All undue moisture should be wiped away before the instrument is placed and care should be taken that it does not project beyond the posterior folds and that it is not caught in a fold of the clothing.

The rectal or vaginal temperature is more nearly that of the body. It is the place of selection in case of children and those who are in a state of delirium or coma and in those cases where the accurate determination of the temperature is of great importance.

Normal temperature is said to be between 98° and 99.5° F. (36.7° and 37.5° C.). It is subject to physiologic variations, among which may be mentioned: (*a*) time of day, (*b*) exercise, and (*c*) age. The temperature rises from seven to eight in the morning and reaches the maximum between seven and eight in the evening. It then begins to gradually fall, and may even be subnormal between 12 P. M. and 4 A. M. Exercise tends to raise the temperature. After violent and prolonged gymnastic exercise it has been known to rise to 104° F. In infants and young children the temperature is somewhat higher and is subject to greater variations. In old age it is usually lower, and may even be subnormal.

Causes of Fever.—The temperature of the body is kept within normal limits by means of the heat regulatory mechanism. It is accomplished by (*a*) the regulation of heat production—thermogenesis; and (*b*) by controlling heat dissipation—thermolysis. Normally, these two functions so counterbalance each other that the temperature under various conditions is kept within tolerably narrow limits. It is evident, therefore, that the causes of fever act through increasing thermogenesis or decreasing thermolysis, or both. It is due to certain substances circulating in the blood, which may be: (1) toxins, the result of (*a*) infection by micro-organisms, or (*b*) intoxication, on account of faulty metabolism or introduced from without; and (2) the infection of the blood by products of putre-

faction—sapremia. It is probable that the rise of temperature sometimes attributed to fright, emotion, violent pain, etc., is due to derangement of physiologic processes whereby toxins are produced.

Among the clinical phenomena that may accompany fever, the following deserve special mention:

(1) **Pyrexia,** or increased temperature.

(2) **General malaise,** or subjective symptoms of illness.

(3) **Increased pulse-rate.** In many cases of febrile disease the pulse is accelerated, and this acceleration usually corresponds to the intensity of the fever. It is estimated that there is an increase of eight beats to every 1.8° F. increase above the normal. The ratio between the pulse and temperature is of diagnostic and prognostic value. Thus, in tuberculosis with moderate or no fever the pulse-rate is usually increased. On the other hand, in basilar meningitis and yellow fever the pulse is slow, although the temperature may be high. In typhoid fever acceleration of the pulse is moderate in comparison to the temperature; this fact being of aid in the differential diagnosis between it and acute miliary tuberculosis or septicemia, in which conditions the pulse-rate is high. Furthermore, in diphtheria, scarlet fever and peritonitis the pulse-rate is greatly increased, although there may be but moderate fever.

(4) **Increased respiration.** The respiration is increased in almost all cases of fever. It is due partly to the toxins which produce the fever and partly to the stimulating effect of the heated blood. It is of clinical importance to note that greatly increased respiration in the absence of disease complicating the respiratory apparatus is of very unfavorable prognostic significance.

(5) **Nervous symptoms,** such as prostration, headache, pain in the back, convulsions (especially in children), somnolence, stupor, delirium, and coma. The prostration may be pronounced and is often present in the early stages of febrile disease and bears no relationship to the wasting of the tissues which later takes place. If the fever persist, a low asthenic state may supervene. The eyes and expression become dull and heavy, the face congested, the pupils contracted. The sensibilities are blunted and the mental processes become sluggish. Prostration is profound and may be attended with a low, muttering delirium. When venous stasis is present, the pulse becomes small, feeble, and dicrotic, the breathing shorter and labored. This complete or profound adynamia is commonly referred to as the typhoid state. An opposite condition may, however, exist. Instead of prostration and depression great strength with active, violent, or maniacal delirium is exhibited. Intense headache may be present. The pulse is strong; the face flushed and bright red in color, while the eyes are active, bright, and injected. This condition, the direct opposite of the typhoid state, has been called ataxia or the ataxic state.

Headache and pain are of diagnostic value. In tonsillitis and smallpox the pain in the back may be severe. In cerebrospinal meningitis malaria and enteric fever the headache is very marked and is of a protracted, throbbing variety in the latter disease.

The delirium which may be present may be mild and wandering or active and maniacal, and appears to bear no relationship to the intensity of the fever. Thus, in relapsing fever with a temperature of 106° F. the mind remains clear, while in certain cases of typhoid fever marked delirium may attend a temperature of 103° F.

(6) **Derangement of normal secretions** is quite prominent and becomes manifest on the part of the gastro-intestinal tract by a coated tongue, thirst, loss of appetite, impaired digestion, and constipation or diarrhea.

The urine is scanty, dark-colored, and of high specific gravity. The skin may be unusually dry, while in some cases there may be sweating. The latter is apt to occur at the time of defervescence, although it may take place throughout the course of the disease or at certain stages. In deep-seated suppuration, diseases of bones, and tuberculosis it is cold and clammy.

(7) **Emaciation.**—Wasting is a very pronounced symptom even in febrile disease of moderate duration. Changes occur in the solid structures as well as in the blood. The changes which occur in the blood are a decrease in the number of erythrocytes and the progressive loss of the albumins of the plasma.

Classification of Fever.—Fever has been divided according to (1) the degree of pyrexia and (2) type.

According to the height of the temperature fever is spoken of as (*a*) subfebrile (apyrexia); (*b*) moderately febrile; (*c*) highly febrile, and (*d*) intensely febrile, or hyperpyrexia. The following table shows the temperature to which the foregoing terms apply:

Fahrenheit	Centigrade	
99.5°–100.5°	37.5°–38.1°	sub-febrile.
100.5°–103.1°	38.1°–39.5°	moderately febrile.
103.1°–105.8°	39.5°–41°	highly febrile.
Above 105.8°	Above 41°	hyperpyrexia.

Type of Fever.—Fever is clinically divided according to its range into three distinct types: (*a*) continued, (*b*) remittent, and (*c*) intermittent. Of less importance, the inverse and the atypical type may be mentioned. The recognition of the different types in the various febrile diseases is of importance and forms a positive aid to diagnosis.

Continued fever is that type of fever in which the diurnal range (fluctuation) does not exceed 1.8° F. It is seen in typhus fever, pneumonia, scarlet fever, etc.

The remittent type of fever is characterized by diurnal fluctuations of more than 2° F., but which, however, does not reach the normal.

Intermittent fever is that type of fever in which there are a succession of rises and of remissions, to or below the normal. This type of fever is seen in intermittent malarial fever, relapsing fever, hepatic colic, suppuration, tuberculosis with cavity, etc.

Inverse Type.—In fevers of the continued and in some of the remittent type diurnal oscillations occur which, while corresponding to the normal in time, yet are of greater range. In some cases this condition is reversed, the remission taking place in the evening and the exacerbation in the morning. It is then called the inverse type of fever and is occasionally met with in tuberculosis and more rarely in typhoid fever.

Atypical fever is encountered in some of the febrile diseases. It is of diagnostic importance, its presence militating against the existence of any febrile disease known to have a characteristic type of temperature.

Course of Fever.—Fever has been divided into four stages: (*a*) The stage of prodromes; (*b*) the onset or invasion; (*c*) the fastigium, and (*d*) the defervescence. In the various febrile diseases the different stages are quite characteristic and of definite duration. Their recognition is of great clinical significance from a diagnostic as well as prognostic standpoint.

The onset or stage of invasion may be very short (a few hours) or it may extend over a period of several days. The temperature accordingly rises either abruptly or gradually until the maximum is reached. When the rise of temperature is abrupt, it is usually accompanied by a chill which frequently corresponds in intensity with the abruptness of the

invasion. Its intensity may vary from a subjective sensation of cold with pallor and cyanosis of the lips and fingers to a severe and prolonged chill, with chattering of the teeth, cyanosis, and a pallid and pinched face. The temperature of the surface of the body is cool, although the internal temperature as recorded in the mouth or rectum may be very high. In children convulsions not infrequently take the place of a chill.

A sudden invasion with rapid rise of temperature is seen in erysipelas, lobar pneumonia, influenza, scarlet fever, tonsillitis, middle-ear disease or mastoid inflammation, osteomyelitis, intermittent fever, gastro-intestinal disorders of children, etc.

A gradual invasion is typically seen in typhoid fever and attends quite a number of febrile diseases.

The Fastigium or Acme.—In this stage the temperature has attained its maximum. It may last only for a very short time or it may be prolonged for three or more weeks. During this time diurnal variations usually occur which while corresponding in time to the normal are yet of greater latitude. The temperature of the surface of the body is usually the same as the internal, although it may at times and in certain diseases vary. When the maximum temperature is transient the term acme is usually employed to designate this stage.

The Stage of Defervescence.—In this stage the temperature falls to the normal. This fall may be abrupt—a fall by crisis or critical defervescence—or it may be gradual—lysis. Febrile diseases characterized by a sudden invasion usually terminate by crisis, while those in which the invasion is more gradual terminate by lysis.

When the fever terminates by crisis, the temperature drops to or below the normal in a very short time (twelve to twenty-four hours). It is usually attended by copious diaphoresis—the critical sweat—the passage of large quantities of urine or large, loose stools. The pulse and respiration also improve with the fall in temperature. A knowledge of the condition of the pulse and respiration at this time is of great clinical significance, inasmuch as a rapid fall in temperature without improvement in the pulse and respiration may indicate collapse or impending death. In typhoid fever it indicates perforation if followed by a rise of the temperature, abdominal pains, or bloody stools.

Erysipelas, measles, lobar pneumonia, relapsing fever, and typhus fever usually end by crisis.

Typhoid fever, acute rheumatism, bronchopneumonia, and pleurisy usually terminate by lysis.

ACUTE TONSILLITIS

Pathologic Definition.—An acute, self-limited, inflammatory process, involving first the mucous membrane and the tonsillar crypts, then the tonsillar parenchyma, and terminating in resolution, suppuration, or chronic tonsillitis. There is a liberal amount of clinical evidence to support the probability of secondary involvement of the heart, kidneys, joints and other remotely located structures. (See Focal Infection, p. 985.)

Clinical Types.—(*a*) Acute catarrhal tonsillitis; (*b*) acute parenchymatous tonsillitis; (*c*) phlegmonous tonsillitis; (*d*) peritonsillar abscess or quinsy; (*e*) necrotic tonsillitis.

Predisposing Factors.—**Age** is the chief predisposing factor, the disease being common during childhood and early adolescence, but rare during infancy. In children with a rheumatic inheritance there is often a special susceptibility to the development of tonsillitis. Rheumatism

figures prominently as an etiologic factor in tonsillitis in persons between the ages of fifteen and thirty years.

Season also has its influence, the greatest number of cases developing during the spring months. Exposure to cold and wet and to extreme climatic changes is followed by an increase in the number of cases of acute tonsillitis.

Sex.—The disease is far more common in boys and young men than in females. One attack predisposes to others, which are likely to develop once or twice annually. Those suffering from a permanent enlargement of the tonsils are exceedingly prone to attacks of acute tonsillitis. Acute infectious diseases of the throat also favor the development of tonsillitis.

Exciting Causes.—Tibaldi (Sopra una nuova specie di ameba parassita trovata nelle tonsille) has described at length the entamœba macrohyalina which he found present in the crypts of the tonsils. This amœba is to be differentiated from entamœba gingivalis, the latter having a more distinctly rounded nucleus and differing in staining reactions. Inflammation of the tonsils and of the peritonsillar tissues may be caused by a number of microörganisms: staphylococcus aureus, streptococcus pyogenes, bacillus pyocyaneus, sarcinæ, and others. These organisms may be cultivated from the exudate covering the mucous membrane and from the pus contained in superficial or deep collections. F. R. Nuzum in a bacteriologic study made upon 218 pairs of supposedly diseased tonsils found that 96.1 per cent. of them harbored hemolytic streptococci.

Principal Complaint.—The *general symptoms* are often severe and appear abruptly, as a rule, preceding the local symptoms. The disease is sometimes ushered in with a distinct chill or a series of chills. In children there may be vomiting and, rarely, diarrhea. Marked soreness and intense pain in the back, loins, and muscles of the extremities, together with severe headache, are among the initial symptoms of acute tonsillitis.

Within a few hours after the chill there are certain definite *local symptoms*, the first being soreness and lancinating pains upon swallowing, and stabbing pains in the ear. There may be difficulty in expelling the excess of saliva from the mouth, and even movements of the head or of the jaw excite intense pain.* It will be found that through some selected localization fairly constant pain in the region of the umbilicus is experienced during the course of acute throat infection. There may also be indefinite pains of the thorax and along the spine. Abdominal pain when more or less constant calls for a careful examination of the throat, upper air passages, and sinuses.

Profuse acid sweats are a great annoyance, and are most likely to occur during sleep. The following train of symptoms, known to practically every disease that is ushered in with a chill, are likewise present in tonsillitis: (1) Fever; (2) sweat; (3) increased respiration; (4) increased frequency of the pulse; (5) constipation; (6) a diminution in the urine excreted, the fluid being of high specific gravity, high in color, and rich in solids.

Thermic Features.—Immediately following the chill the temperature reaches 102° to 105° F., and remains high for from one to several days. The height of the fever is influenced materially by treatment and by the type of tonsillitis present.

Special Varieties.—(*a*) **Acute catarrhal tonsillitis** is a part of general catarrh of the mucous membrane of the throat. The local manifestations are soreness and difficulty in swallowing, with pains radiating to the angles of the jaw or to the ear. Swelling of the tonsils and of contiguous

* MacDonald and Buendia, Siglo. Méd., Madrid 74: 554, Dec., 1924.

tissues gives a peculiar nasal tone to the voice. In some of these cases there is an excess of saliva, whereas in others the mouth is comparatively dry, pain being more pronounced when the secretion is diminished.

The *exudate* that collects in the throat is thick and highly tenacious, and may excite paroxysmal coughing, which is followed by the expectoration of a large quantity of this mucopurulent material. Occasionally *stomatitis* is seen to accompany catarrhal tonsillitis, and in such cases salivation is the rule.

Physical Signs.—Inspection.—The mucous membrane of the tonsils, of the pillars of the fauces and pharynx is intensely congested. In the early stages it presents a glazed appearance, but later it becomes covered with a mucopurulent exudate which is easily detached and leaves a dry, reddened surface.

Palpation.—The tenderness is localized to the surface of the tonsils, yet it is not infrequent to find extreme tenderness in the region of the pillars and the uvula. On making external palpation at the angle of the jaw, a variable degree of tenderness is elicited.

Clinical Course and Duration.—The general systemic evidence of disease is not well marked in acute catarrhal tonsillitis, and the duration of the disease is from two to four days, when recovery follows.

Among the *complications* of tonsillitis should be mentioned otitis media, pharyngitis, and peritonsillar abscess.

(*b*) **Follicular Tonsillitis.**—This is a severe type of tonsillitis, common in children and young adults, involving the mucous lining of the tonsillar crypts and the mucosa covering the tonsils. The local symptoms of this type of the disease are practically the same as those described under Acute Catarrhal Tonsillitis, except that they are more severe.

Physical Signs.—Inspection.—The surface of the tonsils is covered with small, slightly elevated, yellowish areas, over which creamy white exudate is spread. The number of these areas seen upon one tonsil may vary from three to fifty. Pressure upon the tonsil may force small, yellowish-white, plug-like masses out of the crypts.

The *constitutional symptoms* of follicular tonsillitis are marked, the chill, headache, muscle pains, and fever being far more severe than in catarrhal tonsillitis.

Follicular tonsillitis may develop during the course of endocarditis, pleurisy, and other febrile conditions. In certain cases the material that collects in the crypts of the tonsil remains there for an indefinite period and becomes calcareous in structure—the so-called "chalk-plugs" of chronic tonsillitis. (See differential table below.)

TABLE SHOWING THE DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS BETWEEN DIPHTHERIA AND FOLLICULAR TONSILLITIS.—(*Modified from Anders*)

Diphtheria	Follicular Tonsillitis
1. History of an epidemic or of exposure.	1. History of previous attacks.
2. Symptoms develop somewhat slowly, except in malignant cases. There may be headache, chilliness and occasionally a distinct chill.	2. Symptoms develop abruptly, with a chill and profuse acid sweats.
3. A tough, ashy-gray, continuous, and uniform pseudomembranous deposit in the tonsils.	3. A soft, pultaceous, yellowish-white deposit occurs in spots or patches situated over the follicles, with intervening areas of redness.
4. The exudate is very adherent, and can be torn off only in strips, leaving a bleeding surface.	4. The exudate is easily removed, leaving a smooth but reddened surface.
5. The pillars of the fauces and uvula are involved, and the membrane may extend to the nasal mucosa.	5. The deposit is limited to the tonsils.

Diphtheria	Follicular Tonsillitis
6. Removal of the membrane is followed by reformation within twenty-four hours.	6. If the creamy deposits unite to form a continuous layer, removal is not immediately followed by reformation.
7. Bacillus diphtheriæ is present in all cases. Other bacteria (cocci and bacilli) may also occur.	7. Cultures from the tonsillar mucous membrane fail to show bacillus diphtheriæ.
8. Temperature rises slowly to from 99½° to 102° or 103° F., but the fever continues longer than in tonsillitis.	8. Following the chill the temperature rises to from 102° to 104° or 105° F., and remains high for one or two days, when a rapid decline is witnessed.
9. In the majority of cases albuminuria develops by the end of the first week, and may be present throughout the disease.	9. Not present in uncomplicated cases.
10. There is usually enlargement and hardening of the cervical lymph-nodes.	10. Glandular enlargement rare. Tonsillar abscess an occasional complication.
11. Schick-test positive in susceptible cases.	11. Negative.

(*c*) **Acute Parenchymatous Tonsillitis.**—This type of tonsillitis differs from those forms previously described in that it occurs more commonly in adults than in children. The symptoms are severe, and the substance of the tonsil, in addition to being decidedly congested, shows a special tendency to go on to suppuration.

Principal Complaint.—The general complaint does not differ markedly from that described under Acute Follicular Tonsillitis until the stage of suppuration is reached, when the pain is excruciating and radiates to the ears. The temperature rises to 104° to 105° F., and the pulse reaches 120 a minute, and is full and bounding. Delirium is uncommon.

The secretion of the throat and mouth is scanty at first, but later a viscid mucus is produced, but salivation is seldom, if ever, present. With the accumulation of pus in the tonsils dyspnea develops, which is caused by edema of the cellular structures of the throat.

Physical Signs.—Inspection.—The patient opens his mouth only with great difficulty, and thus a thorough inspection of the throat is not possible. The tonsils are markedly enlarged, and may meet in the median line; in cases in which only one tonsil is involved, this may occupy nearly the entire throat. The voice is husky, and articulation is indistinct. The entire mucous membrane of the affected side, and often of both sides, is intensely congested, as are also the faucial arches and the soft palate. The uvula will be pushed to one or the other side of the throat, or be pushed forward as the result of the tonsils occupying nearly the entire cavity of the throat.

Palpation.—The tonsils and edematous tissues of the throat are hard at first, but later, with the accumulation of pus, they become soft and spongy.

By palpation of the tonsils it is often possible to locate the pus, and it not infrequently happens that the abscess ruptures and discharges its contents into the mouth. Glandular enlargement is present at the angle of the jaw.

Laboratory Diagnosis.—Pus from an abscess of the tonsil is likely to contain streptococci, the staphylococcus pyogenes aureus, and the staphylococcus pyogenes albus.

The *urine* is highly colored, of high specific gravity, and displays a red froth when agitated, and a heavy sediment upon standing. The urinary solids are decidedly increased, whereas the quantity of urine voided during the twenty-four hours is diminished; consequently the total amount

of solids excreted during the day is approximately normal. Albuminuria and glycosuria are unknown in uncomplicated cases of tonsillitis. The diazo-reaction is commonly present.

Clinical Course.—After the pus has been released, either by incising the tonsil or by spontaneous rupture, the vast majority of cases terminate favorably. Irrespective of surgical interference, the average duration of tonsillar abscess is from eight to twelve days.

(*d*) **Peritonsillar Abscess.**—This is a condition that develops as a complication in acute parenchymatous tonsillitis, and is due to the pus invading the surrounding cellular tissues, and forcing its way between the tonsil and the pterygoid muscles. In peritonsillar abscess the pus may burrow its way as low as the clavicle, or may infiltrate the contiguous structures of the pharynx, mouth, and larynx.

(*e*) **Phlegmonous tonsillitis** occurs much less frequently in children than in adults. It is distinguished from the previously described types of tonsillitis by the fact that it is seldom, if ever, bilateral. Sore throat, stiffness of the muscles of the neck, pain, and salivation are more pronounced than in acute parenchymatous tonsillitis.

Clinical Course.—Phlegmonous tonsillitis terminates in recovery within a period of three or four days after the pus has been released. A few cases are on record in which the pus from peritonsillar abscess has penetrated the veins and arteries of the neck.

(*f*) **Necrotic Tonsillitis.**—An acute localized infection of the tonsils, characterized by the formation of a false membrane, which is followed by extensive ulceration of the tonsillar mucous membrane. Generally speaking, necrotic tonsillitis is regarded as being due to infection with the Klebs-Löffler bacillus, but we have made cultural studies of a number of cases in which there has been extensive sloughing of the tonsil, and in which only the bacteria common to the mouth and throat were recovered.

Principal Complaint.—According to the symptomatology of necrotic tonsillitis, there appear to be at least two types of this affection; one in which the necrosis may not extend deeper than the mucous membrane, although the accompanying constitutional symptoms are comparatively severe, resembling those of acute follicular tonsillitis.

The second type of necrotic tonsillitis is seen in young adults, and is not accompanied by any marked constitutional disturbances. There is but slight soreness of the throat, and practically no pain is felt upon opening the mouth or upon moving the head. The temperature ranges between 99° and 99.6° F. The pulse is but slightly, if at all, accelerated, and the appetite is undisturbed.

Physical Signs.—Inspection.—This last described variety of necrotic tonsillitis is unilateral. The initial lesion is oftenest seen on the anterior surface of the tonsil, and in appearance closely resembles that seen in diphtheria. Within from twenty-four to seventy-two hours extensive ulceration and necrosis of both the mucous membrane and the deeper tissues of the tonsil may take place. In ordinary cases it is possible to pass a probe for a distance of from $\frac{1}{8}$ to $\frac{1}{2}$ inch into the substance of the gland. These areas of excavation are bounded by ragged margins that are covered with a thick, yellowish, tenacious mucus. The tonsil is not painful to the touch, nor is there marked edema of the surrounding tissues. Diphtheria bacilli are absent.

Clinical Course and Duration.—Recovery usually takes place in from two to three weeks. After the ulcer has healed, the affected tonsil is much smaller than its fellow, and there is often a decided depression at the original site of the necrotic process. This type of tonsil may later serve as a focus of infection.

CHRONIC TONSILLITIS

Pathologic Definition.—General enlargement of the tonsils following repeated attacks of acute tonsillitis. It is unusual for enlargement of the tonsils to cause any decided inconvenience to the patient unless adenoid vegetations in the pharynx are associated with it. Enlargement of the tonsils may cause obstruction of the Eustachian tube and consequent impairment of hearing, and it is also responsible for heavy breathing and snoring during sleep.

Fetid breath may be an annoying symptom of chronic enlargement of the tonsils, and the patient may be able, by pressing the tonsils, to cause the escape of peculiar yellowish plugs from the tonsillar crypts. Permanent enlargement of the tonsils is a condition for the specialist.

TUBERCULOUS ENTERITIS (Tuberculosis of the Intestine; Tuberculous Dysentery; Consumption of the Bowel)

Pathologic Definition.—Either a primary or a secondary infection of the mucosa, and of the deeper coats of the bowel, by tubercle bacilli, with the formation of ulcers that are arranged transversely to the long axis of the colon, and characterized clinically by frequent watery stools, tubercle bacilli in the feces, progressive emaciation, profound weakness, and the blood changes and other symptoms of secondary anemia.

General Remarks and Varieties.—The lesions present in the colon may be—(*a*) primary, but, as a rule, they are (*b*) secondary to tuberculosis of the lung, throat, or other structures.

Primary tuberculosis of the intestine is oftenest seen before the tenth year, a fact that is explained in part by the large amount of milk that is ingested by children. Disease of the tonsils deserves consideration. It is difficult to separate tuberculosis of the intestine from tuberculosis of the peritoneum, since the two conditions often develop conjointly. While the patient complains of the general symptoms produced by the tuberculous enteritis, he is likely to suffer from local or general tuberculosis of the peritoneum. In many autopsies performed on the bodies of children dead of tuberculosis of the intestine it has been difficult to ascertain whether the tuberculous infection originated in the bowel or in the peritoneum; and, indeed, in many instances the pathologic changes suggested that the two conditions developed hand in hand. In certain cases the infection was probably first manifested in the retroperitoneal lymph-nodes.

"The *secondary variety* occurs in more than one-half of the cases of pulmonary tuberculosis" (Anders). Any portion of the colon may be involved, yet the lower one-third of the ileum serves as the common site for the initial intestinal lesions. The clinical picture is but slightly different, whether tuberculosis of the intestine be primary or secondary.

Symptomatology.—In children, the mother usually states that the child has suffered from a somewhat chronic intestinal catarrh for weeks, or possibly for months. Moderate colicky pains and diarrhea are present and the dejecta may be blood-stained. The child has not gained in weight since the intestinal symptoms developed, and, indeed, in most instances there has been a gradual loss in flesh throughout the course of the illness.

Tuberculosis of the intestine in the adult gives rise to symptoms quite similar to those described for children. In adults, as previously stated, it is extremely common to have the symptoms of gastro-intestinal catarrh, with probably two, three, or even six copious, watery stools daily. Constipation may persist for one or more weeks, during which time the patient complains of intestinal discomfort.

Thermic Features.—In primary tuberculosis of the mucous coat of the intestine there may be slight fever, or the temperature may be subnormal during the morning hours. When the deeper coats of the intestine become involved, the temperature will range between 99° and 101° F. When tuberculosis of the intestine is secondary to tuberculosis of the lungs with cavity formation, the temperature will be found at or near the normal during the morning hours, with a rise to between 102° and 104° F. during the afternoon and evening hours. The hectic temperature is probably dependent, for the most part, upon the pulmonary condition, and not upon the intestinal lesion.

Physical Signs.—Inspection.—There is pallor of the skin and mucous membranes, and the tongue is, as a rule, heavily furred, although where there is a great amount of intestinal irritation, it may be red and glazed. The respirations become hurried, and cyanosis and edema of the ankles are present late during the disease. Early during the course of intestinal tuberculosis the abdomen is scaphoid in shape and later, as the result of associated peritonitis and tympany, it becomes distended. Should the peritoneum become involved, ascites develops.

Palpation gives negative results until the disease is well advanced, when there is some tenderness over the course of the colon, and particularly in the region of the appendix. As the disease advances tenderness becomes more marked, and finally the features characteristic of general peritonitis are present. In some cases a tumor-like ridge lying transversely just above the level of the umbilicus may be felt.

Percussion.—After the disease is well advanced an increased tympanitic note over the entire abdomen is obtained.

Laboratory Diagnosis.—When there are ulcers in the mucous surface of the colon, the feces contains tubercle bacilli, shreds of necrotic tissue, pus, and blood. Large numbers of intestinal epithelial cells are also present, which give the liquid stool a granular appearance.

The *hematologic changes* present are those of secondary anemia. In probably 50 per cent. of all cases of tuberculous enteritis the sputum will be seen to contain tubercle bacilli, and in several cases we have found tubercle bacilli in the urine of persons suffering from this affection. In nine cases bacteriologic study of the venous blood gave negative results.

Summary of Diagnosis.—The existence of tuberculous enteritis is to be suspected whenever a history of progressive loss in weight, pallor, and weakness, together with diarrhea, is given. The detection of tubercle bacilli in the feces confirms the diagnosis in all cases, and serves to distinguish tuberculosis of the intestine from other forms of *intestinal catarrh.*

Clinical Course.—The prognosis is unfavorable, the majority of cases terminating in death in from a few weeks to six or more months. We have found tubercle bacilli present in the feces of adults over a period of one year, but it is seldom that the disease is so prolonged in children. In one child, a patient seen in the Philadelphia General Hospital, tubercle bacilli were present in the feces during a period of seventeen weeks.

PHLEGMONOUS ENTERITIS

Pathologic Definition.—A local or diffuse purulent inflammation of the submucous coat of the large intestine.

Predisposing Factors.—Septicemia, pyemia, and abscess of any portion of the body frequently antedate phlegmonous enteritis.

Duration.—The majority of cases terminate fatally in from twenty-four to seventy-two hours.

CATARRHAL ENTERITIS (Summer Diarrhea; Acute Gastro-intestinal Catarrh; Diarrhea of Children; Cholera Infantum; Mycotic Diarrhea)

General Remarks.—Summer diarrhea is a term applied to a series of gastro-intestinal conditions that are most likely to develop during hot weather. Diarrhea frequently occurs in epidemics, although endemic diarrhea is seen in both tropical and temperate climates. The malady is announced by a sudden onset, with pronounced irritation of the stomach and bowel. High fever, extreme prostration, and nervous symptoms soon follow.

Varieties.—(1) **Diarrhea Resulting from Dietetic Errors.**—This includes those cases caused by the ingestion of improper or indigestible food, which virtually acts as a foreign body. The irritation caused by such foods may, in the milder cases, produce only increased secretion and peristalsis, but in the severe forms inflammation of the gastro-intestinal mucosa may ensue. The stools are first seen to contain the somewhat hardened contents of the intestine; later they are semiliquid, and if the irritation is great, the stools become watery.

A *bacteriologic study* of the feces shows only those bacteria that are present during health.

(2) **Eliminative Diarrhea.**—The cases considered under this head are all those in which, clinically, the diarrhea appears to be nature's means of expelling from the body certain toxic substances that are known to circulate in the blood. An example of this type is the diarrhea that develops late during the course of renal disease—the so-called "uremic diarrhea." It is also probable that diarrhea developing during the course of certain other acute or chronic maladies may be in reality belong to this subclass.

Eliminative or "toxic diarrhea" is to be carefully distinguished from other types of the affection, since to arrest such a diarrhea would be disastrous. Pellagra, hyperthyroidism, and intestinal tuberculosis display diarrhea.

(3) **Acute Intestinal Indigestion.**—The ingestion of food that is not readily digested, and consequently remains unaltered in the intestines, is the exciting cause of this type of diarrhea. The undigested food causes a mechanic irritation, but it is also likely to undergo putrefactive changes in both the stomach and the intestine. Putrefaction may result in the generation of certain toxic substances (gases, ptomains) which, in turn, irritate the gastro-intestinal mucous membrane and aid in exciting diarrhea.

The symptoms (*e. g.*, vomiting, diarrhea, convulsions, and pain) may vary greatly with the degree of gastro-intestinal irritation present. This type of the disease is usually severe in those under two years of age, and proportionately lessens in virulence up to the tenth year, after which the condition is uncommon and seldom dangerous to life.

If intestinal irritation continues for more than a few hours, acute inflammation of the mucous coat results. The submucous coat becomes involved later. The severity of both the local and the constitutional symptoms serves as an index to the degree of intestinal inflammation present.

A *bacteriologic study* of the feces may reveal the presence of pathogenic organisms (streptococci, staphylococci, and bacilli) in severe cases. Blood may be found either by the microscope or by chemic methods.

(4) **Nervous Diarrhea.**—Both mild and prolonged nervous impressions are capable of producing diarrhea in neurasthenic individuals. Among such conditions should be mentioned atmospheric changes, mental excitement, public speaking, rapid chilling of the surface of the body, profound exhaustion, shock from fright, and dentition. Again, the introduction

of either liquid or solid substances into the stomach may be followed almost immediately by a bowel movement. *Increased peristalsis and malnutrition* are cardinal symptoms in this type of diarrhea.

A *bacteriologic study* of the feces is negative as to pathogenic organisms. The feces contain particles of food that have passed through the alimentary canal without being digested.

(5) **Diarrhea Due to Drugs.**—A protracted diarrhea may result from the use of cathartics, even though they be administered in moderate doses. The prolonged use of arsenic is, as a rule, followed by diarrhea, and, indeed, this type of the condition is closely allied to that subclass previously described as "eliminative diarrhea."

Predisposing and Exciting Factors.—(1) **Bacteriology.**—In the mild forms of diarrhea (simple diarrhea) only those bacteria present during health are to be found in the dejecta. When diarrhea continues for several days, other micro-organisms appear in the feces, *e. g.*, bacilli and cocci. The bacillus of dysentery and streptococci are not infrequently present when diarrhea has lasted for one week. The colon bacillus, while normally present in the feces, may at times assume a pathologic rôle in this condition.

(2) **Age.**—Children display an unusual susceptibility to diarrhea, and this susceptibility is amply borne out by the statistics of Crandall, whose analysis of 3000 cases gave the following: Under six months, 14 per cent.; between six and twelve months, 29 per cent.; between twelve and eighteen months, 24 per cent.; only 16 per cent. developed after the children were two years of age. The disease is decidedly less common after the tenth year of life, and becomes less and less frequent until the debility of old age asserts itself.

(3) **Season.**—In a temperate climate the majority of cases of diarrhea is seen during the months of June, July, August, and September, July furnishing the greatest number of cases. Hot weather, together with the unhygienic conditions that are likely to prevail during the summer, predisposes to all varieties of diarrhea. Owing to the intense heat large quantities of water are taken, milk is likely to contain a great many bacteria in a cubic centimeter, or become decomposed before use, and these factors, together with the ingestion of unripe fruit, play an important rôle in the production of summer diarrhea.

(4) **Environment.**—Individual surroundings and circumstances hold prominent places as etiologic factors in diarrhea, as is shown by the fact that this condition is far more common in cities than in rural districts. Poverty predisposes materially to diarrhea, but the children of well-to-do parents do not escape.

(5) **Uncleanliness** is considered by many as contributing toward diarrhea. Statistics show that artificially fed children are far more likely to develop diarrhea than are those fed on breast-milk; therefore, the food with which the child is nourished figures prominently as a causative factor. The contamination of food-supplies by flies and street-dust is an important etiologic factor.

(6) **Dentition.**—It is often difficult to show the exact relation between dentition and diarrhea; the fact remains that the two conditions appear simultaneously. The general belief that diarrhea is dependent upon dentition when it develops during the summer is an erroneous one in many instances.

(7) **Malnutrition.**—Any condition or conditions that tend to lower the general nutrition and vitality of the patient increase the tendency to develop diarrheal disease. Even when such children are placed amid

the most hygienic conditions possible, the mortality rate is extremely high.

Symptomatology.—There is always an increase in the number of stools during the twenty-four hours. The *temperature* may be normal, or there may be a slight febrile reaction. The child is somewhat restless, particularly at night. The previously mentioned symptoms continue for two, three, or more days, during which time there is a progressive increase in the number of stools. In some cases the onset is insidious, with anorexia, nausea, vomiting, and acute intestinal pain; in others it is sudden, with fever that rises to 104° or 105° F. In those cases with acute onset convulsions occasionally occur, the abdomen is tender, and the child rests upon its back, with the thighs flexed upon the abdomen.

Laboratory Diagnosis.—The stools contain undigested food, and in children fed upon milk they display large "curd-like" masses. By the end of the second or third day the stools emit a decidedly offensive odor. If symptoms develop acutely, the stool is streaked with a yellow or greenish-yellow substance; in other cases the naked-eye appearance of the stool is identical with that described under the milder type (p. 567) of diarrhea.

Microscopically a great many classes of bacteria are found, but practically all are common to the intestinal tract. After acute congestion of the intestinal mucous membrane has developed, pathogenic bacteria (streptococci, staphylococci, bacilli) appear in the feces.

Clinical Course and Duration.—Mild uncomplicated cases go on to recovery in from seven to fourteen days, and the duration of such an attack is materially shortened by the application of judicious treatment. Relapses are common, and it is after one or more relapses that the child is likely to develop true enterocolitis. When acute indigestion with diarrhea is accompanied by extreme prostration or pronounced nervous symptoms, a fatal issue may follow.

DYSENTERY

Pathologic Definition.—A condition in which the mucous membrane of the large intestine presents a general redness, with swelling and the exudation of blood-stained mucus, and there may be many ulcers of varying size and depth. The disease may be due to a specific bacterium (bacillus dysenteriæ), when it is called bacillary dysentery; or to a protozoan parasite (entamœba histolytica), when it is called amebic dysentery or intestinal amebiasis.

General Remarks.—Generally speaking, acute dysentery should be regarded as an epidemic disease, although it occurs endemically in tropical and subtropical climates. (See Alimentary Anaphylaxis.)

Varieties.—Clinically, acute dysentery is classified as—acute bacillary dysentery, acute catarrhal dysentery, and acute sporadic dysentery.

Exciting and Predisposing Factors.—The exciting factors of acute dysentery will be discussed under each special type of the disease described.

Season.—Among the predisposing factors of those types of dysentery supposedly of bacterial origin *season* heads the list, the disease being more common during the summer and autumn months.

Age is a prominent favoring cause in all forms of acute dysentery, and although no age is immune, by far the greatest number of cases are seen during the first ten years, and also between the tenth and twentieth years.

Temperature is not without influence, since many cases develop after sudden climatic changes, as, *e. g.*, the extremes of temperature, humidity, etc.

Climate is a prominent factor, and dysentery is more common in subtropical and tropical districts, although epidemic outbreaks may be seen in the far north during the summer months.

Unhygienic surroundings, as is shown by the epidemic outbreaks seen in prisons, asylums, and armies, doubtless constitute a potent factor in the production of local epidemics.

The **existence of previous maladies** that have lowered the patient's general vitality lends a predisposition to all forms of acute dysentery; consequently dysentery is common when malaria prevails, and persons suffering from gastro-intestinal catarrh are likewise especially subject to infection.

Diet.—The condition is frequent among those who have committed dietary errors.

Acute Bacillary Dysentery

Remarks.—This condition is the epidemic variety of acute dysentery excited by the bacillus dysenteriæ (Shiga). Sporadic cases of bacillary dysentery, however, are by no means unusual in certain portions of the Unites States and Europe, as well as in tropical countries.

Pathologic Definition.—The bacillus of Shiga gives rise to an acute inflammation of the large intestine, which is soon followed by the occurrence of numerous minute ulcers on the intestinal mucosa. The mucous surface is covered with a somewhat tenacious serosanguineous exudate. The exudate and the severity of the ulcerative process vary greatly in different cases.

Varieties.—For convenience of study, bacillary dysentery is divided into two subclasses: (*a*) catarrhal dysentery; (*b*) pseudomembranous dysentery.

Etiology.—According to the researches of Shiga, Kitasato, Flexner, Vedder and Duval, and many other observers, the weight of opinion is that all types of acute catarrhal dysentery are due to the bacillus of Shiga (bacillus dysenteriæ). Most of the observers just mentioned, however, are in doubt as to whether or not the bacillus of Shiga is always an essential factor in the production of epidemic dysentery, but this point cannot readily be determined, since many other bacteria that may at times assume a pathologic rôle are also present in the intestine.

Acute Catarrhal Dysentery

Pathologic Definition.—The large intestine is attacked, and there is hyperplasia, followed later by necrosis of the solitary follicles, with the ultimate formation of small ulcers. There may be an extensive purulent inflammation of the mucous surface of the colon, and the involved area displays numerous superficial ulcers. In exceptional cases the ulcerative process may extend from the large intestine to the ileum.

General Complaint.—The patient feels indisposed for one or more days, during which time he suffers from a somewhat indefinite type of gastro-intestinal catarrh, characterized by a lack of desire for food, slight intestinal pain, and mild diarrhea. Following these prodromes more characteristic symptoms develop, *e. g.*, intestinal colic, which is followed by frequent evacuations of the bowel. At first the stools number from two to ten daily, but they gradually become more and more frequent, and by the third or fourth day the number has increased to

from 20 to 100 a day. The movements are accompanied by tenesmus. With the progress of the disease an almost constant desire to empty the bowel develops, and there is a continuous burning sensation in the rectum.

The patient complains of extreme weakness and of a feeling of faintness and vertigo upon slight exertion. Sufferers from acute dysentery refrain from unnecessary talking, and the voice is harsh and rasping.

Thermic Features.—Early in the disease the temperature may range between 99° and 100° F., and may rarely reach 104° F. by the fifth or the sixth day. Generally speaking, the temperature in dysentery is irregular, but in no way characteristic.

Physical Signs.—Inspection.—The expression is anxious, the cheeks are sunken, the lips are pale and fissured, and the tongue is dry and heavily coated. The extremities present a "waxy appearance;" the abdomen is scaphoid in shape, and the patient, as a rule, rests in the recumbent posture, so as to avoid all possible exertion.

Palpation is generally negative, although in some cases slight tenderness may be elicited over the course of the colon.

The pulse becomes weak, thready, and irregular, the beats numbering 110 to 140 a minute. The skin is cold and clammy, and in those cases in which prostration is extreme, the skin is beaded with drops of perspiration.

Auscultation.—The heart-sounds are weak and rapid. There is a decided gurgling over the abdomen, and particularly along the course of the colon.

Complications.—Monarthritis and polyarthritis frequently develop during the course of dysentery. Manson-Bahr found the bacillus of Shiga present in all their cases investigated. Arthritis develops between the sixth and thirtieth day of the disease. The initial symptom is severe joint pain. Effusion develops rapidly and is profuse. Infection of the conjunctiva without a purulent discharge, but accompanied by pain and lacrimation is occasionally seen. Cyclitis and irido-cyclitis have been reported by Graham. The gastric juice contains some hydrochloric acid, but displays subacidity, and in the pancreatic secretion trypsin is always deficient. Pancreatic achylia is of grave prognostic omen.

Pseudo-membranous vaginitis and cervicitis is rarely caused by the Shiga bacillus.

Laboratory Diagnosis.—At first the number of bowel movements varies from four to ten a day, and the dejecta contain many scybalous masses. Later the stools become mucoid in character, and finally they are mucopurulent, seropurulent, or bloody. The quantity passed at each movement of the bowels may be extremely small—not exceeding from one-half to four drams.

Microscopically, the stool will be found to contain mucus, pus, and blood. If a severe type of infection is present, the watery stool contains many fat-globules and epithelial cells. Cultures from the dejecta will show the presence of the bacillus dysenteriæ in addition to many other bacteria. Crouzon has found that where the predominant organism is a member of the paracolon group there is apt to be involvement of the articular surfaces and conjunctivitis.

The *urine* is scanty, high in color, and of high specific gravity; it is rich in indican, and may display a trace of albumin.

Blood.—Owing to the extreme depletion of liquids from the body the blood becomes concentrated, and during the height of the attack the number of red cells in a cubic millimeter is likely to be above the normal, but during convalescence the usual evidences of secondary anemia are

present, and both the red cells and the hemoglobin are decreased. The bacillus dysenteriæ (Shiga strain) has been recovered from the peripheral circulation.

Serum Diagnosis.—In dilutions of 1:100 to 1:40 the serum of persons suffering from acute bacillary dysentery is capable of agglutinating the bacillus dysenteriæ.

Complications.—Most serious among the complications are to be mentioned severe nervous symptoms, *e. g.*, the various types of delirium, followed by coma; in which class of cases a fatal termination is imminent. Cardiac failure is an occasional complication, as are also general peritonitis, bronchopneumonia, and meningitis.

Differential Diagnosis.—The maladies that simulate acute catarrhal dysentery are extremely few, similar symptoms, however, being occasionally seen in persons suffering from strangulated hemorrhoids, syphilitic disease of the rectum, and rectal epithelioma. In all the previously named conditions there is no history pointing toward an epidemic of dysentery, and the onset is slow, and the course continues over an indefinite period. Physical examination of the rectum will always serve to differentiate organic rectal disease from true catarrhal dysentery. Cultivation of the bacillus dysenteriæ from the stool makes the diagnosis positive.

Duration and Clinical Course.—Mild cases continue for from eight to ten days, whereas in the more severe forms the dysentery may last for three or more weeks. In the majority of cases the disease goes on to recovery in less than four weeks, and probably one-half of all cases are able to be about the room in from ten to fifteen days. If the type of infection during an epidemic is unusually virulent, a high percentage of deaths follows.

Sequelæ.—Relapses are extremely common, and each attack increases the patient's susceptibility to another. Constipation and other gastro-intestinal disturbances are frequently seen to follow bacillary dysentery. Mitchell has seen paraplegia follow as a sequel to bacillary dysentery, and in a few instances stricture of the bowel has been reported

Pseudomembranous Dysentery

Pathologic Definition.—An acute inflammation of the colon with ulceration, caused by the Bacillus dysenteriæ, and characterized by the accumulation of a grayish-yellow exudate upon the mucous surface of the colon, with necrosis of the epithelial cells. In mild cases this process may be limited to the upper surface of the folds of the colon. In virulent types of the disease the deeper layers of the bowel may be involved, and in this class of cases the mucous membrane is yellowish-brown in color. The entire colon may be implicated. As a rule, the disease attacks the flexures of the colon and the rectum. Extensive sloughing, with the formation of large ulcers, may take place.

General Remarks.—This particular type of bacillary dysentery is seen more often in the tropics than in temperate climates, although epidemics and sporadic cases occur in practically all parts of the civilized world.

Exciting and Predisposing Factors.—The *exciting* cause is the bacillus dysenteriæ.

Among the *predisposing factors* should be mentioned **age,** young adults being most susceptible to the disease; it may, however, be found at any time of life.

Temperature also predisposes to this type of dysentery, and a warm climate probably facilitates infection, either from the drinking-water or

from the ingestion of improper foods. Persons residing in barracks, asylums, and homes are not infrequently attacked, and those dwelling in cities are more often affected than are those residing in rural districts.

Season.—*Summer* and *autumn* appear to furnish the greatest number of cases in subtropical districts.

Principal Complaint.—There may be a history of some gastro-intestinal or obscure febrile condition antedating the attack of dysentery, but the rule is for acute pseudomembranous dysentery to begin abruptly, with the early development of severe local and general symptoms. The patient often gives a history of a mild chill, or, in rare instances, of a distinct rigor. Following the chill the patient observes that his face is flushed. The temperature will be found to register 100° to 103° F. within the first few hours. There is great weakness early, and in children delirium develops within the first forty-eight hours, whereas in adults nervous manifestations appear later. There is diarrhea, the stools numbering ten to fifty or more a day. Cramp-like abdominal pain is present, followed later by rectal tenesmus.

Physical Signs.—Inspection.—The face is flushed at first, but later there is a decided pallor of both the skin and the mucous surfaces. The tongue at first is red and glazed, but later may become brown and deeply fissured. The cheeks are sunken and the expression is anxious. The patient hesitates to move, and his respirations are hurried and shallow.

Palpation.—During the first twenty-four hours the skin is hot and dry, but later, in severe types of infection, the skin may be cold and clammy and beaded with perspiration. There may or may not be tenderness, and, as the result of tympany, the abdominal wall is tense at times. The pulse soon becomes weak, rapid, small, dicrotic, and compressible.

Percussion.—In selected cases a tympanitic note may be elicited over the course both of the colon and of the small intestine.

Auscultation.—The heart-sounds are accelerated at first, but soon become feeble, rapid, and irregular. Decided gurgling is heard over the course of the colon and near the umbilicus.

Laboratory Diagnosis.—The discharges from the bowel are numerous, and with the unaided eye they are seen to contain shreds of sloughing tissue, and even portions of casts of the lower bowel. These shreds of tissue are usually milky-white in color, but if there has been hemorrhage from the intestinal mucous membrane, they are dark or brownish, and emit a fetid odor. Blood, pus, and mucus are also present in the stool.

Microscopically, the dejecta are found to contain shreds of mucous membrane, many epithelial cells, red blood-cells, blood-crystals, large numbers of leukocytes, and pus. Stained specimens of the muusc from the dejecta will display a profusion of bacteria. Slender bacilli, resembling bacillus typhosus in morphology (bacillus dysenteriæ), and colon bacilli are present in great numbers. cultures from the mucous or bloody exudate will develop the bacillus dysenteriæ, which organism, when properly grown (see Widal reaction), will be found to agglutinate with the serum of persons suffering from this type of dysentery.

Summary of Diagnosis.—The diagnosis is made positive by the recognition of but few symptoms, for example: (*a*) The character of the stools and the presence of large shreds of brownish membrane; (*b*) the early development of nervous symptoms; (*c*) the tendency toward circulatory collapse, and (*d*) a positive serum reaction. All these serve to distinguish pseudomembranous dysentery from other maladies in which diarrhea is a symptom. The use of the sigmoidoscope enabled Manson-Bahr and Gregg to make a positive diagnosis in 58 of 100 cases studied.

Complications.—Among these, special mention should be made of intestinal perforation, with the subsequent development of localized or generalized peritonitis. Acute ulcerative endocarditis and pericarditis have been known to complicate this form of dysentery. Pleurisy, acute parenchymatous nephritis, bronchopneumonia and liver abscess may also develop. Myocarditis may occur in cases tending toward recovery.

Clinical Course.—The mortality rate is extremely high, many cases terminating fatally as the result of the profound toxemia. Permanent recovery may follow, although in these cases the disease runs a chronic course and restoration to health is protracted.

Secondary Pseudomembranous Dysentery

Pathologic Definition.—A disease characterized by the formation of a false membrane on the intestinal mucosa.

Predisposing Factors.—Any condition that impoverishes the patient's general nutrition predisposes to the development of secondary pseudomembranous dysentery. The diseases during the course of which it is most likely to develop are: pneumonia, diabetes insipidus, pulmonary tuberculosis, chronic interstitial nephritis, chronic parenchymatous nephritis, gastric carcinoma, chronic suppuration, hepatic cirrhosis, essential anemia, and valvular heart disease. In these conditions the dysentery belongs to the group of terminal infections.

Paradysentery

During 1918 and 1919 an epidemic of this condition occurred in two Swedish sanatoriums. Karstrom* refers to this condition as febrile diarrhea. The epidemic returned the following year and was finally stamped out by the use of autogenous vaccine. The paradysentery bacilli concerned in this epidemic were of the Y and the Kruse E types.

Chronic Dysentery

Pathologic Definition.—A chronic catarrhal and ulcerative condition of the colon, secondary either to acute bacillary or to amebic dysentery. In the majority of cases there are ulcerative changes in the colon, and in certain cases these ulcerations show a tendency toward healing after an acute attack of dysentery, whereas in other cases there is a tendency for the ulcer to heal and form a constriction of the bowel as the result of the formation of scar tissue. At the site of the ulcers the intestinal mucosa is deeply pigmented, and displays a slate-gray or blackish color. There is generally some hypertrophy of the submucous and muscular coats of the colon, and the lumen of the bowel is frequently narrowed. In atypical cases actual ulceration of the intestine does not occur, although there is extensive formation of fibrous tissue, with some puckering of the mucous membrane.

Exciting and Predisposing Factors.—Chronic dysentery is usually secondary to one or more acute attacks. The disease often follows an unusually mild grade of amebic dysentery.

Richet,† has recently demonstrated an anaphylactic origin of gastroenteritis. In all of this writer's clinical data, loss of flesh was a conspucious factor. It commonly occurs in conjunction with progressive weakness and dyspnœa. The anaphylatic phase of dysentery (either acute or chronic) is supported through the fact that in selected cases the withdrawal of certain foods is followed by a disappearance of the annoying

* Upsala Lakareforenings Forhandlinger, Feb. 1, 1921, 26, No. 1–2.
† Bulletin Medical, Paris, June, 1920.

symptoms. Anaphylaxis following the administration of milk to infants is supported through the fact that with the withdrawal of milk, and the substitution of another food, is rapidly followed by improvement.

"Alimentary anaphylaxis" should be considered in connection with urticaria, asthma, and selected cases of hay fever. A further proof of alimentary anaphylaxis is the one digestive juice which transforms albumin, and annuls its anaphylaxis-producing properties. This therapeutic test is of value in diagnosis.

Among the *predisposing factors* are *age* and *sex*, the disease being more common in adult males than in women or children.

Principal Complaint.—The patient complains of moderate prostration, loss of flesh, mental hebetude, and restlessness; when questioned closely, he will state that he is free from pain and rectal tenesmus. The majority of patients with chronic dysentery suffer from acute exacerbations of the condition every three to twelve months, and at such times there may be intestinal pain and tenesmus. The average number of stools is from three to twelve daily, but this is controlled largely by the character of the food taken. Much undigested food escapes with the stool, and when the patient is upon a diet rich in starches, the stool is white and covered with froth. During an acute exacerbation, there may be blood and pus in the stool. Intervals of constipation are fairly common, and the degree of constipation that exists in a given case depends upon the character and location of the disease of the colon. The patient may complain that he has a more or less constant sense of fullness in the abdomen, but this seldom becomes painful.

The appetite is fairly good, although in some instances it is appreciably impaired. The patient often maintains that the character of food taken in no way influences the dysentery. When chronic dysentery has extended over a prolonged period, mental hebetude is apparent, and late in the disease the patient may become stupid.

Thermic Features.—The temperature is normal, or possibly slightly below normal in the morning hours, except during an acute exacerbation, when there may be mild but irregular fever.

Physical Signs.—Inspection.—There are evidences of emaciation, and the general appearance is that of asthenia. The skin is pale, and at times yellowish or dusky; the tongue is clear at one time, bright red and glazed (beefy) at another, and probably heavily furred at the next examination.

Palpation.—The surface of the skin is harsh and dry, and always feels cool. With the progress of the disease the pulse gradually weakens and later becomes rapid, irregular, and dicrotic upon slight exertion.

Summary of Diagnosis.—The diagnosis rests first upon the history of a long-standing condition and the fact that there have occasionally been acute exacerbations. The number of stools a day—from four to ten—serves as a positive clinical evidence of chronic dysentery.

Differential Diagnosis.—Chronic dysentery is to be distinguished from *tuberculous ulceration* of the mucous coat of the colon. The distinctive differences between tuberculous enteritis and chronic dysentery are: (1) In the former condition there is commonly a history of tuberculosis of the lung or of other portions of the body; (2) tubercle bacilli are present in the feces. The intestinal symptoms of pellagra are distinguished by the presence of skin changes and dementia.

Duration and Clinical Course.—The duration of chronic dysentery varies between two and ten or more years. Dysentery, when it has not existed for a year, is generally considered as subacute. Cases will be

encountered in which a dysenteric condition has lasted over a period of thirty or more years, and yet such patients, although never enjoying good health, are able to go about, although they are unable to do any form of labor. The duration of chronic dysentery is also influenced by judicious treatment, a number of cases terminating favorably in from one and one-half to three years.

Complications.—The complications are practically the same as those described for acute dysentery. Death, as a rule, results from the development of some intercurrent condition, *e. g.*, bronchopneumonia, pulmonary tuberculosis, and chronic kidney or liver disease. Chronic gastritis is a frequent complication.

ASIATIC CHOLERA

Definition.—An acute infectious disease that may occur either sporadically or epidemically, excited by the bacillus choleræ (Vibrio choleræ Asiaticæ), and characterized clinically by copious watery discharges from the bowel, vomiting, intestinal and muscular cramps, suppression of the excretions, and collapse.



FIG. 290.—THE BACILLUS OF CHOLERA (FROM THE MOUTH); × 1000 (Günther).

Incubation Period.—This varies greatly, and may be from a few hours to four or five days.

Clinical Types.—(1) **Premonitory Diarrhea.**—During the prodromal period the patient is, comparatively speaking, well, although he may exhibit slight local symptoms, *e. g.*, nausea, abdominal discomfort, and occasionally slight pains in the abdomen. The initial symptoms are somewhat severe; languor is experienced at this time, and the patient becomes easily fatigued.

(2) **Mild Type—Cholerine.**—In this type the symptoms are extremely mild, and in many cases they are less severe than in cholera morbus (see p. 611). Although the general clinical picture of cholerine simulates that of true cholera, none of the symptoms are pronounced. Mild muscular cramps, slight prostration, a trace of albumin in the urine, and a cold, clammy skin, particularly of the hands and feet, are quite characteristic. It is important to bear in mind that in the mild type of cholera the stools are not characteristic, but, on the contrary, are feculent in character. In uncomplicated cases the duration seldom exceeds from seven to ten days.

(3) **Usual Types.**—The general clinical picture of this type will be given as the principal complaint.

(4) **Foudroyant or Asphyxic Type.**—In this type the disease develops suddenly, and the symptoms are so severe that the patient dies within a few hours. Vomiting and purging may or may not be present. The virulence of this type of infection is the only explanation offered for this clinical phase of the disease. **Cholera sicca** should also be included under this type.

Exciting and Predisposing Factors.—Bacteriology.—An essential factor in the development of cholera is infection by bacillus choleræ,

and this bacterium may be isolated from the intestinal contents and from the watery discharges of persons ill with or dead of the disease.

Infection from Without.—The bacillus choleræ is found not only in the dejecta of persons suffering from the disease, but has also been isolated from drinking-water, and in 1892 Fränkel detected it in flowing water during certain epidemic outbreaks. Lieut.-Col. Griet* in a bacteriologic study of the tissues collected from 271 post mortems, recovered the comma bacillus from the lung, wall of the heart, liver, spleen, lymphatic glands, and the brain.

Sellards and Strum† found the Pfeiffer bacillus commonly present.

Geographic Distribution.—Those residing in the tropics are far more likely to develop the disease than are those in temperate and subtropical districts. Cholera tends to spread along the lines of commerce, consequently persons residing at or near the sea-coast and at prominent ports are especially prone to acquire the disease. Excessive humidity has been said to cause a predisposition of cholera, and a high temperature certainly favors the development of the spirillum.

Season.—Cholera prevails epidemically in subtropical districts during the warm months, although an epidemic may be continued well into autumn. The majority of European and American epidemics developed late during the summer months, and ended with the approach of cold weather.

Individual Susceptibility.—Intestinal catarrh from whatever cause and particularly that following the ingestion of unripe fruits, and the like, materially predisposes the individual to infection with the bacillus choleræ. Rigid sanitation exercises a great influence, and those living amid such environment are less likely to develop the disease than are others less fortunately surrounded.

Age and Sex.—Age and sex appear to exercise but little, if any. influence upon the development of cholera.

Previous Attack.—Persons having suffered from a previous attack of cholera are, as a rule, not immune to the disease.

Clinical Picture.—(1) **Usual Type, First Stage.**—The *stools* are very frequent and painless. In *cholera sicca* the serous diarrhea is absent, death soon taking place. *Gastric symptoms* develop early, and consist of vomiting and intense thirst. The patient has no desire for food; his *tongue* at first is moist and coated, but later, if much liquid has been abstracted from the body, the tongue is dry and parched. He experiences a feeling of pressure or of discomfort in the abdomen, but real pain is unusual. Intestinal cramp and rectal tenesmus are occasionally seen. *Prostration* is extreme.

Nervous Symptoms.—The *mental faculties* may be retained until near death, but, as a rule, the patient is apathetic, or delirium may develop and coma ensue.

The *muscular symptoms* are severe and occur early, cramps affecting the various muscles (calves of the legs and feet) being perhaps one of the most distressing symptoms in a mild attack of cholera, although they are also severe in the more violent types of infection.

Thermic Features.—Ordinarily, the temperature, as taken by the axilla, falls to a subnormal level during the first hour, usually reaching 96° F. At the same time the rectal temperature will be found to vary between 101° and 105° F.

* Edinburg Med. Jour., July, 1919.
† Bull. Johns Hopkins Hosp., Nov., 1919.

Cardiovascular Features.—These form a prominent part in the clinical picture, and are given at length under Physical Signs.

Physical Signs.—Inspection.—The expression is anxious, the face is pinched, the cheeks are sunken, the lips are pale and fissured, whereas the skin and tongue are dry and wrinkled. The eyes have a peculiar glare, and, owing to the high grade of cyanosis, the complexion is dusky or bluish. Cyanosis of the fingers is conspicuous.

Palpation.—The skin is cold, dry, and rough to the feel. The abdomen is, as a rule, soft, but may be tense. Pressure over the calf muscles excites discomfort, and at times pain. The reflexes are diminished or absent.

Early during the disease the pulse is rapid,—120 to 140 beats a minute,—and when the degree of liquid excreted from the body is large, it becomes smaller and smaller, until at last it is almost imperceptible.

Auscultation.—Owing to concentration of the blood the heart action becomes very rapid at the onset of the disease, and there may be distressing palpitation. Later the heart-sounds again become increased in frequency, the muscular quality being now absent, the sounds growing less and less distinct, until venous stasis occurs. Owing to dryness of the vocal cords and the other organs of speech the voice becomes feeble and husky.

2. **Algid Stage (Ordinary Type).**—During this stage of cholera the clinical manifestations described under the first stage of the disease are practically all present, but are appreciably intensified. The patient may be regarded as being in a state of asthenia, and the pulse is imperceptible, the cyanosis extreme, the skin and extremities very cold, the respirations shallow and frequent. Coma is likely to develop within a short time.

The copious watery discharges present in the first stage are here absent, although there is often a continuous dribbling of serous material from the rectum. No urine is excreted during this stage.

3. **Stage of Reaction.**—Reaction may follow the first stage of cholera, in which case there is an amelioration of all the symptoms and the patient goes on to recovery in from ten days to a few weeks. The kidneys again functionate, the cutaneous and rectal temperature approaches normal, the mucous surfaces become moistened, the heart action less rapid, the pulse stronger, and the voice clearer. It is to be borne in mind that reaction may possibly develop during the second stage.

Cutaneous complications may develop during this stage, and among these are purpuric, roseolar, macular, and erythematous eruptions. The clinician should be ever alert for the development of serious nervous symptoms of a uremic character, since at this stage acute nephritis may be seen.

Laboratory Diagnosis.—All the secretions of the body are diminished, *e. g.*, there are scanty sputum and an absence of saliva, and the urine is diminished or suppressed during the first and second stages of cholera. During the stage of reaction the flow of urine is increased in favorable cases, although such urine is at first albuminous. If true nephritis develops, the urine will be found to contain an abundance of albumin and many casts. Leukocytes and red blood-cells may be present.

Stools.—At the onset the number of stools is great. Within a short time the stool presents a peculiar "rice-water" appearance. *Microscopically*, the small granules floating in the watery dejecta are composed of epithelial cells from the intestine. A *bacteriologic study* of the stool reveals the presence of bacillus choleræ (Fig. 290). The colon bacillus and other bacteria common to the intestinal tract are also present.

Blood.—If the number of watery discharges from the bowel has been large, the blood becomes concentrated, and the number of red cells in a cubic millimeter will be found to range between 8,000,000 and 12,000,000. The hemoglobin percentage of such blood is above the normal. After convalescence has been established the number of red cells falls to the normal, and later a decided anemia occurs.

The *vomitus*, which is also of the "rice-water" type, contains the bacillus choleræ.

Summary of Diagnosis.—A history of exposure or of residence in a district where cholera is epidemic, or even endemic, is of great importance. The diagnosis is based largely upon the character of the stools and of the vomitus, together with the existence of muscular cramps, a small, rapid pulse, and the early tendency toward collapse, marked by subnormal temperature, anxious expression, mental dullness, and coma. Recovery of the bacillus choleræ from the dejecta and from the vomitus renders the diagnosis positive, but the acme of the disease is often reached before such cultural studies can be completed.

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS BETWEEN ASIATIC CHOLERA AND CHOLERA MORBUS

Asiatic Cholera	Cholera Morbus
1. History of an epidemic or of exposure in tropical districts.	1. History of dietetic errors, *e. g.*, eating unripe fruit or decomposed foods.
2. Diarrhea and vomiting are not accompanied by severe intestinal pain.	2. Intestinal colic a prominent symptom.
3. First vomitus contains particles of food, but soon resembles rice-water.	3. Vomitus contains food, and mucus may be present.
4. Vomitus contains the bacillus choleræ.	4. Bacillus choleræ absent.
5. Stools, although frequent, are without odor, and resemble rice-water in appearance.	5. Odor very offensive, stools feculent.
6. Rectal tenesmus extremely uncommon.	6. Rectal tenesmus may be prominent.
7. Collapse develops early and coma is common.	7. Collapse develops later and coma is unusual.
8. Axillary temperature becomes subnormal.	8. Temperature seldom below normal.
9. Anuria the rule.	9. Anuria very rare.
10. Complications somewhat common.	10. Complications unusual.

Clinical Course.—Cholera terminates in recovery in practically all cases. The asphyxic type, which represents the other extreme of the disease, usually terminates in death. The mortality rate is found to vary greatly in different epidemics, ranging between 20 and 80 per cent. During the algid period, and still more often during the period of convalescence, nephritis and lung complications increase the gravity of the disease.

Cholera is extremely fatal in the asthenic, in those suffering from chronic disease, in alcoholics, and in the aged. The mortality rate is greatly diminished in those epidemics in which it is possible to institute treatment early.

Complications.—Complications are, as a rule, due to secondary infection. Septicemia and pyemia may develop, and pseudomembrane formation occasionally involves the mucous surfaces, *e. g.*, colon, throat, and vagina. In those cases in which the nervous symptoms are prominent bronchopneumonia is common, whereas pleurisy and parotitis are occasionally seen.

SPRUE (PSILOSIS)

Pathologic Definition.—A chronic disease characterized by atrophy of the walls of the bowel. The essential lesion is an ulceration of the small intestines which may lead to complete atrophy of the villi.

Exciting and Predisposing Factors.—Bahr, among other writers, contends that sprue is dependent upon infection with a yeast fungus (Monilia albicans); however, clinicians are not in accord regarding this etiological factor. Residence in the tropics is the chief predisposing factor. Recently much experimental work has been done to prove the etiologic importance of monilia psilosis; all of which points rather clearly to the incrimination of this and allied fungi (Ashfordi)* as the probable exciting factor in this disease.†

Clinical Features.—Manson groups these as irregular action of the bowels, with characteristic stools, *i. e.*, stools that are copious, pale, drab, frothy looking, and that emit an offensive but sweetish odor.

The patient becomes cachectic and the skin is somewhat bronzed; mental hebetude and loss of strength are common. A characteristic feature of sprue is soreness of the mouth and of the rectum. Sprue is not essentially a fatal disease. Spruce resembles pernicious anemia.‡

TYPHOID FEVER

Pathologic Definition.—An infectious disease characterized by congestion, proliferation and ulceration of Peyer's patches and the solitary follicles. There are associated bronchitis, enlargement of the spleen, congestion and moderate enlargement of the liver, and a tendency toward such complicating conditions as bronchopneumonia, nephritis, intestinal perforation, and phlebitis.

Clinical Remarks.—There is bacteriemia excited by infection with the bacillus typhosus, characterized clinically by an incubation period of from ten to twenty-five days, and by three stages:

(*a*) *Invasion*—a gradual daily rise in temperature, headache, lassitude, muscular pains, weakness, nose-bleed, constipation, slight diarrhea.

(*b*) *Fastigium*—marked by continued fever, characteristic eruption, Widal serum-reaction, diarrhea, dilated pupils, pronounced nervous symptoms, abdominal tenderness, tympanites, and a tendency toward complications (intestinal hemorrhage, intestinal perforation, nephritis, and broncho-pneumonia).

(*c*) *Stage of defervescence*—in which there is a gradual decline in the fever and an amelioration of all symptoms, followed by convalescence.

Exciting and Predisposing Factors.—Bacteriology.—The bacillus typhosus is the exciting cause of typhoid fever, although there are certain steps in the "postulates of Koch" that have not yet been completed, *e. g.*, the inoculation of an animal with a given organism, known to have excited the disease in another animal suffering from or dead of the disease, and recovering this organism from the second animal's tissues after inoculation, and at a time when it displays the symptoms of the disease in question.

Loris-Melikoff in studying the anaërobic bacteria of the intestines in typhoid fever found the bacillus satillitis almost constantly present. This bacillus is agglutinated by serum from typhoid patients (1:100).

Another anaërobic organism commonly found associated with the bacillus satillitis is the bacillus perfringens. This organism, like the

*L. W. Smith—Jour. Am. Med. Associ., Nov. 15th, 1924, page 1549.
†Manson-Bahr., Lancet, 206: 1148, 1924.
‡Elders, Lancet, 1: 61-110. Jan. 10, 1925, p. 75.

bacillus satillitis, is capable of producing indol and phenol, as well as hyperemia and congestion of Peyer's patches.

It has been demonstrated that the bacillus perfringens produces ulceration of the intestine. These anaërobic bacteria appear clinically to be potent factors in the production of typhoid fever. Confirmatory experiments are needed in order that we accept these organisms as exciting or contributing factors in the production of the many signs and symptoms that go to make true typhoid fever.

The Bacillus edematis maligni and Bacillus sporogenes have also been found by Loris-Melikoff in the dejecta of typhoid fever subjects.

Distribution of the Organism in the Human Body.—The bacillus typhosus is found in the lymph-glands, the contents of the intestines, the spleen, the liver, the blood, the bile, the rose-spots, the urine, the sputum, and the nasal secretions. (See Laboratory Diagnosis, p. 807.)

Distribution Outside of the Body.—The bacillus cannot readily maintain a permanent existence outside of the body. From time to time, however, the conditions indispensable to the growth and development of the bacillus typhosus prevail, and corresponding with such periods, more or less extensive epidemic outbreaks of the disease may occur. It is known that the typhoid bacillus may retain its virulence for from seven to fourteen days in water. It disappears from water after this time, however, on account of the saprophytic organisms present. Multiplication of the bacilli may take place in water, in milk (very rapidly), and in the soil, where, under favorable conditions, they may live for an indefinite period. According to the experiments of M. P. Ravenel, bacillus typhosus was not killed even by exposure to the temperature of liquid air—240° F. below zero.

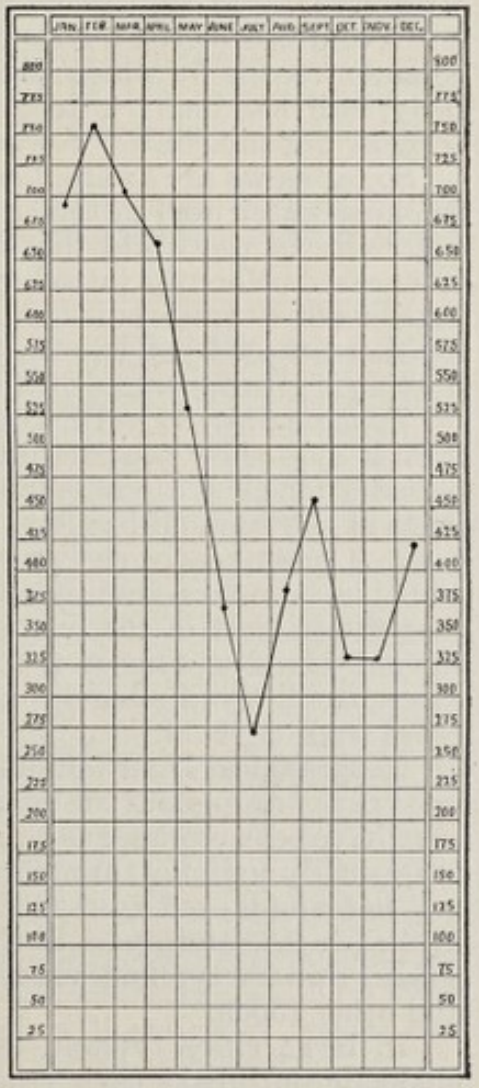


FIG. 291.—AVERAGE NUMBER OF CASES OF TYPHOID FEVER OCCURRING DURING EACH YEAR. STATISTICAL ANALYSIS OF 68,943 CASES (Sallom).

In a paper entitled "History of Typhoid Fever," one of us (Anders) set forth the evidence offered by the different epidemics that occurred in armies in Europe, Africa, and America, and showed that typhoid fever did not remain in a camp when all the sick were removed, the bedding and linen used by such camp being destroyed by fire or left behind, and the healthy members of the army removed to new quarters. These facts indicate strongly that typhoid bacilli must have the power of existing upon clothing, and that they may be transmitted from such clothing to healthy persons, and in such persons excite the disease.

It has been shown that in armies the number of cases of typhoid was greatly reduced when all the patients suffering from the disease were

safely screened from the attacks of flies and other insects. Much evidence has been adduced that goes to support the belief that the house-fly acts as a carrier of the organisms concerned in the production of typhoid fever. The habits of the fly, particularly that of alighting upon dejecta, soiled linen, and food-stuffs, would certainly appear to be a possible means of infection, and one of the methods by which this disease is transmitted.

Dejecta known to be rich in typhoid bacilli, when thrown into small streams, may in turn find their way to the water-supply of towns and cities, and this method, although it was formerly believed to be the most common means by which bacillus typhosus gained access to the human body, still has many ardent supporters, yet bacteriologic research contributes but moderately toward strengthening this orginal view.

So far as we are aware, bacillus typhosus has never been found in the drinking-water used in the city of Philadelphia, yet there is probably no other city in the world that furnished so large a percentage of typhoid fever cases before the introduction of filtered water. Studies have shown that bacillus typhosus is unable to live at present, in Philadelphia water for more than from two to ten days, and that the number of bacilli present is greatly diminished after the first forty-eight hours.

Typhoid Carriers.—Persons who have had typhoid fever and recovered from it may show the exciting organism of the disease for an indefinite period after all symptoms have subsided. Some persons, doubtless, are hosts of the typhoid bacillus, while being themselves immune to the disease. Consequently such persons at times act as carriers of the bacilli and thus become responsible for the spread of the disease. It is believed that the habitat of the organism in the body of such carriers is chiefly the gall-bladder, whence they escaped by way of the bowels. In some cases bacilli are discharged in the urine for many years after convalescence from typhoid.

Geographical Distribution.—Typhoid fever is found to prevail, for the most part, throughout the temperate zone. Epidemics of the disease, however, have been reported as far north as Norway and Iceland. Typhoid fever is unusually common throughout the northern portion of the United States and in Canada, but is less frequently seen along the Gulf of Mexico and in the southwestern part of this coutry. The disease is far less common today, due to typhoid vaccination, and to careful supervision of milk and other foods.

In large cities typhoid fever prevails endemically, with one or two epidemic outbreaks each year. Epidemics in the rural districts are not uncommon, but the disease seldom prevails endemically in such sections.

Season.—Available statistics go to show that the greatest number of cases are reported during the summer and autumn months—August, September, and October. More cases are frequently seen to occur during the late autumn and early winter months than during the spring. Sallom's analysis of 68,943 reported cases of typhoid fever for Philadelphia gives the largest number of cases as reported in February (see Fig. 291). The epidemology of typhoid fever is well shown in the accompanying chart (Fig. 292).

Temperature figures prominently as a predisposing factor, since epidemics of typhoid fever are unusually common after a long spell of hot and dry weather. It must be remembered that extensive epidemics of typhoid fever may occur at any time during the year, and that the so-called "house epidemics," developing in hotels, apartment-houses, colleges, asylums, etc., are but slightly influenced by season.

Clinical Varieties.—(1) The **usual form** of typhoid fever will display a *temperature* of from 100° to 103° F., and a pulse of from 100 to 120, which later tends to become dicrotic. The *tongue* is at first moderately coated, but this coating grows more intense with the progress of the disease, and by the seventh to the tenth day the organ is heavily furred. *Constipation* is noted during the first two to four days, when it is relieved by a moderate grade of diarrhea, the stools numbering from two to ten a day.

Some mental dullness, continuous headache, and mild delirium at night may be present. A slight amount of abdominal tenderness and tympany may also be present late during the first week. The *spleen* is enlarged, readily palpable and tender, and in from seven to nine days the characteristic rose-spots appear over the lower portion of the trunk and abdomen.

From the seventh to the fourteenth days mental dullness is more marked; the headache, which is prominent during the first week, gradually

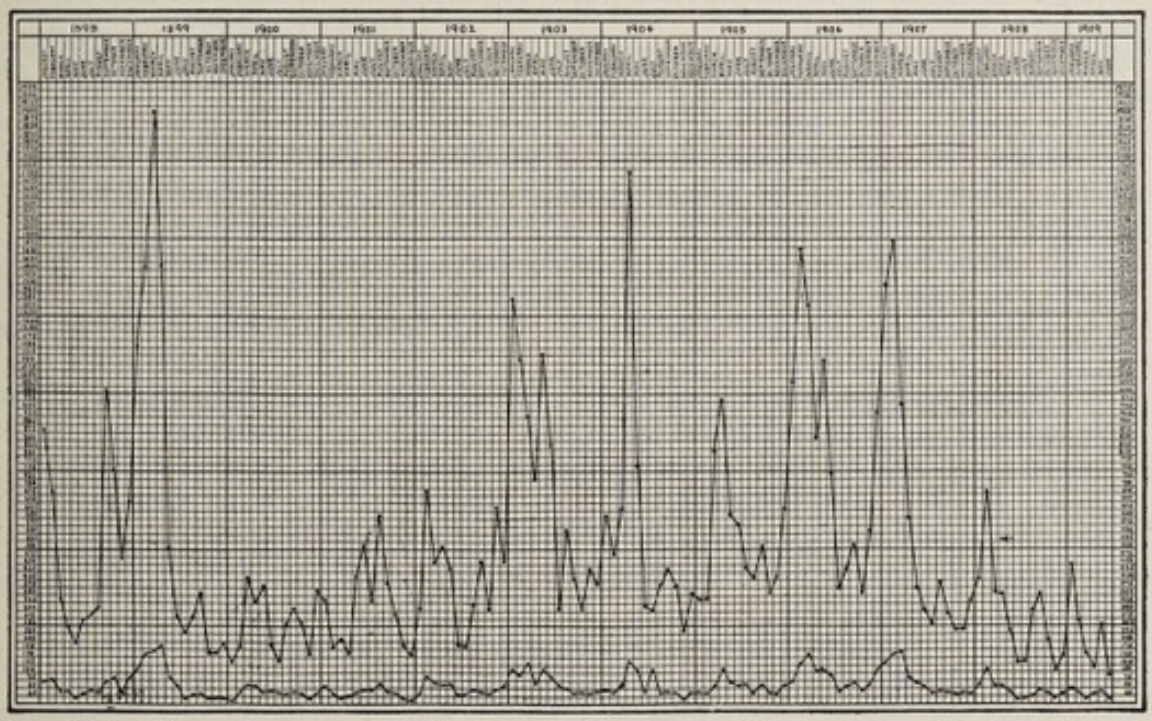


FIG. 292.—CHART SHOWING THE NUMBER OF CASES AND MORTALITY OF TYPHOID FEVER BY MONTHS. STATISTICAL ANALYSIS OF 68,943 CASES (Sallom).

subsides, the pulse quickens, the temperature ranges from one to two degrees higher than during the preceding week, and tympanites is present. The mouth is dry and the tongue is dry and parched, the teeth and lips are covered with sordes, and all the symptoms previously described are intensified.

From the fourteenth to the twenty-first days the fever of 100° to 102° shows a moderate decline, although the pulse remains at about the same rate (90 to 110). Weakness is now extreme, and emaciation is noticeable.

Between the twenty-first and the twenty-eighth days the fever usually falls gradually to near the normal, the diarrhea subsides, the quantity of urine is increased, abdominal distention from tympanites disappears, the mouth becomes moist, the tongue clears, the patient becomes rational, and, in addition, develops a ravenous appetite.

This variety of typhoid fever is, as a rule, free from complications, although it may be well to state, in this connection, that no case of typhoid

fever is so mild that serious complications may not develop during the third and fourth weeks of the disease.

(2) **Severe Form.**—In this variety all the symptoms described under the mild form of typhoid are intensified from the onset. The temperature soon reaches 104° to 106° F., the tongue is dry early, and by the second week becomes brown and deeply fissured; its surface may be bleeding, and in fact the organ may be coiled upon itself well back in the oral cavity. The fever remains high, and at times does not reach the normal level before the beginning of the sixth or the seventh week.

Nervous symptoms develop early, and carphologia, subsultus tendinum, and low muttering delirium are present. The urine and feces may be expelled involuntarily, and coma in many instances ends the scene.

The *pulse* becomes rapid by the end of the first week, and by the fourteenth day it is often 140 a minute, displaying a tendency toward dicrotism. Diarrhea develops early, although obstinate constipation is an equally serious symptom.

The *heart-sounds* are weak and distant, and suggest myocardial degeneration. There is a distinct *bronchitis*, and numerous fine râles are audible over the greater portion of the lungs posteriorly. The *urine* is scanty, of high color, of high specific gravity, and contains albumin.

The mortality rate in this variety of typhoid fever is extremely high, and in those cases that tend toward recovery convalescence is always protracted and complications are extremely common.

(3) **Mild Form.**—In this variety the disease seldom continues for more than two weeks, and by the twenty-first day at the longest the patient is able to leave his room. The onset is insidious and all the symptoms are mild.

The *temperature* seldom, if ever, exceeds 103° F., and in many cases ranges between 99° and 101.1° F. The *eruption*, a characteristic symptom, is, as a rule, scanty, and there may be but a single crop of rose-spots. Splenic enlargement is moderate, and slight tenderness is elicited only upon firm pressure. There is but slight, if any, tenderness over the cecum, a more constant sign being that of distinct gurgling in the region of McBurney's point.

The *Widal* serum reaction is present in the majority of these cases, but may not appear until the third or the fifth week of the disease, or even after convalescence is well established.

(4) **Latent (Walking) Typhoid.**—The symptoms described during the first week of the usual form of typhoid are so mild in this type that they do not even arouse suspicion as to the nature of the disease until the second or third week, when certain of the symptoms of typhoid appear. Many of these cases go undetected until some complication arises, when a careful study reveals the true nature of the condition in question. The *eruption* is said to appear in the majority of cases of walking typhoid, and this sign, together with the *Widal serum-reaction*, may be the only feature to indicate the nature of the malady in question.

When a patient suffering from walking typhoid has been permitted to go about his duties until the tenth or fifteenth day of the disease, he may then develop characteristic symptoms of the usual form of typhoid, and, indeed, it not infrequently happens that these patients at this time present many of the symptoms known to the severer form of the disease.

Complications frequently develop in cases of latent typhoid when the disease was not detected until the second or third week, but when the true nature of the condition is recognized early, cases of latent typhoid usually make an early and uninterrupted recovery.

(5) **Typhoid Fever of the Aged.**—When typhoid fever develops in persons after the fifth decade, it is characterized by mild fever, marked cardiac weakness, and a decided tendency to develop complications. The symptomatology of this form of typhoid is misleading, since the eruption and splenic tenderness are often absent. The Widal serum-reaction, however, is fairly constant.

(6) **Cerebral Typhoid.**—Here the disease is ushered in by intense headache, facial neuralgia, nausea, vomiting, photophobia, twitching of the muscles, rigidity of the cervical muscles, with some retraction of the head and, rarely, convulsions. Extreme stupor and coma may end the scene.

This form of the disease is to be distinguished from epidemic meningitis, the distinction being made positive by lumbar puncture or by the Widal serum-reaction; spinal puncture is negative in typhoid fever, whereas the Widal serum-reaction is negative in epidemic meningitis and positive in typhoid fever. Blood cultures may show typhoid bacilli.

(7) **Laryngeal Typhoid.**—This type of typhoid infection pursues a mild course, the invasion being unusually gradual; abdominal symptoms, *e. g.*, tympanites, tenderness, and diarrhea, may be slight or absent. The fever is not high, and the degree of prostration is only moderate.

Between the second and fourth weeks involvement of the larynx generally occurs, characterized by harshness of the voice, a hard, rasping cough, some soreness of the throat, and at times dyspnea. *Ulceration* may be present on the mucous surface of the larynx, epiglottis, or adjacent structures. (See Tonsillotyphoid, p. 801.) *Cultures* made directly from the ulcerating mucous surface, as a rule, show the presence of typhoid bacilli.

There are authentic records of aphthous patches having appeared on the mucous membrane of the mouth and nose, the result of typhoid infection. Perforation of the nasal septum may result from typhoid ulceration.

Typhoid of the upper respiratory tract, as a rule, tends toward recovery, the most imminent danger being infiltration of the larynx and interference with respiration.

(8) **Tonsillotyphoid.**—During the course of typhoid infection the only evidence of such lesions may be an infiltration of the mucous membrane of the tonsils. Small kidney-shaped, superficial ulcers may occur on the buccal mucous membrane from the seventh to the tenth day of the disease, and may be present in any clinical variety of typhoid fever. These ulcerations are usually bilateral, located on the fauces just above and to the outer side of the tonsil (so-called "Bouveret" ulcer). The concavity of the ulcer is usually directed toward the median line, the ulcer varying greatly in size from ¼ to ¾ inch in length, and from ⅓ to ½ inch in width. Ordinarily these ulcerated surfaces are covered by a grayish slough. Their duration varies from that of a few days to one week. Clinically they are of diagnostic importance, since they are present before the appearance of the Widal reaction in about 5 per cent. of cases. Bouveret ulcers have been reported by Johanns and Devic, who observe them as a precursor of typical typhoid relapses. Tonsillotyphoid is, as a rule, mild in nature, and commonly runs a short course, with a slight tendency to develop complications.

In all these special types of typhoid infection of the throat and upper respiratory tract the Widal serum-reaction and the recovery of the bacillus typhosus from the ulcerated surface are the most distinctive clinical features.

(9) **Typhoid of Children.**—The typhoid of childhood is a fever characterized more often by nervous than by intestinal symptoms. The *onset* is sometimes sudden, with well-marked symptoms, *e. g.*, fever, prostration, emaciation, and vomiting are not uncommon. The disease is also seen to begin with lassitude, headache, coated tongue, anorexia, and a gradual rise in temperature. In cases developing abruptly it often appears as though acute indigestion had been the means of precipitating the attack. Vomiting is, as a rule, the initial symptom. Epistaxis may occur, but is less common in children than in adults. The course is mild, as a rule, and the mortality low.

Diarrhea.—There is no constant relation between the severity of the intestinal lesions and the condition of the bowels. Diarrhea is present in about 50 per cent. of cases, the average number of stools being from two to four a day. There is nothing about the stool that may be said to be characteristic. Constipation is a feature in many cases in which typhoid develops before the tenth year, and according to Morse's statistics, over 60 per cent. of children manifest constipation during typhoid infection. Constipation is the general rule at the onset of the fever, a condition equally true of typhoid in the adult.

Abdominal distention, due to tympanites, is less constant in children than in adults, and tympany, when present, is usually a feature of those cases showing diarrhea due to colonic ulceration and marked catarrhal enteritis. Other abdominal features of typhoid, *e. g.*, gurgling and tenderness in the iliac fossa, are not constant.

Eruption.—An eruption appears in approximately 60 per cent. of all cases, but children, as a rule, develop but slight eruption, and there may be only a single crop of rose-spots. In the relapsing typhoid of children an eruption occurs with each relapse.

Thermic Features.—The temperature will be found to vary from that described under the typhoid of adults in the following features: In children under three years of age the fever lasts for from eight to fourteen days. Wolberg's analysis of 277 cases shows that the fever was of less than fourteen days' duration in 70 per cent. of cases, and in 2.8 per cent. of these, it did not continue for more than eight days. A subnormal temperature is the rule during the first week in those cases in which typhoid develops insidiously. Marked elevation of temperature during the second week of the disease is suggestive of complications.

The *nervous symptoms* are in direct relation with the degree of fever, and the severe forms of delirium so common in the adult are extremely rare in children.

Principal Complaint.—Stage of Incubation.—The average length of this period, until the first definite symptoms of typhoid appear, is not definitely known, but is probably, in the majority of cases, between seven and ten days, although in rare instances it may be three or more weeks. The patient at first appears to be in good health, but as the disease progresses, definite symptoms develop, and he complains of prodromes, *e. g.*, languor, anorexia, headache, nose-bleed, muscular pains, nausea, and constipation, which continue for from three to seven days, when a mild diarrhea begins.

Clinical Stages.—For convenience of study, typhoid fever is divided into three distinct stages; thus, in the moderately severe cases the first week represents the stage of development; the second and third weeks, the fastigium; and the fourth week, the stage of decline.

(1) *Stage of Development.*—The period of invasion is, as a rule, gradual, the symptoms being chilliness and slight fever, with an increase in

the severity of the prodromal symptoms. At or about this time epistaxis may reveal the nature of the disease. Headache is continuous. The symptoms described are quickly followed by prostration marked enough to compel most patients to take to their beds.

It is best to regard the time of occurrence of the previously mentioned symptoms (elevation of temperature, with its attendant discomforts) as the stage of onset, since many patients continue at their accustomed vocations for days after the first symptoms appear. The onset may be marked by symptoms resembling influenza, and muscular pains and pharyngeal irritations are by no means uncommon at the onset.

With the progress of the initial period the symptoms usually increase in severity daily; the temperature (Fig. 293) is higher each day, until the fourth or sixth day, when the fastigium is reached. The appetite is lost, there is intense thirst, the face is flushed, the skin is hot and parched, and there may be profuse sweating in the axilla and groins. Distinct flushings, alternating with chilly sensations may occur. The symptoms and signs of a mild bronchitis are present in more than 50 per cent. of all cases.

The *pulse* has gradually increased in frequency with the progress of the disease, until it is full and strong, the beats numbering from 90 to 110 a minute.

Upon palpation tenderness is often detected in the right iliac region, and distinct intestinal movements can be felt at this point. Moderate splenic enlargement is the rule, and the organ is often quite tender.

(2) *The Fastigium.*—In typical cases this begins on the fifth to seventh day of the disease, and lasts about two weeks. During the first week of the fastigium (the second of the disease) all the general symptoms become intensified. The evening temperature ranges between 103° and 105° F., and approaches the continued type. The pulse is accelerated, but full and of fair strength. Headache, a prominent symptom during the first stage, gradually disappears, and in its stead there are seen mental hebetude, slowness of speech, and a moderate degree of deafness. There may be delirium, which is most likely to occur at night.

Cough with the physical signs of bronchitis are present, and there is, at times, slight expectoration. Diarrhea—from two to eight stools daily—is present during this stage.

Inspection.—The cheeks are somewhat sunken, the lips are dry and fissured, and the tongue is heavily coated, and often brown and bleeding. Sordes is seen on the lips and the teeth. The abdomen is distended, and there may be profuse sweating and urticaria. About the eighth day of the disease a number of rose colored spots appear on the trunk. The rose-spots of typhoid fever disappear when the skin is stretched or when pressure is made upon then, but they reappear when pressure is relieved.

Palpation.—The abdomen is moderately tender, peristaltic movements of the bowel are prominent in the right iliac fossa, and the spleen is readily palpable and may extend some distance—two to four inches—below the costal margin. At the close of the second week complications are most likely to occur. (See Complications, p. 811.)

The third week of the disease, and the second week of the fastigium, finds the symptoms previously detailed at their height, and other more serious symptoms and even complications may be added.

(3) *Defervescence.*—At the end of the second stage, and about the twenty-third day of the disease, the fever begins to decline in favorable

cases, and with this change the other general and local symptoms become gradually ameliorated, which improvement continues for one week and is followed by an establishment of convalescence.

In protracted and unfavorable cases the fourth week of the disease may present the same clinical indications as did the third, and, in fact, when the type of infection is unusually virulent, the symptoms outlined during the third week may be greatly intensified.

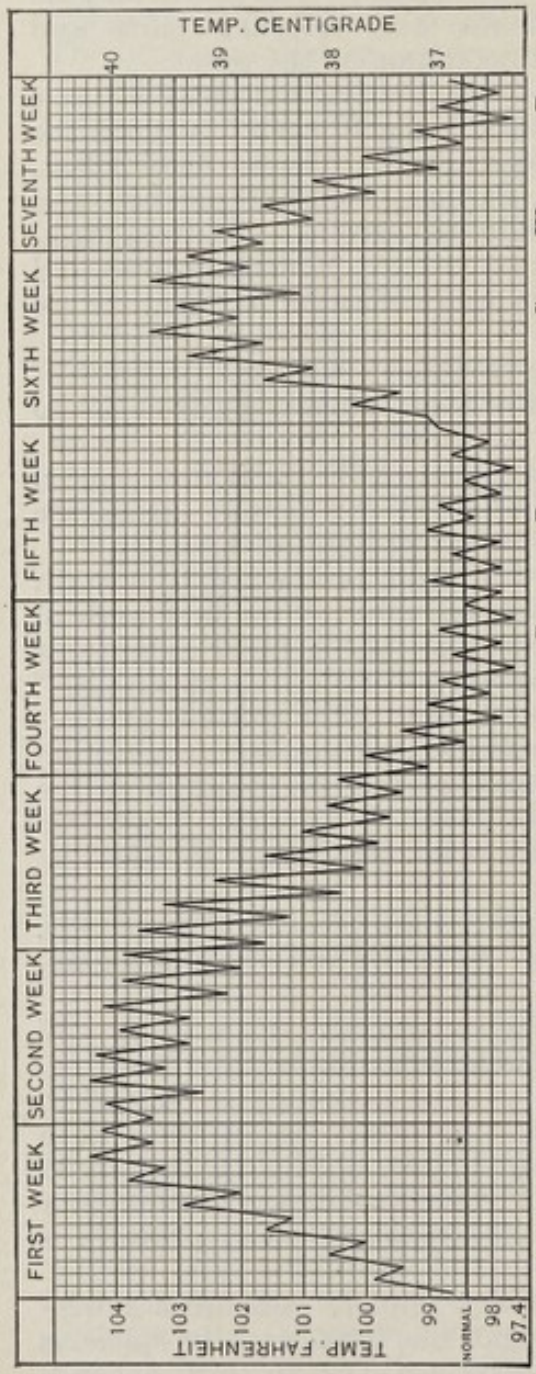


FIG. 293.—TYPICAL TYPHOID TEMPERATURE CURVE WITH RELAPSE BEGINNING THE SIXTH WEEK OF DISEASE.

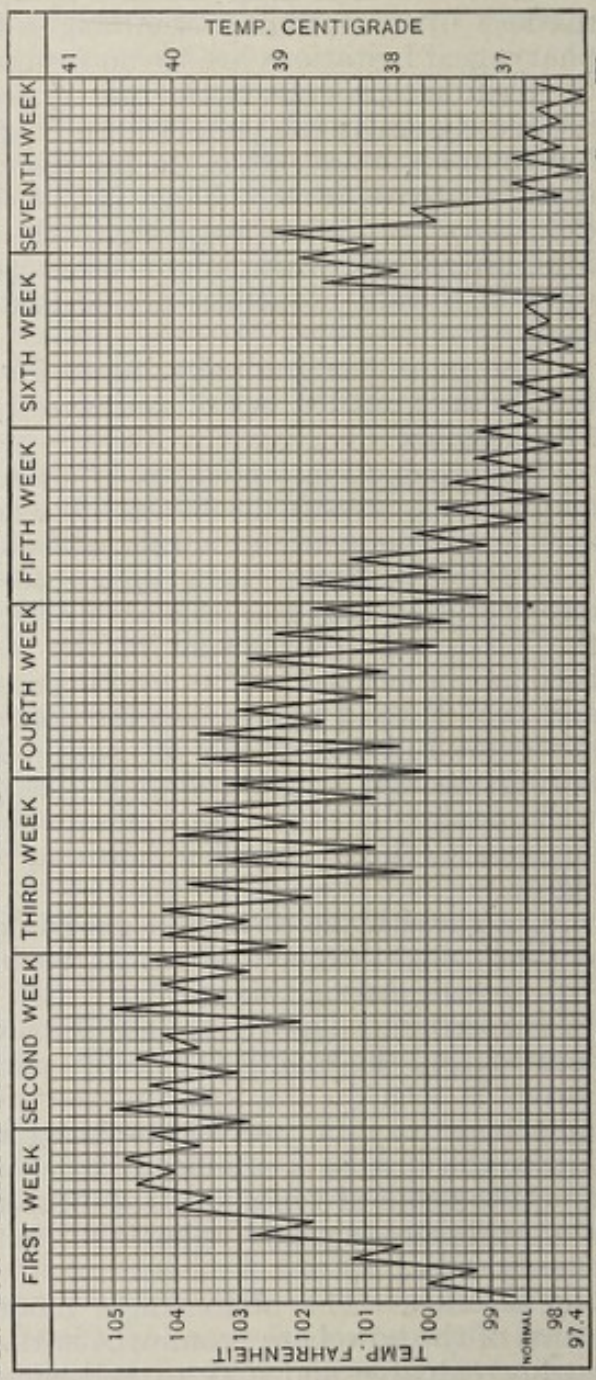


FIG. 294.—TEMPERATURE CURVE IN SEVERE TYPHOID, SHOWING RECRUDESCENCE LATE DURING THE SIXTH WEEK.

In unfavorable cases the pulse may range between 120 and 140 beats a minute, and become weak, dicrotic, compressible, and irregular. Nervous symptoms are also likely to be pronounced, all types of delirium and coma being occasionally seen. The abdomen is greatly distended, and the involuntary discharge of urine and feces is occasionally observed.

The fever may remain high during the fourth week, and we have seen cases in which the fever continued above 102° F. during the fifth, sixth, and seventh week of the disease. Instances are recorded in which the fever has continued for a period of fifty and even seventy days.

In those cases in which convalescence is established late, relapses, as well as recrudescences, are extremely common. (See Figs. 293 and 294.)

Clinical Picture.—Thermic Features.—In *typical* cases the temperature rises gradually during the first week, reaching 103° to 104° F., with morning remissions of one to one and one-half degrees. (See Fig. 293.) During the third and fourth weeks the morning temperature becomes normal, but there is a persistence of fever during the evening hours, which in uncomplicated cases is from one to two degrees above the normal. By the end of the fourth week this evening rise of temperature has entirely subsided, and the morning record is subnormal, whereas the evening registers at or below the normal line.

Atypical Temperature.—(1) *The Inverse Type.*—A low evening and a high morning temperature are occasionally displayed. (2) The fever may terminate at the end of the second week, the temperature declining somewhat rapidly, and reaching the normal in from forty-eight to seventy-two hours. (3) An abrupt development of fever is seen in children and in those cases in which the disease is ushered in by a chill or a series of chilly sensations. (4) *Intestinal perforation and hemorrhage* are marked by a sudden fall in the temperature when the thermometer registers below normal. (5) A rapid rise in temperature during convalescence is the result of dietetic error, constipation, overexertion, or mental excitement, and is, as a rule, of but short duration. Such thermic exacerbations are generally regarded as a "recrudescence"—fever without the other symptoms of typhoid. (6) In those cases in which there is questionable involvement of the bones, joints, pleura, gall-bladder, or other portions of the body, an evening temperature of 99° to 100° F. may continue indefinitely. (7) During relapses the fever is seldom as high as it was during the initial seizure, unless the primary attack has been abnormally light, is of shorter duration, and, like all the other symptoms, is of a mild nature.

Gastro-intestinal Symptoms.—Anorexia is present early during the course of the fever; nausea and vomiting are occasionally present as the disease progresses, but are by no means constant. Vomiting indicates either a severe grade of infection or the development of serious complications. *Diarrhea* is a fairly constant symptom, although in the majority of cases it appears during the second week of the disease. The *stools* are thin, semiliquid, or pea-soup-like in consistence, and vary in the average cases, from two to six daily. The stools may be more frequent, and in those patients suffering from either severe gastro-intestinal catarrh or extensive ulceration in the colon there may be ten or even twenty movements a day.

Stools containing blood are seen to occur during the third week, and even during convalescence. When the hemorrhage into the bowel is large, the stool may contain clotted blood, which is of a bright red color, but, as a general rule, the blood is retained in the bowel for some hours, when the dejecta have a tar-like color and consistency. Chemically, the stools contain minute quantities of blood in the majority of all cases of typhoid fever.

Constipation is present during the first week, as a rule, and may continue throughout the course of the disease. (See Typhoid of Children, p. 802.)

Circulatory Symptoms.—The *pulse* is, as a rule, but moderately accelerated, and the rapidity of the heart-beats is not in proportion to the degree of fever present—*e. g.*, a pulse of 90 beats a minute may accompany a temperature of 100° to 104° F.* The pulse may occasionally become weak early during the course of the fever. In severe types of infection there is a tendency for the pulse to become thready, dicrotic, and compressible. The heart-sounds also bear a close relation to the character and frequency of the pulse. Olmer and Voisin† report the study of 76 cases in all of whom they found a reduction in the blood pressure, this involving especially the diastolic pressure. A sudden fall in the systolic pressure suggests some complication of which intestinal hemorrhage and myocarditis are common. A sudden moderate rise in the systolic pressure may precede intestinal complications, and during convalescence such rise suggests the on-coming of a relapse. Blood pressure is of special clinical value throughout the course of those cases where high fever, and well marked nervous symptoms are wanted.

Respiratory Symptoms.—The respirations are slightly increased in frequency, and a harsh, non-productive cough, that may, though rarely, become quite annoying, is present.

Epistaxis is one of the early symptoms, and is common, particularly in the typhoid of young adults. Bleeding from the nose may be profuse, but in the average case there are three or four attacks, the patient losing but a small quantity of blood. Epistaxis may occur during the fastigium, and may then prove serious.

Nervous Symptoms.—Persistent headache is prominent during the progress of the disease, but by the end of the second week it gradually disappears, and at this time a moderate amount of mental apathy and stupor is apparent. The patient's hearing is somewhat dulled, his speech is thick, and his words are hesitating.

As the acme of the disease is reached the various types of delirium are likely to develop—*e. g.*, low, muttering delirium, which is present only at night, carphologia (picking of the bed-clothing), tremor (both fine and coarse), subsultus tendinum, jactitation (tossing to and fro of the patient) and maniacal seizures may develop. Following the previously described types of delirium, the patient may fall into a semi-comatose state, or coma-vigil and profound coma may follow.

Convulsions are uncommon, except in those cases in which there is involvement of the kidneys or of the meninges. In typhoid of the meningeal type (see Varieties, p. 801), strabismus, photophobia, ptosis, and hyperesthesia are to be seen.

Physical Signs.—Inspection.—Throughout the entire course of the fever the face is flushed, unless the patient has had severe intestinal hemorrhage. The expression is somewhat dull and the pupils are moderately dilated. At first the tongue is slightly furred over its superior surface, but later it becomes heavily coated, and in severe cases it may be bright red and deeply fissured, and portions of the surface may be brown from minute hemorrhages. It is not uncommon, during the height of the disease, to find the tongue somewhat rolled upon itself, the patient being unable to protrude it beyond the teeth. The lips become fissured when the temperature continues high and the teeth are covered with sordes. Swelling and congestion of the tonsils and of the pharynx are occasionally seen.

* *Morris' atropin test* (hypodermic administration of $\frac{1}{33}$ gr. of atropin causes an increase of 14 or less increase in the pulse in event of typhoid fever.

† Bulletin et memoires de la Societe medicale des hopitaux de Paris, July 27, 1916.

Between the seventh and ninth days a crop of small, circular or lenticular rose-spots is seen upon the abdomen; these disappear upon pressure and on stretching the skin, but immediately reappear after such pressure is removed. The eruption of typhoid is likely to occur every two or three days in successive crops. We have studied several cases in which the eruption was profuse and covered almost the entire body. In seven such cases studied at the Philadelphia General Hospital, intestinal hemorrhage was a complication in six, and the remaining case showed severe nervous symptoms. From this small collection of cases, however, it cannot be positively asserted that a profuse eruption is always followed by severe symptoms.

The abdomen is distended, the patient usually resting upon his back, and showing a disinclination to turn from side to side. In all cases of typhoid the respiratory movements are somewhat quickened, and the impulse of the apex-beat is, as a rule, diffuse. Late during the course of the disease pulsation of the vessels of the neck, at the epigastrium, and in the second intercostal space may be detected.

Palpation.—The skin of the face and abdomen is usually dry and hot early. As the patient becomes decidedly prostrated, the axillary and inguinal regions are bathed in perspiration.

By the beginning of the second week of the fever the spleen is felt below the costal border, and in severe types of infection it may extend to or even below the umbilicus. The spleen is, as a rule, somewhat tender, although this peculiarity may be absent. There is also moderate hepatic enlargement.

There may or may not be distinct localized tenderness in the right inguinal region and along the course of the ascending colon. On placing the hand gently over the right iliac region, a distinct gurgling movement of the bowel is often felt, but its clinical significance is limited.

Percussion.—Tympanites is the rule (when the diet is chiefly milk) and when present, an increased area of liver and splenic dullness may not be detected. In the absence of gaseous distention the area of splenic dullness is perceptibly and often greatly increased, and there may be a moderate increase in the area of liver dullness.

Percussion over the region of the bladder is an important measure when delirium is present, since by this means retention of the urine, which is an occasional complicating feature, may be detected.

Auscultation.—Borborygmus is heard over the entire abdomen, but is more pronounced in the right iliac fossa and along the course of the ascending colon.

The heart-sounds are at first increased in frequency, but the muscular quality is normal. With the progress of the disease, and in protracted cases, the first sound of the heart becomes greatly weakened, and, indeed, the first and second sounds may be very similar during the third and fourth weeks of the disease.

A variable degree of bronchitis is always present, so that both moist and dry râles are audible over the chest.

Laboratory Diagnosis.—The *Widal* serum-reaction is present at some time during the course of an attack of typhoid fever in from 95 to 98 per cent. of all cases. As a rule, this reaction may be obtained about the end of the first week of the disease. Rarely, indeed, it is absent until the second or third weeks, and we have seen cases in which it did not appear until convalescence was well established. Leukopenia is the rule in typhoid fever, the number of *leukocytes* in a cubic millimeter of blood being, in a typical case, between 5000 and 6000. When inflammatory complications are present, such as bronchitis, pleuritis, and broncho-

pneumonia, a slight leukocytosis may be found. The *differential count* of the leukocytes shows a relative increase in the number of lymphocytes and a diminution in the number of polymorphonuclear neutrophile cells. The leukopenia is often most marked during convalescence. During the first week the red cells are but slightly altered in number, but as the disease progresses, and during convalescence, the number is diminished. In those cases in which there are complications that embarrass the circulation and produce cyanosis the number of red cells in a cubic millimeter may be greater than normal.

The hemoglobin is diminished and the color-index is low.

Cultures from the blood will be found to develop typhoid bacilli in from 20 to 30 per cent. of all cases during the first 3 or 4 days of the disease.

Generally speaking, the *urine* is that ordinarily regarded as febrile in character. The quantity voided during the twenty-four hours is at first slightly increased, but with the increasing fever it is lessened, of high color, and of high specific gravity. A trace of albumin is ordinarily present, and in severe types of infection casts, leukocytes, and red blood-cells are found. Indican is present throughout the greater part of the febrile period; the diazo-reaction may be obtained during the first week of fever, commonly continues throughout the febrile period, and may even be seen after convalescence has been established.

A *bacteriologic study* of the urine will show the presence of the bacillus typhosus in about 20 per cent. of all cases.

Bile.—Certain clinicians attach importance to an early bacteriologic study of the bile in the recognition of typhoid fever. Kiralifi has called attention to the fluid of the duodenum being practically free from bacteria in health, and he further claims that bacteria of the colon group are present in great numbers during the early stage of typhoid.

Test.—Give the patient 200 c.c. of sweet oil (olive oil) (in event of the pylorus being relaxed duodenal fluid is regurgitated into the stomach). Recover the oil-test-meal, by means of the stomach-tube, and examine it bacteriologically. Brinton has found that by administering into the stomach 400 to 600 c.c. of sterilized water practically the same results are obtained as are given under the oil-test breakfast. Both Kiralifi and Brinton's tests are valueless unless there be relaxation of the pylorus at the time of their application.

Garbat* gives detailed measures for study of the duodenal fluids in those convalescent from typhoid fever.

Feces.—During the prodromal stage of typhoid constipation is the rule, but as the disease progresses from four to six semiliquid stools a day, like pea soup, are the rule in mild types of infection. In severe forms of typhoid the number of movements from the bowel may be greatly increased, and during the second and third weeks intestinal hemorrhage may occur. Hemorrhages may be frequent and small in quantity; but in unfavorable cases hemorrhage is often profuse. Occult blood is present.

Cultures from the feces during any stage of typhoid will show the presence of typhoid bacilli.

Summary of Diagnosis.—The diagnosis of typhoid is made positive by—(*a*) The history of the patient having never before suffered from typhoid; (*b*) the characteristic temperature-curve; (*c*) the splenic tumor; (*d*) the characteristic eruption; and (*e*) a positive Widal reaction. Many other symptoms, previously mentioned, go far to support a diagnosis of typhoid fever, but are not essential to the recognition of the disease.

*Jour. Am. Med. Assoc., Nov. 18, 1916.

Season, the presence of an epidemic, and the age of the patient, although they are often of great value in strengthening a doubtful diagnosis, are equally likely to mislead the clinician.

Differential Diagnosis.—Typhus fever is to be differentiated from typhoid fever by the presence of an epidemic, by its sudden onset, the presence of stupor, the dulled expression of the features, conjunctivitis, and the pin-point pupils, all of which conditions are but rarely, if at all, seen in typhoid fever. Typhus is characterized by a macular eruption that appears upon the fourth day and may become petechial. The fever, as a rule, runs a shorter course in typhus than in typhoid, and the Widal serum-reaction is negative.

Acute miliary tuberculosis is frequently mistaken for typhoid fever, and the distinctive features between these two conditions are shown in the accompanying differential table:

TABLE SHOWING THE DIFFERENTIAL POINTS BETWEEN TYPHOID FEVER AND ACUTE MILIARY TUBERCULOSIS

Typhoid Fever	Acute Miliary Tuberculosis
1. History of an epidemic or of change of residence from the country to the city.	1. May be history of cough or of a tuberculous ulcer, abscess, fistula, etc.
2. Fever rises gradually, in step-like form, reaching its height in from seven to eight days, and declines during the third or fourth week.	2. Fever rises more abruptly, and remains high (continued type) until death.
3. Respirations are moderately increased, with few râles over the lungs.	3. Respirations from 40 to 60 a minute, with numerous crackling râles and at times increased respiratory murmurs over both lungs.
4. Cough may develop early, but is mild, and usually abates during the second week of the fever.	4. Cough increases gradually throughout the disease, and there may be blood-streaked sputum.
5. Cyanosis is observed only late in the disease, when there is cardiac failure or pulmonary complication.	5. Cyanosis early.
6. Tenderness in the right iliac fossa. Tympanites and from two to six semiliquid stools daily.	6. Constipation the rule.
7. Widal serum-reaction positive after the first week.	7. Serum-reaction negative.
8. Characteristic eruption appears over the abdomen about the end of the first week of the fever.	8. Eruption absent.
9. Cultures from the blood show the presence of typhoid bacilli, early in disease only, in from 20 to 30 per cent. of all cases.	9. Culture may develop tubercle bacilli if proper culture-medium is employed.
10. Pupils are moderately dilated early during the course of the disease.	10. Pupils less likely to be dilated and tuberculous retinitis common.
11. Feces contain the bacillus of Eberth.	11. Tubercle bacilli often present in the feces.
12. Intestinal hemorrhage and intestinal rerforation may complicate typhoid fever.	12. Intestinal hemorrhage and perforation absent.

Malarial Fever.—Typhoid fever is distinguished from malarial infection by an examination of the blood alone. The protozoa of malaria are always present in both the fresh and the stained blood, and their detection indicates the type of infection present. The Widal serum-reaction is also absent in malaria. One seldom finds a case of malaria in which abdominal symptoms and signs resembling those of typhoid fever are also present. The temperature of malaria seldom assumes

the form characteristic of typhoid, although in estivo-autumnal types of malarial infection a continued type of fever is common.

Meningitis exhibits hyperesthesia, intolerance of light and of sound, altered reflexes, and rigidity of the neck muscles. Vomiting and constipation are common in both epidemic and tuberculous meningitis. The temperature remains at a lower level, on the average, and is more irregular. The eruption is not continued in character or in time of appearance, and never resembles that of typhoid. The nervous symptoms assume greater prominence early during the course of meningitis, which is in striking contrast to the nervous manifestations of typhoid.

In cases suffering from tuberculous meningitis tubercles may be found upon the choroid.

In either acute or subacute meningitis lumbar puncture will recover fluid containing some bacterium.

The Widal serum-reaction is also negative in both epidemic and tuberculous meningitis. In epidemic meningitis a leukocytosis of from 12,000 to 25,000 is to be expected, whereas in uncomplicated typhoid fever leukopenia (6000 to 2500) obtains. In tuberculous meningitis a differential leukocyte count is likely to show an increase in the percentage of lymphocytes present.

In the meningeal type of typhoid fever lumbar puncture, estimation of the number of leukocytes in a cubic millimeter, and the Widal serum-reaction are essential to the formation of a correct diagnosis.

Dysentery.—During the Spanish-American War typhoid fever was frequently mistaken for dysentery—a fact amply proved by the history of the many soldiers treated in the hospitals of Philadelphia. In dysentery the temperature is, as a rule, moderate and more irregular than is that of typhoid, the stools are more frequent, and the degree of prostration becomes marked early. In typhoid prostration is not profound until the second week of the disease. The Widal reaction for typhoid fever is of great importance in distinguishing between these two conditions, and a serum-reaction, with the bacillus of Shiga, while less commonly employed, is also of service in determining the existence of bacillary dysentery. Absence of the characteristic eruption strongly favors dysentery.

Prognosis and Duration.—These are dependent upon three distinctive conditions: first, the severity of the type of infection; second, whether or not treatment, including nursing, can be carried out systematically in certain individual circumstances; and third, the presence or absence of complications.

A severe type of infection is usually marked by high fever. A temperature of 105° F., if prolonged for more than three days, renders recovery unlikely. A fever of 106° F. generally proves fatal.

Marked nervous symptoms, delirium, etc., are also expressions of a severe type of infection, and make the prognosis guardedly favorable. Relapses tend somewhat to lessen the favorable outlook, but a recrudescence is seldom of serious moment.

When typhoid fever is recognized early and appropriate treatment is established and continued throughout the disease, the mortality-rate is greatly lessened.

Complications of whatever nature render the prognosis less favorable. Bronchopneumonia, lobar pneumonia, nephritis, intestinal hemorrhage, and intestinal perforation, the latter in particular, are of serious prognostic moment; other less serious complications likewise proportionately lessen the probability of recovery. Uncomplicated cases of the ordinary type of the disease go on to recovery in from four to eight weeks.

Complications.—Complications may consist of an exaggeration of a symptom or of symptoms other than those known to the severe type of typhoid fever.

Exaggeration of an Ordinary Symptom as a Complication.—Excessive tympanites, when it embarrasses the action of the heart and respiration, forms a complication of serious moment. By stretching the intestine, tympanites favors intestinal perforation and intestinal hemorrhage—two serious complications. Severe diarrhea greatly depletes the patient, and favors the development of other serious complications.

Gastro-intestinal and Abdominal Complications.—The ulcers of typhoid are rarely found in the esophagus, pharynx, and on the tonsils. Suppuration of the parotid gland, although extremely unusual, is a grave complication.

Cholecystitis is marked by the development of jaundice and other symptoms, and this complication may rarely be followed by the formation of gall-stones or by hepatic abscess, both of which conditions are of serious moment.

Rarely, indeed, the greatly enlarged *spleen* may rupture, and shock follow.

Intestinal hemorrhage occurs during the third or fourth week in from 3 to 5 per cent. of all cases, and is fatal in probably 30 per cent. of such victims. The indications of hemorrhage are a sudden fall in temperature, and blood-pressure, with signs of collapse and the passing of bloody or tarry stools. In profuse hemorrhage death may occur before the blood escapes from the rectum.

Intestinal preforation may occur at any time after the middle of the second week, and has been known to take place after convalescence was apparently well established. In more than 70 per cent. of cases with perforation this accident is accompanied by sudden acute abdominal pain. In many instances collapse is the first symptom of perforation, and in practically all such cases there is an abrupt fall in temperature, which, however, tends to rise again some hours later. Several hours after the acute pain due to perforation there are abdominal rigidity and tenderness, the result of the associated peritonitis. Leukocytosis speedily develops. In those cases in which tympanites and delirium are prominent features, it is quite difficult to detect perforation until peritonitis has developed. The former exceedingly high death-rate from this accident has been somewhat reduced by timely surgical intervention.

Respiratory Complications.—The so-called "laryngeal typhoid" seldom occurs until after the third week of the disease. When associated with marked edema of the glottis and of the adjacent structures, the prognosis is decidedly unfavorable, and tracheotomy or intubation may be necessary.

Lobar pneumonia occurs quite commonly during the second or third week. Dullness, weakened voice-sounds, and moderatey fine moist râles at the bases during inspiration, are found not infrequently in the later stages, and the respirations are quickened. Bronchitis, which is also present, may extend to the smaller vesicles of the lung, and result in bronchopneumonia. Occasionally, portions of the lung become atelectatic. Pulmonary abscess, gangrene, and pulmonary hemorrhage are among the rarest of complications. *Pleurisy* with effusion is occasionally seen. Ulcers of the nose occur, and perforation of the nasal septum may follow.

Nervous Complications.—Paralyses, while extremely uncommon, may develop during convalescence, and appear in the form of paraplegia,

four such cases having come under our notice. Hemiplegia and monoplegia are less common. There may be only temporary loss of control of the sphincters. Neuritis may be either local or multiple, and is characterized by pain, tenderness, foot-drop, and wrist-drop. Myelitis is unusually rare. Any or all of the aforementioned nervous complications renders the prognosis decidedly unfavorable.

The so-called *typhoid spine* develops during convalescence, and is ushered in by extreme tenderness and pain upon movement of the limbs. There is no additional fever, and the actual pathology is doubtful.

Meningeal symptoms of typhoid may be prominent in the so-called "nervous type" of the disease, but true *meningitis* may develop as a complication, at which time practically all the characteristic symptoms of meningitis are displayed—*e. g.*, rigidity of the muscles of the neck, photophobia, hyperesthesia, strabismus, and an irregular temperature. Meningitis, when present, may be due to typhoid infection of the meninges or to a mixed infection. The fluid obtained by lumbar puncture will be found to contain typhoid bacilli and also the pneumococcus and the meningococcus. Meningitis complicating typhoid fever is an extremely fatal condition.

Circulatory Complications.—A variable degree of *myocarditis* is present during the later stage of every severe case of typhoid. *Acute endocarditis* occasionally develops, and manifests itself by an infrequency in the heart action and the presence of a distinct endocardial murmur. *Pericarditis*, although less common than endocarditis, may also cause unusual irritability of the heart.

Thrombosis of one of the femoral veins gives rise to swelling and tenderness of the corresponding foot as the first symptom. The left vein is oftenest involved, but both femorals, and even the axillary veins, may be the seat of such complications. Thrombosis of the spermatic vein and orchitis, although extremely rare, deserves mention. Embolism of the femoral artery is still less common than are complications of the veins. Embolus of the brain and localized paralyses have been reported.

Renal Complications.—Acute nephritis may develop early during the course of the fever (*nephrotyphoid*), but it is more likely to complicate typhoid at the height of the disease or during convalescence. Moderate albuminuria, however, is *not* to be regarded as a complication. Hemoglobinuria and hematuria occur in cases displaying profound nervous symptoms. The presence in the urine of a large amount of albumin and of numerous granular and bloody casts renders the prognosis unfavorable. Pyelitis and cystitis may occasionally complicate typhoid fever.

Ear Complications.—Otitis media has been seen to develop at any time during the course of the fever, but is most likely to appear at the fastigium. Mastoiditis is frequently overlooked by the clinician until there is a discharge from the ear. The acute pain of otitis media is of no diagnostic value during the development of this complication, since the general stupor prevents the patient from appreciating this symptom. The temperature serves as the best guide to acute inflammation of the middle ear, and an increase of from one to two degrees takes place with the development of the auditory complication, and continues until rupture of the membrana tympani occurs.

Eye Complications.—Conjunctivitis, iritis, and corneal ulcer are among the rarest of complications. Oculomotor paralysis has been reported.

Cutaneous Complications.—Multiple abscesses of the skin form an occasional complication in those cases displaying the so-called "septice-

mia of typhoid." Bed-sores are frequently responsible for a rise of temperature of one or two degrees for days or even weeks after other symptoms have subsided. They affect by preference the back, buttocks, and heels.

PARATYPHOID FEVER

Definition.—This term is applied to an infection with an organism of the colon-typhoid group, which resembles bacillus typhosus, but is not identical with it.

Predisposing and Exciting Factors.—The conditions that predispose to paratyphoid are practically the same as those given for typhoid fever. The **exciting cause** is a bacillus belonging to the colon group (bacillus paratyphosus enteritidis). Bacillus group A and B are recognized, and Lewy and Schiff,* describe the third paratyphoid organism. bacillus paratyphoid "C" has been described by Dudgeon and Urquhart. Gwyn (in 1898) was the one first to isolate this organism from human blood during life. Melkish has studied this bacillus in connection with a disease known to rats. The disease is rather frequently seen in children.

Symptomatology.—Generally speaking, the period of incubation is short, and the onset is more abrupt than is that of typhoid fever. At the beginning the headache is more intense than in typhoid.

Nervous symptoms develop early; thus, during the first week of fever it is not uncommon to find the different types of delirium. (See Nervous Manifestations of Typhoid.)

Gastro-intestinal Features.—Constipation usually obtains throughout the febrile period, although diarrhea is not unknown. Rosei has sited 15 cases where gastro-intestinal symptoms were accompanied by jaundice and B. bacilli were present. Chiadini detected both bacilli A and B in the liver and bile passages in subjects dead of the disease.

Thermic Features.—By the third or fourth day the temperature is likely to rise to 103° or 104° F. Such rise does not display the peculiar, steplike ascent characteristic of true typhoid. The duration of the temperature, as also its mode of decline, is uncertain, although in the majority of instances the temperature falls by rapid lysis. Convalescence is seldom interrupted, and therefore the temperature, after it once reaches the normal, is likely to remain at or near that level.

Physical Signs.—Inspection.—The face is flushed, the expression is dull, the tongue is heavily coated, and the lips are dry and fissured. A rose-colored eruption resembling that of typhoid fever may be seen upon the abdomen and trunk. In certain cases the eruption very closely simulates that of typhoid, both in appearance in its mode of recurring in successive crops. The rule, however, is to have an atypical typhoid eruption.

Palpation.—There is but slight abdominal distention, and the abdominal walls are not tense. Splenic enlargement is a constant feature, and the degree of such enlargement varies widely in different cases.

Clinical Course and Duration.—In the majority of cases the temperature reaches the normal earlier than it does in true typhoid, and recovery is less likely to be protracted in paratyphoid. There are exceptional cases, however, in which convalescence is delayed for a prolonged period, such delay being due to some complicating condition (bronchopneumonia, melena).

Laboratory Diagnosis.—The differentiation of paratyphoid fever from typhoid fever can be made only by laboratory methods. A case pre-

* Berlin. klin. Wochschr., Nov., 1919.

senting the symptoms of typhoid fever with a negative agglutination test with bacillus typhosus in all probability belongs to the group of paratyphoid fever. Agglutination tests with paratyphoid or paracolon organisms will sometimes give positive results. In other cases cultural methods must be resorted to, inoculations being made of the blood, the feces, or the urine, the last being the most convenient, and the characteristics of the organism recovered being carefully determined.

TYPHUS FEVER

(Ship Fever; Camp Fever; Jail Fever)

Predisposing and Exciting Factors.—Age.—Typhus is an epidemic disease of childhood and early adult life, although it may appear at any age. Olitsky, Denzer and Husk* report isolation of the bacillus typhi exanthematici from the bodies of lice after such parasites have been permitted to bite persons suffering from typhus fever. Parasites may be a possible source for the spread of the disease. Ricketts, Wilder and Provak found bipolar cocci in the bodies of lice and these were later considered by Rocha-Lima as "rickettsia."†

"A single sucking of the blood of a typhus patient during the height of the disease by a louse will after a few days elicit the presence of rickettsia and render the louse infectious."

After having become infected with typhus blood the louse requires from four to eight days to acquire the ability to infect.

Lice infected with typhus can be fed for a long time on the blood of convalescing patients, and still retain their ability to infect.

The virus of typhus can be demonstrated in infected lice by inoculating in guinea-pigs an emulsion of infected lice.

The bite of an infected louse is infectious, as is also its excreta.

Season appears to figure prominently, epidemics being more common during the winter months. Unsanitary surroundings usually prevail where there is an outbreak of typhus, consequently filth, poverty, famine, and overcrowding serve as potent predisposing factors. Typhus is also commonly encountered among the occupants of institutions, jails, and prisons, and it likewise affects the crews of ships, especially when they have been at sea for a prolonged period. The exciting cause of typhus has been shown by Plotz, Baehr, Olitsky, Husk, and other observers to be the Bacillus typhi exanthematici, which organism is to be recovered from the blood of persons ill of the disease, during the chill, and probably after the first few days of fever. This organism has been found pathogenic for guinea-pigs, and specific agglutinins, precipitins, opsonins, and complement fixing antibodies are regularly present.

Typhus does not occur spontaneously in a community where the disease has never before been known, but is always transported to such locality. Plotz, Olitsky, and Baehr‡ state that the evidence collected by surgeons of the countries then at war showed that among 8420 persons vaccinated against this disease during the epidemic in Serbia, Bulgaria, and Volhynia, with the prophylactic serum of bacillus typhi exanthematici, only six were found later to develop the disease.

Period of Incubation.—This varies from nine to twelve days, during which period there may be mild prodromal symptoms, *e. g.*, anorexia and malaise, but in the average case prodromes are not distinct.

* Jour. Am. Med. Assoc., April 21, 1917.

† S. B. Wolbach, The Rickettsiae in Disease, Jour. Am. Med. Assoc., Mar. 7, 1925, p. 723.

‡Jour. Am. Med. Assoc., Nov. 25, 1916.

Principal Complaint.—Preëruptive Stage.—The initial symptom may be a *series of chills* or one severe *rigor*, following which the patient complains of *headache, muscular pains, vertigo, tinnitus aurium*, and *profound weakness.* An annoying bronchial *cough* with slight expectoration may be present. *Anorexia* develops early, and there is an inordinate thirst. *Vomiting* is present, and may be an annoying symptom.

Nervous Symptoms.—These appear early, and may even be present with the subsidence of the chill. Delirium is, as a rule, at first mild, but later active, and may terminate in stupor and eventually in coma.

Eruptive Stage.—From the third to the fifth day quite a *characteristic eruption* develops, and with its appearance there is an appreciable decline in the fever. The rash appears first upon the trunk, and then extends over the entire body. It is seldom seen on the face. Two or three days later the crimson red maculæ become petechial, and the skin presents a spotted appearance on account of the coalescence of the

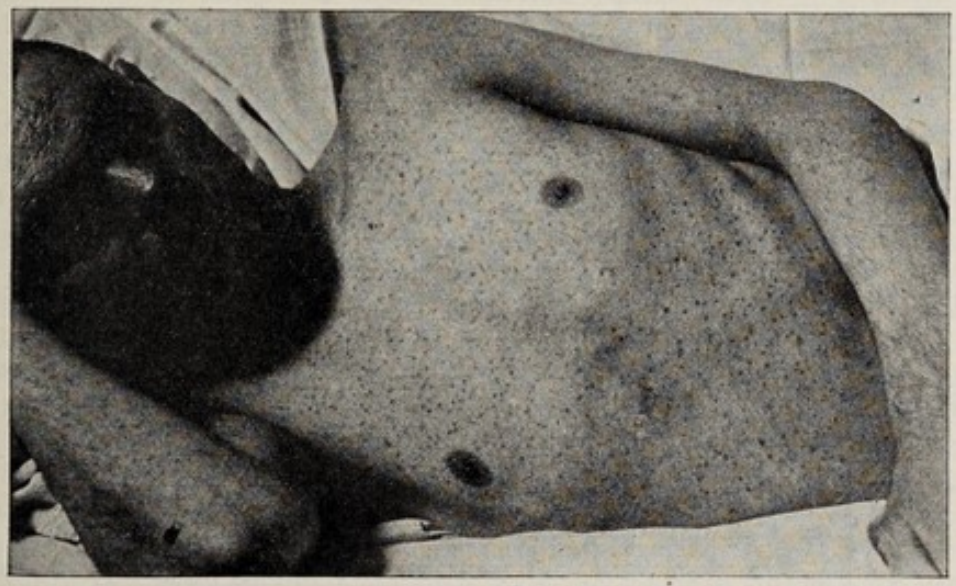


FIG. 295.—PETECHIAL ERUPTION OF TYPHUS FEVER; PATIENT RECOVERED (Welch and Schamberg).

isolated patches. Some of the maculæ do not change their hue, but remain as rose-red spots for several days—a feature commonly seen in mild forms of typhus. Again, in the milder form of the disease certain of the rose-spots may disappear upon pressure or on stretching of the skin. The true petechial patches, on the other hand, are unaltered by such manipulation. A variable degree of hyperemia may not involve those portions of the skin between the petechiæ.

Nervous Symptoms.—As in the former stage, the nervous symptoms are intense during the stage of eruption, and maniacal delirium is the rule in well-marked cases, and is frequently followed by the various types of coma, among which coma vigil is common. Even in the milder forms tremor, subsultus tendinum, and carphologia are prone to occur. Owing to the patient's delirious state he persists in resting upon his back. Unusually mild cases of typhus are seen in which both the eruption and the nervous symptoms are not well marked, and the typical clinical picture may not be present at any time during the disease. Multiple neuritis with paralysis of the extensor muscles is an occasional complication, and meningitis is rarely encountered.

Thermic Features.—Quickly following the onset the temperature will be found to rise to from 102° to 105° F., reaching the latter height by the second or third day; during the preëruptive stage the fever is of the continued type.

During the eruptive stage, which begins between the third and fifth days, there is not likely to be an appreciable decline in the fever, but between the fourteenth and seventeenth days of the disease, in favorable cases, the fever terminates by crisis. (See chart, Fig. 296.) Immediately before the crisis occurs there is likely to be a sudden rise in the temperature, and sometimes the crisis is interrupted by slight exacerbations. In favorable cases there is a decided amelioration of the symptoms following the crisis.

Physical Signs.—Inspection.—The face is flushed at first, and when coma is well developed, the expression may be dull, anxious, or staring. The cheeks are flushed, the conjunctivæ are congested, the face is expressionless, and the pupils are markedly contracted. From

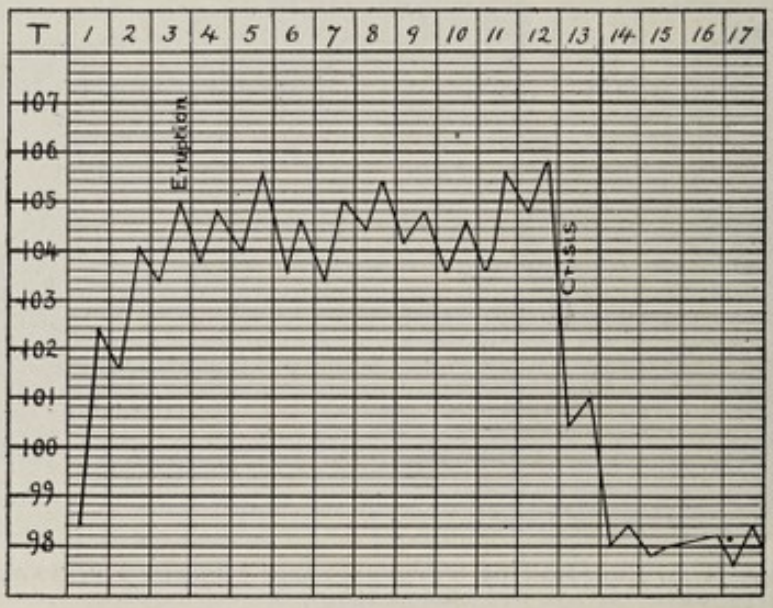


Fig. 296.—Typhus Fever Curve (Register).

the third to the fifth days the characteristic eruption will appear. (See Eruptive Stage.) The tongue is thickly coated with a yellowish-white fur.

Palpation.—In the majority of cases the spleen is appreciably enlarged, and may even be felt below the costal margin. From the onset the *pulse* shows decided acceleration, and during the eruptive stage the beats will be found to number between 120 and 140 a minute. In those cases in which the nervous manifestations are prominent the pulse may be even more rapid, and is always weak, irregular, and shows a tendency toward dicrotism There is tenderness over the shin bones and over various localized areas of the subcutaneous tissue. Embolic abscesses may also be present. Tenderness along the course of the nerve-trunks is a rare finding, and indicates the existence of neuritis. Gangrenous processes of the extremities may also follow extensive neuritis.

Percussion may show the area of splenic and hepatic dullness to be moderately increased.

Auscultation.—The heart-sounds are rapid, and in severe cases the first sound becomes greatly enfeebled with the progress of the disease.

Both fine and coarse râles are heard over both lungs, and hypostatic congestion at the bases may be responsible for increased bronchial sounds over this area. Since bronchopneumonia is so commonly seen during the course of typhus, it is important that a physical examination of the lungs be made daily during the entire febrile period.

Laboratory Diagnosis.—The *urine* is scanty, of high specific gravity, high color, and may contain a moderate amount of albumin. In severe types of infection nephritis develops as a complication, and red blood-cells, leukocytes, casts, and albumin are present in the concentrated urine.

The vomiting of blood is an occasional symptom, and the spitting of blood that accumulates about the teeth as the result of ulcers of the buccal mucous membrane is an occasional feature. The bacillus typhi exanthematici is demonstrable.

Weil-Felix Test.—The drop of blood is allowed to clot, and then mixed with four drops of saline solution placed near it, a drop of this mixture is carried over to three other drops of saline on the slide near by and mixed a drop of the second mixture is then carried over to a single drop of saline placed a little farther along the slide, thus making serum dilutions of 1:5, 1:20, and 1:40 approximately. A small amount of a twenty four hour agar slant culture of X 19 is now placed at the marker of each dilution and emulsified. The slide is then rotated on its long axis against a dark background. A positive reaction—agglutination is shown by the appearance of white flocculi, which are readily discernible. Prompt and complete clumping, especially in dilution 1:40 points to typhus fever.

Summary of Diagnosis.—The presence of an epidemic or a clear history that the patient has recently dwelt in a district in which typhus fever prevailed is of great clinical significance. A further knowledge of residence amid unhygienic surroundings (see Predisposing and Exciting Factors, p. 814) is also to be carefully weighed in all diseases in which there is a petechial eruption. Prior to the development of the eruption the diagnosis is, as a rule, doubtful, but the sudden onset with chill, the rapid rise in temperature, which remains of the continued type, together with fairly well-marked nervous symptoms and the presence of an eruption by the fifth day, makes the diagnosis positive.

Differential Diagnosis.—It may become necessary to distinguish between typhus and **epidemic cerebrospinal meningitis.** The latter condition differs from the former in that the headache is usually more intense, there is rigidity of the muscles of the neck, with some retraction of the head, hyperesthesia, intolerance of light and of sound, strabismus, and a tendency to convulsions. Lumbar puncture and a bacteriologic study of the cerebrospinal fluid also give positive results in cerebrospinal meningitis. (See Meningitis.)

In those cases of typhus fever in which nephritis is present as a complication it may be necessary to distinguish between complicated typhus and the pure **nephritic condition** with *uremia.* A diagnosis of uremia may be made largely from the clinical history, headache having lasted over a prolonged period. Uremia rarely develops in those who have been in perfect health, whereas typhus may attack practically any one. In uremia the temperature is seldom, if ever, as high as it is in typhus, and the fever does not fall by crisis. In uremia an analysis of the urine always reveals positive findings. The eruption also serves as a decisive point between typhus with nephritic complications and nephritis.

Malignant measles bears a somewhat close resemblance to typhus fever. In the former the eruption appears first upon the face and then spreads to the trunk and extremities, whereas in typhus the eruption is first seen upon the trunk and may even spread to the extremities, the face being but sparingly affected. Koplik's spots are a precursor of measles and are unknown to typhus.

Typhus fever is distinguished from **typhoid fever** by the abrupt onset and the high temperature by the end of the second day; the termination of the fever by crisis, together with the presence of a petechial eruption, is usually sufficient to rule out the existence of typhoid and to establish that of typhus fever.

Clinical Course.—This will be found to vary greatly in individual cases with the severity of the type of infection present. Uncomplicated cases show a tendency to go on to recovery after the fifteenth to the seventeenth day, and convalescence is usually uninterrupted. Mild forms of the disease are not attended with grave symptoms during any part of their course, and in these cases convalescence is often established by from the eighth to the twelfth day. In those countries in which typhus fever is common we find a mortality-rate of from 10 to 20 per cent. This rate is influenced largely by the frequency of complications in a certain epidemic.

MALTA FEVER

(Mediterranean Fever; Undulant Fever)

Definition.—An acute infectious disease caused by the micrococcus melitensis. No characteristic pathologic lesions have thus far been identified with this disease, although splenic enlargement and enlargement of the mesenteric lymph-nodes have been found.

Clinical Remarks.—Irregular fever, muscular pains, marked prostration, profound sweating, and a tendency to relapses are the clinical characteristics of this disease.

Clinical Varieties.—(1) **Pernicious Malta fever** is a type of the disease that is somewhat unusual in Mediterranean districts, but when it occurs, usually tends toward a fatal termination.

(2) The **undulant type** is characterized by a repetition of exacerbations of fever that develop at irregular intervals.

(3) The **continued type** of Malta fever, in which the febrile period persists for weeks and even months without well-marked intermissions.

Exciting and Predisposing Factors.—Bacteriology.—The micrococcus melitensis is found in the blood and other tissues of those suffering from Malta fever. The spleen particularly contains many of these cocci. Pure cultures of micrococcus melitensis, when introduced into apes, is capable of producing toxic symptoms. European students have also found this micrococcus in the blood, milk, and urine of the goats in infected regions. A residence along the shores of the Mediterranean Sea appears to be the most potent predisposing factor. The disease has also been found on the shores of the Gulf of Mexico and in the West Indies. It is occasionally transported along the lines of commerce, Musser and Sailer having studied a case in Philadelphia which originated in Porto Rico. The exact mode of infection is thus far somewhat questionable. The majority of investigators believe it is transmitted by using the milk of infected goats. The urine of those affected has been shown to contain the coccus. The theory has been offered that the disease may be transmitted to man through the bites of a certain mosquito.

Period of Incubation.—The length of the incubation period fluctuates greatly, and varies between that of a few days to twenty or even thirty days.

Principal Complaint.—The symptoms develop gradually, and, indeed, the early stage of Malta fever resembles closely that of beginning typhoid. There are headache, malaise, moderate fever, complete anorexia, occasionally slight chilly sensations, and mild attacks of shivering. Epistaxis may be an early symptom. There is, as a rule, well-marked constipation, and the stools may be streaked with blood. Diarrhea may occur in those cases that show marked prostration.

Relapses are frequent, and, as a rule, last for from five to six weeks. The afebrile periods last for one or two weeks, during which the patient enjoys fair health. In each attack rheumatic pains may be sufficiently severe to prevent movement of any kind. Following the first relapse the condition may go on to recovery, or within a period of one or more months there may be another repetition of the febrile exacerbation.

Thermic Features.—The fever is of the remittent type, and persists for one, two, or probably three weeks, when there is an absence of fever for two or more days, the period of apyrexia being followed by a relapse, when the fever continues high (100° to 103° F.), as in the initial paroxysm. In grave cases the temperature may be continuous rather than remittent, and when hyperpyrexia occurs, the outlook is grave. In selected cases the temperature may be decidedly irregular, in which case its diagnostic significance is lost.



Fig. 297.—Micrococcus Melitensis (Jordan).

Physical Signs.—Inspection.—The expression is somewhat anxious, the movements are sluggish, and when the muscular pains are severe, the patient may remain in one position.

Palpation.—The spleen is tender, and may even be painful upon firm pressure. During the early stage of the disease the pulse resembles that of typhoid fever.

Percussion shows the area of splenic dullness to be enlarged.

Laboratory Diagnosis.—A differential leukocyte count shows the polymorphonuclear elements to be increased. With pure cultures of the micrococcus melitensis the serum from persons suffering from Malta fever will be found to give a typical agglutination reaction. (See Serum-reaction.) Blood culture will give a pure growth of the organism.

Summary and Differential Diagnosis.—This is based largely upon the residence of the patient in districts known to be infected with Malta fever. The insidious onset, remittent temperature, and the tendency toward relapses serve to differentiate this condition from typhoid fever, although in the early stage of the disease a differential diagnosis is quite impossible, except upon application of the agglutination test. Polyarthritis and, at least, soreness in the region of the articular surfaces are features that strongly support the existence of Malta fever.

Clinical Course.—The disease is of long duration, the febrile periods alternating with periods of apyrexia for two, three, or four months.

TRENCH FEVER

(FIVE-DAY FEVER; FEBRIS WOLHYNICA)

The disease was reported from the German Army by His, and later it was detected in the British Armies in 1916. It was widely prevalent amongst the English, French, and Italian Armies, 1916 to 1918.

Etiology.—Bacteriologists have endeavored to establish a definite etiologic cause for the disease, but thus far there remains some unsettled questions. A. C. Coles,* reports the finding of spirochete-like bodies in the blood of artificially produced trench fever. Strong states that in 103 experiments on human volunteers he was able to establish that trench fever is a specific infectious disease, excited by a filterable virus, which in his judgment is transmitted by the bites of the louse. The filter-passing bacteria have also been detected in the urine and blood from those sick of the disease. Homer Swift, Bashford, and Wilson have studied these filter-passing bacteria extensively, and an analysis of their work shows that in trench fever there are minute coccus-like bodies, (filter-passers) usually grouped in pairs with the opposing surfaces flattened and varying from 0.3μ to 0.5μ. This organism is gram positive, passes through Berkefeld N. and V., and Massen porcelain filters, is an anaerobe, and is readily cultivated from such filtrates. It resists a temperature of 56° C. for 30 minutes. Wolbach refers to rickettsiæ in this malady.†

Clinical Features.—The course of the disease is irregular, relapses occurring at indefinite intervals, some cases resembling influenza. Continuous fever, extending over a long period, may in selected cases, suggest the existence of typhoid, or paratyphoid fever. The onset is often acute, being ushered in by headache, vertigo, muscle and joint pains, involving more especially the lower limbs at the insertions of the muscles, and in the bones. The cervical muscles are sore, the back pains resemble that of lumbago, and the shin bone pains would suggest the existence of dengue. In still another class of cases the disease develops insidiously. Symptoms may disappear for either a short or a long period, and reappear somewhat analogous to what is seen in malaria. Among the nervous phenomena are neurasthenia and cardiac neurosis.

Physical and Laboratory Examination.—The spleen is enlarged and the conjunctiva congested. A rash is present, which in some respects resembles that of typhoid fever. Cases may show either a leukopenia, or a moderate leukocytosis. The urine may contain albumin, and a filter-passing bacteria.

RELAPSING FEVER

(FEBRIS RECURRENS)

Pathologic Definition.—An acute infectious disease caused by spirochæta recurrentis, and characterized by cloudy swelling of the heart, liver, and kidneys when death occurs during the febrile period. There may be hemorrhagic infarction of the viscera and extravasations into the serous sacs. The spleen is, as a rule, enlarged, but varies greatly in size in different cases. There is hyperplasia of the lymphoid elements of the bone-marrow, and occasionally the viscera, skin, and mucous surfaces are jaundiced.

General Remarks and Parasitology.—In 1873 Obermeier first detected in the blood of man, then suffering from relapsing fever, a

*Lancet, March 8, 1919.

†Jour. Am. Med. Assoc., Mar. 7, 1925, p. 723.

peculiar organism which has since been named the Spirochæta recurrentis. The spirocheta of relapsing fever is probably transmitted to man by lice; however, bed-bugs are believed to possess this power. In western Africa the S. duttoni is transmitted by a tick, while in northern Africa S. berbera is conveyed to man by the louse; and the relapsing fever of India is caused by S. carteri, which is believed to be transmitted to man by the louse. S. novyi and S. persica are the American and Persian races of the organism. It is possible that the special varieties of Spirochæta described in connection with this type of fever are one and the same organism, showing slight differences when studied by various bacteriologists. There are recorded instances where relapsing fever has been conveyed from one human subject to another by direct inoculation. Spirocheta are present in the blood of man during febrile exacerbations.

Clinical Varieties.—Relapsing fever will be found to vary greatly in different individuals, a feature that is probably explained by the

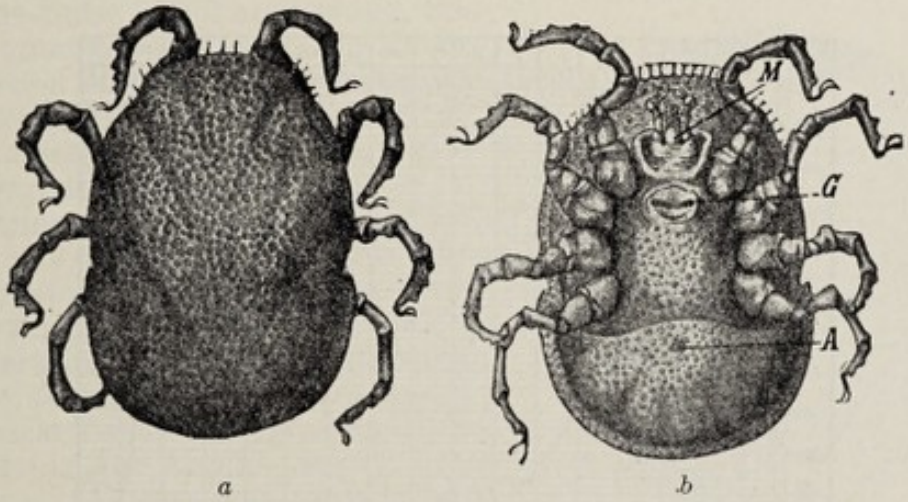


FIG. 298.—ORNITHODORUS MOUBATA. TICK THAT TRANSMITS AFRICAN RELAPSING FEVER.

a, Viewed from above; *b*, viewed from below (Murray and Doflein).

peculiar type of infection in a given case; consequently very mild cases occur, that consist of only one or two brief febrile periods.

The so-called **"bilious typhoid"** is the other extreme in the clinical types of relapsing fever. In this variety the symptoms are unusually severe, and the patient is likely to fall into the typhoid state, and, in addition, to develop jaundice, hemorrhage from the stomach and the bowel, and the symptoms of uremia with sudden collapse. Septic and pyemic processes, including the deposit of septic emboli in different portions of the body, may be observed.

Exciting and Predisposing Factors.—Relapsing fever is due to an infection with spirochæta recurrentis (Spirochæta duttoni). Dutton and Todd found the horse-tick (Ornithodorus moubata) (Murray) (Fig. 298), to be the intermediate host of the spirilla causing this disease. These observers permitted the horse-tick to bite infected human beings, and subsequently these infected ticks were found capable of transmitting the disease to monkeys. The above observations have been confirmed by Koch, Ross, and others. **Age** serves as quite a prominent predisposing factor, since the majority of those attacked are found to be

between the twelfth and the twenty-fifth year. The disease is also more common in males than in females.

Principal Complaint and Symptoms.—Following the period of incubation, the symptoms develop abruptly, with a distinct *rigor*, or, in mild cases, a succession of *mild chills*. Extreme *frontal headache* is constantly complained of, and there are also *pains* in the back, loins, and limbs, and *extreme prostration* and vertigo. The *throat* is often sore, and there may be considerable difficulty in swallowing. *Anorexia* becomes complete early during the course of the disease, and nausea, vomiting, and inordinate thirst are common. *Constipation* obtains during the prodromal stage.

After the crisis the patient's general vitality is at a low ebb, consequently profuse sweating, menorrhagia, and intestinal hemorrhage may occur. In favorable cases all annoying symptoms disappear with great rapidity after the crisis is passed.

Nervous Manifestations.—These are, as a rule, mild in character, although headache may persist for several days, during which time the

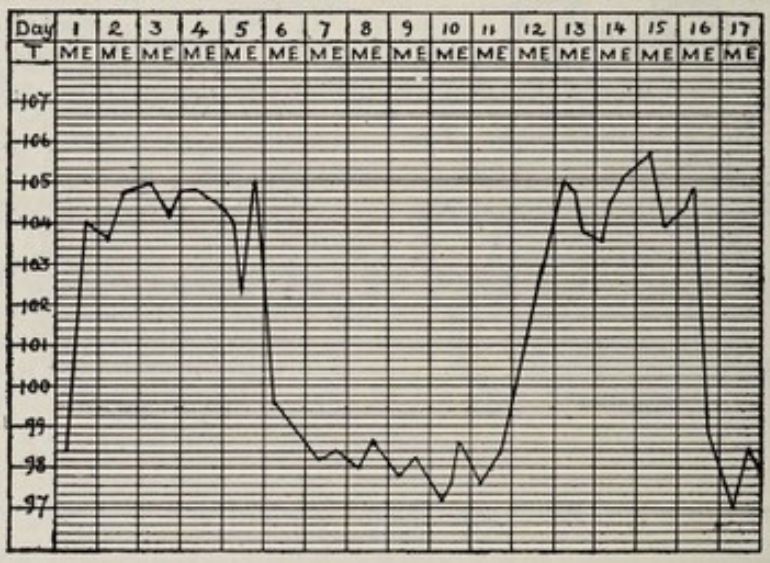


FIG. 299.—RELAPSING FEVER (Register).

patient is more or less stupefied. Delirium is not usual in uncomplicated cases, although it may set in just prior to the crisis. In the average case the patient may remain conscious throughout the attack.

After an *afebrile period*, lasting about one week, all the symptoms previously outlined are repeated, but with lessened severity than during the initial paroxysm.

Thermic Features.—The temperature rises somewhat rapidly after the chill, reaching an elevation of 102° to 106° F. by the end of the first or during the second day. The temperature is of the continued type for a period of about six days, when, just prior to the crisis, the fever may suddenly rise one or two additional degrees. This hyperpyrexia is a common precursor of the crisis, and is soon followed by a rapid fall to, or in many instances below, the normal. (See Chart, Fig. 299.) Each succeeding attack of fever is of shorter duration and milder in character than the preceding attack, and four or five such exacerbations may occur.

Physical Signs.—Inspection.—The *skin* becomes pigmented and dusky in appearance and sooner or later acquires a dirty yellow tint, a condition that is frequently referred to as bronzing. The cheeks are

flushed during the febrile period, the eyes appear somewhat sunken, and the face is often beaded with perspiration; indeed, in certain cases sudamina may be an annoying feature. Peculiar cutaneous eruptions are occasionally present, but are in no way characteristic of relapsing fever. Herpes labialis may be a common feature in certain epidemics, whereas in others it is practically absent.

The *tongue* is at first covered with a moist, yellowish fur, but as the fever rises it becomes brown, dry, and fissured, and sordes accumulate about the teeth. Numerous small ulcers may be seen along the margins of the gums and upon the tongue, and congestion of both the tonsillar and the pharyngeal mucous membrane is likely to be present. The frequency of the chest movements may be somewhat increased, and the chest-wall may be seen to pulsate violently as the result of cardiac palpitation.

Palpation.—The pulse is found to be increased in frequency while the temperature is rising, although this increase is seldom in direct proportion to the heightened fever. At first the pulse is full and strong, the beats numbering from 100 to 120 or even 140 a minute. In severe types of infection the pulse may exceed 140 beats a minute, and become weak, irregular, and even dicrotic.

During the febrile paroxysm there is usually tenderness over the epigastrium, and even gentle pressure over the trunk elicits tenderness; certain portions of the cutaneous surface also, as well as certain groups of muscles, may be hyperesthetic. On placing the hand over the precordium, the heart may often be felt to pulsate violently, and moderate excitement may induce an attack of palpitation. Palpation over the region of both the liver and the spleen may show these viscera to be moderately enlarged. A complete meningeal syndrome is observed in about 10 to 20 per cent. of the severe cases, *e. g.*, intense headache, neck rigidity, and Kernig's sign.

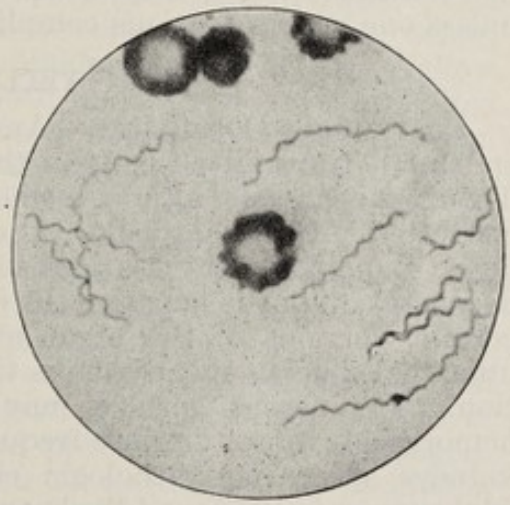


FIG. 300.—SPIROCHÆTA RECURRENTIS FROM HUMAN BLOOD (Kolle and Wassermann).

Percussion.—The area of hepatic and of splenic dullness may be moderately increased.

Auscultation.—The sounds of the heart are, as a rule, full and strong, even though the pulse may be 120 to 140. In severe cases an appreciable portion of the muscular element of the first sound of the heart may be missing at the time of the crisis. A systolic murmur, probably hemic in character, is occasionally audible over the heart. The physical signs of bronchitis are commonly present, and lobar pneumonia and hypostatic congestion are among the usual complications.

Laboratory Diagnosis.—The vomitus is, as a rule, greenish in color, although at times it is black, and contains large quantities of bile; rarely do we find red blood-cells.

The *urine* is highly colored, of high specific gravity, and may contain a trace of albumin. When jaundice is associated, which is quite a common occurrence, the urine is rich in bile and displays a heavy yellow froth.

Blood obtained from the finger-tip or from the ear during the febrile period will be found to contain the spirochete. (See Fig. 300.) The spirochæta may be readily studied in both the fresh blood and in stained preparations.

Summary of Diagnosis.—A history of an epidemic, or of the patient having recently resided in the tropics, together with the sudden onset, the continued type of fever with an abrupt termination on the seventh day, would strongly support the existence of relapsing fever. Again, the characteristic interval separating the febrile periods is known to no other disease. Examination of both the fresh and the stained blood during the febrile period makes the diagnosis positive through the detection of the organism.

Clinical Course.—The duration of relapsing fever depends entirely upon the number of paroxysms the patient may have; hence should there be a single relapse, the febrile period will continue for but from twelve to sixteen days. In complicated cases, and particularly when lung and kidney complications are present, convalescence may be greatly delayed and continue over several weeks. A fatal termination is seldom witnessed unless one or more serious complications are present.

YELLOW FEVER

Pathologic Definition.—An acute infectious disease (epidemic and endemic), transmitted to man through the bites of infected mosquitoes. The liver is anemic, although when death occurs early, the organ may be congested. It is pale yellow in color, and at times may have an orange hue. Punctate extravasations make the organ appear mottled. Fatty degeneration of the hepatic cells is the rule, although sections made from certain portions of the organ may be practically normal. The gastro-intestinal mucous membrane is the site of an acute catarrhal inflammation. The serous surface may display punctate hemorrhages, and hemorrhagic infarctions are frequently present in the solid viscera. The kidneys show the pathologic changes characteristic of acute diffuse nephritis (see p. 718) and the heart muscle is the seat of fatty degeneration. There is extensive fatty degeneration of the walls of the blood-vessels, and the red blood-cells are often disintegrated and are found to have given up their hemoglobin.

Clinical Varieties.—Several clinical varieties of yellow fever have been described, and each of these is characterized by the presence of one or more of its prominent features. Finley's classification of the disease permits of the following distinctive clinical types: (1) **Acclimation fever** or **non-albuminuric yellow fever;** (2) **plain albuminuric yellow fever;** and (3) **melano-albuminuric yellow fever,** characterized by the presence of blood or "black vomit" in the stomach or intestines.

Predisposing and Exciting Factors.—Noguchi* recovered a filterable virus from the blood in 3 of 11 cases of yellow fever. This organism designated leptospira icteroides, and has been found pathogenic for laboratory animals. It stains with difficulty by most aniline dyes, and is rapidly destroyed by bacteria. Its culture is best accomplished on blood serum. "Leptospira icteroides multiplies by transverse division." P. Perez Groves working with the Commission of 1920 confirms the claims set forth by Noguchi regarding the leptospira icteroides.† Among the predisposing factors, **season** figures most prominently, yellow fever prevailing chiefly during the summer months; epidemics are, as a rule, arrested by the approach of frost.

* Jour. Exp. Med., July, 1919.
† Ref. N. Y. Med. Jour., Feb. 5, 1921.

Age is also an important factor, since children are more susceptible to the disease than are adults, because in a yellow fever district the adults are immune on account of an attack of the disease during childhood.

Exposure of Mosquitoes.—In 1881 C. J. Finley pointed out that this disease was transmitted through the agency of the mosquito. It remained for the commission of the U. S. Army, made up of Drs. Reed, Carroll, Lazear, and Agramonte to furnish incontestable experimental proof that yellow fever is a mosquito-borne affection. These observers have shown that the *stegomyia calopus* is probably the only carrier of the infecting agent. Twelve days after biting a yellow fever patient the bite of the mosquito will infect a non-immune person. The insect is capable of infecting man for a period of several weeks. There is some evidence to show that the mosquito (once infected) is capable of transmitting the parasite for the remainder of its life. The patient's blood infects the mosquito only during the first three days of the disease. The clothing, vomitus, urine, and feces are believed to be non-infectious.

The *stegomyia calopus* has been found as far north as Philadelphia, and southward to the Rio de la Plata river; it is prevalent in Cuba. The larvæ develop only in artificial collections of comparatively clean water, and this mosquito seldom breeds far outside a city's limits. Yellow fever is thus a domiciliary infection. Both insects and larvæ are killed by freezing. They inflict their bites principally late in the afternoon. They are not capable of long flights. Not all mosquitoes that bite a yellow-fever subject become infected. They either fail to secure the parasite, or the parasite does not subsequently develop.

Period of Incubation.—This varies from two to five days, and possibly a longer period may be required. During the stage of incubation headache, languor, and a poor appetite may be present.

Clinical Stages.—Stage of Invasion.—*Principal Complaint.*—Given an average case of yellow fever, the onset is abrupt, being ushered in by a *chill,* which is seldom severe, and practically never prolonged. Following the chill the patient complains of feeling hot, of *headache,* of distressing *pains* in the loins and legs, and later he becomes extremely restless, with some confusion of ideas. *Photophobia* is an early annoying symptom, and vomiting is common. The patient usually complains of a burning sensation and of marked oppression in the region of the epigastrium. The *duration* of the initial symptoms will be found to vary between six and eight hours in ordinary cases, although it may continue for two or three days, and a longer period has been observed. The stage of invasion is often unusually long in mild types of the disease. With the termination of this stage there is an appreciable subsidence of the fever and of all the symptoms and signs presented by the patient.

Nervous Symptoms.—In addition to the restlessness previously mentioned, the patient may manifest well-marked delirium, and maniacal outbreaks occasionally develop.

Thermic Features.—Following the initial chill the temperature rises somewhat abruptly to 103° 104°, or 105° F. After the temperature has attained its greatest height, it declines by lysis, showing slight evening exacerbations and morning remissions.

Physical Signs.—Inspection.—The face is flushed, and soon gives evidence of jaundice, yellow pigmentation of the skin being the most characteristic sign of the disease. The eyes are markedly congested. The tongue may be furred, although this is by no means a constant finding.

Palpation.—Abdominal tenderness is present, and firm pressure may elicit pain over the epigastrium. The relation of the pulse-rate to the

temperature is an important diagnostic feature of yellow fever. This relation is seen uniformly in no other disease. As the temperature rises the pulse falls, so that it is frequently observed that a patient with a temperature of 104° F. or over will have a pulse-rate of 80 or lower. As convalescence progresses the pulse may fall to 50 a minute or below. In fatal cases there is either a progressive rise in the pulse-rate over several days, or a sudden rise for a few hours before death.

Stage of Remission.—Following immediately upon the termination of the initial stage, convalescence may begin, and go on to recovery without interruption. In the majority of cases, during this stage the patient displays certain symptoms and signs of impaired health, *e. g.*, prostration, jaundice, and choluria, all of which are likely to continue during the first twenty-four hours, at which time, unless convalescence is established, another more serious exacerbation—the stage of secondary fever—begins.

Stage of Collapse (Secondary Fever).—Here the patient's general condition is that of extreme prostration, the various signs of collapse being manifest.

Nervous Symptoms.—Grave nervous symptoms, convulsions, coma, and the general clinical picture of uremia may be seen during this stage of the disease, and when present, are usually attributed to an associated nephritis.

Physical Signs.—Inspection.—The features are pinched, the skin has a peculiar yellow or bronzed tint, and there may be numerous minute cutaneous hemorrhages. The expression is dull, the tongue is dry, brown, and often blackish in appearance; but in some cases the surface of the tongue may be smooth, bright red, and deeply fissured. The teeth and lips are covered with sordes.

Palpation.—The surface of the body is cold. The pulse becomes weak, rapid, soft, irregular, and compressible. In certain instances in which the degree of infection is unusually severe the pulse may be slow and the beats not exceed 20 to 30 a minute.

Laboratory Diagnosis.—The leptospira icteroides may be recovered from the blood and urine during the early stage of the disease. It is to be emphasized that this organism passes through Berkefeld V. & N. filters, and that its culture is inhibited by the presence of other bacteria, also that it stains with difficulty by the ordinary aniline dyes. It is one of the most fragile of all known pathogenic parasites. During the initial stage the *vomitus* may be blood-streaked, or contain chocolate-colored particles of blood-clot. Rarely, indeed, does the patient vomit pure blood before the stage of remission.

During the stage of collapse there is likely to be hemorrhage into the stomach, when the blood is ejected with the gastric secretion—the so-called "black vomit." Occasionally pure blood that has been unchanged by the gastric secretion is vomited.

Blood is also expelled by the bowel, and, as a result, the stools are tarry. In severe types of yellow fever hemorrhage from the nasal and uterine mucous membranes is not unusual.

The quantity of *urine* voided is usually decreased, even during the initial stage, and the fluid is of high color and of high specific gravity. During the stage of collapse the quantity excreted will be found to be much smaller than normal. The urine is bile-stained, displays a rich yellow froth, and may contain albumin, red blood-cells, and casts. In those cases complicated by nephritis, anuria may be present.

Summary of Diagnosis.—In formulating a diagnosis during the initial stage of yellow fever the following points should be carefully

weighed: The existence of an epidemic, a sudden onset with a mild chill, pain in the back and loins, cephalalgia, slight yellowing of the skin, nausea with the vomiting of bile-stained material, and the characteristic pulse (*i. e.*, a gradual decrease in the rate of frequency while the fever continues to rise); all these strongly favor the existence of yellow fever.

During the third stage the diagnosis is comparatively easy, and is based upon the presence of severe jaundice, black vomit, the high color and diminished quantity of the urine, together with the signs of collapse.

In a mild type of yellow fever the diagnosis is often made with great difficulty, since the febrile period may last but one day.

Differential Diagnosis.—See Differential Diagnosis of Dengue, and of Sprue, p. 796.

LOBAR PNEUMONIA

(CROUPOUS OR FIBRINOUS PNEUMONIA; PNEUMONITIS; LUNG FEVER)

Pathologic Definition.—An acute infectious disease, usually excited by the pneumococcus Types I, II, III and IV which produces a specific inflammation resulting in consolidation of the lung. This inflammatory process is divided pathologically into three stages: (1) Stage of congestion; (2) stage of red hepatization; and (3) stage of gray hepatization. Levin, Goodman, and Pancoast in reporting 104 autopsies found petechiæ of the skin and mucous membrane to be rather common. Twenty-four of their cases displayed jaundice, but in none of these were there any detectable deformity in the gall-bladder or common duct. An excess of pleural fluids was common, and parenchymatous changes in a varying degree was present in most of the organs. Approximately 70 of the patients were found to have died during the stage of red hepatization—21 during gray hepatization, and 9 showed abscess or gangrene of the lung; while in 36 instances lobar pneumonia was found to be in combination with lobular pneumonia. The streptococcus hemolyticus was demonstrated so often in the tissues that these writers suggest that many of the cases were streptococcus pneumonia, rather than lobar or lobular pneumonia.

(1) **Stage of Congestion.**—Upon opening the chest, the portion of lung involved is seen to be dark red in color and somewhat firm to the feel, although it does crepitate. From the cut surface blood-stained serum oozes, and the capillaries are engorged with blood. Excised pieces of the lung float when placed in water.

Microscopically, the alveolar epithelium is swollen, the capillaries are markedly distended, and the air-cells contain alveolar epithelium, red corpuscles, and a few leukocytes. The smaller bronchi may also contain some exudate. The duration of this stage is ordinarily from twelve to twenty-four hours.

(2) **Stage of Red Hepatization.**—Here the involved area of the lung is solid to the feel, resembling in this respect liver tissue (Fig. 301). Incised portions of the diseased organ do not crepitate and sink when placed in water. The cut surface of the lung is reddish-brown or of a mahogany color, and its surface is dry and somewhat mottled. The diseased part of the lung is larger than normal, and when the consolidation extends to the surface of the organ, indentations corresponding to the ribs are seen. During this stage the diseased lung is airless, nor can it be inflated from a bronchus. Thin slices of the diseased organ break readily, and the broken surface is more or less irregular and finely granular in character; by scraping the back of a knife over this irregular surface, minute plugs, composed of the inflammatory exudate, are dislodged from the alveoli.

The dry exudate occupying the air-cells soon softens, and in such instances a viscid fluid flows from the cut surface of the organ.

The visceral pleura overlying the affected lung is covered with a fibrinous exudate. Effusion into the pleural sac is not unusual.

Microscopically, the air-spaces are found to be filled by a fibrinous exudate which contains red blood-corpuscles, leukocytes, and alveolar epithelial cells. At times the interlobular connective tissue shows infiltration. The pneumococcus is invariably present, and staphylococci and streptococci may also be seen.

(3) **Stage of Gray Hepatization.**—With the beginning of this stage the fibrinous exudate loses its mahogany color and becomes grayish or granite-like in appearance (Fig. 302). There is now extensive fatty and granular

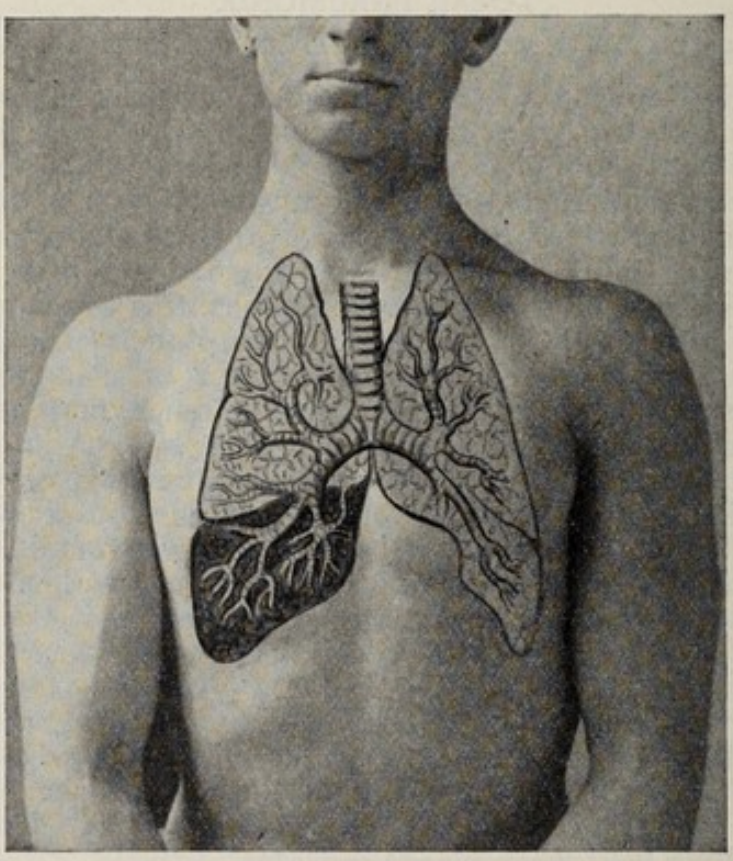


Fig. 301.—Acute Lobar Pneumonia (Second Stage).

degeneration, with softening of the inflammatory exudate, and from the cut surface of the diseased lung a yellowish-white, and at times almost purulent, frothy liquid exudes. The pleura overlying the diseased lung is covered with fibrinous exudate.

Microscopically, the air-cells are found to be almost entirely filled with leukocytes, which is in striking contrast to the second stage of the disease, in which they contain red blood-cells, white blood-cells, and fibrin.

In unfavorable cases there may be purulent infiltration of the lung tissue with extensive necrosis, or, as is occasionally seen, an abscess may develop. Resolution may be delayed, and the pulmonary condition remain unaltered for a variable time. Fibroid induration (see Chronic Interstitial Pneumonia) may also be present in some cases. Certain pneumonic conditions in which resolution is delayed may be found later to be of a tuberculous nature. Pericarditis is present in a small proportion of cases, but endocarditis is more common.

Clinical Varieties.—(*a*) The **usual type** of the disease will be described in detail.

(*b*) **Typhoid pneumonia** is a serious form of the disease in which typhoid symptoms are present. It has nothing to do with typhoid fever. It often complicates low fevers, septicemia, diabetes, and chronic nephritis, and is the variety seen in alcoholic subjects and persons of low resisting power. The *onset* is gradual, and the *physical signs* may be somewhat ill defined, but the general features are often more or less characteristic.

Prostration is extreme, and there are often *delirium* and *stupor*. The *temperature* is not characteristic, and the *respirations* and *pulse* are, as a rule, much increased. The skin is dry and may be jaundiced. The

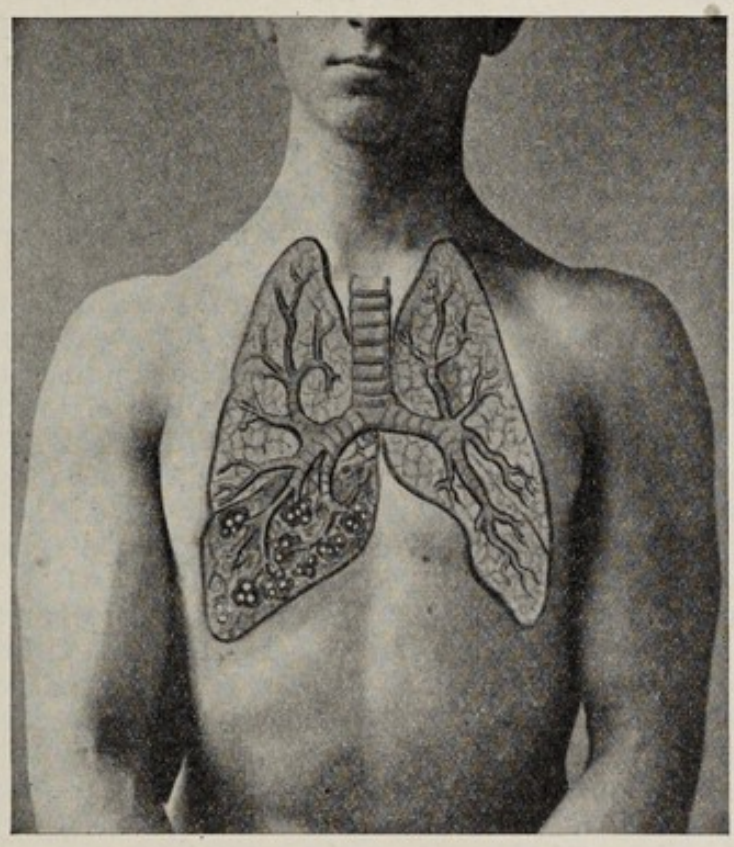


Fig. 302.—Acute Lobar Pneumonia (Third Stage).

tongue is dry and brown, and gastric irritation with vomiting is fairly common. The sputum is blood-streaked, and in some cases almost clear blood is expectorated. The *spleen* is generally enlarged.

(*c*) **Latent Pneumonia.**—In this class are included the *central pneumonias*. The leading clinical feature is the detection of many *pneumococci* in the sputum. If the lung was emphysematous prior to the development of pneumonia, the characteristic *physical signs* of pneumonia, *e. g.*, dullness and bronchial breathing, may be absent throughout the entire course of the disease. Evidences of consolidation, when present, depend upon the extension of the inflammatory process to the surface of the lung.

(*d*) **Migratory Pneumonia.**—In this variety the specific inflammation extends to other parts of the lungs. Such extension may prevent the occurrence of the usual crisis, and often causes an exacerbation of the general pneumonic features. We have frequently studied at autopsy

cases in which the pneumonic process showed three distinct stages of development in the same lung.*

(*e*) **Epidemic Pneumonia.**—This is often of the malignant type, and the symptoms display noticeable variations, dependent upon the etiologic factors; they may vary, too, in different epidemics. The pneumonias seen with *epidemic influenza* are complicated with or preceded by an attack of general bronchitis. Owing to failure of the heart, pulmonary congestion is likely to occur, and the *physical signs* are, as a rule, indefinite.

The so-called "*streptococcus pneumonia*," likewise seen to follow influenza, is frequently referred to as *serous pneumonia*. The *physical signs* often resemble those of bronchopneumonia, although large areas of consolidation may sometimes be detected. The sputum may be mucopurulent throughout, or it may be blood-streaked late in the disease. The termination of this type varies greatly in different cases, the fever falling at times by *lysis*. *House* and *institution epidemics* are quite common, and have been referred to under the Etiologic Factors of Pneumonia.

(*f*) **Senile Pneumonia.**—In the *aged* the initial chill is often absent or replaced by attacks of chilliness. Nausea and vomiting may be present; *prostration* is profound early, and the *fever* is low and irregular in type. *Cough*, *expectoration*, and *pain* may be absent, and the nervous symptoms may be mild or, at times, severe. The *physical signs* are not characteristic, although in selected cases dullness and exaggerated breathing (possibly bronchial) may be detected. This type of pneumonia is highly fatal.

(*g*) **Pneumonia of Children.**—Here the onset is often marked by a convulsion, and cerebral symptoms (delirium, stupor, coma) may appear early. The apices are more frequently attacked. *Pain* may be reflected over the abdomen, and when the right lung is involved the pain may be in the region of the gall-bladder or of the appendix. The *sputum* is not characteristic.

(*h*) **"Abortive pneumonias"** last only from twenty-four to forty-eight hours. The *general features* are rigor, high fever, and defervescence by crisis, with profuse sweating. The *sputum* is rarely characteristic, and the physical signs are variable; typical tubular breathing is rare, whereas râles and pleural involvement are common.

(*i*) **Bilious Pneumonia ("Malarial Pneumonia").**—In pneumonia occurring in malarial subjects the initial chill is prolonged, and the *fever* is frequently remittent. *Jaundice* and *tympanites* are common features.

(*j*) **Terminal Pneumonia.**—Many cases of pneumonia are diagnosticated only at autopsy. These arise in advanced cases of chronic pulmonary tuberculosis, organic heart disease, chronic nephritis, diabetes, and other chronic maladies. The only features to call attention to pneumonia in such cases are slight elevation of temperature and moderate increase in the number of respirations.

(*k*) **'Ether Pneumonia.**—"Opinions are divided as to the frequency of occurrence of lobar pneumonia after ether narcosis. The aggregate number of cases from all sources (57,842) gives a percentage of 0.07." In our statistics, embracing 12,842 cases, giving a percentage of 0.23, we have called special attention to certain etiologic factors in ether pneumonia as follows:

The *principal causes* are "(*a*) *Season.*—According to my investigations, over 80 per cent. of the cases occur during the winter and spring months. The patient is sometimes carried from a heated operating-theater through a cold corridor to a room or ward with a lower temperature."

*N. Y. Med. Jour. & Record, 2, 1919.

"(*b*) 'Catching cold,' or exposure, as may obtain during protracted operations.

"(*c*) Bronchitis, coryza, or other morbid state of the respiratory mucosa at the time of anesthesia.

"(*d*) Dried secretions or incrustations of foreign matter that are loosened by the ether and drawn downward into the lungs.

"(*e*) Abdominal operations give the highest percentage of cases, and my studies show that this may be due to the more protracted etherizations" (Anders).

Certain authors have suggested that ether pneumonia is often due to septic emboli. The *general clinical picture* of ether pneumonia is practically identical with that of catarrhal pneumonia. The physical signs are often indistinct, yet we would advise that a physical examination of the lungs and heart be conducted in every instance in which there is an elevation in temperature following ether anesthesia.

(*l*) **Relasping Pneumonia.**—This type is rare, although recurrences, as stated under Predisposing and Exciting Factors, are quite common.

Exciting and Predisposing Factors.—Bacteriology.—The micrococcus lanceolatus (pneumococcus) is now generally conceded to be the exciting cause of the disease, and this organism is found in the sputum throughout the entire course of the disease. Four strains of the pneumococcus are recognized, and, with the exception of strain three, these clinical types are distinguishable by agglutination reactions.

Type I is the exciting factor in 33 per cent. of all cases, and the mortality rate is 25 to 30 per cent.; Type II, is present in approximately 33 per cent. of cases, and the mortality rate is 25 to 30 per cent.; Type III, which was originally classified with streptococcus mucous is readily distinguished from the foregoing varieties. It is found in from 10 to 15 per cent. of cases. The mortality rate for Type III is approximately 50 per cent.; Type IV constitutes a heterogenous group of pneumococci, each number being capable of producing agglutinins. This type is found in approximately 20 per cent. of cases. Pneumonia excited by this organism has a low mortality rate of 10 to 15 per cent. Other bacteria may also be present, and, indeed, the rule is to find more than one bacterium in the sputum of pneumonia. We have studied at postmortem a few cases dead of lobar pneumonia in which the predominant bacterium in the consolidated lung tissue was either the streptococcus or the staphylococcus, and in two such cases studied at the Philadelphia Hospital only streptococci and staphylococci were found in the sputum during life, and only streptococci were found in the lung tissue at autopsy and were developed in cultures from the lung. In this class of cases it cannot be asserted that the streptococcus excited the inflammatory process, for, indeed, the streptococcic or staphylococcic infection may have been secondary.

Among the *predisposing factors* are unsanitary surroundings; thus we find **epidemics** that may be serious in nature, affecting especially the inmates of barracks, tenement-houses, and public institutions. Laboratory experiments on animals have shown that pneumonia is a common disease among young mice, and the fact that mice are frequently found in the kitchens, cupboards, and even upon receptacles in which food is kept may, in a measure, help to explain the occurrence of house epidemics. Rodman reports an epidemic developing in a prison with 735 inmates, of whom 118 developed pneumonia, 25 succumbing to the disease. Epidemic influences are not without effect, and during certain years, and

particularly at certain seasons, the disease prevails both in cities and in rural districts.

Season appears to figure somewhat prominently as a predisposing factor, as is shown by the statistics of Anders, who studied the mortality list of the city of Philadelphia, covering the decade from 1894 to 1903: "January, 4210; February, 3717; March, 3490; April, 3039; December, 2860; May, 2238, November, 1936; October, 1269; June, 1165; July, 913; September, 826; August, 800." The period showing the greatest number of cases is sometimes found to correspond with the period displaying the greatest variations in temperature and humidity. Seitz, of Munich, collected 5905 cases, and of these, 36.8 per cent. developed during the spring; 32 per cent. in winter; 15.7 per cent. in autumn, and 15.3 per cent. during the summer months.

Age and Sex.—Lobar pneumonia is somewhat common at all decades of life, yet during the first and second years it is comparatively infrequent. During the third and fourth decades and after the sixtieth year it is unusually common. Males are attacked more often than are females.

Immunity.—Cecil, Austin and Vaughn,* state the following deductions: The death rate in primary pneumonia among vaccinated troops was 11.9 per cent.—among those unvaccinated it was 31.8 per cent. The percentage of cases among the unvaccinated was twice as great as among those vaccinated.

Pneumonia Complicating Other Maladies.—In a person whose resisting power to infections is lowered by the excessive use of alcohol, by exposure, by recent acute disease, or by present chronic disease, such as nephritis, cardiac disease, diabetes, carcinoma, and the anemias, pneumonia is especially likely to occur and to result fatally. A fatal attack of pneumonia occurring during the course of one of the above-mentioned chronic diseases is known as a *terminal pneumonia*. A *prior attack* of pneumonia appears to render the patient especially susceptible to the disease, so that repeated attacks are quite common.

Principal Complaint.—In those cases in which pneumonia does not develop during the course of another malady the clinical history is in itself quite characteristic, but if the disease develops in conjunction with either a chronic or another acute infection, many of the leading features may be masked by the preëxisting disease; consequently in this particular class of cases the physical signs may furnish the first evidence of the nature of the complaint.

Prodromal Symptoms.—These may not be absent, but when present, consist of slight indisposition, which lasts for a day or so. *Cough*, *anorexia*, *oppression*, profuse sweating on exertion (six to twelve hours before initial chill,) and slight discomfort in the chest may, in exceptional cases, be present. In those displaying distinct prodromes the disease may not develop so abruptly as usual, and there may be symptoms referable to the intestinal tract, as one or more liberal bowel movements.

Invasion.—In the typical cases this is *abrupt*, and is characterized by a distinct chill, lasting for from one-half to one hour. The patient always complains of feeling extremely ill during the rigor, and following the chill high fever almost immediately supervenes. *Oppression* is more or less pronounced, and headache is a common complaint. When seen at this period, the patient is always restless, appears to be greatly disturbed, and his expression and general attitude call for immediate relief.

Within the course of a few hours, and probably by the time the chill has terminated, the patient complains of intense *stabbing pain* in the side,

* Jour. Exp. Med., May, 1919.

and this is especially severe if he attempts to inspire deeply. *Cough* is an annoying symptom, and aggravates the pain. All these features of pneumonia may develop so rapidly that by the time the physician reaches the patient's side, slightly *blood-streaked expectoration* will have accompanied the cough for an hour or more.

Following the chill the patient develops intense thirst; there is no desire for food, and *vomiting* often occurs as the result of an attempt to take nourishment. Constipation is the rule, although diarrhea occurs in certain cases.

Leading Symptoms and Signs in Detail.—Pain develops within a few hours after the chill, except in those especial cases in which the pneumonic process is centrally located and does not come in relation with the visceral pleura. The pain continues for a period of two, three, or more days, is stabbing in character, and is usually situated immediately below the nipple or in the axilla of the affected side. Pain is aggravated by deep inspiration, and may be reflected over the upper portion of the abdomen; in selected cases it will extend well into the flanks. *Cough* also increases the pain, and during the act of coughing the patient usually inclines toward the affected side, and frequently grasps that side of the chest to prevent chest movements. Pain is dependent entirely upon involvement of the pleura, and, as previously stated, in pneumonic processes that are centrally located, and in the pneumonia of the aged, pain may be absent during the greater part of the disease. Pain is also alleviated by the patient lying upon the affected side, although when the disease is well advanced and pain but moderate or absent, the patient commonly assumes the supine position.

Cough.—Cough, in a measure, is characteristic, frequent, short, dry, and to some extent under the control of the patient. In certain cases, as in pneumonia of the aged, of alcoholics, and when the pneumonic process does not cause inflammation of the pleuræ, cough may be absent. Following the chill cough is, as a rule, accompanied by slight, viscid, and extremely *tenacious sputum*, which is streaked with blood. (See Laboratory Diagnosis, Rusty Sputum.) In sthenic cases the cough is likely to be harsh, and following each cough there is a distinct expiratory grunt that may be heard at some distance from the patient.

Respiratory Phenomena.—See Physical Signs, p. 836.

Nervous Phenomena.—*Headache* develops early,—often during the chill,—and may be persistent for several days. In children lobar pneumonia may be ushered in by a convulsion, and less often by a series of convulsions.

Delirium in its various forms is common at the height of the disease. In exceptional cases acute mania may develop, and this form of delirium may be continued for several days. In mild cases delirium may be absent during the greater portion of the twenty-four hours, and present only during the night. Patients who have been addicted to the excessive use of alcoholic stimulants are likely to develop delirium tremens. Special attention has been called to the "'walking pneumonia' seen in alcoholics, in which the patient goes about until excitement gives way to a coma that deepens into death" (Anders).

In the so-called "cerebral pneumonia" the nervous symptoms are unusually prominent, and in this respect the disease may simulate acute cerebrospinal meningitis. This type of the disease is characterized by high fever, unless it develops in the aged, when the fever may be moderate.

Gastro-intestinal Symptoms.—The patient always complains that his mouth is dry, and that the food he eats has practically no taste. There is

also an inordinate thirst, and anorexia is present until after the crisis. Vomiting, as previously mentioned, may develop with the onset of the disease, and attacks of vomiting during the febrile period, and even after the crisis, may be seen. Constipation is, as a rule, obstinate early during the

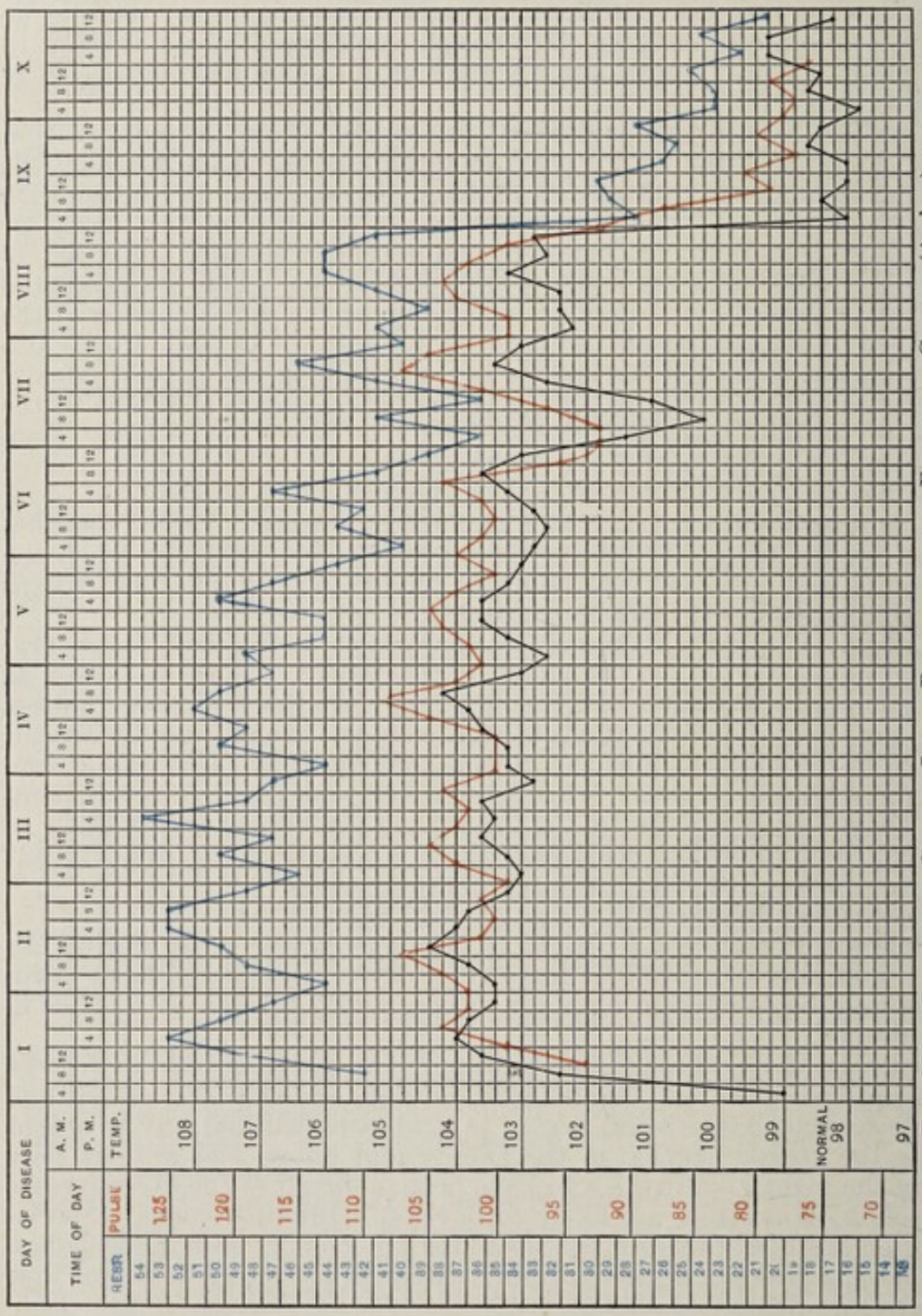


FIG. 303.—CHART OF A CASE OF LOBAR PNEUMONIA WITH FAVORABLE COURSE (Anders).

A. T., aged thirty-two years; lower right lobe affected. Black, temperature; red, pulse; blue, respiration.

disease; exceptionally, this may alternate with diarrhea. Tympany may develop during many stages of the disease, and it is first detected by slight increase in the abdominal tension, and through the fact that by placing the stethoscope over the abdomen, the inspiratory breath sounds may be heard in this region. In well marked tympanitic patients this phenomena is present as low as the crests of the illi, and in the suprapubic region. It

is to be regarded as a distinctly unfavorable sign, depending upon distention of the hollow abdominal viscera, and increased tension of the abdominal wall; the latter of which may result from diaphragmatic pleurisy.

Pain in the epigastrium is frequently present, and when the base of the lung is involved, the pain is commonly below the costal border. Pain in the region of the appendix and the gall-bladder is often misleading, and the clinician should always eliminate any pulmonary involvement of the right side in analyzing the significance of this type of pain. Rigidity of the muscles of one side of the abdomen may be present in pneumonia, and this is especially true when the pain is reflected over that portion of the abdominal surface.

Thermic Features.—The fever rises rapidly during the initial chill, so that in from eight to ten hours the temperature reaches 102° to 105° F. It then remains high until the crisis, pursuing the continued type, with slight nocturnal remissions of one or more degrees. In children, following the convulsion that commonly ushers in an attack, the fever rises rapidly, but seldom becomes so high as it does in the adult. The temperature has a lower range in the debilitated, in aged persons, and in alcoholics than it has in previously healthy adults. On the fifth to the seventh day of the disease a pronounced fall of temperature may be observed,—the pseudocrisis (Fig. 303),—but the temperature again rises to its former height. This clinical feature may be seen before the fifth day, however. In rare instances a pseudocrisis may be seen more than once, and the temperature-curve bears a strong resemblance to the remittent or the intermittent type of fever. The temperature may be unusually high,—106° or 107° F.,—and such striking elevation is at times a precursor of the crisis. In certain cases hyperpyrexia may be a danger-signal. The characteristic fever of pneumonia terminates by crisis. The crisis may occur at any time from the end of the third to the fourteenth day, but in the majority of instances it occurs on the seventh or the ninth day. The temperature usually falls during the night, and the drop is accompanied by copious perspiration, so that by the following morning the thermometer is found to register normal, or more often a subnormal point—98° to 95° F.

The duration of the period of decline is usually from eight to twelve hours. It may be much shorter, but is commonly longer. When the temperature terminates by lysis, the clinician should suspect the existence of some complication. Following the crisis, in uncomplicated cases the respirations and the pulse-rate soon return to the normal.

Cardiovascular Phenomena.—A careful study of the heart and pulse is an important point to be observed in pneumonia.* The average pulse-rate in typical cases varies between 100 and 110 beats a minute, and when the beats exceed 120 a minute, there is sufficient cause for alarm. A marked increase in the pulse-rate within the course of twenty-four hours is believed to depend upon the action of toxins upon the heart or upon the presence of some complication. The pulse is, as a rule, small at first, a feature commonly seen when there is extensive consolidation; later, however, it becomes full and bounding, although at this time the pulse tension may be low. Dicrotism, together with an irregularity in both volume and rhythm, is an unfavorable feature, and may develop either before or after the crisis. The pulse will be found to vary greatly, depending upon the individual characteristics of the patient; *e. g.*, in feeble individuals the general characteristics may be absent throughout the course of the disease. The heart-sounds are in themselves fairly characteristic of this disease.

* Cardiac dilitation occurs in 62 per cent. of all cases, regardless of the type of treatment employed.

Physical Signs.—For convenience of study, the physical signs have been arranged in the order in which they are presented during the successive pathologic stages of the disease.

Stage of Congestion.—In the majority of cases the physician probably does not see the patient until after this stage has passed. When the patient is seen early, however, the following physical signs may be elicited:

Inspection.—The movements of the affected side of the chest are often slightly restricted, especially if the base of the lung is involved, and upon mensuration it is found that expansion of the affected side is limited. If the patient is suffering from a double pneumonia, the costal type of breathing may be seen, and pronounced movements of the abdominal muscles are also present. The face is flushed, and the so-called mahogany flush may involve the cheek of the affected side; the conjunctivæ are also at times suffused. The lips may, though rarely, show the beginning of herpes. The nostrils play violently, even though the degree of consolidation be but slight, and the patient frequently breathes with his mouth open.

Palpation.—It may be possible to detect slight diminution in the movements of the affected side of the chest, and tactile fremitus is somewhat increased over the congested area. If the area of congestion is localized at the center of one lung, palpation gives negative results.

Percussion.—The note may be normal over both lungs; as a rule, however, it is slightly shorter than normal, somewhat higher pitched, and, surrounding the congested area, it is tympanitic.

Auscultation.—It is quite common for the inflammatory products to occupy the smaller bronchi; consequently subcrepitant râles are usually audible over the area of congestion. The crepitant râle is also heard during the latter part of this stage. The breath-sounds, while usually weak, are at times bronchovesicular in character, and especially so when the patient is directed to inspire deeply. The breath-sounds are slightly exaggerated over the affected lung.

Stage of Consolidation.—*Inspection.*—If a large area of one lung is involved, the movements of the chest on the affected side are greatly diminished, whereas on the unaffected side they are appreciably increased. Exceptions to this general rule are quite common, and this is especially noticeable when the patient rests upon his back. *Weil's sign*—diminished subclavicular expansion on the affected side may be apparent. If the greater portion of the base of one lung is involved, *mensuration* will show that side of the chest to be larger than the opposite, despite the fact that there is compensatory emphysema of the healthy lung. There may be abdominal distention.

The face may still be flushed, the nostrils play violently, and the respirations may number between 40 and 60 a minute in the adult, and between 60 and 80 in children. In persons older than sixty years suffering from pneumonia the respirations may not be greatly increased. At this time herpes labialis, involving the angles of the nose and lips, is quite common, and the lips are often dry and fissured. The tongue is heavily coated, and late during this stage it may become deeply fissured; its center is covered with a heavy yellowish or brown coat. Swelling and redness in the region of the large joints may be present, and indicate involvement of the synovial sacs.

Palpation confirms inspection with reference to the expansion of the two halves of the chest. Tactile fremitus is increased in the majority of all cases, although in exceptional instances fremitus is diminished, and in the case of massive pneumonia, or when there is considerable pleural effusion, it may be absent. A distinct friction fremitus is often detected

during this stage of the disease, and is due to involvement of the pleura. The physical signs of pericarditis may be evidenced by a friction fremitus heard with the heart's action. The abdomen is rather tense. (See Abdominal Tension, Fig. 205, p. 551.)

The *pulse* is full, the beats numbering from 100 to 110 a minute, although great variation will be found in different cases.

Percussion.—Dullness will be found to vary at different times during this stage; *e. g.*, before the lung is completely consolidated a somewhat tympanitic note is obtained, but after complete consolidation has occurred, the note is flat. When the base of the lung is involved, absolute dullness is more commonly found posteriorly and in the axilla than upon the anterior surface of the affected side. Indeed, it is not uncommon to find dullness over the posterior portion of the lung, and a varying degree of tympany at the same level anteriorly. Considerable importance attaches itself to the degree of resistance offered to the pleximeter finger. If pleural effusion is present, the note over the affected side may be flat, especially at the base of the chest, but the sensation offered to the finger placed against the chest-wall is decidedly different in the case of fluid in the pleural sac and when there is only consolidation of the lung present. In the case of a pneumonia developing at the center of the lung and advancing toward the periphery, the lung tissue surrounding the consolidated area is emphysematous, and may be interposed between the hepatized tissue and the chest-wall, in consequence of which a hyperresonant note is obtained upon feeble percussion, but upon deep percussion over the same area dullness may be elicited.

Dullness appears to be a less conspicuous feature in the pneumonia of the aged. When there is an extensive pneumonia at the base or apex of one lung, the uninvolved portions of the lung may display skodiac resonance. The abdomen is moderately tympanitic.

Auscultation.—The characteristic breath-sound is that of bronchial or tubular breathing, and is heard over the consolidated lung, especially when consolidation extends to the visceral pleura. When the large bronchus leading to the consolidated portion of the lung is plugged with exudate, as is the case in the so-called *massive pneumonia*, bronchial breathing is absent. The voice-sounds are exceptionally well transmitted over the consolidated tissue, consequently bronchophony is obtained over the pneumonic area, but, as in the case of bronchial breathing it, too, may be absent in some cases (plugging of the bronchus). In certain instances the sound conveyed to the ear is egophony. The whispered voice is also transmitted well over the consolidated area, consequently pectoriloquy here resembles the sound obtained over a pulmonary cavity.

Subcrepitant râles are present, and probably depend upon the associated bronchitis, and the crepitant râle may be audible at the end of inspiration, although this is more commonly heard during the first stage of the disease. A friction murmur may be present at any time during the stage of consolidation.

Stage of Gray Hepatization.—*Inspection.*—With beginning resolution the exudate present in the alveoli begins to liquefy, so that air now enters them; consequently upon inspection the movements of the two sides of the chest gradually become alike. In this stage the playing of the nostrils diminishes progressively unless some complication is present. The lips, which were probably cyanosed during the stage of consolidation, gradually assume their natural color, and by this time herpes labialis tends to disappear rapidly.

Palpation.—Tactile fremitus diminishes gradually from day to day until the normal is reached.

Percussion.—The alterations in the percussion-note (*e. g.*, dullness surrounded by a hyperresonant area and hyperresonance over the unaffected lung) gradually disappear, and are replaced by the normal percussion-note. It is important for the clinician to bear in mind that the percussion-note returns to the normal more slowly than do other physical signs previously outlined, and, indeed, a variable degree of impairment over the original area of consolidation may be present after convalesence is well established and after the patient is up and about his work. In those cases in which there has been extensive involvement of the pleura during the pneumonic process, the percussion-note may be impaired for an indefinite period.

Auscultation.—With the beginning of this stage, the crepitant râle may reappear; the subcrepitant râle, owing to the liquefaction of material in the air-cells, is also heard both on inspiration and on expiration (râle redux). Coarse bubbling râles are heard over the bronchi. In certain cases râles are universally numerous during this stage. Bronchial breathing disappears gradually, and in its stead bronchovesicular breathing is heard, and later the normal breath-sounds appear.

In those cases in which the toxemia has been pronounced, the first sound of the heart is lacking in muscular quality, whereas the accentuation of the second pulmonic sound has gradually diminished. In certain cases the heart is unusually rapid, especially after the crisis, which invariably marks the beginning of the stage of gray hepatization, and in such instances arrhythmia is common and may continue for days or even weeks. We have studied cases in both hospital and private practice in which a pericardial friction murmur was audible during the greater portion of this stage of pneumonia. Endocardial murmurs are not common unless disease of the endocardium existed prior to the development of the pneumonia. An exception to this rule is found in those cases that develop acute endocarditis as a complication. (See Acute Endocarditis, p. 280.) The pleuropericardial friction-sound is also occasionally heard. (See Physical Signs of Pleurisy, p. 272.)

Laboratory Diagnosis.—Sputum.—The patient expectorates a small quantity of extremely tenacious, blood-streaked sputum. So marked is the tenacity of the sputum, that the cup containing it may be inverted without the contents escaping. Microscopically this sputum is found to contain the pneumococcus, which sometimes occurs in dense aggregations. Gram-positive diplococci, which are in all probability pneumococci, are sometimes found in normal sputum. In cases of so-called Friedländer's pneumonia, Friedländer's bacillus is also present. Many red blood-cells are present, and leukocytes and alveolar epithelium may be seen. During the third stage of the disease the quantity of sputum may be increased, but the rule is for the sputum to be scanty. One or more of the four known strains of the pneumococcus is present. Whenever possible the type of organism should be determined, since that has an important bearing on prognosis—it might also be of value in determining the course of treatment to be followed. (See Types of Pneumococci, p. 831.)

The *hematologic* changes are quite characteristic, leukocytosis developing early and varying between 12,000 and 40,000 leukocytes in a cubic millimeter. In uncomplicated cases, following the true crisis, there is a marked diminution in the number of leukocytes in a cubic millimeter. A differential leukocyte count shows the increase in the number of white cells to be due chiefly to the polymorphonuclear elements. Eosinophilia

is common after the true crisis. It is very important to remember that in extremely malignant types of the disease there may be a high leukocytosis, or, on the other hand, we may find that the number of leukocytes in a cubic millimeter is below that of the normal. In average cases the hemoglobin and the red cells are but slightly, if at all, altered. When the pulmonary consolidation is extensive and there is embarrassment of the circulation, with cyanosis of the lips, ears, and finger-tips, the number of red cells will be found to be between 5,000,000 and 10,000,000 per c.mm. The same condition—cyanosis—may cause the hemoglobin to register above the normal—from 90 to 120 per cent. During the third stage of the disease, and especially after the circulation has become nearly normal, there is an appreciable diminution in the number of red cells in a cubic millimeter, a reduction of 500,000 to 600,000 being common.

Serum from persons suffering from pneumonia has been found to agglutinate the pneumococcus, but not in higher dilution than 1 : 60. In those cases showing pneumococcic septicemia and bacteriemia, the pneumococcus may be cultivated from the venous blood. It has been found by Kipp, that there is a lessening in the chlolesterol of the blood serum. The primary hypocholesterinemia varies in degree according to the extent of the lung involvement, and the type of infection. A secondary hyperchlolesterinemia is seen during convalescence.

The *urine* is that characteristic of the acute fevers; *e. g.*, the quantity is somewhat diminished, the color is high, and the specific gravity is moderately increased—1.020 to 1.025. A small amount of albumin is commonly present—the so-called febrile albuminuria. If nephritis develops as a complication, the urine becomes rich in albumin and contains both hyaline and granular casts, and at times red blood-cells are present. In those cases in which meningitis complicates pneumonia, glycosuria may be present. During the second stage the chlorids may be absent due to lowered concentration of chlorides in the blood plasma.

Feces.—Rutz* has demonstrated that both the pneumococcus and the bacillus of Friedländer are present in comparatively large numbers in the feces of persons suffering from lobar pneumonia. The pneumococcus is commonly found after the third day of the disease.

The *serous sacs* may become infected with the pneumococcus during the course of this disease and, in such cases the exudate obtained from the serous membrane (pleura, meninges, and synovial sacs) contains pneumococci.

Summary of Diagnosis.—When the disease attacks the robust and previously healthy, it is characterized by the severity of onset; thus there are chill, rapid rise in temperature, pain in the side, and distressing cough. The frequency of the respirations—30 to 60 a minute—and the disturbance of the pulse-respiration ratio are quite characteristic of the disease, and especially so when this clinical phenomenon is coupled with the previously mentioned mode of invasion and symptoms. The sputum is an important feature in the diagnosis of pneumonia, and it is practically the only disease in which the quantity of sputum is small, and the expectoration itself is extremely tenacious and blood-streaked. A microscopic study of the sputum, with detection of many diplococci, is confirmatory of the other features, but is not essential to a diagnosis in typical cases. The continued type of the fever, with termination by crisis, and the signs of consolidation of a segment of one lung, or rarely of both lungs, are highly valuable diagnostic features. Playing of the nostrils and the peculiar expiratory grunt are also important, and the absence of chlorids from

*N. Y. Med. Jour., July 20, 1912, p. 113.

the urine and a leukocytosis of from 12,000 to 40,000 leukocytes in a cubic millimeter further support the diagnosis.

Differential Diagnosis.—Lobar pneumonia is to be distinguished first from **acute pneumonic phthisis.** The distinctive features between these two maladies are shown in the accompanying table.

TABLE SHOWING THE POINTS OF DIFFERENTIATION BETWEEN PRIMARY LOBAR PNEUMONIA AND ACUTE PNEUMONIC PHTHISIS

Primary Lobar Pneumonia	Acute Pneumonic Phthisis
1. There may have been prior attacks.	1. Inherited predisposition or previous tuberculous disease.
2. Onset sudden, with severe rigor and rapid rise of temperature.	2. Onset usually more gradual; repeated chilly sensations (rarely, severe rigor), often following exposure or "cold."
3. Fever of continued type, terminating by crisis.	3. Fever of remittent type, often becoming intermittent, without crisis.
4. No drenching sweats, except at time of crisis.	4. Drenching sweats common.
5. Herpes common.	5. Herpes unusual.
6. Emaciation slight or absent.	6. Rapid, progressive emaciation.
7. Sputum rusty, viscid, and sticky; may contain pneumococci.	7. Sputum may be blood-tinged; is more purulent and copious, and may contain tubercle bacilli and elastic tissue.
8. Duration of febrile stage, seven to nine days, terminating by crisis.	8. Duration longer, and may become intermittent. No crisis.
9. Physical signs, as a rule, first referable to base of lung, except in apical pneumonia.	9. Physical signs first referable to apex.
10. Usually limited to one lobe or the lower segment of one lung.	10. Commonly extends from apex to base.
11. Signs of consolidation, followed by resolution.	11. Signs of consolidation, followed by characteristic signs of cavity formation.
12. Apex of opposite lung not involved.	12. Apex of opposite side generally attacked.
13. Leukocytosis of 12,000 to 40,000 by end of the first forty-eight hours.	13. Leukocytosis after cavity formation.
14. Blood culture may show pneumococci.	14. Negative.

Typhoid Pneumonia.—When the patient suffering from lobar pneumonia presents the so-called "typhoid state," it is to be distinguished from pneumotyphoid (see Typhoid Fever, p. 796), and in this connection an examination of the blood is of inestimable value, since in typhoid pneumonia *leukocytosis* is present, whereas in pneumotyphoid *leukopenia* is the rule. After the end of the first week the Widal reaction is present in pneumotyphoid (typhoid fever simulating pneumonia), but absent in typhoid pneumonia (pneumonia displaying the typhoid state), unless the patient has at some previous time suffered from an attack of typhoid fever. After the first week other symptoms of typhoid fever, *e. g.*, eruption, tympanites, and diarrhea, are likely to develop in pneumotyphoid.

Pneumonia may at times simulate **acute meningitis,** a type of the disease more commonly seen in children than in adults. In children the initial symptom may be a convulsion, and frontal headache is also common. In pneumonia accompanied by meningeal symptoms the pulse-respiration ratio is disturbed early, and the physical signs of pneumonia are, as a rule, present, although at times it is difficult to detect pneumonia in children by a physical examination. Lumbar puncture serves as a positive means of differential diagnosis.

A table showing the distinctive features between lobar pneumonia and **pleurisy with effusion** will be found under Differential Diagnosis of Pleurisy, p. 272.

Lobar pneumonia is also to be distinguished from **bronchopneumonia,** and this task is extremely difficult in those cases in which, in bronchopneumonia, numerous small areas of consolidation unite to form one solid mass that may involve the greater portion of one lobe. Of further clinical importance is it to remember that lobar pneumonia is more common during early adult life, whereas bronchopneumonia is frequent in children and in the aged. (The distinctive features between lobar pneumonia and bronchopneumonia will be found in a differential table under the Diagnosis of Bronchopneumonia, p. 860.)

Clinical Course and Complications.—The clinical course, as well as the severity of the disease, is in a measure dependent upon the severity of the type of infection and the individual characteristics of the patient. They survive the disease best who have no organic changes in the heart or the kidneys, and in whom complications are absent. In hospital practice, 25 per cent. of cases go on from bad to worse until a fatal termination is reached, whereas in private practice approximately 15 per cent. terminate unfavorably. In sthenic cases a severe type of infection is manifested by a severe rigor, high temperature, and marked nervous symptoms, whereas in milder types of infection all these features are likewise mild. Irrespective of the area of lung involved, in typical cases the temperature falls between the fifth and ninth days (usually, the seventh or the ninth day) and following the crisis the respirations soon become normal.

Pain and *cough* are aggravated symptoms early during the disease, but become less prominent after the second day, and are usually absent following the crisis. The strength of the heart, as indicated by the pulse, is probably the most important clinical feature in pneumonia, and in the average uncomplicated case the pulse remains fairly strong and regular at about 110 until the time of the crisis, when the number of beats a minute may reach 120 or more; at this time the pulse is likely to become dicrotic, compressible, and intermittent. The greater the area of lung involved, the less completely is the patient's blood oxidized; consequently in that class of cases in which a large portion of the lung texture is consolidated, severe nervous symptoms are present, and practically all types of delirium may be seen, including coma, which, in unfavorable cases, may continue until death. The respirations, however, although always rapid, are of less importance than is the strength of the heart. With extensive involvement of the lung, cyanosis of the lips, face, ears, and fingers is common, and seldom exists for any great length of time without an appreciable weakening of the pulse. Following the crisis, convalescence becomes established in those cases that terminate favorably, although, when complications are present, convalescence is greatly delayed.

Meningitis may complicate this form, and the various bacteria common in pneumonia have been observed in the spinal fluid.

Goldstein and Gonzales* have reported a series of cases of pneumococcus meningitis, with and without pneumonia, from the Philadelphia General Hospital.

Pleurisy with effusion is a somewhat common complication, but if pleurisy is limited to the side affected by pneumonia, it is less serious than when the opposite pleural cavity becomes filled with fluid. Pleurisy always retards convalescence, and the patient is usually confined to bed for from six to ten weeks.

Empyema not infrequently follows lobar pneumonia, and although it is a serious complication, it often terminates in recovery. It is a more

* Med. Times N. Y., Aug., 1924, p. 184.

common complication in children than in adults. In practically every case of pneumonia there is a certain degree of bronchitis, especially of the larger tubes, but if an extensive bronchitis develops the symptoms are intensified, there is marked tendency to heart weakness and cyanosis, and the clinical course is greatly prolonged.

Pericarditis may result from direct extension of the inflammatory process through the pleura to the pericardial surface, and this complication materially lessens the chances of recovery. It is also accompanied by the characteristic physical signs of pericarditis. (See p. 282.) Stone * in a report of 300 autopsies on bodies dead of pneumonia found 24 per cent. of them to show pericarditis, and of these acute purulent pericarditis was present in 61 per cent. of the affected cases; while the serofibrinous and plastic variety were present in 19 per cent. of instances where the pericardium was diseased.

Ulcerative endocarditis is probably the most serious complication known to pneumonia, since the peripheral vessels in the various viscera may become plugged with thrombi and bacteria, and septic phenomena supervene. When endocarditis develops, the clinical course is that of a bacteriemia. (See Ulcerative Endocarditis, p. 283.) Libman, of Mount Sinai Hospital, New York City has studied for many years the various endocarditides, particularly the subacute bacterial and non-bacterial types. Several of his articles appeared in the American Journal of Medical Sciences and in the Medical Clinics of North America.

Pulmonary abscess (see p. 129) and **pulmonary gangrene** (see p. 125) are occasionally seen to follow lobar pneumonia, and both these conditions appreciably retard convalescence, although they are not of necessity fatal.

Pulmonary edema may develop at any stage during the course of pneumonia, and this complication is characterized by increased rapidity of the heart, with a weak, thready, and irregular pulse, profound cyanosis, and rapid respirations. Râles are present.

Acute nephritis, when present, may subside at the time of the crisis, although in unfavorable cases the albuminuria persists. A mere trace of albumin in the urine is not to be regarded as of serious moment, but when, in addition to a large amount of albumin, granular casts and both red and white blood-cells are present, the patient's condition is alarming. The presence of nephritis delays convalescence, although many patients have come under our observation in whom the kidney condition completely disappeared during their stay in the hospital.

MELIOIDOSIS

Historical Note.—An acute infectious disease seen in rodents and communicable to man. Thus far the number of cases in human subjects do not exceed fifty. Stanton and Fletcher state that in only five instances has the disease been recognized antemortem.† Two persons infected by the bacterium whitmori have recovered. In five others careful clinical records have been made.

Etiology.—The exciting factor is a bacillus (Bacterium whitmori). This organism possesses certain characteristics, which distinguish it from other pathogenic bacteria. The bacilli are detected in films made from the exudate collected from the lesions. The bacilli resemble in both size and morphology the B. mallei. They stain by all of the usual stains, are not acid-fast, nor Gram positive. When treated with Leish-

* Jour. Am. Med. Assoc., July 26, 1919.
† Lancet, Jan. 3, 1925, pp. 10–13.

man's stain they display a well marked bipolar coloring. A luxuriant growth rapidly appears upon the usual culture media and is present under both aerobic and anaerobic conditions. On the surface of liquid media a pellicle forms, which becomes tough and wrinkled by the fourth or fifth day. Two characteristic features are worthy of mention. (*a*) Motility of the organism in young cultures; and (*b*) the unusual growth when the organism is cultured on glycerin agar. The B. whitmori has been recovered from the blood, urine, pustular eruption, abscess, and the parotid secretion. The agglutination test bids fair to be of value in this disease. Rodents are readily innoculated through lesions of the skin, by feeding and by inhalation.

Pathology.—The lesions of melioidosis are at first small, yellow, caseous nodular masses, which become surrounded by a zone of congestion. These lesions rapidly go on to necrosis and the caseous and necrotic material contain chromatin fragments and bacilli. The nodules of melioidosis have been found in practically all parts of the human body, except the brain.

Symptoms.—The symptoms resemble closely what one would expect in an acute infection and the careful correlations of symptoms and of laboratory findings are necessary to separate this condition from glanders. Certain clinicians have suggested that melioidosis is probably a form of glanders. The symptoms depend in part upon the virulence of the infecting organism and upon the initial dose.

THE PLAGUE

(Bubonic Plague; Black Death)

Pathologic Definition.—An acute infectious disease, due to bacillus pestis, and characterized pathologically by enlargement of the superficial lymph-nodes, with the formation of buboes, isolated areas of gangrene of the cutaneous and subcutaneous tissue, or pneumonia. There may also be minute hemorrhages into the mucous surfaces (stomach, intestines, lungs). Both the discharge obtained from the lesions and sections of the pneumonic organs will be found to contain the bacillus pestis.

Exciting and Predisposing Factors.—Bacteriology.—In 1894 Kitasato and Yersin both discovered the presence of the bacillus pestis in plague, and this organism is now conceded to be the exciting cause of the disease. The bacillus stains more deeply at its extremities than at its central portion, which gives it an imperfect, coccus-like appearance.

The point of entrance for bacillus pestis is through the punctures made by fleas and probably bedbugs in biting their human hosts. In some cases of primary plague pneumonia the bacillus may gain access to the lung with the inspired air. D. T. Verjbitski* has conducted a series of experiments through which he has permitted the bedbug, *cimex lectularis*, to feed upon animals suffering from plague, and to later bite uninfected guinea-pigs. The cimex was known to convey the disease through its bite to uninfected guinea-pigs for a period of five days after sucking blood from infected animals, while the flea communicates the disease for a period of approximately three days. Immunity is produced by vaccine.†

If the bacillus gains access to the body through the puncture made by a flea in biting, the nearest lymph-nodes become involved. The infection may stop here, and the bubo thus produced may suppurate, and, after a prolonged period of discharge, the sinus may close and the patient recover.

* Manning, Medical Record, July 27, 1912.

† Morison, Naidn, and Avari, Indian Jour. Med. Res., Calcutta, 12:313, Oct., 1924.

In more than half the cases, however, a general septicemia results and the patient dies.

Recent studies have shown that the human epidemic of plague is preceded by an epizoötic among the rats of the locality. In 1924 and 1925 there have been outbreaks on the western coast of the United States.

Clinical Varieties.—There are three clinical types of plague: (1) The bubonic form; (2) the septicemic form, and (3) the pneumonic form.

(1) *The Bubonic Form.*—After an incubation period of from two to eight days the disease begins suddenly with fever and prostration. The face is said to be peculiarly drawn and swollen in appearance; sometimes there is a look of horror. Nausea, vomiting, and diarrhea are noted in some cases. There is loss of co-ordination (staggering gait), and thick and stammering speech. Delirium, on the one hand, and stupor, on the other hand, may occur. The bubo is first noticed usually within the first twenty-four hours; sometimes it does not appear until the fourth or fifth day. In 70 per cent. of the cases the saphenous lymph-nodes are affected; in about 20 per cent. of cases the bubo is in the axillary region; and in about 10 per cent. of cases it is found in the cervical region. The buboes are usually single; they vary in size from that of a walnut to that of a goose-egg. Hemorrhages into the skin, epistaxis, hematemesis, hemoptysis melena, and hematuria are common symptoms. In favorable cases the constitutional symptoms improve after the formation of the bubo. The fever ends by lysis; the bubo softens and opens spontaneously, or it may be incised, and a chronic suppurating sinus results. Death usually occurs between the third and fifth days from exhaustion, hemorrhage, heart failure, convulsions, or coma (Manson).

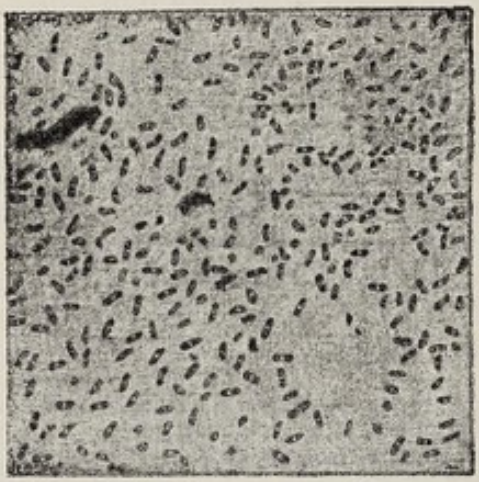


Fig. 304.—Bacillus of Bubonic Plague (Yersin).

(2) In the *septicemic form* there is no bubo formed. The disease is septicemic from the start. A general enlargement of the lymph-nodes has been demonstrated at autopsy, however. The temperature is not very high; there are marked toxicity, hemorrhage, stupor, coma, and death.

(3) In the *pneumonic form* there is a consolidation of the lungs, indicated by the usual physical signs, with the presence of large numbers of bacillus pestis in the sputum. This form is very fatal. Abortive cases of plague are called *pestis ambulans*, and Choksy has described a cellulocutaneous form, characterized by local necrosis of the skin and the subcutaneous tissue.

Laboratory Diagnosis.—In cases of bubonic plague the puncture of the bubo with a sterile hypodermic syringe and examination of smears made from the contents of the lesion will give short, Gram-negative bacilli showing polar staining. In septicemic cases blood culture will show bacillus pestis. In pneumonic cases examination of the sputum will show large numbers of the short, polar-staining bacilli, which at first look like diplococci. The Gram stains will differentiate micrococcus lanceolatus, which is Gram-positive, from bacillus pestis, which is Gram-negative.

Summary of Diagnosis.—The history of an epidemic or of the patient having resided in tropical or infected districts should always be given careful consideration. The rapidity of the onset, the increasing

fever, with tendency to an early formation of a bubo, invasion of the lymphatics, should, at least suggest the possibility of plague. Hemorrhage from the various mucous surfaces and petechiæ, both of the skin and of the mucous membranes, together with a high grade of prostration, are cardinal features of bubonic plague. The detection of the bacillus pestis in the sputum, in the fluid obtained from puncture of the involved glands, or in pus recovered from abscesses makes the diagnosis positive.

EPIDEMIC DROPSY

This condition is found in India and the predominant clinicial features are diarrhea, petechial eruption of the lower extremities, irregularity of the heart, dyspnea especially pronounced at night, and a temperature fluctuating between 101 and 104 degrees. The incubation period is questionable. Anorexia and the other gastric, intestinal symptoms are those characteristic of gastric catarrh.

INFLUENZA

(La Grippe; Epidemic Catarrhal Fever)

Pathologic Definition.—An endemic and epidemic, acute infectious and transmissible disease, said to be excited by the bacillus influenzæ, and characterized by a catarrhal inflammation of the respiratory and alimentary tracts. There is a special tendency toward the development of the pathologic changes known to acute bronchitis, bronchopneumonia, and myocarditis.

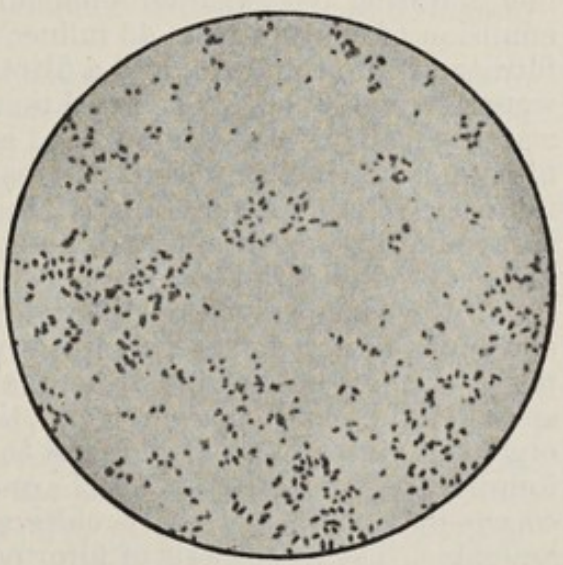


Fig. 305.—Bacillus of Influenza, from a Gelatin Culture (× 1000) (Itzerott and Niemann).

Pneumonia is too common an occurrence to be regarded strictly as a complication. Autopsies reveal the existence of bronchointerstitial pneumonia, lobular, mixed types, and rarely the lobar variety. Empyema is common, and may be either unilateral or bilateral. Pleurisy, serofibrinous, serous, and serosanguinerous exudates were frequently present in the 1918 epidemic of "Spanish influenza." In many cases a single lobe is involved, but the rule is to find lesions of varying sizes throughout both lungs. Physical signs are detected first at the basis. The trachea in addition to showing an acute inflammation may present minute hemorrhage, and less often multiple ulcers are seen. In the 1918 epidemic approximately 40 per cent. of the fatal cases showing empyema also had pericarditis.

Predisposing and Exciting Factors.—Practically all persons are likely to contract the disease. **Age** exercises but moderate influences. The greater number of cases, however, develop in young adults between the age of twenty-five and thirty-five years. In the study of the sputum from 100 hospital patients, Levin, Goodman and Pancoast, found streptococcus hemolyticus in 55 of them. A clinical finding which strongly supports the fact that these persons may be carriers of the infection.

Bacteriology and Immunity.—In 1892 Pfeiffer described the influenza bacillus at length. This organism is obtained from the sputum and nasal secretions during the febrile period of the disease, and Pfeiffer declares that the bacillus enters the bronchial tissue and may even penetrate the pulmonary coverings and enter the pleural sac.

Roberts and Cary,* found that the injection of bacterial protein into healthy subjects gave a decided immunity; and further lessened the death rate, and the percentage of complications in those who developed the disease after the subcutaneous injection of heat-killed micro-organisms. An acquired immunity is occasionally observed. Levin, Goodman and Pancoast in studying the sputum from 554 cases, found streptococcus hemolyticus to show a decided predominance over other organisms. In a series of plate cultures (anti-mortem, or post-mortem) they found pneumococcus Type IV, 4.03 per cent.—sterile 20 per cent.—streptococcus hemolyticus 75 per cent. Pneumococcus Types I, II and III were rare findings. Dwinell,† in the study of 152 uncomplicated cases found bacillus of influenza present in 66 per cent. streptococcus hemolyticus in 45 per cent., and the M. catarrhalis in 71 per cent. of them. In 53 autopsies the same author found the streptococcus hemolyticus present in 80.7 per cent. of the cases; while bacillus influenza was only detected in 9.06 per cent. of cultures.

Yamanouchi, Sakakami, and Iwashima,‡ conducted a series of experiments during the Japanese epidemic of 1918 and 1919. They made an emulsion of sputum from 43 influenzal patients, in Ringer's solution. A filtrate of this emulsion, and a filtrate of the blood from diseased patients were also employed. The nasal mucous membrane of 12 healthy persons was sprayed with this emulsion, and 12 more were sprayed with the filtrate from the emulsion. In each instance the patients developed influenza after an incubation of 2 to 3 days. A filtrate of the blood when sprayed into the throat and nose, and when infected subcutaneously always produced the disease.

J. A. Wilson,§ gives an elaborate bacteriologic study through which he concludes that a definite organism which belongs to the group of "filter passers" may be isolated from the blood, sputum, pleural fluid, urine, spinal fluid, and post-mortem tissues of influenzal subjects. The organism varies in size from 0.15 to 0.5μ. It is Gram-positive, and was found to pass both Berkefeld N., and the Massen porcelain filters. This coccus-like body is readily cultivated and pathogenic for laboratory animals. The hypothesis of filter passing organisms needs careful study.

Goldstein in a study of 184 cases (Epidemic, October–November, 1918) found that 90 cultures showed predominance of streptococci, ten the pneumococcus, 29 micrococcus catarrhalis and *only four showed cultures of Pfeiffer's bacillus.*

Modes of Infection.—The various modes by which the disease may be transmitted from one person to another are not well understood, although several theories have been offered in explanation. Droplet infection, coughing, sneezing, laughing, and hand to mouth infection are possible.

A single attack does not bestow *immunity*, and, indeed, subsequent attacks are quite common, the disease recurring from every one to five years.

Clinical Varieties.—(1) **Respiratory Type.**—In this variety the early and more prominent symptoms are those referable to the respiratory

* Jour. Am. Med. Assoc., March 29, 1919.
† Am. Jour. Med. Sci., Aug., 1919.
‡ Lancet, June 7, 1919.
§ Quart. Jour. Med., Apr., 1919.

tract—*e. g.*, coryza, pharyngitis, laryngotracneitis, and bronchitis. A more or less general aching of the throat and prostration are also present. When the respiratory symptoms predominate, it is not unusual to find bronchopneumonia as a coexisting condition. Persistent cough is a constant symptom. Epistaxis, and bloody sputum are not uncommon.

(2) **Gastro-intestinal Type.**—The initial symptoms of this type may be practically identical with those of the respiratory form, except that they are milder in degree and are somewhat masked by the severe symptoms referable to the gastro-intestinal tract, namely, abdominal pain, nausea, vomiting, and profuse watery diarrhea. *Prostration* is well marked in this as in practically all types of influenza.

(3) **Typhoid Type.**—In a small percentage of all cases continued fever, with delirium, may be present. The lips are brown and fissured, the tongue is parched and heavily coated, and the general condition of the patient is that known as the typhoid state. The fever may be remittent or even intermittent, and this feature, together with the repeated occurrence of chills or of chilly sensations, often suggests to the clinician the possible existence of malarial infection.

(4) **Cardiac Type.**—Certain cases of influenza are seen in which the cardiac features constitute the most prominent symptoms. The pulse is rapid, feeble, and irregular, and there is a tendency toward heart failure with cardiac dilatation cyanosis is the rule. Where there is suprarenal involvement and insufficiency the leading symptoms are asthenia, prostration, and low blood pressure.

(5) **Nervous Type.**—The nervous symptoms are fairly prominent in most clinical varieties of influenza, but cases are occasionally encountered in which they are unusually prominent; for example, atrocious headache, muscular pains, stiffness of the joints, and the early development of delirium may serve as the leading features in this type of the disease. In the cerebral type of influenza symptoms quite identical with those of meningitis develop rather suddenly and persist for a period of one, two, or more days when, in favorable cases, they disappear suddenly.

(6) **Rheumatoid Type.**—The rheumatoid type differs from the foregoing one in that the predominant feature is extreme muscular pain involving the greater portion of the body.

(7) **Apyretic Form.**—As the name implies, this variety of influenza may simulate in general any one of the previously described clinical pictures, and is that of the respiratory type of the disease, except that fever is absent.

(8) **Ambulatory Type.**—This form is of special importance, because of its tendency to spread the disease.

Period of Incubation.—This is, as a rule, brief, and does not exceed two or three days.

Principal Complaint and Symptoms.—Free expectoration of bright red blood, muscular soreness, coryza, backache, and conjunctivitis are experienced. Abdominal pain and tenderness is a complaint given by a few patients.

Cough may be annoying, and is present in approximately 60 per cent. of cases. Conjunctivitis will be observed in from 25 to 60 per cent. of all cases,—these symptoms varying in different epidemics. Pharyngitis is observed in 40 per cent. and epistaxis in from 10 to 15 per cent. of cases.

During the 1918 epidemic (Spanish influenza) one of us (Boston) selected 125 patients in the Philadelphia Emergency Hospital, where the temperatures remained subnormal for from one to six days. All of these patients had acute nephritis and pulmonary involvement. In private

practice it will be found that many of the most serious cases seldom have a temperature above 101. We have grown to regard a normal or subnormal temperature as a serious omen when other signs and symptoms of severe toxic influenza are present.

Physical Signs.—Inspection.—The face is somewhat flushed at the onset, but later, and after cardiac failure, there may be pallor. Cyanosis involving the face, lips, tongue, and extremities is present. The tongue is coated, and should the fever continue high for several days, the lips are likely to be fissured. The movements of the chest are increased even in mild cases, and are further increased in proportion to the severity of the bronchitis or of the pulmonary complications present. Swelling of the feet and of the hands is present only when heart failure or renal complications occur. Jaundice, as the result of duodenal catarrh, may develop at any time during the course of influenza. In those cases of the disease in which the clinical picture resembles that of cerebrospinal meningitis, there may be inequality of the pupils and a fixed position of the head, and one or more of the extremities may be held firmly in one position.

Palpation.—Upon making firm pressure over the loins, shoulders, and arms, the muscles may be found to be slightly tender, although muscle soreness is usually produced by movements of the patient. Edema of the extremities may be detected, but is a feature only of complicated cases. The apex-beat is at first strong, but is soon found to weaken, and when the toxic symptoms are pronounced, the cardiac impulse is feeble and diffuse. In cardiac dilatation the apex impulse may be almost imperceptible. Areas of increased tactile fremitus may be found at the bases of the lungs posteriorly, and indicate the existence of the so-called "grippe" pneumonia. The pulse is increased in frequency in proportion to the elevation of temperature. Certain writers, however, describe bradycardia as a feature in many cases. In those cases in which the toxic substances appear to affect the heart, the pulse is likely to become rapid and irregular as to both time and force. In the aged the pulse is readily compressible, and tends to become dicrotic as the disease progresses.

Bradycardia may be present during the height of the disease. It is seen in those cases where acute nephritis exists, and where the heart has not become dilated. Bradycardia is a common symptom during convalescence, and was extremely prominent in the epidemics of 1918 and 1920.

Percussion.—In uncomplicated cases percussion is negative. Tympanites and acute dilatation of the stomach are occasionally observed.

Auscultation.—The heart-beats may be increased somewhat as to frequency, although in the early stage the heart action may be comparatively slow in proportion to the degree of prostration. In severe and complicated cases the heart action is rapid, and the first sound appears to have lost its muscular quality. Eichhorst* has observed bradycardia and extrasystole to be a feature in young subjects during the stage of convalescence.

One of us (Boston) selected from the wards of the Philadelphia Emergency Hospital, in 1918, 180 serious cases, all of which displayed marked cyanosis; and found through auscultatory percussion the transverse diameter of the heart to be greatly increased varying from 9 to 11 inches—normal for patients of this size 6 to 6½ inches. The left oblique cardiac diameter, (leading from the upper margin of the heart below the left clavicle, to the region of the ensiform cartillage) was always greatly

*Cor.-Bl. f. schweiz. Aerzte, Feb. 22, 1919.

increased, varying from 7½ to 9½ inches—normal for a patient weighing 150 pounds—5½ inches (see Auscultatory Percussion of Heart, p. 252). This last described cardiac measurement we regard as the most valuable sign in heart failure. Auscultation of the chest reveals the signs of acute bronchitis. (See p. 90.) Bronchopneumonia is a common pulmonary complication. (See Bronchopneumonia, p. 860.) Pulmonary edema develops early and increases with the severity of the case in question.

Laboratory Diagnosis—During the 1918 epidemic we found practically all severe cases to show a diminished quantity of urine. Albumin and casts were always present in this type of cases. In private practice almost every case presented albumin at some time during the disease. Some of them displayed the intermittent type of albuminuria. Many of the patients showed casts during the stage of convalescence, and some of them continued to show albumin for months and even a year after their attack. Hematuria and anuria are observed in from 2 to 5 per cent. of severe cases. The variety of casts are hyaline and granular. Blood is not an uncommon finding. In the gastro-intestinal type of grip the urine may be rich in indican, and occasionally stained with bile.

In uncomplicated and mild cases the number of *leukocytes* is not increased, although occasionally a leukocytosis of from 10,000 to 15,000 may be seen. In complicated cases we have repeatedly seen a decided leucocytosis. In one case the count remained above 26,000 for several days. Leukocytosis is apt to be present late in the disease. The filter passing bacteria are present, (see Modes of Infection). Leukopenia may be present. The blood platelets are diminished and the coagulability of the blood increased.

The *sputum*, saliva, and nasal secretions when studied in stained preparations, contain numerous slender bacilli. Special attention must be called to the striking resemblance between the laboratory characteristics of the bacillus influenzæ and those of the organism described by Koch and Weeks as the exciting cause of acute conjunctivitis. An emulsion made from the sputum of influenzal patients, a filtrate of such emulsion, and a filtrate of the blood are also capable of causing the disease.

Summary of Diagnosis.—This is seldom difficult except in ill-defined, sporadic cases. Great importance attaches itself to the presence of an epidemic, an abrupt onset, with alternating flashes of heat and mild chills, the short duration of the febrile period, the intensity of the headache, with severe pain in the eyes and orbits, and muscular pains. In addition to the foregoing clinical peculiarities, if the prostration is out of proportion to the catarrhal manifestations, the diagnosis is practically assured. A microscopic study of the sputum, having for its object the detection of the bacillus influenzæ, although essential to a diagnosis only in sporadic and atypical forms of the disease, should always be undertaken.

Clinical Course.—The duration of the attack is brief, although special cases show great variations. In the milder forms severe symptoms exist for but from two to four days, whereas in the more severe types of infection they are present for from seven to ten days or possibly two weeks. Influenza, when it attacks those who are already suffering from some acute or chronic malady, may continue for a longer period than it does in previously healthy subjects. Epidemic influenza usually continues over a period of from four to eight weeks, after which there may be more sporadic cases than usual.

Complications and Sequelæ.—Bronchopneumonia is probably the most common and severe complication known to influenza. Hyperpyrexia may rarely develop, and diarrhea with hemorrhage from the bowel is also an occasional complication. Nephritis, pleurisy, and severe diffuse bronchitis, should they develop at any time during the disease, are to be regarded as of serious moment. Meningeal symptoms with maniacal delirium that is followed by coma seldom appear in uncomplicated cases of influenza, and these features are suggestive not only of a grave type of the disease, but of the existence of other serious complications:—Paralysis of the soft palate and encephalitis. Dwinell in an analysis of 53 complicated cases from the epidemic in 1918 (Spanish Influenza) gives the following:—

Process	Number	Complicated by Empyema
Parenchymatous degeneration of kidneys	53	
Splenic tumor	29	
Acute adrenalitis	28	
Mediastinitis	19	14
Pericarditis	9	4
Peritonitis	6	2
Septal thickening	10	7
Bronchial thickening	6	1
Necrosis of lung	4	3
Acute myocarditis	4	1

Empyema was commonly present during the 1918 and 1920 epidemics, developing in from 5 to 30 per cent. of cases. The left pleura appeared to be attacked about twice as often as did the right. The symptoms of the complications are not only misleading, but often over-shadowing symptoms and signs, generally accepted as classic in influenza.

Among the *sequelæ* known to this affection are pulmonary tuberculosis, pulmonary abscess, pulmonary gangrene, and chronic bronchitis. Following an attack of influenza the heart may remain irritable and tachycardia is common, whereas true angina of the precordial region is but an occasional feature. Subacute and chronic catarrh of the stomach and intestinal tract may continue for months, and following a somewhat protracted attack of influenza, we occasionally encounter chronic cystitis. Nephritis may continue after the febrile period. Among the annoying nervous sequelæ should be mentioned insomnia, headache, melancholia, suicidal tendencies, peripheral neuritis, and ascending myelitis.

Otitis media and even mastoid abscess may be seen to follow influenza, and ocular sequelæ—*e. g.*, choroiditis, acute glaucoma, and conjunctivitis are somewhat more common. Neurasthenia, hypo-adrenia, neuroses and psychoses are rather frequent.* Carr† in a detailed report of 274 cases seen during the 1918–1919 epidemics detected acute sinusitis in 36, conjunctivitis in 27, and epistaxis in 217 of them.

EPIDEMIC DIAPHRAGMATIC PLEURODYNIA

(Devil's Grip)

Historical Note.—Reference to this syndrome was first made by W. C. Dabney, who published his account of the condition in the "American Journal of Medical Sciences," for November 1888. There have been but few references in medical literature to this malady. However, reports have come from various sections of the United States. In 1923 the State Board of Health of Virginia cites an epidemic in two countries, as observed by Dr. Maud M. Kelly. Epidemics were noted also in New York, New

* Channing Frothingham, Amer. Jour. Med. Sci., April, 1921, p. 528.
† Am. Jour. Med. Sciences, Aug., 1919.

Jersey; and Robert Torrey reported three cases from the Philadelphia General Hospital in 1924.*

Etiology.—Observations made at the Philadelphia General Hospital Clinical Laboratory by Dr. Small* suggests that a protozoan is probably the exciting cause, but further work is necessary before this report can be accepted.

Symptomatology.—The patient who has usually enjoyed health develops a chill and a rapid rise in fever, to from 100 to 104° F. There develops in rapid succession dyspnœa, pain on deep respiration, intense aching and soreness at the base of the chest, and along the attachments of the diaphragm, headache and general discomfort.

Physical Signs.—The skin is hot and pressure between the shoulders and around the base of the chest elicits extreme soreness and may induce pain.

The foregoing features usually subside by the end of forty-eight (48) hours, and are then followed by a return of all the clinical phenomena first experienced. During this return of symptoms, the pulse may reach 140 per minute; respiration, 40; temperature 104°—the pupils become unequal or dilated, and the skin beaded by perspiration. Prostration is mild, reflexes often absent, and night sweats rather common.

Differential Diagnosis.—The disease is to be distinguished from acute pleurisy, dengue, influenza and malaria. The symptoms of epidemic pleurodynia are quite definitely classic. Physical signs are conspicuous by their absence. Prostration is less marked than in the other maladies herein mentioned, and recrudescences are unknown to pleurisy. A blood examination will serve of value in separating malaria and dengue.

Prognosis.—Most cases experience one or more recrudescences, but return rather speedily to normal. Thus far, we are not aware of any fatalities.

TUBERCULOSIS

Pathologic Definition.—An acute, subacute, or, more commonly, chronic infectious disease, caused by *bacillus tuberculosis.* The disease is characterized anatomically by the formation of a lesion called a tubercle. Tubercles, which may be formed in all the tissues of the body, are at first small—the so-called miliary tubercles; these tend to fuse, forming larger tuberculous masses of varying sizes, which undergo caseous degeneration, softening, and ulceration. With the softening of the tubercle the pyogenic organisms invade the lesion, provided it is so situated that they may gain access to it, and then a mixed infection results, with the production of pus. When the pyogenic organisms do not invade the softening tubercle, the purulent contents of the lesion is apt to be sterile. The tendency of the tubercle is to limit itself by the formation of a capsule of connective tissue, *sclerosis,* with inspissation and subsequent *calcification* of the contents. In cases of disseminated infection a disease known as *miliary tuberculosis* is produced, in which discrete tubercles of the size of a pinhead or less are found in nearly every organ of the body.

Caseation is the term employed to denote a process of coagulation necrosis of the cells forming the tubercle, by which the cells are converted into a yellowish, structureless substance, like cream cheese. This process, which begins at the center of the tubercle and gradually extends toward the periphery, is probably due to the local action of the toxins of the

*Amer. Jour. Med. Sci., October, 1924, No. 4, Vol. clxviiii, pp. 510–564.

bacillus. If a tubercle is properly situated, the caseous process may extend until an opening into a natural cavity is produced, such as a bronchus or a joint, and a *tuberculous cavity* results. Such a tuberculous cavity is very likely to become infected with the pyogenic cocci and bacilli. If a caseous nodule becomes encapsulated with fibrous tissue (*sclerosis*), it may be converted into a hyaline, fibrous material in which lime salts are subsequently deposited.

The dissemination of tubercle bacilli is effected principally through the lymphatics; but in some instances the organisms are widely distributed by the blood-stream, in which case *miliary tuberculosis* results. In some cases the disease extends by contiguity, as when a tubercle on the visceral layer of the peritoneum produces a tubercle on the parietal layer of the peritoneum just opposite to it. Also, in cases of tuberculous peritonitis the disease is disseminated along the surface of the peritoneum by the peristaltic movements of the intestines.

Distribution of the Lesions.—In the adult the lung is most frequently the seat of tuberculous new-growths.

Next in the order of frequency follow the larynx, intestines, peritoneum, genito-urinary organs, brain, spleen, liver, and heart. The pleura, meninges, and synovial membranes are frequently attacked. In children, the favorite sites of origin are the lymph-nodes, intestines, bones, and joints. Here the distribution, if we except the bronchial and mesenteric lymph-nodes, corresponds quite closely to that of surgical tuberculosis.

The Elementary (Nodular) Tubercle.—This may develop in any tissue in which the tubercle bacillus has become lodged, and the presence of the bacillus is the sole distinguishing feature, since apparently identical growths are produced by other microörganisms—*e. g.*, the actinomyces, aspergillus glaucus, aspergillus fumigatus—and even by irritation of foreign bodies—for example, podophyllum. Pseudotuberculosis is caused by organisms other than the tubercle bacillus.

The **stages in the development of a tubercle** are:

(1) A *proliferation* of the fixed tissue elements (connective-tissue cells, endothelium of the capillaries, etc.) of the part infected due to the local specific irritative action of the bacillus. These anatomic structures are transformed into epithelioid and giant-cells. The epithelioid cells assume various shapes, chiefly rounded and polygonal, and sometimes contain tubercle bacilli in their cytoplasm. As the result of increase in their size and a repeated division of their nuclei, or from the union of contiguous cells, a certain number of the epithelioid cells are transformed into giant-cells. The giant-cells occupy the center of the tubercle and often contain bacilli.

(2) *Diapedesis* of leukocytes occurs around the site of infection. It is of the nature of a defensive inflammatory process. At first the leukocytes are of the polymorphonuclear variety; these are quickly destroyed; later, however, mononuclear leukocytes appear. The granular elements described are immediately surrounded by a reticular stroma.

Fully developed tubercles are small, nodular bodies, having a diameter of from ½ to 2 or 3 mm. At first they are almost transparent, but as the result of further changes, they soon lose this quality. Tubercles invariably undergo degenerative changes, such as caseation and sclerosis.

Bacteriology.—The bacillus tuberculosis (Plate I) is the sole exciting cause of the disease. The organism is a straight or slightly bent, non-motile rod, rather slender, with rounded extremities. It varies in length from one and one-half to five microns, or from one-fourth to one-

half the diameter of a red blood-corpuscle. It is about 0.3 micron thick. It belongs to a group of organisms which are known as the *acid-fast bacilli*. These organisms have the peculiarity of retaining fuchsin in spite of subsequent treatment with a solution of a mineral acid. The tubercle bacillus is also alcohol-fast.

Biology.—The bacillus tuberculosis is cultivated with difficulty. It will not grow at all on the ordinary laboratory media; but on various special media growth can be produced, although but slowly. Glycerin bouillon and glycerin-agar are the two media habitually employed for the cultivation of this organism.

The other members of the group of acid-fast bacteria are bacillus lepræ, bacillus smegmatis, the bacillus of timothy grass, and the butter bacillus of Rabinowitch. The following points differentiate bacillus tuberculosis from the other members of this group: (1) The tubercle bacillus grows very slowly upon glycerin-agar, glycerin bouillon, or glycerin potato. (2) Bacillus lepræ and bacillus smegmatis cannot be cultivated upon artificial media. (3) The bacillus of timothy grass and the butter bacillus grow readily on the ordinary culture-media.

A method for determining the presence of the tubercle bacillus is to inoculate a guinea-pig with a portion of suspected tuberculous tissue that has been emulsified, or with scrapings from suspected tuberculous lesions. The animal develops tuberculosis within the course of from four to six weeks, and always succumbs to the disease; its body will be found to contain many tubercles. If the animal should die at an earlier date, its death cannot be attributed to the action of the tubercle bacillus.

Bovine Tuberculosis.—Tuberculosis is common among cattle, as has been shown by the work conducted by the various health departments in practically all parts of the world. Ravenel, of Philadelphia, has performed conclusive and elaborate experiments with both bovine and human tubercle bacilli. His conclusions are, briefly, as follows:

"(1) That the tubercle bacillus from bovine sources has in culture fairly constant and persistent characteristics of growth and morphology by which it may tentatively be distinguished from that ordinarily found in man.

"(2) That cultures from the two sources differ markedly in pathogenic power, affording further means of differentiation, the bovine bacillus being much more active than the human for all species of experimental animals tested, with the possible exception of swine, which are highly susceptible to both.

"(3) The tuberculous material from cattle and from man corresponds closely in comparative pathogenic power to cultures of the tubercle bacillus from the two sources for all animals tested.

"(4) That it is a fair assumption, from the evidence at hand, and in absence of evidence to the contrary, that the bovine tubercle bacillus has a high degree of pathogenic power for man also, which is especially manifest in the early years of life" (Anders).

The sputum, feces, urine, and pus from ulcers and sinuses of tuberculous persons are among the various sources of infection, and in a series of experiments conducted by us at the Philadelphia General Hospital we found that during the acts of coughing, sneezing, laughing, and talking patients suffering from advanced tuberculosis ejected a fine spray from the mouth that was found to contain virulent tubercle bacilli (droplet infection). Food-stuffs handled by persons suffering from tuberculosis of the respiratory tract are likely to become contaminated with tubercle bacilli, and are probably a potent factor in the spread of the disease.

CHRONIC TUBERCULOSIS

Exciting and Predisposing Factors.—In all types of the disease the exciting factor is the tubercle bacillus, first described by Koch in 1881, and found in the blood-stream (in 10 per cent. of cases) and in the diseased tissues.

Incubation Period.—In tuberculosis produced experimentally it has been found that the guinea-pig and other laboratory animals develop the disease in from two to four weeks and die from it in from four to eight weeks.

Race and Nationality.—Sears, in a study of 200 cases, found that 50 per cent. represented either the first or the second generation of Irish immigrants. We have also observed that American children whose parents are of different nationalities show a marked inclination to develop pulmonary tuberculosis, this being especially true of immigrants from the Latin countries who marry natives of Ireland, England, and Scotland.

Race also exercises a decided influence, the African being especially susceptible to the disease when he takes up his residence in the northern States. We have also observed that an unusually high proportion of mulattos acquire the disease. Tuberculosis is common among the American Indians, a fact that may possibly be explained, in part, by their habit of eating uncooked meats. Some observers claim that an attempt to civilize the American Indian always ends in an increase in the number of cases of tuberculosis among them. The Mongolian race—the Japanese and Chinese—is prone to develop the disease on coming to America.

Age.—Tuberculosis may develop at any age, but certain forms of the disease are especially frequent among children—*e. g.*, meningeal, peritoneal, lymphatic, and bone (hip-joint and spinal) tuberculosis. Pulmonary tuberculosis is most commonly encountered between the ages of twenty and thirty and is quite rare during childhood and in old age.

Sex.—Females are said to be more susceptible to the disease than are males, yet this statement is not borne out by the statistics of Boston and Blackburn. When women afflicted with the disease become pregnant, the tuberculous process is likely to run an unusually acute clinical course. The fact that females take less outdoor exercise than males may, in a majority of instances, explain the frequency with which the former are afflicted with this disease.

Previous Diseases.—Tuberculosis not infrequently develops as a sequel of some one of the acute infections, although it is impossible to say definitely that in such instances some obscure tuberculous lesion did not exist prior to the development of the acute infection. Influenza, measles, pneumonia, whooping-cough, colds, acute bronchitis, and typhoid fever are not infrequently followed by the development of pulmonary tuberculosis. Tuberculosis of the lung may occur during the course of such chronic maladies as hepatic cirrhosis, diabetes mellitus, chronic interstitial nephritis, and the anemias.

Climate.—Humidity and excessive atmospheric moisture appear to increase the prevalence of the disease. Sudden variations in temperature probably predispose to the development of the disease more markedly than does any one other climatic condition, since such changes increase the susceptibility to contract acute colds. Altitude produces immunity in the native born inhabitants, as is shown in Colorado and New Mexico, where tuberculosis among the natives is rare. An exceptionally dry climate of uniform temperature, such as that of southern California, is also unfavorable to the propagation of the disease.

Heredity.—This is estimated by different authors as being a causal factor in between 10 and 40 per cent. of cases. A child born of and reared by a tuberculous parent may be free from the disease at birth, but the environment certainly predisposes the child to infection. Children and other members of the same family are alike exposed to the disease. Tuberculosis is most likely to develop among the members of a family when the cooking is done by the afflicted person, since those suffering from pulmonary tuberculosis are likely to carry tubercle bacilli to the food they handle. Again, those afflicted with both pulmonary and laryngeal tuberculosis are continually clearing their throats, and are likely, in this way, to contaminate the food of others. It has been shown conclusively, as previously stated, that such patients disseminate a spray containing tubercle bacilli during the acts of coughing, sneezing, laughing, and talking; hence it is fairly reasonable to suppose that food prepared by tuberculous cooks will be contaminated with tubercle bacilli. As an illustration of the truth of the foregoing, the following case, which came under our observation, may be cited: Seven resident physicians in a hospital in Philadelphia developed pulmonary tuberculosis within the course of two years, and investigations made to ascertain the source of such infection disclosed the fact that the colored cook who prepared the food for the resident staff was suffering from a chronic form of pulmonary tuberculosis, both his saliva and his nasal secretion showing the presence of tubercle bacilli.

An *inherited* tendency to tuberculosis is more often transmitted through the mother than through the father, yet this statement, with reference to the transmission of the disease by the mother to her offspring, must be made guardedly. Women suffering from ill health at the time of conception and during the period of gestation are likely to produce offspring that show a special predisposition to develop tuberculosis as well as other infectious conditions. The children of syphilitics are very susceptible to the development of tuberculosis and congenital lues.

Pulmonary tuberculosis developing during childhood is, as a rule, unusually mild in form and is probably often overlooked until puberty or some later day, when the patient's general health becomes impaired, and permits that at one time encapsulated tuberculous process to assume an active stage, following which the clinical phases of pulmonary tuberculosis rapidly develop.

Acute Catarrh.—Acute catarrh of the respiratory tract provides a fertile soil for the development of the tubercle bacillus, and in consequence of this tuberculosis frequently follows acute colds and attacks of acute bronchitis, pharyngitis, and laryngitis.

Local Irritants and Wounds.—Factory employees are constantly exposed to the inhalation of particles of dust, and hence are prone to develop pulmonary tuberculosis; *occupation*, therefore, bears an etiologic relationship to this disease. As the result of the inhalation of irritating substances, glass-blowers, brass and metal workers, and coal-miners display a subacute or chronic bronchitis, following which tuberculosis is likely to develop. A single tuberculous focus may appear in the lung, and for a time many of the clinical features characteristic of either bronchopneumonia or lobar pneumonia may be present, tuberculosis being distinguished from these conditions largely by the fact that resolution does not occur. Pleurisy may be the exciting cause of a beginning tuberculous process that may, sooner or later, become more or less general. (See Pleurisy.) Local tuberculosis of the mediastinal and abdominal lymph-nodes is occasionally encountered in children, and is rarely seen

after middle life. Traumatism, sufficient to cause abrasion of the skin, may be followed by local tuberculosis, and it may also follow injury to the articular surfaces of certain bones and to the synovial membranes.

Modes of Infection.—(1) The *ingestion of the meat of tuberculous animals*, either beef or pork, is generally conceded to be a source of infection. The milk of cows suffering from tuberculosis is a common source of infection in both children and adults.

(2) The *sputum and dejecta of tuberculous patients* are a prolific source of infection, the bacilli being carried directly from them by flies and other insects and deposited on the food of healthy individuals. Again, dried and partially pulverized sputum is blown about by the wind and may settle upon the food or upon open wounds. There is some question as to the virulence of the tubercle bacilli present in dry sputum and dejecta.

(3) As previously stated, the air of a room occupied by a person suffering from an advanced form of tuberculosis has diffused through it a fine spray that contains virulent tubercle bacilli. The inhalation of such spray or the collection of spray on food is, in our opinion capable of exciting tuberculosis.

(4) In those suffering from tuberculosis of the kidney or of any other portion of the genito-urinary tract the urine may contain many tubercle bacilli, and this excretion, when it falls upon vegetation, may serve as a means of infecting herbivora. A great number of tuberculous patients have taken up residence in the southwestern prairie-lands and in the far west, and have lived out of doors on the frontier. It is possible that the urine and feces of such patients serve as the source of infection for the cattle of those sections.

(5) *Direct Inoculation.*—Tuberculosis may result from the introduction of material containing the bacillus into open wounds, and this is the probable explanation of the origin of lupus. Ravenel has reported three cases of accidental inoculation of bovine tuberculosis in man.

Infection through the tonsillar tissues is highly important.

Conjugal Tuberculosis.—The frequency of tuberculosis in the husband of a tuberculosis wife, or in the wife of a tuberculosis husband has been studied by E. Ward.* In 156 cases where the mate of either a tuberculosis husband or wife were thoroughly examined, 58 per cent. were positive —19 per cent. questionable, and 32 per cent. negative for tuberculosis.

(6) *Direct hereditary transmission* of the disease to the fetus *in utero* is exceptional, although authentic reports of such cases have been published. In the light of our present knowledge it is impossible to assert that any one of the previously mentioned modes of conveyance is the chief source of infection in man, although it is at least fair to assume that the ingestion of tuberculous meats or of milk containing tubercle bacilli is one of the more common sources of tuberculous infection in man.

ACUTE TUBERCULOSIS

General Remarks.—A fact to be emphasized in connection with this variety of tuberculosis is that an old tuberculous focus is present within the body. Apart from this primary lesion, the pathologic lesions consist of widely disseminated tubercles. Their most frequent seats are in the lungs, liver, and spleen, and less commonly in the marrow of the bones, the heart, the kidneys, the choroid, and the meninges. This form of tuberculosis is characterized by the rapid development of miliary tubercles in many and widely separated parts of the body. In certain cases the tubercles are quite evenly distributed throughout all the organs of the

*Lancet, Oct. 4, 1919.

body, manifesting the symptoms of an acute general infection. In other instances there is a tendency to localization of the tuberculous lesions, *e. g.*, in the lungs (pulmonary variety) or in the meninges (meningeal variety).

The fact that miliary tubercles may exist in different organs of the body (liver heart, etc.) without giving rise to definite symptoms is a clinical fact of considerable moment.

MILIARY TUBERCULOSIS

(ACUTE GENERAL TUBERCULOSIS; ACUTE DISSEMINATED TUBERCULOSIS)

General Remarks.—This type of the disease probably results, in the majority of cases, from the rupture of a tuberculous nodule into a vein (rarely into a lymphatic vessel), following which tubercle bacilli are disseminated by the blood-stream to all parts of the body. Irrespective of the site of origin, the condition is at first an acute, generalized infection, and may continue as such for an indefinite period; but later in the course of the disease the symptoms pointing toward tuberculosis become more or less localized—that is, meningeal or pulmonary symptoms are likely to develop. In some cases meningeal symptoms may be the first positive evidence of the existence of tuberculosis, whereas in others pulmonary symptoms may be pronounced from the onset. Uncomplicated cases of pulmonary tuberculosis present a creatinin coefficient below that of the normal.

Clinical Varieties.—(1) General or typhoid form; (2) acute tuberculous meningitis (see Diseases of the Meninges, p. 877); (3) acute miliary pulmonary tuberculosis; (4) chronic tuberculosis, and (5) tuberculous adenitis.

GENERAL MILIARY TUBERCULOSIS (Typhoid Form)

Clinical Features.—The general condition of the patient points conclusively to a severe grade of infection, which resembles a severe type of typhoid fever. The patient complains first of malaise, weakness, chilly sensations, impairment of appetite, and may occasionally experience one or more mild attacks of epistaxis. At times the disease develops *abruptly*, the patient becoming very ill by the end of the first forty-eight hours. There may be *cough*, with shortness of breath upon exertion, but expectoration is, as a rule, scanty or absent. *Prostration* soon becomes extreme, and within the course of a few days there may be diarrhea, mental dullness, delirium, and stupor.

Thermic Features.—The fever rises more rapidly, as a rule, than in typhoid, although there may be a gradual daily elevation until the temperature reaches 103° to 104° F., when there is likely to be well-marked morning remissions, although an evening remission with a morning exacerbation is occasionally observed. Rarely, indeed, the fever is not a conspicuous feature, and a subnormal temperature may be present.

Physical Signs.—Inspection.—The face is flushed; the patient, as a rule, lies upon his back; the tongue is heavily coated, and as the disease progresses it becomes brown, fissured, and often bleeds. Sordes accumulate about the teeth and lips. The respirations become somewhat hurried as the disease progresses, and late during its course there is evidence of cyanosis of both the mucous surfaces and the extremities. Jaundice is rarely seen, as is also a petechial eruption. An ophthalmoscopic examination may reveal the presence of choroidal tubercles. If the peritoneum becomes studded with miliary tubercles, abdominal

distention follows, and a cyanotic areola may be seen surrounding the umbilicus.

Palpation.—The *pulse* increases gradually with the progress of the disease, reaching 120 to 160 a minute, and becomes weak, dicrotic, and compressible. The spleen is moderately enlarged, and can usually be felt beneath the costal border. Abdominal tenderness is, in typical cases, conspicuous by its absence.

Percussion shows the area of splenic dullness to be increased, and there may be a moderate increase in the area of hepatic dullness.

Auscultation.—Numerous fine crackling and moist râles are usually audible over the base of the lungs posteriorly. The heart's action is rapid, and, late in the disease, the muscular tone is deficient.

Laboratory Diagnosis.—With the progress of the disease there may be a moderate amount of sputum in which tubercle bacilli are rarely present. Tubercle bacilli may also be present in both the feces and the urine throughout the entire course of the disease. As a rule, they are commonly present in the circulating blood, a clinical fact that can best be proved by inoculating a guinea-pig with a small quantity of the patient's blood.

Wang and Crocket* regard the complement deviation method of value in the diagnosis of tuberculosis. We have not had sufficient experience with this method of diagnosis to enable us to speak authoritatively as to its values. Cooke† has applied this test in 1556 cases and states that the test is of considerable value, being present in the majority of all cases presenting tuberculous lesions, independent of whether or not the disease is clinically active.

Differential Diagnosis.—It is at times extremely difficult to distinguish between *acute ulcerative endocarditis* and this form of miliary tuberculosis. The extreme irritability of the heart during the early stage of the illness favors the existence of endocarditis, whereas a cultural study of the blood makes the diagnosis of endocarditis positive in the event of pathogenic bacteria being cultivated from the venous blood. The venous blood in miliary tuberculosis is capable of producing tuberculosis in animals. Leukocytosis is commonly found in endocarditis, and is unusual in uncomplicated cases of tuberculosis. The distinctive features between the typhoid form of miliary tuberculosis and typhoid fever have been discussed at length under the Differential Diagnosis of Typhoid Fever. (See p. 809.)

ACUTE TUBERCULOUS MENINGITIS

This type of tuberculosis may be localized to a certain portion of the meninges, or there may be a miliary tuberculous involvement of the greater portion of the meningeal surface. The symptoms, however, vary in direct ratio with the degree of pathologic change that takes place in each given case. (For clinical characteristics of tuberculous meningitis, see pp. 858, 877.)

ACUTE MILIARY PULMONARY TUBERCULOSIS

Pathologic Definition.—A pathologic condition resulting in the production of disseminated tubercles, principally throughout one or both lungs in a generalized infection.

Clinical Picture.—In those cases in which the miliary infection is chiefly localized to the pulmonary tissue the *onset* may be sudden. More

* British Med. Jour., July 5, 1919.
† Am. Jour., Diseases of Children, Jan., 1921.

commonly, however, the symptoms of a general infection are present, to which are added *cough*, *increased respiration*, and *pleural pain*. The *sputum* becomes mucoid and mucopurulent quite early in the disease, and in certain cases rusty and blood-streaked sputum is seen in which tubercle bacilli are present.

Thermic Features.—The fever develops early, and usually fluctuates between 102° and 103° F., although more marked remissions and exacerbations are occasionally shown.

Physical Signs.—Inspection.—The patient displays extreme prostration and profound dyspnea, and cyanosis appears upon even the slightest exertion. The respirations are rapid, panting in character, and usually number between 40 and 80 a minute in children.

Palpation confirms inspection in regard to the frequency of respirations. The pulse is rapid, even during the first few days of the illness, and continues to increase in frequency as the disease progresses, reaching 120 to 140 or even 160 beats a minute.

Percussion.—In typical cases percussion reveals no definite signs as to the pulmonary condition, but in those cases in which small areas of consolidation are present percussion may show localized areas in which the note is impaired, and it is customary to find a hyperresonant zone immediately surrounding the area of impairment. The area of splenic dullness is enlarged, and may even extend below the costal border, and in some cases the area of hepatic dullness is also increased. It is possible, at times, to have effusion into the pleural cavity as a coexisting feature of this type of tuberculosis, in which event the physical signs are confusing and demand careful analysis. (See Pleural Effusion, p. 148.)

Auscultation.—At first the breath-sounds are merely increased in intensity, and there is but little change in character, but as the disease progresses numerous dry and moist râles are heard. If the pleura is involved, a distinct pleural friction murmur is audible, and occasionally a pleuro-pericardial murmur, synchronous with both the heart and the respiratory sounds, is present.

Laboratory Diagnosis.—The sputum may or may not contain tubercle bacilli; but the bacilli are more likley to be found late than early in the course of the disease, and they may be also be present in the feces, the urine, and in the peripheral blood. (See Tuberculin Reactions, p. 864.)

Summary and Differential Diagnosis.—The severity of the dyspnea, the rapid respirations (60 to 80 a minute), and the extreme cyanosis, when present in adults, point strongly to the existence of acute miliary tuberculosis of the lungs. Failure of the fever to terminate by crisis differentiates this condition from lobar pneumonia, and an absence of the preëxisting conditions known to antedate bronchopneumonia is also serviceable in differentiating these diseases. The detection of tubercle bacilli in the sputum, urine, or feces should always be regarded as conclusive evidence of the existence of tuberculosis of the lungs.

Clinical Course.—The disease progresses from bad to worse, ending in a fatal termination in from eight to twelve weeks.

ACUTE PULMONARY TUBERCULOSIS

(Acute Pneumonic Phthisis)

Varieties.—Two clinical varieties are recognized, pneumonic and bronchopneumonic: (1) The *pneumonic form*, in which the clinical features of the disease are those of an extensive lobar pneumonia, the disease

running its course, in typical cases, in from two to six weeks, although rarely it may be protracted to from twelve to sixteen weeks.

Diagnosis.—This particular type of tuberculosis is to be distinguished from **lobar pneumonia**; the distinctive clinical features between these two conditions have been set forth in the table on p. 840.

(2) **Bronchopneumonic Type.**—*Clinical Picture.*—Here the patient is likely to have a *chill*, or possibly a series of chills, followed by *high fever* of an irregular type. Coincidentally with the development of the chill and fever the *pulse-beats* and *respirations* are greatly increased. *Hemoptysis* may be an early symptom, and is soon followed by extreme prostration, rapid loss in weight, and profuse night-sweats (*galloping phthisis*). Early during the disease *cough* may be an annoying symptom, but it is not accompanied by expectoration. Later, however, the expectoration may become profuse, and may contain both elastic tissue and tubercle bacilli.

Physical Signs.—These are indefinite during the early stage of the disease, and, indeed, only the signs of bronchitis may be present until the disease is well advanced, when, as a rule, there are evidences of the formation of small areas of pulmonary consolidation—impairment of the percussion-note, bronchial and bronchovesicular breathing, accompanied by numerous râles. The physical signs just mentioned may be unilateral or bilateral, the latter distribution existing in a large proportion of all cases.

As the disease progresses the evidences of softening and cavity-formation appear, and the patient may go into the so-called typhoid state.

Differential Diagnosis.—**Bronchopneumonia** simulates closely the bronchopneumonic form of tuberculosis, and the distinction between these conditions is made, first, from a clear history of the absence of tuberculosis in other members of the family, or of association with those afflicted with the disease; and, second, upon the detection of tubercle bacilli in the sputum or excreta. The signs of cavity-formation, when they develop, are almost conclusive evidence of the existence of pulmonary tuberculosis.

Typhoid Fever.—When this disease is accompanied by an unusual degree of bronchial irritation, tuberculosis may be suspected. The presence of the Widal reaction, the absence of tubercle bacilli in the sputum, and the prominence of abdominal symptoms (iliac tenderness, gurgling, diarrhea, and tympanites), together with the history of an existing epidemic, presence of rose spots would warrant a diagnosis of typhoid fever. During the past year we have studied three cases (all negroes) in our hospital service in which typhoid fever and acute pneumonic phthisis were present in the same individual; in each instance the diagnosis was confirmed at autopsy, and in each the ophthalmotuberculin reaction and the Widal reaction were present.*

CHRONIC PULMONARY TUBERCULOSIS

(Chronic Pulmonary Phthisis)

Remarks.—In this form of the disease the onset is gradual, and at times insidious. In exceptional instances one of the acute types of tuberculosis previously described may merge into the chronic form.

Clinical Varieties.—(1) **Initial** or **incipient phthisis,** in which both the physical signs and the symptoms are indefinite until tubercle bacilli appear in the sputum. This clinical form may continue for months or even years, and if judicious treatment is instituted, may terminate in recovery.

* See also "The Relation of Typhoid Fever to Acute Tuberculosis," J. M. Anders, Amer. Jour. Med. Sci., May 4, 1904.

(2) **Advanced tuberculosis** is a condition that prevails after the development of definite physical signs referable to the pulmonary system, although during this stage many symptoms more or less characteristic of the disease are displayed.

INCIPIENT PHTHISIS

Clinical Picture.—The patient usually complains of an increased sense of languor, weakness, and moderate but progressive loss in weight. He may also experience chilly sensations at different times during the disease. The appetite is poor, and fatigue and dyspnea follow even slight exertion, and the patient has for months, and probably years, been unable to take food rich in fats. A distaste for fats is a highly significant symptom. Not infrequently gastric disturbances—*e. g.*, anorexia, with nausea and possibly vomiting after a night's sleep, epigastric distress, eructations of acid substances, and flatulency—are among the early symptoms, and, indeed, it is often for these that the patient consults the physician, believing that he is suffering from gastric disease. Jacob's report* of 92 cases shows gastro-intestinal symptoms to be present in 91 per cent. of his series. We have studied a large number of cases of beginning pulmonary tuberculosis in which the gastric symptoms practically overshadowed all evidence of disease of the respiratory tract, and in which the associated anemia and laboratory investigations made the diagnosis possible. Occasionally slight pleuritic pains are experienced, and if prostration is well marked there is profuse sweating at night. Cough is a common symptom, although in many cases it is but slight, and may be accompanied by but a moderate amount of glairy expectoration. In selected cases the first symptom to arouse the patient's alarm is the expectoration of blood and blood-streaked material, a symptom that, in North America, is highly suggestive of the existence of pulmonary disease. The pulse may be rapid early in the disease.

Gastro-intestinal Syndromes.—Due to the fact that the lungs and the gastro-intestinal tract have the same double innervation, all smooth musculature and all the secreting glands of the lung and bronchi are activated, as are those of the stomach and intestine, (with the sole exception of the sphincters) by the vagus nerve, which belongs to the parasympathetic division of the vegetative nerve system.

Whenever the pulmonary tissues are inflamed, certain sensory nerves belonging to both of these systems receive impressions, which result in reflex symptoms. A long chain of gastro-intestinal phenomena (recently detailed by Pottenger,† are to be observed during all stages of pulmonary tuberculosis;—and these are of special diagnostic value in the incipient variety of this disease.

Should the pulmonary branches of the vagus be irritated, stimuli are conveyed to the sensory nucleus of the vagus, in the medulla, and thence transferred to other neurons, with which they decussate. Should this mediation occur with the fifth, seventh, and ninth cranial nerves (for example) reflex action is seen chiefly through an increased secretion, and irritability of the nasal and oral cavities, and the pharyngeal, salivary and oral cavities, and the pharyngeal, salivary and lachrymal glands. Headache and abnormalities of the tongue may also result in this manner.

The gastro-intestinal symptoms forming this syndrome are anorexia, intolerance for fats, nausea, hyperchlorhydria hypermotility, spastic colic, vomiting, colitis intestinal stasis, and spastic constipation. Sensitive-

* N. Y. Med. Jour., Feb. 8, 1913.
† Bost. Med. & Surg. Jour., Oct. 23, 1919.

ness in the region of the gall-bladder, the appendix, and the pylorus are often misleading during the early stages of pulmonary tuberculosis. Janowski found symptoms referable to exophthalmic goiter present in 17 per cent. of 3000 tuberculosis patients. In 10 per cent. of these cases symptoms of hyperthyroidism antedated positive signs or symptoms of tuberculosis. Nervous phenomena simulating that of hyperthyroidism should suggest the possibility of beginning tuberculosis.

Thermic Features.—Slight fever is ordinarily present at some time during the twenty-four hours, and in certain cases chills, followed by exacerbations of temperature and profuse sweating are present; it is in this particular class of cases that the disease in a measure simulates malaria.

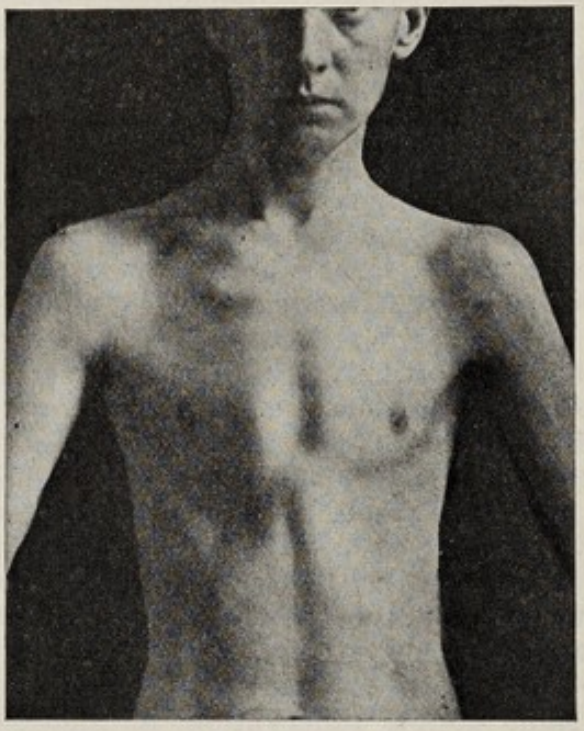


FIG. 306.—CHEST OF INDIVIDUAL PREDISPOSED TO PULMONARY TUBERCULOSIS.

Physical Signs.—These may be indefinite at the onset, but within the course of a comparatively short time—a few weeks or months—they become plainly manifest.

Inspection.—The characteristic phthisical chest, which is abnormally long and narrow, with widened interspaces, altered angle of the ribs, a conspicuous degree of flattening at the anterior surface of the chest, is often present; but by no means do all those developing tuberculosis display this type of thorax. In the African negro and in mulattos and quadroons the chest is generally very flat. Expansion is usually limited to one or other apex, and depression of the supraclavicular and infraclavicular spaces is often present early, and, as a rule, more marked upon one side (Figs. 306, 307). The mucous membranes may be anemic, and evidences of emaciation, with extreme pallor, may also be manifest.

Palpation.—In those cases in which the initial site of pulmonary inflammation is at one or the other base, nothing positive is revealed by palpation until a later stage in the disease is reached. If the apex of one lung is involved, the tactile fremitus is appreciably increased early, especially if the involved area is near the anterior surface of the chest-wall, or situated near that portion of the chest posteriorly that is uncovered by the scapulæ. As the disease progresses the fremitus may be increased over a large portion of the surface of the chest. Tactile fremitus may be increased as the result of pleural adhesions, a clinical fact of considerable moment, especially when the increase is over distinctly localized areas at different portions of the chest. The *phrenic sign* may be detected, and consists in the presence of a sensitive point in the supraclavicular fossa (affected side). Pressure over this point excites a more or less diffuse pain, which radiates from the apex through the upper half of the lung.

Mensuration.—In the vast majority of cases the chest expansion is below that of the normal; this is true even of the earliest cases, and later deficient expansion of one side of the chest becomes marked. Chronic

pleurisy also influences the measurements of the chest. (See Pleurisy, p. 145.)

Percussion.—Resonance is impaired over the affected area, and as the disease progresses distinct dullness will be elicited when sufficient consolidation has resulted. Impairment of the percussion-note is more likely to be detected at the right than at the left apex. In selected cases the impairment may first become manifest along the spine and just within the inner border of the scapulæ when the arm is drawn well across the chest.

Auscultation.—Extremely fine, moist, crackling râles are audible directly over the involved area of lung, and are heard most distinctly at the end of inspiration. Slight prolongation, roughening, or hoarseness of the expiratory murmur are among the earliest signs of pulmonary involvement. Later the expiratory murmur becomes harsh, and may even be rasping in quality. The respiratory movements are at times interrupted and jerking in character, giving rise to the so-called "cog-wheel" breathing. As the disease progresses the harshness of the breath-sounds gradu-

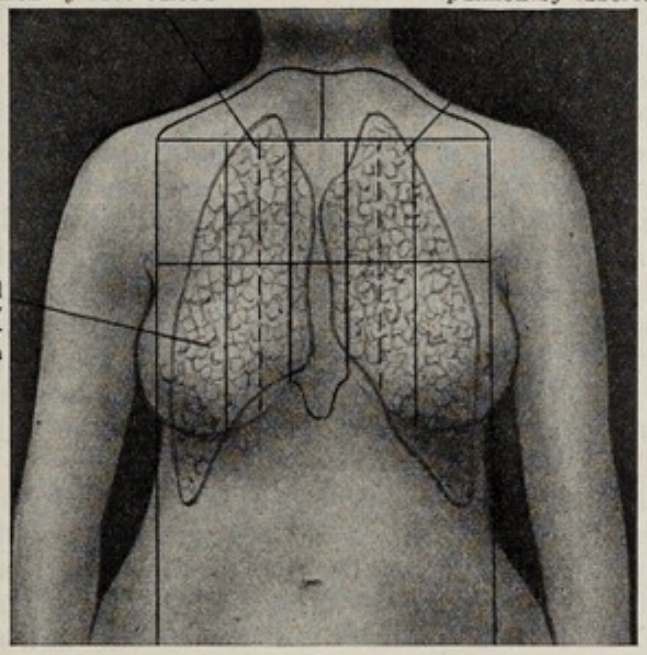


FIG. 307.—NORMAL POSITION OF LUNGS. VARIOUS AREAS ATTACKED BY TUBERCULOSIS.

ally increases, until they become bronchovesicular in character. The expiratory murmur becomes high-pitched and is distinctly prolonged. Both the spoken and the whispered voice-sounds are increased immediately over the affected lung. Vargas* regards his detection of the whispered voice sounds in the apex of the affected lung, as one of the earliest physical signs;—in fact it is referred to as a new sign.

Caution.—In those cases in which tuberculosis begins in the form of pleurisy, the signs previously outlined as characteristic of incipient pulmonary tuberculosis are masked to a greater or lesser extent, depending upon the degree of pleuritic change that resulted from the initial attack. (See Fibroid Pleurisy, p. 148.)

Laboratory Diagnosis.—The sputum is glairy, often of watery consistence, depositing but a slight amount of sediment at the bottom of the fluid upon standing. The presence of tubercle bacilli confirms the

* Jour. Am. Med. Assoc., Aug. 30, 1919.

diagnosis. Later in the disease the sputum may become profuse, thick, and mucopurulent in character. Elastic tissue may be present. Tubercle bacilli may be found in the blood, feces, and urine.* The total acidity of the gastric contents is normal or increased, as shown by Jacob's report of 50 cases. A persistent albuminous sputum is highly significant of a tuberculous lesion of the lung and may exist for a definite period antecedent to the detection of tubercle bacilli. Where the sputum is scanty Philibert† advocates the administration of 0.50 gm. of white oxide of antimony in gum julep to increase the flow of sputum. The complement deviation test may be employed.

Cutaneous Tuberculin Reaction.—In May, 1907, von Pirquet‡ communicated to the Berlin Medical Society the discovery that the application of a small quantity of tuberculin to a denuded surface of the skin produced in persons suffering from tuberculosis a characteristic reaction that was absent in healthy individuals.§

When tuberculin is injected hypodermatically in a tuberculous subject, three reactions take place: (1) The focal reaction—a congestion in tuberculous lesions; (2) pyrexia; and (3) the needle-track reaction. By introducing tuberculin into the superficial layers of the skin, as in vaccination, the first two reactions are minimized, and slight redness and swelling, corresponding to the third reaction, alone result. Of 700 vaccinated cases, pyrexia occurred in but 3.

This method is quite similar in its application to that of vaccination against smallpox: The skin of the arm is first cleansed thoroughly with ether, after which two drops of Koch's old tuberculin, diluted with 1 part of a 5 per cent. solution of phenol in glycerin and 2 parts of normal salt solution, are applied to the surface of the skin drop by drop. At the point at which the tuberculin comes in contact with the skin the cutaneous surface is punctured with a platinum-iridium needle that has been sterilized in a flame. The surface of the skin is now covered with cotton-wool, the covering being allowed to remain for five minutes; further dressing is unnecessary.

Reaction.—In a tuberculous subject the skin at the site of inoculation becomes red and swollen within twenty-four hours, and a small papule develops. The diameter of the papule averages 10 mm. The color, at first, is a bright red, which fades, leaving a pigmented spot that is visible for weeks. In children the stages are passed through more rapidly, so that no trace of a positive reaction may remain on the sixth day. The intensity of the reaction varies considerably, and in weak children the hyperemia may be slight and the papule hardly visible. In exceptional cases vesicles form. The typical reaction reaches its height in from twenty-four to forty-eight hours. A delayed reaction occasionally occurs in older children, who show no evidence of tuberculosis clinically; this possibly indicates that tuberculous foci were present, but are now healed.

Significance.—Von Pirquet found this reaction positive in all but 11 of 80 cases of tuberculosis in children. It has been further found that, late during the course of tuberculosis, both adults and children may not display a characteristic reaction. In 113 healthy infants the reaction was positive in but 5, and 3 of those showing a positive reaction subsequently died, the autopsy revealing tuberculous lesions. The real clinical worth of von Pirquet's reaction in the diagnosis of obscure tuberculosis cannot as yet be estimated.

* Friedrich, Fatty Stools in Phthisis, etc. Deutsch, Med. Wechnschr. Leipsic, 50: 632, May 16, 1924.

† Progr. Med., May, 1919.

‡ Wien. med. Woch., July 6, 1907, p. 1, 369.

§ Landau, Arch. & Klin. Chir. Berlin, 129: 636, Nov. 3, 1924.

Ophthalmotuberculin Reaction.—This reaction was described by Calmette in "La Presse Medicale," June, 1907, and has since been confirmed by observers from all parts of the civilized world. It is rarely employed by American clinicians.

Tuberculin Test.—Tuberculin, given in carefully graduated doses and administered by a skilled clinician, may be said to be entirely harmless, its only danger lying in indiscriminate and careless administration. If administered in the presence of slight elevations of temperature, it possesses but little clinical significance, a temperature of over 99° F. being sufficient, in many cases, to interfere with diagnostic interpretations. The *temperature* of the patient should be taken at least twice daily (morning and evening) for a period of not less than three days before the tuberculin test is applied, and whenever possible, a longer period of observation is desirable. Still better, the patient should be placed on a two-hour temperature observation for forty-eight hours before the tuberculin is injected. If, during this period, the thermometer registers above 99.8° F., the injection should not be made.

Dilution.—The administration of tuberculin demands the utmost care in adjusting the size of the dose. It is well to dilute the dose at the time of administration, as the product may become inert after being diluted for more than forty-eight hours. A recognized method of dilution is to use 0.5 per cent. of phenol in distilled water. Preceding each injection everything used in the administration—the syringe, tubes, pipets, etc.—should be sterilized by boiling.

Dose.—The first injection should approximate one milligram, although certain investigators employ as much as 3 milligrams as an initial dose.

If no reaction follows the initial administration, a second dose may be given after the lapse of two days, during which time the temperature should be recorded every two hours. If the patient fails to react to smaller doses, the dose may be gradually increased to 5 milligrams.

Inoculation.—The skin should be thoroughly cleansed with alcohol or ether, rendered aseptic, and a sterile pad be placed over the point of inoculation and allowed to remain for at least twenty-four hours. Most clinicians prefer injecting deeply into the muscle, although some advocate subcutaneous inoculation.

The Reaction.—The reaction is attended with an elevation in the temperature ranging between one and four degrees, a feature which in itself explains the necessity for definite knowledge of the patient's thermic condition prior to the application of the test. The reaction usually takes place in about ten hours, but may be delayed to as late as the second day. In selected cases symptoms of a more or less profound constitutional disturbance, of one or two days' duration, may take place; such as chill, headache, malaise, restlessness, pain in the back, limbs, and joints, nausea, and vomiting. The symptoms of the reaction usually subside within the course of a few hours.

A local reaction, when it can be recognized, is of clinical importance. (See von Pirquet's Reaction, p. 864.)

Clinical Significance.—The subcutaneous tuberculin test has a limited scope of diagnostic usefulness, confined to a small percentage of cases in which other methods of diagnosis have not given definite clinical results. Except in the hands of those thoroughly skilled in its use, this test is of questionable value.

A positive reaction must be attended by an elevation in temperature, constitutional disturbance, and the local manifestations previously detailed. The positive reaction may in rare cases be absent in infected

individuals, and an equally positive reaction may be obtained in those apparently not tuberculous, but who, nevertheless, may have concealed inactive foci. Again, the fact that a quiescent tuberculous focus is commonly found at autopsy in those apparently not tuberculous materially detracts from the value of this test in the recognition of incipient pulmonary tuberculosis. In our experience no deleterious effects have followed the conservative application of this test.

Inhalation Tuberculin Test.—Tuberculin has been administered by inhalation through the agency of a vaporizer, but we have no knowledge of the efficacy of this method of administration.

Blood complement fixation test may be employed.

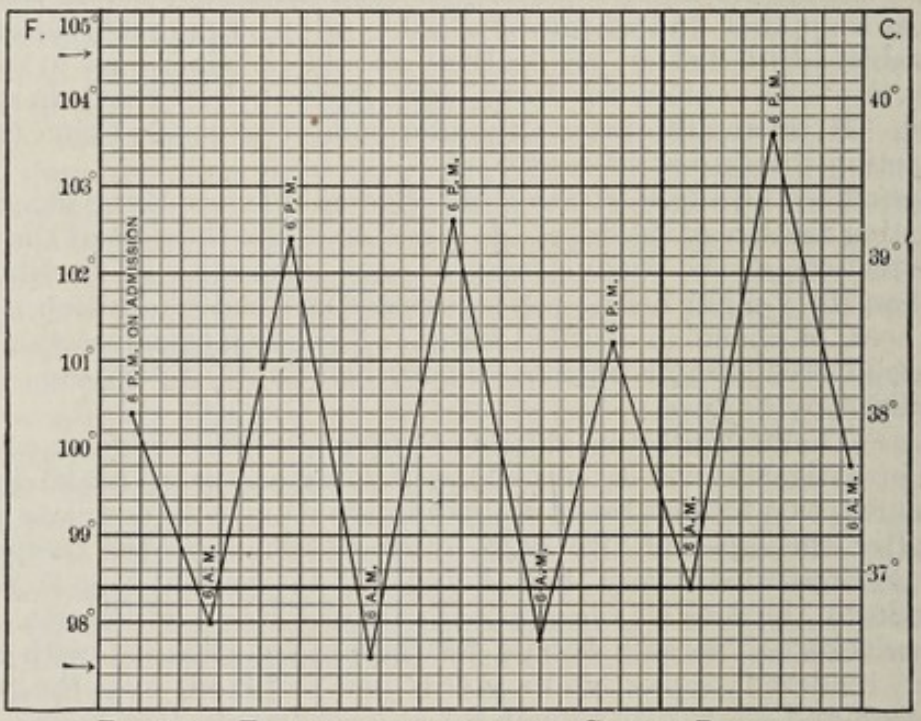


FIG. 308.—TEMPERATURE-CHART OF A CASE OF PHTHISIS.

Cavity in left apex, giving cracked-pot sound, Wintrich's sign, etc. George C———, aged twenty-two years; glass-worker.

ADVANCED TUBERCULOSIS

Remarks.—Here practically all the symptoms that have been detailed under the incipient stage of the disease are intensified. The **cough** is markedly increased, and may keep the patient awake at night; it is often paroxysmal in character, the paroxysms being induced by changes in the patient's posture—as from the erect to the recumbent, or vice versâ. *Pain* is a common and annoying symptom, and is especially severe in those cases in which the pleura is also involved. It may be limited to the upper portion of the chest, but is more likely to extend to the base of one lung. **Emaciation** is a prominent feature, and in cases in which loss of weight has been great, drenching night-sweats are common.

Among the **gastro-intestinal disturbances** are: anorexia, nausea, vomiting, flatulence, and constipation alternating with attacks of diarrhea. **Amenorrhea** is commonly present in young females, and may even antedate serious loss in weight; **menorrhagia** is rarely seen. **Pregnancy** is said by some observers to arrest the development of the tuberculous process, although the weight of professional opinion is to the effect that the disease assumes an unusually rapid course following childbirth.

Dyspnea is a constant, and in many cases a most annoying, symptom, being present even in the early stage of the disease.

Nervous Symptoms.—As the disease progresses the patient becomes more and more convinced that his malady is curable, and not infrequently he attributes his condition to gastric or other disturbances. This hopeful attitude is a conspicuous feature of this stage of the disease. Delirium is not observed until a late stage is reached, and generally occurs during the afternoon or at night.

Thermic Features.—In advanced tuberculosis the fever, which was of the continued type in the incipient stage, becomes remittent or intermittent, and becomes a fairly reliable symptom after cavity-formation has taken place. Owing to infection of the lung tissue with pyogenic bacteria the temperature is generally intermittent, being characterized by afternoon and evening exacerbations (from 102° to 105° F.), with morning intermissions, during which it falls to normal or subnormal. In certain cases in which other evidences of extensive disease of the lung are present the temperature will be found to remain at or near the normal, and in still a smaller number the temperature may remain subnormal for days or weeks. A remittent temperature may be observed throughout the greater portion of this stage of cavity formation. That form of fever most commonly seen—normal or subnormal in the morning and markedly elevated in the evening—is generally referred to as septic, suppurative, or the so-called "hectic" fever (Fig. 308).

Physical Signs.—Inspection.—In practically all cases there is pallor of the skin and of the mucous surfaces, with undue prominence of the bony structures, the result of emaciation. The clavicles are apparently elevated, and the scapulæ stand out prominently, while the supraclavicular and infraclavicular spaces are greatly depressed, the depression being most marked on the affected side. In the African negro, owing to the anatomic formation of the clavicle, no great depression of supraclavicular and infraclavicular spaces can take place, even though the destructive changes at the apex of the lung are extensive. The characteristic phthisical chest, previously referred to under the incipient stage of the disease (p. 862), may or may not be observed. In those cases in which the lesion is situated in the left apex the impulse of the heart may extend over an unusually large area—from the second to the fifth interspace. The greater portion of the anterior surface of the heart may be uncovered, owing to the tuberculous process having caused sclerotic changes with retraction of the pulmonary tissue. The two sides of the chest may expand unequally, and late in the disease the movements of the chest may be vertical rather than expansile. There is distinct playing of the nostrils concomitant with respiration, and the patient usually breathes with his mouth open.

Late in the disease the extremities and mucous surfaces may become decidedly cyanotic, and the skin shows yellowish-brown patches which are especially well marked over the anterior surface of the chest. The fingers are often clubbed during the incipient stage of the disease, and such clubbing becomes more conspicuous as the disease progresses. Edema of the feet and ankles is a late sign, and is a precursor of a fatal termination.

Palpation confirms inspection in regard to the movements of the chest and the area of diseased lung, even though such area be occupied either by consolidation or cavity-formation, since in cavity-formation there is a peripheral area of consolidation through which vibrations are well transmitted. The vibrations of the voice are diminished in those cases in

which an abnormal thickening of the pleura or pleural effusion is present. The *pulse* is increased in frequency, and will become rapid, and later weak and irregular, depending upon the extent of the pulmonary lesion and the character of the bacteria with which it has become secondarily infected. A friction fremitus is present at times over certain portions of the affected side of the chest.

Percussion.—The entire chest, the healthy as well as the diseased portions, should be percussed, and special attention should be directed to percuss carefully over both the anterior and the posterior portion of the apex of the lungs, comparing the note of the two sides as obtained over the supraclavicular, supraspinous, infraclavicular, and interscapular spaces. When examining the interscapular regions, the patient should be directed to bend forward and fold his arms well across the chest, thus separating the scapulæ. It will be remembered that under normal conditions the percussion-note obtained over the right apex anteriorly is a trifle higher in pitch than that elicited over a corresponding portion of the left lung, but in well-developed and healthy individuals these differences are slight, and any deviation from the normal may be readily appreciated. When cavity-formation is present at one or other base, the upper portions of the chest may be apparently normal. In those cases in which extensive fibrinous changes are present in the pulmonary structure the percussion-note displays a peculiar wooden quality. If the pleuræ are markedly thickened, the note may approximate that of absolute dullness, and in such cases there is usually decided retraction of the affected area. Extensive consolidation of the lung also causes a variable degree of dullness, which is modified to a great extent by the amount of healthy or partially solidified lung that is interposed between the consolidation tissue and the chest-wall. Pleural effusion when encapsulated gives a distinctly flat note, and is to be distinguished from that resulting from consolidation. (See Pleurisy, p. 272.)

A tympanitic (dull tympanitic) note obtained upon making firm percussion over the upper portion of the lung may point to two pathologic conditions—(1) pulmonary cavity and (2) pulmonary consolidation —occupying the space between a large bronchus and the chest-wall—a rare, although possible, condition.

Myoidema is a condition of the muscular tissue of the chest in which, upon delivering a somewhat firm, quick blow with the percussing finger to a muscle near its tendinous insertion, a localized contraction of such muscle-fibers takes place, and by striking over the belly of a muscle, contraction may be seen to follow along its tendinous insertion. Myoidema was at one time considered a valuable sign in diagnosing pulmonary tuberculosis, but at present it is believed to indicate muscular irritability, and it is observed most commonly when the tissues of the body are undergoing rapid emaciation. In the last stage of pulmonary tuberculosis myoidema is an almost constant feature.

Among the characteristic signs to be elicited over a pulmonary cavity should be mentioned Wintrich's sign, Gerhardt's sign, and Friedreich's sign.

Cracked-pot Sound.—This peculiar note is elicited by making firm percussion over a pulmonary cavity, provided the following conditions exist: (1) The cavity must be located near the chest-wall; (2) the wall of the cavity must be thin; (3) the cavity must communicate directly with a bronchus; (4) the chest-wall must be thin and relaxed; (5) the patient must be breathing with the mouth open at the time percussion is made.

Auscultation.—Both pleural and pericardial friction murmurs may be present at any time during this stage of the disease. The characters of the breath-sounds vary from a prolonged expiratory murmur through the successive stages of bronchovesicular and bronchial breathing. Irregular, jerking (cog-wheel) breathing is a highly significant symptom. Mention was made of the fine crackling râles heard during the incipient stage of the disease, and which may also be present over certain portions of the lung late in the affection. Râles are generally heard best at the end of inspiration, and practically all varieties of both dry and moist râles (see p. 71) are heard in this stage of tuberculosis. After cavity-formation has taken place the breath-sounds immediately over such a cavity may display an amphoric element that is almost entirely dependent upon the tension of the wall of the cavity and the amount of consolidated tissue that exists between the cavity and the visceral pleura. The voice-sounds are transmitted with unusual intensity through the diseased lung and also through a pulmonary cavity. The whispered voice (pectoriloquy) will be found

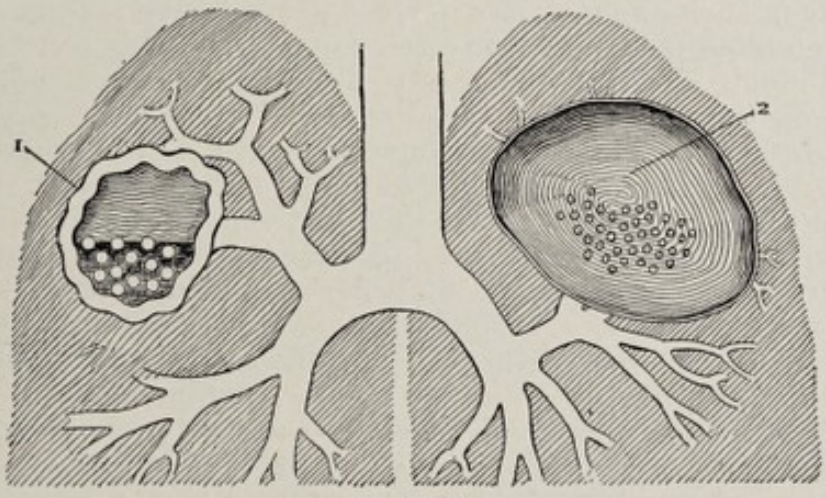


FIG. 309.

1, Small cavity near periphery, with thick relaxed walls, containing secretion and communicating with a bronchus; 2, large parietal cavity, with thin, tense, smooth walls, communicating with a bronchus (Anders).

to vary greatly in different cases, but is more or less distinctly audible in the presence of pulmonary consolidation (consolidation surrounding a cavity). The most reliable signs of pulmonary cavity are a tympanitic percussion-note, amphoric breath-sounds, and amphoric voice-sounds, with or without râles. With pulmonary cavity there is a double sound heard when the patient coughs. This was referred to by Bruce as a rubber ball sound. It may or may not be present, and is materially modified by the presence or absence of pleural adhesions, thickness of the chest wall, and location of the cavity.*

Laboratory Diagnosis.—The **sputum** is mucous in character at first, and as the disease progresses it may become grayish or greenish-gray in color. After cavity formation has occurred the sputum is often ejected in mouthfuls, and when expectorated into a vessel containing water masses about the size of a dime or even larger may be seen floating upon the surface; this is the so-called "nummular sputum." Albuminous sputum is common in tuberculosis and in other inflammatory processes of the lung, independent of whether or not there be blood in the sputum.

Hemoptysis is present in from 60 to 80 per cent. of all cases of pulmonary tuberculosis, depending, as it does, upon pulmonary conges-

*Symptoms and Diagnosis of Nontuberculous Pulmonary Suppuration, Conner, Medical Clinics of N. A., Jan., 1925, p. 1251.

tion and upon erosion of a pulmonary vessel. Some writers claim that hemoptysis at times results from an aneurismal dilatation of a pulmonary arteriole. Frequent and profuse hemorrhages may occur, and, indeed, after extensive cavity-formation has occurred, fatal bleeding may ensue.

Microscopically, the sputum will be found to contain tubercle bacilli (Plate I[A]), pus-cells, leukocytes, alveolar epithelial cells, and yellow elastic tissue. Red blood-cells are present in those cases in which hemorrhage has occurred. Many pathogenic bacteria may also be present, the staphylococcus and the streptococcus being somewhat common. Both large and small diplococci, bacilli, and fungi may also be seen in the sputum after cavity-formation has taken place.

The **hemic** changes are those of secondary anemia, both the hemoglobin and the red cells becoming greatly reduced. As the result of infection of the pulmonary lesion with staphylococci and streptococci, leukocytosis is frequently present. Rarely, tubercle bacilli are found in the circulating blood, and when the venous blood is ejected into animals (guinea-pigs), such animals may develop general tuberculosis.

In tuberculous meningitis the cerebrospinal fluid may contain tubercle bacilli, although, as a rule, but few bacilli are present in this fluid. The chlorides of the spinal fluid are diminished. The cells present vary from 30 to 400 per c. mm. The mononuclear cells predominates. Total proteins are increased. The fluid is under high pressure. The sugar content of the spinal fluid is low (one-half normal) and the urea and nonprotein nitrogen are increased. A positive diagnosis is more often attained by injecting the spinal fluid into the pleural or the peritoneal cavity of a guinea-pig or a rabbit, the animal succumbing to the disease in from four to six weeks if tubercle bacilli were present in the injected serous fluid. During the advanced stage of pulmonary or of laryngeal tuberculosis the nasal secretions generally contain tubercle bacilli.

In tuberculosis of the skin the bacilli may be found in scrapings from the lesion. The pus from tuberculous sinuses, as a rule, contains but few bacilli, consequently bacilli are found with difficulty in this secretion. We have found tubercle bacilli in the semen of a case of tuberculous orchitis in which tuberculosis of other portions of the genito-urinary tract was also suspected.

The **urine** will be found to contain tubercle bacilli in all cases in which there are ulcerative changes of a tuberculous nature along the genito-urinary tract. In selected cases of pulmonary tuberculosis tubercle bacilli will be found in the urine, while autopsies performed on such patients do not reveal the presence of tuberculosis of the genito-urinary organs. In tuberculosis of the kidney and of the bladder the bacilli are usually found in clusters containing from six to twenty or more organisms. The diazo-reaction is present in from 7 to 12 per cent. of advanced cases.

Feces.—Tubercle bacilli are always present in the feces of those suffering from tuberculous enteritis, and are quite commonly found in the stools of incipient and advanced cases of tuberculosis.

Tubercle bacilli may, in certain cases, be present in the discharge from the external auditory canal.

Kocher in the study of fifteen afebrile cases found the basal metabolism to vary from a few per cent. above to a few per cent. below the average for normal subjects.

X-ray Diagnosis.—There is probably no other field within the scope of internal medicine in which the application of the Röntgen rays is of greater service to the clinician than in pulmonary tuberculosis. Nevertheless, although this means of diagnosis serves to determine accurately

the exact location and extent of the pulmonary lesions, it is not to be employed to the exclusion of other methods of physical diagnosis. By means of the Röntgen rays it is possible to detect the presence of minute tuberculous foci long before they can be recognized by other present methods of physical diagnosis. Without it, therefore, the clinician can never determine positively the number of foci present in the pulmonary tissue.

Areas of consolidation 1 cm. in diameter may be recognized in emaciated subjects, and since such consolidations seldom occur singly, a more or less mottled appearance is produced. After these foci coalesce (Fig. 310), larger areas of consolidation, or their shadows, may be recognized and the degree of involvement of the affected lung may readily be

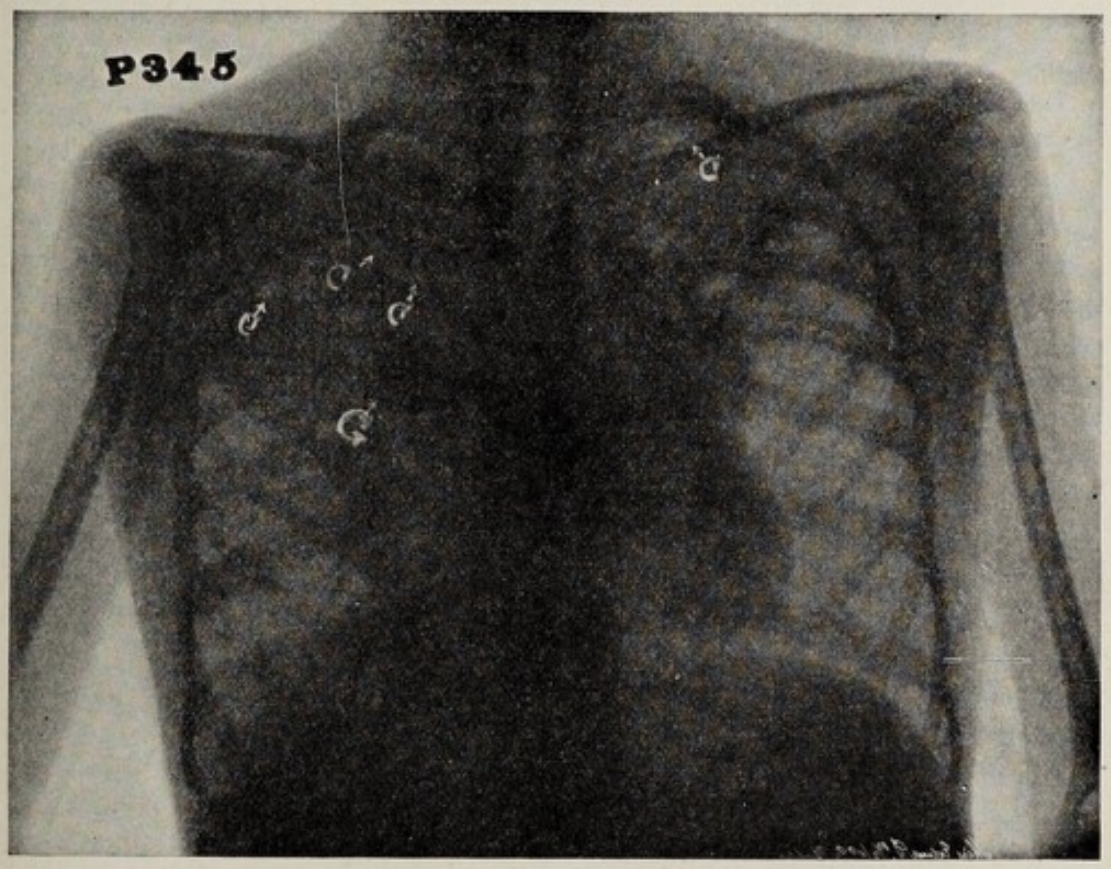


FIG. 310.—TUBERCULOSIS IN A CHILD (Pfahler).
Advanced disease of the right lung and of the left apex. *C*, Cavities; *G*, an old enlarged gland. Notice consolidation elsewhere.

appreciated by making a comparison with the picture of the opposite side and with uninvolved portions of the same lung. The true clinical significance of the *x*-ray plate can be interpreted only by one thoroughly skilled in röntgenography, since areas of consolidation resting at different planes are brought upon the plate in one plane, a fact that tends to deceive the untrained eye and conveys the impression that the involved area is unusually large. Stereoscopic study minimizes the probabilities of error.

Calcified Tubercles.—These cast a decided shadow, and are readily distinguished from the shadow produced either by areas of consolidation or by scar tissue (Fig. 311). Areas of thick fibrous tissue (*e. g.*, old scars) (Fig. 311) cast a less dense shadow than calcified tubercles; consequently a large area is required for the production of a definite shadow, and here

again skill in the interpretation of the plate is required to determine the actual nature of the lesion. It is highly important to recognize the exact nature of the last two described pulmonary lesions, and in the hands of a thoroughly skilled examiner such deductions provide invaluable data as regards both prognosis and treatment.

Cavities.—These can always be recognized by their marked transparency and the surrounding shadow of consolidation (Figs. 310 to 312). Pfahler states that a large cavity can readily be recognized, but that a small cavity, surrounded by a comparatively large area of consolidation or covered by thickened pleura, is less easily recognized. Under favorable conditions, however, a cavity of 1.5 cm. may be detected.

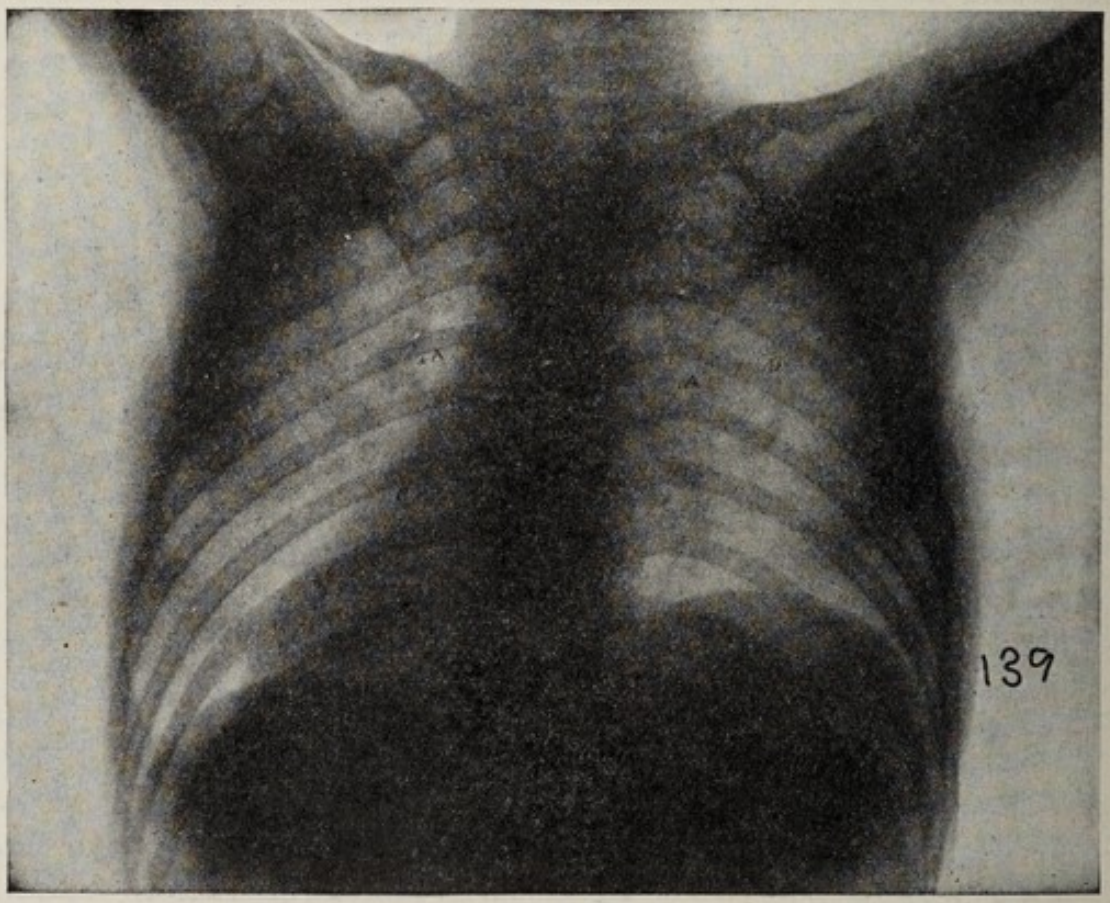


FIG. 311.—INCIPIENT TUBERCULOSIS (Pfahler).

Notice very small consolidations, detected with difficulty at necropsy. Followed tuberculous peritonitis. *A*, Areas of congestion; *B*, small tubercles the size of a pinhead; *C*, branching pulmonary vessels.

Emphysematous Lung Tissue.—Emphysematous areas also show a noticeable degree of transparency, and this condition must be distinguished from cavity-formation (Fig. 312). "A dense shadow may be found on one side of this area, but it is likely to have the other side continuous with more or less healthy tissue, and, therefore, can be differentiated from a cavity" (Pfahler).

Summary of Diagnosis.—In the incipient stage of pulmonary tuberculosis the diagnosis is based on the following finding:

(1) A history of tuberculosis in the family or of association with those suffering from the disease. The patient may have suffered from an attack of pleurisy, influenza, or a severe cold during the past year.

(2) Prominent gastro-intestinal symptoms, accompanied by progressive anemia and emaciation.

(3) Before definite physical signs can be elicited, positive reactions may be obtained from the use of tuberculin; when these are present, they strongly support the diagnosis. (Koch's Tuberculin Reaction, p. 865; von Pirquet's Reaction, p. 864.)

(4) The detection of localized impairment of resonance on percussion over some portion of the lung, and the evidence revealed by the *x*-rays (see pp. 76, 886), make the diagnosis reasonably certain before bacilli are to be found in the sputum.

(5) The detection of the tubercle bacilli in the sputum is conclusive evidence of the existence of a tuberculous lesion communicating with some

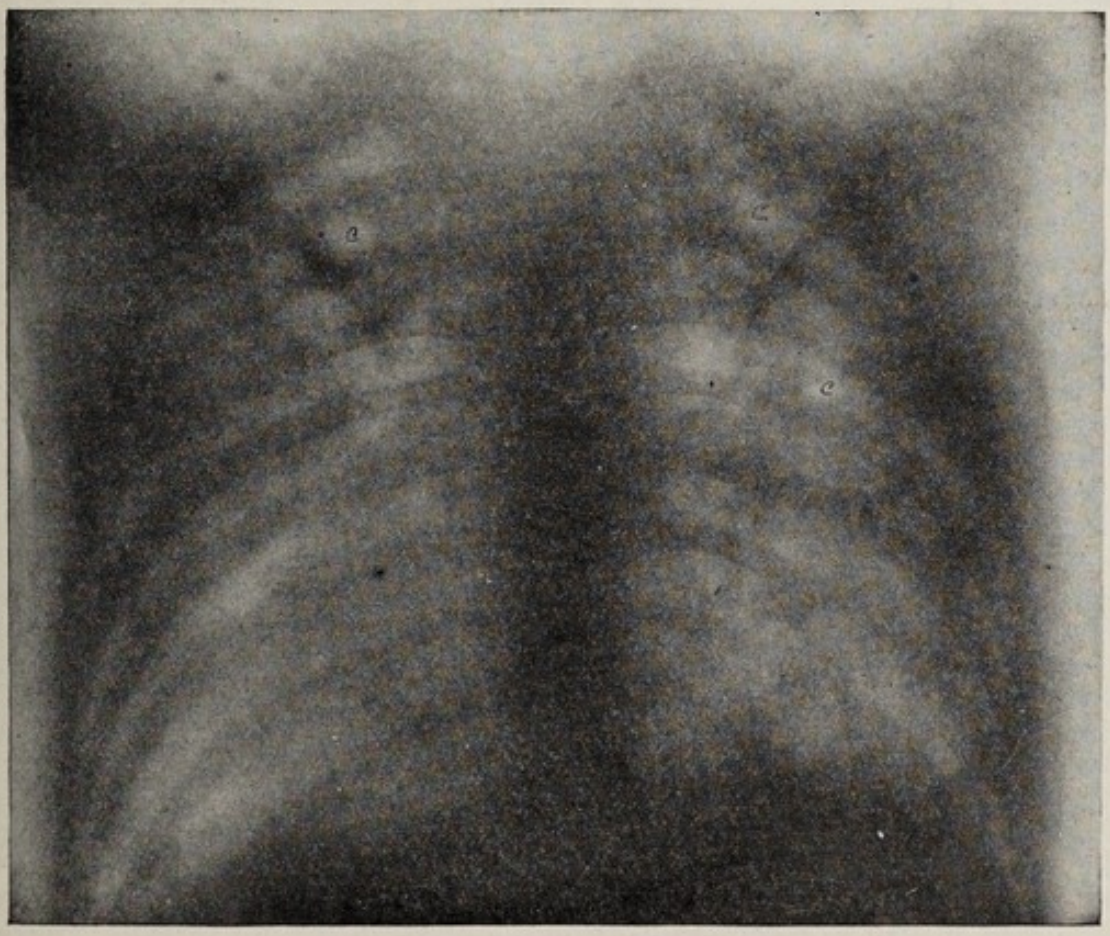


FIG. 312.—OLD TUBERCULOSIS OF THE LUNGS (Pfahler).
C, Cavities surrounded by consolidation.

portion of the respiratory tract. The sputum is, as a rule, rich in albumin, and this may be a conspicuous feature at an early date and before tubercle bacilli are detected.

During the second stage the diagnosis is rarely in doubt, the characteristic features being: (1) The degree and character of the expectoration and the presence of tubercle bacilli in the sputum. (2) Cough is an important diagnostic symptom, especially when it is excited by change of position of the patient; at times it becomes paroxysmal, when it is likely to be accompanied by vomiting. (3) Progressive emaciation, night-sweats, and hectic fever are highly suggestive symptoms. (4) The presence of the characteristic physical signs further support the diagnosis. (5) Localized impairment of the respiratory movements over

the affected area, depression of the chest-wall over the diseased part, localized dullness on superficial and deep percussion, a somewhat tympanitic or wooden sound upon making deep percussion if cavity-formation, surrounded by a comparatively thick wall of consolidation, is present. Wintrich's change of note and the cracked-pot sound, if a superficial cavity communicates with a bronchus or is partially filled with fluid, are valuable signs.

(6) The presence of tubercle bacilli in the feces and urine support the diagnosis, although their recovery from these excretions should not be regarded as sufficient evidence on which to base a diagnosis of pulmonary tuberculosis, but would favor a diagnosis of a tuberculous lesion either of the alimentary or of the genito-urinary tract.

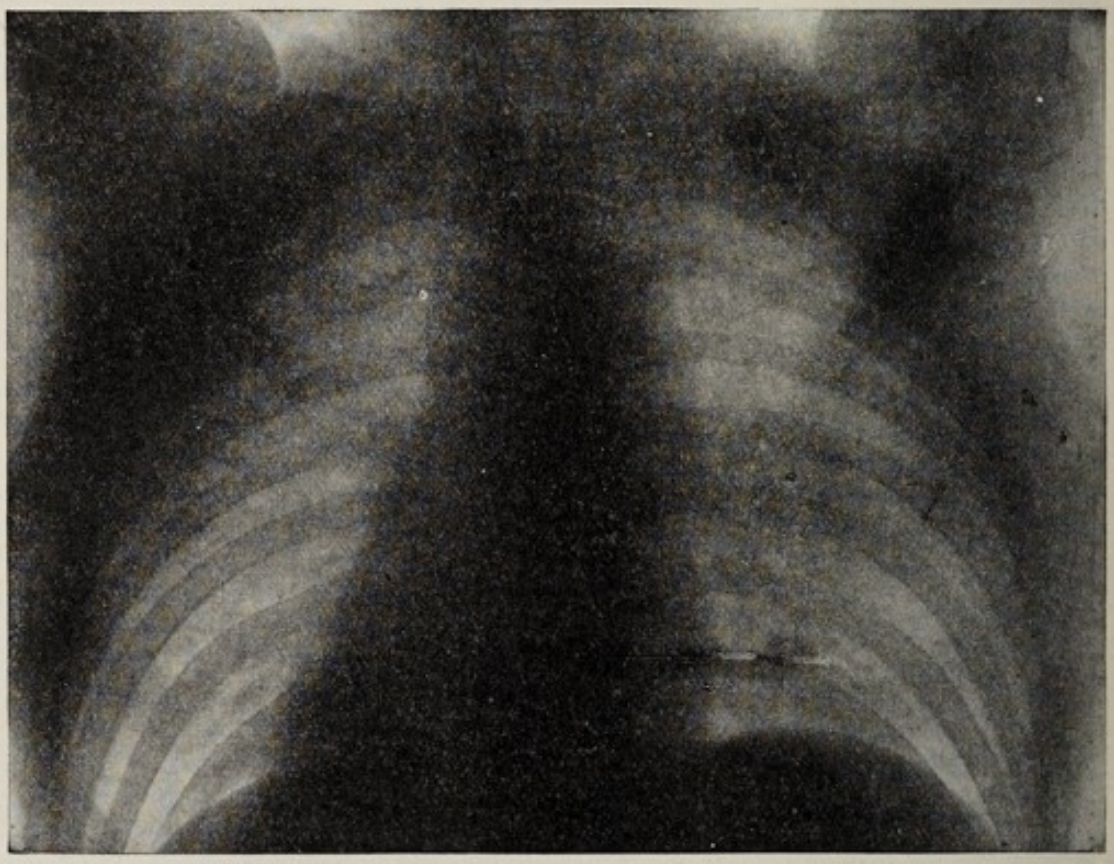


FIG. 313.—PLEURISY ON THE RIGHT SIDE (Pfahler).
A, Old tubercle; *B*, disease at the left apex.

(7) After cavity-formation has occurred the *x*-ray diagnosis gives positive information. (See p. 76.)

Differential Diagnosis.—In the incipient stage the differential diagnosis is of serious moment, and, as a rule, its making is attended with considerable difficulty. Here the clinical history, as previously mentioned under Diagnosis, together with a careful analysis of the signs and symptoms presented by the case in question, must be obtained in order that definite deductions may be drawn. The recovery of the tubercle bacillus from the sputum makes the diagnosis positive, and in the absence of this clinical evidence, the recovery of many tubercle bacilli in the feces should suggest, at least, the existence of pulmonary tuberculosis. The employment of the cutaneous and ophthalmo-tuberculin reactions is to be considered in obscure cases.

Bronchial catarrh (**apical catarrh**) may simulate advanced tuberculosis in certain respects, the distinctive features of the former being that râles are heard over both apices, that tubercle bacilli are absent from the sputum, that there is but little fever, which is never hectic in character, and that emaciation and prostration are mild.

Bronchiectasis.—It is to be remembered that if a portion of a bronchus is expanded, the physical signs of pulmonary cavity are present; consequently the differentiation is based entirely upon the symptomatology and course. (1) The naked-eye appearance of the sputum in bronchiectasis (see p. 104) is quite different from that of pulmonary cavity, and again in bronchiectasis tubercle bacilli are absent. (2) Nutrition is comparatively good in bronchiectasis, whereas emaciation is progressive in phthisis. (3) Elevated temperature is rare in bronchiectasis, whereas in tuberculosis with cavity-formation hectic fever is the rule. (See *X*-ray of Pleura and Diaphragm, p. 76.)

Streptothricosis (**pseudotuberculosis**) may rarely be confounded with pulmonary tuberculosis.

Actinomycosis.—This rare pulmonary disease may at times simulate tuberculosis, the points of difference between the two being discussed in detail.*

Clinical Course.—In incipient tuberculosis the clinical course may not only be materially modified by judicious treatment, but recovery may follow when such treatment is instituted and continued for a sufficiently long period. Those cases that go on to the second stage of the disease will be found to linger over an indefinite period, the length of which is somewhat influenced by the age of the patient—the younger the individual, the more rapid and the shorter the course of the disease. When pulmonary tuberculosis develops after the age of fifty, the patient's life may be but slightly, if at all, shortened as the result of the pulmonary condition, whereas in early adolescence—from fourteen to twenty-five—a more virulent type of infection is present and destructive changes in the lung develop early.

Complications.—**Pulmonary hemorrhage** is probably the most frequent complication, and is always to be feared during the course of the disease. When it develops during the incipient stage, it may not be of serious prognostic import. On the other hand, it is followed at times by decided relief from local symptoms.

Rupture of a cavity into the pleura, with subsequent development of pyopneumothorax, is a serious complication, and likely to terminate fatally, although in two instances coming under our observation recovery from the pneumothorax followed.

Tuberculosis of the larynx complicating the pulmonary type of the disease is a precursor of an early fatal termination, since nutrition is interfered with.

Enteritis is followed by severe depletion of the patient, and materially shortens the course of the disease.

Acute miliary tuberculosis may develop at any time, even during the incipient stage. (See Varieties of Miliary Tuberculosis, pp. 857, 858.)

Tuberculous pleurisy may have antedated tuberculous disease of the lung, and is likely to recur as a complication after cavity-formation has taken place, when there may be added the characteristic signs and symptoms of pleural effusion. (See p. 148.)

Amyloid disease of the liver, spleen, kidneys, and intestines is occasionally found at autopsy.

Peripheral neuritis and **acute endocarditis** are rarely seen to complicate this type of *tuberculosis*.

* Schwarz, Lancet, 207, 1331, Dec. 27, 1924.

FIBROID PHTHISIS

Pathologic Definition.—A type of chronic phthisis, characterized by the extensive formation of fibrous tissue at one and possibly at both apices. This fibroid change may continue for an indefinite period, until great deformity of the chest over the portion of the lung affected results.

Clinically, expansion over the affected portion of the lung is limited or absent; the percussion-note is dull, and the heart may be uncovered as the result of extensive sclerotic changes, with retraction of the lung. In other cases the heart may be drawn well to the right side of the body from contracture of fibrous bands. The respiratory murmurs are bronchovesicular or bronchial in quality, and the various types of râles (see p. 71) are likely to be present at different stages of the disease. Vocal resonance is, as a rule, diminished, although in a certain proportion of cases the voice sounds may be increased in intensity.

Diagnosis.—This is based largely upon the history of long-standing disease, with gradual deformity, and the detection of tubercle bacilli in the sputum.

Clinical Course.—The case seldom, if ever, terminates in less than ten years, and cases of twenty years' duration are far from uncommon.

TUBERCULOSIS OF SKIN AND BONE

Tuberculous lesions of the skin we have found rather common among ward patients of the Philadelphia General Hospital. These lesions are frequently located about the face and chest. The accompanying figures



Fig. 314.—Tuberculosis of the Face. Note also Involvement of Finger of the Left Hand.



Fig. 315.—Cutaneous Tuberculosis of the Ulnar Surface of the Hand.

Involvement of the bones of the second finger was later shown to be tuberculous. Positive evidences of pulmonary tuberculosis were wanting in this case.

illustrate the case of a child where tuberculosis of the bony structure and of the skin were present. Two of such cases have come to our notice during the past year. In one, a boy of ten years, two fingers required amputation.

Cutaneous tuberculosis is to be distinguished from syphilis, and this is facilitated through the aid of the Wassermann reaction, and reactions for tuberculosis. Lupus erythematosus, lupus vulgaris, tuberculides, and ulcers are subclinical varieties.

TUBERCULOSIS OF THE SEROUS MEMBRANES

Tuberculous Meningitis

Pathologic Definition and Remarks.—A disease characterized by the development of tubercles on the pia-arachnoid of the brain and the spinal cord and by an increase in the quantity of cerebrospinal fluid, in which, in certain cases, tubercle bacilli may be found. (See Tuberculous Meningitis, p. 897.)

Tuberculous Pleurisy

Remarks.—In the majority of cases of acute pleurisy the tubercle bacillus figures as an etiologic factor. (See Predisposing and Exciting Factors, p. 145.)

Tuberculous Peritonitis

Pathologic Definition.—A type of subacute or chronic inflammation of the peritoneum caused by the tubercle bacillus, and characterized by the development of tubercles of varying size, and by the accumulation of fluid in the peritoneal sac, in which tubercle bacilli may be demonstrated. The fluid will produce tuberculosis when inoculated into susceptible animals. (See Tuberculosis of the Peritoneum, pp. 623, 624.)

Tuberculous Endocarditis and Pericarditis

See Pericarditis, pp. 258, 266.

Tuberculosis of the Liver

Pathologic Definition.—A disease of the liver in which tubercles of varying size are found disseminated throughout the hepatic tissue. Owing to both its anatomic and its physiologic relations, the liver serves as a nidus for the lodgment of tubercle bacilli that have gained entrance to the arterial, venous, or lymphatic channels; consequently tuberculosis of the liver is, as a rule, a secondary condition.

Predisposing Factors.—Those suffering from any form of tuberculosis are especially likely to develop tuberculosis of the liver. Hepatic tuberculosis not infrequently follows a similar condition of the alimentary tract, particularly when the lesion is situated in the colon. Bone tuberculosis with caries serves as a marked predisposing factor to both the hepatic and the pulmonary types of the disease.

Clinical Features.—Among the constitutional features of hepatic tuberculosis are emaciation, prostration, and fever; the last may be but slight, and of such nature as not to indicate the existence of tuberculosis. There is symmetric enlargement of the liver, which continues throughout the entire course of the affection. *Pain* is uncommon until the peritoneal covering of the viscus becomes involved, when the symptoms will usually simulate those of chronic peritonitis. (See Tuberculosis of the Liver, p. 661, and Tuberculosis of the Peritoneum, p. 624.)

Renal Tuberculosis

This form of tuberculosis has been discussed at length under the heading Disease of the Genito-urinary Tract. (See p. 624.)

Tuberculosis of the Bladder Prostate and Ureters

Remarks.—These forms of the disease, while less common than tuberculosis of other portions of the body, are often discovered at autopsy. are more common in adults than in children. Their clinical characteristics have been detailed in the section on Genito-urinary Diseases, p. 762.

Tuberculous Orchitis

The testicles may be the site of tuberculous disease, which occasionally occurs simultaneously with involvement of the peritoneum and the kidney. In tuberculosis of the testicles the epididymis is appreciably enlarged, and may equal or exceed the remainder of the gland in size. Pressure may excite pain.

Tuberculosis of the testicle is a purely surgical condition, and the reader is referred to works upon surgery and genito-urinary diseases for a complete description of this condition.

Tuberculosis of the Ovaries and Fallopian Tubes

In this condition there is usually a family history of tuberculosis, but the other diagnostic measures within the scope of this volume are not sufficient on which to base a diagnosis of the condition. Later the symptoms become masked, as it were, by an associated tuberculous peritonitis, when the disease is treated by the physician as peritonitis.

Tuberculous Arthritis

Pathologic Definition.—A subacute or chronic inflammation of the synovial membranes, due to the bacillus tuberculosis. Tuberculous arthritis is a surgical disease, and the reader is referred to special works upon surgery for an extended description of the subject. Some of the distinctive features between tuberculous arthritis and acute articular rheumatism, however, will be found on pp. 876, 899.

Tuberculosis of the Mesenteric Glands

These glands are, as a rule, involved secondarily to tuberculosis of the intestines, although in children the glandular type of the disease appears to equal, and possibly may exceed, in frequency the truly intestinal type.

Tuberculosis of the Tracheobronchial Lymph-nodes

Pathologic Definition.—A condition excited by infection of these structures by tubercle bacilli.

This type of tuberculosis is most often secondary to a pulmonary focus although it has been found that in children tracheobronchial node tuberculosis may develop independently of a pre-existing tubercular foci in the lungs. Focal pulmonary tuberculosis of adults is practically identical with focal tuberculosis in children.

Symptoms.—Chief among the symptoms of nodular tuberculosis in children are:—anorexia, lassitude, irregular fever and substernal pain on deep inspiration. Infants may display a prolonged stridor which is most marked during expiration; and results from pressure. A harsh brassy cough resembling whooping cough is common. Symptoms referable to pressure upon the esophagus and bronchi vary greatly. Pressure may cause erosion of the thoracic organs.

Physical Signs.—Children thus afflicted are frail, puny and anemic. The tuberculin reaction is positive. There is dilatation of the veins over the chest.

Palpation.—Tenderness over the upper portion of the sterum is an early feature and may be present over the upper dorsal spines. (Petruschky's sign.)

Percussion.—In selected cases impairment of the percussion note is detected over the upper portion of the sternum.

Auscultation.—The tracheo-respiratory sounds when audible below the seventh dorsal vertebra should be regarded as a valuable sign in disease of the tracheo-bronchial nodes. (D'Espine's sign.) A venous hum is heard over the upper segment of the sternum and this sign is made more apparent when the head is extended. (Eustace Smith's sign.) Whispered voice sounds are heard over the thoracic vertebra in approximately 50 per cent. of cases.

Laboratory Diagnosis.—The cough may be accompanied by the expectoration of an extremely tenacious sputum, although in those cases in which a bronchus is partially occluded as the result of pressure, copious expectoration is seen, and in these the symptoms may closely resemble those of bronchitis. (See p. 833.) Occasionally an enlarged lymph-node may break and rupture into a bronchus, such an accident being followed by the copious expectoration of caseous, semiliquid, blood-streaked material. *X*-Ray studies are often productive of conclusive data.

Summary of Diagnosis.—Paroxysmal cough, hoarseness, swelling of the face and neck, with undue prominence of the superficial veins of the chest, and at times of the abdomen and extremities, are sufficient to suggest intrathoracic obstruction to the venous circulation. Tuberculosis of the lung is likely to follow, and may even precede, involvement of the bronchial lymph-nodes; consequently a history pointing to the existence of the former disease is to be considered. Tubercle bacilli are but rarely detected in the sputum, but their presence strongly supports the diagnosis of tuberculosis of the mediastinal lymph-nodes.

Differential Diagnosis.—Aneurism is to be distinguished from enlarged mediastinal lymph-nodes, a distinction that may be made from the following clinical facts: In aneurism there are, in addition to the signs and symptoms resulting from enlarged bronchial lymph-nodes, inequality of the radial pulses, hypertrophy of the heart, pulsation with shock over the area of consolidation, and a bruit, all of which features are unknown to glandular enlargement.

Tuberculous Cervical Adenitis

Pathologic Definition.—Chronic enlargement of the cervical lymph-nodes resulting from infection with the tubercle bacillus.

Clinical Picture.—In typical cases the submaxillary lymph-node (Fig. 316) is the first to give evidence of disease, but subsequently there is enlargement of the lymph-nodes in the postcervical, supraclavicular, and scapular systems, and enlargement of the bronchial lymph-nodes may also follow. Tuberculous adenitis is, as a rule, a bilateral disease, although generally the lymph-nodes of one side enlarge in advance of the corresponding structures of the opposite side. All the involved organs enlarge slowly, and when such enlargement is first detected, it may vary in size from that of a pea to that of a hazel-nut; after the disease has progressed for months or years, however, it is unusual to see cases in which the lymph-nodes attain the size of a hen's egg. These enlargements, as a rule, occur in clusters, are smooth, and seldom attach themselves firmly to the skin until just prior to rupturing externally. If one or more lymph-nodes break down after undergoing caseation and liquefaction, fluctuation will be present.

Diagnosis.—Fluid obtained from an enlarged lymph-node may contain but few tubercle bacilli, although animals either fed upon or inoculated with such fluid are likely to develop tuberculosis. The characteristic growth of the structures, combined with the presence of slight fever, anemia, and progressive loss in weight, strongly favors a diagnosis of tuberculosis. There is also likely to be chronic catarrhal disease of the pharynx and larynx, and enlargement of the tonsils in those suffering from tuberculous adenitis. Suppurative otitis media, keratitis, and chronic conjunctivitis are also commonly present. Finally, chronic eczema of the external auditory canal and of the lips is not infrequent in connection with tuberculous involvement of the superficial glandular system. (See Special Tuberculin Reactions, pp. 864 to 866.)

Differential Diagnosis.—**Pseudoleukemia,** particularly at the onset, is more readily confused with tuberculous adenitis than is any other



FIG. 316.—TUBERCULOUS ADENITIS.

Female, aged sixteen years, treated at Philadelphia General Hospital. Diagnosis confirmed by section of small gland which showed tubercle bacilli four months before death. Autopsy not permitted.

disease. Although acute tuberculous adenitis may closely simulate Hodgkin's disease and make a diagnosis between the two almost impossible, more often the lymph-nodes in tuberculous adenitis enlarge more slowly than they do in Hodgkin's disease. The extension of the lymphatic enlargement of tuberculosis is rare as compared with pseudoleukemia, and, again, tuberculous adenitis is more common in the young, is commonly unilateral in the neck, and attacks the submaxillary lymph-nodes more often than the structures along the sternomastoid muscle. Periadenitis, adhesion, and suppuration of the lymph-nodes are seen in tuberculosis, and tuberculous foci may also be found in other organs. Intermittent attacks of fever favor the presence of Hodgkin's disease. Some one or more of the tuberculin tests (see p. 865) should be employed in making a differentiation between these conditions, and, if necessary, a portion of a diseased organ may be removed for laboratory diagnosis. A hematologic study is necessary in every instance since chronic glandular

enlargement may be a feature of true leukemia and the latter condition is recognized only by making a differential count of the leukocytes.

The therapeutic test serves as the most practical method for distinguishing between tuberculous adenitis and syphilitic adenitis.

Swelling of the Salivary Glands, (Non-tuberculous) was first described at length in 1888 and 1892 by Mikulicz, and in 1909, Campbell Howard* reported four cases and collected from the literature 67 cases. Among the latest reports at hand is that of Marsh† who cites a rather typical case with tuberculosis.

Mikulicz's syndrome as originally outlined included chronic, painless, symmetric enlargement of the lacrimal and salivary glands where the overlying skin was free from inflammation, and readily movable. Since his original report individual cases have been contributed to the literature, many of which conform closely to the original description; while others vary widely including swelling of the glands above mentioned, unilateral swelling, and involvement of a single gland.

A complete microscopic study of the tissues involved serves as the only means of leading to a diagnosis.

Mikulicz's syndrome was found accompanying numerous small painless lesions of the skin by Hackel, Lewandowsky and Marsh. The general clinical picture of the cases, the mild variations in the reports of cases, would suggest strongly that tubercle bacilli may, and possibly always is, the exciting factor.

SYPHILIS

Pathologic Definition.—A chronic infectious disease, excited by treponema pallidum.

Etiology.—The spirochæta pallida is to be found in the lesions during all stages of the disease, in the lymph nodes, the blood and in the cerebro-spinal fluid. S. pallida is abundant in acute lesions of the acquired variety and in the tissues of the syphilitic fetus. This microörganism is seen with the dark field illuminator as a distinct slightly refractile thread, in the form of a spiral, varying from 6 to 20 microns in length, and distinctly pointed at both ends. Flagellæ are demonstrable. It stains a feeble red with Giemsa's fluid. Culturally, S. pallida shows strictly anærobiosis, and requires animal tissue and serum in the culture media. Direct contact with recent lesions appears to be the usual form of infection.

(*a*) **Primary Lesions.**—These consist of an infiltration of the connective tissue, chiefly with round-cells, of the same type as those seen in recent granulations. There is sclerosis of the smaller blood-vessels involving the adventitia of the arterioles, and the neighboring lymph-nodes undergo hyperplasia and induration.

Chancre Redux may appear late during the course of secondary or during tertiary syphilis and when the patient's vital resistance is greatly reduced. There has been considerable discussion as to the existence of this secondary chancre, but at present there appears to be sufficient data to warrant its existence. Following chancre redux there is an appreciable enlargement of the epitrochlear glands and the glands of the neck. Chancre redux is a clinical expression of inadequate treatment during and after the initial syphilitic infection.

(*b*) **Secondary Lesions.**—Macular, maculopapular, papular, and pustular lesions are seen on the cutaneous surfaces, and, with the mucous patch, show round-cell infiltration with plasma cells and leukocytes and

* Internat. Clinics, 19 S., i, 30.

† Am. Jour. Med. Sci., May, 1921.

changes similar to those found in chancre. The favorite sites for the appearance of mucous patches are the mucocutaneous junctions: *e. g.*, the mouth, anus, and vulva (Fig. 318). Other lesions appearing in this stage are general adenopathy, alopecia, and pharyngitis.

(*c*) **Tertiary Lesions.**—These consist of circumscribed inflammatory masses, known as gummata. They appear in the connective tissue, bones, periosteum, skin, muscles, brain, liver, lungs, kidneys, heart, testes, etc. Although usually sharply circumscribed, gummata may be diffuse, and may vary in size from that of a pin-point to a hen's egg, they tend to form ulcers. They are grayish in color, and on section show a caseous, semi-opaque center, with a fibrous, translucent periphery.

Microscopically, the gumma consists of lymphoid cells, plasma cells, leukocytes, and epithelioid cells, in which fatty degeneration and softening result in the formation of a pasty mass. The mass thus formed may either be absorbed or persist; in most instances, however, coagulation



FIG. 317.—THE TWO SPIROCHETES IN THE CENTER ARE TREPONEMA PALLIDUM; THE THREE OTHERS, SPIROCHÆTA REFRINGENS (Schaudinn and Hoffmann).

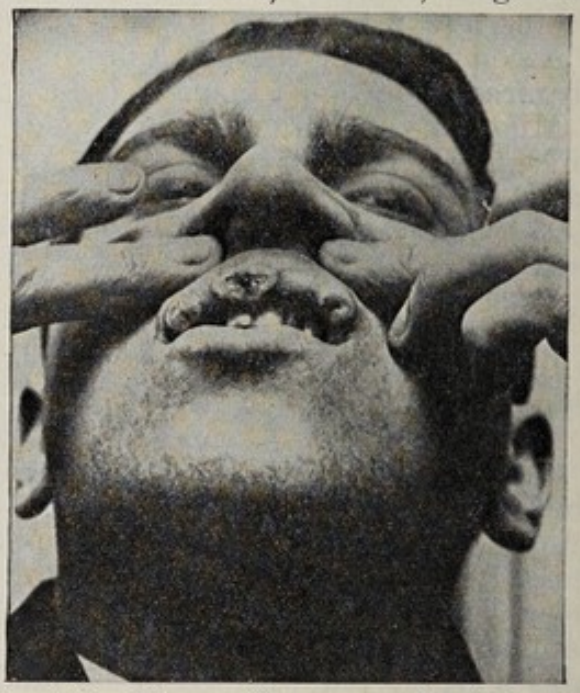


FIG. 318.—MUCOUS PATCHES ON LIP (Schamberg).

Lesions are deeper and rather more excavated than usual.

necrosis, due to local anemia, takes place in the center, with conversion of the peripheral zone into fibrous tissue. The central caseous material may be absorbed, or may remain as a calcareous mass with a cicatrix. Destructive ulceration and sloughing may follow. Syphilis shows a special predilection to attack the nasal and frontal bones, the palate, and the tibiæ.

Varieties.—(1) Acquired syphilis; (2) congenital syphilis; (3) malignant syphilis; (4) visceral syphilis.

Predisposing and Exciting Factors.—Bacteriology.—Schaudinn and Hoffmann have described an organism which is now known as treponema pallidum (Fig. 317) which is found in the lesions of syphilis during all stages of the disease.

Acquired syphilis occurs only as the result of inoculation, a break in the cutaneous or mucous surfaces, *e. g.*, a slight abrasion, fissure, or laceration,

particularly of the genital mucosa, being essential to infection. The lips and hands may be the seat of the lesions.

Susceptibility is universal. *Reinfection* is exceedingly rare, but does occur. (See Chancre Redux, p. 881.)

Contagion of Syphilis.—The blood of a syphilitic during the secondary period and the secretion from the chancre or any of the secondary lesions are contagious, the lesion at the point of inoculation always being a chancre. The physiologic secretions—saliva, sweat, milk, and urine—do not convey the virus unless they become contaminated by admixture with the discharge from some of the lesions of the primary or the secondary stage. The semen is capable of infecting the embryo.

Modes of Infection.—(1) **Direct Inoculation.**—In approximately 70 per cent. of cases syphilis is transferred by sexual intercourse.

(2) **Accidental inoculation** most frequently results from kissing. "In Russia from 75 to 80 per cent. of cases are acquired in this manner from popular customs" (Anders).

The mouth and tonsils may be the site of inoculation, the virus being conveyed during the practices of sexual perverts. The wet nurse may infect the suckling babe, or vice versâ. Fournier cites forty instances of chancre of the hand. Humanized vaccine virus may in rare cases transmit the disease.

Unusual Modes.—Accidental infection has, at times, though very rarely, taken place as the result of handling infected rags, clothing, drinking-cups, pipes, cigars, and the like; it has also been known to follow tattooing.

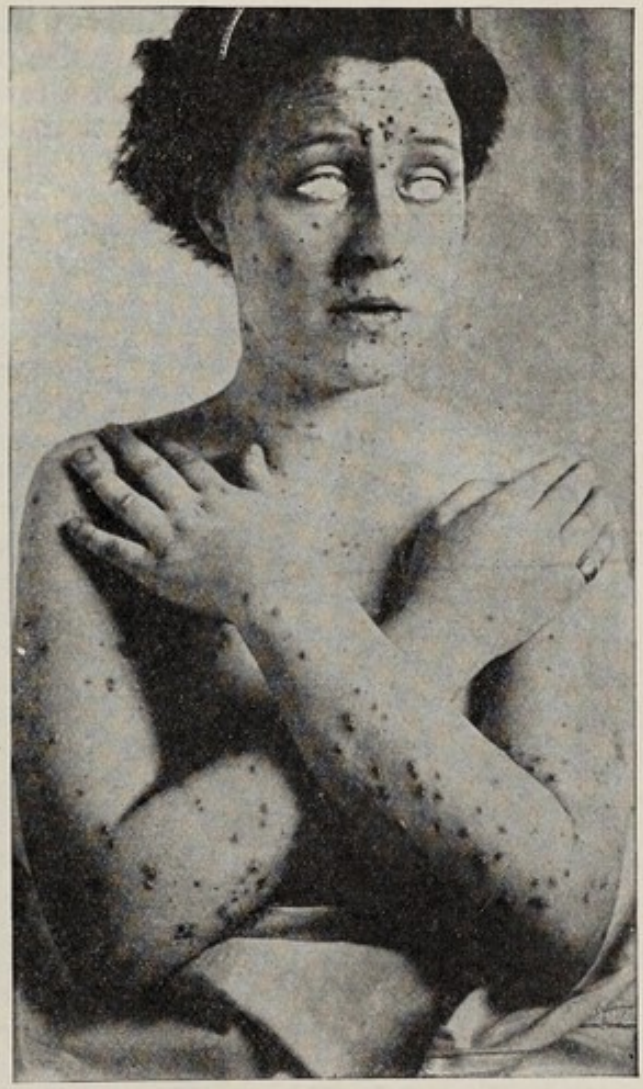


Fig. 319.—Pustular Syphilid (Welch and Schamberg).

During an epidemic of variola this patient was sent into the smallpox hospital under erroneous diagnosis.

"Krafft-Ebing found that out of 3455 cases, 15.6 per cent. were of extragenital origin. The lesion was upon the lip in 51 per cent." (Anders).

(3) **Hereditary Transmission.**—Paternal transmission (through the semen) is more common than maternal. Appropriate treatment of a syphilitic parent greatly lessens the danger of transmission, and in such instances the danger of transmission after the third year of treatment is slight. A syphilitic father or mother may beget healthy offspring, the infants having acquired an immunity that protects them from infection by the mother (Profeta's law). Infected women not uncommonly bear

syphilitic children. A woman who has become infected after conception may bear a syphilitic child, although, on the other hand, the infant may escape infection.

Immunity.—Those born of syphilitic parents may possibly possess a certain degree of natural immunity. A woman that has borne a syphilitic child may enjoy perfect immunity (Colles' law). One attack of syphilis usually bestows immunity. (See Chancre Redux, p. 881.)

ACQUIRED SYPHILIS

Clinical Stages.—(1) **Primary Stage.**—The typical lesion—the chancre—makes its appearance in approximately three weeks after exposure, and within the course of a few days, or at most a fortnight, is followed by swelling and induration of the surrounding lymph-nodes. The primary lesion appears as a red papule that soon increases in size and shows a tendency to undergo central necrosis with the formation of a small ulcer. The tissue immediately surrounding the ulcer becomes appreciably hardened and of cartilage-like consistence—hence the term, "hard chancre." A single lesion is the rule, although two distinct chancres may be present. The chancre may be situated within the urethra, near the meatus, but is most likely to occur at or near the junction of the mucous membrane with the skin. We have seen a number of cases in which the initial chancre made its appearance on the skin, in the mouth, and in one instance upon the cervix uteri. The primary lesion of syphilis may be so slight as not to attract the attention of the patient, and, as a consequence, we not uncommonly see females in whom no initial lesion was observed display the secondary manifestations of the disease.

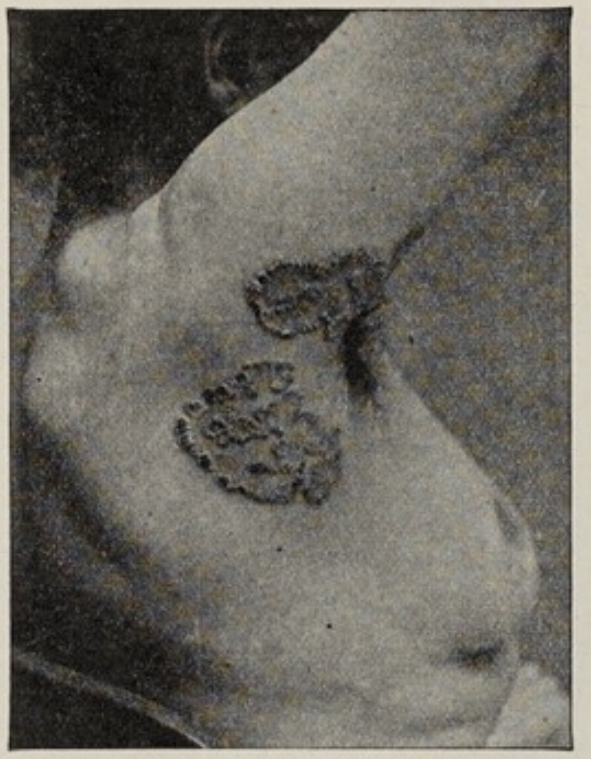


Fig. 320.—Serpiginous Syphilid.

(2) **Secondary Stage.**—The manifestations of this stage occur within about six weeks after the appearance of the chancre, although a much longer interval may intervene between the appearance of the chancre and that of the secondary stage. The patient complains of *langour, a sense of indisposition, aching of the bones, anorexia* or *impaired digestion*, and a *moderate degree of prostration. Soreness of the throat* may be present, and at times the patient complains of *pronounced angina.* There is falling of the hair.

Thermic Features.—Moderate fever is the rule, the temperature usually fluctuating between 100° and 101° F., although in exceptional cases it may run higher.

Skin and Lymph-nodes.—The *cutaneous manifestations* are polymorphous, although an erythematous or roseolar eruption is commonly the earliest cutaneous manifestation of this stage of the disease. The eruption is, as a rule, profuse upon the trunk, chest, back, buttocks, thighs, and forearms. Papules may also appear early, and will be found to vary

greatly in size. The papular form of the eruption is frequently conspicuous on the face, trunk, and flexor surfaces of the extremities. The lesions are rounded and symmetrically distributed on the two sides of the body. These lesions are, as a rule, symmetric, their outlines being more or less perfectly rounded, and in color they resemble that of a slice of beef, displaying a slight coppery hue. These lesions are usually not accompanied by either itching or pain.

The *lymph-nodes* are appreciably enlarged, especially in the cervical and epitrochlear regions.

Mucous Membrane.—Mucous patches are seen to occur upon the mucous surfaces, especially at the angles of the mouth, on the tongue, upon the tonsils, pharynx, and vulva, and about the anus.

Late in the secondary stage true pustules may be seen (Fig. 319), and the cutaneous lesions show a decided tendency to become agglomerated

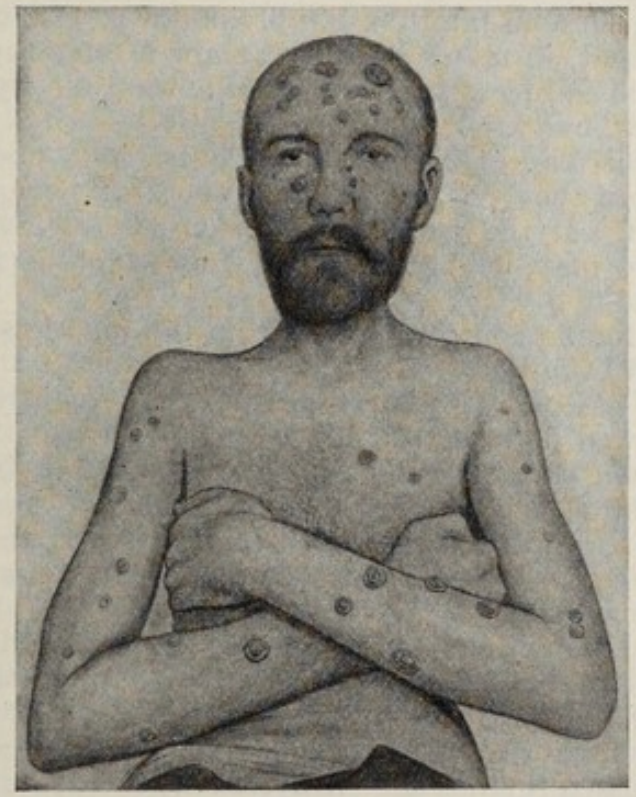


FIG. 321.—SYPHILIS.

This case had originally been quarantined as one of smallpox, but was later admitted to the venereal wards of the Philadelphia General Hospital.

in certain portions of the body; they are seldom diffuse, and are not so likely to be symmetrically distributed as the earlier secondaries. After the secondary stage of the disease has advanced for a period of weeks or months, the patient may complain of certain other symptoms, among which falling of the hair is most common (Fig. 321). Pharyngitis may be annoying, and the patient may state that his finger-nails are becoming unusually brittle. Various ocular manifestations, such as iritis, choroiditis, and retinitis, may develop during this stage.

Duration.—This stage usually continues for from two to three months, although it may run a much longer course—from eight months to one year. The interval between this stage and the onset of the tertiary stage varies greatly in different cases, and may be from a few months to many years.

The symptoms displayed during the secondary stage vary greatly in severity, and no satisfactory cause for such variation can be given.

(3) **Tertiary Stage.**—Occasionally tertiary symptoms may develop while the late secondary lesions of syphilis are still visible.

In this stage the cutaneous manifestations are important; among these are the characteristic rupia, which appears first in the form of pustules that later break down with the formation of ulcers that become covered with true, laminated crusts—the so-called "oyster-shell" lesion (Fig. 321). The tubercular variety of lesion is generally seen upon the face, back, and extremities. The cutaneous lesions just described affect only the true skin, and leave distinct scars on healing. These lesions are not believed to be infectious or contagious, and are at times attended by itching. The detection of treponema pallidum in gummata, however, would seem to throw doubt on the accuracy of this belief. True gummata may be seen to develop in the skin, and may involve the subcutaneous tissue; these lesions later tend to break down, with the formation of reniform ulcers that, in many instances, show a tendency to suppurate. Healing of syphilitic ulcers takes place somewhat slowly, and scar formation may be extensive.

Mucous Membrane.—Gummata are to be seen upon the mucous membranes, where they pass through the successive stages of ulceration and cicatrization. If the gummatous lesion should involve the rectal mucosa, diarrhea may be present, and, following the healing process, stricture may result.

Muscles.—Gummata may appear within the muscle substance in the form of small, hard tumors.

Bones.—The osseous structures are not infrequently attacked, and periostitis, followed by necrosis, is occasionally seen. As previously stated, syphilis shows a special predilection to attack the frontal (Fig. 321), the nasal, and the palate bones, and the tibiæ, although other bones may be attacked. Bone lesions, as a rule, give rise to pain, this symptom being most marked at night, and increased even upon making slight pressure over the affected organ.

Lymph-nodes.—Glandular involvement is common; the affected structures show but slight tendency to go on to suppuration. In certain cases, also, the testicles are attacked.

Viscera.—Gummata are occasionally seen in the viscera, a condition that will be discussed further on. Amyloid degeneration of the liver and of the other structures may follow tertiary syphilis.

X-ray Findings.—Delherm and Chaperon describe the roentgenologic syndrome of arterial hypertension as follows: (1) Left border: The aortic arch is raised so as to disappear partly behind the clavicle in some cases. The semicircle protrudes into the left hemithorax and often shows increased volume. The visible segment of the descending thoracic aorta is larger than under normal conditions, sometime reaching a length of 5 cm. At the same time it encroaches upon the visible length of the upper edge of the pulmonary artery (forming the middle curvature of the left border) and may entirely mask its point of origin. (2) Right border: The vena cava assumes a very convex appearance and is often animated by transmitted pulsations, indicating compression on the right of the ascending aorta. (3) The diameter of the vessels at the base of the heart is increased. It is measured according to the method of Vaquez and Bordet, but it must be borne in mind that the measurement thus obtained does not represent the diameter of the aorta, but rather the whole vascular pedicle.

Malignant syphilis is a rare but unusually virulent and fatal type of the disease. The successive clinical stages appear early and in rapid succession, a feature that is especially true of the development of tertiary lesions.

Malignant syphilis is further characterized by the fact that it resists treatment. A. E. Roussel has described a case that terminated fatally within the course of one year.

Laboratory Diagnosis.—Scrapings from the initial lesions and from the mucous patches, moist papules, and other cutaneous manifestations may show the presence of the treponema pallidum. (See also Wassermann Reaction, under Locomotor Ataxia, p. 1261.) After the secondary stage is well advanced, marked secondary anemia is generally present, this condition improving after the administration of specific treatment.

Justus's blood-test consists in a distinct, though transient, reduction in the percentage of hemoglobin following the administration of mercury, given either by inunction or hypodermatically, but it must be remembered that a similar, though possibly less well-marked, reduction may be seen to occur in non-syphilitic individuals. The sera of syphilis is highly viscous in the secondary stages and this viscosity increases in the tertiary forms.

Cobra Venom Reaction (Weil's).—Dr. R. Weil* gives in detail the hemolytic change following his experiments with the blood from various types of disease. An extraordinary degree of resistance to the action of cobra venom is exhibited in blood from syphilitics following the primary stage. In case the cells show a lesser degree of resistance the disease in question is not syphilis. The possible exception is cancer, where the hemolytic changes resemble those of syphilis.

Kilduffe's iodin-phosphoric acid reaction may serve as a short clinical route to diagnosis. Kilduffe's series of 352 cases gave 56 positive reactions.†

(1) A 10 per cent. solution of phosphoric acid.

(2) A solution of "resublimed iodine in chloroform or iodine tetrachlorid."

(3) The urine, to be suitable for the test, must be fresh, with a specific gravity of less than 1.016 of acid reaction, and free from sugar.

Technic.—(*A*) To 6 c.c. of urine in a test tube add 1 c.c. of the iodine reagent and shake.

(*B*) The chloroform after settling to the bottom, is either a pearly white (negative reaction), or pink or purple, which may be a positive reaction.

(*C*) If there is color in the chloroform layer, add 1 c.c. of the phosphoric acid solution, and again shake. Where the chloroform layer is decolorized the reaction is negative.

Summary of Diagnosis.—Great importance attaches itself to a clear history of the initial chancre in those cases seen after the disappearance of the primary lesion. In the absence of a positive history of chancre, followed by the appearance of secondary symptoms, such as malaise, slight fever, and the characteristic eruption, the diagnosis may be made only with difficulty. When, however, the symptoms of the secondary stage are present, syphilis can scarcely be mistaken for any other disease. During the tertiary stage, if the manifestations of the first and second stages have been unusually slight, the condition may give rise to

* Jour. Inf. Diseases, Nov., 1909.

† Jour. Am. Med. Assoc., Aug. 20, 1921.

confusion. On the other hand, the presence of the characteristic lesions of the tertiary stage renders the diagnosis clear, but atypical cases are by no means uncommon, and in such the therapeutic test, when followed by improvement in the patient's general condition, confirms the diagnosis. The recovery of treponema pallidum from the lesions is positive evidence of the existence of the disease. The Wassermann reaction with both the blood and the spinal fluid serves as a reliable diagnostic measure.

Differential Diagnosis.—Numerous affections and conditions, both local and general, are likely to be confounded with syphilis. Only a few of these will be mentioned here:

(1) **Epithelioma.**—The primary sore of the lip has been repeatedly mistaken for epithelioma. The history and symptoms of syphilis, together with the therapeutic test, will clear up any doubt. In one case coming under our care a chancre of the cervix was diagnosticated as carcinoma by two gynecologists and an operation advised.

(2) **Skin Eruptions.**—Lichen, psoriasis, papular eczema, measles, etc., may be mistaken for the eruption of secondary syphilis, and for their differentiation the reader is referred to special works on Diseases of the Skin.

(3) The **specific eruptive fevers,** and particularly the pustular stage of smallpox, have been mistaken for secondary syphilis.

(4) Syphilitic arthritis, which may develop at the beginning of the second stage, is to be distinguished from *rheumatic* and *gonorrheal arthritis.* This is best accomplished by making a careful study of the history of the primary lesion, and the characteristic secondary manifestations of syphilis.

(5) The tertiary stage of syphilis may simulate **chronic gout** or **rheumatism,** and unless there is definite evidence of the presence of syphilis, on the one hand, or typical rheumatic symptoms and history on the other, the diagnosis may remain indefinitely uncertain. The therapeutic test, however, may lend assistance.

(6) Periosteal nodes, similar to those occurring in syphilis, may follow **acute infections,** *e. g.*, smallpox and typhus and typhoid fevers, and here again the diagnosis is attained only by making a careful study of the clinical history, and as the result of the therapeutic test (see Justus's Test, p. 887), as well as by the detection of the treponema pallidum in portions of the nodule.

(7) Enlargement of the tonsils may result from syphilis, and such enlargements may be confounded with **epithelioma** of these organs.

(8) During the febrile period of syphilis the clinical picture may resemble, in many respects, that seen in **tuberculosis.** The therapeutic test, a careful examination of the blood, Calmette's ophthalmotuberculin reaction (p. 865), and von Pirquet's needle-track reaction (p. 864) will usually serve as means for differentiating between tuberculosis and syphilis.

HEREDITARY SYPHILIS

Clinical Features.—These may, in rare instances, resemble those previously described under Acquired Syphilis; in the hereditary form, however, chancre is absent. In certain cases the characteristic symptoms are present at birth, although in the vast majority positive symptoms make their appearance between the first and fourth months of life. "Kassowitz states that one-third of all children procreated of syphilitic parents are born dead, and of those born living, 24 per cent. die within the first six months of life" (Anders). Inherited syphilis may further be classified according to the time at which symptoms make their appearance.

In the new-born there is a lack of physical development. The child is greatly emaciated, "snuffles" is present, and hiccough occasionally appears soon after birth. Cutaneous eruptions are rare, but pemphigus neonatorum may attack the palmar surfaces of the hands and the soles of the feet. Among the rare skin phenomena are gummata around the radiocarpal articulations, palmar psoriasis, and roseola. Ulcers and fissures may be seen about the mouth and the anus. The bony skeleton may show hyperostoses of the long bones. Enlargement of the liver and spleen is common. Pseudoparalysis has also been observed.

Early Postnatal Symptoms.—Many subjects of hereditary syphilis are well developed at birth and exhibit no manifestations of the disease, symptoms appearing, in the majority of cases, not later than the third month.

Coryza (syphilitic rhinitis) is often the initial symptom, being accompanied by a seropurulent and at times a bloody discharge—a peculiar form of obstructed breathing rendering nursing difficult. Coryza may be preceded by singultus, and *ulcers* may form in the nose, leading to *necrosis*

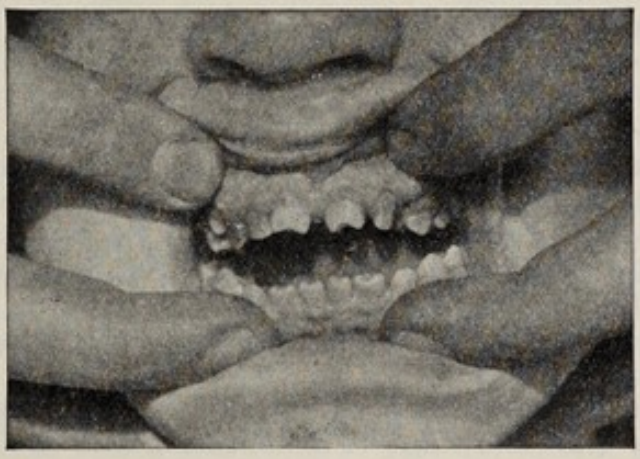


FIG. 322.—HUTCHINSON'S TEETH IN A CHILD WITH HEREDITARY SYPHILIS (Schamberg).

of the bones and ultimate deformity of the organ. *Coryza*, *otitis media*, and *deafness* are the chief symptoms, and the skull may be asymmetric in conformation.

The *cutaneous symptoms* appear early. The skin has a tawny hue; the nates and genitalia are the seats of an erythematous eruption. Onychia is seen at times, and the lips and angles of the mouth may show well-marked fissures. There may be a moderate degree of glandular enlargement, and falling of the hair may occur.

Splenic enlargement is a common feature, and when seen before the third month, is of great diagnostic importance.

The *liver* may also be enlarged, but this symptom is of less diagnostic importance than is enlargement of the spleen.

Syphilitic infants at times display a marked tendency to develop hemorrhage, and at birth, or within the course of a few days, there may be bleeding from the cord and hemorrhage into the subcutaneous tissues and from the mucous surfaces—*e. g.*, the vagina, stomach, and mouth. Syphilitic children are generally restless and sleepless, and may give utterance to a peculiar, harsh, shrill cry. Both anemia and cachexia are to be seen.

Late Symptoms.—The manifestations of congenital syphilis that develop later in life have been grouped under the following subheadings:

(1) Those cases in which the general appearance of the child is a prominent feature, and is indicated by a retarded development both of the bony structures and of the muscles. This feature may be so pronounced that a child from four to twelve years of age may resemble an infant in size and form. The skin of such children has an earthy tint, and the hair is scanty and poorly nourished.

(2) Those cases in which lesions of the skeleton are prominent show the so-called "natiform skull"—a transverse enlargement, lateral bulging, and flattening in the middle. At times the skull may be hydrocephalic or asymmetric, and deformity of the nasal bones, as previously stated, is by no means unusual. Thickening or deformity of the tibiæ and of the sternum may also be seen.

(3) *Cicatrices.*—These are seen upon the cutaneous surface, and also about the nose, mouth, soft palate, and genitals.

Hutchinson's Teeth.—In some syphilitic children the teeth are erupted late, and often present various irregularities. (See Fig. 322.) The dental arch may be deformed. In rare instances the child may be born with one or more teeth. The incisors, especially the superior median of the second dentition, are notched, and show a thinness of the free edge, atrophy of the summit, and crescent-shaped erosions (Fig. 322). The absence of one, two, or more teeth is an occasional feature of inherited syphilis.

Auditory Manifestations.—Otorrhea, previously referred to, is, as a rule, secondary to syphilitic disease of the nasopharynx, and an increasing form of deafness appears at about the time of puberty.

Ocular Manifestations.—Interstitial keratitis and iritis are to be seen in inherited syphilis.

The testicle may fail to develop at puberty, showing the condition known as "infantile testicle."

Recklinghausen's Syndrome.—Typical cases of this condition are found to display the following:—Pigmentation and multiple tumors of the skin, together with tumors of the nerves altered sensations, sexual depression, mental apathy with deformities of the skeleton, especially of the spine. Compression of adjacent structures by tumor growths cause a variety of symptoms and signs.

Pressure upon the lymphatic system and nerves may cause deafness, keratitis, lesions of the facial nerves, asthenia and muscular atrophy.

VISCERAL SYPHILIS

Syphilis of the Nervous System.—See chapter on Diseases of the Nervous System.

Syphilis of the Liver

Gummata develop in the substance of the liver, and, following their absorption, the organ becomes distinctly lobulated. The viscus may also be further deformed as the result of chronic inflammation, which appears to affect mainly the capsule of Glisson. True perihepatitis may be present, and serve later to cause lobulation of the organ. (See Perihepatitis, p. 660.) Amyloid degeneration of the liver may be seen to follow syphilitic lesions of the bones and syphilitic ulceration. (See Amyloid Liver, p. 657.)

Symptomatology.—The clinical picture may be that of hepatic cirrhosis, with ascites, gastro-intestinal disturbances, and slight jaundice. In certain cases the liver may be appreciably enlarged, and there may be

enlargement of the spleen even in those cases in which sclerotic changes are present in the liver.

Distinct gummatous tumors may be responsible for enlargement of any portion of the liver, although the left lobe is more commonly involved. The symptoms may arise both as the result of contractions from the formation of cicatricial tissue and from pressure by gummata upon the portal circulation. Spleno-hepatic syphilis may therefore assume three (3) clinical types.

(1) Anemic, where progressive secondary anemia with its associated symptoms forms the clinical picture.

(2) The icteroid type, where mild jaundice is at first observed, and continues to increase over a long period and until effective treatment is instituted.

(3) The ascitic type, characterized by the persistent accumulation of fluid in the peritoneal sac. In some cases there is also an effusion into the pleura.

Syphilis of the liver may exist without involving the spleen and the reverse condition has also been reported. Our own experience is that syphilis of the abdominal viscera usually attacks the liver, second in frequency the spleen, then the kidney and rectum.

Summary of Diagnosis.—Unless there be a clear history of syphilitic infection, the diagnosis is made with difficulty. In those cases in which ascites is present, the actual size of the liver can be ascertained only by removing the ascitic fluid. Well-marked indentations along the edge of the liver are highly suggestive of syphilis of the organ. In obscure cases the administration of antisyphilitic remedies may be necessary in order to formulate a diagnosis. The Wassermann and luetin reactions have in our experience been of great value as rapid means of diagnosis. (See p. 371.)

Kolmer's quantitative method has now been accepted, as of the greatest value.

Pulmonary Syphilis (Syphilis of Lung)

Principal Complaint.—The majority of reported cases have been studied after middle life, when the onset is gradual. The earliest symptoms are a sense of pressure in the chest, slight limitation in breathing and cough which becomes paroxysmal after exercise. In Locke's case a diagnosis of whooping cough was ventured. Cough is more pronounced, often paroxysmal in the early morning and after retiring. Vomiting occasionally accompanies severe cough. The sputum is mucoid and scanty. Hand in hand with an increase in the above mentioned symptoms the patient experiences slight fever (99 to 102) during the afternoon and evening hours.

Physical Signs.—Inspection.—The respiratory movement may be limited.

Percussion.—Definite areas of dullness may be outlined and are usually found from the second to the fifth rib anteriorly, and along the angle of the scapula posteriorly. There are reported instances where areas of dullness have been detected in the axillæ.

Palpation.—Vocal tactile fermitus is increased over the areas of consolidation, and this sign is more readily obtained when the lesions are close the surface and located between the scapula. Both the deep and superficial reflexes are not affected through syphilis of the lung, although they may be decidedly altered.

Auscultation ordinarily reveals both fine and coarse crackling râles over the diseased areas and the voice sounds (both whispered and spoken)

are increased at these points. There may be large and coarse râles heard over the greater portion of both lungs, and these interfere materially with the localization of the lesion.

Laboratory Diagnosis.—The blood gives a positive Wassermann reaction, and the other serum tests for syphilis are positive. (See Serum Diagnosis.)

X-ray Diagnosis.—Fluoroscopic study usually discloses the fact that the diapragm is higher than normal on one side. There is a rather dense fibrosis especially prominent at the areas of consolidation. These fibrous changes appear to radiate from the hilus toward the central portion of the lung. Other sections of the lung may show slight mottling, and mediastinal pathology is by no means uncommon. In those cases where *x*-ray study is made, from time to time, after the institution of treatment there is an absence of the progressive stage so common in malignancy and in tuberculosis of the lungs.

Differential Diagnosis.—(1) There is prompt relief from the annoying symptoms following the use of antisyphilitic medication.

(2) *X*-ray findings disclose improvement, while in malignancy the condition grows progressively worse.

(3) Positive sera reactions are present in syphilis.

(4) The sputum is negative for tubercle bacilli in syphilis.

(5) In syphilis the red cells and hemoglobin return to normal after treatment, while anemia increases in malignancy.

(6) The *x*-ray findings serve to separate pulmonary syphilis from thoracic aneurism, and tuberculosis.

Syphilis of the Rectum

When syphilis appears in the form of more or less diffuse, submucous gummata located within the external sphincter, the most characteristic symptoms are those pointing to progressive stricture of the rectum. The patient may complain of a more or less constant dysentery, which is chronic in nature and not accompanied by pain or tenesmus. An examination of the rectum is necessary, and usually reveals the presence of a firm fibrous ring. Ulceration of the mucous surface may also be present.

Syphilis of the Testicles

There are two clinical forms of syphilis of the testicle: (1) Atrophy of the gland, which may be either irregular or uniform in outline, is not accompanied by pain, and commonly involves one organ more than the other; (2) gummata of the testicle.

Differential Diagnosis.—Syphilis produces an irregularity in the body of the testicle, which serves to distinguish it from *tuberculosis* of this organ, which attacks the epididymis. *Malignant disease* of the testicle develops more rapidly than does syphilitic tumor, and is, as a rule, painful, a feature which is uncommon in syphilis.

Syphilis of the Kidney

Syphilis of the kidney is sometimes found at autopsy, but concerns us but little with reference to antemortem diagnosis. The changes are chronic in nature, the most common being amyloid degeneration.

Syphilis of the Heart

Gummata may develop in the wall of the left ventricle. Fibroid sclerotic myocarditis is also seen, this process beginning in the perivascular tissue, and proceeding outward from the vessel-walls. These changes are

more or less diffuse, and in time cause narrowing of the lumen of the coronary arteries and their branches, although in some cases aneurismal expansion of the arteries has been observed. G. Bickel* has detailed the syndrome of Stokes-Adams in its relation to luetic infection. Syphilitic endocarditis is also of the fibroid sclerotic type. The diagnostic clinical features of syphilis of the heart are the same as those described under Chronic Myocardial and Endocardial Changes (see p. 332).

Syphilis of the Arteries

Clinical Forms.—Two varieties are recognized: (1) **Obliterating endarteritis,** in which there is a proliferation of the subendothelial tissue, which in time encroaches upon the lumen of the artery. (2) **Gummatous periarteritis** is the name given to a condition in which the arteries at the base of the brain are most often attacked. During the course of syphilis a variable degree of arterio-sclerosis is likely to develop, and following such atheromatous changes aneurism (p. 264) is common. Fossier† has shown that the size of the aorta becomes abnormal early in syphilis.

LEPROSY

Pathologic Definition.—A chronic disease, due to infection by the lepra bacillus, and characterized by the presence of clusters of bacilli in the skin, these being surrounded by a tuberculous nodule. There may also be areas of cutaneous pigmentation, with the deposition of bacilli in the epithelial cells and leukocytes. Each granulomatous mass is surrounded by a layer of connective tissue; certain of the lymph-nodes become enlarged, and bacilli are deposited within them. These bacilli are also present in the liver, spleen, and blood drawn from the lesions, and rarely in the circulating blood. Secondary infection with pus-producing organisms may hasten destructive changes in the lesions. When the lepra bacilli are deposited around the nerve-sheaths, irritation and hyperplasia are set up, leading to atrophy and degenerative changes in such nerves.

Varieties.—(*a*) **Tubercular leprosy** is characterized by cutaneous manifestations, such as erythema, macules, tuberculous nodules, and cutaneous pigmentation. (*b*) The **anesthetic form** is marked by local symptoms, such as pain, hyperesthesia, and anesthesia.

Exciting and Predisposing Factors.—Bacteriology.—The bacillus lepræ resembles in certain respects the bacillus of tuberculosis. Upon sectioning the lesions, the bacilli are found within the tissue.

Age figures prominently as a predisposing factor, the majority of cases being seen between the twentieth and fortieth years; the disease is extremely uncommon among children.

The influence of **heredity,** although questionable, is a conspicuous factor in approximately 25 per cent. of cases; there are many investigators, however, who believe that the disease is not inherited.

Immediate **surroundings and environment** are prominent influences in certain localities in which the disease prevails, lepers being seen, as a rule, more commonly in the rural districts than in the large cities.

Latitude is usually recognized as a predisposing factor, although the disease may be found in different, more or less isolated localities, extending from the equator to Norway and Iceland. From recent observations

*Arch. de Mal du Coeur, Paris, 17: 744, Dec., 1924.
†Size of the normal aorta. Annals of Clin. Med., Vol. 3, Feb., 1925, No. 8, p. 525.

we learn that leprosy is extremely common among the natives of Peru and Ecuador. The natives of the Hawaiian and other of the Pacific Islands are also frequently victims of the disease. There are isolated regions in the United States, of which New Orleans is the center, in which cases of leprosy occur.

Modes of Infection.—Different investigators hold widely divergent views as to the modes of infection, although practically all agree that the disease is probably transmitted by contact. Morrow suggests that leprosy, like syphilis, is generally transmitted by sexual intercourse,



FIG. 323.—TUBERCULAR LEPROSY.

Patient, aged fifteen. Disease of three years' duration. Began as pinhead-sized nodules on face (Sandwich Island case).

whereas other observers hold that the disease is propagated by insects. As a matter of fact, the exact mode of infection is unknown. Sticker believes the primary site of infection to be the nasal mucous membrane.

Incubation Period.—This, according to Hansen, is from three to five years. Some writers believe this stage to occupy a much shorter period, but there is evidence to show that, in certain cases at least, incubation may occupy several years. Such *prodromes* as chilliness, recurrent attacks of fever, excessive sweating, mental dullness, drowsiness, and debility may be experienced for years before the characteristic symptoms become manifest.

Clinical Picture.—Tubercular Leprosy.—In the *first stage* there are areas of cutaneous erythema, with a slight hyperesthetic elevation of the affected skin, seen on the face or upon the extensor surfaces of the arms, hands, legs, back, buttocks, abdomen, and chest. These may vanish after a time, leaving the skin pigmented and anesthetic; later the pigmented areas may disappear, leaving in their stead white spots of corresponding size (lepra alba). Such areas lose the hair that is normally present—a characteristic failure.

Tubercular nodules that tend to fuse and form irregular masses, dusky red or almost brown in color, develop in addition to the anesthetic patches. These tubercles may soften and become absorbed, or they may ulcerate. The skin is greatly thickened, presents a scaly surface, and there is loss of

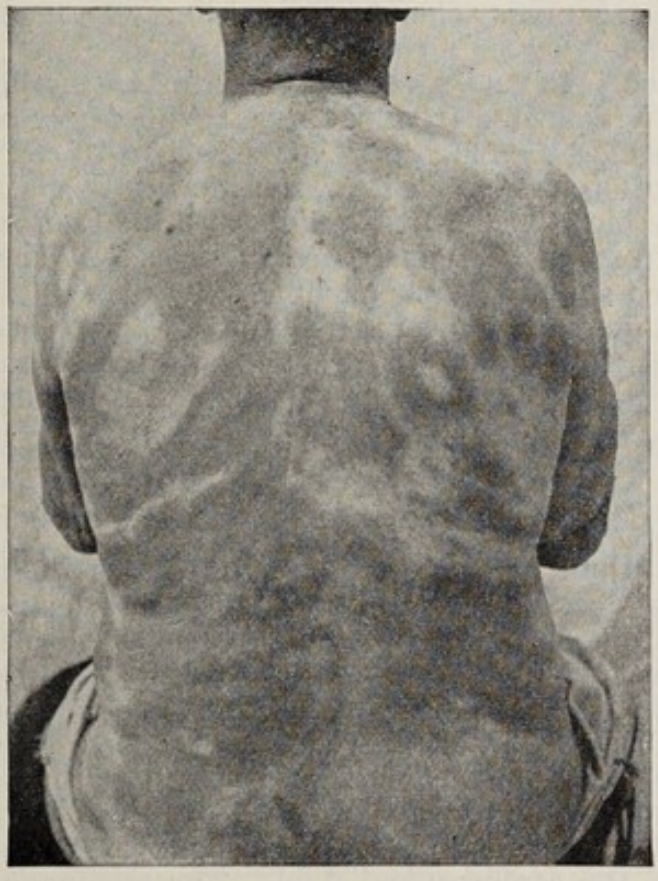


FIG. 324.—MACULAR LESIONS IN LEPROSY.

substance in certain parts, whereas other portions are markedly enlarged (eyebrows, nostrils, lips). Ozena, hoarseness, and aphonia are present as the result of involvement of the respiratory mucosa, and there may be extensive ulceration of the larynx, pharynx, and nose.

Anesthetic Form.—Here the *local symptoms* are referable to implication of the nerves, and as a consequence *pain* and areas of *hyperesthesia* constitute the prominent early symptoms. As the disease progresses minute bullæ may be seen, and evidences of trophic changes, with wasting of muscles that are supplied by the involved nerve-trunks, appear. Distinct nodules along the course of the nerves may also be present. *Anesthesia* is a characteristic feature of this type of the disease, and areas of vasomotor congestion usually precede the anesthetic stage. Yellowish-white patches, which are dry and scaly and may at any time become anesthetic, are distributed over the body. Extensive ulceration of the

skin is most likely to occur upon the extremities, and, depending upon the degree of ulceration, wasting and necrosis, with extensive deformity, will result. An example of such deformity is the so-called "claw hand."

Laboratory Diagnosis.—Blood withdrawn through an incision into a tubercle may contain lepra bacilli. We have found bacilli free in the circulating blood in one case, but other instances of such finding are recorded. Lepra bacilli may be present in the exudate collected from ulcerated surfaces, and where the nasal mucous membrane is involved, they are commonly present in the nasal secretion. The sputum of cases suffering from ulceration of the pharynx and larynx will also be found to contain the bacilli.

Blood Chemistry.—The cholesterin content of the blood is normal at the development of the first symptoms, but falls to subnormal as the disease progresses. This change resembling that seen during the course of syphilis.

Rivas Method.—Rivas acetic acid concentration method.*

The blood is collected from the nodule, the finger or from the vein, and 0.1 to 1.0 c.c. of the blood is mixed with 1 to 10 c.c. of a 2 per cent. acetic acid solution, respectively. The mixture is shaken to complete hemolysis of the blood and centrifuged for 5 to 10 minutes. The liquid is decanted and from the sediment smears are made. The smear is dried fixed and stained as for tubercle bacillus.

This procedure enables the examination of a larger quantity of blood. In our investigation we found it of great advantage for a rapid detection of B. lepræ in the blood collected from the finger or from the vein and from the skin lesions.

CEREBROSPINAL MENINGITIS

(Spotted Fever; Cerebrospinal Fever)

Pathologic Definition.—An acute infectious disease, caused by the micrococcus (diplococcus) intracellularis, and characterized by an acute inflammation of the cerebrospinal meninges, with the formation of pus and of an excessive quantity of seropurulent cerebrospinal fluid.

The meninges of both the brain and the spinal cord are covered with a somewhat thick, cream-like or yellowish exudate, which is composed principally of pus-cells. The meningeal arteries are engorged with blood.

Predisposing and Exciting Factors.—Bacteriology.—The exciting cause is the diplococcus intracellularis, which may be found in microscopic examinations of the cerebrospinal fluid. The meningococcus may also be recovered from the synovial fluid of the larger joints, from the nose, and we have obtained a pure culture from a myocardial abscess. Meningeal infection may be due to pneumococci, streptococcus, and in one instance, one of us (Boston) recovered a pure culture of Friedländer's bacillus, and in another case the colon bacillus, and pneumoccus were present. A mixed infection renders the prognosis unfavorable. Septic meningitis frequently follows such focal infections as otitis media, acute mastoiditis, ethmoiditis, empyema, sinus disease and acute lobar pneumonia.†

Age.—Most cases occur during childhood and early adult life, although the disease may be seen at practically any age.

Climate is an important predisposing factor, epidemic meningitis being unknown in the tropics, whereas both epidemic outbreaks and sporadic cases have developed in practically all parts of the temperate zone.

* American Journal of Tropical Diseases, Nov., 1914.

† Wyllie, Brit. Jour. of Children's Diseases, April–June, 1924.

Season.—The disease is said to prevail more commonly during cold weather, but a statistical study of its epidemiology shows that epidemics are likely to develop at any season. Boston* showed, in an analysis of the post-mortem findings in 80 cases of sporadic meningitis that came to necropsy at the Philadelphia General Hospital from April 4, 1894, to October 26, 1898, that 13 of these were due to infection with the diplococcus intracellularis. The accompanying table shows the influence of season, sex, age, race, and nativity as predisposing factors in sporadic purulent meningitis:

Month	Sex	Age	Color	Nationality
April	Male	6 months	White	American
June	Male	1 week	White	American
October	Male	13 montl	White	American
October	Male	26 years	White	American
April	Male	64 years	White	Irish
June	Male	26 years	White	German
March	Male	31 years	Black	American
May	Female	7 months	White	American
August	Male	37 years	Black	American
October	Male	52 years	White	German
January	Male	26 years	Black	American
July	Male	26 years	White	American
September	Female	13 years	White	American

Environment appears to exercise a prominent influence, since epidemics are common in homes, schools, barracks, etc., where the inmates are overcrowded in ill-ventilated apartments. Extensive epidemics may be seen in country districts, but are somewhat more common in towns and cities, and, indeed, they are often limited to a small section of a town. The mode by which the specific infection is conveyed from one patient to another is not definitely understood, and although several theories have been advanced, none of these have proved their claims conclusively.

Clinical Varieties.—(*a*) **The Malignant or Apoplectic Form.**—The symptoms characterizing this fulminating type of meningitis are not constant. There may be a severe chill, followed almost immediately by headache, loss of consciousness, and death—the entire clinical course occupying a period of but a few hours. As a rule, however, the disease is not so rapid in its course, but continues for two or more days following the initial symptom, which is an intense rigor. Headache, vertigo, obstinate vomiting, extreme prostration, rigidity of the muscles of the neck, stupor, and coma develop in rapid succession. The fever may not be high, and the pulse-beats may not exceed 40 to 60 beats a minute; as the disease progresses all the symptoms become intensified, and coma ends the scene. The fulminating type of meningitis is a characteristic of certain epidemics, whereas in others such cases are not observed.

(*b*) **The Mild Form.**—The disease may be so mild that the patient may be able to walk about or even to follow his usual occupation, complaint being made merely of headache, languor, nausea, occasional vomiting, and pain in the muscles at the back of the neck. In this type of meningitis, fever is not an essential symptom, but a mild febrile movement is the rule.

(*c*) **Intermittent Form.**—In this variety of the disease the symptoms intermit or remit every two or more days, the fever being decidedly intermittent, and resembling somewhat that of chronic sepsis.

* "Etiology of Sporadic Purulent Meningitis," Med. News, May 20, 1899.

(*d*) **Abortive Form.**—Here the initial attack is quite as intense as in the ordinary type of the disease described further on, but a decided amelioration occurs in the course of two or three days, and the patient goes on to convalescence without interruption.

Gonococcal Meningitis.—Blind and Ricard* describe an infection where meningeal symptoms and signs develop following acute specific urethritis, and reviewed the literature concerning cases of gonorrhea that have been complicated by meningitis, and find the condition is usually limited to the spine. There are present chill, headache, muscular soreness, rigidity of the neck, Kernig's sign, exaggerated reflexes, nausea, vomiting, fever, and a positive Babinski sign. Lumbar puncture recovered a clear spinal fluid under moderate pressure, which contains rather large numbers of lymphocytes.

(*e*) **Ordinary Type.**—During the course of an epidemic there appears to be no accurate means of ascertaining the incubation period. Certain *prodromal symptoms*, however, will be found to be present, and to vary widely in different epidemics, although even in severe types of the disease these may be wanting. A patient previously in vigorous health may be suddenly stricken down as though he had received a blow upon the head. In those cases that tend to be rapidly fatal there are lassitude, headache, muscular pains, joint pains, nausea, and obstinate vomiting. The prodromal symptoms are at times present for but a few hours, whereas in other, milder cases they may persist for from three to six or more days, during which time *occipital pain* serves as the most conspicuous feature. Irrespective of the character of the prodromal symptoms, the disease may follow these without an initial chill; mild cases are likely to complain only of languor, debility, headache, pain in the loins, vomiting, and possibly diarrhea prior to the development of typical symptoms.

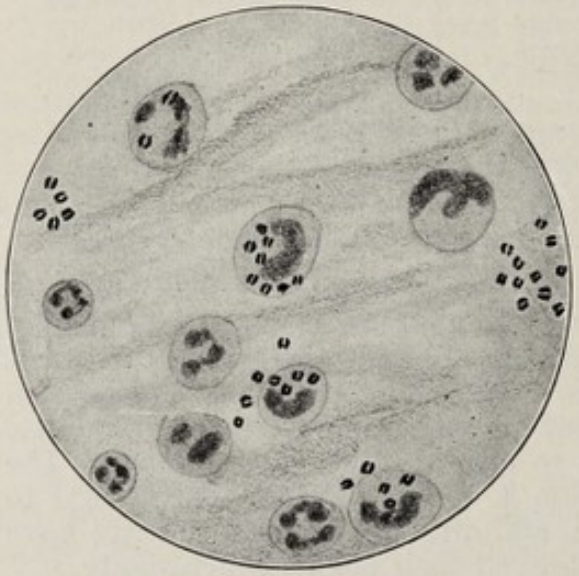


FIG. 325.—DIPLOCOCCUS INTRACELLULARIS (Boston).

Meningeal pus obtained by lumbar puncture from case of epidemic cerebrospinal fever observed at Philadelphia General Hospital (obj. Spencer one-twelfth oil-immersion).

In those cases in which the disease begins abruptly there is likely to be a *severe chill*. In children *convulsions* are common, and are usually followed by *intense pain* in the back and cervical regions. Movements of the head increase the pain in the neck, and bending the back intensifies the spinal pain. Early during the disease the patient may refuse to swallow because of the extreme pain excited by deglutition.

There may be cough and difficulty in breathing, although in uncomplicated cases the respirations may be free and not greatly increased. Owing to exhaustion of the respiratory center the respirations become frequent and irregular and there may be marked dyspnea. In unfavorable cases Cheyne-Stokes breathing may develop. Myalgic

* Paris medical, April 21, 1917.

pains are often intense, involving both the extremities and the abdominal region.

Gastro-intestinal Phenomena.—As previously stated, vomiting is the most common among this particular group of symptoms, and is present in 75 per cent. of cases, and, from its character, appears to be of cerebral origin. The appetite may be normal until the initial chill appears, or it may be impaired during prodromal symptoms. After the disease has become well established, anorexia obtains. *Constipation* usually exists throughout the entire course of the disease, although diarrhea may occasionally be present.

Eye and Ear Phenomena.—The patient complains continually of intolerance to light (*photophobia*), and intolerance to sound is also present during the early stage of the disease; later, however, a variable degree of deafness is prone to occur, which may continue even after convalescence is well established. Tinnitus aurium may be an early and annoying symptom, and abscess of the middle ear is often an alarming complication.

Nervous Symptoms.—In addition to the nervous symptoms already detailed there are often active delirium and hallucinations, during which the patient may shout loudly, and restraint may be necessary to keep him in bed. Paroxysmal outbreaks of delirium are by no means uncommon, and occur most often during the night; in young females the nervous symptoms are hysteric in character. The maudlin delirium of alcoholics is occasionally seen, but sooner or later the patient becomes somnolent, and eventually passes into a state of coma, which may continue from the time the disease develops, although it is occasionally a temporary condition. In those cases displaying a high grade of hypersensitiveness of the cutaneous surface, priapism may be an annoying symptom. Catalepsy is rarely present. Holmes* believes that his sign—analgesia or partial or complete anesthesia of the conjunctivæ and cornea—is present in a large proportion of all cases.

Arthritis.—Stanton,† in reporting a large number of cases found 20 per cent. of them to display arthritis; pre-meningitis prior to meningitis (type A), juxta-meningitis during acute symptoms, and post-meningitic arthritis are recognized clinical types. In all of these the synovial fluid will be found to contain meningococci.

Parkhurst,‡ gives a similar clinical classification of meningococcic arthritis, recognizing types A, B, & C, all of which are examples of meningococcic sepsis.

Thermic Features.—The fever of epidemic meningitis is not characteristic, and may be found to vary between 100° and 105° F.; in the average case it will be found to fluctuate between 100° and 103° F. The fever continues to run an irregular course until defervescence, which takes place gradually by lysis, occurs. We have seen cases in which the temperature rose to 106° and even to 108° F. during the last few hours of life. Under ordinary conditions the fever is lower in children than in adults, although we have seen cases of epidemic meningitis in persons after the age of fifty in whom the temperature did not exceed 102° F., and in whom the range was from 99° to 101° F.

Physical Signs.—Inspection.—Immediately following the onset of active symptoms the cheeks are flushed, although pallor and lividity are equally common; pallor of the lips is regarded as a fairly constant sign in this disease. In children conjunctivitis may be present. Keratosis,

* Jour. Am. Med. Assoc., January 25, 1908.
† Lancet, June 21, 1919.
‡ Amer. Jour. Med. Sci. Oct., 1919.

corneal ulcer, strabismus, ptosis, inequality of the pupils (see p. 1172), iridochoroiditis, and temporary, as well as permanent, blindness are among the ocular manifestations of epidemic meningitis. Coma-vigil is not uncommon, and the patient may lie for hours, and even for days, without moving the eyelids. As the disease progresses there may develop, at any time during its course, an eruption which is not characteristic, and which may be a rather generalized subcuticular mottling (10 per cent. of cases) which disappears within a few hours. The eruption may be erythematous, macular, maculopapular, or petechial. In the case of blondes the eruption is cherry red. In brunettes a brownish-red or rawham color. In negroes it is slightly darker than the surrounding skin. A bullous eruption is rarely seen. A fact ever to be borne in mind is that in some cases the eruption is absent. Herpes facialis is also quite common and was present in 58 per cent. of cases in a 1911 to 1912 epidemic, and it should be remembered that this condition is frequent in but two other infections—lobar pneumonia and malaria. Among the unusual cutaneous manifestations seen in meningitis are sudamina, ecthyma, purpura, petechia, erysipelatous reddening, urticaria, and gangrene, although none of these is of diagnostic importance. Bed-sores may develop, and the abdomen is usually scaphoid.

The *tongue* is slightly coated at first, but as the disease progresses, this coating becomes heavier and heavier, and in those cases that go on to the so-called "typhoid state" the tongue becomes dry, brown, and fissured, the teeth and lips being covered with sordes.

In the course of one or more days *localized paralyses* may develop; these are the result of motor irritation, and consist of strabismus or paralyses of the face or of the extremities. Muscular contractions, particularly of the lower extremities, may develop. Twitching of a group of muscles is by no means uncommon. Later during the course of the disease tonic spasm of certain groups of muscles holds the patient in a fixed position; thus we have frequently seen the forearm flexed upon the arm, and the arm fixed firmly against the side of the chest. In another frequent form of contracture the thumb is coiled tightly within the palm of the hand. The illustration (Fig. 326, on p. 901) is taken from the photograph of a patient seen in our service at the Philadelphia Hospital. The position of the lower extremities and of the left hand and arm was permanent and the result of spasm. Spasmodic contraction of the muscles at the back of the neck causes the occiput to be drawn backward, and the child is unable to bring the chin forward upon the chest. The patient usually assumes the dorsal posture, and complains when he is turned from side to side. Contraction of the muscles of the back, limbs, and neck may be sufficiently well marked to produce *opisthotonos*, a condition in which the patient rests only upon his occiput and his heels, the entire body being arched.

Palpation.—Tenderness is usually present over the muscles of the back of the neck and along the course of the spine. Areas of hyperesthesia are common, and hypersensitiveness of the skin may be general. Localized areas of anesthesia also constitute one of the valuable signs of meningeal involvement. The joints, especially the larger of these, may be swollen and tender. The tache cerebrale red spot is seen along the course of pressure made by drawing the nail across the skin, (Trousseau's sign).

The *pulse* is at first moderately accelerated, but in those cases that progress from bad to worse the pulse finally becomes weak, rapid, thready, and irregular.

According to Head, *Kernig's sign* is present in 84 per cent. of all cases of spinal meningitis, but it may be confined absolutely to epidemic types of the disease. It may be absent during the early stages of the disease. Kernig first pointed out the impossibility of obtaining complete extension of the leg on the thigh when the patient is sitting and the thigh is flexed at a right angle to the trunk. The sign is produced as the result of irritation of the meninges of the lower portion of the spinal cord and of the nerve-roots that constitute the cauda equina, although it is no indication of a distinct lesion of these structures. If the patient is lying in bed, the thigh may be flexed upon the abdomen (Fig. 326), when, if meningitis is present, complete extension of the leg will be prevented by contraction of the flexor muscles (Fig. 326). Should Kernig's sign be doubtful, force

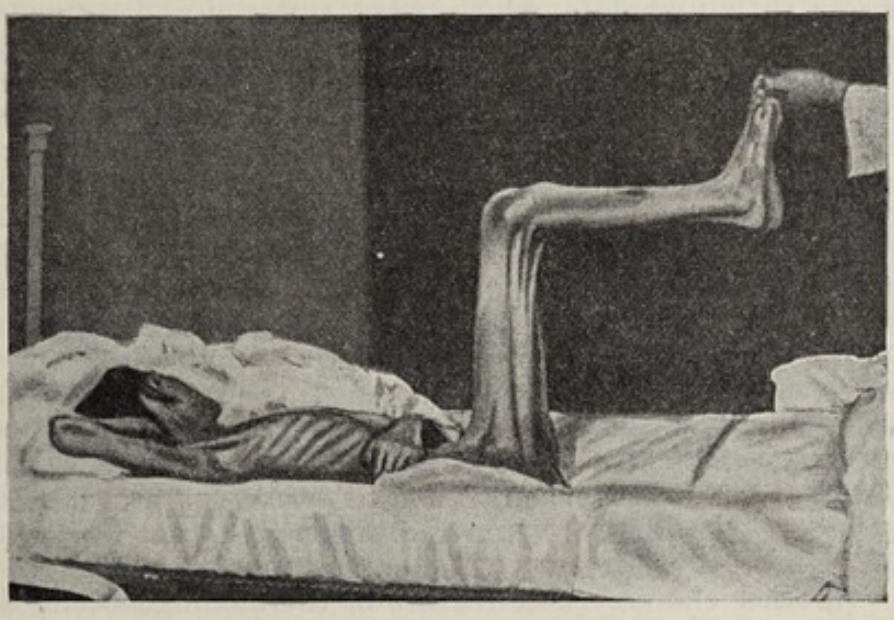


FIG. 326.—KERNIG'S SIGN, SHOWING THE STRONG CONTRACTION OF THE FLEXORS ON ATTEMPTING TO EXTEND THE LEG (Ruhräh, from Osler).

the chin forward on the chest and then try for Kernig's sign. Whenever Kernig's sign is typical, its production excites spasm and pain. Myoidema is seen in most cases.

Gowers' sign is a contraction of the gastrocnemius muscle and is produced by tapping the muscles of the leg.

Brudzinski's Sign.—By flexing the head on the chest there is some bending at the joints of the lower extremities (knees and hips). Flexion of one leg on the abdomen is accompanied by a lesser degree of flexion of the opposite leg (contralateral reflex).

MacEwen's sign is designed to indicate increased pressure of the fluid present in the ventricles by giving an increased resonance. Place the bell of the stethoscope against the forehead, and at the same time tap with the finger over squamous portion of the opposite temporal bone.

Laboratory Diagnosis.—Blood.—The percentage of hemoglobin and the number of red blood-cells are but slightly altered during the active stage of the disease, except when well-marked cyanosis is present, in which case both the hemoglobin and the red cells give unusually high readings. Leukocytosis 15,000 to 35,000 is present early, and continues throughout the febrile period. A differential leukocyte count shows an increase in the polymorphonuclear elements. Meningococcic septicæmia and bacteremia may be found early.* The intraspinal pressure is increased 300 to 700 mm. of water. The cells in the fluid vary from 50

* Goldstein, N. Y. Med. Jour., May 3, 1919, p. 760.

to 3000 per cmm. Polymorphonuclear cells predominate. Total proteins are increased. Colloidal gold reaction gives a meningitis curve. The chlorides are decreased according to H. Nawicka's observation.* In cases where increased urea is present in the cerebrospinal fluid, kidney inadequacy exists.

The quantity of *urine* voided during the twenty-four hours is approximately normal, although it may fluctuate as the result of cerebral irritation. A trace of albumin may be present, and, rarely, the urine contains a trace of glucose. It is frequently necessary to obtain the urine by catheterization, as both retention and incontinence are symptoms of meningitis.

Spinal Puncture.—*Aspiration* of the subarachnoid space results in the recovery of a turbid exudate, which, when smeared and stained, will be found to contain many diplococci. Spinal fluid under normal pressure gives one drop from the aspirating needle every 3 to 4 seconds. In mixed and in streptococcus infection, the fluid is of a straw-yellow tinge. In meningococcus infection it is grayish white, opalescent or yellow.

Should the portion of meninges involved not communicate with the subarachnoid space aspirated fluid obtained would give negative results. The amount of pus in the fluid has no prognostic bearing. Scanty meningococci in the early stage points to a favorable prognosis; while numerous cocci indicate a serious form of the disease. Diminution in polymorphonuclear cells with the occurrence of mononuclear cells and degenerated cells, points towards recovery. The amount of albumin diminishes as favorable cases progress. Sugar often disappears from the fluid early, but is liable to reappear from the fourth to the seventh day of the disease, and the absence of sugar at this period is a precursor of grave complications. The diplococcus intracellularis is found within the pus-cells, although it is customary to find many extracellular cocci also present. Another characteristic feature of the meningococcus is that it does not stain by Gram's method. Cultures on Löffler's blood-serum made from the cerebrospinal fluid will, when kept at body-temperature, develop colonies of the meningococcus in from twenty-four to forty-eight hours. The bacillus proteus, the bacillus of influenza, bacillus typhosus, and bacillus coli are at times present. The pneumococcus and pyogenic cocci may be found. There are to be seen cases where the diagnosis is made possible only through a bacteriologic and chemic analysis of the cellular elements present in the fluid is also of service. The polynuclear cells predominate.

The Landon Spinal Manometer and spinal needle meets all requirements in simplicity, and exactness. It consists of a U mercury manometer of standardized calibre, capable of registering 70 mm. of pressure on a sliding scale. The needle is of platinum 19 B. and S. gauge, and is connected with the manometer by a thick rubber tube, and a three way stop cock. This stop cock permits of the repeated and controlled withdrawal of fluid in any desired amounts during the observations, and of the prevention of the escape of fluid where pressure only is desired. Over-activity of the pituitary results in hypertension of the spinal fluid, as has also been observed in syphilitic myelitis, endocarditis, tabes, paresis, cerebrospinal syphilis with convulsions, confusional insanity, cerebral-arteriosclerosis, tuberculous meningitis, and alcoholism when complicated by nephritis. Spinal block (see Cisterna puncture) due to pus or to adhesions may give negative results in the meningitides.

The *nasal secretion* is increased, and both cultural studies and stained specimens will show the presence of diplococcus intracellularis. Slata-

*Arch. de Med. d. Enf., Paris 27: 726, Dec., 1924.

per's analysis of 210 cases gave coryza as an early feature in 97 per cent. of his series. In a case studied by us at the Philadelphia General Hospital, in which there was an associated purulent ophthalmia, the diplococcus intracellularis was recovered from the conjunctivæ.

Summary of Diagnosis.—In typical cases the diagnosis is made with extreme ease, as has been outlined by the clinical picture in our description of the ordinary type of the disease. We would call special attention to headache, rigidity of the muscles of the neck, and to hysteric and maniacal outbreaks, as features that are common in even atypical forms of the disease. The eruption, unless it should be petechial in character, carries with it but little diagnostic significance. Kernig's sign, when present, is positive evidence of meningeal irritation only. Lumbar puncture and examination of the spinal fluid serves as the only positive means of diagnosis, and in certain cases this method alone enables us to obtain an accurate knowledge of the character of the disease in question. Inequality of pupils, strabismus, ptosis, and rigidity of certain groups of muscles are valuable clinical factors in formulating a diagnosis.

Differential Diagnosis.—In the light of our present knowledge of laboratory methods meningitis is to be regarded as one of the few diseases in which this means of diagnosis is the only reliable one. A microscopic study of the cerebrospinal fluid obtained by lumbar puncture is a positive means of diagnosis and of differential diagnosis; consequently other tedious methods are unnecessary. In case of syphilis and tuberculosis the majority of cells in the spinal fluid are of the mononuclear variety (see p. 911). A positive Wassermann reaction with the spinal fluid is also supportive of syphilis. The Widal reaction is also valuable in distinguishing between typhoid fever and meningitis, being negative in the latter condition. Encephalitis (p. 908), and acute poliomyelitis (p. 903) are to be distinguished from meningitis.

The *Japanese Epidemic*, of 1924, resembled in many respects epidemic meningitis, while in others it simulated encephalitis lethargica. The onset is sudden with high fever, and two days later stupor and coma appear. Death occurs between the fifth and tenth days in 85 per cent. of the cases. The central nervous system is involved showing edema of the meninges, meningeal adhesions without an increase in the cerebrospinal fluid, hyperemia of the cortex is the rule, with petecheal hemorrhage into the fourth ventricle. Infiltration about the blood vessels and congestion of the cortex pons and medulla are present. Over six thousand cases developed in Japan during 1924.*

Complications.—Eye and ear complications are quite common, and always cause an aggravation of the existing symptoms. Bronchopneumonia, arthritis, panophthalmitis, epididymitis, and pericarditis are probably the most frequent complications.

ACUTE ANTERIOR POLIOMYELITIS

(Infantile Spinal Palsy)

Pathologic Definition.—An acute infectious malady characterized by two distinct phases—the first a phase of general toxic infection, which either ends in recovery, or is succeeded by the second phase characterized by nervous involvement. In the acute stages there is usually found an acute congestion of the blood-vessels, especially in the gray matter of the anterior horns, with round-cell infiltration and hemorrhages, some of which are quite large, destroying the cells of the anterior horns. Occasionally the hemorrhages or areas of inflammation involve the

* Amer. Jour. of Pub. Health, Vol. XV, Feb., 1925, No. 2, p. 146.

surrounding white matter, especially of the motor columns. Rarely a slight round-cell infiltration is found in the meninges. Early in the disease lumbar puncture may sometimes detect an increased amount of fluid. In most cases the acute congestion with hemorrhages disappears, but in those cases in which the cells in the anterior horns have been fully destroyed the paralysis is permanent—the so-called residual palsy.

Contributing and Exciting Factors.—The disease usually appears in a child previously healthy, and rarely in the course of or following infectious diseases. It occurs singly, although several members of the same family may become diseased. Flexner and Amoss, believe the specific cause is present in the naso-pharynx, and that the disease is transferred through the naso-pharyngeal secretions. The most danger of infection is early during the disease. Evidence of healthy carriers of the virus has been sited by different writers. Filter-passing organisms have been demonstrated.

Season.—The greatest number of cases are seen during the summer months, although the disease is not unusual throughout the year. Rosenau gives a preliminary report upon the transmission of poliomyelitis by the common stable fly (stomoxys calcitrans), and Anderson and Frost report having confirmed Rosenau's work. These investigators find that where stomoxys were permitted to bite monkeys that had been previously infected with poliomyelitis by intracerebral inoculation, these same flies were capable of transmitting the disease to uninfected monkeys.

Langhorst cites 2 interesting cases, 1 following the bite of a dog, and the other developed after a dog (suffering from paralysis of the hind legs) had been permitted to lap his master's hand upon which there were a few slight wounds. Haywood (1913) reports a case where fourteen days after receiving a bite from a rabid dog a boy of fourteen developed the disease.

Manning has emphasized the probability of the disease being at times transmitted through the bites of the bedbug (cimex lectularis), while other writers have reported instances where acute myelitis has developed following the bite of this parasite. The habits of the cimex, as is well known, are such as would explain the outbreak of epidemics in man during the winter months.

During an epidemic of 1000 cases in Minnesota in 1919 several members of the equine family were attacked. There are at least four recorded epidemics throughout the United States, where domestic animals and man were at the same time afflicted with acute epidemic paralysis. Among the animals and fowl thus afflicted were horses, hogs, sheep, dogs, cats, chickens, and ducks.

Manning cites the epidemic of 1911 in Brazil, where a heretofore unknown disease of this country caused the death of approximately 4000 cattle and 1000 horses. During the past summer there have been 13 cases of acute poliomyelitis in man reported from this district. Extensive epidemics have prevailed in Scotland and various sections of England, and there was in these localities at the same time an epidemic among the sheep, goats, and other domestic animals.

From the evidences furnished by the various reporters it is only fair to suppose that probably more than one biting insect is capable of transmitting epidemic myelitis from man to man as well as from man to domestic animals, and *vice versâ*. Thus far we are cognizant of proof of the transmission of the disease by the ordinary stable fly, yet there are recorded several instances where bites from the ordinary bedbug and the saliva of the dog appear to have been the source of the infection.

ACUTE PARALYTIC DISEASE AND DEATH AMONG DOMESTIC ANIMALS OCCURRING COINCIDENTALLY WITH EPIDEMIC POLIOMYELITIS IN MAN (Manning)

Reported by	Locality	Year	Horse	Sheep	Dog	Cat	Hog	Fowls	Total
Caverly	Vermont	1894	Horse		Dogs			Chickens	Many.
Wickman	Sweden	1905			Dogs				And other animals.
Free	Dubois, Pa.	1907					Pigs	Chickens	
Manning	Wisconsin	1907–08	Colts	Sheep		Cats		Ducks	Many.
Lovett	Massachusetts	1911			Dog	Cats		Hens	39 in all.
Hill	Minnesota	1909	Colts						Three.
Snow	California	1910	Colts		Dog	Cat		Chickens	Many.
Kelly	Washington	1910*							
Williams	Wash., D. C.	1910						Chickens	Many.
Bierring	Iowa	1910				Cat	Hog	Chickens	Many.
King	Indiana	1911†							
Batte	Ohio-Ky.	1911						Chickens	
Krause	Westphalia	1910						Chickens	Many.
Gregor & Hopper	Cornwall, England	1911‡							
Carina	Sao Paulo, Brazil	1910–11§							

* Dog paralyzed one week before onset in child.
† Eighteen animals (1 cow) paralyzed among 102 cases of poliomyelitis.
‡ Horse, one week before onset of paralysis in boy.
§ One thousand horses and 4000 cattle dead with "symptoms of rabies," coincidental with 13 cases of human poliomyelitis at Sao Paulo.

Proescher has detailed a method for the staining of the organisms in poliomyelitis virus, as well as in smears, from the diseased portions of the nervous system. This writer described spirilli, coccus and bacillus forms as being present in poliomyelitis.

Varieties and Symptoms.—The disease usually appears in the infantile period, generally between the ages of one and three, although it may occur later in life, especially in epidemics. Rarely it may be seen in adults.

It is ushered in by fever, with its accompanying symptoms of malaise and chilliness, or the child may feel sick for a day or so with at times an indefinite eruption, when the weakness or paralysis is discovered. At first it is quite extensive and may affect all of the limbs, but as a rule, it involves by preference one or both lower limbs. Within a few days to four or five weeks the extent of the paralysis gradually lessens, and there remains what is called a residual palsy. All the muscles of the limb are never paralyzed, but there seems to be a predilection for certain groups, as, for instance, in the leg, the anterior tibial, and peroneal. Because of this unequal paralysis contractures of various types result. The paralysis is always flaccid in type and it is possible to passively move the limbs freely. Rarely the cells of the anterior horn in the thoracic part of the cord are diseased, this causing weakness or paralysis in the abdominal, lumbar, and thoracic muscles. This sometimes produces inability to sit up or to stand properly. Following the loss of power atrophy develops, the degree depending upon the extent of the destruction of the cells in the anterior horn. The tendon reflexes, as well as the normal electric reactions, will be lost in those parts in which the reflex arcs have been destroyed or interfered with (Figs. 327 and 329).

Not only will there be an atrophy of the muscles, but there also will be an atrophy of the bones of the involved limb. Because of the fact that the cells in the anterior horn are trophic in function there will also be lessened nutrition of the skin, which sometimes becomes dry, and the hair may not grow.

It is not at all uncommon in the onset of the disease to have a rigidity of the head, neck, and limbs, with pain in the back and neck and consider-

able tenderness in the limbs. This is due to an early meningeal involvement, which usually does not last very long and subsides within two or three days or a week. In rare instances, however, the pains may persist for a month or longer. There are never disturbances of sensation or of the bladder and rectal functions. When the disease appears in adults, the onset and clinical symptoms do not differ from those already described. This, however, is rare.

Laboratory Findings.—W. Nuzum* cultivated a polymorphous coccus from the spinal fluid in 45 of 50 cases of poliomyelitis studied. The organism recovered was a gram-positive diplococcus or streptoccus, identical with that cultivated from the spinal cord, and brain in fatal cases. This organism was found to be infectious for monkeys, rabbits, and lambs; and was also recovered from the spinal fluid of these animals following intravenous, and intraperitoneal inoculation.

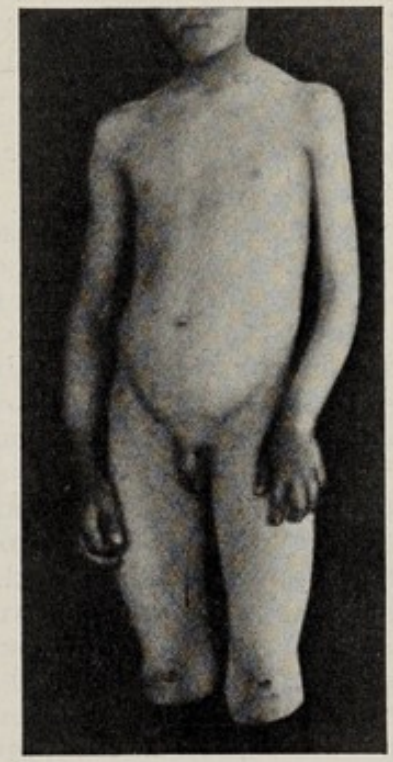


FIG. 327.—PARALYSIS OF THE LEFT UPPER AND TO A LESS EXTENT OF THE LEFT LOWER LIMB, SHOWING ATROPHY, IN ACUTE ANTERIOR POLIOMYELITIS.

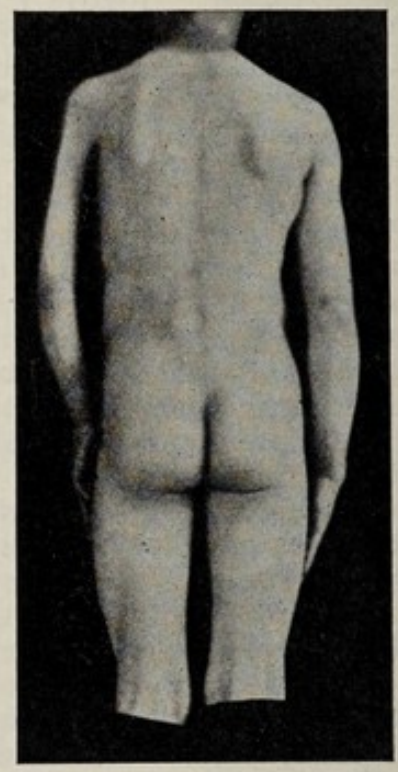


FIG. 328.—PARALYSIS OF THE LEFT UPPER AND TO A LESS EXTENT OF THE LEFT LOWER LIMB, SHOWING ATROPHY IN ACUTE ANTERIOR POLIOMYELITIS (POSTERIOR POSITION).

Petty in the examination of the spinal fluid of 50 cases of paralysis; examinations made during the various stages of the disease—did not find any bacterium present. The globulin reaction as shown by Noguchi's test was either a clear fluid or found to be opalescence.† The reduction of Fehling's solution varied within wide range. In 50 per cent. of the cases the fluid showed complete reduction in about 3 minutes; while in some of the cases reduction was not complete in less than 10 to 15 minutes.

Petty, states that he aspirated the spinal canal in 50 private cases of this disease during 1916. This writer was confronted with the fact that fatal, and severe forms of the disease, would as a rule, display a

*Journal Am. Med. Assoc., Nov. 11, 1916.
† N. Y. Med. Jour., Nov. 18, 1916.

low pressure:—*e. g.*, fewer drops per minute flowed from the spinal needle in the severe cases than did in the mild types of paralysis.

By the use of a Landon spinal manometer it was found that cases of marked paralysis, and those in coma or a semicomatose state gave a pressure of from 10 to 12 mm. Hg. Cases in the preparalytic stage gave an average pressure of 22 mm. Hg. The colloidal gold reaction is present in the spinal fluid from practically every case. The spinal fluid ordinarily returns to normal after the eighth week, and there is no definite relation between the cell count and the colloidal gold curves.

Summary of Diagnosis.—A previously healthy infant of from one to three years of age, with or without fever and its accompanying symptoms, sudden paralysis of one or both upper or lower limbs, flaccid in type. There is gradual diminution of the paralysis in the course of from one to seven weeks, followed by atrophy with contractures, loss of tendon reflexes, and electric reactions of degeneration. Bladder and rectal functions normal. The colloidal gold reaction is present in the spinal fluid from practically every case. The spinal fluid ordinarily returns to normal after the eighth week, and there is no definite relation between the cell count and the colloidal gold curves.

See Cell Count of Spinal Fluid p. 911.

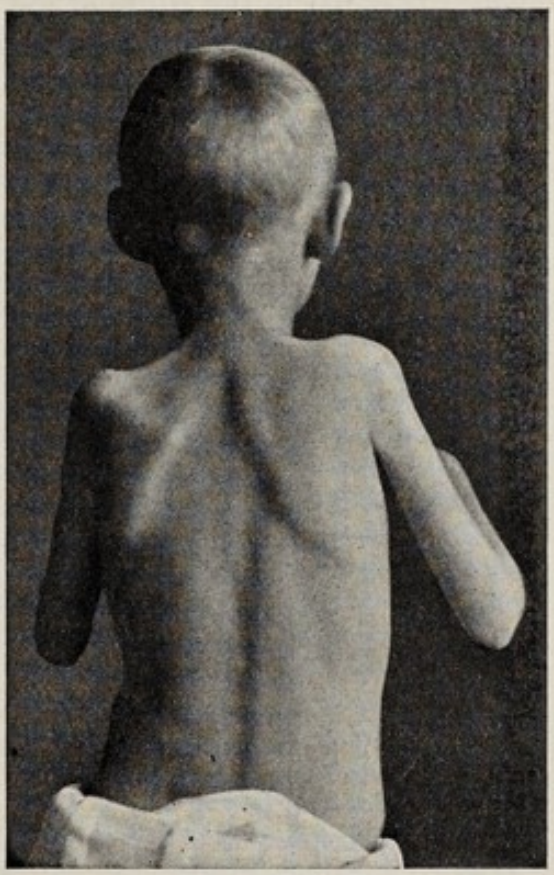


FIG. 329.—ACUTE ANTERIOR POLIOMYELITIS, SHOWING ATROPHY OF THE MUSCLES OF THE BACK, SHOULDERS, AND UPPER LIMBS.

Differential Diagnosis.—The disease must be distinguished from acute myelitis and multiple neuritis. In acute myelitis the onset and the early clinical picture may be the same, but in acute myelitis there are always sensory symptoms with involvement of the bladder and rectum and greater and more general paralysis. From multiple neuritis the disease can be distinguished by the absence of sensory disturbances and persistent pain on pressure over the nerve-trunks, and the paralysis in multiple neuritis is limited to the distribution of certain peripheral nerves. Again, multiple neuritis in children is very rare.

Acute anterior poliomyelitis is sometimes difficult to differentiate from the symptom-complex, known as Landry's paralysis. In the latter, however, the paralysis is rapid, death usually resulting in a few days.

Clinical Course and Complications.—The course of the disease is chronic, and, with exception of the improvement of the paralysis in the first few weeks, there is no recovery of function.

Sometimes the pathologic process involves not only the spinal cord, but also different parts of the brain, and we may have, in addition to the symptoms already described, those resulting from involvement of the medulla, pons, or cerebrum. These have been previously discussed.

Achondrophasia while uncommon, has been discussed at length by Comfort.*

Sometimes in adults in whom there is an old acute anterior poliomyelitis there may develop a chronic degeneration of those anterior horn-cells which were at one time involved by the pathologic process, but in which recovery ensued. This degeneration caused gradual wasting with fibrillary tremors, and loss of power.

ACUTE EPIDEMIC ENCEPHALITIS

(Encephalitis Lethargica)

Definition.—An acute infectious disease of questionable etiology that displays epidemic tendencies, and has a well defined stage of lethargy. Cruchet in the study of 154 cases at Bordeaux during 1916–17 and 1918 records a mortality of 18.6 per cent. Fifty-three of Cruchets

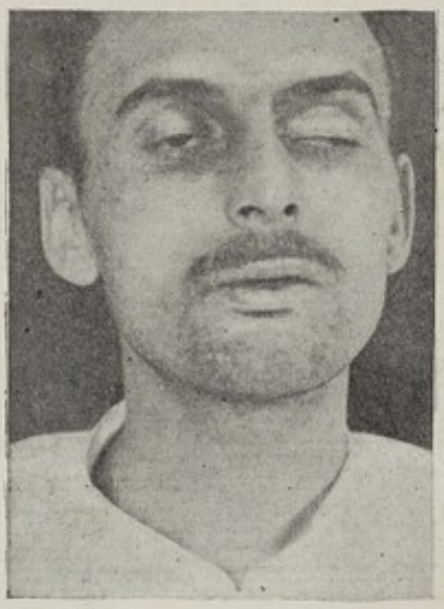


Fig. 330.—Fourth Week of Disease, Showing Bilateral Ptosis; Mask Expression and Left External Squint (Miner and Freeman in Amer. Jour. Med. Sci., Jan. 1925).



Fig. 331.—Same Taken Third Week of Disease; Shows Profound Lethargy; Mask; Ptosis; and Dropping of Lower Jaw (Miner and Freeman in Amer. Jour. Med. Sci., Jan. 1925).

cases were seen in 1916 of which 28.5 per cent. were fatal, and three years later only 14.2 per cent. of the cases had returned to normal. Mental depression over a long period is common and children who have had the disease may never return to a normal mental state.

Etiology.—A gram-negative coccus has been reported as occurring in the spinal fluid of cases of encephalitis. Some authors have recovered this same organism from the parotid gland. Spano has studied at length encephalitis, influenza and poliomyelitis, and endeavors to show an etiologic relation between these conditions. Minute bodies have been found by DaLano within the nerve cells, and other writers described similar findings in the tissue of the brain and in the salivary gland.

Pathology.—Pathologic changes may be found in various sections of the nervous system, but those most commonly seen are injection of the pia, and some hemorrhages of variable size. Microscopically there are to be detected some hemorrhage, engorgement of the blood-vessels, round cell infiltration, and the various evidences of cellular degeneration.

* Medical Clinics of N. A., Jan., 1925, p. 1287.

Clinical Features.—Where cases are seen early and observed during the entire clinical course, practically all cases fall under one general classic picture; although they may vary considerably at different stages. The disease usually begins with symptoms that are decidedly misleading, often resembling that of an acute cold, mild influenza, etc. Catarrh of the mucous membrane of the upper respiratory tract, malaise, general pains (mild or severe), headache, nausea, vomiting, constipation diplopia, ophthalmoplegia, and faucial angina are among the early complaints. This prodromal period will be found to fluctuate from a few days to more than a week. Miner and Freeman in their collection of cases found the shortest prodromal period to be 3 days, and in two cases the onset was sudden, with marked restlessness and delirium, which was soon followed by lethargy. Severe muscular pains involving mostly the neck, shoulders and extremities, tonsillitis, epistaxis and muscular twitching are occasionally observed during the prodromal stage.



FIG. 332.—SECOND WEEK OF DISEASE, SHOWING MARKED CATATONIA OF ARMS AND PARTIAL WRIST-DROP. (Miner and Freeman, in Amer. Jour. Med. Sci., Jan. 1921.)

Hand in hand with the progress of the disease the facial expression is lost, giving that characteristic appearance commonly referred to as the "mask-like face," the postencephalitic Parkinson syndrome,* (Hunt and Cornwall*) (Fig. 329). Paralysis of the cranial nerves, especially of the third, sixth, and seventh, appear early. Ophthalmoplegia may be either bilateral or unilateral, and diplopia is an early feature. Delirium is ordinarily mild; although it may be severe and usually antedates the lethargic state. Among the other symptoms are restlessness, hallucinations, tremors, muscular twitchings, catatonia, and vertigo, the myoclonic form, etc. H. Zweig.† Such meningeal symptoms as rigidity of the cervical muscles, and Kernig's sign may appear. Skin eruptions are seen, and there may be purpura of the legs. Choked disc is rarely seen.‡

Miner and Freeman in their analysis of 20 cases studied during 1920, give the following table which serves to set forth the frequency with which certain symptoms and signs are present.

*Jour. Am. Med. Assoc., 84: 29–32, Jan. 3, 1925.
†Monatschr. f. Kinderhlk., 29: 123, Nov., 1924.
‡Parmenter and Cheney, Bost. Med. & Surg. Jour., 190: 928, May 29, 1924.

ACUTE EPIDEMIC ENCEPHALITIS (TWENTY CASES). MOST PROMINENT SYMPTOMS. AGE NINE TO SEVENTY-EIGHT YEARS. SEX: MALES, TWELVE; FEMALES, EIGHT

Headache	100 per cent.
Lethargy	100 per cent.
Muscular fibrillation	100 per cent.
Asthenia	100 per cent.
Cranial nerve paralysis	100 per cent.
(3d nerve 90 per cent. = 7th N. 75 per cent. = 5th N.	45 per cent.
Ataxia	90 per cent.
Parkinson's mask	95 per cent.
Delirium	85 per cent.
Catatonia	80 per cent.
Insomnia	80 per cent.
Double vision	75 per cent.
Restlessness	65 per cent.
Reflexes increased	65 per cent.
Choreiform movements	55 per cent.
Polyneuritis	45 per cent.
Kernig's sign	45 per cent.
Paralysis of arms and legs	25 per cent.
Average duration of fever	7 days
Eruption	15 per cent.
Mortality to date	15 per cent.

Thermic Features.—The average duration of fever is seven days. Fever is but slight, or absent at the onset in mild cases. A temperature of 99° to 102° is the rule. High fever at the onset has been reported, and hyperpyrexia at any stage of the disease may depend upon associated complications.

Cranial nerve involvement may be the first typical feature of the disease. Double vision develops early and lasts for from two to four days. The vision is not clear. Third nerve involvement is most common. and bilateral ptosis is observed in from 60 to 90 per cent. of cases. Ptosis may persist throughout the disease and voluntary raising of the lids is frequently a precursor of a favorable termination. The fifth nerve is involved with weakening of the masseter muscles, and drooping of the jaw (Fig. 330). Seventh nerve paralysis is most conspicuous on the right side, but may be bilateral. Dysphagia is fairly common and suggests involvement of the ninth nerve. The eleventh nerve was involved in three of Miner and Freeman's cases, and placarded by paralysis of the trapezius and sternocleidomastoid muscles. Tremors of the tongue and slurring of speech is the rule. Tachycardia occurs frequently.

Consciousness varies in degree from mere apathy to coma. The lethargic state may develop near the end of the first week. The patient can ordinarily be aroused, and first answer questions intelligently. Lethargy gradually increases, but some are also restless, and develop a muttering delirium. Maniacal attacks are rare, and insomnia may antedate lethargy. Choreiform movements, ataxia of the arms, and muscular fibrillation are almost constant features of the pre-lethargic stage. Twitching of the lips, nasal, arm, abdominal and intercostal muscles are observed early. Catatonia is occasionally seen early during the lethargic state (Fig. 331). The duration of the lethargic state varies from about two weeks to months, and in favorable cases disappears gradually. (See Japanese Epidemic, p. 903.)

Laboratory Diagnosis.—Judging from the literature at hand we have but little of diagnostic value in connection with the laboratory findings. Hyperglycorachia (excess of sugar in the spinal fluid) has been reported, and the accompanying table by Foster will serve to set forth a comparative study of the Wassermann colloidal gold, and sugar test as

applied to the spinal fluid; and the blood sugar, blood Wassermann, and urine tests. The spinal fluid sugar may be estimated by means of the Folin-Wu method.

TABLE I.—SPINAL FLUID SUGAR IN VARIOUS DISEASES, PRESENTED FOR COMPARISON

Diagnosis	High, Per Cent.	Low, Per Cent	Average Per Cent.
Normal			
Mestrezat*	0.058	0.048	0.0534
Nawratzke†	.....	.....	0.046
Our normal (22 patients)	0.0614	0.0442	0.0528
Syphilis of central nervous system (all forms) (100 patients)	0.0844‡	0.0355	0.0528
Tuberculous meningitis (9 patients)	0.0375	0.0212	0.0284
Acute meningitis (4 patients, 4th to 12th day)	Sugar too low to read		
Epidemic encephalitis (this series)	0.1130	0.0535	0.0760

* Le liquide céphalo-rachidien, Paris, A. Maloine, 1912.

† Zur Kenntniss der Cerebrospinalflüssigkeit, Ztschr. f. physiol. Chem. **23**: 533, 1897.

‡ Only one case was so high. The next lower was 0.0765 per cent.

The spinal fluid is clear, and its pressure not above normal. The cell count is ordinarily above normal, varying from 10 to 80 cells per cubic millimeter, and these cells are approximately 100 per cent. mononuclear leukocytes. The cell count approaches the normal gradually, as the disease assumes a favorable course. Globulin is present, and in uncomplicated cases the Wassermann reaction is negative. Smears and cultures were found negative by Lewis, King, and Dinegar.* The colloidal gold curve is interesting as shown by the following table given by the above writers. The basal metabolic rate is altered.†

SUMMARY OF SPINAL FLUID FINDINGS

Character	Cells	Differential	Smear	Culture	Wassermann	Globulin	Colloidal Gold
Case I							
1. Normal pressure, clear	11	Lymphocytes, 100 per cent.; polynuclear, 0	No organisms	Sterile	Negative	+ (1 plus)	1.2.2.1.1.1.2.0.0.
Case II							
1. Normal pressure, clear	81	Lymphocytes, 100 per cent.; polynuclear, 0	No organisms	Sterile	Negative	+ (1 plus)	0.0.0.1.1.2.1.0.0.
2. Normal pressure, clear	8	Lymphocytes, 100 per cent.; polynuclear, 0	No organisms	Sterile	Negative	+ (1 plus)	0.0.1.1.1.0.0.0.0.
Case III							
1. Normal pressure, clear	43	Lymphocytes, 96 per cent.; polynuclear, 4 per cent.	No organisms	Sterile	Negative	+ (1 plus)	0.0.1.1.2.0.0.1.0.
2. Normal pressure, clear	40	Lymphocytes, 100 per cent.; polynuclear, 0	No organisms	Sterile	Negative	+ (1 plus)	0.0.1.1.1.0.0.0.0.
Case IV							
1. Normal pressure, clear	7	Lymphocytes, 100 per cent.; polynuclear, 0	No organisms	Sterile	Negative	+ (1 plus)	1.2.2.4.4.4.3.3.0.
2. Normal pressure, clear	7	Lymphocytes, 100 per cent.; polynuclear, 0	No organisms	Sterile	Negative	+ (1 plus)	5.5.4.3.3.3.3.2.0.
Case V							
1. Normal pressure, clear	43	Lymphocytes, 100 per cent.; polynuclear, 0	No organisms	Sterile	Negative	+ (1 plus)	1.1.3.3.3.2.1.0.0.
2. Normal pressure, clear	36	Lymphocytes, 100 per cent.; polynuclear, 0	No organisms	Sterile	Negative	+ (1 plus)	1.1.3.4.4.3.2.1.0.
3. Normal pressure, clear	19	Lymphocytes, 100 per cent.; polynuclear, 0	No organisms	Sterile	Negative	+ (1 plus)	0.1.1.3.3.3.2.1.0.

* Amer. Jour. Med. Sci., June, 1921.

† Van Bogaert, Ann. de Med., Paris, 15: 403, May, 1924.

Complications and Sequelæ.—Progressive lenticular degeneration, with the symptoms and signs of locomotor ataxia is common, and may accompany the clinical features of sclerosis.* The respiratory rhythm is disturbed both during and after encephalitis. Pupillary reactions are likewise disturbed in 30 per cent. of cases. Spasmodic attacks of tremor of the eye was an annoying feature in one of our private cases. Psychological features are seen in approximately 50 per cent. of cases, while insomnia and tremor occur in about the same proportion of instances. The deep reflexes are altered, following 30 per cent. of cases, and muscle tonus may be indefinitely disturbed. Signs referable to the cranial nerves persist after approximately 60 per cent. of cases. Post-encephalitic phenomena resemble paralysis agitans, and are considered under that disease.

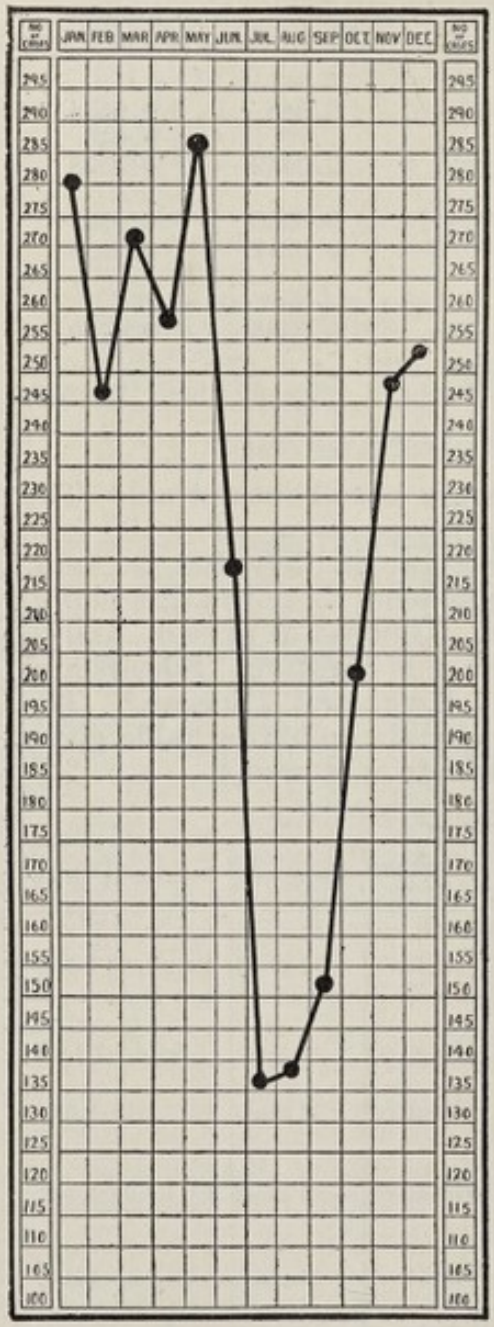


FIG. 333.—AVERAGE NUMBER OF CASES OF SCARLET FEVER OCCURRING DURING EACH MONTH OF THE YEAR. STATISTICAL ANALYSIS OF 32,317 CASES (A. K. Sallom, in "Medical Record").

SCARLET FEVER (SCARLATINA)

Pathologic Definition.—An acute infectious disease, characterized by high fever, marked angina, and a diffuse erythematous dermatitis.

Varieties.—Clinically, three types of scarlet fever are seen: (1). The *average type*, in which all the symptoms are active; (2) the *mild type*, in which all the symptoms are mild; and (3) the *malignant type*, in which all the symptoms are severe, and which may terminate fatally within the first twenty-four hours, before the appearance of the eruption. Usually, however, death does not take place until several days have passed. (4) An abortive type is recognized.

Predisposing and Exciting Factors. The presence of an epidemic or exposure to the contagion serves as the most important predisposing factor.

Age figures prominently in the predisposition to scarlatina, the disease being most prevalent between the first and sixth years, and practically unknown during the first six months of life. It is rare between the sixth and twelfth months, and the tendency diminishes after the tenth year, although an occasional case of scarlet fever is encountered after the thirtieth year.

Women are particularly liable to contract scarlet fever during the puerperium. During the winter of 1878 an epidemic of scarlet fever occurred in the maternity wards of the Philadelphia General Hospital.

* Goodhart and Cottrell, Jour. Am. Med. Assoc., 84: 32, Jan. 3, 1925.

Climate.—The disease is more common in temperate than in tropical districts.

Season.—Statistics show that the greatest number of cases develop during the winter, fall, and spring months. Cold weather, therefore, appears to exercise some influence on the spread of scarlet fever, but, as in diphtheria, it is possible that the fact that children are congregated in schools and homes during the cold weather may account for the increased number of cases seen during the winter months. Caigere, in his analysis of 1008 cases of scarlatina, gives October as the month in which the highest mortality of cases developed, and Whiteleege's analysis of 6000 cases confirms Caigere's observation. The result of A. K. Sallom's analysis of 32,317 cases is shown by Figs. 333 and 334.

Bacteriology.—Many varieties of bacteria have been recovered from the skin, mucous membranes, urine, and blood of persons suffering from scarlet fever, but thus far the exciting microörganism has not been dis-

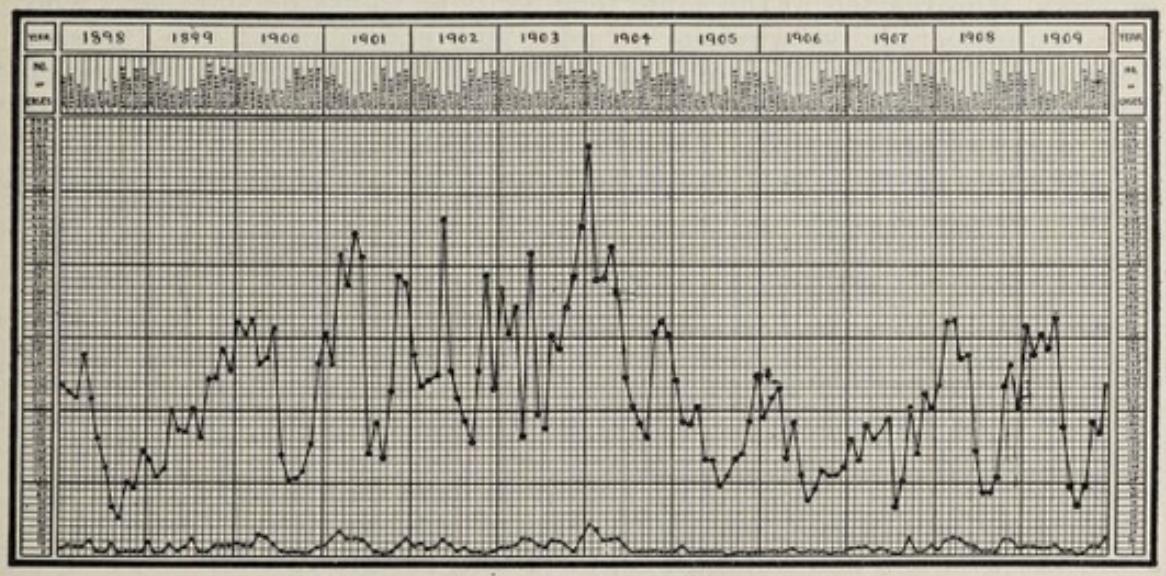


Fig. 334.—Chart Showing Number of Cases and Mortality of Scarlet Fever by Months. Statistical Analysis of 32,317 Cases (A. K. Sallom, in "Medical Record").

covered. Streptococci, streptococcus hemolyticus, diplococci, atypical pneumonococci, and streptobacilli have all been isolated from the throat of scarlatinal patients.* Bodies have been described by Mallory and by Duval which were found in the epithelial cells and in the lymphatit vessels of the skin in cases of scarlet fever, and which they believed were protozoa; these they considered might bear some etiologic relation to the disease.

Dick Test.—G. H. and G. F. Dick have recently recommended a test for the diagnosis of susceptibility to scarlet fever.† They employed one-tenth c.c. of a 1 to 1000 dilution of a filtrate made from the scarlet fever hemolytic streptococcus. The filtrate when injected into the skin of the forearm is followed in within four to six hours by the production of a small urticarial-like wheal, which reaches its maximum size in from eighteen to thirty-six hours. These same investigators claim to have succeeded in producing an antitoxin somewhat after the order of diphtheria toxin antitoxin, for the establishment of immunity to scarlet fever.

* Dochez, Proc. Socty. Exper. Biol. and Med., 1924, XXI, p. 184.

† Annals of Clini. Med., Vol. III, No. 8, February, 1925, p. 517; Jour. Am. Med. Assoc., March 14, 1925, pp. 802–805.

Thompson has isolated a gram-negative diplococcus from the throat in cases of scarlet fever. The organism is strictly anærobic, grows on body tissues, and produces gas. Two strains have been isolated; one from scarlet fever, and the other from measles. It is common to obtain a positive Wassermann reaction with the serum from scarlet fever patients.

Modes of Infection.—Scarlet fever is a highly contagious and infectious disease, although not so markedly so as smallpox and measles. The infection is generally believed to be conveyed from the sick to the well by means of the fine epithelial scales. Secretions and discharges from the nose, throat, and ears convey the disease. Examples are recorded in which the disease has unquestionably been conveyed by the nurse or by the physician. The secretion from the throat and nose are infectious, as is also the urine.

Billington's observations, made among 26 families residing in the tenements of New York city, where there was practically no attempt at isolation, showed 43 cases of scarlet fever, and, further, that 47 other children, who resided in the same tenements at the same time, and who were unprotected by previous attacks, did not contract the disease. Johannessen reported that of 158 children who were exposed to scarlet fever, 28 per cent. contracted the disease. Johannessen also observed that of 314 adults exposed, 5 per cent. developed scarlet fever.

Domestic animals, particularly cats and dogs, are likely to spread the disease, and, as previously stated, there is authentic evidence to show that hogs may suffer from scarlet fever. The fact that several investigators, as well as one of the present writers, have been able to produce scarlatinal symptoms in rats and other laboratory animals would seem to indicate that rodents may be instrumental in spreading the infection of scarlet fever. Persons afflicted with open wounds are especially likely to become infected. As a result of the careful investigations recently made by the various boards of health throughout the United States, a number of epidemics of scarlet fever would appear to have had their origin in the milk-supply, and were traceable to cases of mild scarlatina occurring in some one who handled the milk supplied to a certain district.

Immunity.—One attack protects against subsequent attacks of the disease. The Dick serum is claimed to establish immunity.

Incubation Period.—Holt, in his tabulation of 113 cases in which the period of incubation could be accurately determined, gives the following figures:

24 hours or less	6 cases	8 days	2 cases
2 days	15 cases	9 days	5 cases
3 days	28 cases	11 days	1 case
4 days	25 cases	14 days	1 case
5 days	6 cases	21 days	1 case
6 days	15 cases		
7 days	8 cases		

Clinical Varieties of Scarlet Fever

Ordinary Type.—As a rule, the initial symptoms to scarlet fever are pronounced, and, generally speaking, may be said to appear suddenly. At first a variable degree of lassitude is present for a few hours, during which period the child feels uncomfortable, is drowsy, and may complain of some soreness in the throat. These prodromata are followed by an abrupt chill, with anorexia, nausea, *vomiting*, and, in small children, there may be a *convulsion* or a series of convulsions. By the time the physician is summoned the child complains of intense headache and nausea, and the vomiting may be obstinate. Marked *angina* and sharp

pains over the muscles of the back and limbs are also present. At this time the *pulse* is found to be between 110 and 160 a minute, and is full and bounding, of high tension, and out of all proportion to the amount of fever present.

Thermic Features.—Within a few hours after the chill the temperature rises to 102° to 104° F., and continues to rise steadily until the eruption is completely developed, when it may reach a maximum of 104° to 106° F. With the fading of the eruption there is a remission in the fever toward the close of the first week, and in uncomplicated cases the temperature may then fall to near the normal line. With the onset of such complications as nephritis, otitis media and bronchopneumonia the temperature may be present for an indefinite period, and whenever the

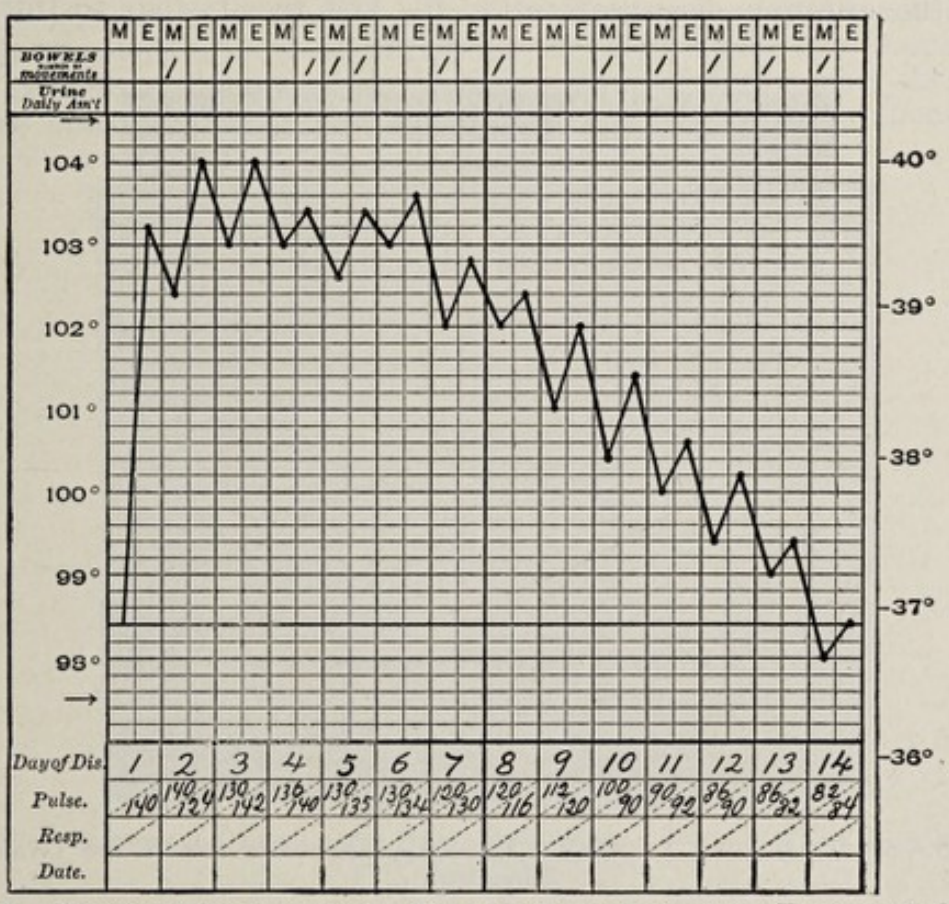


FIG. 335.—TEMPERATURE-CURVE OF A CASE OF SCARLATINA WITH FAVORABLE COURSE. PATIENT AGED SEVEN YEARS (Anders).

fever continues for more than seven days, complications are to be suspected.

Cutaneous Manifestations.—A diffuse rose-red or scarlet punctiform erythema ordinarily develops within the first twenty-four hours, and never appears later than the thirty-sixth hour. It is seen first about the clavicles and neck, but rapidly spreads over the chest, back, and extremities, so that within four or five hours the entire surface of the skin is of a scarlet hue.

Exception.—The face is the last part to become involved in the dermatitis; the forehead, nose, chin, and lips are pale, being in striking contrast to the cheeks, which are an intense scarlet. Filatoff has called special attention to the unusual pallor of the chin, which is in striking contrast with the degree of redness of the cheeks. Pastia has likewise called attention to a somewhat distinctive eruption that occurs at the

bend of the elbows, but which is by no means a constant feature of scarlatina.

Pressure over the skin of the chest or of any other portion of the body causes a decided pallor, the scarlet hue reappearing as soon as the pressure is removed. So marked is this pallor of the skin that one may write upon the child's chest or back. The rash of scarlet fever is particularly fine, and can scarcely be confounded with the eruption of any other disease, although a not dissimilar reddening of the skin is occasionally seen to occur in some persons after the ingestion of shell-fish or of certain vegetables. In the ordinary type of scarlet fever the eruption is manifest in from thirty-six to forty-eight hours, being present, as a rule, during the greater portion of the second day; in mild cases, however, to be described later, the eruption disappears after the first twenty-four to thirty-six hours.



FIG. 336.—SCARLATINIFORM ERYTHEMA: DESQUAMATION UPON THE HANDS (Welch and Schamberg).

Patient, a man of twenty-nine years, has had two attacks every year of his life.

A close inspection of the skin shows that the eruption is made up of innumerable fine red points (puncta), each of which surrounds a hair-follicle. At the margin of these spots there is a zone of intense redness, which blends with adjacent red areas, thus producing the general erythema. In atypical forms of eruption the reddened areas surrounding the hair-follicles are not surrounded by the erythematous blush.

Blotches of scarlatinal eruption interspersed with healthy skin are occasionally seen, but are by no means common; these are more characteristic of malignant scarlet fever. We have seen cases in which the eruption was distributed in blotches and developed after death, and at this time there may also be detected fine hemorrhages into the skin.

Rumpell-Leede Phenomenon.—By the application of a bandage immediately above the elbow, pressure exerted between 45 and 60 mm. of mercury, for a period of from five to twenty minutes, minute hemorrhage will be seen to form on the anterior surface of the elbow. This same

result is obtained by lifting a portion of the skin of the chest and pressing it rather firmly between the thumb and index-finger. This cutaneous sign is of some value in distinguishing scarlatina from other eruptive fevers. It is to be remembered that in measles, and at times in small-pox, a slight irritation of the skin is followed by a tendency to hemorrhages.

Desquamation.—In cases of scarlet fever of average severity desquamation begins within a few days after the eruption has fully developed; the severity of the exfoliation is in direct relation to the degree of eruption, and likewise to the height of the fever. The entire integument is involved in the desquamation and the epithelium is thrown off in large and small flakes. A similar desquamation takes place in the throat and in the mucous membrane of the soft palate, uvula, pharynx, and tonsils. The tongue, the entire mucous surface of the mouth, and the nasal fossæ may exfoliate. Following the desquamation of the tongue its dorsal surface becomes a bright red, and its papillæ become prominent, thus

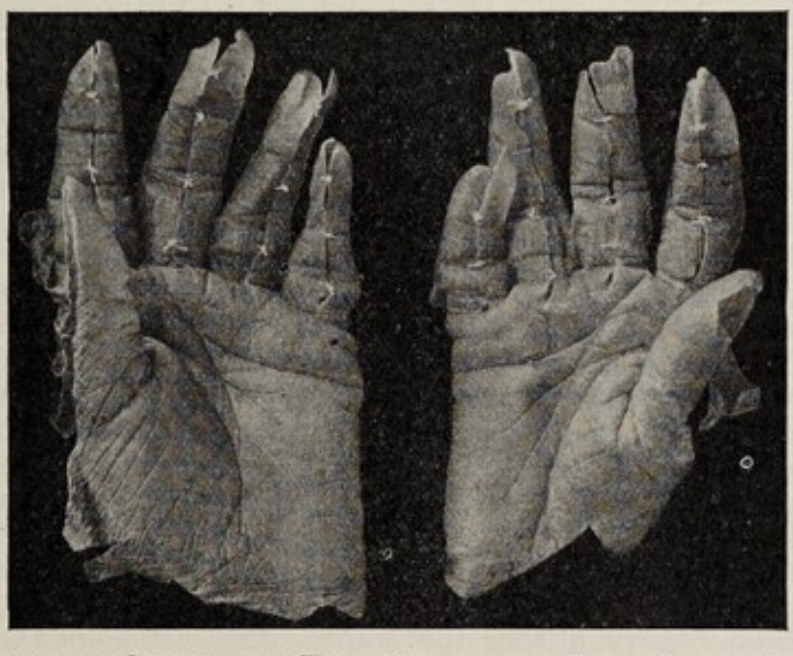


FIG. 337.—EPIDERMAL CASTS OF THE HANDS SHED FROM A FATAL CASE OF SCARLET FEVER (Welch and Schamberg).

giving rise to the so-called *strawberry tongue*, which is said to be characteristic of scarlet fever.

The duration of the desquamation is variable, the palms of the hands (Fig. 316) and the soles of the feet being the last parts to be involved. Health boards maintain that so long as there is any evidence of this process the child is capable of transmitting the disease to unprotected individuals. We have repeatedly seen cases of the ordinary type of scarlet fever in which desquamation continued for from six to eight weeks after the fever had subsided, and our experience has been that, in the majority of cases, the process requires about three weeks for its completion.

Ocular Manifestations.—In scarlet fever the conjunctivæ are markedly congested early and the eyelids are often swollen.

Nasal Symptoms.—Coryza develops together with the eruption, and may even precede it by a few hours, although the nasal secretion is but slightly increased after the first thirty-six hours. In some cases, however, a diminished secretion is present throughout the course of scarlet fever.

Gastro-intestinal Symptoms.—Vomiting is an early symptom in the majority of cases. During the first forty-eight hours anorexia occurs, but after this time, in uncomplicated cases, the appetite improves, as a rule, and by the end of the first week the child relishes its food. Constipation is the rule, and unless treated, usually obtains during the first week.

Heart complications are rather common and may occur in the form of acute endocarditis, pericarditis, and in severe forms of the disease myocarditis as evidenced by pronounced irregularity and deficiency in the muscular element of the first sound of the heart. Rosenbaum in the study of 106 cases found 19 per cent. of them to display myocarditis.*

Local Symptoms.—With the onset of the disease the entire mucous membrane of the throat becomes reddened, and at times covered with a thick, yellowish, tenacious mucus that serves to make a differential diagnosis between tonsillitis, measles, and scarlet fever difficult. The child complains of intense pain in the throat on swallowing or even on talking, and of lancinating pains shooting to the ears. He holds his head in one position, as though it were fixed, and utters a cry of pain on being compelled to move his chin.

Nervous Symptoms.—As previously stated, convulsions may occur early in scarlet fever, and mild delirium is not unknown, even in uncomplicated cases. It must be remembered that scarlet fever is one of the few diseases that show a predilection to attack the serous surfaces; consequently the physician should be ever alert for meningeal, joint, pericardial, endocardial, and pleural symptoms.

Laboratory Diagnosis.—*Urinary Phenomena.*—Even in uncomplicated cases the urine is high colored, of high specific gravity,—1.020 to 1.030,—and diminished in quantity, from 15 to 30 fluidounces being excreted in a day; it contains a trace of albumin and is rich in solids. Casts, renal epithelium, and red blood-cells are by no means uncommon. During the first week of the disease the diazo-reaction is positive in from 15 to 20 per cent. of all cases. After the injection of normal human serum intracutaneously into a scarlatina patient, the skin phenomena disappears, immediately around the site of injection, and does not display the other evidences of the disease at a later date. (Sternkop's test.)

The Blood.—Early during the course of scarlet fever the number of leukocytes is decidedly increased, ranging between 12,000 and 20,000 per c.mm. In uncomplicated cases the hemoglobin and red blood-cells are relatively decreased in number at the beginning of convalescence.

Nicoll and Williams have reviewed the work done in reference to the **inclusion bodies of Döhle,** and at present there appears to be sufficient observations confirming the work of Döhle to regard the presence of these bodies in the blood of those suffering from scarlatina as a point of diagnostic value. These bodies are usually present in the blood of scarlatinal patients during the first week of the disease; they have been detected before the appearance of the eruption, and may persist after the sixth day of the disease, but in such event they are not present in great numbers.

Method.—Blood-smears are made after the usual method (see p. 357), fixed and stained with Löffler's methylene-blue solution, or Manson's stain (borax methyl-blue), for a period of several hours.

Inclusion bodies are chiefly located in the polymorphonuclear leukocytes. These bodies vary greatly in size and form, from that of a small coccus to irregular masses, approximating one-fifth the size of the normal

* Arch. Int. Med., Oct., 1920.

red blood-corpuscle. Certain of the bodies are elongated (so-called bacillary forms).

Manson's stain gives to the nuclei a deep blue color; the cytoplasm a very faint blue, and the inclusion bodies a tint varying between these two shades.

Caution.—Inclusion bodies have been found in the blood of patients suffering from measles, erysipelas, and syphilis.

Cultures from the throat show streptococci, staphylococci, and bacilli, but no diphtheria bacilli, unless both diseases are present at the same time.

Malignant Scarlet Fever.—In this type of the disease there may be no prodromal symptoms; the attack is usually ushered in by a decided rigor or a convulsion. Angina is intense, and vomiting is, as a rule, uncontrollable.

The temperature rises abruptly to 105° or 107° F., and, as a rule, remains high until death occurs. Indeed, the temperature may reach its highest point one hour after death. In cases that tend to go on toward recovery the temperature becomes remittent after the first twenty-four hours, but may continue at a high point for several days, and, if the patient survive the first forty-eight to seventy-two hours, the fever-curve generally becomes septic in character.

Physical Signs.—*Inspection.*—In malignant cases the throat and, more particularly the tonsils, are usually covered with a thick, tenacious membrane that resembles in a measure the pseudomembrane of diphtheria.

Within the first twelve hours following the chill the child either becomes stupid, or, in some instances, at least, restless, and there may be evidence of cyanosis, which often increases rapidly. The accumulation of mucus in the throat and mouth is very annoying, and the discharge from the nose is profuse. Before the end of the first day the glands of the neck are greatly enlarged and a true acute cellulitis may exist.

Following the chill the skin may become very hot to the touch, although it may be livid in color; if the child survive until the end of the first twenty-four to thirty-six hours, a profuse scarlatinal eruption will appear. In the most severe types of scarlet fever the child succumbs to the disease before the appearance of the eruption, which is first detected after death. In the hemorrhagic type of malignant scarlet fever the eruption is petechial, and these minute hemorrhages frequently coalesce to form large ecchymoses. The hands and feet become pale and cold, and there is evidence of embarrassed circulation. Indeed, many of these cases fall into a state of circulatory collapse during the first twenty-four hours, and death soon follows.

Cases tending to go on toward recovery show, after the third day, a septic temperature, extensive necrosis and sloughing of the tonsils, ulcerations of the face, glandular enlargement, purulent rhinitis, and purulent otitis media.

If the case has assumed the hemorrhagic type of malignant scarlet fever, hemorrhages from any of the mucous surfaces may occur; the commonest of these is hematuria, although epistaxis and melena may appear.

Complications are far more common in the malignant types of scarlet fever that go on to convalescence than in the milder or ordinary forms of this disease.

Desquamation begins by the end of the first week, and is similar to that seen in other types of scarlet fever, except that the scales given off are

larger, and may measure one, two, or even three inches in length. A complete cast of the finger or of the hand may be exfoliated. Following a profuse eruption, the hair and nails may fall out. Nephritis is common.

Mild Scarlet Fever.—When the disease is not marked by any decided symptoms, the invasion is of short duration and the child is, comparatively speaking, ill but a few hours. Among the symptoms are nausea, vomiting, headache, and fever, the temperature reaching 101° to 103° F. If examined carefully at this time, congestion and reddening of the pharynx, tonsils, uvulva, and soft palate will be seen. The eruption is not profuse, and may occur only about the neck and chest, all evidence of it disappearing by the third day. We have seen many cases of this type of scarlet fever in which the child played throughout the entire course of the illness.

In one epidemic occurring in Pennsylvania the eruption faded by the second day, and nearly all the cases seen were extremely mild and free from complications. The following year an epidemic broke out in the same vicinity, and one case of malignant scarlet fever was seen among every six children suffering from the disease. Holt states that in his dispensary service in New York City he has repeatedly seen children in the desquamation stage of scarlet fever who had never remained from school a day during the entire attack. The mild cases of scarlet fever are doubtless responsible for the majority of epidemic outbreaks.

Relapses.—Relapses are rare in scarlet fever, they occur most frequently during the stage of desquamation—seldom earlier than the tenth and not later than the twenty-fifth days. A relapse may be accompanied by most of the symptoms characteristic of scarlet fever, but, as a rule, they are all milder than those of the initial infection. In rare cases the relapse may assume a severe type and terminate fatally.

Summary of Diagnosis.—The characteristic symptoms and signs of scarlet fever are: The presence of an erythematous eruption; rapid, wiry pulse; vomiting; angina; strawberry tongue; and a characteristic, scale-like desquamation. Among the symptoms suggestive of scarlet fever should be mentioned an abrupt onset with a chill, possibly convulsions and fever, and the occurrence of certain serious complications.

Differential Diagnosis.—The various clinical forms of scarlet fever must be distinguished from **acute follicular tonsillitis,** the characteristic features of which have been tabulated below. The eruption of scarlet fever is to be distinguished from those rashes that follow the ingestion of large doses or the prolonged use of such drugs as quinin, belladonna, and the like. The characteristic pulse of scarlet fever and the angina are absent in **drug rashes,** and the eruption is rarely so diffuse as is that of scarlet fever.

Lastly, the eruption of scarlet fever is to be distinguished from that associated with acute **gastro-intestinal irritation,** such as that following the ingestion of certain vegetables, strawberries, and shell-fish. In the latter condition urticaria and intense itching are usually present, two features unknown to scarlet fever during the first twenty-four hours.

Goldstein* reports a case of erythema scarlatiniforme desquamativum (erythema scarlatinoide)—resembling true scarlet fever. The patient, a young lawyer aged 24 yrs., had several previous attacks.

The following table sets forth the distinctive features of scarlet fever and of acute follicular tonsillitis:

* N. Y. Med. Jour. and Record, Jan. 22, 1921.

Scarlet Fever	Acute Follicular Tonsillitis
1. There may be a history of exposure to the disease.	1. Exposure to cold and wet common.
2. Entire mucous membrane of the throat is intensely red.	2. Membrane of tonsils congested; small yellowish patches distributed over its surface. Often unilateral.
3. Nausea and vomiting follow the chill.	3. Vomiting rare.
4. Extensive scarlatinal eruption appears during the first thirty-six hours.	4. Eruption uncommon and never extensive.
5. Albuminuria develops by the end of the first week.	5. Albuminuria seldom present.
6. Characteristic desquamation begins by the end of the first week.	6. Desquamation not characteristic.

Acute Pharyngitis.—In this condition the initial symptoms are less severe, the eruption is absent, and there is but little likelihood of the occurrence of grave complications.

Measles.—Since both measles and scarlet fever are common among the diseases of childhood, a careful discrimination between the symptoms presented by each individual case must be made. Many workers among contagious diseases assert that scarlet fever and measles frequently develop in the same individual at or about the same time—an unfortunate condition that would render the making of an accurate diagnosis very difficult. For convenience of study we have tabulated the distinctive differential features of acute pharyngitis, scarlet fever, and measles.

Acute Pharyngitis	Scarlet Fever	Measles
1. Usually follows a cold affecting the head and throat.	1. Follows exposure to the disease. Child healthy prior to the initial symptom.	1. Follows within ten to fourteen days after exposure.
2. May be ushered in with a slight chill or a series of chilly sensations.	2. Decided rigor may be the initial symptom.	2. Chill is less decided than in scarlet fever.
3. Temperature usually ranges between 99.3° and 101° F., although a high temperature is not impossible.	3. Temperature reaches 102° to 105° F., immediately following the chill.	3. Temperature rises steadily until the second day, and then remits until the fourth day, when with the appearance of the eruption, it again rises. Fever declines after the eruption has developed.
4. Vomiting unusual.	4. Vomiting an early symptom and may be persistent.	4. Vomiting not common.
5. No eruption.	5. A diffuse, erythematous rash, with red points. Appears within the first thirty-six hours.	5. Eruption does not appear until the fourth day. It appears in the form of blotches, first upon the neck and cheeks, and then spreads over the entire body.
6. Koplik's spots absent.	6. Koplik's spots absent.	6. Koplik's spots present.
7. No desquamation.	7. Scale-like desquamation begins at end of a week.	7. Branny desquamation.
8. There is scratching of the throat, with some pain upon talking, and swallowing.	8. Angina a most annoying symptom. Early involvement of glands of the neck, axillae and groin.	8. Moderate soreness of the throat.

Acute Pharyngitis	Scarlet Fever	Measles
9. There is a continuous desire to relieve the throat of mucus, but cough is seldom present unless the inflammation extends to the larynx.	9. The child makes no effort to clear the throat, but often places the hand to the throat when attempting to swallow.	9. There is a marked acute bronchitis, which begins early and continues throughout the course of the disease.
10. Photophobia and conjunctivitis absent.	10. Photophobia absent. Conjunctivitis may develop late.	10. Photophobia is an early symptom, and conjunctivitis is also common.
11. Albuminuria absent.	11. Albuminuria appears early and may continue throughout convalescence.	11. Albuminuria uncommon except in complicated cases.
12. Examination for plasmodium negative.	12. Examination for plasmodium negative.	12. Rosenberger's plasmodium may be recovered from the blood and from the secretions of the throat.

Scarlatinal eruptions are to be distinguished from drug eruptions, serum rashes, rubella, and the erythema caused by the ingestion of shell fish, and certain fruits.

Clinical Course and Duration.—In moderately severe types of infection convalescence is well established during the third week, and if no complications set in, the child is about to leave the house as soon as desquamation is completed. In malignant scarlet fever death ensues, as a rule, by the fourth or fifth day, and many cases die during the first forty-eight hours. Complications of whatever nature increase the severity of the disease, and render the prognosis more unfavorable.

Complications and Sequelæ.—Pseudomembranous Angina.—This throat condition may be mistaken for diphtheria, which it greatly resembles; the only distinctive feature is obtained by making a bacteriologic study. Pseudomembranous angina is due to infection with a virulent streptococcus. It is possible, however, to have a mixed infection, both streptococcus and bacillus diphtheriæ being present. Pseudomembranous angina develops either early during the course of scarlet fever or at the height of the disease. The membrane usually covers the tonsils, may extend to the soft palate, pharynx, nose, mouth and Eustachian tube, and may even invade the middle ear. The color of the membrane resembles that of diphtheria, and may be of a grayish-black or a grayish-brown hue. Pseudomembranous angina is also characterized by marked infiltration of the cellular tissue of the neck, swelling of the lymph-nodes, general edema of the throat, and difficulty in swallowing. After the condition has persisted for two or more days the expectoration and the discharge from the nose and mouth emit a fetid odor. There is some evidence of nasal obstruction, and occasionally laryngeal obstruction with associated croup ensues.

In practically all cases of membranous angina the constitutional symptoms are severe, and the general condition of the patient is of the nature of a profound streptococcus infection. The lymph-nodes may suppurate.

Gangrenous angina is known to complicate only the severest types of scarlet fever. The gangrenous process may be seen to involve the throat during the first forty-eight hours of the disease, and in rare instances it may be detected almost with the development of the infection. The tonsils and other affected mucous surfaces are grayish-black in color,

and masses of necrotic tissue may be seen hanging from the involved areas. The gangrenous process may extend to the cellular tissue of the cheeks or neck.

The odor of the breath is characteristic of gangrene. The blood-vessels of the throat, and particularly those of the tonsils, are likely to be encroached upon by the gangrenous process, and death may result from hemorrhage. There is a rapidly progressing anemia, septic in nature, which is accompanied by the general symptoms of asthenia. Most cases of gangrenous angina terminate fatally between the third and seventh days.

Cellulitis.—Involvement of the cellular tissue of the neck may complicate severe cases of scarlet fever, but does not develop, as a rule, until the end of the first week. There is a somewhat rapid infiltration of the tissue, the head is held in a fixed position, respirations are often labored, and the skin of the neck becomes tense and presents a brawny appearance. The infiltration may be localized to the lymph-nodes, or, less often, it may be diffuse. Death usually results from septicemia, thrombosis of the jugular veins or of the lateral sinuses, meningitis, or pyemia.

Pulmonary Complications.—*Bronchitis* occurs less frequently during the course of scarlet fever than in either measles or diphtheria. *Bronchopneumonia* is the commonest pulmonary complication, and is most likely to develop in those cases in which there are laryngeal stenosis, high fever, and delirium. Bronchopneumonia seldom develops until after the third day of the disease, and in many instances gives rise to no definite symptoms or signs by which it may be recognized until the condition is well advanced. *Empyema* may occur as a sequel of scarlet fever, and if permitted to run its course without treatment, is likely to result in general pyemia. *Edema of the lungs* is seldom seen unless scarlatinal nephritis, of which pulmonary edema may be the terminal stage, is present at the same time.

Cardiac Complications.—*Endocarditis and pericarditis* are said to be uncommon in the scarlet fever of children, although they may appear during convalescence. Endocarditis is sometimes seen after cases of scarlet fever in which sepsis has been a complication, and it is fairly common as a sequel of scarlatinal nephritis.

During convalescence a systolic murmur is frequently heard over the base of the heart (hemic), but with general improvement in the condition of the blood, the murmur disappears. Malignant endocarditis is seen only in those cases in which extensive suppuration is present. Associated with endocarditis there may be embolism of the brain, hemiplegia, and other paralyses, all of which are to be differentiated from post-diphtheritic paralysis. In the more severe forms of scarlet fever there is a variable degree of myocardial degeneration, manifested by diminished volume and force of the pulse, irregularity, and a tendency toward dicrotism. It is exceptional to find acute dilatation following the myocardial changes.

Involvement of the Serous Membranes.—As has previously been stated, the pleura, pericardium, and endocardium may become involved during the course of scarlet fever, and in particular is this true of the serous sacs of the joints, those of the wrists and hands suffering most frequently, although any of the other joints may be attacked. Carslaw collected the reports of 533 cases of scarlet fever, and found involvement of the articulations in 60 of them. Synovitis develops at the end of the first or the beginning of the second week of the disease. It is characterized by redness, swelling, tenderness of the joints and a moderate elevation of temperature.

Involvement of the serous surface of the joints closely resembles that seen in acute articular rheumatism, except that it does not pass from joint to joint and seldom, if ever, causes a fatal termination. Septic arthritis, often associated with extensive throat involvement and pyemic symptoms, is rarely met in severe and fatal cases. Occasionally tuberculous invasion of the joints occurs as a sequel.

Auditory Complications.—Of these, the most common, and by far the most serious, is *otitis media*, which results from the direct extension of the infection from the pharynx through the Eustachian tube to the middle ear. Some writers assert that otitis media is the most frequent complication of scarlet fever, and that the younger the patient, the more likely is this to develop.

Season is not without its influence, the greater number of ear complications occurring during the winter months. The type of the infection in a given epidemic also influences the number of ear complications during such an epidemic. Holt cites as an instance an epidemic occurring during the spring and summer of 1889, in which, in 73 cases, not one developed ear complications. In another epidemic in the same locality occurring during the winter months, of 43 cases of scarlet fever, one in every five developed ear complications. Finlayson collected 4339 cases from the literature, and found that otitis media occurred as a complication in 10 per cent. of them. Craig, in an analysis of 1008 cases, found otitis media present in 13 per cent. When severe throat symptoms are present, ear involvement will be found to follow in from 20 to 70 per cent. of the cases.

Otitis media manifests itself by extreme pain in the ear and by an abrupt rise in temperature. Within a few hours rupture of the tympanum occurs, and purulent or bloody material is discharged from the ear.

The time at which involvement of the ear takes place may vary considerably in different cases and in different epidemics. Both ears are seldom attacked at the same time, and in the majority of cases the first evidence of otitis media is detected after the disease has reached its height. Ear complications seldom develop after convalescence is well established.

Deafness.—The pathologic changes present in the ear are usually of a suppurative nature. The hearing is generally markedly impaired, even if the attack of otitis media has been comparatively mild. The number of patients that become permanently deaf as a result of this complication is very high, and varies with different epidemics. May, in the study of 5613 mutes, found that 572 attributed their affliction to ear complications following scarlet fever.

Renal Complications.—*Nephritis* is the most serious and, therefore, the most important complication of scarlet fever. There is very often a slight albuminuria during the height of the fever, and it is possible that no more serious consequences will follow it than occur after other cases of febrile albuminuria. Two serious forms of nephritis are seen in scarlet fever, and although the symptoms of each are distinct, they have been confounded with each other.

(*a*) *Septic nephritis* is seen in those cases in which the angina is particularly severe, with sloughing tonsils, involvement of the soft palate, and general adenitis. In this form of nephritis the urine contains a large amount of albumin, but little or no blood and but few casts. The renal symptoms, if present, are masked by the manifestations of septicemia. Dropsy and uremia are rare, and the fatal termination occurs at the end of the second week of the process. The autopsy shows a kidney riddled with small metastatic abscesses.

(*b*) *Post-scarlatinal nephritis* is believed by the majority of writers to be the result of an inflammation of the epithelium lining the uriniferous tubules, similar to that covering the surface of the body. The renal disease may begin at any time from the end of the second to the end of the fourth week of the attack. The onset is insidious: a trace of albumin is first seen; then the amount of albumin increases, blood appears, and blood-casts and epithelial casts are found in the sediment. Fever returns, the amount of urine passed in twenty-four hours is diminished, the pulse is rapid and hard, and edema of the face appears; later there is edema of the feet and ankles, hands, and scrotum; vomiting occurs, and the patient is seriously ill of an acute nephritis. The complication may terminate in recovery or in uremia and death. A fatal termination may result from heart failure, due to dilatation following the high blood-pressure, from endocarditis with embolism, or from pericarditis. *Sudden death* is often the result of acute dilatation of the heart.

Gastro-intestinal Complications.—As is to be expected, in all cases of scarlet fever there is some interference with digestion, but true organic changes are unusual. Catarrhal stomatitis occasionally complicates the severer types of scarlet fever, but this condition seldom increases the gravity of the prognosis. Obstinate vomiting, probably nervous or uremic in origin, may be a troublesome complication. Diarrhea, although uncommon, tends to deplete the child, and renders the prognosis less favorable. Erythema nodosum may complicate throat infections.*

Nervous Complications.—These are extraordinarily rare, except in severe types of infection. Convulsions, which are often present and may constitute the initial symptom, can hardly be regarded as a complication, but when seen late in the disease they are, as a rule, uremic in origin. Peripheral neuritis is occasionally observed, as is also meningitis. Hemiplegia and monoplegia may accompany either meningitis or ulcerative endocarditis.

DIPHTHERIA

(Angina Maligna; Diphtheritis)

Pathologic Definition.—An acute, endemic, infectious, and transmissible disease, caused by the bacillus diphtheriæ. It may be sporadic or epidemic. It is characterized anatomically by the development of a grayish-white pseudomembrane in the throat, which shows a special tendency to spread to the nose and the larynx. In severe cases there is a marked tendency for cardiac failure, postdiphtheritic paralysis, otitis media, conjunctivitis, bronchopneumonia, and acute nephritis to develop.

Varieties.—Among the varieties are to be considered: (1) *Tonsillar diphtheria* (mild diphtheria), in which the formation of the pseudomembrane is limited to the surface of the tonsil; (2) *malignant diphtheria*, in which all the symptoms are severe; (3) *pharyngeal diphtheria*, in which the pharynx appears to be the initial point of involvement; (4) *nasal diphtheria*, in which the pseudomembrane first develops in the nares, and then spreads to the pharynx; (5) *laryngeal diphtheria*, which first attacks the mucous membrane of the larynx; (6) *conjunctival diphtheria*, in which the pseudomembrane develops on the conjunctiva; and (7) *wound diphtheria*, which results from infection of an open wound; (8) vaginal and umbilical diphtheria.

Exciting and Predisposing Factors.—The exciting cause of diphtheria is the bacillus diphtheriæ. Isolation of the bacillus diphtheriæ is necessary in order to determine whether the membrane present is or is not a true diphtheritic membrane, because other microörganisms are

* Stone, N. Y. Med. Jour. and Record, Dec. 5, 1923, p. 673.

capable of causing similar pseudomembranes upon the mucous surface of the pharynx and the upper air-passages. The Schick test has now been performed on over one hundered and fifty thousand (150,000) school children in New York, and the value of toxin antitoxin in establishing immunity is certain.

(*a*) Prominent among the predisposing factors are **age,** the disease usually appearing between the second and the tenth years of life, as is shown by the following table taken from Billings, covering 14,688 deaths from diphtheria occurring in the city of New York:

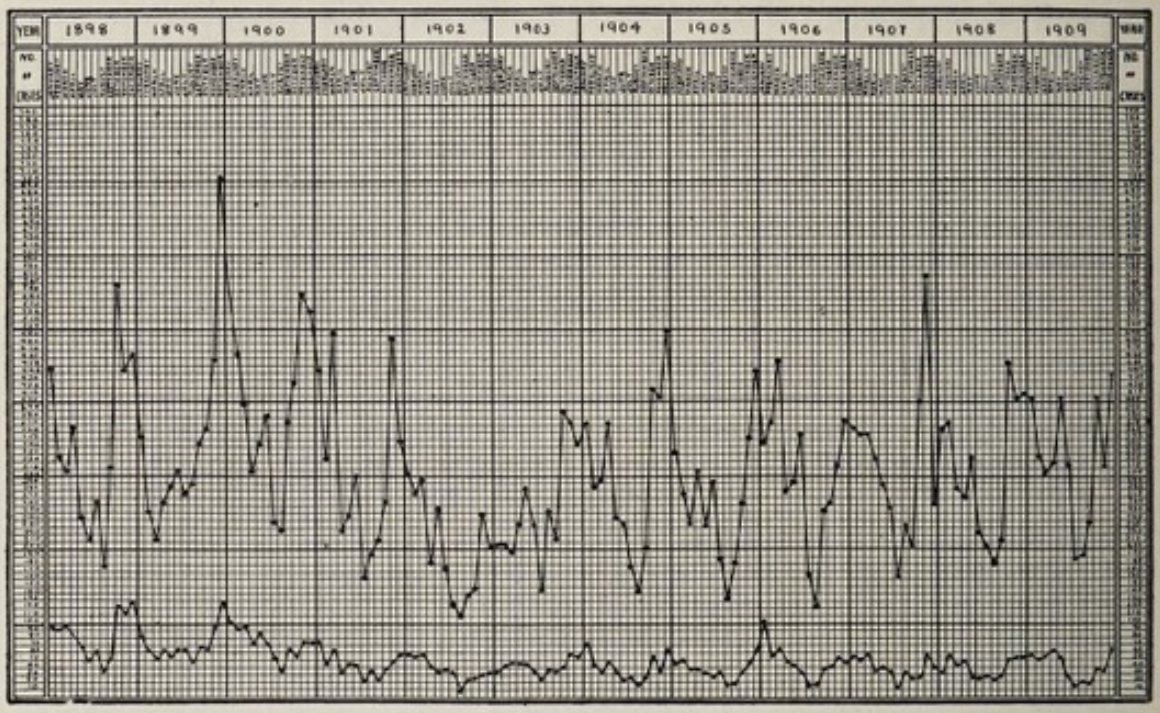


FIG. 338.—CHART SHOWING THE NUMBER OF CASES AND MORTALITY OF DIPHTHERIA BY MONTHS. STATISTICAL ANALYSIS OF 43,997 CASES (M. Sallom, in "Medical Record").

Under one year	1,214
One to five years	9,622
Five to ten years	3,212
Ten to fifteen years	311
Over fifteen years	329
	14,688

Diphtheria rarely occurs after the age of fifty, although it may develop at practically any age.

(*b*) A history of **exposure** to the infection or of an epidemic is of great importance, for it is not uncommon for a large percentage of children attending a certain school to develop diphtheria within the short period of from two to four weeks.

(*c*) **Season.**—The greatest number of cases are seen during cold weather (see Fig. 338), as shown by Bosworth's analysis of 18,688 cases from the records of ten years of the Bureau of Health of New York city, where 10,769 deaths were recorded from October 1st to March 1st inclusive, whereas only 7,919 deaths occurred between April and September of the same years. This is due, in part, at least, to the fact that during the winter months large numbers of children are congregated in schools. M. Sallom's analysis of 43,997 cases reported in Philadelphia is given by Figs. 338 and 339.

(*d*) Many writers hold that chronic **irritation of the throat, nose,** and **pharynx** predisposes to the development of diphtheria; and it cannot be disputed that such acute conditions as tonsillitis, pharyngitis, influenza, measles, and scarlet fever enhance the tendency toward its development.

(*e*) **Previous attacks** predispose to subsequent infection. Instances have recently been recorded in which epidemics of diphtheria have broken out among families supplied with milk from a certain dairy; in one case one of the workmen who handled the milk supplied to the affected district had suffered from a mild attack of diphtheria but a short time previous to the outbreak of the epidemic. There are numerous authentic reports of epidemics that have been traced to an infected milk-supply. In one epidemic, occurring in Philadelphia, 23 cases of diphtheria developed among families that obtained their provisions from a certain dealer, investigation proving that a child ill with diphtheria was then residing in the rear of this man's store. The mother, who nursed the child, at the same time handled the provisions supplied to customers.

(*f*) **Unhygienic surroundings** predispose to diphtheritic infection, for besides a lack of cleanliness, there is no attempt made to isolate the sick. Defective drainage and damp cellars have not been shown to bear any direct relation to epidemic outbreaks of diphtheria, although they may, by lowering the resistance of the individuals, serve as predisposing factors. On the other hand, epidemics of diphtheria often develop in rural districts, where sanitation is apparently perfect.

(*g*) **Climate** figures prominently as a predisposing factor, diphtheria being less common in tropical than in temperate zones. Excessive humidity and wet weather seem to promote the spread of diphtheria, probably because in inclement weather the children are closely housed; but they certainly do not exercise any influence upon the development of the diphtheria bacillus.

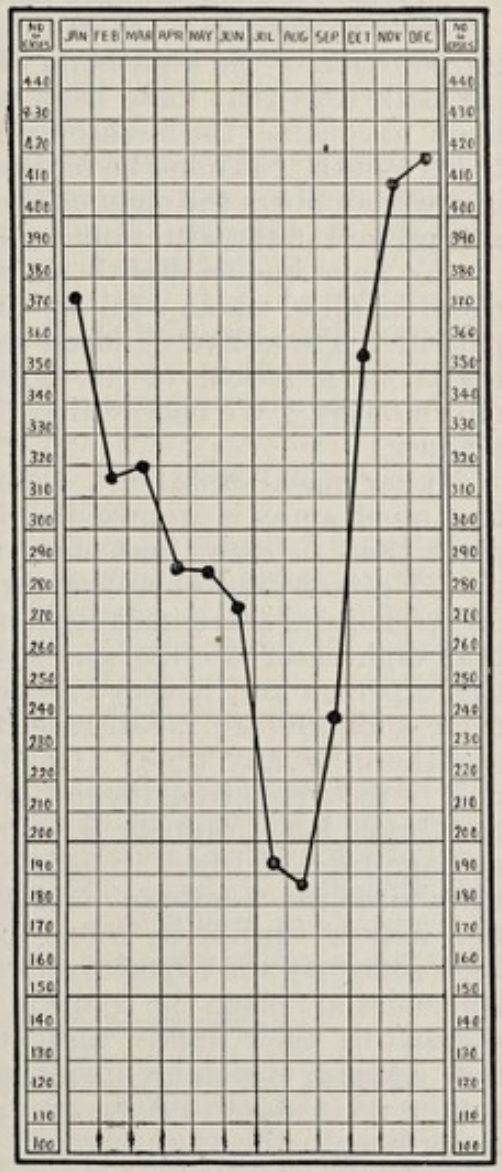


FIG. 339.—AVERAGE NUMBER OF CASES OF DIPHTHERIA OCCURRING DURING EACH MONTH OF THE YEAR. STATISTICAL ANALYSIS OF 43,997 CASES (M. Sallom, in "Medical Record").

Transmission and Mode of Infection.—In almost all cities in the temperate zone the disease is endemic, an occasional case developing throughout the year; in such cities, where the population is greatly congested, periodic outbreaks or epidemics are to be expected. Diphtheria often develops in the most remote localities and in rural districts, and its transmission in these districts is, as a rule, inexplicable, but they may usually be traced to the fact that a case has not been recognized until several children have been exposed to contagion. Every case of diphtheria has

its origin, either directly or remotely, in some previously existing case, although it is often difficult, and at times impossible, to trace such mode of infection. It has long been held that the bacillus diphtheriæ may enter the system with the inspired air or with the inhalation of the breath of a person suffering or convalescent from the disease. In view of our present knowledge of infection, however, this theory is questionable, and infection in this way probably does not occur, unless atomized particles of sputum or mucus from the throat of the patient are inhaled.

In the majority of cases infection probably takes place through the introduction of the diphtheria bacillus into the mouth; thus a child playing with toys that have been used by one suffering from diphtheria is likely to contract the disease by carrying them or his bacillus-laden fingers to his mouth. It must be remembered that the saliva contains the bacilli in great numbers throughout the course of the disease, and that they are also present in the secretions from the nose.

We have known diphtheria to spread from a single case to four other children, all of whom used a pencil that had been infected by the original patient. These five children were the only ones who developed diphtheria in a school of 46 pupils, during the entire school term of nine months. We believe that the disease is very often spread in a similar manner.

In laryngeal diphtheria, where coughing is a prominent symptom, so that much spray is atomized in the room, contagion is more likely to take place than in cases that show no laryngeal involvement. During the period of convalescence the throat contains virulent diphtheria bacilli for weeks, and sometimes for months, and there is little doubt, therefore, that diphtheria is often spread by convalescents. "It has been shown that a person may harbor virulent bacilli in his nose and throat, and may even communicate the disease to others, without himself suffering from diphtheria at any time" (Holt). As a rule, virulent diphtheria bacilli may be recovered from the throat for from ten days to three weeks after the membrane has disappeared. In a study of 321 cases we found that the average time at which diphtheria bacilli could not be obtained from cultures after the membrane had disappeared was eleven days. The infection may be spread by means of clothing, rugs, and carpets, that have been soiled by the expectoration or the vomitus of the patient. Family epidemics are often the result of children playing upon the floor and contaminating their hands, and eventually conveying the bacilli to their lips. Again, epidemics have been known to follow the use of a drinking-cup or of a tooth-brush previously used by an infected individual. According to the researches of Rosenberger, the ordinary clinical thermometer is often the means of carrying diphtheria from the infected to the healthy.

Domestic animals may suffer from diphtheria, as has been demonstrated by the researches of Ravenel and others. The disease is found in pigeons, chickens, turkeys, and other fowl. Cats may suffer from diphtheria and spread the disease, but more often this is occasioned by a child suffering from the disease playing with the animal, and contaminating its fur with bacilli. Animals handled by sick children may come in contact with pets belonging to other families in the neighborhood, and the bacilli may be conveyed to these animals and thence to other children.

Incubation.—The period of incubation may vary greatly in different children and in different epidemics; *e. g.*, when most of the cases of a given epidemic are severe from the onset, the period of incubation is comparatively short,—two to four days,—whereas, on the other hand, in epidemics

in which the majority of the cases is of a mild type, the incubation stage varies between four and twelve days.

Tonsillar Diphtheria (Mild Diphtheria)

Principal Complaint.—In this type of diphtheria there are no prodromal symptoms characteristic of the disease, although in the majority of cases the child may have refused to play or have stated that he felt indisposed on the day preceding the development of symptoms. Mild headache and soreness of the muscles of the limbs, particularly those of the back and shoulders, may be experienced, and the child complains of feeling cold at various intervals throughout the day. Convulsions are rare in this type of diphtheria except in young subjects.

Thermic features are not pronounced, an elevation of temperature of from one-half to one and one-half degrees being the rule. There may be soreness of the throat during the first twenty-four to forty-eight hours, and a mild degree of discomfort on swallowing is to be expected.

Physical Signs.—Inspection.—During the first day the surface of the tonsils, uvula, and soft palate is congested, and presents a livid appearance; by the second day a false membrane may be seen upon the tonsils, which may later spread to any portion of the throat or nares. In this mild type of diphtheria the membrane tends to remain localized, and the child may not seem to be extremely ill; in fact, he may not refuse to take his food throughout the entire course of the disease.

It is through the medium of these mild cases of tonsillar diphtheria that epidemics are started, for in many instances the physician is not consulted until other children have been exposed. It must not be forgotten that these mild forms of diphtheria often discharge highly virulent bacilli with the mucus and expectoration from the throat, and, according to the investigations of the New York Board of Health, virulent bacilli are frequently cultivated from such cases.

Although many of these cases go undetected, a fairly large percentage of them develop albuminuria during the stage of convalescence, and, indeed, this may prove to be a true acute parenchymatous nephritis that subsequently becomes chronic. Postdiphtheritic paralysis, affecting the muscles of the throat or of the extremities, may follow mild types of diphtheria, but the complications common to the severer forms are, as a rule, absent.

Pharyngeal Diphtheria (Adenoid Diphtheria)

Principal Complaint.—In diphtheria localized to the pharynx the symptoms develop insidiously, and often several days elapse before the patient experiences any decided annoyance. During the development of pharyngeal diphtheria, however, such prodromata as languor, chilliness, and lack of energy are complained of.

Thermic Features.—The temperature usually fluctuates between 99° and 100° F., and may be normal during the morning hours.

Cardiac Symptoms.—There is a slight acceleration of the pulse-beats and as the disease progresses the pulse-rate may be out of all proportion to the mild degree of fever. The pulse may be weak, dicrotic, and intermittent, the quality being dependent upon the degree of intoxication.

Physical Signs.—Inspection and Palpation.—The lymph-nodes beneath the jaw are swollen and painful. In the milder types of pharyngeal diphtheria there may be only slight evidence of glandular enlargement. Glandular involvement, accompanied by a chill, even if the other symptoms are mild, should be regarded as strong evidence of the existence of diphtheria.

Examination of the throat discloses the fact that the mucous membrane of the pharynx is red and swollen, and in certain areas a variable degree of lividity is present. In this type of diphtheria the initial lesion is generally seen upon the mucous membrane of the tonsil, and the character of this exudate closely resembles that described under simple tonsillar diphtheria. The pseudomembrane spreads rapidly over the pharynx, soft palate, and uvula, and may involve the entire pharyngeal wall. It must be remembered that in true pharyngeal diphtheria the tonsils are also swollen and congested, and are not infrequently the site of the false membrane.

Nasal Diphtheria

Principal Complaint.—In severe cases of pharyngeal diphtheria the process is likely to extend to the nasal mucosa, and sometimes the initial lesion is situated upon this membrane, whence it may spread to the pharynx, tonsils, and, less often, to the larynx. It must be stated that every case of nasal diphtheria is not accompanied by well-marked constitutional symptoms, although the majority of them are severe in character. In mild types of nasal diphtheria the chief complaint is of inability to breathe freely through the nose and of coryza. *Inspection* of the nares with the head-mirror and speculum should always be made.

Thermic Features.—The thermic features of nasal diphtheria closely resemble those of the pharyngeal type, and are in no way characteristic. In a virulent type of infection the false membrane may extend from the nares to the conjunctiva.

Clinical Course and Duration.—In nasal diphtheria the course of the disease should be watched carefully, for there is, as a rule, special liability to the development of bronchopneumonia. Other complications common to pharyngeal diphtheria are also likely to develop in this type of the disease. Conjunctival involvement always renders the prognosis less favorable.

Laryngeal Diphtheria (Tracheal Diphtheria)

Laryngeal diphtheria is distinguishable from the types previously described in that the pseudomembrane forms upon the mucous surface of the larynx. Involvement of the laryngeal mucosa may occur without decided extension to the pharynx, nose, or tonsils, although, as a rule, the soft palate and the tonsils are involved. Laryngeal diphtheria differs in its symptomatology from the other types of diphtheria by the existence of a metallic cough and a peculiar harsh tone of voice.

Clinical Course and Duration.—The prognosis rests upon the degree of laryngeal obstruction and the intensity of the cyanosis. When the patient is unable to rest in the recumbent posture, but sits bent forward, grasping some object firmly with both hands, relief is indicated and is absolutely essential to recovery. Death may result either from a portion of the detached membrane obstructing the larynx, or from the lodgment of particles of membrane in the bronchi, with the production of pneumonia. Bacteriologic studies may be negative.

Mild cases of laryngeal diphtheria terminate in recovery in from ten to fifteen days. In the severer forms convalescence is more or less protracted, and recovery is not complete for weeks or months. Complications are unusually frequent in laryngeal diphtheria. Before the introduction of the antitoxin treatment the percentage of deaths from laryngeal diphtheria was extremely high, and even now probably exceeds that of any other type of the disease.

Wound Diphtheria

Infection of wounds with the bacillus diphtheriæ is decidely uncommon, yet a few such cases have been seen.

Laboratory Diagnosis of Diphtheritic Disease of the Throat. Cultures made from bits of false membrane taken from the different areas and from the saliva develop colonies of the bacillus diphtheriæ. It must be remembered that the diphtheria bacillus grows best upon a special medium made from blood-serum. It is unusual to obtain a pure culture of the bacillus diphtheriæ from the patches in the throat or the nose, but colonies of other bacilli, cocci, and spirilla are likely to be present in the same culture. Smears made from the culture should be stained with Löffler's alkaline methylene-blue in order to demonstrate the presence of bacillus diphtheriæ.

In the majority of instances a diagnosis of diphtheria is made from a cultural study of the false membrane, but it must be remembered that other bacilli, whose cultural and tinctorial properties are similar to those of bacillus diphtheriæ, are also present in the throat. The only positive evidence to be had that we are not dealing with the bacillus pseudodiphtheriæ (bacillus xerosis) is obtained by injecting a portion of a bouillon culture of the suspected organism into a rabbit or a guinea-pig. The injection of such a culture will kill the animal in twenty-four or forty-eight hours if the organism is the bacillus diphtheriæ.

In *post-diphtheritic paralysis* the spinal fluid is clear and under slight pressure. Wassermann reaction is negative, cell count 10 per c.mm., small lymphocytes predominating. Globulin is increased in 30 per cent. of patients, and the colloidal gold reaction is conspicuous in the first six dilutions and subsides during convalescence.

Early during the course of diphtheria the quantity of urine excreted is greatly diminished; its specific gravity is increased; its color is high; and, as the disease progresses, albuminuria is likely to develop. During the first week of the disease the diazo-reaction will be found positive in from 10 to 15 per cent. of all cases. Microscopically, the urine contains few red blood-cells, many leukocytes, degenerated renal epithelium, and casts. Conradi and Bierast have recovered diphtheria bacilli from the urine of infected children.

Summary of Diagnosis.—The detection of the characteristic membrane in the throat, the pronounced circulatory symptoms, mild fever, albuminuria, and prostration, all point strongly toward the existence of diphtheria. The diagnosis is confirmed by the finding of the bacillus diphtheriæ in the cultures.

The hemoglobin content falls to between 75 and 65 per cent. during the first week of diphtheria, and the red cells are greatly decreased in number by the beginning of the third week. Leukocytosis is an early feature of diphtheria, and its degree is dependent, as a rule, on the severity of the infection.

Differential Diagnosis.—Infections of the throat that might readily be mistaken for diphtheria are: *Acute follicular tonsillitis, acute pharyngitis, streptococcus angina, and scarlet fever.*

Streptococcus angina is a condition in which there is an extensive formation of pseudomembrane on the throat, due to infection with the streptococcus. It is to be distinguished from diphtheria by the intense pain, abrupt development, and the absence of albuminuria and of glandular involvement. The accompanying table shows the distinctive features of acute follicular tonsillitis, diphtheria, and scarlet fever:

Follicular Tonsillitis	Diphtheria	Scarlet Fever
1. Premonitory symptoms are mild sore throat, headache, and constipation.	1. Premonitory symptoms often absent or indistinct.	1. There is usually lassitude for a few hours, and nausea and vomiting may be the cardinal symptoms.
2. Onset with a chill, which may be either mild or severe.	2. No rigor or chilly sensations may be experienced.	2. Chill may be the initial symptom.
3. Temperature reaches 102° to 104° F., within a few hours after the chill, and remains high for a few days unless reduced by the administration of sodium salicylate.	3. Temperature, 99° to 101° F., by the end of the first day. Not influenced by salicylates, but falls after injection of diphtheria antitoxin.	3. Temperature ranges between 102° and 106° F., immediately following the chill. Fever is in proportion to the amount of eruption, and usually declines as this disappears.
4. Pulse, 90 to 110 a minute, bounding, but not wiry. The frequency is dependent upon the temperature.	4. Pulse may be rapid, but beats are less forcible than in either tonsillitis or scarlet fever. Tends to become irregular and compressible.	4. Pulse is greatly accelerated—120 to 140 a minute, bounding, hard, wiry, and out of proportion to the temperature.
5. Eruption unusual and not characteristic.	5. No characteristic eruption, although varied forms of eruption are occasionally seen.	5. Eruption appears during the first thirty-six hours. It is diffuse, dusky red, with an occasional slightly raised spot. It is seen first in the region of the clavicles and chest, but spreads to all parts of the body. The skin is intensely hot, and pressure over the back or chest causes a decided paling. Eruption fades within forty-eight to seventy-two hours.
6. Lymphatic glands of throat and neck are greatly enlarged, except when complicated by peritonsillar abscess.	6. Glands of the neck enlarged early, and have a peculiar, stony feel.	6. Glands not enlarged at first, but later show enlargement.
7. Tongue is heavily coated with a whitish or yellowish fur. Later, the tongue may be intensely red and show marking of the teeth along its edges.	7. Tongue slightly coated, but not characteristic.	7. Tongue is coated with a thick white fur, which peels from the edges on the fourth day, leaving a bright-red surface. Small red elevations (strawberry tongue) are seen scattered here and there.
8. Redness localized to the tonsils. Small elevated yellowish spots over the surface of the tonsils, which, when removed leave only a reddened surface.	8. Grayish or silvery membrane on the tonsils, but more often on the pillars of the fauces and the soft palate. When removed leaves a bleeding surface.	8. Fauces are either a slight or intense dusky red. Marked swelling of the throat, and in some instances isolated white spots, are to to be seen.

Follicular Tonsillitis	Diphtheria	Scarlet Fever
9. Membrane, when removed, seldom reforms.	9. A new pseudomembrane reforms after the initial one has been removed.	9. Membrane absent.
10. Albuminuria absent.	10. Albuminuria occurs as early as the second or third day, and may continue throughout convalescence.	10. Albuminuria seldom appears until after desquamation has begun.
11. No desquamation.	11. Desquamation absent.	11. Extensive desquamation, beginning from the sixth to the tenth day, and continuing for from one to several weeks. Desquamation is pronounced upon the palms of the hands and the soles of feet.
12. Complications are rare.	12. Ear and eye complications are quite common. Pneumonia and post-diphtheric paralysis frequent.	12. Otitis media, with consequent deafness, is the most frequent complication. Arthritis, endocarditis, and suppuration of the submaxillary glands are less frequent. Pericarditis, epilepsy, endocarditis, and mental weakness have been observed.
13. Cultures from the surface of the tonsil and from pus from the abscess do not show diphtheria bacilli, but contain other organisms.	13. Both smears and cultures from the false membrane show diphtheria bacilli.	13. Cultures from the throat show streptococci and diplococci, the latter being pathogenic for hogs, rats and other animals.

Clinical Course and Duration.—In every case of diphtheria the course of the disease is dependent upon the following conditions: (1) The virulence of the type of infection; (2) the age of the patient—the older the child, the more favorable the prognosis; (3) the institution of proper treatment within the first twenty-four hours, antitoxin being of limited value unless administered early; (4) the presence or absence of complications; (5) history of previous attacks—in repeated attacks each subsequent infection tends to be more mild than the preceding one, although exceptions to this rule are fairly common.

The mortality rate for diphtheria has lately been reduced from 40 to about 20 per cent., and this change coincides closely with the introduction of serum therapy. The prognosis should always be given guardedly, for even the mildest cases may develop serious complications, *e. g.*, nephritis and multiple neuritis.

The prognosis is also governed by the rapidity and strength of the heart-beats. In unfavorable cases the pulse becomes weak, rapid, and dicrotic. If the pulse is irregular and the heart action extremely slow, the prognosis is grave.

Cases of nephritis usually recover from the initial attack, and the patient is able to get about the house in from six to ten weeks, but the nephritis is likely to recur within the course of a year or more.

During the acute stage of diphtheria death may result from laryngeal stenosis, the inspiration of false membrane into the bronchi, with a resultant bronchopneumonia, septic infection, and cardiac paralysis.

Complications.—The most frequent complication occurring in diphtheria is **bronchopneumonia,** and this is most common in cases of diphtheria of the larynx, and when interference with either respiration or deglutition is present. The presence of bronchopneumonia aggravates all the symptoms of diphtheria, and, in addition, is responsible for many of the symptoms known to this infection. (See Bronchopneumonia, p. 860.)

Dysphagia occasionally complicates diphtheria, and is an unfavorable accompaniment.

Neuritis seldom appears until the third or fourth week of the disease, and often not until convalescence is apparently well established. The child suddenly notices that upon attempting to swallow food or liquid it is regurgitated through the nose. Paralyses are most likely to involve the muscles of the soft palate, yet paralysis of the extremities is ordinarily seen, when the knee and biceps reflexes are absent. Rarely, indeed, is paralysis of the muscles of the trunk observed.

Albuminuria, when marked, should be considered under the head of complications, although a mild degree of albuminuria is a symptom of practically all forms of diphtheria, and, in the absence of a bacteriologic study, is of great importance in formulating a diagnosis. When the amount of albumin excreted is very high, the gravity of the disease is enhanced. In *acute nephritis* with anuria the prognosis is unfavorable.

Ocular Complications.—The false membrane may extend to the conjunctiva, in which case the prognosis is grave. *Strabismus* is occasionally seen, and still less often there is paralysis of the ciliary muscles, with dimness of vision and disturbed accommodation.

Otitis media is a frequent complication, and with its development all the constitutional symptoms of diphtheria are aggravated. Impairment of hearing, or even total deafness, may follow, and there may also be a chronic otorrhea.

Myocarditis.—The *heart* muscle is perceptibly weakened, and this weakness is characterized by a distinctly feeble pulse. The heart-sounds are weak, and in extreme cases the muscular quality of the systolic sound is absent. A moderate degree of cardiac dilatation is present. Not infrequently death results from cardiac failure, the final change being that of acute dilatation.

The more marked the myocarditis, the more pronounced is the *anemia* during convalescence; it is quite impossible to restore the blood to its normal tone unless the heart be well fortified. Both the anemia and the myocarditis are due to the diphtheria toxin.

MEASLES

Pathologic Definition.—An acute infectious disease, characterized by the presence of a catarrhal inflammation of the respiratory mucous membrane. The only lesions that are constant are those on the skin and mucous membranes. The cutaneous manifestations consist of a superficial inflammation, accompanied by congestion and by an exudation of round-cells in the region of the smaller blood-vessels and around the sweat-glands. The skin, particularly of the face, is somewhat edematous. The mucous surfaces are involved quite as commonly as is the skin, consequently catarrhal conjunctivitis, rhinitis, pharyngitis, and tracheobronchitis are present.

COMMUNICABLE DISEASES IN THE UNITED STATES AS REPORTED TO THE UNITED STATES PUBLIC HEALTH SERVICE

Average for the years 1913 to 1919

Disease	No. of Cases	Case Rate in 1000 of Population	Death Rate in 1000 of Population
Measles	404,548	5.2	0.11
Diphtheria	110,992	1.3	0.16
Scarlet fever	100,321	1.2	0.03
Typhoid fever	59,103	0.7	0.12
Smallpox	37,085	0.4	0.005
Cerebrospinal meningitis	21,998	0.04	0.04

Exciting and Predisposing Factors.—Bacteriology.—The coccus described by Caronia is to be given consideration as an etiologic factor in measles since the cause of the disease is unknown. Weaver and Crooks have confirmed the value of convalescent serum, in the prevention of measles, when injected intramuscularly, as originally suggested in 1916 by Nicolle and Conseil of Tunis. The lesions of the respiratory tract show the presence of staphylococci and streptococci, and in some cases one organism may predominate, whereas in others, almost equally severe, the reverse condition obtains. Both steptococci and staphylococci may be present in the sputum, and the pneumococcus and other diplococci may also be recovered. In those cases in which bronchopneumonia complicates measles, the bacteriologic findings are practically identical with those described under Bronchopneumonia. (See p. 860.) Lucke and Ray site an epidemic of measles in an army camp where infection of the pulmonary tissues by an hemolytic streptococcus was an unique feature. This organism was also present where otitis media was a complication.

Parasitology.—Rosenberger and others have studied a doubtful parasite (protozoön?) found in the blood of those suffering from measles. Certain observers assert that they have found specific bacteria in the blood and on incising the lesions of this disease.

Measles is usually spread by *direct contagion*, although the disease is occasionally transmitted by clothing and furniture. Goetze* succeeded in transmitting the disease to swine by injecting the patient's blood during the eruptive stage of measles. Mallory and Medlar,† regard the skin lesions of measles as focal in character. These writers removed small pieces of skin from 35 patients during the eruptive stage of the disease. Small bodies that gave a positive reaction to Gram stain were found in the endothelial cells of the capillaries.

Immunity.—One attack of measles generally establishes permanent immunity.

Age.—Age figures prominently as a predisposing factor, the majority of cases being seen during childhood and after the third year of life. The disease rarely attacks children under one year of age, and the infant members of a family in which all the older children are affected frequently escape infection. The aged who have not suffered from a previous attack of measles are less likely to develop the disease than are those in the first, second, and third decades of life. Experience has shown

* Jahrbuch für Kinderhk., August, 1912.

† Jour. of Med. Research, Boston, March, 1920.

that measles is highly contagious by direct exposure, especially when children are permitted to associate with those ill with the disease.

Period of Incubation.—Holt, in an analysis of 144 cases in which the incubation period could be definitely determined, gives the following table:

Incubation of less than nine days	3 cases
Incubation of nine or ten days	22 cases
Incubation of eleven to fourteen days	95 cases
Incubation of fifteen to seventeen days	19 cases
Incubation of eighteen to twenty-five days	5 cases

It will be seen from the preceding table that in 66 per cent. of cases the incubation period varied between eleven and fourteen days; that in but a single instance was it less than one week; and in but three cases did it develop before the ninth day.

Duration of the Infective Period.—This is short as compared with scarlet fever, the average time being placed at four weeks, but

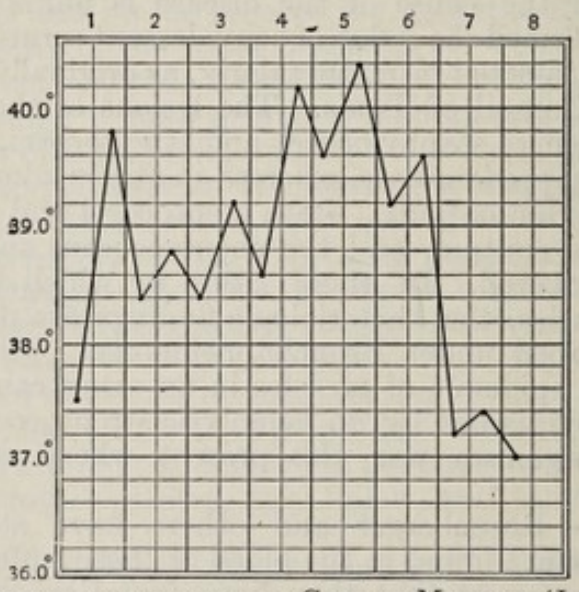


FIG. 340.—TEMPERATURE-CURVE OF A CASE OF MEASLES (J. M. Anders).

instances are recorded in which, apparently, a child has conveyed the disease to another thirty days after the appearance of the rash. Those ill of the disease are capable of transmitting it to others after the appearance of the catarrhal symptoms referable to the respiratory tract, and there are apparently authentic records of cases in which the disease was transmitted to others two to four days before the eruption developed.

Principal Complaint.—There are, as a rule, marked prodromal manifestations, the patient complaining of headache, malaise, constipation, soreness and aching of the muscles, and photophobia for two or three days.

Catarrhal Stage.—The early symptoms resemble those of a cold in the head. The child has fever, marked coryza, lacrimation, and a dry *cough*, and sneezes frequently. The symptoms of a catarrhal laryngitis and bronchitis are also present, and there is an abundant secretion from the respiratory mucous membrane, as well as from the conjunctivæ. There is aching of the back and limbs.

Physical Signs.—Inspection.—The mucous membrane of the fauces, tonsils, and pharynx is congested, and an eruption may be seen upon the mucous membrane of the cheeks, palate, and the lips. This eruption,

which is known as *Koplik's spots,* is composed of bluish-white specks surrounded by a red areola. It is found on the buccal mucous membrane two or three days before the rash appears on the skin. These spots should be sought for in strong daylight, since artificial light does not bring out the colors nor properly illuminate the spots. Very frequently they are seen only opposite the molar teeth.

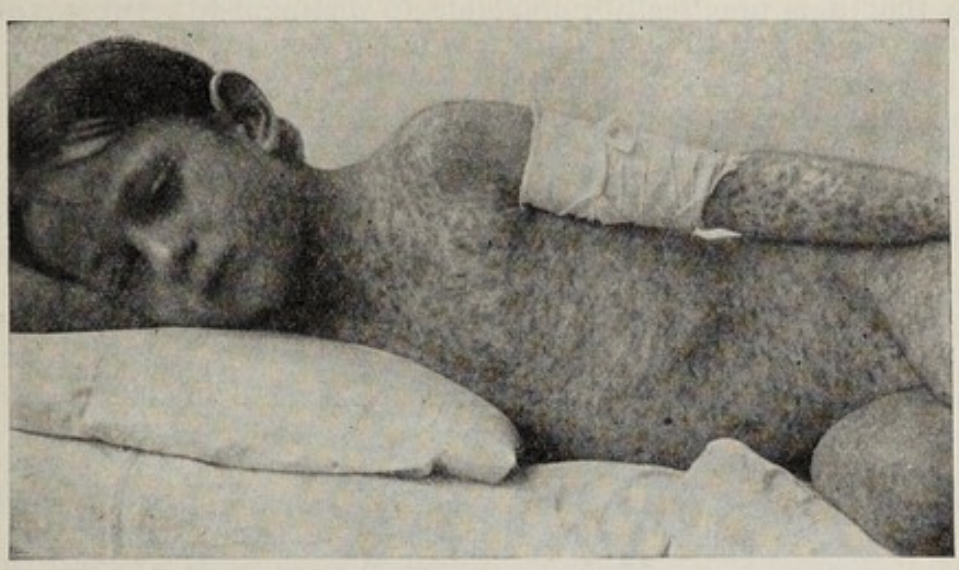


FIG. 341.—WELL-MARKED MEASLES ERUPTION ON THE FIFTH DAY OF THE DISEASE (Welch and Schamberg).

Eruptive Stage.—*Principal Complaint.*—This is highly characteristic. With the appearance of the eruption there may be a slight amelioration in certain of the constitutional symptoms. (See Thermic Features.) The cough may now become metallic or ringing in character, and in certain cases this constitutes the most annoying symptom. Headache, which has been persistent during the preëruptive stage, may now ameliorate or subside.

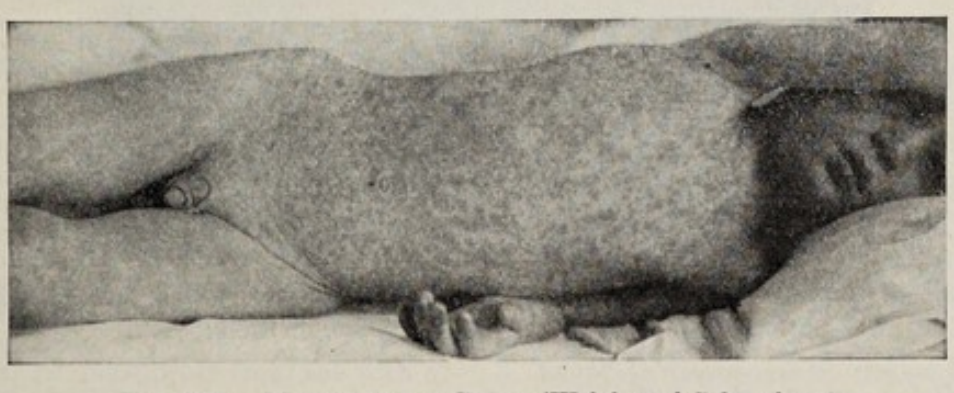


FIG. 342.—MEASLES IN A CHILD (Welch and Schamberg).

Thermic Features.—The temperature, which during the preëruptive stage may have registered as high as 103° or 105° F., falls with the development of the rash, and remains at a much lower level during the eruptive stage (Fig. 340). At about the fifth or sixth day there is a decided abatement in the severity of all the symptoms, particularly those referable to the respiratory tract and to the eyes.

Physical Signs.—Inspection.—Initial Eruption.—At the onset of the disease, and within the first twelve hours after the child shows some indis-

position and headache, there is an almost universal reddening of the skin resembling a faint scarlatinal eruption. This prodromal eruption disappears within a few hours, and at the time of its disappearance Koplik's spots make their appearance on the buccal mucous membrane. The physician seldom detects the inital rash because the patient is not seen until this feature of the disease has disappeared. Experience has shown that it is practically impossible to distinguish between the pre-eruptive stage and the mild attack of scarlet fever, and the diag-

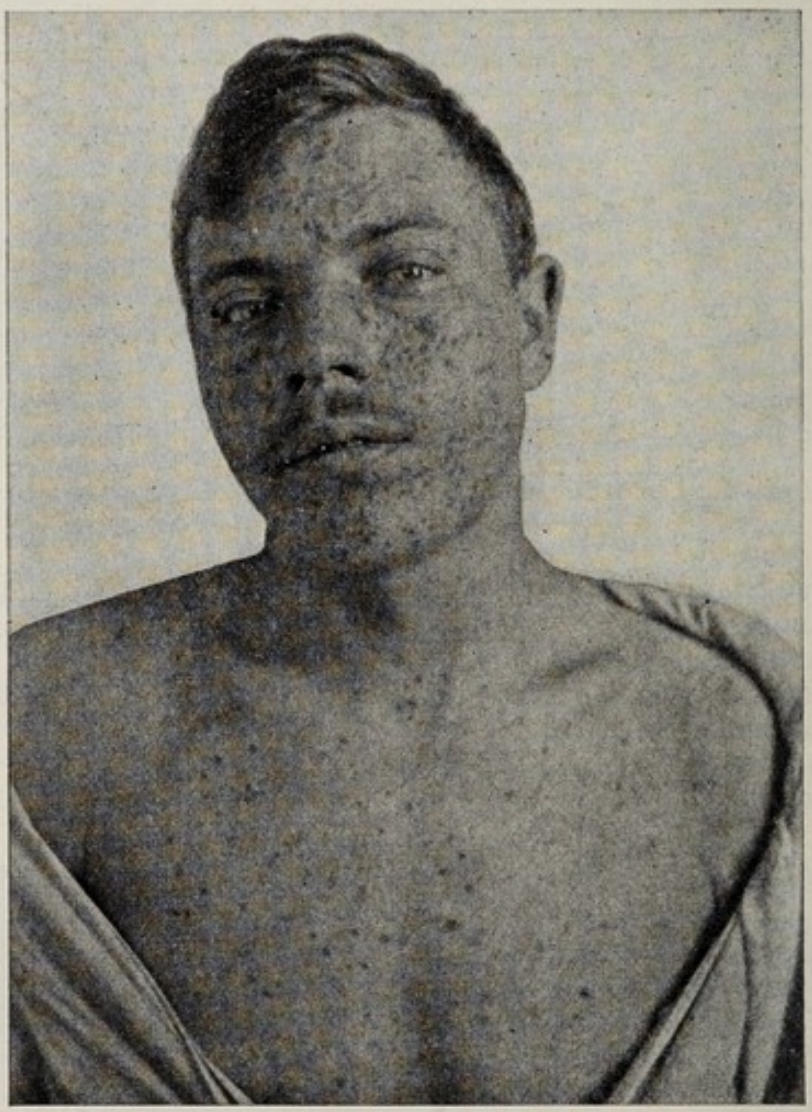


FIG. 343.—MEASLES OF THE PAPULAR TYPE IN AN ADULT (Welch and Schamberg). Mistaken, during a variolous epidemic, for smallpox.

nosis is usually made at the time of the appearance Koplik's spots or of the typical eruption. The typical rash makes its appearance during the fourth day of the disease, and is seen first upon the face, neck, and forehead, spreading thence to the trunk and extremities. As the result of the swelling the features are somewhat distorted, and those portions of the face not affected by the eruption are intensely red. There is always a distinct discharge from the conjunctivæ, which are greatly congested. Photophobia is an early and constant feature. The eruption of measles is composed of small, disk-like papules, which show a tendency to coalesce giving to the skin a more or less blotched appearance. The eruption

becomes more and more profuse, and within the course of two or three days the trunk and extremities are well covered. By the end of the fifth or the sixth days the eruption has attained its height (Fig. 341), and an appreciable fading now begins, first involving the face and neck, and then extending over the body and extremities. Following this a fine branlike desquamation spreads over the body in the same topographic manner, the skin now displaying a flushed or somewhat mottled appearance.

Laboratory Diagnosis.—The **sputum** secreted is increased, and contains many microörganisms, staphylococci, and streptococci. Czajkamski has described a special motile bacillus, which was decolorized by Gram's method. Schottelius has isolated the staphylococcus pyogenes aureus from the conjunctivæ, and pathogenic bacteria may also be discovered in the viscera in fatal cases.

The *urine* is decreased in quantity and high in color and in specific gravity, and during the height of the febrile period may contain a trace of albumin. In those cases complicated by nephritis both albumin and casts are present, and occasionally hematuria is observed. The *diazo-reaction* is found in nearly all cases of measles, at least in the earlier stages.

Constipation obtains during the febrile period, but after the eruption has fully developed, and even during convalescence, diarrhea often forms one of the annoying complications.

Summary of Diagnosis.—The diagnosis is, as a rule, doubtful until the characteristic eruption appears. During the preëruptive stage a provisional diagnosis, based upon the following symptoms, may be made: Headache, malaise, chilly sensations, anorexia, pain in the eyeballs, intolerance of light, and the presence of Koplik's spots upon the mucous membrane of the mouth. With the appearance of the characteristic eruption the diagnosis is confirmed (see Eruptive Stage, p. 937); this eruption fades from the fifth to the sixth day, and is followed by a branny desquamation.

Differential Diagnosis.—Measles is to be distinguished, first, from **scarlet fever,** and the following table sets forth the distinctive clinical features of these two diseases:

Measles	Scarlet Fever
1. History of exposure to measles.	1. History of exposure or of an epidemic of scarlet fever.
2. Prodromal symptoms continue for three days.	2. Prodromal period short.
3. Symptoms become more and more intense until the development of the eruption by the end of the third or fourth day.	3. Symptoms violent both before and after the appearance of the rash, which is seen by the end of the first twenty-four to thirty-six hours.
4. Fever falls just before the rash appears and after the eruption is fully developed.	4. Fever remains high.
5. Eruption disappears from the fifth to the sixth day.	5. Eruption disappears by the second to the third or fourth day.
6. Eruption maculopapular.	6. Eruption erythematous and punctate.
7. Cough and catarrhal conjunctivitis.	7. Cough less prominent.
8. Photophobia is an annyoing feature.	8. Photophobia absent.
9 There may be slight albuminuria.	9. Albuminuria is common, especially during convalescence.
10. Tongue is heavily coated, and often swollen, with Koplik's spots upon the buccal mucous membrane.	10. Characteristic strawberry tongue.
11. Tendency toward the development of bronchopneumonia and eye complications.	11. Renal and cardiac complications quite common.
12. Negative.	12. Pulse very rapid.

Measles	Scarlet Fever
13. Pulse full and of fair tension, numbering 100 to 110 beats a minute.	13. Pulse full and bounding and of high tension, 120 to 140 beats a minute.
14. Bran-like desquamation by the end of the sixth or beginning of the seventh day, and continuing for approximately one week.	14. Desquamation is scale-like, and may continue for from three to six or more weeks. Entire casts of the hands, fingers, or foot may be given off, and the palms of the hands and the soles of the feet are the last to be concerned in this process.
15. The leukocytes are normal or subnormal in number.	15. Leukocytosis is present.

The accompanying table, taken from Rotch, shows the differential points between measles and other acute infections for which it is likely to be mistaken:

	Measles	Variola	Varicella	Scarlet Fever	Rubella
Incubation.....	10 days	12 days	17 days	4 days	21 days
Prodromata....	3 days	3 days	A few hours	2 days	A few hours
Efflorescence...	Papules	Macules Papules Vesicles Pustules	Vesicles	Erythema	Papules
Desquamation..	Furfuraceous	Large crusts	Small crusts	Lamellar	
Complications and sequelæ...	Eye and lung	Larynx Lungs		Kidney, ear and heart	

Clinical Course and Duration.—The clinical course is divided into three states: (1) The preëruptive stage, previously described; (2) the eruptive stage (see p. 937); and (3) the stage of defervescence. The time required for convalescence to be well established varies between ten and sixteen days. In mild cases of the disease in children desquamation may be nearly completed by the tenth or twelfth day, but in adults, in whom the clinical expression of the disease is more severe, a longer period is required. See Japanese Epidemic, p. 903.

Complications.—These consist chiefly of pulmonary affections, among which **bronchopneumonia** is prominent 12½ per cent.; **lobar pneumonia, purulent bronchitis,** and **chronic bronchitis** are less frequent. **Otitis media** and **simple catarrh of the middle ear** are seen in 20 per cent. of severe cases. **Chronic conjunctivitis, blepharitis,** and **ulceration of the cornea** are by no means unusual. **Nephritis** is occasionally observed when patients are subjected to exposure (cold and wet) during the preëruptive stage or before convalescence is completed. **Gastro-intestinal catarrh** may continue for weeks or even months after an attack of measles. Brewer collected reports of 2705 cases of bronchopneumonia following measles with 888 deaths, or 42.7 per cent.

RUBELLA

(Rötheln; German Measles; French Measles)

Pathologic Definition.—An acute infectious disease, characterized by enlargement of the postcervical glands and the presence of a cutaneous eruption.

Predisposing Factors.—Rubella may occur either epidemically or sporadically. It is generally conceded to be of probable microbic origin, although the specific organism capable of exciting the disease has not as yet been determined. Exposure to the disease appears to be a prominent factor in the majority of instances. House and local epidemics in schools and homes are common. The disease spreads more rapidly in those places in which unhygienic surroundings prevail.

Immunity.—One attack usually establishes immunity, although, in 719 cases studied by us, second attacks occurred in 2.5 per cent.

Incubation Period.—In the vast majority of instances the stage of incubation continues for from ten to sixteen days, but there are exceptional cases in which typical clinical pictures of the disease are seen for three or four days after exposure; on the other hand, cases have developed as late as from the twentieth to the twenty-fifth days following exposure.

Principal Complaint.—Stage of Invasion.—This stage is fairly distinct, and usually persists for from one to three days. The patient complains of feeling indisposed for a period of a few days before the appearance of the rash, and *mild chills*, vague *pains* in different portions of the body, lassitude, feverishness, moderate soreness of the throat, a mild constriction or band-like sensation about the chest, and the symptoms of acute bronchitis occur. After the *eruption* has developed, itching may become intolerable. In mild forms of the disease the initial symptoms may be indefinite or absent, the first indication of ill health being the appearance of the eruption.

Thermic Features.—The eruption is, as a rule, preceded by the onset of moderate fever, the temperature varying between 99° and 100° F.; in exceptionally severe forms, however, it may reach 102° to 103° F. The temperature does not subside with the appearance of the eruption, but remains at or near 100° to 102° F. until the eruptive stage has run its course.

Physical Signs.—Inspection.—*The Eruption.*—In typical cases there is an appreciable enlargement of the *postcervical lymph-nodes*, and the characteristic *eruption* consists of papules and is multiform, confluent, and pale rose-red in color. These patches seldom assume any special form, the skin between them being hyperemic. The rash is completely developed on different parts of the body in successive crops, and while it may be fading in one portion of the body, it may be appearing in another part. The *duration* of the eruption varies in different cases, two to five or more days being the usual period. *Desquamation* occurs in the majority of cases, and there may be slight evidence of pigmentation after the eruption has disappeared, which usually occurs in from three to seven days. The throat is congested, the tonsils are swollen, and their covering mucous membrane is reddened.

Palpation confirms the findings of inspection with reference to the enlargement of the cervical lymph-nodes and the moderate roughening of the skin. The *pulse* is increased in frequency, of moderate tension, and the respiratory movements are also slightly more frequent than normal.

Summary of Diagnosis.—The diagnosis is based largely upon the absence of severe constitutional symptoms, the character of the eruption, glandular enlargement, and the establishment of convalescence by the end of the first week.

Differential Diagnosis.—Rubella is to be distinguished from **measles** by the extreme mildness of its course and the absence of marked catarrhal symptoms referable to the respiratory tract and conjunctivæ.

The eruption of rubella is also a distinctive feature, appearing, as it does, in successive crops. The presence of epidemics should be taken into consideration in differentiating rubella from measles. In rubella the fever does not show a decided fall—a condition that is characteristic of measles. (See Fig. 340.)

Scarlet fever is differentiated from rubella by the fact that in the latter the symptoms are exceedingly mild, whereas in the former disease graver

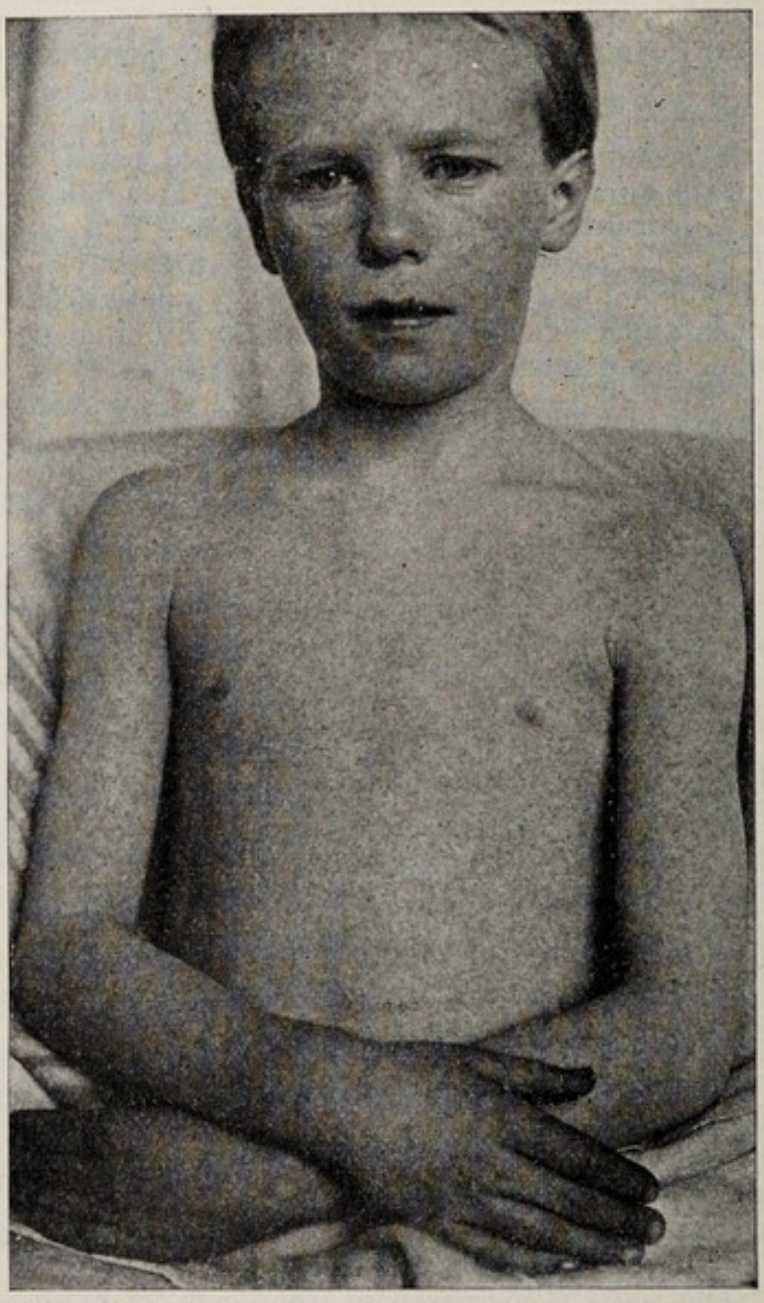


Fig. 344.—Rubella—Characteristic Eruption upon Trunk (Welch and Schamberg).

symptoms are manifested at some period during its course. The eruption of scarlet fever is erythematous, whereas that of rubella appears in successive crops. The absence of albuminuria and the character of the desquamation will also serve to distinguish this disease from scarlet fever. In general, the short course, the mildness of the attack, and the absence of complications serve to differentiate rubella from scarlet fever, measles, and other more virulent infections. The accompanying table, modified

from Anders, shows the points of differentiation between *rubella, erythema,* and *urticaria:*

Rubella	Erythema	Urticaria
1. The rash occurs first on the face.	1. The eruption is first seen on the hands and feet.	1. The eruption occurs in the form of wheals on the arms and leg.
2. Enlargement of cervical lymph-nodes.	2. No enlargement of cervical lymph-nodes.	2. No enlargement present.
3. At first there is no itching.	3. Burning pain present.	3. Intense itching is a prominent feature.
4. The disease is contagious.	4. The disease is not contagious.	4. The condition is not contagious.
5. The affection has a probable microbic origin.	5. This condition is of reflex origin.	5. Origin is gastro-intestinal.

Clinical Course.—The average case proceeds to convalescence by the end of the first week.

Complications.—These are less common than in measles and scarlet fever, although the following complications may be encountered: severe **bronchitis, bronchopneumonia, gastro-intestinal catarrh,** and other **acute infectious fevers. Relapses** are quite common, and each attack may be as severe as the initial seizure.

MUMPS

(Epidemic Parotitis)

Pathologic Definition.—An acute infectious disease, characterized anatomically by enlargement of one or of both parotid glands.

Predisposing Factors.—Mumps is spread by contagion, and the disease is transmitted by close contact with a patient so afflicted. There are doubtful cases in which epidemic parotitis may have been conveyed from the sick by one healthy person to another. Mumps is a highly contagious affection.

Age is not without influence, the majority of cases occurring between the fourth and the tenth year; cases under one year are very rare. A child may transmit mumps to several other children before displaying any positive symptoms himself, and he may continue to carry the infection to others for from three to ten days after all swelling of the parotid glands has subsided.

Period of Incubation.—This lasts, as a rule, between ten and fourteen days, the majority of cases developing upon the seventeenth day.

Principal Complaint.—The stage of invasion is mild, and such prodromata as lassitude, headache, vague pains in the muscles, and slight stiffness of the jaw muscles are experienced. By the second day there may be considerable pain upon swallowing, more particularly when opening the mouth or upon taking acids (vinegar). Bradycardia, optic neuritis, and rigidity of the neck muscles are seen in severe cases.

Thermic Features.—The temperature ranged between 99° and 101° F., but in severe cases the fever may reach 103° or even 104° F. Ringing in the ears and earache may develop on the second or third day, and the child may manifest a variable degree of deafness. Nausea and epigastric distress may be annoying.

Dryness of the Mouth and Salivation.—One of the chief annoyances of epidemic parotitis is the dryness of the mouth, which is frequently persistent from the onset of the disease to the fourth or sixth days, at which time the secretion of saliva may be normal or even increased. A few authentic cases have been reported in which salivation accompanied epidemic parotitis throughout the entire course of the disease.

Clinical Eccentricities.—It may be well to emphasize here that although mumps is a mild type of infection, in adults it may be accompanied by severe constitutional symptoms. Deglutition is difficult, and occasionally impossible, for an indefinite period. Pressure by the enlarged glands upon the veins of the neck may cause venous congestion of the brain, which is followed by cerebral symptoms, the most marked of which is delirium. Gastro-intestinal symptoms suggestive of the typhoid state may be present, but even in these severe cases the symptoms subside by the seventh day.

Physical Signs.—Inspection.—There is a pyriform swelling in front of the ear, extending down into the neck and forward onto the jaw. Both parotid glands are commonly affected, but in more than 50 per cent. of cases in which unilateral involvement is seen the left parotid is first attacked, and from one to two weeks later the opposite side is similarly affected. As a rule, the second attack of parotitis is milder than the first. Between the third and the seventh day of the disease extensive swelling of the other glands of the neck may take place. Tenderness in the epigastrium is occasionally present and is claimed to be due to associated pancreatitis.

Laboratory Findings.—Lumbar puncture usually recovers a clear fluid which contains an excess of lymphocytes. Haden* describes Gram-positive cocci present in the spinal fluid of one case in a series of 479 observations. R. L. Haden† found a gram-positive diplococcus in blood cultures from 9 persons suffering from mumps. The same organism was found in cultures and smears from the spinal fluid, and from involved glands. The organism grows slowly on blood-agar.

The spinal fluid presents an increased cell count, which concerns mostly the mononuclear elements.

Haden believes that a gram-positive diplococcus, and not a filterable virus is the exciting factor in mumps.

Summary of Diagnosis.—The prominent features on which to base a diagnosis of epidemic parotitis are swelling of the parotid glands extending to the front of the ear, stiffness of the jaws, with slight pain, diminished secretion or absence of saliva, acute pain on introducing acids into the mouth, and the presence of mild constitutional symptoms.

Clinical Course and Duration.—Uncomplicated cases of epidemic parotitis tend to go on to spontaneous recovery, which is completed by the end of the second week. In complicated cases recovery is delayed for from one to three weeks, depending upon the nature of the complications.

Complications.—Orchitis is the most frequent complication of epidemic parotitis, and this condition seldom, if ever, develops in patients under twelve years of age. After puberty, and in young men, orchitis is particularly common; it may be either unilateral or bilateral, and is accompanied by more or less swelling, extreme pain, and marked constitutional symptoms. Only the substance of the testicles is involved, whereas the epididymis is seldom attacked. Orchitis is usually followed by enlargement of the involved gland for a period of weeks, months, or even years, and there may be atrophy of the glandular structure.

Otitis media, although by no means a frequent complication, may occur and result in impairment of the auditory function. Piece collected 40 instances from the literature, in which deafness followed epidemic parotitis.

* Arch. Int. Med., June, 1919.
† Amer. Jour. Med. Sci., Nov., 1919.

Uveoparotitic paralysis describes the syndrome including parotitis, polyneuritis and iridocyclitis.

Mastitis, ovaritis, and vulvitis may complicate epidemic parotitis in adult females but are practically unknown in children. Mastitis is characterized by swelling, pain, and tenderness of one or both breasts. The first symptoms are observed during the second or third week of the disease, and ordinarily last for from two to four days. Ovaritis also develops late, and is characterized by intense abdominal pain, which may be cramp-like in character. Vulvitis and vulvovaginitis are somewhat more common than the two preceding conditions, and are characterized by intense inflammation and swelling of the vulvovaginal mucous membrane.

Nephritis is extremely uncommon, although a few authentic cases have been recorded. In these cases it is probable that the patient suffered from nephritis prior to the attack of mumps.

WHOOPING-COUGH (PERTUSSIS)

Pathologic Definition.—An acute infectious disease, characterized by the sudden onset of a catarrhal inflammation of the respiratory mucous membrane, and later by a similar inflammatory process involving the conjunctivæ, lacrimal duct, and, less often, the Eustachian tube and middle ear. The inflammatory process may extend to the smaller bronchi and air-cells, and gives rise to isolated areas of pulmonary consolidation or pulmonary collapse. In severe types of the disease pulmonary congestion and edema are present, and bronchopneumonia may develop as a complication. The pathologic changes in the bronchial mucosa are determined largely by physical examination, since uncomplicated cases seldom if ever, come to autopsy. The mucous surface of both the respiratory and the digestive tract may be covered with a viscid mucous exudate. Experiments of Mallory, Hoernor, and Henderson point strongly to the Bordet-Gengou bacillus as the exciting factor in pertussis.

Incubation Period and Immunity.—This is usually from seven to ten days. Immunity is established by injection of special vaccine. Hayano has isolated four types of bacillus pertussis. Type I is seen in 16; Type II in 10; Type III in 42; and Type IV in approximately 30 per cent. of cases.

Modigliani and DeVilla reported in detail their skin reactions in cases of pertussis, following the injection of suspensions of pertussis bacilli.

Exciting and Predisposing Factors.—Bacteriology and Parasitology.—Alinnæus attributes the disease to the presence of the larvæ of certain insects in the nasal cavity, and Kuoloff regards the specific microörganism as a protozoön, having found it to be present in the sputum of those suffering from the disease. Afanassiff has described a large bacillus (bacillus tussis convulsivæ) which he obtained in pure cultures from cases of whooping cough. Camplewski and Hensel described a bacillus with rounded ends, often occurring in pairs, which they cultivated from the mucous secretions; a peculiarity of this organism is that it is found free in the sputum and also within the pus-cells. The intradermal test consists in using a culture of Bordet-Gengou bacillus in 1 c.c. of distilled water to which is added a small amount of toluene. Modigliani and De Villa claim for the intradermal test that it detects whooping cough before other positive symptoms appear. The majority of cases are seen in conjunction with *epidemic outbreaks*, although a small number of sporadic cases have been studied. Singularly, in rural districts the disease occurs in epidemic form every two years, whereas in large cities it is present at all times.

Mode of Infection.—Contact with a patient suffering from the disease is the usual mode of infection, and there can be little doubt but that the disease is propagated in schools, although it is probably less contagious than either measles or scarlet fever.

Season.—This appears to exercise but little influence. The disease is, however, more likely to prevail in epidemic form during the school months.

Unhygienic surroundings and **environment** exercise but a limited influence, and healthy and delicate children alike develop the disease. A more severe clinical type is, however, encountered in infants and in those previously in ill health.

Age is an important factor, most cases being seen before the tenth year, although the disease may occur both during and after middle life. In three cases seen by us—two males and one female—the patients were over sixty years of age.

Sex is believed by certain writers to serve as a predisposing factor, females being said to be affected more often than males; this observation, however, has not been borne out by general experience.

Immunity.—One attack usually bestows permanent immunity, yet second attacks, although uncommon, may occur.

Infective Period.—The disease is communicated by infected patients to others during the period of the paroxysmal cough. Cases of pertussis in the new-born have been reported.

Principal Complaint.—Pertussis is characterized by the following clinical stages:

(1) **Catarrhal Stage.**—The symptoms in this stage are similar to those of an ordinary cold, the patient complaining of coryza, lacrimation, and cough, all of which increase in intensity until about the tenth day.

(2) **Paroxysmal Stage.**—The stage is marked by the appearance of the characteristic *whoop*, the cough becoming paroxysmal. The child is conscious of an approaching seizure just previous to its occurrence, and will invariably make a strenuous effort to restrain the cough. In severe cases he will seize firm hold of some object and then *cough* violently until he is quite exhausted; following the exacerbation there is a pronounced whooping sound, which usually terminates the paroxysm; rarely two or more whoops may accompany a single seizure. After the *paroxysm* is over a variable quantity of thick, tenacious mucus is expectorated and *vomiting* is also common. Both urine and feces may be passed involuntarily. Paroxysms of coughing are excited by undue exercise, laughing, sneezing, etc. When the seizure is violent, it may be accompanied by epistaxis, and at times blood may gush from the mouth. Lacrimation is a prominent symptom. The face is flushed at first, and later may become cyanosed.

The number of paroxysms occurring during the twenty-four hours will be found to vary greatly in different cases. In mild forms there may be but from four to ten paroxysms a day, whereas in the more severe types the number may exceed 50 during the twenty-four hours.

Physical Signs.—Inspection.—During the catarrhal stage the conjunctivæ are congested, and there is edema beneath the eyes. The nasal mucosa is also congested, and the general expression of the child is dull. During the paroxysm of coughing the face becomes cyanosed, the veins of the neck stand out prominently, the conjunctivæ are markedly congested, and there is free mucous discharge from both the conjunctivæ and the nose. In young children, and after the disease has continued for several weeks, the chest becomes barrel-shaped, the result of pulmonary emphysema. The *face* presents a characteristic appearance, being

swollen and dusky in hue; the eyelids are also edematous and pinkish in color, and there is decided reddening of the conjunctivæ; conjunctival hemorrhages may also be seen.

Palpation, percussion, and auscultation reveal the physical signs characteristic of acute bronchitis with emphysema.

Clinical Course.—The *duration* of the paroxysmal stage varies between three and four weeks. In cases of average severity the patient coughs for approximately six weeks, although not uncommonly the cough may persist for three or four months. Having had one attack of whooping-cough the child is likely for some months to suffer a mild relapse whenever he contracts an acute "cold."

Complications and Sequelæ.—In those cases in which the paroxysms are violent, **epistaxis** may occur; rarely, indeed, is the hemorrhage sufficiently severe to cause alarm. **Hemoptysis** and vomiting of blood are unusual, and intestinal hemorrhage is extremely rare. Extensive extravasations of blood beneath the conjunctivæ may take place.

Among the most serious of the complications are bronchopneumonia and pulmonary collapse. These conditions are, however, extremely uncommon, except in children during the first and second years of life. Lobar pneumonia is occasionally seen, and is due to intense straining and rupture of the lung, when either interstitial emphysema or pneumothorax may follow. Pleurisy is also a serious complication, and may be accompanied by pronounced enlargement of the bronchial lymph-nodes. Inguinal and femoral hernia may result from sudden strain.

Among the **nervous complications** should be mentioned convulsions, hemiplegia, monoplegia, and subdural hemorrhage. Acute nephritis is occasionally seen.

Cardiac complications are unusual, and consist in dilatation of the right ventricle and endocarditis. Chronic catarrh of the bronchial mucosa frequently follows whooping-cough, and when the disease develops at or near the age of puberty, pulmonary tuberculosis may follow. In selected cases **gastro-intestinal irritation** may appear during the later stages of the disease, and continue for an indefinite period after the characteristic whoop has disappeared.

DENGUE (BREAK-BONE FEVER)

Pathologic Definition.—An acute, infectious disease, probably transmitted by the bites of infected mosquitoes. It is characterized by the occurrence of definite alterations in the blood—*e. g.*, leukopenia, with a decrease in the polymorphonuclear leukocytes and a marked increase in the small lymphocytes and the presence of a maculopapular eruption.

Varieties.—Debrun recognizes the following clinical types: (1) Dengue with high fever and well-marked associated symptoms, including an eruption; (2) afebrile dengue, in which all the symptoms are exceedingly mild, but here, too, the eruption is present; and (3) a type in which the eruption is not only the most conspicuous, but the only, diagnostic feature.

Predisposing and Exciting Factors.—Transmission of the disease to man is believed to take place through the bites of infected mosquitoes (culex fatigans); however, the etiology of dengue remains in question. **Season** appears to influence the development of attacks, the disease occurring, as a rule, in warm weather. C. F. Craig believes the disease to be due to a filterable virus present in the peripheral blood during the first four days of fever.

Age, race, sex, and **environment** appear to be without effect. A single attack ordinarily confers immunity to subsequent attacks. No evidence has been adduced to support the fact that dengue is contagious.

The report of P. M. Ashburn and C. F. Craig, who conducted extensive researches and clinical investigations in the Philippine Islands in 1907, shows that dengue is transmitted from man to man through the bites of a mosquito. Siler, Hall, and Hutchens report on the transmission of the disease.*

Period of Incubation.—Clinically, this varies between two and one-half and seven days, the average period being three to four days. Ashburn and Craig have shown, as the result of inoculation of non-immunes with unfiltered blood, filtered blood, and with infected mosquitoes, that the incubation period varies between two and one-half and seven days, with an average of three days and fourteen hours, as shown by the accompanying table:

Method of Inoculation	Incubation Period
Inoculation of unfiltered blood	3 days, 18 hours.
Inoculation of unfiltered blood	2 days, 19 hours.
Inoculation of unfiltered blood	2 days, 18 hours.
Inoculation of unfiltered blood	2 days, 12 hours.
Inoculation of unfiltered blood	4 days, 4 hours.
Inoculation of unfiltered blood	7 days.
Inoculation of filtered blood	3 days, 11 hours.
Inoculation of filtered blood	2 days, 12 hours.
With infected mosquito	About 3 days, 16 hours.

Principal Complaint.—Invasion.—The onset is *abrupt*, beginning with a mild *chill* or *chilly sensations*. By the end of the first or the beginning of the second day the patient complains of *headache* and *muscular* and *joint pains*, and his suffering now becomes intense. He describes the pains as of bone-breaking character—hence the name, "break-bone fever." There is complete anorexia, and nausea and vomiting may occur at different times during the day. Epistaxis and hemorrhage from other mucous surfaces are occasional occurrences. (See Laboratory Diagnosis, p. 949.) Diarrhea may be present. The symptoms of catarrh of the respiratory tract, *e. g.*, coryza, slight bronchial cough, and soreness of the throat, are prominent.

In a fair proportion of all cases there is a variable degree of discomfort in the region of the precordium, and distinct precordial pain is occasionally experienced, followed by a sense of suffocation and threatening syncope. A feeling of faintness follows slight exertion during the febrile period.

Nervous Symptoms.—The severe pains previously referred to constitute the chief annoyance in this particular group of symptoms. Delirium is uncommon, and when present, is usually of a low type. Hysteric seizures and hallucinations have also been observed. Insomnia is frequently an annoying symptom during the febrile period, especially in those cases in which hyperpyrexia exists.

Thermic Features.—Following the invasion, the temperature rises quite abruptly, but continuously, to a maximum of from 103° to 106° F. by the end of the first twenty-four hours. The fever continues at or near its maximum point for from one to three days, when it drops by crisis with diuresis, diaphoresis, diarrhea, or epistaxis, to normal. With the first fall of temperature the erythema disappears, and the symptoms are much improved. This improvement may last twenty-four hours, when the temperature rises gradually and the terminal eruption appears. The

* Jour. Am. Med. Assoc., Vol. 84, No. 16, April 18, 1925, p. 1163.

second febrile period may be overlooked, but it usually lasts one or two days and declines by crisis, which is likely to be accompanied by a critical discharge.

Physical Signs.—Inspection.—The joints are red and swollen, and an erythematous rash, the so-called initial rash, is present. The face is deeply flushed, and the conjunctivæ are congested. As a rule, this eruption is most profuse over the exposed parts—*e. g.*, face, neck, and hands. Ashburn and Craig assert that this rash is not the true eruption, but a general capillary dilatation, resembling in appearance a mild sunburn or flushing the result of a hot bath. The characteristic eruption of dengue usually appears on the fourth day, although it may be delayed in some cases until the sixth or the seventh day. It first appears on the backs or on the palms of the hands, extends up the forearms, and then invades the back, the chest, the arms, and the thighs. The lesions are round, dusky red, slightly elevated, and about the size of a small pea. They are surrounded by healthy skin at first, but they have a tendency to spread, forming irregular patches, sometimes as large as three inches in diameter, and separated by normal skin. The eruption disappears in a few days, and is followed by desquamation.

Jaundice may be present throughout the greater part of the febrile period, and may even continue during the convalescence.

The *tongue* is at first covered by a light, creamy coat, which thickens rapidly and becomes darkened in the center, the edges showing an appreciable fading. Late during the course of the disease the tongue displays a heavy, yellowish central coat, whereas the edges and tips are bright red; the tongue remains moist throughout the entire illness.

Palpation elicits tenderness over the large joints, and firm pressure excites pain. With the beginning of the disease the pulse is accelerated, and follows the temperature—a characteristic difference between this disease and yellow fever. Ashburn and Craig, in their study of a somewhat large series of cases of dengue, found the pulse to be moderately accelerated and to follow the course of the fever fairly closely.

Laboratory Diagnosis.—Vomiting occurs in a small percentage of all cases, and the vomitus may give off a foul odor; in such cases the breath is offensive. The vomiting of blood has been reported. Diarrhea is also an occasional symptom.

The **urine** was found to contain a trace of serum-albumin in 41 per cent. of cases studied by Guitéras and Cartaya, but other observers believe that pathologic albuminuria does not occur in uncomplicated cases. The question of the occurrence of albuminuria is one that will be largely influenced by the findings of certain epidemics, and, therefore, statistics gathered from a single epidemic would have but limited clinical value. The urine may be bile stained.

Up to the present time no microörganisms of any kind have been detected in the blood of dengue. The number of red blood-cells in a cubic millimeter approximates that of the normal. A fairly well-marked leukopenia is present, the polymorphonuclear leukocytes displaying a decided decrease, the proportionate number of small lymphocytes showing a corresponding increase (30 to 60 per cent.). The blood-platelets are normal in number.

Differential Diagnosis.—Yellow fever has often been mistaken for dengue, and the two affections may be present simultaneously. A differential diagnosis is made only with great difficulty, as the two diseases present many points of similarity. The following table, modified from Anders, shows the differential features:

Dengue	Yellow Fever
1. Affects all races.	1. Caucasians more especially effected.
2. Facies characteristic; face flushed.	2. Mucous membranes injected.
3. Irregular rise of fever, followed by remission, and then a second moderate rise. Duration, five to seven days.	3. The temperature rises regularly. Duration of fever, about seventy-two hours.
4. The pulse keeps pace with the fever.	4. The pulse falls while the fever is rising
5. Maculopapular eruption present.	5. Eruption unusual.
6. Vomiting rare.	6. Vomiting frequent.
7. Urine seldom contains albumin in uncomplicated cases.	7. Albuminuria common; reaction for bile present.
8. Jaundice unusual.	8. Jaundice present early.
9. Hemorrhage from mucous membranes, generally slight, and black vomit rare.	9. Hemorrhages common and severe. Black vomit an alarming symptom.
10. Nervous symptoms absent or mild.	10. Nervous symptoms of a grave nature present.

Sand fly fever closely resembles dengue, and many writers refer to it as a modified form of dengue.

ERYSIPELAS (St. Anthony's Fire)

Pathologic Definition.—An acute infectious disease, engendered by the streptococcus, and characterized by the presence of congestion, inflammation, and edema of the skin and subcutaneous cellular tissue, with distention of the cutaneous lymph-channels. Suppurative inflammation may attack the subcutaneous tissue. Blisters, blebs, and bullæ appear upon the cutaneous surfaces.

Varieties.—(1) The **ordinary type,** which will be described at length.

(2) **Phlegmonous (cellulocutaneous) erysipelas,** which is characterized by the appearance of a severe inflammation of the subcutaneous connective tissue, with a tendency to go on to suppuration.

(3) **Migratory erysipelas,** a condition in which the erysipelatous process is very acute at first, but tends, as the disease advances, to assume a subacute form and to spread over all portions of the body. We have seen cases of this type in which the erysipelatous process extended from the face to the feet, covering practically the entire body surface, from twelve to twenty weeks being consumed in completing the process.

(4) **Relapsing erysipelas,** a condition in which the inflammatory process is of unusually low grade and tends to recur at longer or shorter intervals.

(5) **Erysipelas neonatorum,** or the erysipelas of infants, follows infection of the umbilical cord. The erysipelatous process spreads rapidly from the umbilicus over the lower portion of the abdomen, and frequently extends to the face, chest, and less often to the back. This is an exceedingly grave variety of erysipelas, and usually terminates fatally within the course of from two to five days.

(6) **Pneumo-erysipelas,** a form in which the specific infection may set up a bronchopneumonia as a complication.

(7) **Nephro-erysipelas.**—Nephritis may develop as a complication, and the nephritic tissue be infiltrated with cocci. The symptoms of acute nephritis are also present.

Exciting and Predisposing Factors.—Bacteriology.—It is generally agreed that the specific cause of erysipelas is the streptococcus erysipelatis of Fehleisen, which is probably identical with the pus-producing organism commonly encountered. An erysipelatous process may, however, be produced by inoculating the skin with the streptococcus, and, indeed, inoculation with other bacteria will produce an inflammation

that is indistinguishable from that of true erysipelas. In our own experience, covering a bacteriologic study of approximately 40 cases of erysipelas, streptococci were found present in every instance in which cultures were made from several different blebs. Staphylococci and diplococci were also present in many of the cultures, at least two pathogenic bacteria being found in each culture.

Season.—Anders,* in a statistical analysis of 2010 cases of erysipelas, showed that 19.5 per cent. of all cases develop during the month of April, and one-half of all cases during the months of February, March, April, and May. Boston and Blackburn, in a report of 546 cases of erysipelas seen in the wards of the Philadelphia General Hospital, found that 20.3 per cent. of all cases were admitted during the month of April, and that 423 of the whole number, or 77.8 per cent., developed during the months of January, February, March, April, and May. The accompanying table, by Boston and Blackburn, sets forth the influence of season upon the development of erysipelas, and gives an estimate of the severity of the type of infection encountered at different seasons:

INFLUENCE OF SEASON ON ERYSIPELAS

Month	Total Cases	Total Deaths	Percentage of Mortality
January	66	12	18.0
February	77	8	14.0
March	104	11	10.6
April	111	15	13.3
May	65	9	13.8
June	11	0	0.0
July	4	0	0.0
August	6	0	0.0
September	10	1	10.0
October	16	2	8.0
November	30	6	20.0
December	46	5	11.0
Total	546	69	

Age.—In an analysis of 1894 cases, Boston and Blackburn found that 25.8 per cent. developed during the third decade, and that the disease was far less common after the age of fifty, whereas 15 per cent. of all the cases developed before the age of twenty.

Sex.—An analysis of the records of 1767 cases showed that males are attacked more often than females, in a ratio of 3 to 2; Boston and Blackburn's analysis of 539 cases gave 324 males and 197 females.

Race.—The African negro rarely suffers from erysipelas, as is shown by the previously named writers' analysis of 545 cases, in which only 5.3 per cent. were negroes. **Nationality** appeared to be a marked predisposing factor, 42.2 per cent. of cases developing in Americans and 20 per cent. of those afflicted being of Irish birth.

Previous Attacks.—One attack predisposes to others, and a second, third, and even a fourth attack is not unusual. We have seen a number of cases in which erysipelas developed during the winter months for two or more successive years. In an analysis of 450 cases, we obtained a history of previous attacks in 8.6 per cent.

Coryza.—Acute coryza markedly predisposes to the development of erysipelas of the nose and face, as is shown by M. B. Miller's statistical analysis of 301 cases, in which coryza occurred as an antecedent in 13 instances (4.3 per cent.).

* Proc. Amer. Climatolog. Assoc., 1893.

Chronic maladies, after they have appreciably impoverished the system, favor the development of erysipelas. The occurrence of the disease is to be feared late during the course of nephritis, hepatic cirrhosis, valvular heart disease, chronic tuberculosis, diabetes, arteriosclerosis, and in those addicted to the use of alcohol.

Injuries.—An abrasion of the cutaneous surface favors the development of the erysipelatous process, and is said to be essential to the invasion of the specific bacterium. Those whose occupations subject them to frequent abrasions of the skin of the hands, nose, and face, as well as to slight injuries, are especially prone to acquire the disease, although it is often impossible to obtain a definite history substantiating this fact. In an analysis of 643 cases, but 13 gave a history of injuries to the cutaneous surface. Erysipelas is especially likely to develop after surgical treatment, particularly after operations in which it has been impossible thoroughly to cleanse the parts incised.

Puerperium.—Women are especially likely to become infected with erysipelas after delivery, particularly when either the nurse or the physician is also attending patients suffering from the disease. The epidemic outbreaks of erysipelas occurring in hospitals and institutes are possibly explained by the fact that certain of the attendants convey the disease from one patient to another, although it may be transmitted by clothing, towels, napkins, and other objects.

Period of Incubation.—In cutaneous erysipelas this usually varies between one and two weeks, but when erysipelas develops after surgical interference, a much shorter incubation period (three to seven days) may occur. Experimentally, we have found it possible to produce an erysipelatous process in from twenty-four to forty-eight hours by inoculating the skin of rabbits' ears with bacteria cultivated from blebs.

Prodromal Symptoms.—These are often indefinite, and consist in headache, restlessness, slight soreness of the throat, mild cough, fever, and anorexia. The *duration* of the prodromal symptoms will be found to vary from a few hours to several days.

Principal Complaint.—Following the prodromata, the attack sets in quite abruptly, with a distinct *chill* or a sensation of chilliness. The evidence of constitutional depression may not be well marked in those who have previously enjoyed health, but in the debilitated, and particularly in alcoholics, prostration comes on early. The patient complains of a localized sense of tension over the part affected, and later a distinct burning sensation is felt throughout the erysipelatous area; pain is, however, unusual, unless the subcutaneous cellular tissue is involved.

Nervous Symptoms.—In uncomplicated cases the nervous symptoms are, as a rule, mild, and consist of headache, restlessness, and aching in the back and loins. When complications arise, and, indeed, in the more severe types of erysipelatous infection, delirium occurs during the night. When nephritis and bronchopneumonia develop as complications, maniacal delirium and coma may follow.

Thermic Features.—Following the chill the temperature rises somewhat abruptly, and usually reaches 102° to 104° F. during the first twenty-four hours. The fever remains high, with moderate remissions, for a period of from five to seven days, when, in uncomplicated cases, it falls rapidly to the normal. As each new area becomes involved in the erysipelatous process (*relapse*) the temperature again rises one, two, or three degrees, but the period of pyrexia is comparatively shorter in each succeeding relapse.

Physical Signs (Local).—The area most often affected is the face, as shown by Boston and Blackburn's statistical analysis of 545 cases, in which the face served as the initial site of infection in 485 instances. The affected part at first is reddened, and later becomes intensely congested, swollen, and edematous, and the features may be distorted. Immediately beyond the congested area the swelling ends abruptly—the so-called "line of demarcation." The inflammation may extend from one side of the face across the median line, a feature that was observed in 78.8 per cent. of the series of cases just mentioned. The reddened surface of the skin is often studded with small blebs or blisters, which are filled with serum. When these blisters rupture, an angry, suppurating surface may remain. In the series of cases previously referred to, the spread of the erysipelatous inflammation appeared to be limited by the following: the median line of the body, in 21.2 per cent.; the folds of the skin, and the hair (beard); it is also very unusual for the process to extend beyond the junction of skin and mucous membrane. **Cutaneous edema** may be so pronounced as to distort the features, making recognition of the individual often impossible; the eyes are often closed.

The congested portion of the skin is hot to the touch, and firmer than the adjacent surface. On drawing the finger over the healthy skin to the involved area, a distinct hardening is felt at the junction of the healthy and diseased epidermis, resulting from infiltration of the lymphatics; this is the so-called "line of demarcation." Pressure over the affected area seldom elicits pain unless the deeper structures are infiltrated with pus.

The **tongue** is heavily coated; the mouth is dry and parched; the throat is often congested, and the patient finds it difficult to open the mouth.

The **pulse** is rapid,—100 to 120 beats a minute,—and in severe complicated cases its tension becomes diminished with the progress of the disease, whereas later it is weak, dicrotic, and intermittent.

Constipation obtains in the majority of cases, although diarrhea with the passage of serous stools is occasionally observed.

Laboratory Diagnosis.—The **urine** is of high color, increased in specific gravity, and in uncomplicated cases may contain a trace of albumin. Nephritis is a somewhat common complication, occurring, as it did, in 29 per cent. of 548 cases analyzed by Boston and Blackburn; when present, the urinary findings are those of acute nephritis. The diazo-reaction is present during high fever.

A **leukocytosis** in which the white cells number from 15,000 to 30,000 per c.mm. is to be expected during the initial attack of erysipelas. The increase in the number of leukocytes affects chiefly the polymorphonuclear elements. In cases in which repeated relapses have occurred, the hemoglobin and red cells become markedly reduced, and the general blood-picture is that of secondary anemia plus moderate leukocytosis.

Cultures from the serum obtained from the cutaneous blisters, as well as those made from the blood-serum that exudes from the skin after incision over an erysipelatous area, will be found to contain streptococci, staphylococci, and diplococci.

Summary of Diagnosis.—This is based first upon the history of a chill and the characteristic temperature, which are soon followed by swelling and redness of the part, and, later, the formation of blebs upon the surface of the skin and the appearance of a distinct line of demarcation. When the deeper cellular tissue is not involved, a sense of burning and the absence of pain are valuable diagnostic points.

The *duration* of the febrile period—four to seven days—and its characteristic decline by rapid lysis are of great diagnostic importance, as is also the comparatively short febrile period of each successive relapse.

Differential Diagnosis.—**Erythema** produces superficial redness, differing from erysipelas in that it is not attended with hard, swelling, or fever. Erysipeloid follows the handling of decomposed fish and meats.

The eruption of **urticaria** assumes the form of pale-red, circular wheals, which cause marked itching and appear in successive crops, often disappearing in the course of a few hours. In this condition the initial chill, blebs, and rise in temperature are absent.

Acute eczema of the face, when severe, may somewhat resemble erysipelas, but lacks the peculiar line of demarcation and mode of progression characteristic of erysipelas. Again, eczema is accompanied by troublesome itching, the swelling is less pronounced than in erysipelas, and fever is also absent in uncomplicated cases.

Eczema nodosum is characterized by the presence of nodosities situated near the articular surfaces, and is devoid of the constitutional symptoms seen in erysipelas.

Clinical Course and Duration.—The average duration of a case of erysipelas, including the prodromal stage in early adult life, is fourteen days (Anders). In each relapse the condition is prolonged for from five to seven days, consequently in those cases in which frequent relapses have occurred from four to six and even eight weeks may elapse before convalescence is established. The clinical course of erysipelas is appreciably longer in the aged and the debilitated than it is during the second and third decades. Complications materially retard convalescence.

Complications.—These are numerous, and often unusually serious—*e. g.*, abscess formation, lobar pneumonia, phlebitis, catarrhal pneumonia, nephritis, otitis media, acute bronchitis, laryngitis, and pleurisy may develop.

VARIOLA (SMALLPOX)

Pathologic Definition.—An acute infectious disease characterized by the appearance of an eruption that presents four distinct stages: (1) The macule; (2) the papule; (3) the vesicle; and (4) the pustule. During the healing process the lesion is covered with a scab, which, when removed, leaves a scar.

The mucous membrane of the mouth, pharynx, and esophagus may also display a characteristic eruption. In the severe type of the infection, known as hemorrhagic smallpox, extensive cutaneous hemorrhages and hemorrhages into the muscular tissue may occur; hemorrhagic infarction of the lung and of other viscera is also occasionally seen. Perkins and Pay recovered streptococci from the hearts blood and from the viscera in 38 cases, or 95 per cent. of their reported autopsies.

Varieties.—(1) **Discrete smallpox,** which may be mild or moderately severe. (See Fig. 345.)

(2) The **confluent form,** which appears to follow a severe type of infection, and in which the disease is ushered in by grave constitutional symptoms. The eruption appears early and is profuse, and the pustules may coalesce, with extensive destruction of tissue and resulting deformity. The thermic features and the nervous manifestations of this type of the disease are pronounced, the patient soon entering into the typhoid state. The lymph-nodes become markedly swollen, the features are distorted, and salivation is frequently an annoying symptom. The cardiovascular disturbances are marked, the pulse being frequent, weak, and irregular; and there may be unusually severe gastro-intestinal symptoms, such as nausea, vomiting, and diarrhea. In favorable cases convalescence is retarded.

(3) The **hemorrhagic form** (black smallpox), another extremely malignant type of the disease, in which, owing to certain hemic changes or to changes in the other tissues, hemorrhagic extravasations into the skin (Fig. 346), mucous membranes and viscera take place. In this class of cases an hemolytic streptococcus may be cultivated from the peripheral blood. This type of smallpox which was common in the 1924–25 epidemic of Philadelphia is divided clinically into the following subvarieties: (*a*) A form in which there is an effusion of blood into the pustules, brought about probably by permitting the patient to leave his bed too soon or as the result of undue excitement during convalescence. In this subvariety of hemorrhagic smallpox the lower extremities are involved in the majority of instances. (*b*) During the eruptive stage of the ordinary type of variola, to be subsequently described, a moderate amount of hemorrhage may take place into certain of the pustules. (*c*) The patient may manifest a hemorrhagic tendency during any period of the eruptive disease, and there may be bleeding from the mucous surfaces, *e. g.* (mouth, lungs, kidneys, uterus, bladder). In this grave form of the disease the initial symptoms are intense, the eruption is profuse, and collapse may follow the hemorrhages. In this subvariety complications are unusually common; among these are pneumonia and nephritis. (*d*) Rarely do we encounter cases of variola in which the hemorrhagic tendency is displayed during the period of invasion, with ecchymoses into the skin and mucous surfaces as early as the second day of the disease; these hemorrhagic areas develop rapidly, and may involve the greater portion of the body. In these cases the typical eruption of variola is not present, and the thermic manifestations are also unusual. A fatal termination usually occurs early.

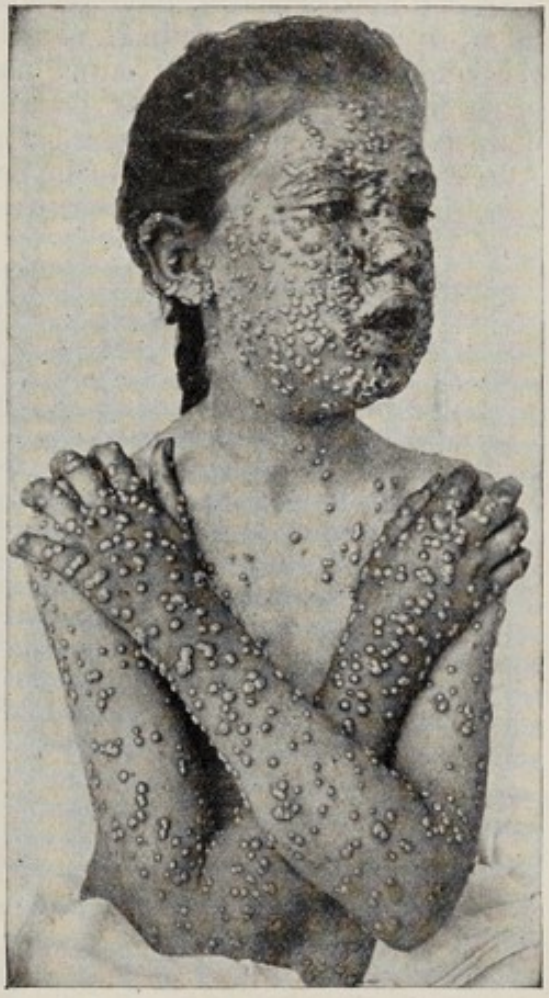


FIG. 345.—DISCRETE SMALLPOX IN AN UNVACCINATED GIRL.
Eighth day of eruption (Welch and Schamberg).

(4) **Varioloid** is a mild form of smallpox developing in an individual who has been protected by one or more successful vaccinations. This mild form of smallpox may, however, occur in those who possess a variable degree of natural immunity, and who have not been vaccinated. The initial symptoms of varioloid are practically identical with those of variola, but the general clinical course of the disease is usually somewhat milder, the eruption displaying certain irregularities.

Immunity and Susceptibility.—One attack establishes permanent immunity, and successful vaccinations produce the same effect in a vast majority of cases.

Practically every case of smallpox must have had its origin in some previous case, the specific virus being conveyed from one patient to another through various channels and by various methods. (See Modes of Infection.) The disease usually spreads with great rapidity among Caucasians who have not been vaccinated, whereas among American negroes and American Indians it is disseminated with still greater rapidity.

Exciting and Predisposing Factors.—Parasitology.—The more recent investigations regarding the etiology of smallpox, made by Councilman and his associates, have resulted in the finding of a body believed to be a protozoan parasite in the epithelial cells and in the fluid of the vesicles and the pustules. Councilman's findings have been confirmed by other investigators. Funk has described a protozoön found in this disease, and Pfeiffer discovered a protozoön in the pustules of vaccinia. Among other observers who have detected the presence of protozoa in vaccinia are Iskigami, Rosenberger, Haushalter, and Etienne.

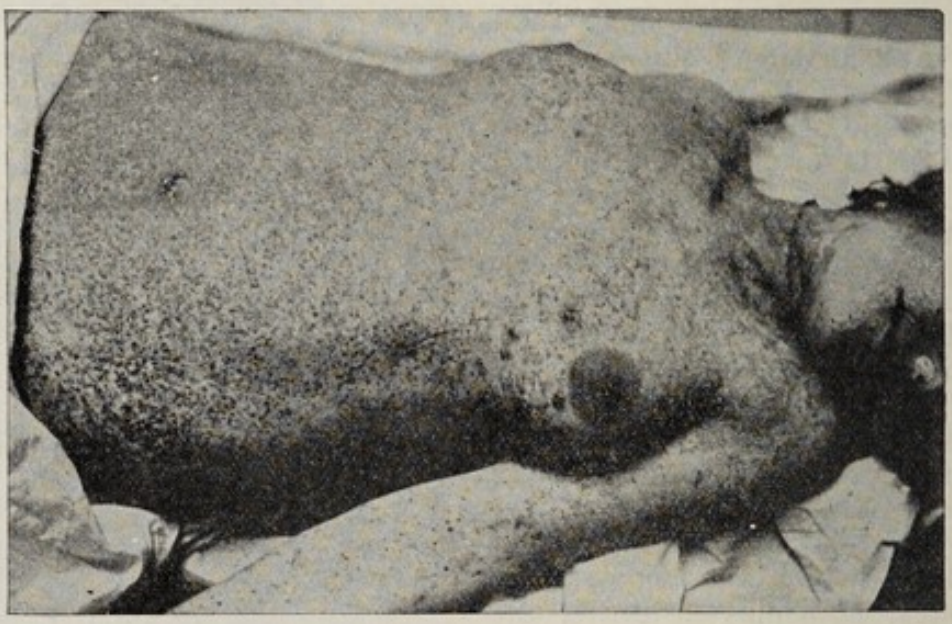


FIG. 346.—HEMORRHAGIC SMALLPOX IN A PUERPERAL WOMAN; FATAL.

Cutaneous surface covered with petechiæ and ecchymoses. A few ill-formed papules were present (Welch and Schamberg).

Bacteriology.—Streptococci and the other bacteria commonly present on the cutaneous surface may be recovered from the pustules of smallpox, but they have no etiologic significance.

Age.—Smallpox occurs during all periods of life. It is especially common in children, and may affect the fetus *in utero*. The disease may develop during the puerperal state in those exposed to the infection.

Period of Incubation.—This varies; six or seven days usually constitute the period of incubation when the disease is directly inoculated from man to man; when, however, it develops as the result of exposure, the incubation period ranges from ten to fourteen days. Ill-defined prodromal symptoms are present at times.

Principal Complaint.—Following the history of exposure to a case of smallpox, there develop, within the course of approximately twelve days, the following symptoms: A rigor, accompanied by intense headache, and followed by a sense of chilliness that persists for from twelve to twenty-four hours, lumbar pains, and aching muscles. The patient's

complaint at the onset of the disease will be found to vary greatly in different epidemics; we have observed epidemics in which these symptoms were unusually mild. (See Thermic Features, p. 958.) Following the chill there generally occur anorexia, constipation, nausea, and, in severe types of infection, vomiting. The constipation may disappear later and be replaced by diarrhea. Sore throat is common, and the patient may complain of a shooting pain, extending from the throat into one or both ears; suppurative otitis media occasionally occurs during convalescence, and should probably be regarded as a complication. Coryza develops early and persists for several days, and severe lacrimation is also present.

Nervous Symptoms.—The nervous manifestations are usually in direct relation to the severity of the type of the disease in question. Restlessness, and frequently mild delirium, are always present, whereas in severe cases maniacal outbreaks, low muttering delirium, and even coma are observed. In children convulsions not uncommonly occur. Paraplegia and multiple neuritis and myelitis may appear during conva-

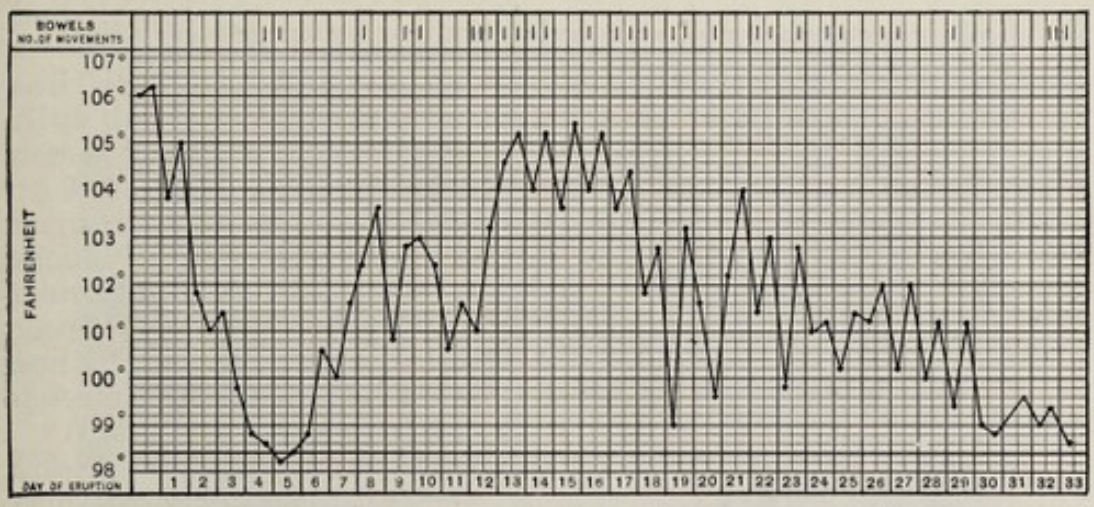


FIG. 347.—TEMPERATURE-CHART OF A CASE OF VARIOLA, FROM A PATIENT IN THE MUNICIPAL HOSPITAL, PHILADELPHIA (J. M. Anders).

A. F———, aged three years; not vaccinated.

lescence, and, indeed, these grave nervous conditions may develop as a sequel rather than as a symptom of the disease. Insanity, hemiplegia, aphasia, and epilepsy may also follow an attack of variola.

Cutaneous Features.—After the development of the pustule there is intense itching of the skin. (See Inspection, p. 955, 958.)

Respiratory Symptoms.—There is always an associated *pharyngitis* and a *laryngitis*, both of which result from eruption upon the mucous surfaces. The laryngeal condition may be so severe as to result in the development of a perichondritis, which is likely to be followed by edema of the glottis. In variola, as in most acute febrile conditions in which acute bronchitis accompanies the disease, pulmonary congestion and bronchopneumonia are to be dreaded as complications. As in certain other acute infections, variola shows a predilection to attack the serous surfaces, consequently pleurisy may develop during the acute stage of the disease and during convalescence; its onset is indicated by the presence of intense lancinating pain in the chest. *Cough* is an early symptom, and may continue until convalescence is established; in those cases in which pulmonary complications develop, the cough persists for some time.

Thermic Features.—At the onset of the disease the temperature will be found to rise rapidly reaching 103° to 105° F. by the end of the first twenty-four hours following the chill. The fever is of the continued type, remaining high until the papular eruption appears,—about the third day,—when there is a decided fall in the temperature. Following the appearance of the papular eruption the temperature continues slightly elevated until the development of suppuration, when it again rises—the so-called secondary fever. (See Fig. 347.) This secondary exacerbation of temperature is decidedly irregular or septic in character, displaying exaggerated points of elevation and of marked remission. In mild cases of variola the secondary febrile expression may be feeble or even absent. In cases of average virulence the secondary fever continues for three or four days, and declines gradually with the improvement of the general symptoms. A third febrile exacerbation should be regarded as due to the presence of some complication.

Physical Signs.—Inspection.—With the beginning of the fever a diffuse erythema is frequently seen on the arms, legs, and trunk. This is

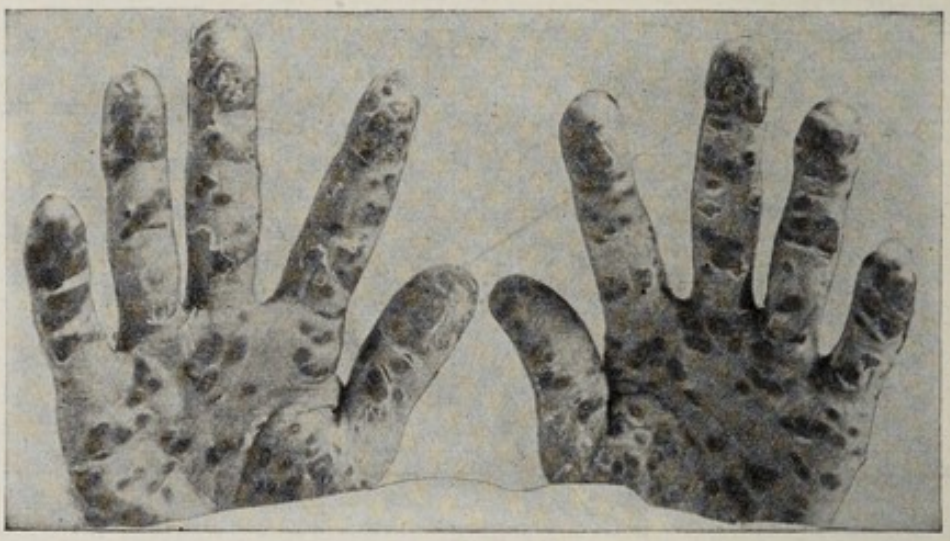


FIG. 348.—SMALLPOX—DRIED POCKS EMBEDDED IN THE HORNY LAYER OF THE PALMS (Welch and Schamberg).

sometimes called the initial eruption, but it has nothing to do with the characteristic rash of the disease, being caused by the capillary dilatation, the result of the influence of toxins on the vessels, which is seen in the early stages of nearly all acute febrile diseases. This erythema in some cases resembles the exanthem of scarlet fever, when it is called *scarlatiniform*, and in other cases it resembles the eruption of measles, when it is said to be *morbilliform*.

The true eruption develops upon both the skin and the visible mucous surfaces, appearing first upon the face, forehead, and scalp, and extending in a downward direction to the thighs, and finally to the legs. The femoral region is more likely to escape than are other portions of the cutaneous surface. Each pock passes through the following stages:

(1) *Macule*, in which the mark is reddish in color, resembling the bite of an insect; it increases in size for twenty-four hours, at the end of which period each macule is developed into a distinct papule.

(2) The *papule* continues as such for a period of three days, up to the sixth day of the disease, when the conical apices of the papules become filled with liquid, and vesicles are formed.

(3) The *vesicles* increase in size until the entire lesion becomes filled with exudate, its apex being depressed—the so-called umbilicated vesicle. At this stage puncturing of the vesicle does not cause it to collapse, but is followed by the escape of but a small portion of the liquid contents—a clinical fact that indicates that the vesicular lesion of smallpox is divided into several compartments.

As the vesicle increases in size its contained fluid becomes opaque, and three days later—the ninth day of the disease and the sixth day of the eruption—it is converted into a *pustule*. Lesions are seen upon the soles of the feet and upon the palms of the hands (Fig. 348).

With the development of the pustular stage the umbilicated appearance of the lesion is lost and the pustule is surrounded by an inflammatory areola. In those cases in which the pustules are in close proximity, generally upon the wrist, face, and fingers (Figs. 345 and 346), the skin connecting the pustules becomes edematous. In confluent smallpox the pustules coalesce and there is marked swelling of the skin, which is often so severe as to distort the features. The pustules usually rupture soon after they appear.

(4) Following the escape of the purulent exudate from the pustule a scab is formed, which remains until about the twelfth day of the eruption. After the scabs have been shed, a permanent whitening of the spot, with a depression of the skin, remains.

Extensive cutaneous gangrene, bed-sores, abscesses, and the development of erysipelatous processes are among the annoying features, and should be classed as *cutaneous complications*. The face is swollen, and in many instances the eyes are completely closed; the lips and mucous membrane of the mouth and throat, the buccal and pharyngeal mucosæ, and the tongue are swollen and coated, and a false membrane may be detected upon the pharynx and tonsils.

Ocular Phenomena.—The conjunctivæ are congested, and pustules and ulcerations may be present upon them; one of the most serious of the ocular phenomena that may occur is ulceration of the cornea. Keratitis, choroiditis, and panophthalmitis are among the less common ocular disturbances.

The *joints* are often swollen. Owing to pain, the patient may persist in holding the arm or limb partially flexed. As the result of an associated peritonitis the thighs may also be flexed upon the abdomen.

Palpation.—Immediately after the appearance of the eruption the skin is dry and hot, and later it is slightly roughened along those areas in which the initial eruption appears. During the papular stage the papules upon the forehead and about the wrists have a distinct, shot-like feel; after pus has accumulated within the lesion, the intervening skin pits upon pressure, the result of edema.

Following the onset of the disease, the *pulse* is accelerated, reaching 100 to 120 beats a minute; it is of good volume and of moderate tension. During the stage of remission the pulse is diminished in frequency, and may be but slightly above that of the normal; with the development of the secondary fever, however, the pulse is again markedly accelerated, the number of beats varying in frequency between 100 and 130 a minute. If the disease occurs in a patient who has previously suffered from cardiac disease, or if cardiac complications, such as endocarditis, pericarditis, or myocarditis, are present, the pulse may become weak, dicrotic, irregular, intermittent, and easily compressible. The liver and the spleen are often palpable, and the apex-beat of the heart is forcible.

Auscultation.—The signs of acute bronchitis are present (p. 87). The heart action is rapid, and in severe and in complicated cases the muscular element of the first sound is deficient.

Laboratory Diagnosis.—Fluid obtained from the vesicles may be sterile, although some observers assert that they have found it to contain bodies that appear to be parasites. (See Bacteriology, p. 956.) After the serum has become infected with pathogenic bacteria, the pus will be found to contain a variety of pus-producing organisms.

According to the reports of Welch and Schamberg, *albuminuria* is present in 65 per cent. of all cases of smallpox, whereas casts were found in 45 per cent. of a series of 128 cases. *Hematuria*, although rare, may occur in those cases having a hemorrhagic diathesis. *Constipation* is present, as a rule, but it may be replaced by diarrhea, and rarely there is profuse hemorrhage from the bowel. R. G. Curtin has reported a case where intestinal hemorrhage caused a fatal termination before the eruption had fully developed. Vomiting of blood is also an unusual complication.

The *sputum* may be blood-streaked, although such blood may have its origin in the buccal cavity or pharynx. If otitis media develops, a purulent bloody discharge will be recovered from the external auditory canal.

Summary of Diagnosis.—The history of an epidemic or of exposure to a case is of great importance, as is also the evidence of a previous vaccination. Sudden onset with a chill, followed by a rapid rise in temperature, which continues for a period of about three days, when first a macular, then a papular, later a vesicular, and finally a pustular eruption develops, accompanied by secondary fever, forms a highly characteristic grouping of features. Prior to the development of the eruption, pain in the back and loins, cough, acute bronchitis, and sore throat are to be considered, although these symptoms may be present in the other acute infections; hence in the preëruptive stage the diagnosis is made not only with difficulty, but is often impossible.

Differential Diagnosis.—Scarlet fever is to be distinguished early from the erythematous (scarlatinous) rash that is often a precursor of the variolous eruption; this is, as a rule, neither so intense nor so uniformly distributed over the surface of the body as in true scarlatina. Hemorrhagic scarlatina, which is extremely uncommon, closely resembles "black" smallpox.

Measles.—During the first three days of the development of the smallpox eruption, while the rash is still in the macular stage, the disease may be mistaken for measles. The latter disease, however, presents more marked evidences of respiratory disturbances than does smallpox. In measles the conjunctivitis, photophobia, and coryza are more marked than in smallpox. In the papular stage of the variola eruption the shot-like feel of the lesion will distinguish it from the papule of measles.

Typhus Fever.—The onset of typhus fever resembles closely that of smallpox. The former disease is usually imported, and is not prevalent in America. The appearance of the eruption first upon the trunk (chest and abdomen), in the form of macules, later becoming petechial, is characteristic of typhus fever. Moreover, in typhus the temperature does not remit with the appearance of the eruption. The temperature chart of typhus (see p. 814), when compared with that of variola (p. 958), will be found to display distinctive characteristics.

It is at times extremely difficult to distinguish between hemorrhagic smallpox and virulent types of typhus fever. The nodular or shot-like feel of the papules, so characteristic of smallpox, is, however, absent in typhus.

Cerebrospinal fever may be mistaken for hemorrhagic smallpox, but the history of the case, the prominence of nervous symptoms (see Meningitis, p. 896), together with the evidence obtained from lumbar puncture and an analysis of the cerebrospinal fluid, will serve to differentiate these maladies from each other.

Syphilis is marked by a milder initial stage, by the indurated base of the pustule, and by the appearance in crops of the skin lesions and their polymorphous character. The pitting characteristic of smallpox does not follow syphilis, although a copper-like tint of the skin, the result of pigmentation, is seen. History of the initial lesion and a definite Wassermann reaction are strong diagnostic evidences.

Impetigo contagiosa does not present an initial stage, but begins as vesico-pustules that appear on the normal skin and enlarge by peripheral extension. In impetigo the characteristic febrile expression is absent.

Alastrim is to be distinguished from smallpox (see p. 962, and Varicella, p. 963).

The accompanying table, modified from Anders, sets forth the distinctive features between variola (smallpox) and varicella (chicken-pox):

Variola	Varicella
History	
1. Previous or existing case in the vicinity.	1. Traceable to previous or present case of varicella.
2. Not successfully vaccinated.	2. Negative.
3. Occurs at any age.	3. Is more common in childhood.
4. Characteristic preëruptive stage, rash on the third day.	4. Eruption not preceded by prodromes.
5. Sacral pain, high fever, and vomiting common.	5. Pain, high fever and vomiting uncommon.
Eruption	
6. Appears first upon the forehead, extending downward.	6. Appears first over the parts covered by clothing. No regular distribution over the body.
7. Vesicles uniform in size, umbilicated, and deep seated.	7. Vesicles vary much in size, are rarely umbilicated, and feel soft and velvety.
8. Contains serum and later pus.	8. Contains only serum, giving it a pearly translucency.
9. Most abundant on face and fingers.	9. Most abundant upon back and lower extremities.
10. Appears in a single crop.	10. Various lesions present side by side.
11. Pin-prick does not cause collapse of vesicles, they being multilocular.	11. Pin-prick causes collapse, vesicles being unilocular.
12. Secondary fever usually present.	12. Secondary fever absent.

Clinical Course and Duration.—This will be found to vary greatly, depending upon the severity of the type of infection and upon the presence or absence of complications. In uncomplicated cases the eruption will have advanced to the pustular stage by the ninth day, and if it is but moderately extensive, the formation of scabs will be observed after the twelfth day, when, in favorable cases, the secondary fever will gradually decline, reaching the normal during the third week of the disease. The disease runs a somewhat shorter course in the aged than in young subjects.

Complications.—Among the more serious complications are bronchopneumonia, lobar pneumonia, hemorrhage from the bowel, acute

nephritis with hematuria, grave nervous manifestations, ulceration of the cornea, purulent conjunctivitis, and otitis media. Almost all these complications have been considered in the general description of the disease.

ALASTRIM

An acute infection most often seen along the Mediterranean Sea, and in tropical districts. In 1919 Copeman* described an epidemic of 154 cases at Cambridge, England, and in 1903 there was an epidemic in Trinidad, consisting of 4000 cases.

Clinical Features.—The incubation period is from 12 to 14 days. The onset rather abrupt with headache, nausea, prostration, pain in the back, muscles, and limbs. The disease may occasionally be ushered in by a chill. In pronounced cases the fever rises abruptly to 103 or 104° F. The degree of fever varies with the severity of the type in question.

The eruption appears on the second or third days, and is followed by a subsidence of the initial symptoms. Characteristic papules appear which soon change to vesicles and are profusely distributed over the chest, abdomen, and extremities, and may later involve the face. The eruption rarely appears on the mucous membranes; although lesions are seen on the palms of the hands and soles of the feet. In severe cases there is a tendency for the lesions to coalesce.

Differential Diagnosis.—The lesions of alastrim differ from those of smallpox in that they are not umbilicated, nor are they multiocular, and frequently disappear without containing pus. Pitting is not common. During the first few days of the disease it is difficult to distinguish between alastrim, variola, and varicella. Vaccination against smallpox does not protect the patient against alastrim.

VACCINIA (COWPOX)

Pathologic Definition.—An attenuated form of smallpox resulting from vaccination with serum collected from bovines that have previously been inoculated with the disease.

Clinical Characteristics.—Within the course of three to five days following vaccination a distinct papule appears at the site of the lesion, which is surrounded by a red areola. The congested area extends, and by the sixth day a well-marked umbilicated vesicle or a crop of vesicles are present. These often show distinct umbilication, and by the tenth day they contain purulent fluid. On or about the twelfth day following vaccination the lesion tends to disappear, and within the course of three or four weeks the scab is shed and distinct pitting remains at the site of each papule.

Thermic Features.—In from four to six days following vaccination mild fever and constitutional disturbances appear, and may continue until the ninth day.

The lymph-nodes in the corresponding axilla are often enlarged, and may be tender or even painful.

Atypical Forms.—If the patient is especially susceptible to the virus, or if the virus is unusually active, extensive erythema and a papular eruption may occur, and go on to suppuration, leaving distinct pock-marks on certain portions of the body.

Complications.—Those resulting from external infection of the wound are erysipelas, impetigo, extensive ulceration, and tetanus. Tetanus has been found to follow vaccination in 33 out of 863 cases in which

* Proc. Roy. Soc. Med., 1920, XIII, 237.

the disease occurred after operation, injury, and the like (Anders and Morgan). The transmission of syphilis through vaccination has been reported.

VARICELLA (CHICKEN-POX)

Pathologic Definition.—An acute infectious disease characterized by the presence of a cutaneous eruption of vesicles distributed over the body.

Exciting and Predisposing Factors.—Bacteriology.—Various investigators have isolated different bacteria from the vesicles, but the etiologic factor is as yet unknown. Netter* has called special attention to the clinical fact that herpes zoster frequently either antedates or follows varicella.

The disease is seldom, if ever, conveyed by clothing, etc., personal contact being necessary to produce the disease.

Incubation Period.—The eruption develops in from fourteen to sixteen days after exposure.

Principal Complaint.—Slight prodromal symptoms may be experienced, but these, as a rule, are so mild as to be unappreciated by the patient.

Thermic Features.—Upon the second and third days of the disease the temperature will be found to range between 100° and 102° F., occasionally a higher temperature is observed. The fever declines by lysis.

Physical Signs.—Inspection.—*Eruptive Stage.*—In many instances the patient appears to be in perfect health until the eruption appears. The latter is characteristic, appearing in the form of small reddish *puncta* that later develop into rose-colored *macules*. As the disease progresses the macules may become converted into *papules*, and later into *vesicles*, the lesions becoming distended to approximately the size of a pea.

The distribution of the eruption is somewhat characteristic, appearing first upon the upper portion of the body—*i. e.*, the chest, back, neck, and scalp. The face is, as a rule, but sparingly covered, whereas the scalp contains many lesions. Vesicles may also appear upon the lips, within the buccal cavity, and on the palate. These are transparent at first, but later become translucent, and the vesicular contents may become seropurulent. A narrow areola the result of congestion surrounds each vesicle. Later *crusts* form, which drop off in from the sixth to the twentieth day after the appearance of the eruption. Pitting is not common, and is rarely seen on those portions of the body covered by clothing. Some of the lesions may go on to form well-marked pustules, although this manifestation is by no means characteristic of the disease. When the eruption begins to fade, intense itching of the scalp occurs, and in those cases in which the eruption is profuse, itching of the entire body may be an annoying feature. The eruption of chicken-pox appears in successive crops, so that macules, papules, and vesicles may be seen side by side in a given cutaneous area. This is a distinctive feature between varicella and variola. In the latter disease the eruption involves the entire body at one time, and the lesions in various situations are of the same degree of evolution. (See Variola, p. 954; Alastrim, p. 962.)

Complications.—These are unusual, although the disease is occasionally complicated by **erysipelas,** which may extend from certain of the infected areas, and is most likely to affect those sections in which there has been distinct ulceration. **Isolated abscesses** and **adenitis** are

* Bulletin de l'Academie de Medecine, June 29, 1920.

occasionally seen. **Acute nephritis** may develop when the surroundings are unhygienic, and when the patient has been unduly exposed to cold and wet.

HYDROPHOBIA (RABIES)

Pathologic Definition.—An acute infectious disease, characterized, according to Van Gehuchten and Nelis, by lesions in the ganglia, on the posterior roots of the spinal nerves and of the sympathetic system. These lesions consist of atrophy and invasion and destruction of the nerve-cells by newly formed cells derived from the endothelial cells. The cerebral vessels may contain soft thrombi, and hemorrhagic extravasations into the perivascular spaces may take place, as has been stated by Fitz.

General Remarks.—The specific infection is conveyed to man by the bite of an infected animal.

Rabies is constantly present in certain parts of the country. In 1906 there was hardly a country in Pennsylvania in which the disease had not been reported. In Chester County, Pennsylvania, during the summer of 1907, the destruction of 154 dogs, 25 cows, and 10 horses was necessitated by reason of the fact that they had been exposed to the bites of rabid dogs. The increasing prevalence of hydrophobia is further supported by the statistics of the State of Connecticut for 1906, when, in the city of Waterbury, several persons were bitten by rabid animals and 175 dogs were destroyed. At Torrington, Conn., seven cows died of hydrophobia. In 1905–06 the disease prevailed extensively in Florida, and Hill reports the necessary destruction of 1200 dogs. Twelve persons were bitten, and of these three died of hydrophobia. In Norfolk, Va., nine persons have been bitten by rabid dogs during the past five years, and a large number of domestic animals have been destroyed. At Charleston, W. Va., 12 cows and 40 dogs are reported as having died from the disease during the past few years. This brief statistical résumé is in itself sufficient to convince the most skeptical of the increasing prevalence of hydrophobia in the United States.

Exciting and Predisposing Factors.—No specific organism has as yet been detected. In 1903 bodies were found in the large ganglion-cells of the brain; particularly in the hippocampus major; these were described by Negri, and are known as Negri bodies. Some authors believe them to be protozoan parasites, and the cause of the disease. The bodies are round, oval, or triangular in shape, and vary in size from 1 to 23 microns in diameter. They are composed of a homogeneous, non-granular substance, which is strongly eosinophilic, and which resembles coagulated albumin. The bites of infected dogs are the usual cause in man.

Clinical Stages.—The **prodromal stage** lasts from two weeks to four months, the average case developing symptoms in from six to eight weeks after exposure. George H. Heart, V.M.D., cites the case of a dog that received a bite from a rabid animal and developed hydrophobia just one year later. The diagnosis in both animals was made from a pathologic study of their tissues and by the inoculation of rabbits.

In experimental hydrophobia, when the virus is introduced directly into the nervous system (meninges), definite symptoms develop in from fourteen to twenty-one days. An unusually prolonged incubation period, extending over months, is occasionally seen, and is explained in the following way: If a rabid animal bites a human subject through the

clothing or inflicts but a slight wound, the virus is not introduced directly into the circulation, but is taken up by the lymphatics and held within the lymphatic system for an indefinite period (weeks, months); when, however, the virus passes beyond the barriers of the lymphatics and reaches the nervous system, the characteristic symptoms of the disease follow in from fifteen to twenty-one days.

Among the **initial symptoms** are depression of spirits, malaise, headache, impaired appetite, insomnia, slight fever, photophobia, intolerance of sound, and alterations in the voice, such as hoarseness and dysphagia.

Second Stage.—At this time the patient becomes extremely excitable, and there is hyperesthesia of the special senses and of the skin. The muscles of the throat become more or less fixed, and attempts at swallowing are followed by *violent spasms* that involve the muscles of the pharynx, mouth, and upper portion of the chest. During the spasm the patient becomes cyanosed and presents a picture of great distress. Owing to the hypersensitiveness of the nerves, the paroxysms may be excited by drafts, the sight of water or of food, an attempt to swallow, startling noises, or even by an attempt to move the patient in bed. Intense thirst is present. Consciousness may be retained during the attacks, although in certain cases delirium occurs.

Thermic Features.—Mild fever is usually present during this stage of the disease, the temperature ranging between 99° and 103° F. This stage of the disease continues for from thirty-six to seventy-two hours.

Third Stage.—This is often referred to as the paralytic stage, and is characterized by the absence of spasms and the development of stupor, followed by coma, which terminates in death in from six to eighteen hours.

Summary of Diagnosis.—A history of being bitten by an animal believed to be suffering from the disease at the time, together with the characteristic symptoms, is strong evidence of the existence of hydrophobia. The animal that inflicted the bite should in no case be immediately killed. Instead, he should be placed in a safe cage and given both food and water. If the dog has rabies, he will die within two or three days, and necropsy will determine the cause of death. It is unfortunate that so many animals are shot immediately after inflicting a bite upon either man or domestic animals, for if he were immediately placed under the care of a veterinarian, definite knowledge could be ascertained as to the presence or absence of rabies, and proper treatment of the bitten individual accordingly instituted.

Lyssophobia (**Pseudo-hydrophobia**) is a condition affecting persons of neurotic or hysteric temperament some months after being bitten by a dog. They then develop symptoms simulating those of hydrophobia. Among the characteristics that differentiate this condition from true hydrophobia are the following: Irritability, despondency, emotional seizures, absence of fever, and the fact that the disease does not progress through the successive clinical stages.

Clinical Course.—Hydrophobia usually terminates fatally on about the third day. Dogs generally die on the third day, rabbits on the ninth day, and monkeys on the fourteenth day.

TETANUS (Trismus; Lock-jaw)

Pathologic Definition.—An acute infectious disease caused by the bacillus tetani. The toxins act upon the nerve-cells of the medulla and the spinal cord, resulting in congestion, edema, inflammation, and softening of the gray matter. An ascending neuritis extends from the initial wound, and is characterized by reddening and swelling of the neurolemma.

Clinical Types.—The disease, as a rule, follows the infliction of punctured or lacerated wounds. In the new-born it results from infection of the umbilical cord.

Varieties.—(1) **Acute tetanus**; (2) **chronic tetanus**; and (3) **cephalic tetanus.**

Exciting and Predisposing Factors.—Bacteriology.—The bacillus of tetanus was first recovered from the tissues of man by Rosenbach in 1886, although it had been described in 1884 or 1885 by Nicolaier. It is a long, slender rod, clubbed at one extremity, and is anaërobic. Animals inoculated with cultures of this organism develop typical attacks of tetanus.

Modes of Infection.—Anders and Morgan's analysis of the records of 1201 cases of tetanus shows conclusively that the introduction of the tetanus bacillus is usually effected through a lesion of the skin, and that the so-called idiopathic or rheumatic type of the disease does not exist.

Season.—The accompanying tables, taken from the paper of Anders, in collaboration with A. C. Morgan, the result of an analysis of 687 cases, is of special value as showing the influence of season upon tetanus:

SEASONAL OCCURRENCE OF TETANUS

	Number of Cases		Number of Cases
January	35	August	59
February	36	September	68
March	41	October	75
April	42	November	47
May	57	December	37
June	61		
July	129	Total	687

SEASONAL OCCURRENCE OF TETANUS NEONATORUM

January	12	August	8
February	10	September	14
March	24	October	9
April	5	November	9
May	6	December	7
June	11		
July	18	Total	133

Immunity.—Animals may be rendered immune by injecting them with cultures of the tetanus bacillus after such bacteria have been treated with iodin trichlorid.

Incubation Period.—The duration of the period of incubation is dependent entirely upon whether the case pursues an acute or a chronic course. In acute tetanus the incubation period lasts from one to two weeks, whereas in the chronic type the first symptoms are manifest after the second week. The accompanying table, taken from the paper just cited, shows the average incubation periods in infants and in adults developing the disease:

TABLE OF AGES OF PATIENTS IN TETANUS CASES

	Number of Patients		Number of Patients
3 to 15 days	13	Over 50	14
1 to 5 years	24		
5 to 10 years	99	Total	583
10 to 15 years	130	Unclassified	618
15 to 20 years	70		
20 to 25 years	75	Total	1201
25 to 30 years	44		
30 to 35 years	42	Males	778
35 to 40 years	37	Females	203
40 to 45 years	22		
45 to 50 years	13	Total	981

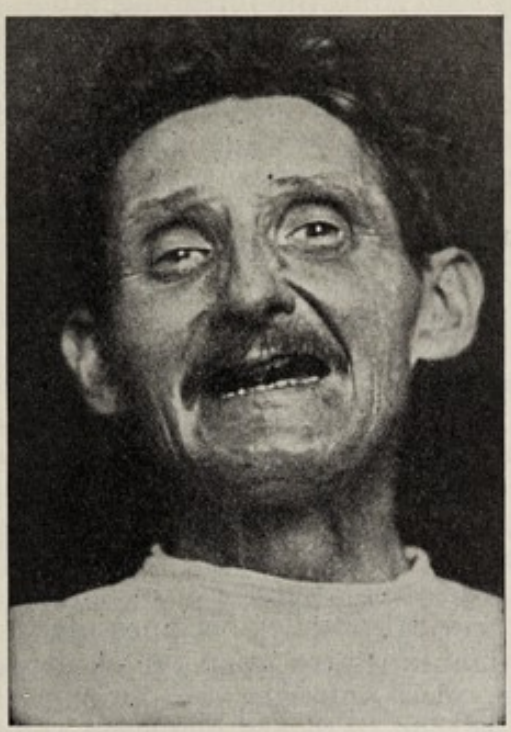


FIG. 349.—EXPRESSION OF TETANUS WHEN THE PATIENT ATTEMPTS TO OPEN THE MOUTH.

Note the peculiar drawing of the muscles from the chin to the nose, the irregular outline of the superior lip, wrinkling of the skin between the eyebrows. Apparent depression of the eyes, leaving a deep fold behind the superior eyelids. The muscles of the neck also stand out prominently. Case treated by one of us at the Philadelphia General Hospital. (Same patient as Fig. 350.)

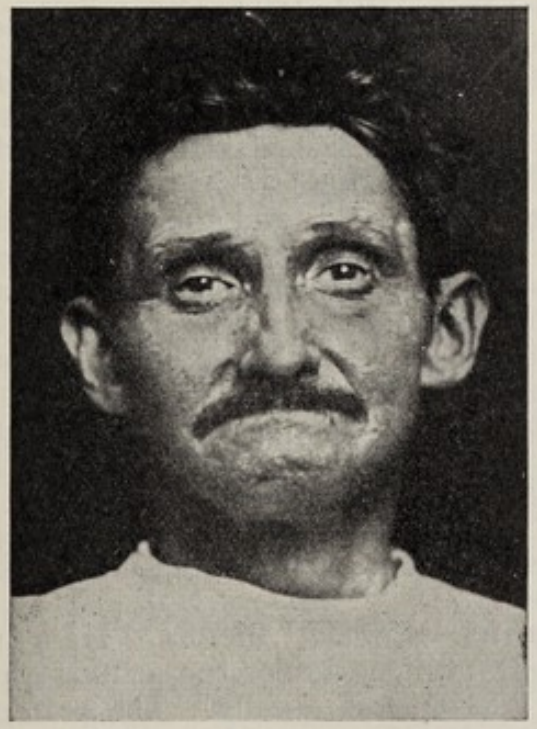


FIG. 350.—CHARACTERISTIC EXPRESSION OF TETANUS WHEN THE PATIENT DOES NOT ATTEMPT TO OPEN THE MOUTH.

Note particularly the sardonic expression of the mouth, and the attempt at dimpling on the chin, and wrinkling above the eyebrows. Patient treated during the 1916 service of one of us (Boston) at the Philadelphia General Hospital.

Sex.—Males, as seen from the foregoing table, are far more likely to develop the disease than are females, a clinical fact that is probably explained, in part, at least, by the exposure to which males are subjected in the various trades. The disease appears to attack most frequently those who have previously enjoyed good health.

Age.—"An analysis of 593 cases gave 229, or 39.3 per cent., of them from the fifteenth to the twenty-fifth years; while there were 86 cases, or 14.8 per cent., between twenty-five and thirty-five years. After the fiftieth year only 14 cases occurred" (Anders).

Acute Tetanus.—Clinical Picture.—The patient usually experiences mild *prodromal symptoms*, such as languor, headache, mental hebetude, and anorexia. The characteristic symptoms develop somewhat insidiously, the patient's first complaint being of stiffness of the muscles of mastication and of those at the back of the neck. *Tonic spasms* soon follow, the muscles of the face become spastic, and there is locking of the jaws.

Spasm.—Severe convulsive seizures are often excited by slight movement of the patient, by sounds, or by currents of air; the attacks are accompanied by excruciating pain.

Rigidity of the cervical muscles becomes marked, and the patient is unable to bring the chin forward upon the chest; retraction of the head soon follows. The recti muscles are among the first to become rigid, and we have learned to regard increased abdominal tension as one of the earliest positive signs for tetanus. As the case goes on from bad to worse, the anterior surface of the abdomen becomes scaphoid. The *facies* is characteristic, the forehead being wrinkled and the corners of the mouth drawn down, giving to the face the expression of a peculiar sardonic smile. Further examination shows that the reflexes are increased. The skin is beaded with perspiration. (See Figs. 349 and 350.)

The *pulse* is increased in frequency even in mild cases, and in the more severe types it varies from 140 to 160 beats a minute; it is small, irregular, dicrotic, later becoming compressible.

The muscles of the body are next attacked, in the following order: First, those of the trunk and spine are affected, causing the body to assume a bowed or arched attitude (opisthotonos), and there may be lateral arching (pleurothotonos); the abdominal muscles are next affected, becoming unduly rigid, and their spasmodic contraction may incline the body forward (emprosthotonos). Later the legs become involved, the arms, however, being in most cases capable of some movement. The patient complains of thoracic oppression and agonizing pain at the base of the chest. Localized tetanus has been reported.

Thermic Features.—Moderate fever is present, as a rule, although in selected cases the temperature may suddenly rise to 105° or even 110° F. In other instances fever may be absent throughout the attack.

Laboratory Diagnosis.—The *urine* is usually voided with each spasmodic seizure. Scrapings from the initial wound may show the presence of the bacillus tetani. Moderate leukocytosis—12,000 to 14,000—has been observed.

Chronic Tetanus.—Clinical Picture.—Here practically all the symptoms previously outlined under the acute form of the disease are present, but they develop less rapidly. The painful spasms may disappear, making the administration of liquid food possible. A feature that is characteristic of the chronic form of the disease is that the patient experiences partial freedom from painful seizures, the intervals becoming longer and longer as convalescence proceeds. *Relapses* are prone to occur.

Cephalic Tetanus.—Clinical Picture.—Rose described this type of tetanus, which follows injuries to the face. Among the most characteristic features are spasms of the masseter muscles and the pharyngeal muscles, causing dysphagia and rarely contraction of the muscles of the neck and abdomen. Paralysis of the facial nerve may take place. Approximately 25 per cent. of all cases of cephalic tetanus go on to recovery.

Summary and Differential Diagnosis.—Given the history of a punctured wound or of an abrasion of the skin, the diagnosis is based upon the following clinical features: The presence of rigidity of the muscles of the jaw and of the neck, with retraction of the head, spasm of the muscles of the trunk, and later of the lower extremities and of the arms. The detection of the specific microörganism in scrapings from the wound makes the diagnosis positive, even in those cases in which the symptoms are atypical.

Tetany differs from tetanus first by its clinical history, and second by the fact that the extremities (hands) and larynx are involved intermittently. Tetany is a disease of the young, and the attitude of the patient is unlike that seen in tetanus.

Hydrophobia.—Here there is a history of being bitten by an animal in practically all cases, and the spasmodic seizures are limited more especially to the respiratory system. In hydrophobia the jaws are free and opisthotonos is practically unknown.

Tetanus	Strychnin Poisoning
1. The receipt of a wound, generally followed by a period of incubation.	1. Ingestion of strychnin, immediately followed by the symptoms.
2. Begins with lock-jaw; later spreads downward, the arms and hands escaping.	2. Begins with gastric disturbance or a tetanic contraction of the extremities. Hyperesthesia of the retina occurs and objects appear green.
3. Reflex spasms not present at the onset.	3. Violent convulsions present from the onset.
4. Rigidity is persistent, except in the chronic form.	4. Intervals of complete relaxation occur.
5. The course is prolonged into days or weeks.	5. The course is brief, terminating in death or recovery.
6. Cultures made from the discharges of the wound show the presence of the bacillus tetani.	6. Examination of the gastric contents shows the presence of strychnin.

Clinical Course.—In cases in which the symptoms develop within one or two weeks following an injury the disease usually runs a rapid course, terminating fatally in a few days. In the chronic type the disease may become much protracted. Tetanus neonatorum is probably the most fatal form of the disease, and pursues a rapid clinical course. Of 870 cases analyzed by Anders and Morgan, 338 terminated fatally before the fifth day; 275 died between the fifth and the tenth day, and 211 cases lived for more than fifteen days.

GLANDERS (Farcy)

Pathologic Definition.—An acute infectious disease caused by the presence of the bacillus mallei. It is characterized by the development of granulomata. These growths are nodular, and when situated upon the nasal mucous membrane, become soft and eventually ulcerate. On the other hand, when they are situated on the skin, multiple abscesses result. Microscopically, sections from the new-growth are seen to contain numerous bacilli.

Clinical Varieties.—(1) **Acute glanders.**

(2) **Chronic Glanders.**—This is a mild and unusual form of the disease. The symptoms are vague, nasal catarrh being the most significant indication.

(3) **Acute farcy** is a form of cutaneous glanders in which the nasal manifestations may be mild or absent. In this type of the disease the *local symptoms* at the seat of the primary lesion may be acute, and numerous cutaneous abscesses which are distributed along the lines of the lymphatics develop later. The *constitutional symptoms* of pyemia are manifested early.

(4) **Chronic Farcy.**—This form of the disease is characterized by the formation of granulomatous tumors of the skin and subcutaneous tissue, which eventually result in abscesses. The lesions are most commonly seen in the neighborhood of the large joints. In chronic farcy the abscesses usually discharge their contents externally, leaving behind an offensive ulcer. Owing to suppuration, the temperature takes a hectic curve.

Exciting and Predisposing Factors.—Bacteriology.—The disease is due to infection with the bacillus mallei, an organism that is readily cultivated, and is found present in sections of the granulomatous mass, and in the purulent discharge from the nasal mucous membrane, as well as from abscesses and ulcers.

Sex.—This disease is usually transmitted directly from domestic animals to man, being generally contracted from horses; hence males are most often affected.

Modes of Infection.—The medium of conveyance from the equine family to man is usually through the purulent nasal secretion, which is expelled from the animal's nostrils and alights upon open wounds, upon abrasions of the skin, or upon the mucous surface.

Incubation Period.—This varies, lasting usually three to five days.

Immunity.—Man possesses an almost complete natural immunity to this disease, and Singer asserts that he has produced immunity by making intravenous injections of sterilized cultures of the bacillus mallei.

Acute Glanders.—Clinical Picture.—The first evidence of the disease is the presence of inflammation at and surrounding the point of infection. *Lymphangitis* follows within the course of a few days, and all the adjacent lymph-nodes become involved. Later a distinct *eruption* involving the face and trunk is seen, the extremities, particularly in the region of the joints, becoming finally affected. The papules rapidly become converted into pustules, discharging a seropurulent fluid that contains the specific organism of the disease. Following the accumulation of pus in the lesions extensive swelling of the nose and of other portions of the body occurs. In practically all cases the conjunctivæ are attacked, and lesions may extend to the mucous surfaces of the mouth and pharynx, and, rarely, the respiratory and gastro-intestinal tracts may become involved. Necrosis of the bones is occasionally seen.

ANTHRAX

(MALIGNANT PUSTULE; SPLENIC FEVER; WOOL-SORTER'S DISEASE, ETC.)

Pathologic Definition.—An acute infectious disease due to the presence of the bacillus anthracis, and characterized by the formation of a rapidly extending pustule, by a bacteriemia, or by lesions of the

gastro-intestinal tract or the lungs. The bacillus or its spores may be readily demonstrated in the lesions. The local manifestations of the disease are inflammation, ulceration, gangrene, and edematous infiltration, together with degenerative changes in the heart muscle and in the kidneys. Hemorrhagic and gangrenous infiltration of the intestinal tract and of the retroperitoneal lymph-nodes may also be present. Enlargement of the spleen may be a conspicuous symptom.

Clinical Varieties.—External anthrax (malignant pustule); internal anthrax (intestinal mycosis).

Exciting and Predisposing Factors.—Bacteriology.—The exciting cause of the disease is the bacillus anthracis.

Incubation Period.—This lasts, as a rule, between one and three days.

Immunity.—Pasteur has prepared an attenuated virus that has been used extensively in localities in which anthrax is common, and good results are said to have followed its use. Other investigators have obtained less satisfactory results, the majority agreeing that temporary immunity can be effected by its use.

Modes of Infection.—It is highly probable that the bacillus gains entrance into the human body through slight wounds, abrasions, and scratches of the cutaneous surface. The intestinal form of the disease probably follows the ingestion of food containing the specific organism. Primary lesions of the lung occur, but they are rare, and the channel through which the exciting bacterium gains entrance to the pulmonary tissue remains in question. It is asserted that the bite of certain insects, particularly the fly and the mosquito, may convey the disease to man.

Occupation is a prominent predisposing factor, the disease being more prevalent among those brought in direct contact with infected animals or with their hides or wool. It follows, therefore, that those employed in woolen mills and those engaged in handling cattle, sheep, horses and hides are especially prone to contract the disease. Persons engaged in the manufacture of mattresses, rugs, and hair goods are also frequent sufferers from the disease.

Sex.—The disease is more commonly seen in males.

Malignant Pustule.—Clinical Picture.—Three days after infection has taken place an appreciable reddening is seen at the wound of entrance, and at this site a papule forms, rapidly developing into a vesicle containing bloody fluid. During the papular and vesicular stages the patient may complain of intense burning in the region of the lesion. The *vesicle* soon ruptures, leaving behind a blackish *scab*, surrounded by a brawny area of edematous induration. Radiating from the initial lesion red lines, corresponding to the lymphatic vessels, are to be seen, and within the course of from twenty-four to thirty-six hours vesicles form at variable distances from the initial lesion.

During the second day of the disease the patient may display *constitutional symptoms*, such as high fever, extreme prostration, nausea, vomiting, profuse sweats, appreciable enlargement of the spleen, and, in severe cases, delirium, followed by coma and death.

Internal Anthrax.—Clinical Picture.—For convenience of description and clinical study this type of the disease is divided into two sub-classes:

(*a*) *Wool-sorter's Disease.*—This is marked by sudden *onset* with a severe chill, followed by a rapid rise in temperature, which may reach 103° F. or even higher. *Prostration* is apparent early, and there are severe *pains* in the back and in the muscles of the legs, and intense headache.

As the disease progresses the *heart* becomes rapid, the *pulse* weak and irregular, and severe gastro-intestinal symptoms, *e. g.*, nausea, vomiting, and diarrhea, are apt to occur. *Nervous symptoms* may also be prominent, delirium being followed by coma.

(*b*) *Intestinal Form* (*Intestinal Mycosis*).—In this variety the disease develops abruptly with a *chill*, followed by well-marked constitutional symptoms and by *pain* in the head, back, and legs. Nausea and vomiting develop early, and are usually followed by intestinal cramp and diarrhea. *Hemorrhages* from the mucous surfaces, bowel, stomach, and pharynx may occur, and petechial hemorrhage is also occasionally observed. Muscular spasms are not infrequent, and in all cases extreme restlessness in a conspicuous feature. Moderate fever is, as a rule, present.

Laboratory Diagnosis.—The bacillus anthracis will be found in blood obtained from the initial lesion, both by cultural methods and by the staining of smears. The existence of the bacillus may also be demonstrated by inoculating animals with the serum.

The **urine** becomes scanty, high colored, and of high specific gravity. Hemorrhagic fluid from the mucous surfaces may also contain the anthrax bacillus.

Blood.—Royer and Holmes, in a report of a clinical study of 15 cases treated at the Municipal Hospital, Philadelphia, gave out the following data: Anthrax bacilli were frequently discovered in the circulating blood both by smears and by cultural methods. In 13 cases a study was made with reference to alteration in the leukocytes, and in these leukocytosis was the rule, the highest count obtained being 25,000 in a cubic millimeter, whereas the average count for the 13 cases was 13,900. In two fatal cases the leukocytes numbered 12,600 and 9600 respectively. In 11 cases a differential leukocyte count gave the following as an average: Polymorphonuclear leukocytes, 77.6 per cent.; large lymphocytes, 17.7 per cent.; small lymphocytes, 5.3 per cent.; eosinophiles, 3 per cent.; basophiles, 0.1 per cent., and myelocytes, 0.4 per cent.

Clinical Course.—In malignant pustule the clinical course is greatly modified by surgical treatment, but in those cases in which treatment is administered late, the disease usually progresses from bad to worse for a period of from five to eight days. Internal anthrax pursues a rapid course, and may soon terminate in coma and death.

SEPTICEMIA

Pathologic Definition.—A systemic disease due to invasion of the blood and the tissues by pathogenic microörganisms. Among the manifestations likely to be present are endocarditis and an acute catarrhal inflammation of the gastro-intestinal mucosa, with punctate mucous hemorrhages. The spleen is enlarged; there is cloudy swelling of the liver, and acute inflammatory changes take place in the parenchyma of the kidneys; minute hemorrhages into the various serous surfaces (pleuræ, pericardium, and peritoneum) also often occur.

Exciting and Predisposing Factors.—Bacteriology.—A septicemia may be caused by any pathogenic organism, but the majority of cases are due to the staphylococcus aureus or streptococcus pyogenes.

Modes of Entrance of Pathogenic Microörganisms into the System.—(*a*) The pathogenic organisms may enter the circulation through wounds made at surgical operations or through those inflicted accidentally. (*b*) Through wounds in the mucous membrane of the uterus following parturition, abortion, and curettement. (*c*) Through minute cracks and

fissures in various parts of the body. (*d*) Through sloughing ulcerative surfaces, as in carcinomata, leg ulcers, bed-sores, gangrene, and the like. (*e*) Through lesions of the mucous membranes, in any infectious disease, as, for example, in typhoid fever, dysentery, gonorrhea, and acute suppurating processes involving the tonsils. (*f*) The so-called "*sepsis intestinalis*" is due to the ingestion of decomposed articles of diet.

Symptoms of True Septicemia.—The *incubation period* is indefinite, usually, however, averaging several days. The *onset* is more gradual than in toxemia, although it is often marked by a chill. When it follows surgical procedures, there are *fever*, with headache, anorexia, prostration, sometimes vomiting and diarrhea, and mental dullness, occasionally amounting to mild stupor. As the disease progresses the symptoms become intensified, and the patient may enter the so-called typhoid state.

Thermic Features.—The fever rises abruptly to from 101° to 103° F. or higher, and is often of the continued type. The duration of the febrile period varies with the character of the infection.

Physical Signs.—Inspection.—The face may be flushed at first, but extreme pallor is often present. Punctate hemorrhages into the skin are quite common, and these may coalesce to form ecchymoses; also less commonly there is a scarlatinal eruption. Herpes labialis, cutaneous edema, and jaundice are among the rarer features of the disease.

Palpation.—The skin is hot, and may be beaded with perspiration. The pulse is, as a rule, rapid from the onset, the beats numbering 100 to 120 a minute. As the disease progresses the pulse becomes more rapid, irregular, dicrotic, and compressible. After a few days the spleen may be felt below the costal margin, and is often tender upon firm pressure.

Laboratory Diagnosis.—The number of red corpuscles is moderately reduced, and there is a corresponding reduction in the hemoglobin. Leukocytosis is generally present, and a differential count shows an increase in the number of the polymorphonuclear cells. Cultures from the blood may show the presence of pathogenic bacteria.

Diarrhea is not unusual, and may be severe. Vomiting is frequent.

Nephritis may develop at any time during the course of the attack, casts, albumin, and at times pus being found in the urine. The quantity of urine excreted is diminished, and the fluid is of high specific gravity and has a high color.

COLON BACILLUS INFECTION

The bacillus coli communis when outside of the intestine, frequently becomes a pathologic organism and its various strains are to be found in connection with infection of the genito-urinary tract (cystitis, pyelitis and selected cases of puerperal infection). Cholecystitis, pleuritis and inflammatory and suppurative processes of glandular structures may have for their exciting factor the bacillus coli communis.

Diagnosis.—This is attained through bacteriologic study. Stone has given an exhaustive discussion together with a complete bibliography in connection with colon bacillus infection.

PYEMIA

Pathologic Definition.—Pyemia is a form of septicemia in which the pathogenic organisms form thrombi or emboli in the small blood-vessels, with the development of multiple abscesses. These abscesses are most frequently found in the skin, the spleen, the liver, the kidney, and the brain. Hemorrhagic extravasations into both the skin and mucous membranes occur, and these ecchymoses may later contain puru-

lent fluid. Ulcerative lesions of the endocardium are by no means uncommon, and in rare cases myocardial abscess is observed.

Exciting and Predisposing Factors.—Bacteriology.—Pyemia is believed to result, in the majority of instances, at least, from the invasion of the blood by streptococci and staphylococci. Other pus-producing organisms capable of exciting this condition are pneumococci, the pneumobacillus (Friedländer's), bacillus coli communis, bacillus anthracis, gonococcus, micrococcus tetragenus, and bacillus pyocyaneus.

Paths of Invasion.—The bacteria enter the circulation through the blood-vessels, by the same routes described under septicemia. The organisms excite either phlebitis and thrombosis, or they form emboli in the smallest arteries.

Pyemia may also follow purulent appendicitis and other concealed abscess formations, and such cases, especially when the site of the lesion is unknown, are said to be suffering from spontaneous pyemia, although in reality they do not differ either etiologically or clinically from the types previously described.

Period of Incubation.—The characteristic symptoms usually develop first about one week after the patient has received an injury to the skin or after a surgical operation has been performed.

Principal Complaint.—A history of injury from which the patient has not fully recovered is usually obtained. The onset is marked, as a rule, by a distinct chill, although the patient may have felt feverish for one or more days prior to the occurrence of this characteristic symptom. The chill may have been so slight as to escape the patient's notice, yet when questioned carefully, he will usually recall having experienced a series of chilly sensations. *Prostration* is a conspicuous feature early during the disease, and drenching *sweats* occur throughout the twenty-four hours. The seat of the wound may or may not be painful. When there is pleural involvement, *pain* is present over the lungs, and there is also pain over the region of the spleen and liver, due to the septic process. *Abscesses* of the skin and extensive areas of cutaneous and subcutaneous inflammation are also characterized by pain. Metastatic purulent processes localized in or about the larger joints are occasionally seen and are productive of severe pain. Acute osteomyelitis may also develop, and is characterized by the presence of intense pain along the course of one of the long bones.

Vague *gastro-intestinal* symptoms are present, although anorexia usually obtains, and there may be septic diarrhea.

Nervous Phenomena.—The mind is clear until the later stages of the disease, and delirium is a late symptom, usually terminating in coma. Hyperesthesia of the skin may be present early. Purulent meningitis due to metastasis may develop at any time during the course of pyemia, and in such cases the characteristic features of this condition are present. (See p. 897.)

Thermic Features.—During the chill the temperature rises rapidly, reaching from 101° to 105° F. The course of the fever is remittent, the temperature fluctuating greatly on different days of the disease. In exceptional cases the temperature is intermittent, falling to or below the normal line for a time each day.

Physical Signs.—Inspection may disclose the initial injury or wound of operation, which is seldom completely healed. The expression is anxious, the face is drawn, and the skin is pale and beaded with perspiration. The nostrils dilate, particularly in those cases in which pulmonary complications exist. Late during the course of the disease there is a

variable degree of jaundice, and general cutaneous eruptions—*e. g.*, purpura, localized general erythema, and numerous pustules—are not uncommon.

Palpation.—Pustules and areas of inflammation involving the skin are detectable. If hepatic abscesses or abscess formation in other viscera are present, pressure over the diseased organ will elicit extreme tenderness. The spleen is decidedly tender, and pressure over any portion of the body may excite pain. When the fever is high the skin is unusually hot, but following sleep it is frequently cold and clammy.

The *pulse* is accelerated early during the disease, but is, as a rule, moderately full and regular. As the disease progresses the pulse becomes very rapid,—numbering 120 to 160 beats a minute,—weak, and compressible, and in advanced cases it may be impossible to count the beats.

Auscultation.—In those cases in which pleurisy, pneumonia, endocarditis, or pericarditis develops the auscultatory and other signs of these conditions will be present.

Laboratory Diagnosis.—The *urine* is scanty, of high specific gravity, rich in albumin, and often contains casts, pus, and blood. Cultures from the urine show the presence of colonies of pus-producing bacteria. The diazo-reaction is very common.

Destructive changes in the *blood* soon begin, and there is progressive reduction in the percentage of hemoglobin and red cells. Leukocytosis develops early, the number of white cells varying between 15,000 and 60,000 in a cubic millimeter. Microscopically, the red cells are found to be greatly distorted, and nucleated erythrocytes are by no means uncommon.

Bacteriologic Study of the Blood.—In making a diagnosis of septicemia and pyemia blood-cultures will show the presence of the organism producing the symptoms. The bacteriologic study of the blood should be undertaken in every case of general infection, in order to determine the nature of the organism producing the symptoms. If the culture remains sterile, the condition is more likely to be a toxemia than a septicemia p. 443.

Clinical Course.—The course of the disease will be found to vary within certain limits, depending upon the character of the exciting factor; generally speaking, however, pyemia runs a rapid course, progressing from bad to worse.

ACTINOMYCOSIS ("BIG JAW," "LUMPY JAW")

Pathologic Definition.—An infectious disease of cattle, transmissible to man. It is caused by the actinomyces bovis, or ray fungus, and is characterized by the formation of granulomatous tumors in various tissues of the body. It commonly affects the human lung, and may spread by contiguity of tissues to all organs occupying the chest and abdomen. Hufnagel,* reports a case where the pericardium was involved.

Actinomycosis bovis rarely involves the urinary tract. Cecil and Hill† have described at length cases of renal actinomycosis. The presence of branching filaments in the urinary sediment should always make one suspicious of actinomycosis. Cultivation of the organisms may be necessary and to locate the lesion occasionally requires the study of urine obtained from each kidney.

* Bull. de l'acad. de med., June 24, 1919.
† Jour. Am. Med. Assoc., Feb. 25, 1922.

Exciting and Predisposing Factors.—The exciting cause of actinomycosis is the *ray fungus* (actinomyces bovis), which gains entrance to the buccal cavity through slight wounds of the mucous membrane or through cavities in the teeth. Grass and grain are the normal habitats of the ray fungus, and in the majority of cases of human infection the habit of chewing hay or straw explains the occurrence of the disease.

Age.—The disease is more common in adults than in children. Farmers and those working about hay and grain are more liable to become infected than those residing in cities. The American negro is believed to be highly susceptible to actinomycosis.

Principal Complaint.—A hard, tumor-like mass appears in the region of the mouth and progressively increases in size; it may ulcerate or form a sinus, and discharge its pus either externally or into the oral cavity.

Physical Signs.—Inspection.—Neither the location of the tumor nor its general appearance is characteristic of the disease, but an associated involvement of the submaxillary gland and the lymph-nodes of the neck points strongly toward the presence of actinomycosis.

Laboratory Diagnosis.—A microscopic examination of the pus or of scrapings from the tumor is the only positive guide to a diagnosis. The pus will be found to contain leukocytes, pus-cells, epithelial cells, granular débris, and at times much necrotic tissue. When smeared thinly upon a slide and studied with a high-power objective, the pus of actinomycosis will be found to contain the ray fungus which may appear in its characteristic branching forms, although this finding is by no means constant. The morphology of the fungus varies directly with the character of the soil upon which it develops, and with the resistance offered to such development by the patient. Not infrequently actinomycotic pus has been seen in which no characteristic ray fungi were found, but in which mycelial threads were present, which, when placed on suitable soil, rapidly produced a characteristic lesion from which the branching forms of the fungus were recovered. In the pus from thirteen sinuses of the mouth studied by us the ray fungus was found seven times, both on microscopic examination of the pus and in cultures. Wright describes a most interesting case of infection of the tonsil with actinomycosis.

Pulmonary Actinomycosis

Pathologic Definition.—A chronic infectious disease of the lung caused by the ray fungus (actinomyces bovis), which develops in the pulmonary tissues, giving rise to consolidation and ulceration.

History.—In America actinomycosis is comparatively rare. In 1885 Murphy gave an accurate clinical picture of human actinomycosis, and seven years later Bellinger, Harz, and Israel published original articles in Germany, but even before the appearance of Murphy's paper cases had been reported from various sections of the United States. In 1899 Ruhräh collected 58 cases, many of which were then recorded for the first time. The possibility of its occurrence must be borne in mind, since cases are occasionally encountered; it is only within the past few that any effort has been made to detect the ray fungus in the sputum, consequently cases must have been over-looked. Pulmonary actinomycosis can hardly be said to be increasing in North America, the increase in the number of cases reported during the past ten years being due probably to the fact that a more careful study of the sputum and of the clinical course of the disease is being made. Actino-

mycosis of the nervous system occurs in two forms. One in a diffuse lesion and the other localized either as a abscess or as a neoplastic growth. Primary actinomycosis of the brain and cord are rare, but the condition is as a rule secondary to lesions in the lung, mouth, neck, etc. The infection is thought to be spread through the blood stream. Thrombosis of the jugular vein is an occasional feature.

Mode of Infection.—The actinomyces is believed to be found normally on both growing and harvested rye, wheat, barley, and oats—grains that are employed as food. According to Wright, however, this generally accepted idea of the normal habitat of actinomyces is erroneous. He believes it to be a normal inhabitant of the intestinal tract of man and the lower animals. In man the disease has been known to follow exposure to the discharges of actinomycotic cattle.

Symptomatology.—The clinical picture is similar to that of pulmonary tuberculosis, although there are certain important distinctive differences:

(1) In the bronchopneumonic form the history is unlike that of tuberculosis, and during the early stage there is but slight cough, and the sputum is scanty, mucoid, and rarely purulent, but the fungus is absent. The degree of anemia and prostration is, as a rule, out of proportion to the lung involvement, and, indeed, the physical signs are not only indefinite, but, except for the presence of numerous râles and exaggerated breath-sounds, may be absent. In this type of pulmonary actinomycosis several months must elapse before the disease is sufficiently developed to give definite physical signs upon palpation and percussion.

(2) The sputum does not resemble closely that of either incipient or advanced tuberculosis, and no tubercle bacilli are present.

(3) Cough is less likely to be paroxysmal, and throat symptoms (hoarseness, laryngitis, etc.) are less frequent than in tuberculosis.

Physical Signs.—Inspection.—Not infrequently there is an external tumor or a sinus from which the actinomyces may be recovered. Deformity of the chest, is as a rule, absent, and when present, there is but moderate retraction of the affected side.

Palpation.—Tactile fremitus is increased most often over the pectoral region, but the disease may be well advanced without disclosing any alteration in the fremitus. In the bronchopneumonic type of actinomycosis the fremitus is often diminished, and, indeed, owing to the presence of isolated areas of compensatory emphysema, it may be absent.

Percussion.—In direct relation to the degree of consolidation of the lung or of involvement of the pleura the percussion-note is found to be impaired. This impairment may be elicited over the pectoral region, but extensive areas of dullness are usually located at one or the other base; apical dullness has, however, been reported.

Auscultation.—In those cases in which appreciable impairment of the percussion-note is present the breath-sounds are intensified, the respiratory murmur over such areas being bronchial or bronchovesicular. In advanced cases râles are audible not only over the affected areas, but over the greater portion of the lungs, and, indeed, the signs generally regarded as characteristic of pulmonary cavity may be present late during the course of actinomycosis.

Laboratory Diagnosis.—The sputum may contain granules resembling grains of sulphur. These are composed of the mycelial threads of the actinomyces. The detection of these threads in the sputum and in the discharge from a thoracic sinus points to the presence of pulmonary actinomycosis.

Summary of Diagnosis.—The following features will serve, in a measure, to differentiate actinomycosis from pulmonary tuberculosis: (*a*) The tendency to anemia and the degree of prostration in actinomycosis are out of proportion to the severity of the chest involvement; (*b*) actinomycosis displays a special tendency to attack the bases of the lungs, although apical involvement is possible; (*c*) in actinomycosis the pleura is frequently attacked, and in such instances a sinus is often present; (*d*) tumor and abscess of the chest-wall are frequent accompaniments; (*e*) the detection of the actinomyces in the sputum or in the exudate from the pleural sinus is an essential finding in formulating a diagnosis of actinomycosis.

Differential Diagnosis.—(1) **Pulmonary Tuberculosis.**—The differential points between these diseases have just been detailed.

(2) **Carcinoma.**—A history of previous or coexisting malignant growth elsewhere is of great diagnostic importance; particularly is this true after removal of the breast for malignant disease. The absence of fever, the result of secondary infection, also goes far to support a diagnosis of malignant growth. Again, in malignant disease of the lung a microscopic study of the sputum will reveal nothing of clinical value.

(3) **Syphilis.**—It must be borne in mind that syphilis, like actinomycosis, frequently attacks the central or lower portions of the lung. In syphilis an examination of the sputum is negative, and there are, as a rule, a history of the disease and the other visceral changes common to this condition. In luetic disease there is but little tendency toward the formation of tumors and abscesses of the chest-wall, features that are common to actinomycosis. The recovery of the treponema pallidum in the secretion obtained by puncture of the diseased area is valuable evidence of the existence of syphilis. The Wassermann test is positive.

(4) **Echinococcus Cyst of the Lung.**—Here the diagnosis rests entirely upon the detection of either hooklets or scolices of the echinococcus in the sputum or in fluid obtained by puncture and upon the absence of the actinomyces.

Clinical Course.—The disease usually runs a course of from one to two years after the actinomyces can be detected in the sputum. The disease displays a tendency to extend slowly and progressively. Surgical intervention may in rare cases give relief, thereby prolonging the clinical course until the pleura is involved. In the bronchopneumonic type the progress of the disease is more rapid than in cases in which a single isolated area of consolidation exists.

PULMONARY BLASTOMYCOSIS

Pathologic Definition.—A chronic disease of the lung caused by some form of blastomyces, and characterized by the presence of pulmonary consolidation.

Symptomatology.—After the patient has suffered for some time from cutaneous blastomycotic disease, he is particularly likely to develop a generalized type of this disease; in which event the lungs become involved early, the chief complaint being of extreme prostration and cough.

Expectoration.—The sputum may be copious, and is, as a rule, mucopurulent in character, although at times it may be blood-streaked. It has been claimed that the associated bronchitis is responsible for the amount of sputum, since there is little or no tendency toward cavity formation. Microscopically, the sputum is always rich in bacteria, containing, as it does, various pus-producing organisms. The yeast fungus is often present.

Thermic Features.—Fever is a somewhat constant finding in blastomycosis, and probably depends upon infection with the streptococcus.

Chill.—Late during the disease, and when the patient has become markedly exhausted, he may suffer daily from a severe rigor, followed by profuse sweating.

Summary of Diagnosis.—The diagnosis is based on the detection of the blastomyces in the sputum.

Clinical Course.—Cutaneous blastomycosis may persist for a period of years, but the majority of cases run a slightly more rapid course after the lung becomes involved.

Tropical Bronchopulmonary Mycosis.—A condition observed in the tropics, and which according to many writers may depend upon infection by one or more fungi. Clinically the condition resembles in many respects that of actinomycosis. Examination of the sputum reveals the essential findings.

STREPTOTHRICOSIS

Pathologic Definition.—An infectious disease caused by the presence of a streptothrix, and characterized by pulmonary consolidation, caseation, and cavity formation, with a tendency toward metastasis to other viscera and to the lymph-nodes.

Remarks.—The streptothrix is a vegetable organism, occupying a position intermediate between molds and bacteria, making its classification extremely difficult. Generally speaking, it forms an ill-defined genus of fungi, at the same time resembling more or less closely the bacteria, possessing features similar to both these types of vegetable organisms. Flexner has found that the streptothrix develops from spores into branching threads.

Varieties.—(*a*) **Acute streptothricosis,** (*b*) **subacute or chronic streptothricosis.**

Exciting and Predisposing Factors.—Infection with the streptothrix is essential to the development of the disease. Nothing is known concerning the conditions that promote infection of the respiratory tract with this microörganism.

Sex.—Males appear to be attacked about twice as often as females.

Principal Complaint.—The general clinical picture of pulmonary streptothricosis closely resembles that of pulmonary tuberculosis. The acute variety of the disease appears to be the more common form, the symptoms developing abruptly, and consisting of severe cough, free, and often bloody, expectoration, and pain in the chest. Weakness and emaciation soon set in, and if there is ulceration of the lung tissue, the symptoms of secondary infection appear, the patient's condition now being identical with that seen in tuberculosis. Anorexia is experienced early, and as the disease progresses profuse night-sweats occur.

Thermic Features.—After the lung tissue is broken down the morning temperature will be found to vary between 99° and 101° F., with an evening rise to from 102° to 104° F. This febrile expression of streptothricosis resembles closely that displayed by pulmonary tuberculosis with cavity formation, and is possibly dependent upon secondary infection of the lung tissue.

Physical Sign.—Inspection.—The respirations are seen to increase in frequency from day to day, and within the course of a few weeks expansion is diminished at one or at both apices. Emaciation becomes evident, the nostrils dilate, and cyanosis of the lips and finger-tips occurs, the last two symptoms being dependent on the degree of pulmonary

involvement. In those cases in which the disease does not run a rapid course clubbing of the fingers is seen. The patient inclines toward the affected side, or may hold the chest firmly in one position, owing to an associated pleuritis.

Palpation.—The findings by this method will be found to vary in accordance with the pulmonary and pleuritic condition present. For example, in those cases showing an apical lesion without involvement of the pleura tactile fremitus will be increased over the lesion; if, however, pleurisy with serous or serofibrinous exudate into the pleural sacs should be present, fremitus is absent over those portions of the chest occupied by pleural fluid. (See Pleurisy, p. 145.) Rarely, both lungs may be affected, in which case the physical signs of pulmonary consolidation are bilateral.

Auscultation.—When there is pulmonary consolidation, the breath-sounds over the apices are intensified (bronchovesicular breathing), and may approach true bronchial breathing. Moist râles of a mucous character are audible over the upper portion of the affected lung, and may often be detected on the opposite side of the chest. When the pleura is first attacked by the inflammatory process, a friction murmur may be present, but after the fluid has accumulated in the pleura, the breath-sounds are absent over the area occupied by the exudate, and egophony is obtained at the point of junction of the fluid with the compressed lung. Distinct signs of cavity formation, as shown by auscultation, are seldom, if ever, obtained, yet, from a theoretic point of view they should be present whenever there is extensive excavation and the cavity communicates with a bronchus.

Laboratory Diagnosis.—At first the expectoration is moderate in quantity and serous in character, but later it becomes profuse, mucopurulent and purulent, and is of a yellow or greenish-yellow color. The sputum may contain elastic tissue and alveolar epithelial cells. In those cases in which the onset is abrupt the sputum is bloody, and, indeed, hemoptysis may be one of the alarming symptoms of streptothricosis.

The streptothrix will be stained fairly well by the Gram method. A peculiarity of this organism is that the staining is irregular, and, therefore, some of the organs resemble cocci. The streptothrix is seldom, if ever, the only organism present in the sputum, the rule being to find streptococci, diplococci, and various other bacteria.

THRUSH

(Mycotic Stomatitis; Fungous Stomatitis)

Pathologic Definition.—A parasitic disease of the mouth, due to the presence of the oïdium albicans. It is characterized by extensive ulceration, with the formation of whitish soft, and lightly adherent flakes, and the presence of mycelial threads of the fungus in scrapings from the ulcerated surface.

Exciting and Predisposing Factors.—The exciting factor is the presence, in the mouth, of the oïdium albicans, or thrush fungus. Children are more susceptible to the disease than are adults, although we have seen the disease in those at the extremes of life. Lowered vitality, such as is seen in marasmus, congenital syphilis, and poorly nourished children, is a predisposing factor, and the condition may also arise during the course of such chronic afebrile conditions as diabetes, nephritis, valvular heart disease, and the anemias. Thrush may also complicate febrile maladies, as, for example, pulmonary tuberculosis, chronic suppuration, and similar conditions.

Environment plays an important part as a predisposing factor, thrush being common in homes, asylums, and similar institutions. It is seen to develop in infants when the nursing-bottle and nipple are not properly cleansed after each feeding. Thrush is especially common in children having deformities of the mouth, *e. g.*, harelip and cleft-palate. It may be transmitted to the mouth from other portions of the body, as the foot or the vagina. We have seen two instances in which thrush developed a few days after the patient had been treating a domestic animal known to have an affection of the foot.

Principal Complaint.—The essential complaint is of a sore mouth, the tongue or the inner surface of the cheek being first affected. The extent of involvement of the mouth varies greatly, depending upon the stage of the disease and the resistance offered by the patient. Tenderness and pain develop early, and are excited by hot, cold, or solid foods. At first the patient's mouth is dry, and he experiences great difficulty in swallowing. When thrush complicates either chronic or acute conditions, it causes a variable degree of exaggeration of the symptoms belonging to the primary disease.



Fig. 351.—Thrush Fungus, Epithelial Cells, and Leukocytes from a Child Suffering from Ulcerative Stomatitis (Boston).

Physical Signs.—Inspection.—The oïdium albicans displays a special predilection to attack the flat epithelial cells, and seldom invades other epithelial tissues, although the deeper structures may be involved. The initial lesions appear upon the mucous membrane of the mouth or upon the tongue or the cheek, and consist of small, milk-white flakes dotted over the mucous surfaces. These flake-like particles can be removed from the mucous surface with ease, leaving an intact mucosa, or, if the process extends deeply and they are torn forcibly away, a bleeding, lightly ulcerated surface is presented. The number of milk-white patches disseminated over the buccal mucous membrane may vary from one-half dozen to several hundreds.

Laboratory Diagnosis.—The saliva is, as a rule, highly acid in reaction, and it is to be remembered that the thrush fungus develops best in a faintly acid medium, although the oïdium albicans may grow in an alkaline medium.

Microscopic Study.—This is best done by removing a portion of one of the white mycotic sloughs from the mucous surface, placing it upon the center of a microscopic slide, and then rubbing it out to a thin smear with a needle. The unstained specimen will be found to contain leukocytes, an occasional red blood-cell, many pavement epithelial cells, spore-like bodies, and numerous filamentous and segmented mycelial threads. The shreds and spore of the thrush fungus stain readily with ordinary aqueous basic dyes, *e. g.*, methylene-blue.

Summary of Diagnosis.—Although the disease presents apparent characteristic features, such as ulceration of the mucous membrane, a microscopic examination, with the detection of the thrush fungus, is necessary in order to form the diagnosis. The age of the patient, the early involvement of the lips and tongue, the presence of glandular involvement, and the dryness of the mouth are suggestive of mycotic stomatitis.

Differential Diagnosis.—Thrush must be distinguished carefully from aphthæ, and the following table (modified from Anders) shows the chief points of differentiation: Vincent's angina is readily separated through microscopic studies.

Thrush	Aphthous Stomatitis
1. Dryness of the mouth.	1. Salivation.
2. Whitish, raised spots or patches having no red areola; these are easily removed, causing no bleeding.	2. An ulcer with a yellowish-white, depressed base, surrounded by a red areola. The base is removed with difficulty by forceps, and bleeding results.
3. Spots are numerous.	3. Spots are usually few in number and discrete.
4. Begins in the form of minute spots.	4. Does not begin in the form of small spots, but ulcers appear, preceded by the formation of herpetic vesicles.
5. Ulcers are not painful. Discomfort depends upon the associated stomatitis.	5. Ulcers are exquisitely tender.
6. The characteristic thrush-fungus is always detectable with the microscope.	6. No specific microörganism has been found, though one is probably present.

Clinical Course.—Mycotic stomatitis cannot be regarded as a self-limited disease. In marasmic children and in the aged the mycotic process has grave significance; it may extend to the throat and cause a variable degree of dyspnea, in which case the clinical course is quite unfavorable. The general symptoms accompanying thrush are indirectly caused by the interference with the taking of sufficient food. In favorable cases thrush yields to treatment in from a few days to two weeks, and it is unusual for the mycotic condition to continue for a longer period.

ASPERGILLOSIS OF THE LUNGS

Pathologic Definition.—A chronic disease of the lung, caused by the aspergillus fumigatus, and characterized pathologically by consolidation with cavity-formation.

Remarks.—This form of mycotic destruction of lung tissue has been studied by both French and German clinicians. The researches of Renon and of numerous other observers go far to support the belief that pulmonary aspergillosis may be a primary disease. Rothwell, of Manchester, England, in 1899, wrote an elaborate monograph upon this subject, giving a complete history of the disease. Attention must here be called to the fact that this disease may affect other portions of the body, particularly the external auditory canal, the majority of such cases being due to the presence of the aspergillus. Mycotic disease of the cornea, although a rare condition, deserves mention in this connection. It may be caused by the aspergillus nigra, a fungus that is ordinarily non-pathogenic for man.

During the course of experimental aspergillosis Renon detected threads of this fungus in the urine of animals inoculated with the disease, and it was further found that within from twenty-four to forty-eight hours after inoculation the aspergillus fumigatus could be cultivated from the animal's urine, and, indeed, within this short time mycelia were often found.

Exciting and Predisposing Factors.—The disease occurs as the result of infection with the aspergillus fumigatus (Fig. 352), a fungus commonly developing upon grain. Its spores may resist exposure for an indefinite period.

It has not been definitely established whether pulmonary aspergillosis results from the inhalation of the fungus, or whether the parasite must be ingested in order to produce infection. In animals ulceration of the buccal cavity has been found to antedate pulmonary involvement, a feature that strongly suggests that the lung involvement is a secondary condition.

Occupation is an important predisposing factor, men who handle grain being often affected, probably as the result of being brought into direct contact with the fungus. In France aspergillosis is chiefly seen to occur in feeders of pigeons, hair-combers, and millers. This is due to the fact that the pigeon-feeder first takes the grain into his own mouth, masticates it thoroughly, and then forces it into the bird's throat. The hair-comber and miller become infected in a somewhat similar manner.

Symptomatology.—The symptomatology of aspergillosis at first resembles closely that of chronic pulmonary tuberculosis and also of actinomycosis (p. 975). After the consolidated areas break down, secondary infection is likely to occur, the fever that occurs being the result of infection with pathogenic bacteria.

Physical Signs.—The physical signs are those of pulmonary consolidation, with, later, destruction of the lung tissue. The signs of cavity-formation may at times be present.



Fig. 352.—Aspergillus Fumigatus, from the Lung of a Parrot (Plaut).

Laboratory Diagnosis.—The sputum is negative while the consolidated portions of the lung have not broken down, but after ulceration takes place the sputum often becomes greenish or grayish brown in color, and when examined microscopically, will be found to contain mycelia and the various forms of aspergillus (Fig. 352).

Summary of Diagnosis.—Practically speaking, the diagnosis rests upon two clinical points: (1) The physical signs of consolidation of one or of both lungs; and (2) the detection of the aspergillus in the sputum.

Clinical Course.—The disease is chronic in nature, and, as a rule, goes from bad to worse, pronounced cachexia, extreme prostration, and emaciation developing progressively.

MYCETOMA

Pathologic Definition.—An inflammatory process usually involving the foot, excited by different species of discomyces and aspergillus. The foot and leg are most often involved and the disease invariably follows traumatism. In rare instances mycetomatous ulceration may be found in other parts of the body, *e. g.*, shoulder, axilla, and scrotum. The foot is swollen, presents numerous small nodules (Fig. 353), which later develop small sinuses (Fig. 354), through which a peculiar viscid, yellowish, blackish, or reddish pus exudes. The discharge from

mycetomatous lesions always contains small granular bodies, which, when studied microscopically, display fungi.

Geographic Distribution.—Until recently madura-foot disease was decidedly rare in North America, and was generally conceded to be a disease of Asia. Within the past few years there have appeared in American literature many reports upon this disease, and certain of the patients so afflicted have been born in North America. Sutton,* in addition to an interesting report upon this subject, has given a complete bibliography of American mycetoma.

Clinical Course.—There is usually a history of a punctured wound, following which there are evidences of a subacute inflammatory process which continues for an indefinite period. There are seen small nodular

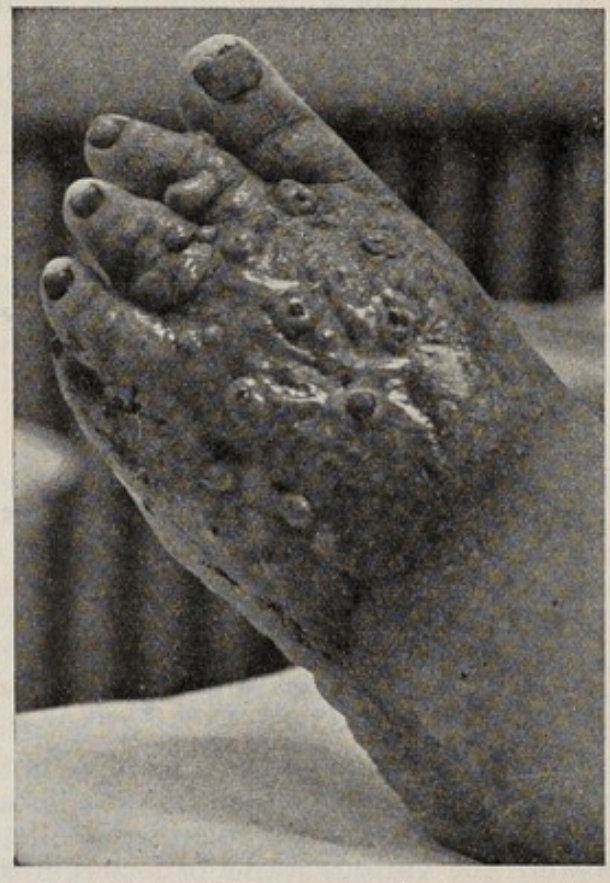


Fig. 353.—Condition of Dorsum of Foot in a Case of American Mycetoma (Dr R. L. Sutton).

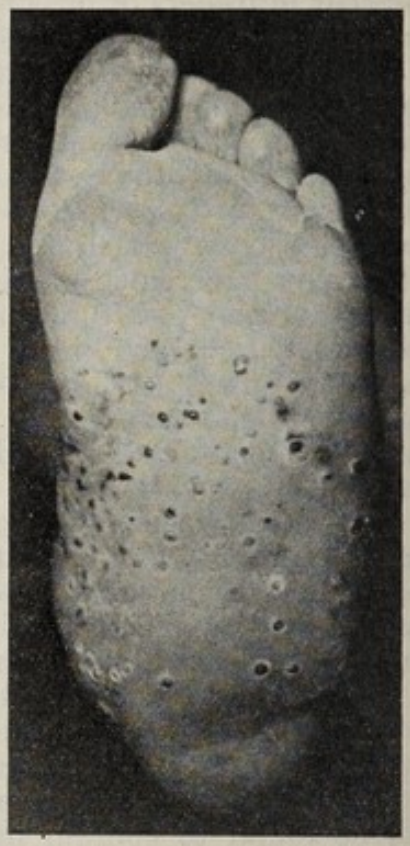


Fig. 354.—Sole of Foot Showing Sinuses, Some of Which Are Covered by Hard Brownish Crusts (Dr. R. L. Sutton).

areas, varying from the size of a pin's head to that of a pea, located over the inflamed area (Fig. 353). When the foot is involved, these nodules later develop sinuses that are seen on both the superior surfaces and the sole of the foot (Fig. 354). The viscid, syrupy, and slightly purulent discharge may at times be blood-streaked.

The small granules suspended in the discharge is a feature characteristic of madura-foot. After the disease has continued for a long period there is appreciable enlargement of the infected part, and should the foot be involved, there follows a well-marked atrophy of the muscle of the leg and hip. Mycetoma is to be distinguished from thrush and actinomycosis, and the most reliable distinctive features are obtained through a microscopic examination of the exudate.

*Jour. Amer. Med. Assoc., May 3, 1913, p. 1339.

GRANULOMA INGUINALE

Granuloma inguinale is a malady ordinarily considered in the category of tropical diseases, and recently found amoung the venereal and tuberculous cases in the Philadelphia General Hospital. Randall in his discussion of a paper by Hunter states that sixteen cases have been observed in Philadelphia—fourteen of which were born in the vicinity of Philadelphia. This condition attacks the colored race most often, and was first described by Vianna of Rio Janeiro.

Clinical.—Tropical granuloma has certain clinical features that make it liable to be confused with lues and tuberculosis of the skin. The lesions appear to advance underneath the skin and leave small ulcerating tracks. There is also present ulcerated surfaces and pus. Lesions occur in the inguinal and genital regions, and begin as a firm dome shaped nodule, over which the layers of the skin finally become smooth and atrophic. Eventually pressure atrophy ensues, and ulceration is produced at the center of the bubo. Ulceration may be extensive, involving the entire genitalia and inguinal regions. A characteristic feature is that lesions do not display a tendency toward healing. Lesions of the lip are rare, but have been described. R. J. Hunter has described a case with involvement of the larynx and pharynx.

Diagnosis.—The specific organism was described by Donovan, and is detected in smears from the exudate and scrapings from the surface of the lesions. Stain the smears intensely with Wright's stain (1) the presence of a large number of mononuclear cells is a characteristic finding and (2) the detection of encapsulated bacillary organisms within the cytoplasm of the mononuclear cells constitutes positive microscopic findings. The organisms of granuloma inguinale belong to the mucosus capsulatis group, and Small in his discussion on Hunter's paper, regards this bacillus of the same general type to which Friedländer and the rhinoscleroma organisms belong. Many of the cases studied by Randall, Small and Belk* gave positive reactions of syphilis.

Therapeutic Test.—Antimony ordinarily employed in the form of tartar emetic, when administered intravenously in doses, beginning at 5 c.c. of a 1 per cent. solution, and increasing daily until 10 c.c. of a one per cent. solution are reached, is followed by decided improvement.†

FOCAL INFECTION

The clinical relationship between localized infections and the various clinical types of many diseases was mentioned in the older medical literature. During the past twenty years, it has been given a rather liberal consideration. Focal infections are present in a demonstrable form in a high percentage of all sick persons, regardless of age, sex, occupation, or environment. Through the removal of such foci of infection the clinical course of a malady is often modified, the distressing symptoms ameliorated and in many instances not only improvement follows, but health is restored, provided such disease is not too advanced.

The foregoing facts demand that foci of infection be given due consideration in their etiologic relationship to such special diseases as endocarditis, pericarditis, acute articular rheumatism, chronic arthritis, acute and chronic nephritis, renal calculus, cholecystitis, hepatic cirrhosis, pancreatitis, disease of the eye and of the nervous system; *e. g.*, neuritis, neuralgia, myositis, herpes zoster, meningitis, epidemic poliomyelitis and

* Surg., Gynecol. and Obstet. June, 1922, p. 717.
† Trans. College of Physicians, Philadelphia, 1923, p. 455.

other lesions of the cord and its membranes. Appendicitis, gastro-intestinal lesions, including duodenal and gastric ulcers appear at times to be secondary to a focus.

There is but a limited amount of research work available upon this subject and we take it that this has been carefully summarized and considered in an article by E. C. Rosenow (Medical Clinics N. A., Sept., 1921, p. 573) in his studies on focal infection and elective localization. We further countenance with appreciation the work done by our colleague Judson Daland, as well as that contributed by Billings, C. H. Mayo, Browne and many other writers who have for the past decade kept the question of focal infection and its relation to systemic diseases before the medical profession. (See duodenal ulcer p. 570, and gastric ulcer p. 541.)

Rosenow's principles of elective localization are ably expressed in the following quotations:

"Very early in the work it was found that the bacteria concerned were often extremely sensitive to oxygen. This was especially true of the streptococci isolated from the joint fluid of patient having rheumatic fever. No growth occurred under either aerobic or strictly anaërobic conditions, but only under conditions of partial oxygen tension.

"During my investigations on the transmutation of pneumococci and streptococci I found that variation in oxygen tension and growth in symbiosis with other bacteria, conditions usually present in foci of infection, tended to produce marked changes in this group of micro-organism, and that when strains of low virulency were rendered more virulent by successive animal passage localization shifted from areas of relatively low available oxygen supply, such as heart valves and periarticular structures, to those of higher oxygen supply, such as muscles, myocardium, stomach, gall-bladder, kidneys and lungs."*

Through special cultural methods Rosenow was able to establish a gradient of oxygen tension and a study of his technique and result are both interesting and convincing.

Bumpus and Meisser† have contributed convincing evidences of the elective localization of streptococci from focal infection around the teeth and tonsils in poliomyelitis and infections of the urinary bladder.

The studies of Moody‡ made with streptococci from chronic alveolar abscesses are likewise conclusive.

Rosenow has conducted a number of experiments, using organisms obtained from foci of infection and he has been able to induce pathologic changes in the thyroid gland. Our clinical experience has been that in young subjects with beginning thyroid enlargement a decided improvement often follows the correction of some focus of infection. Clinical observations suggest that the suprarenals most commonly suffer during the course of both acute infections and focal infections. Diseases of the skin and of the lungs and pleuræ often suggest the possibility of their depending upon an initial infecting focus.

Symptomatology.—A great array of symptoms are to be found in connection with advanced focal infections and while many of these symptoms are commonly conceded to belong to different diseases, nevertheless, there is clinical evidence which points strongly to the possibility of their being dependent upon infective foci, in certain selective cases, and among these symptoms should be mentioned:—tachycardia, irregular pulse and in some instances an unusually slow pulse. Hypertension occurs in a number of cases, while in others, hypotension exists.

* Thoma, Ann. Otol. Rhinol. and Laryn. Gol., 33: 498, June, 1924.
† Arch. Int. Med., 1921, p. 326.
‡ Jr. Inf. Dis., 1916, p. 515.

Symptoms referable to the lungs, pleuræ and cervical glands are rather common in tonsillar and sinus diseases; while hepatic abscess is an occasional sequel of scalp infections. A pathologic state of the urine in connection with any one or more of the symptoms commonly seen in nephritis may stand out conspicuously in the presence of infecting foci. Abdominal pain suggestive of gastric ulcer, duodenal ulcer and appendi-

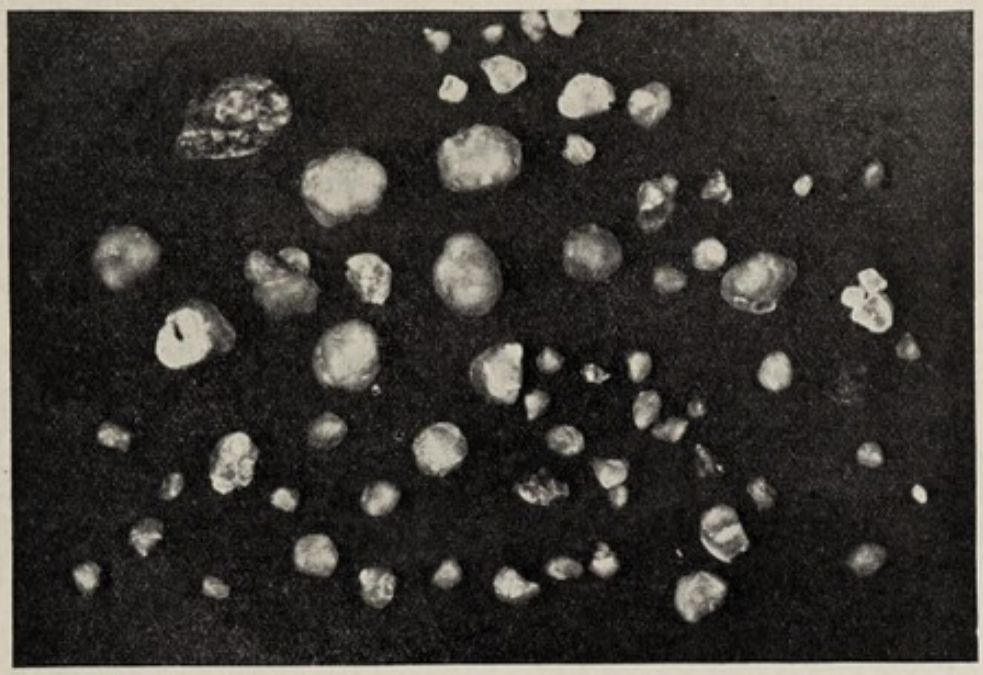


FIG. 355.—CALCULI (RICE BODIES) REMOVED FROM THE TENDINOUS SHEATHS ABOUT THE ANKLE JOINT. THERE WAS PRESENT APICAL INFECTION OF SEVERAL TEETH.

citis may be the chief symptom in focal infection about the head. Gall-bladder annoyances and symptoms referable to the pancreas may likewise, accompany foci of infection.*

Symptoms referable to the joints, especially pain, tenderness, and stiffness, as well as, pain suggestive of neuralgia, or sciatica should also arouse the clinician's suspicion that some focus of infection might contribute as an etiologic factor.



FIG. 356.



FIG. 357.

Profound anemia independent of its special clinical class demands a thorough search for infective foci in each and every case. In the early medical literature, Sir Roswell Clarke suggested that many cases of so-called pernicious anemia were dependent upon infection of the oral cavity.

The physician is not justified in postulating oral infection as the only type of focal infection. A careful search of the body for other infective foci will not only provide valuable clinical evidence, but will in many instances prevent gross error.

* Davis, Jour. Radio., 5: 119, April, 1924.

Diseases that are accompanied by well marked anemias: diabetes, syphilis, etc., are liable to show foci of infection and it becomes our purpose to establish the relationship between these foci and the symptoms presented by each given case. Foci of infection may therefore exist in persons ill of many diseases in which such foci are not the exciting cause of the chief trouble in question (coexistent focal infection). Detection of such foci and their proper treatment is often an important factor in returning the patient to health.

It is practically impossible to conduct the practice of internal medicine without the assistance of the dentist; and as time goes, on, we are becoming more and more convinced that dentistry and internal medicine are inseparable. A dental opinion is needed where focal infection exists, even though the patient be edentulous.

When a physician refers a patient to the dentist, he does so for the purpose of obtaining a complete report on all pathologic conditions of the oral cavities.

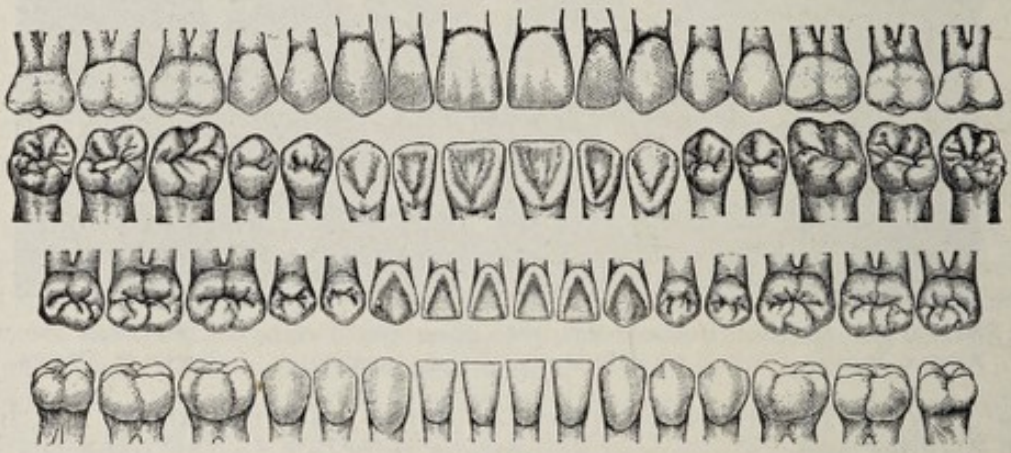


FIG. 358.

The average physician is not sufficiently well trained to use the above information to the best advantage unless a charted report accompanies same.

It may be a timely statement to call attention to the fact that *x*-ray pictures of the teeth show the posterior surfaces of such teeth and present the subject before one as though he was looking from the back of the mouth forward. We have found by actual experiences that complete dental reports are of inestimable value.

ACUTE ARTICULAR RHEUMATISM (FOCAL INFECTION)

Pathologic Definition.—An acute infection of the synovial sacs secondary to infection elsewhere in approximately 70 per cent. of cases, and characterized by the presence of an acute inflammation of the synovial membranes of various joints, with the accumulation of fluid. The surface of the synovial membrane of the affected joints is injected and swollen, and may be more or less completely covered with a fibrinous exudate. Later the effusion contains fibrin and leukocytes. The tendon sheaths in relation with the diseased articulation may be attacked, and in severe cases erosion of the cartilages may occur. A similar inflammatory process generally affects the other serous surfaces, particularly the endocardium and pericardium, and less often the meninges, pleura, and peritoneum are involved. Frauenthal* in mentioning the sites where a local nidus of infection is liable to be found in this disease

* N. Y. Med. Jour., Dec. 20, 1919.

gives the following: nasal cavity, sinuses, carious teeth, tonsils, rhinitis, otitis media, and both acute and chronic infections of the genito-urinary tract, including pyosalpinx, puerperal sepsis, etc. Gastritis, gastric ulcer, colitis, duodenal ulcer, and appendicitis are by no means uncommon sites of focal infection, as are also lesions of the bronchi and lungs. Foci of infection are not infrequent following the acute infectious fevers, and among these should be considered certain tropical infections. In brief any malady where bacteria or their toxins may enter the blood stream is probably capable of producing this condition.

Exciting and Predisposing Factors.—Bacteriology.—A bacteriologic study of the exudate obtained from the synovial sacs may reveal the presence of bacteria. Antonius and Czepa* made a radiographic study of 225 cases from Falta's clinic and found that 66 per cent. of these showed an infectious process at the roots of one or more teeth, and that 30 per cent. of them showed chronic disease of the tonsils. These patients with occult pus foci were found to suffer from the following maladies: nephritis, (acute and chronic) 68 per cent.; chronic septic endocarditis, joint and muscular rheumatism, neuralgia, and 25 per cent. of the cases had recent endocarditis. (See Arthritis Deformans, p. 1322.)

Lowsley † has called special attention to infectious foci in the prostate and seminal vesicles following specific urethritis as an etiologic factor in both acute and chronic arthritis. In certain cases anaërobic diplococci are present in the synovial fluid. The synovial fluid may be mucous, semi-purulent, or hemorrhagic, and meningococcic joint fluid presents a pale green tint, and is almost fluorescent. Pneumococci, streptococci, and micrococci are found. Epithelial cells, leukocytes, and fat globules are occasionally present. Practically all acute infectious conditions are predisposing factors.

Season.—The greatest number of cases are seen during the months of February, March, and April, although the disease is also quite common during October, November, December, and January.

Exposure to **cold** and **wet** is a prominent predisposing factor.

Age.—The majority of cases occur during early adult life, or between the years of fifteen and thirty-five, although the disease may be encountered in the young and in those over fifty years of age.

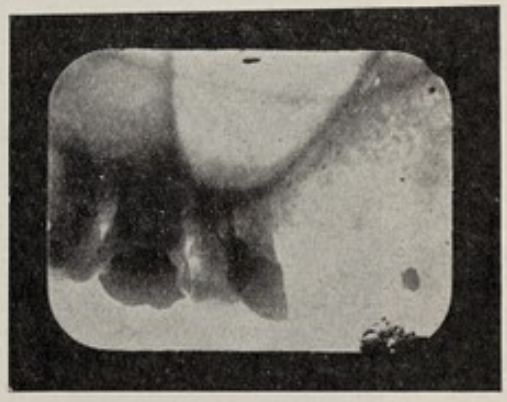


Fig. 359.—Note Pyorrhea in a Case of Active Articular Rheumatism (3rd Attack). There is also advanced atheroma of arteries.

Epidemic Influence.—Distinct epidemics may arise in certain localities and are often seen to follow local epidemics of maladies in which there has been an unusual involvement of the mucous membrane of the naso-pharynx with involvement of the tonsils, ears, and sinuses. (See Focal Infection.)

Principal Complaint.—Onset.—This is quite abrupt, often beginning with a *chill*, followed by other constitutional symptoms. (See Thermic Features.)

Nervous Symptoms.—*Pain* is a prominent feature, and is localized to one or more joints. The medium-sized and larger joints (ankle, knee,

* Wiener Archiv. fur innere Medizin, Vienna, Feb. 15, 1921.
† N. Y. Med. Jour., May 4, 1921.

wrist) are most often attacked at the time of onset. In severe types of the disease the articular surfaces of the vertebræ may manifest tenderness. The pain increases on moving the joint, and the patient usually places the affected part in a certain position, which he claims appreciably lessens the pain. A characteristic feature is that from time to time during the course of each attack different joints become involved, and in each the pain is equally fugacious. Cases due to the meningococcus often display but slight pain.

In those cases in which hyperpyrexia is present, other nervous symptoms are prominent; but certain nervous manifestations may also be observed even when high temperatures are absent. The patient is

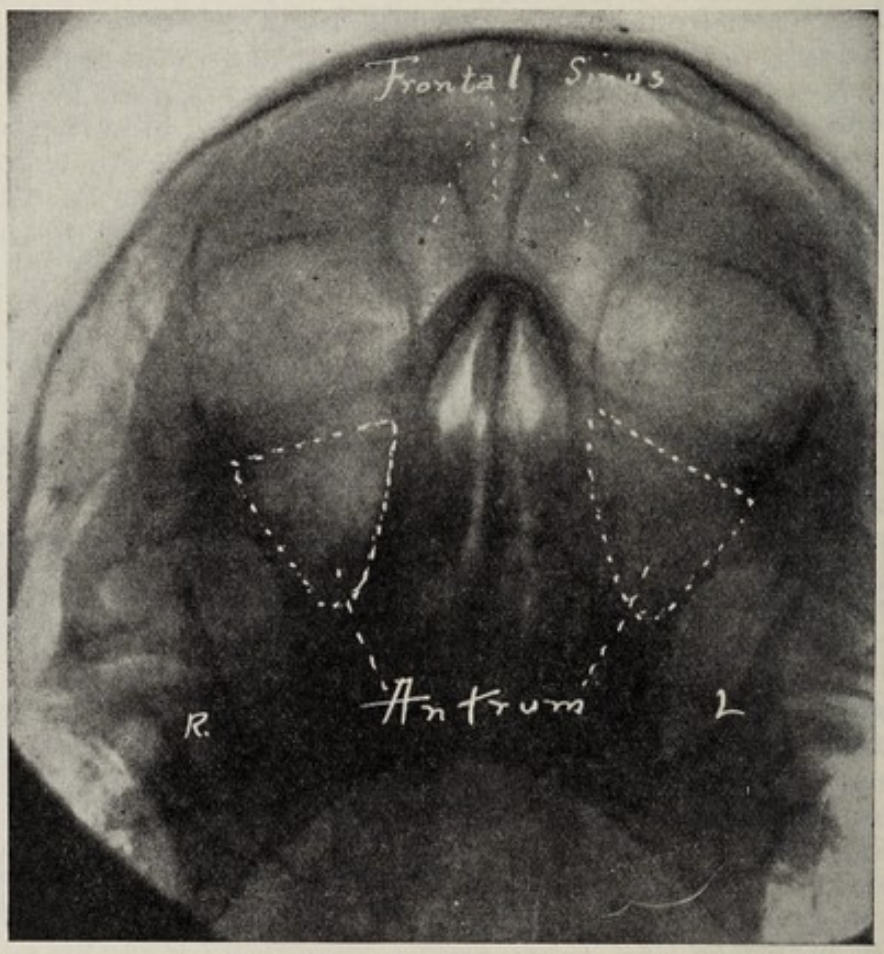


Fig. 360.—*X*-Ray in a Case of Acute Articular Rheumatism.
Right antrum partially contained purulent fluid. Patient has enjoyed health for six years following surgical treatment of the antrum.

usually restless and unable to sleep. Delirium is rarely present, except in complicated cases and when the temperature exceeds 104° F. The presence of endocarditis is likely to intensify the nervous symptoms, and outbreaks of maniacal excitement are prone to occur as the result of cerebral embolism. Involvement of the pericardium is also accompanied by more marked nervous symptoms, which may lead to stupor. Meningitis and chorea are nervous conditions rarely seen to accompany or complicate this disease.

Thermic Features.—Following the chill the temperature rises abruptly to from 100° to 104° F.; the fever is remittent in character. A hectic type of fever is never seen except in those cases in which suppuration

exists. Hyperpyrexia may develop somewhat suddenly at any time during the course of the disease, but occurs most often during the second week (seventh to tenth days); it is generally accompanied by other severe constitutional symptoms, such as delirium and stupor. In severe and complicated forms the temperature may even reach 106° to 108° F.

Physical Signs.—Inspection.—Disease of the oral cavity, tonsils, or sinuses is usually present. The involved joints are swollen and reddened at first, and the patient holds the affected limb in one position, usually in partial flexion. When he is asked to move the part, he does so guardedly, an expression of pain accompanying each movement. After the disease has persisted for some days or weeks, extreme enlargement of the affected joint may take place, especially if one of the larger articular surfaces, such as the knee, elbow, wrist, or ankle, is affected. During convalescence, and after an attack of acute articular rheumatism, small subcutaneous nodosities may appear along the course of the tendinous insertions and within the fasciæ. The skin overlying these

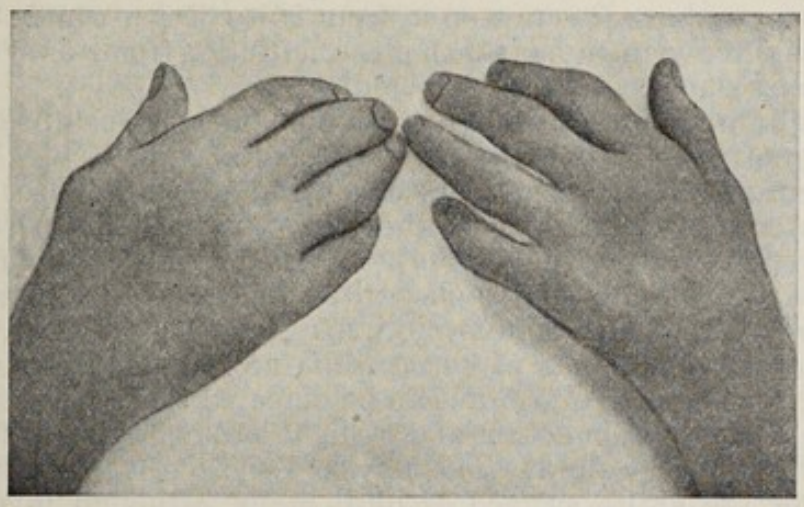


FIG. 361.—FINGERS IN ACUTE ARTICULAR RHEUMATISM.

nodules is merely elevated, but does not display the usual evidences of inflammation.

The face is flushed, but the expression remains unaltered except when an effort is made to move the affected part. The entire body is bathed in perspiration several times during the twenty-four hours, the excretion having an acid reaction, although during the later stages of the disease it may become alkaline. The odor of the sweat is offensive. Sudamina appear in successive crops during the febrile period. Occasionally a distinct erythema may develop, and erythema nodosum may also occur.

Urticaria occasionally develops during the febrile period, and in severe types of the disease there may be purpura hæmorrhagica (the so-called hemorrhagic polyarthritis, also considered under the heading Peliosis Rheumatica). Cutaneous hemorrhages may become extensive, and coalesce to form ecchymotic areas in both the skin and mucous membranes.

Palpation.—The affected joints are tender to the touch, and firm pressure elicits pain. The muscles of the region are spastic, and prevent movement of the joint. Within the course of a few days an exudate into the synovial sac takes place, and fluctuation may then be easily elicited. During convalescence the joints become less sensitive, and within the course of a few weeks there may be impairment of movement, the result

of an apparent ankylosis. In the region of the affected joint nodular enlargements may be detected along the sheaths of the tendons, and usually remain for an indefinite period after the patient has apparently recovered. In exceptional cases infiltration into the sheaths of certain tendons occurs; a well-marked case representing this type of the condition recently came under our personal observation.

The skin is hot to the touch, bathed in acid perspiration, and nodules of urticaria may be felt. In selected cases the spleen is enlarged. The thyroid is moderately enlarged and tender in from 50 to 75 per cent. of cases.

The *pulse* is increased in frequency, even in mild types of the disease, and is soft and full, numbering 100 beats a minute. In certain cases it becomes unusually rapid (120 to 140 beats a minute), and when hyperpyrexia and other grave constitutional manifestations are displayed, the pulse becomes feeble, decidedly irregular, and often compressible. The apex-beat becomes forcible and quickened, this feature becoming especially prominent when endocarditis develops as a complication. According to Anders, endocarditis is seen in from 25 to 30 per cent. of all cases. If pericardial involvement has taken place, a friction fremitus synchronous with the heart's action may be detected.

Percussion is of but limited value, except in those instances in which effusion accumulates in the pericardial or pleural sacs.

Auscultation.—During convalescence, and in those cases in which deformities or loss of mobility of the joint have become permanent, a peculiar friction crepitus may be present for a long period upon movement of the joint. This sign is elicited by placing the stethoscope over the articular surface, and then forcibly manipulating the part.

The characteristic signs of *endocarditis* are commonly elicited, and even before true cardiac murmurs can be detected there is an appreciable irritability of the heart's action and a slight prolongation or loss of distinctness of the first sound. The physical signs of bronchitis may be distinct over the entire surface of both lungs, although in mild cases these signs are absent. (See Acute Bronchitis, p. 90.)

Laboratory Diagnosis.—Secondary anemia develops early and is progressive in character, and a moderate **leukocytosis** generally occurs.

The **saliva** may display an acid reaction during the acute symptoms, and in selected cases the sulphocyanids are in excess.

The **fluid obtained from the synovial sacs** is pathologic. (See Bacteriology, p. 985.)

The **urine** is diminished in quantity during the febrile period, and is high in color and unusually acid. A trace of albumin may be present, and the reaction for chlorids is, as a rule, present.

Summary of Diagnosis.—The history of previous attacks and of recurring attacks of tonsillitis is of considerable importance in formulating a diagnosis. The characteristic features of the disease are few—chill followed by a rapid rise in temperature, the fever running an irregularly remittent course, pain, swelling, redness, and tenderness of the affected joints, and the influence of motion upon the degree of pain. The occurrence of intercurrent acute endocarditis is also strongly confirmatory.

Differential Diagnosis.—Tuberculous arthritis in children may be confounded with acute rheumatic arthritis. The former is less indurating, the swelling is less symmetric, and it runs a far less acute course than the latter condition. *X*-ray findings are positive in tuberculosis of the joints, and muscle atrophy is common. In acute articular rheumatism the pain is definitely localized to the joint and the general

clinical course is acute, whereas tuberculous arthritis runs a more chronic course.

Gonorrheal arthritis may closely resemble acute articular rheumatism; here, however, a history of an attack of gonorrhea, the character of the pain, the less marked constitutional disturbances, and the tendency toward chronicity strongly favor a diagnosis of gonorrheal infection and discourage the possibility of the existence of acute articular rheumatism. In gonorrheal arthritis aspiration of the affected joint will result in the recovery of fluid in which gonococci may be found. A study of the prostatic fluid after massage is often positive.

Scurvy.—During the course of scurvy and the allied conditions, purpura and hemophilia, an effusion into the synovial sacs takes place, but in these conditions the effusion is likely to consist of blood, which will differentiate if from the serous effusion that collects in acute articular rheumatism. The tendency toward hemorrhage from the mucous surfaces is a marked feature of scurvy, but uncommon in acute rheumatism. In the so-called "*peliosis rheumatica*," petechial hemorrhages may occur in both the skin and the mucous membranes, but even in this disease hemorrhage into the serous sacs is uncommon. A history of the patient's life during the past year, the character of food he has eaten, as well as a general knowledge of his environment during that time will often be of great value in differentiating acute articular rheumatism from scurvy.

Pyemia.—Here the general condition is more grave; fever of the irregular intermittent type precedes the local manifestations. Rigors also occur at varying intervals, accompanied by a marked elevation of temperature—symptoms that are absent in rheumatism. In pyemia suppurative processes occur in the various viscera and skin, and slight jaundice is present. Rheumatic symptoms fluctuate greatly, whereas those of pyemia do not.

The multiple swelling of the joints which develops after child-birth is to be regarded as septic in nature. In these cases arthritis leads rapidly to suppuration, with more or less destruction of the joints.

Clinical Course.—In an average case of acute articular rheumatism in which a single joint is involved the febrile period lasts from seven to fourteen days, and is followed by convalescence, the patient being able to leave his room by the end of the third or during the fourth week. When several of the articulations are attacked in succession, the illness may be prolonged to from six weeks to several months. Cardiac complications practically always retard convalescence, and may leave a permanently damaged heart in their wake. Judicious treatment materially shortens the course of the disease, whereas retention of the serous fluid in the synovial sacs may in turn retard convalescence for weeks, and even necessitate aspiration for the removal of such fluid.

Complications.—Acute endocarditis is the most frequent complication. Pericarditis and pleurisy are occasionally encountered. Paul D. White contends that some damage to the heart follows every case. Bronchitis, bronchopneumonia, and lobar pneumonia are rare complications.

Gonorrheal Arthritis

Pathologic Definition.—An acute septic inflammation involving both the synovial membranes and the periarticular tissue of the larger joints. The inflammation may extend along the tendon-sheaths. Effusion into the synovial sac usually follows, and may, in some cases, be purulent in character. The joint may become edematous and swollen in

proportion to the virulence of the inflammatory process, and ankylosis may follow.

Exciting and Predisposing Factors.—Bacteriology.—The exciting factor is the gonococcus, although other bacteria may also be present in the purulent exudate recovered from the synovial sacs. If the blood-current becomes contaminated by the gonococcus, endocarditis results, and positive blood cultures are rarely obtained. An attack of gonorrhea is an essential factor in the development of the disease, although the urethral mucosa may not be involved; Lucas collected 23 cases in which gonorrheal arthritis followed gonorrheal ophthalmia. The focus of infection is ordinarily found in the genito-urinary tract. (See Focal Infection, p. 985.)

Sex.—The disease appears in both sexes, and, according to Gather, it occurs in about 22 per cent. of all cases of gonorrheal urethritis. Invasion of the synovial sacs by the gonococcus is less common in females, yet such cases have come under our observation.

Principal Complaint.—A history of gonorrheal infection is usually obtained, but when such history is not elicited, careful clinical research is necessary. Two distinct subclasses of gonorrheal arthritis have been described:

(*a*) A type in which the inflammatory changes are mild and in which the patient suffers a moderate amount of pain in one or probably in two or three joints, but in which the affected joints show but little, if any, evidence of inflammation.

(*b*) **Typical Form.**—In this variety the *pain* is more pronounced, and a single joint becomes markedly incapacitated in the course of a few days. Soreness radiates from the joints, and despite treatment the patient's condition goes from bad to worse. *Polyarthritis* is present in a small proportion of all cases, the more pronounced symptoms being confined to one or two of the large joints, *e. g.*, the knee, wrist, elbow.

Transitory arthritis may be seen during childhood.

Physical Signs.—Inspection.—The affected joint is swollen, reddened, and partly flexed. If arthritis persists for some weeks, extreme pallor of the skin and mucous membranes and emaciation take place.

Palpation.—The affected joint or joints are found to be greatly enlarged and tender upon even mild pressure. Following the accumulation of an exudate in the synovial sacs fluctuation is present, and aspiration results in the recovery of fluid. In long-standing cases a fibrinous ankylosis may develop.

Laboratory Diagnosis.—If a urethral discharge is present, a specimen must be examined for the presence of the gonococcus. Manipulation of the prostatic strictures favors the recovery of positive smears. Cultures on blood-serum or glucose-agar should be made from the fluid obtained by aspirating the synovial sacs. The gonococcus will be obtained in a large proportion of cases. Other bacteria may also be present in the synovial fluid, *e. g.*, staphylococci, pneumococci, and streptococci.

If the type of gonorrheal infection has been usually severe and has continued for several weeks or even months, the *blood-picture* is that of chloranemia. Following the accumulation of pus in the synovial sacs a well-marked *leukocytosis* may be present, although this is not a constant finding. If the condition is complicated by endocarditis, the gonococcus may be cultivated from the circulating bloood. The complement fixation may be of service. Irons found that by injecting one-half million dead gonococci into the tissues that the joint pains increased 24 hours later, with a rise in temperature.*

* Arch. Int. Med., Vol. I, No. 4, p. 433.

Summary and Differential Diagnosis.—(*a*) History of gonorrheal infection, urethritis, leukorrhea, or ophthalmia; (*b*) involvement of the articular surface some weeks or months after the initial symptoms of gonorrhea; (*c*) detection of the gonococcus in the synovial fluid.

The foregoing diagnostic features serve to distinguish gonorrheal arthritis from other forms of joint inflammations. The following table sets forth the differential features between gonorrheal and tuberculous arthritis:

Gonorrheal Arthritis	Tuberculous Arthritis
1. History of gonorrheal infection from a few months to a year prior to the development of articular symptoms.	1. May be a history of tuberculosis prior to the development of articular symptoms.
2. Fluid in synovial sacs, purulent in most cases.	2. Fluid in synovial sacs serous in character.
3. Synovial fluid contains the gonococcus, and possibly other bacteria.	3. Synovial fluid may contain tubercle bacilli.
4. Tuberculin reaction negative.	4. Tuberculin test positive.

Clinical Course.—Despite the apparent virulence of the articular inflammation, the process tends to become subacute or chronic in nature. Surgical treatment is usually necessary, and materially shortens the course of the disease.

PROBABLE INFECTIOUS DISEASES

MUSCULAR RHEUMATISM (Myalgia)

General Remarks.—Many cases are secondary to and dependent upon an infective focus. Muscular rheumatism is a common disease, probably of a general nature, but exhibiting local symptoms. The latter may be deep-seated, affect various parts of the body, and in this way give rise to a number of subvarieties. The condition may accompany either acute or chronic rheumatism, or may occur independently. It often follows joint rheumatism, and some authors believe that the affection is a neuralgia of the sensory nerves of the muscles.

The changes are essentially those of myositis, and in the acute form extensive round-cell infiltration of the connective tissue, with swelling and partial degeneration of the muscle-fibers, and the formation in them of vacuoles, often occur. In the chronic form there is a proliferation of the interfascicular tissue.

Clinical Varieties.—Lumbago (Myalgia Lumbalis).—This is by far the most common form of muscular rheumatism, and is believed to be a special type of myalgia. The onset is sudden, at times instantaneous, and the stitch-like pain in the back is excited by the slightest movement. The condition is exceedingly painful, and at times the muscles of the lower portion of the back may be sensitive. Exacerbations of pain are likely to follow any change in the patient's position. One attack markedly predisposes to others.

The disease most often attacks men, and is unusually common in those subjected to heavy strain. Erben believes that the symptoms are caused by disease of the lumbar vertebræ, or that the condition is a neuralgia of the cutaneous nerves.

Torticollis (Myalgia Cervicalis; Wry-neck).—In this condition the muscles of one side of the neck are involved, and occasionally the muscles of the throat are implicated. Among the characteristic clinical features are the following: (*a*) The head is held in a fixed position, and the chin is directed toward the unaffected side; (*b*) the muscles of the affected side

are contracted; (*c*) because of pain the patient makes little or no effort to turn the head, but, instead, turns his entire body.

This form of myalgia occurs more commonly in the young than after middle life, and is of short duration. One attack seems to predispose to subsequent ones.

Cephalodynia.—Under this head are included all types of rheumatism or myalgia of the muscles of the scalp and face. Cephalodynia is often localized to the frontal, temporal, or occipital muscles, or attacks a single group of muscles, although it may at times involve the entire scalp and one side of the face. Movement of the affected muscles gives rise to extreme pain.

Pleurodynia is a form of myalgia involving the intercostal muscles, and less frequently the pectoralis and serratus magnus muscles. Like torticollis, this is a unilateral affection, the left side being affected more often than the right. Movements of the chest and trunk give rise to some pain, whereas the respiratory movements, and particularly deep inspiration are attended with agonizing pain. Heavy lifting, stretching, reaching, and turning of the trunk from side to side may also be painful. The acts of laughing, sneezing, and coughing are followed by lancinating pain involving the base of the affected side.

Myalgia of Special Groups of Muscles.—Under this head should be mentioned *omodynia*, or myalgia of the deltoid; *abdominal rheumatism*, a type involving the abdominal muscles; *rheumatic myositis*, a condition in which the muscles of the extremities are attacked; *myotonia* and *paramyoclonus multiplex* (see section on Nervous Diseases, p. 1166); *dorsodynia*, involvement of the muscles of the upper part of the back.

Predisposing and Exciting Factors.—Among the most important factors in the causation of the affection are: (1) The rheumatic diathesis; (2) heredity; (3) exposure to cold, damp, and strong air-currents, especially after heavy exercise or during free perspiration; (4) *sex*, the more frequent exposure of men while following their occupations making them more susceptible; (5) *age*—although it occurs at all ages, the acute and sub-acute varieties most frequently affect children and young adults, whereas the chronic form frequently attacks those beyond middle life; (6) previous attacks increase the susceptibility to subsequent seizures.

Principal Complaint.—There is usually a history of previous attacks and of an inherited tendency. Obstinate constipation often precedes the attack. The classification of clinical types previously outlined shows the degree of limitation to which the various forms of myalgia are subject. Pain of a sharp, lancinating, and more or less paroxysmal nature follows movement of the affected muscles. In certain cases the pain may be deep-seated, dull, more or less boring in character, and practically continuous. Contraction of the affected muscles may prove an annoying symptom. Pain is at times relieved by making firm pressure over the involved muscle.

Thermic Features.—Leube, in a study of 200 cases, found fever to be a conspicuous feature in about 33.33 per cent. of cases, the temperature rarely exceeding 102° F. The fever is of short duration in typical cases, lasting one or two days.

Physical Examination.—This may reveal no positive findings, although in certain chronic cases distinct nodular hardenings of the affected muscles may be felt. Of Leube's cases, 16.66 per cent. displayed distinct cardiac murmurs.

Diagnosis and Differential Diagnosis.—Diagnosis is based on the etiologic influences and on the presence of pain, which is greatly increased by muscular contraction.

Muscular rheumatism differs from **neuralgia** in that there are no painful points, and in that firm pressure with the palm of the hand often affords relief.

Dermatomyositis must be distinguished from muscular rheumatism. Unverricht first differentiated between the two conditions by the presence of pain and swelling of the muscles in muscular rheumatism, dermatomyositis showing, in addition, redness (erythema) and hyperesthesia of the skin overlying the affected structures. Chief among the general symptoms of dermatomyositis are fever and physical prostration. The spleen is enlarged, and angina and hemorrhages have been observed. Unlike muscular rheumatism, dermatomyositis is more frequently seen in women.

Clinical Course and Duration.—This condition lasts from a few hours to several days, the attack usually terminating by the end of the first week. Muscular rheumatism may become chronic.

CHRONIC ARTICULAR RHEUMATISM

Pathologic Definition.—A chronic disease of the joints characterized by the presence of inflammatory changes in the synovial membranes and inflammatory thickening of the articular and peri-articular structures (capsule, ligaments, tendon-sheaths, etc.). In some joints there may be erosions and adhesions, with loss of function and atrophic changes in the muscles.

Predisposing and Exciting Factors.—The probable causes of these atrophic changes have been pointed out in connection with muscular rheumatism. When the shoulder-joint is the seat of a chronic inflammation the muscular atrophy affecting chiefly the deltoid, reaches its highest degree of development. Chapman,* states that 50 per cent. of all cases where surgical treatment is applied to the existing focus of infection, show decided improvement. A large proportion of all cases of chronic arthritis are dependent upon foci of infection located in the genito-urinary tract.

From the evidence offered by the more recent literature it is highly probable that most of these cases result from focal infection. (See Acute Articular Rheumatism.)

Age predisposes to this affection, the greatest number of cases being seen to occur during the fourth and fifth decades.

Sex exerts a slight predisposing influence, the disease being observed more frequently among females. Poverty, occupations that entail exposure to cold and dampness, and hereditary tendencies predispose to the disease.

Clinical Picture.—The involved joints may or may not show evidence of disease. The patient complains of pain, which eventually becomes more severe at night, and is appreciably increased during cold and damp weather. It does not affect any particular joint or set of joints, but both large and small articular surfaces may be attacked, although the former, as a rule, suffer most. Occasionally acute or subacute attacks occur, one or more joints becoming swollen and slightly reddened. The affected joints are tender upon pressure, and their movements are appreciably restricted. A somewhat characteristic feature is that after a night's rest the affected joints are less painful and move more freely than they do after prolonged use. Chronic rhumatism is characterized by exacerbations that are followed by remissions. On placing the stethoscope over the affected joint, a distinct crepitation may be audible during movements. Partial dislocation and ankylosis occur late during the disease. In uncomplicated cases fever is absent, and

* Annals of Surgery, May, 1919.

prostration and emaciation do not appear until the patient has suffered severely for months or even years.

WOOD-TICK BITE PARALYSIS

Paralysis in children (rarely in adults) has long been known to follow the bites of wood-ticks, but the disease has not been clinically described in medical literature until 1921, nor added to our various text books.

Tick bite as a cause of paralysis in sheep serves as a menace to breeders in the same district where wood-tick paralysis is found in children. Among the earliest literature upon this subject we find McCormack described a case in 1903. In 1905 Borthwick sites a similar case in Cape Colony, and again Temple in 1912 and Todd in 1912 have added liberal contributions to this subject.

The disease is rather wide spread in the Rocky Mountain districts of the United States, and in British Columbia. It has also been reported from South Africa and Australia. McCormack* reports his own cases and several furnished by his friends (in all 14). (See also Rocky Mountain Fever, p. 999.)

Pathology.—Definite pathology is wanting because the number of deaths are few and furthermore these occur in mountainous districts where careful laboratory studies are impossible. The skin surrounding the point where the tick is attached becomes congested and minute petechia develop. Where the tick is allowed to remain for several days after paralysis has developed, rather extreme necrosis of the skin has been observed.

Etiology.—The wood-tick season in the Rocky Mountain district of Northern United States, and Canada, begins as early as February, and may end as late as August. The symptoms follow the attachment of the wood-tick to some portion of the body. The parasite is commonly located on the scalp of children, and in adults on the scalp, in the axilla, and other folds of the skin. Cases have been reported where more than one tick has been attached. There is suggestive evidence that only the bites of the female ticks cause the disease.

Research in connection with the bites of this parasite have revealed nothing of clinical interest. It has been suggested, however, that the symptoms result from an extoxic agent, and that the female tick after being attached for several days may produce the toxic element which is accountable for the symptoms. Supportive of the extoxic view is the fact that the symptoms subside after removal of the tick, curettement, and cauterization at the site of its attachment.

Incubation Period.—The disease is experimentally produced in animals, and it is found that from six to eight days after the female tick becomes attached, symptoms of paralysis develop. It is known, however, that many children receive bites from the tick, but only those where the tick remains attached for many days develop paralysis.

Dermacentor venustus is regarded by physicians residing in the infected districts, to be indistinguishable from the dermacentor occidentalis, the tick claimed to be responsible for the transmission of the Rocky Mountain spotted fever (see p. 999).†

Diagnosis.—The symptoms are characteristic and develop rapidly by weakness of the muscles of the extremities, a staggering gait, difficulty in standing, and a decided disinclination for the child to play. Within

* Jour. Am. Med. Assoc., July 23, 1921.

† The Rickettsiae and their relationship to disease, S. B. Wolbach, Jour. Am. Med. Assoc., Mar. 7, 1925, p. 723.

the course of a few hours there is moderate paralysis of the lower extremities, and this increases in intensity when the child becomes unable to hold his head erect, feed himself, and even to move about the bed. Rarely the disease is ushered in by a convulsion, or a series of convulsions. In addition to the increasing paralysis the pulse becomes rapid, and there is a slight rise in temperature; although febrile phenomena are not constant. "A large and engorged wood-tick is found somewhere on the body," and after its removal, and proper local treatment there is a gradual but progressive improvement in the paralysis. In cases where the tick is removed early the child returns to normal within forty-eight hours.

MOUNTAIN FEVER (MOUNTAIN SICKNESS)

General Remarks.—The term "mountain fever" should be applied only to a condition produced by the action of rarefied air upon the organic functions. It has no definite pathology. Aron has shown that the intake of oxygen is diminished at high altitudes.

The *symptoms* are a markedly quickened pulse, urgent dyspnea, headache, vertigo, and, at times, nausea and vomiting. The temperature may reach 100° to 101° F. Malaise, inordinate thirst, and anorexia are present. Hemoptysis has occasionally been observed.

ROCKY MOUNTAIN FEVER

Pathologic Definition.—An acute infectious disease prevailing during the summer months in certain portions of the Rocky Mountain district and the Bitter Root section of Montana. The disease also occurs in the mountainous districts of Nevada, Idaho, and Wyoming.

Exciting Factors.—The exciting cause of the disease is as yet unknown. Anderson and other observers regard it as due to infection with piroplasma hominis, a microörganism believed to be transmitted to man by the bite of ticks that are native to the particular district in which mountain spotted fever prevails. Ricketts has definitely shown that the tick, *dermacentor occidentalis*, is the intermediate host of the parasite.*

Predisposing Factors.—Climate figures prominently, mountain spotted fever not being observed south of 40 degrees nor north of 47 degrees N. latitude. The disease prevails in epidemic form only at high altitudes (3000 to 4000 feet). Heineman and Moore have found that the horse is susceptible to the injected virus of this disease.†

Season exercises a decided influence, the disease being prevalent only during the spring and early summer months.

Occupation, Sex, and Age.—Lumbermen, farmers, ranchers, and those following an outdoor life are especially likely to develop mountain spotted fever. Anderson, in an analysis of 121 reported cases, found 76 of them to have developed in males while 45 were in females. The disease is usually limited to early adult and middle life, most cases appearing between the ages of fifteen and fifty.

Principal Complaint.—There is a history of the bite from a tick, and one or more of these insects are found embedded in the skin of the patient. The disease is ushered in by a decided chill or series of chills, following which the temperature rises steadily, with slight morning remissions, for two or three days, when there is an intermission for about two days. A second febrile period then occurs. As many as seven febrile paroxysms occur with afebrile intervals before the disease terminates. In severe types of the affection the patient may complain of severe pain in the back and loins, intense soreness over the large muscles, and

* Wolbach. Jour. Am. Med. Assoc., Mar. 7, 1925, p. 723.

† Connor, Jour. Infec. Dis., 35: 587, Dec., 1924.

difficulty in moving the limbs. Toward the end of the first and during the second week of the disease epistaxis may be an annoying symptom. Nausea and vomiting are not uncommon, and persistent constipation is usually seen. The temperature in the febrile periods rises to 103° or 104° F., but the first paroxysm is usually more severe than the subsequent ones. In the fatal cases the temperature-curve shows no intermissions, but continues with fairly well-marked remissions.

Physical Signs.—Inspection.—The tongue is heavily coated over the center and at the base, the edges and tip being intensely reddened. The conjunctivæ are markedly congested, and late in the disease may show a yellowish tinge. The eruption is characteristic, appearing on the third or fourth day following the chill, and seen first on the wrists and ankles, spreading to the arms and legs, and then over the greater portion of the body, involving the abdomen last. The spots first appear as a bright red macule, varying in size from that of the point of a pin to that of a pea. If hemorrhage into the skin occurs, the hemorrhagic areas may assume a bluish tinge. The petechial eruption begins to fade at about the sixth day of the disease, and in favorable cases has almost disappeared by the fourteenth day. The respiratory movements are greatly accelerated, and number between 25 and 60 a minute, becoming more frequent when an associated bronchitis develops.

Palpation.—The pulse is weak and rapid. The liver is not usually enlarged, but the spleen is always increased in size and is frequently tender.

Laboratory Diagnosis.—There are appreciable destructive changes in the red blood-cells, which are always reduced in number. The reduction in hemoglobin follows the red blood-corpuscle loss closely, and may fall to 70 or even to 50 per cent. There is no marked leukocytosis, but there is a slight increase in the number of large mononuclear cells.

Albuminuria develops during the height of the disease, and the evidence of acute nephritis may be present.

Differential Diagnosis.—Rocky Mountain spotted fever must be distinguished from those diseases in which there is a purpuric eruption. It is differentiated from **pyemia** (with purpura) by the fact that in Rocky Mountain fever cultures from the venous blood do not show the presence of pathogenic bacteria. Rocky Mountain fever is differentiated from epidemic meningitis by the fact that in the former condition an examination of the cerebrospinal fluid gives negative results. The attitude where contracted is sufficient to separate the condition from Tularemia (deer fly-fever) p. 1001.

Clinical Course.—In approximately 10 per cent. of all cases the disease reaches its height by from the eighth to the tenth day, after which the fever declines and there is an improvement in all the general symptoms. Convalescence is well established in from the fourteenth to the eighteenth day. In the majority of cases, however, the disease progresses from bad to worse until the fourteenth day, when complications, such as nephritis, bronchopneumonia, and cardiac failure, ensue. In Montana the death-rate is as high as 30 per cent., but in Wyoming and Idaho it is only 2 or 3 per cent.

SWINE FEVER

This type of infection is usually acquired by those who are caring for swine sick from the disease, or making a necropsy on domestic animals dead of this particular infection.

The period of incubation varies between 12 and 72 hours. The onset appears with swelling of the fingers of the affected hand.

The integument becomes a bluish-red color, and later there develops small nodules. The surrounding lymphatic-glands and nodules become tender and painful.

RAT-BITE FEVER

An infectious disease transmitted to man through the bite of the rats, and characterized clinically by brief febrile paroxysms, which occur at rather regular intervals. The exciting factor is believed to be spirochæta morsus muris, and according to Japanese reports 3 to 12 per cent. of all rats are known to harbor this parasite. Rarely man may become infected through the bites of the cat, weasel, or ferret.

Consideration.—This disease has been known to Japan and China for more than a century. Proescher has called special attention to the disease on the Western Continent. A rather recent statistical report for infectious diseases for Japan credits only 49 cases of the infection during the past 13 years. Authenic cases have been reported from nearly all parts of the world.

Incubation.—This is not constant, and there are instances recorded where this period may have lasted for many months.

General Complaint.—There is given the history of a bite from a rat which wound healed in the course of time, and some weeks or months later suddenly became swollen and red, and finally eroded. Ulceration ensued, and the regional lymph-glands became swollen and tender.

With the swelling and redness there is apt to develop a chill, which is followed by a rather rapid rise in temperature, which febrile-period continues for three or four days. Erythema and at times a blotchy eruption may be detected. The patient complains of rather agonizing pains in the muscles and joints, and in severe cases delirium may be present.

Thermic Features.—The temperature usually subsides in from three to four days, but the entire clinical picture commonly repeats itself in from a few days to a few weeks, and this succession of febrile periods separated by intermissions may continue for several months.

TULAREMIA

(Deer-fly Fever)

A disease caused by bacterium tularense, and transmitted to various animals, and to man, by a blood sucking fly. Rabbits and ground squirrels are also known to suffer from this disease, and human subjects have developed the disease after handling rabbits.

Bacteriology.—Bacterium tularense is a small rod shaped organism, apparently encapsulated, and is to be found in great numbers in the spleen of animals dead from tularemia. The liver, bubo, and heart's blood usually contain the organism. The bacterium is frequently seen in pus cells and in the leukocytes. Bacterium tularense is Gram-negative, non-motile and stains well with anilin gentian violet, carbothionin and carbol-fuchsin. The bacterium does not grow well on ordinary laboratory media, but thrives after an addition of 20 per cent. egg yolk on the culture medium.

Pathology.—Necropsy shows the pleuræ to be covered with greenish yellow lymph; there is a moderate degree of pulmonary edema and congestion, while dependant portions of the lung may be filled with blood. Scattered throughout the lungs are to be seen irregular but discreet nodules of varying size (from a walnut to a millet seed). Microscopically these nodules are fibrous and not surrounded by an inflammatory zone.

Sections of the lung show areas of necrosis; and the peribronchial lymph glands are enlarged. The liver is soft, bile stained in places, and displays hylane degeneration. Moderate spleenic enlargement is present, and disseminated throughout the spleen are seen small yellowish white nodules. Microscopically, the spleen is congested and shows lymphocytes infiltration. There is usually a definite lesion infiltrated by blood beneath the skin of the finger or at the site of infection. Verbycke* gives us the first autopsy record of an authentic case.

Historical Note.—McCoy and Chapin† discovered bacterium tularense in the blood of ground squirrels in 1912, Wherry and Lamb‡ isolated later the same organism from rabbits dead of an epidemic disease and Francis§ detected this organism in jack rabbits suffering from, and dead of an epidemic disease in 1920. Francis continued his work one step further and showed that a human disease known as "Deer-fly Fever" was transmitted to man through the bites of certain blood-sucking flies that were previously infected by biting diseased rabbits. Francis continued his investigations until 1922, when he published his article entitled "Tularemia—A New Disease of Man." Epidemics have been described as occurring in squirrels and rabbits throughout the greater portion of the Northern and Western sections of the United States and Southern Canada. Bacterium tularense has been found in connection with human infections by Pearse of Birmingham City, Utah, who reports six cases following the bite of flies. Chapin, Vail, Wherry and Lamb have all added interesting clinical data. Seven cases were reported by Francis in 1919 and 1920—all of which developed in the State of Utah, and followed the bites of flies. Francis reports that probably a dozen cases developed in 1917, 1918, 1919 and 1920 in this same territory. A case has been reported from Washington, and another from Charlotte, N. C. Verbycke in a review of the literature in 1924 concludes that cases of human infection are rather widespread.

Modes of Infection.—Insects that have bitten infected animals in turn transmit the disease to both man and animals through their bites. The disease is transmitted to man most commonly through the bites of flies. Six insects have been proven to be capable of transmitting the disease;—the large fly, the ordinary louse,‖ the bed bug, the squirrel fly, the stable fly and the mouse louse. There are six reported cases where the disease was acquired by the handling of infected rabbits.

Season.—In those cases transmitted by the fly, development took place during the months of June, July and August.

Onset.—The incubation period is approximately 48 hours. The onset is abrupt, with rather high fever, which abates at the end of the third day, but continues a somewhat irregular course until about the 21st day. There is pain along the lymph-glands surrounding the bite, and these glands later become enlarged, and may suppurate. Prostration develops early, and the patient recovers his strength slowly—convalescence being slow and requiring two or more months.

Laboratory Diagnosis.—The bacterium tularense can be recovered from the blood throughout the febrile stage. We do not find further records of blood studies. Compliment fixation and agglutination tests

* Jour. Am. Med. Assoc., May 17–22, p. 1577.
† Pub. Health Bull. 53, January, 1912.
‡ Jour. Infect. Dis. 15, 331–340, 1914.
§ Tularemia, J. A. M. A., 78, 1015–1018, April 8, 1922.
‖ The Rickettsiæ and Their Relationship to Disease, S. B. Wolbach, Jour. Am. Med. Assoc., Mar. 7, 1925, p. 723.

are positive after the second week of the disease, and this feature may persist for at least two years.

Summary of Diagnosis.—Whenever a previously healthy individual is suddenly attacked and shows a high fever for three days with a declining but continued fever, tularemia should be considered. Persons working in the country are more liable to infection. The history of a bite from an insect furnishes the strongest evidence. Handling of animals sick or dead of a plague-like disease must be given consideration. Enlargement and tenderness of the lymph glands surrounding the insect's bite is supportive evidence. Bacterium tularense may be recovered from the blood.

MILK-SICKNESS

("TREMBLES")

Pathologic Definition.—A disease occurring in man and in the lower animals. When it occurs in the latter, it is known as "trembles." The disease is unknown east of the Alleghany Mountains, but formerly prevailed in many of the western and southwestern States.

Predisposing Factors.—It has been proved that many cases of milk-sickness were communicated to man by the use of milk and its products, or by the ingestion of meat obtained from cattle suffering from "trembles."

Season.—The disease generally appears during the spring and autumn months, although it may occur at any season. A single attack does not bestow immunity, but, on the contrary, predisposes to subsequent attacks.

Symptoms.—Such prodromata as anorexia, languor, headache, and fatigue may occur. Later nausea and violent vomiting develop, and vomiting of blood has been noted in certain cases. Obstinate constipation is the rule. There is pain in the abdomen, and as the disease progresses the pain may be referred to various portions of the body. A peculiar form of dyspnea may be present, and hiccough and difficulty in swallowing are occasionally seen. Inordinate thirst is the rule, and the patient's breath gives off a fetid odor that is said to be highly characteristic of the malady.

Nervous Features.—When the patient is directed to protrude his tongue, this organ is seen to be unusually large, and affected by decided tremor. Restlessness, followed by apathy and mental dullness, is the rule, and in severe cases the condition may go on to stupor and even to coma. The typhoid state and convulsive seizures are occasionally observed.

Thermic Features.—The temperature is, as a rule, normal or subnormal, and, according to Kimmell, rarely exceeds 99° F.

Physical Signs.—In mild cases the pulse remains nearly normal, but in severe cases it becomes accelerated and fluctuates in direct proportion to the degree of prostration present. The abdomen is at first scaphoid, and in severe types of the disease tympanites occurs later.

Course.—In mild cases the patient recovers within a few days, but in the more severe types the symptoms may continue for from twelve to twenty days.

MILIARY FEVER

(SWEATING DISEASE)

Pathologic Definition.—An infectious disease, characterized by the occurrence of copious sweats and the presence of a vesicular (miliary) erup-

tion. It has prevailed epidemically in England, Italy, Germany, and France in 1887, and in Austria in 1893. The severity of the disease is shown from a statistical report of Schaffer, in which, of a total population of 5097 persons, 158 were shown to have developed miliary fever, the disease attacking 31 adults, 17 of whom were men, and 128 children.

Predisposing Factors.—Ordinarily, women between twenty and forty years of age are attacked more often than are men, and, according to Schaffer, childhood is a marked predisposing factor.

Clinical Picture.—The disease is marked by fever, accompanied by epigastric oppression and sweating, which symptoms continue until the third or fourth day, when an eruption occurs, first appearing in the form of a mild irritation of the skin, but later developing into vesicles that soon rupture; within the course of forty-eight hours following their appearance there is a decidedly scaly desquamation. Hemorrhages may occur and may precede general collapse. Relapses are not uncommon. (See Sweating p. 693.)

Nervous Manifestations.—In severe cases there are restlessness and delirium.

Diagnosis.—This is based largely upon the following characteristics: Fever, and the typical cutaneous manifestations that appear on the third or fourth day, together with the tendency toward the occurrence of relapses. The fact that the disease is almost always limited to a comparatively small area is also worthy of consideration.

FOOT-AND-MOUTH DISEASE

(Epidemic Stomatitis; Aphthous Fever)

Pathologic Definition.—An acute infection attacking cattle, sheep, swine, and goats, and rarely transmitted to man. Klein has described a special micrococcus that he recovered from the lesions.

Predisposing Factors.—The prevalence of an epidemic among the lower animals appears to be the leading predisposing factor when the disease is transmitted to man, and it is then known as epidemic stomatitis. In the fall of 1908 several cases of foot-and-mouth disease developed in cattle, sheep, and swine in the States of New York and Pennsylvania, and so widespread was this epidemic, that hundreds of animals had to be destroyed.

Incubation Period.—This is from three to five days.

Principal Complaint.—A chill or a series of chills usually marks the onset, following which the patient complains of malaise and of symptoms referable to the mouth, resembling those of aphthous stomatitis. (See p. 452.) The vesicles first appear upon the tongue and mucous surface of the mouth, extending to the lips. The temperature of the mouth is increased, the mucous membrane is greatly reddened and edematous, and salivation occurs. The oral vesicles may go on to pustule formation, and may extend to the face, and occasionally to other portions of the body. A tendency toward hemorrhage has been observed in certain epidemics. There is an excess of saliva. The red-blood cells usually display a progressive increase in number reaching from 6,000,000 to 7,000,000 per c.mm.; and the hemoglobin fluctuates between 100 and 120 per cent. Leukocytosis is the rule, but this may not exceed 10,000 to 14,000 per c.mm.

Summary of Diagnosis.—A history of the disease in lower animals, together with the characteristic eruption of the mouth, which is also transmitted to the extremities (fingers), are the leading features of the disease.

Clinical Course.—This is usually mild, extending over a period of approximately one week.

GLANDULAR FEVER

Pathologic Definition.—An acute infectious disease of children, characterized by an adenitis affecting the lymph-nodes of the neck.

Etiology.—This disease was first described by Filatow, of Moscow, Donkin, Fischer, and Dawson Williams, of England. J. Park West has also given an excellent description of the disease. It usually occurs in the form of house epidemics. West of Ohio, described a wide-spread epidemic in which 96 cases occurred in 43 families.

Age.—The disease usually occurs during childhood, although cases occurring in adults have been reported.

Season.—Most of the cases are seen between the months of October and May.

Incubation Period.—This is from five to eight days.

Clinical Pictures.—The onset is sudden. Because of pain on movement the child holds its neck in one position. There are anorexia, nausea, occasional vomiting, and often abdominal pain. The tonsils are enlarged, and in some cases there is injection of the pharyngeal mucosa. Mental hebetude and delirium are occasionally seen. Glandular enlargement appears on the second or third day, and generally attacks the left side first, the opposite side of the neck becoming enlarged a few days later. The glands vary in size from that of a bean to that of a hen's egg, and are painful. Statistical analysis shows that approximately 75 per cent. of cases display enlargement of either the post-cervical, inguinal, and axillary glands. The mesentery glands were found by West to be enlarged in 37 of the 96 cases. Cough and dyspnea may occur, as the result of involvement of the bronchial and tracheal glands. Splenic enlargement occurs in 50 per cent. of the cases, and in almost all the liver is increased in size.

Thermic Features.—The temperature ranges between 101° and 103° F.

Clinical Course and Complications.—The average duration is sixteen days. Among the common complications are hemorrhagic nephritis, bronchitis, and otitis media. Adenitis may terminate in suppuration, Neumann having observed this condition in 13 cases. Retropharyngeal abscess has been reported.

INFECTIOUS JAUNDICE

(ACUTE FEBRILE JAUNDICE; FIEDLER'S DISEASE; WEIL'S DISEASE; EPIDEMIC CATARRHAL JAUNDICE; SPIROCHETOSIS ICTEROHEMORRHAGICA)

Pathologic Definition.—An acute infectious disease, characterized by jaundice, wasting, moderate enlargement and cloudy swelling of the liver and spleen, the former occasionally showing small foci of fatty degeneration. The kidneys are also the seat of a diffuse tubular nephritis, and hemorrhages into the serous sacs and the spleen have been observed.

Exciting Factors.—Bravetta studied many cases of infectious jaundice in the Italian army and found the spirochæta icterohæmorrhagiæ present. This parasite was first detected in India in 1915. There appears to be substantial evidence to show that the rat is the carrier of this infection and Bravetta's cases were found in rat infected regions. The same form of jaundice has been described in practically all parts of the civilized world.*

* New York Med. Times, Oct., 1923, p. 231.

Spirochæta are found in the urine. Approximately 4 per cent. of rats are found to be infected with the spirochæta of jaundice.

General Complaint and Characteristic Signs.—The onset is usually sudden, and may be fulminating, although such prodromal symptoms as lassitude, headache, and anorexia are occasionally encountered. The disease is generally ushered in with a chill, followed by fever, which rises quickly to 103° or 104° F., and is of the remittent type, continuing from ten to fourteen days, and terminating by lysis. Headache, vertigo, nausea, vomiting and at times diarrhea are present. Jaundice usually appears in from the second to the fourth day, and may be slight or intense. If the disease is due to obstruction, the stools may be clay-colored, showing the absence of bile. The liver and spleen are often enlarged, and the latter may be tender on pressure. In grave cases cerebral symptoms, such as delirium, convulsions, and coma, may rarely occur. Herpes, diffuse or macular erythema, and urticaria are occasionally seen.

In certain cases hemorrhages may occur—*e. g.*, epistaxis, hemoptysis, petechial eruptions, and bleeding into the serous cavities and from the intestine.

Laboratory Diagnosis.—The urine is high-colored, bile-stained, and shows the presence of albumin, casts, and sometimes of blood. Spirochætæ icterohæmorrhagicæ are present in the blood and urine.

Diagnosis.—This is based on the acute onset, fever, pains in the muscles, joints, and epigastrium, nephritis, icterus, a tendency toward hemorrhages, and the frequent occurrence of relapses. Smears and cultural studies of the bile reveals the spirochæta.

Clinical Course.—The prognosis, both as to life and recovery, is good. W. E. Hughes, notwithstanding, records two cases that proved fatal within forty-eight hours of the onset.

In cases of average severity the temperature shows a tendency to decline in from the fourth to the ninth days, and reaches the normal about five days later. Muscle pains, however, disappear slowly, and may be present even when convalescence is apparently well established. The nervous symptoms, the enlargement of the liver and spleen, and the evidences of nephritis gradually subside. There is usually a marked loss in weight, and convalescence is somewhat protracted. Relapses occur in approximately 40 per cent. of all cases, and are prone to appear in from three to eight days after the temperature has reached the normal. The period of each relapse is ordinarily shorter than that of the initial attack.

AUTUMNAL CATARRH

(Hay-fever; Hay Asthma, Sensitization Disease)

Pathologic Definition.—A disease of doubtful origin, in which many predisposing factors are concerned, and which is characterized pathologically by congestion of the nasal mucosa, with overactivity of the glands. Congestion may extend from the nasal mucous membrane to the conjunctivæ, the pharynx, and the larynx, and in some instances to the bronchi. The inflammatory process frequently extends along the Eustachian tube, and hyperemia of the middle ear may follow.

Predisposing and Exciting Factors.—Age and Sex.—Age is a prominent predisposing factor, since practically one-third of all cases develop before the twentieth year. Males are affected more often than females. Nasal polypi, spurs, deflected septa, and other abnormalities of the nasal mucous surface may serve as predisposing factors in some

cases. **Reflex irritation** is also known to figure in the production of this disease, and **heredity** is a potent factor. The cutaneous sensitization test by the dermal method has been shown of inestimable value in connection with eczema, urticaria, and asthma, and should be of equal value in determining the exciting factors in hay-fever.

Season acts as the most important predisposing factor, since in the United States the majority of cases are seen during the months of August and September and in the early part of October. A limited number of cases are also encountered during the months of May and June—the so-called "rose-fever."

Exposure to the pollen of certain plants may excite the disease in those who have previously been free from it. But dust of any kind will bring on a paroxysm. Attacks of sneezing are more likely to develop during the middle of the day and when the sun is hot, than during the early morning and evening hours. The **application of local treatment** to the nasal mucous membrane is, in many instances, sufficient to precipitate an attack of hay-fever, and such an attack may continue for weeks. **Walking against a strong wind** and riding upon both steam and electric cars intensify the symptoms in those suffering from the disease, and are often sufficient to precipitate an attack in persons previously healthy. There are certain cases in which the patient suffers more or less from hay-fever during the entire year, but the vast majority of all cases are free from the disease from the first appearance of frost (October or November) until May or June of the following year. The patient frequently states that he is positive there has been a frost in the immediate vicinity, although he has not been out of the house, and may have no other evidence except that his breathing is improved.

Change of location of patients who are already suffering from an attack may, in certain instances, intensify the symptoms, whereas in others they may become ameliorated. Patients seldom suffer from the disease when on the high seas, whereas the symptoms usually develop promptly when such individuals reach the land; the disease is extremely uncommon at an elevation of from 4000 to 6000 feet.

Odors.—The odor of certain plants, ammonia, and other gases may not only predispose to, but appears to excite, an attack, and hay-fever may also follow great excitement and the inhalation of inorganic and organic dusts.

TESTS FOR HAY-FEVER

The Intradermal Test.—Pollen extracts are supplied in intradermal syringes containing sufficient for one test, or in 5-c.c. vials, so standardized that 1–20 (0.05) c.c. contains the proper amount of protein for one test. A dose of about 10 pollen units is injected into (not under) the skin of the forearm. The results are noted one-half hour after injection.

The Cutaneous Test.—Dried pollens are used for this test. They are supplied in bulk or in special cutaneous outfits containing the correct amount of protein for one test. The technic of the test is very simple. A series of small cuts or scratches, about two inches apart, are made on the epidermis of the forearm, being careful to draw no blood. A drop of normal salt solution or N/10 sodium hydrate is applied to each cut and a small amount (about 2 mg.) of the pollen to be tested is rubbed in gently.

Reaction.—A positive reaction consists of a definite wheal, with or without an area of erythema (pink halo) which must be decidedly larger

than that seen at the site of a control test, made with salt solution or N/10 sodium hydrate alone.

Varieties.—(1) At times pathologic lesions of the upper air-passages are to be found, such as a deflected nasal septum, disease of the turbinate bones, disease of the sinuses that communicate with the nasal fossæ, and the like. Asthma, migraine, sciatica and epilepsy are also included among the sensitization diseases.

(2) A somewhat larger class includes those cases in which no disease of the respiratory tract is detectable, and still, for some unknown reason, these patients develop typical attacks of hay-fever during the autumn months, and some have two or more attacks (one in May or June—rose fever) during each year.

(3) There is a special class of sufferers from this disease in whom there is a hypersensitiveness of the nasal mucous membrane for certain odors or for dust. Such patients may develop an attack of hay-fever whenever they are exposed to the particular excitant for which they possess an idiosyncrasy.

Prodromal Symptoms.—These are common to the majority of all patients, and in typical cases consist of the following: For several days prior to the initial attack of paroxysmal sneezing a variable degree of constipation occurs, which may be obstinate in some cases; undue itching of the skin, and particularly of the scalp, may also be present, and at the same time there is likely to be itching of the eyelids and of the nose; vague pains and soreness of the muscles upon movement are by no means unusual, although these are of a mild nature. Upon rising after a night's rest certain of the joints feel stiff, a condition that more commonly involves the ankles and feet. The mental condition is somewhat sluggish, and victims of the disease find it impossible to concentrate their mental faculties both immediately before and during an attack of hay-fever. Drowsiness is often present during the day, and in severe cases the patient may sleep for hours during the afternoon, and still secure restful sleep at night.

Principal Complaint.—A history of previous attacks is usually obtainable in all but that small proportion of cases in which the patient consults his physician during the primary attack. Most patients assert that they have had similar mild attacks at intervals during the past few years, but that they always regarded such attacks as acute "colds." These early mild attacks of hay-fever may last for but from twenty-four to forty-eight hours, during which time the patient sneezes frequently and suffers from increased lacrimation and a copious discharge from the nose.

Symptoms.—Following the prodromal stage, the onset of the disease is abrupt and the attacks tend to return annually at approximately the same day; the invasion is ushered in by a paroxysmal attack of sneezing, which is accompanied by the other symptoms of severe coryza such as temporary obstruction of the nasal passages and profuse rhinorrhea, the discharge being thin and of the consistence of water, although in some cases the nasal secretion may be mucopurulent. The conjunctivæ are greatly congested, and the patient experiences intense itching of the eyelids, conjuctivæ, and tip of the nose. In typical cases of hay-fever the patient will be seen to be continually rubbing the tip of the nose; this he does unconsciously, while at the same time he may irritate his scalp by scratching; with the onset of the disease there is more or less itching over the entire body. As the disease progresses paroxysmal attacks of sneezing and coryza become more and more frequent, and

occur at intervals of from a few hours to a few minutes. In severe cases, during a paroxysm the patient will continue to sneeze every few seconds for from two minutes to one-half hour, and after he has sneezed from ten to forty times, his body becomes immediately covered with beads of perspiration, and, indeed, this sweating may be so profuse as to saturate his linen. The more profuse the perspiration at these paroxysms, the more profound is the prostration following each of them. In nearly every case of hay-fever a peculiar scaly exudate develops upon the scalp during the attack. In many patients, however, the scalp remains unusually clean.

Clinical Course.—This varies from a few days to several weeks. Rarely a patient is seen who suffers from hay-fever every month of the year.

Paroxysm.—As a precursor of each paroxysm, both nostrils appear to be more or less completely closed as the result of edema or of swelling of the nasal mucosa. Following this difficulty in breathing the following symptoms occur:

(*a*) The patient experiences a peculiar tingling sensation of the palate and the tip of the nose, and within the course of a few seconds this sensation is communicated to the nasal cavity.

(*b*) The patient sneezes violently several times, following which there are profuse discharges from the conjunctivæ and the nose. Attacks are commonly provoked by irritation of the nose or by rubbing of the eyes. Cleansing of the nose serves as one of the commonest causes for a precipitation of these attacks, and we have found that in the majority of cases local treatment renders the attacks more frequent except in those instances in which cocain or adrenalin chlorid is employed, and even here violent paroxysms commonly occur between the treatments.

Without apparent cause the local symptoms become appreciably ameliorated for periods of one or more days, but following such amelioration there is likely to be a temporary exacerbation in both the local and the general symptoms. Exacerbations are frequently attributed to exposure to the air, to the inhalation of dust, and to climatic changes, paroxysms being more common during those hours of the day when the sun is brightest, and appreciably more frequent when there is a strong breeze. In other words, the more pleasant the day, the more does the victim of hay-fever suffer.

General Symptoms.—These are, as a rule, mild, and consist of chilly sensations, alternating with slight flushings of the face and a sense of feverishness; there are also lassitude and a moderate degree of anorexia; insomnia may be present, and results directly from interference with respiration during sleep.

Late during the course of the disease the catarrhal process may invade the larynx, and even the bronchi, as previously stated, and in consequence of congestion of the mucous surface of these organs, the patient is annoyed by cough, and attacks of asthma (see Bronchial Asthma, p. 88) may be experienced.

HEMORRHAGIC DISEASE OF THE NEW-BORN

EPIDEMIC HEMOGLOBINURIA

(WINCKEL'S DISEASE)

Pathologic Definition.—An affection, probably septic in nature, occasionally seen in lying-in hospitals, and occurring in infants in from

one to ten days after birth. Hemorrhage is classified as traumatic or accidental: (hematoma of mastoid, occipital hematoma, visceral hemorrhage) and spontaneous hemorrhage or the hemorrhagic diathesis of the new-born.

General Features.—The infants refuse the breast and exhibit hematogenous jaundice. Gastro-enteric catarrh is present, and hemorrhages occur into the viscera and from the mucous membranes. Mild fever, rapid emaciation, and convulsive seizures are present.

Laboratory Diagnosis.—The stools contain meconium; the urine is scanty, dark colored (from methemoglobin), often albuminous, and may contain casts. Kilham and Mercelis, of New York, isolated a diplococcus from 10 cases, but, in all probability, this organism is not the true cause of the disease.

ACUTE FATTY DEGENERATION OF THE NEW-BORN

(Buhl's Disease)

General Remarks.—This disease is probably similar to Winckel's in nature. It was first described by Hecker and Buhl as an infectious disease of the new-born.

Clinical Characteristics.—There are cyanosis, jaundice, and profuse visceral hemorrhages. The chief pathologic change is an acute fatty degeneration of the viscera.

MORBUS MACULOSUS NEONATORUM

General Remarks.—In this affection there is hemorrhage from the gastro-intestinal mucosa of the new-born (melæna neonatorum), due probably to intracranial lesions the result of pressure received during birth, although the condition may take place independently of the latter. Preuschen collected the reports of 37 cases, in 5 of which the brain was examined, and in all of these cerebral hemorrhage was found. Townsend found 459 cases among the records of 6700 births. Gärtner believes the disease to be of infectious origin, and asserts that in two cases he was able to identify a bacillus. Hemorrhage may also take place from the mouth, nose, umbilicus, etc. General rather than local bleeding is the rule.

Clinical Course.—Hemorrhage is usually marked during the first week of life, and continues for from a day to a week, at the end of which time practically 50 per cent. of cases enter upon a stage of convalescence and go on to recovery.

HISTOPLASMOSIS

Remarks.—A fatal disease somewhat resembling kala-azar, due apparently to an organism similar to Leishmania donovani, which has been observed in persons in the canal zone, Panama.

Among the characteristic features are splenomegaly, irregular remittent fever, leukopenia, and emaciation. Glandular enlargement, tenderness over the spleen and liver, and absence of the patellar reflexes were also observed. Thus far only three cases have been reported.* The parasite recovered from the splenic tissue resembles in some respects the Leishman-Donovan body, but is regarded by Darling and others as being distinguishable from the last-named parasite. Darling suggests for it the name histoplasma capsulatum.

* Samuel T. Darling, M. D., Arch. Int. Med. September, 1908.

Laboratory Diagnosis.—According to Darling's observations, oval and round bodies were found free in the blood-plasma at autopsy, and were also present in smears made from the marrow of the ribs and from the spleen.

SUNSTROKE

Pathologic Definition.—Following undue exposure to heat, the blood is fluid, dark in color, and there is degeneration of the red cells and an absence of rouleaux formation. Parenchymatous degeneration of the kidneys and liver and of the whole neural axis may be present. The cerebrospinal fluid is albuminous, occasionally blood-stained and under increased tension.

Predisposing and Exciting Factors.—Practically, anything that lessens bodily resistance to external high heat predisposes to heat-stroke. Thus, privation, unsanitary surroundings, fatigue of body or mind, emotional excitement, worry, overeating, indulgence in alcoholics, and previous attacks of sunstroke are conducive to heat-stroke on exposure to high temperature.

Heat-stroke and thermic fever are terms more appropriately applied to those similarly affected in midsummer while working in places not exposed to the sun, but yet close, confined, and excessively hot.

Heat-exhaustion (prostratio thermica) is caused under similar conditions as the preceding, but manifests dissimilar effects. The majority of the cases of sunstroke occur between 2 and 5 P. M., although heat-stroke and heat-exhaustion may occur at night as late as 10 or 11 P. M.

Clinical Varieties.—Two forms of heat- or sunstroke are common: (1) The asphyxial or apoplectic form; (2) the hyperpyrexial form. The majority of the cases of sunstroke are possibly combinations of apoplexy and exhaustion. "Valin puts all cases of insolation into two classes: the first, sthenic or asphyxial, corresponding to our hyperpyrexial or congestive variety; the second, asthenic or syncopal, corresponding to our heat-exhaustion. Mixed forms may occur quite frequently, the most prominent symptoms being referable to the organs suffering the most, as the cerebrospinal system, heart, lungs" (Anders).

General Complaint.—There may be sudden premonitions or dizziness, chromatopsia, throbbing headache, cessation of sweating, or dyspnea. The patient while working in the sun may suddenly fall unconscious, convulsions may occur, and in this state he may die from cardiac failure. More often unconsciousness is not so profound, but there is much restlessness, and epigastric "cramp" may be present. Also a sense of thoracic oppression, and occasionally there are nausea and vomiting.

There are often prodromes as cramp-like pains on the abdomen, blurring of vision, mental hebetude, anorexia, intense headache, irritability of the bladder, general nervousness, and progressive weakness.

Thermic Features.—These fluctuate wihin wide limits, for example, the temperature may be subnormal in certain cases, while in others it may reach 101° to 102° F. Again, the mouth or rectal temperature may be found to register 104° to 106° F. In the hyperpyrexial variety high temperature is practically always observed, and may fluctuate between 106° to 112° F., and there are on record many instances where a much higher temperature has been observed. (See Fig. 362.)

Physical Signs.—General.—In ordinarily severe types of heat-exhaustion the face is flushed, the vessels of the neck are seen to pulsate, respirations are labored, and the skin is hot, dry, and may display minute

hemorrhages. At times the skin is clammy, and there is also present extreme cyanosis. In the more severe type the general appearance of the patient is that seen in profound exhaustion and in coma. The patient may be restless, and occasionally delirious. The movements of the chest are increased in frequency, varying between 25 and 50 per minute.

Local Examination.—Inspection.—The tongue is usually coated with a heavy whitish fur. The eyes are suffused, the pupils pin-point, and there may be a rather fixed stare. In the nervous types there is picking at the bed-clothes.

Palpation.—The skin is at first hot and dry, or may later be cold and clammy. The pulse may vary between 90 and 160 beats per minute.

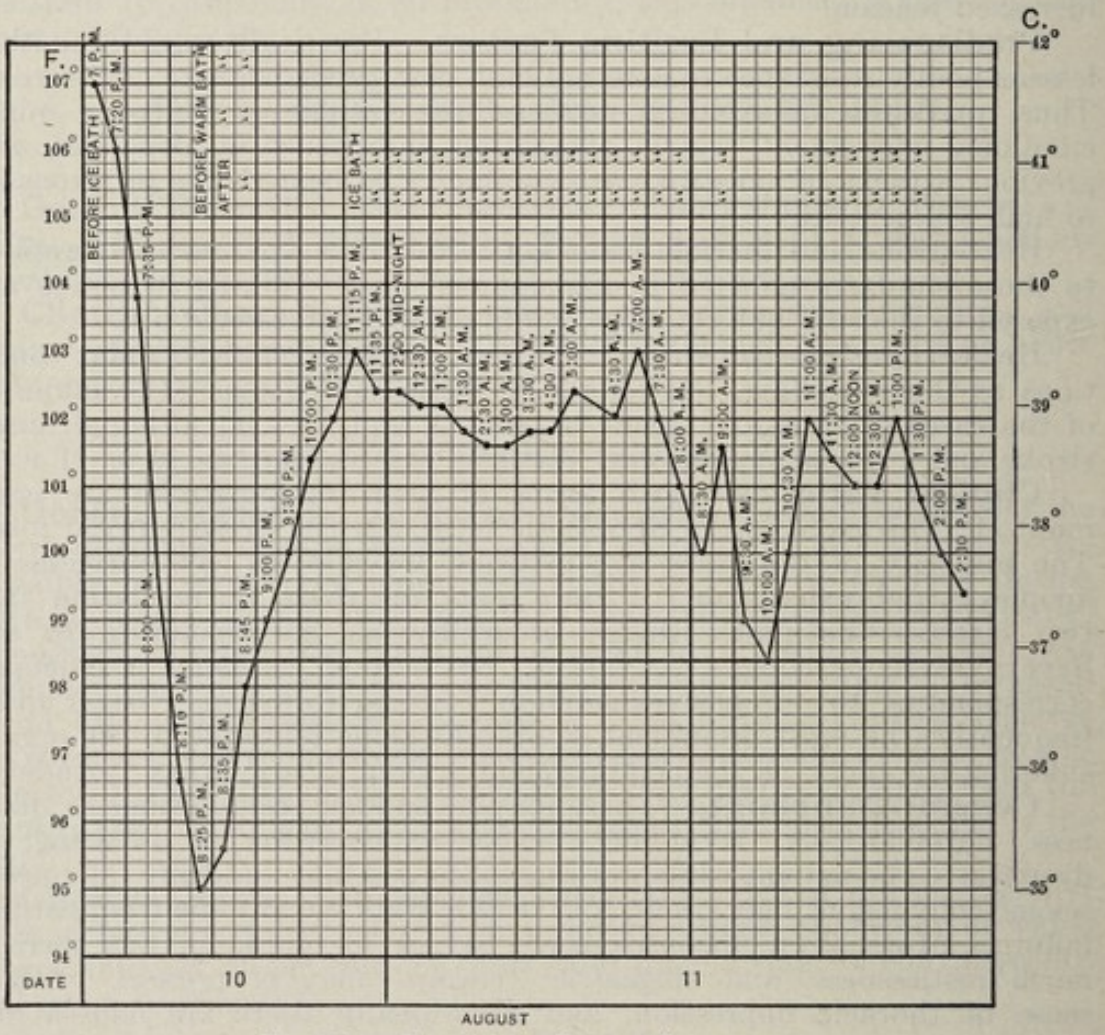


FIG. 362.—CHART OF A CASE OF SUNSTROKE.
(C. B., aged twenty-nine years. Recovery.) (J. M. Anders.)

Its force, frequency, and general characteristics correspond more or less closely to the degree of temperature, becoming weak, dicrotic, and irregular in severe cases.

Laboratory Diagnosis.—The blood is decidedly fluid and shows no tendency to rouleaux formation; and in cases displaying cyanosis it is dark in color. In mild cases there is a tendency to frequent urination, with the passing of urine of normal color. In the more severe forms of heat exhaustion the urine is scanty and albuminous. The cerebrospinal fluid is found upon aspiration of the spinal canal to be under unusually high pressure. The spinal fluid is often blood tinged or slightly turbid, and contains an abnormal number of cellular elements.

ANIMAL PARASITIC DISEASES

Man is subject to diseases that are caused by animal parasites that belong to the following subclasses: Protozoa, Vermes, and Arthropoda. Among the parasites belonging to the class Protozoa we find members of the orders Rhizopoda, Sporozoa, Flagellata, and Ciliata. Among the parasites belonging to the class Vermes we find members of the orders Nematoda, Cestoda, and Trematoda. Of the parasites belonging to the class Arthropoda we find members of the orders Diptera, Hemiptera, and Acarina. Some of these parasites live on the surface of the body, and are therefore called *ectoparasites;* others develop within the tissues, and are therefore called *endoparasites.* In order to follow the zoölogic classification the diseases produced by these parasites should be considered in order from lowest to highest position of the causative factor in the zoölogic scale. There are certain considerations that make such a method of discussion inadvisable, and for this reason the diseases produced by animal parasites are considered in order of their frequency and importance in human pathology.

PROTOZOAN DISEASE

MALARIA

Pathologic Definition.—An acute infectious disease caused by a member of the genus *plasmodium,* transmitted to man by the bites of infected mosquitos, and characterized by destruction of the red blood-cells and the deposition of pigment in the organs, notably the spleen, the liver, and the bone-marrow. In some varieties of the infection the blood-vessels of the brain and of other organs may become plugged with sporulating parasite.

Exciting and Predisposing Factors.—(1) The exciting factor of malarial fever is a species of the plasmodium that is transmitted to man by the bites of infected female mosquitos of the family Anophelinæ. The predisposing factors to this infection are, therefore, conditions favorable to the development of the variety of mosquito known to convey the disease. A warm climate with a high degree of humidity and heavy rainfall, so that pools of stagnant or slowly flowing water are numerous, with thick vegetation, favor the propagation of mosquitos. It has been repeatedly shown that highly malarial districts may be rendered non-malarial by draining pools of stagnant water, and quickening the flow of streams by clearing and deepening their channels.

Race appears to exercise little influence, although in the United States the full-blooded Negro is slightly less susceptible to malarial infection than other races.

Sex exerts no influence when men and women are equally exposed, although males who follow certain outdoor occupations are especially prone to become infected. Children are likely to develop the disease when exposed. A natural immunity is occasionally observed, but persons who cannot be infected with malaria are rarely seen.

Age.—Malaria may occur at any age, but young men are affected oftener than persons at the extremes of life.

Incubation.—The period of incubation varies slightly in different types of the malarial infection, and at times there is a slight variation in the same type of parasite. Bignami and Bastianelli give the incubation period of benign tertian malaria as fifteen days; of estivo-autumnal tertian, as five days. Celli reports cases in which the period of incubation of the tertian parasite was twenty-two days, and of the estivo-autumnal parasite, seventeen days.

Clinical Classification.—Clinically, four varieties of malaria are recognized: (1) Benign tertian malaria, characterized by the occurrence of a paroxysm every other day. (2) Quartan malaria, in which a paroxysm occurs every third day. (3) Estivo-autumnal malaria, characterized by paroxysms that occur at irregular intervals. (4) Chronic malarial cachexia. Other classifications of malaria have been made, based on the type of the temperature-curve or other clinical manifestations, as intermittent fever, remittent fever, pernicious malaria, malarial cachexia, malarial hematuria, malarial hemoglobinuria, latent malaria, and recurrent malaria.

Paludal meningitis designates a type of malaria where a cytologic study of the spinal fluid reveals a pathologic condition. This class of cases may also display meningeal symptoms.

Explanation.—The benign *tertian parasite* (*plasmodium vivax*) requires forty-eight hours for its endogenous cycle of development; as a consequence, when there is a single infection or an infection by the sporozoites the malarial paroxysms recur every other day. If the patient is infected a second time he will have a parosysm every day—the so-called double tertian fever (quotidian malaria). This double tertian type of malarial fever is common in the northern portion of the United States.

The *quartan parasite* (*plasmodium malariæ*) requires seventy-two hours for its endogenous cycle of development, consequently when there is infection with but one crop of the quartan parasites, the paroxysms occur every third day. In cases of infection with two crops of this parasite, the paroxysms occur two days in succession, after which there is a day on which no paroxysm occurs. Should the patient be infected with three crops of the quartan parasite, he would have a paroxysm every day.

The estivo-autumnal parasite (*plasmodium falciparum*) has a developmental period that appears to vary from twenty-four to forty-eight hours. On this account some writers declare that there are two forms of estivo-autumnal parasite—the plasmodium falciparum quotidianum, and the plasmodium falciparum tertianum (Craig). In case of infection with the former variety of parasite, the patient has a paroxysm every day; in infection with the latter variety, the paroxysm appears every other day. The paroxysms of estivo-autumnal infection are more severe and last longer than those of benign tertian malaria, so that, particularly in case of infection with plasmodium falciparum quotidianum, one paroxysm is likely to extend into a second paroxysm, producing a continued type of fever.

In malarial infection the fever may be one of three types: (1) The intermittent type; (2) the remittent type; (3) the continued type. The intermittent type of fever generally occurs in infection with the benign tertian parasite and with the quartan parasite. In some cases of infection with the estivo-autumnal parasite an intermittent fever is seen (pernicious intermittent), but the remittent and continued fevers are the types most commonly met.

Intermittent Fever

In intermittent fever the patient experiences certain prodromal symptoms, among which are mental apathy, dull headache, pain or stiffness of the neck muscles, and an expression of imperfect oxidation of the blood, shown by frequent yawning. It must be remembered, however, that the paroxysm not infrequently develops abruptly. In intermittent fever there is a decided rigor, and the patient shivers incessantly and the teeth chatter. The chill may occur at any time, but is most likely to take place between midnight and midday. It usually lasts from one to two hours, but may continue for several hours.

Physical Signs and Description of Paroxysm.—The Cold Stage. *Inspection.*—The patient is seen to be resting under a blanket, or is well wrapped and sitting near the fire or in the sunlight. The skin is often pale, and cyanosis of the lips is not uncommon; later the face becomes flushed. If the patient has suffered from malaria for several weeks, a decided yellowish-brown tinging of the skin is apparent, said to be due to a deposition of blood-pigment in the cutaneous tissues. Jaundice may be present. Herpes involving the lips and nose is quite common during the course of intermittent fever, and such other cutaneous manifestations as purpura and urticaria have been observed.

Palpation.—During the chill the skin is cold, the muscles of the arms and legs are tender and at times painful, and the pulse increases in frequency, becoming rapid, bounding, and of high tension. Before the chill has subsided the internal, and at times the external, temperature begins to rise.

The Hot Stage.—The patient passes from the cold to the hot stage in quite rapid succession. Headache, delirum and thirst are liable to be present.

Inspection.—The face is flushed, and the skin becomes hotter and hotter. The muscle soreness is now less evident than it was during the chill. The spleen is enlarged and slightly tender.

Palpation.—The pulse remains rapid and full, although in cases of virulent infection it may become weak, rapid, and even irregular, due probably to acute dilatation of the heart following extreme toxemia.

Percussion.—The splenic dullness will be found to increase slightly after each succeeding paroxysm. *Palpation* and *percussion* reveal the fact that the liver is moderately enlarged.

Auscultation.—The respirations are at times hurried, and hemic murmurs are heard over the base of the heart.

The *temperature,* which has begun to rise before the close of the first stage, continues to mount rapidly until it reaches 104° to 106° F. (See Fig. 363.) It may remain near the maximum point for one or more hours, or it may fall suddenly by crisis; in either case there may be two moderate remissions before there is a decided lowering of the temperature, but it must be remembered that, as a rule, there is a rapid decline at the close of the febrile stage which lasts from three to six hours. (See Fig. 363.)

Sweating.—Profuse sweating is followed by an amelioration of all the symptoms of the hot stage. The temperature falls by crisis to the normal, as is shown in the accompanying chart (Fig. 363). After treatment has been instituted the temperature may fall to the normal and remain at or near that point. If the treatment has not been successful there will be recurrent elevation of temperature, with the associated phenomena just described. Following these recurrent elevations of temperature the fever-curve is occasionally seen to fall in a step-like

manner, dropping one or two degrees and then remaining at this point for an indefinite period, but even in this step-like defervescence only a few hours are required to reach the normal.

Laboratory Diagnosis.—During the chill and even a few hours prior to the rise in temperature blood obtained from the peripheral circulation, when studied in the fresh state under a ½ inch oil-immersion objective, shows the presence of living malarial parasites. The number of parasites present in the fresh blood varies greatly in different persons,

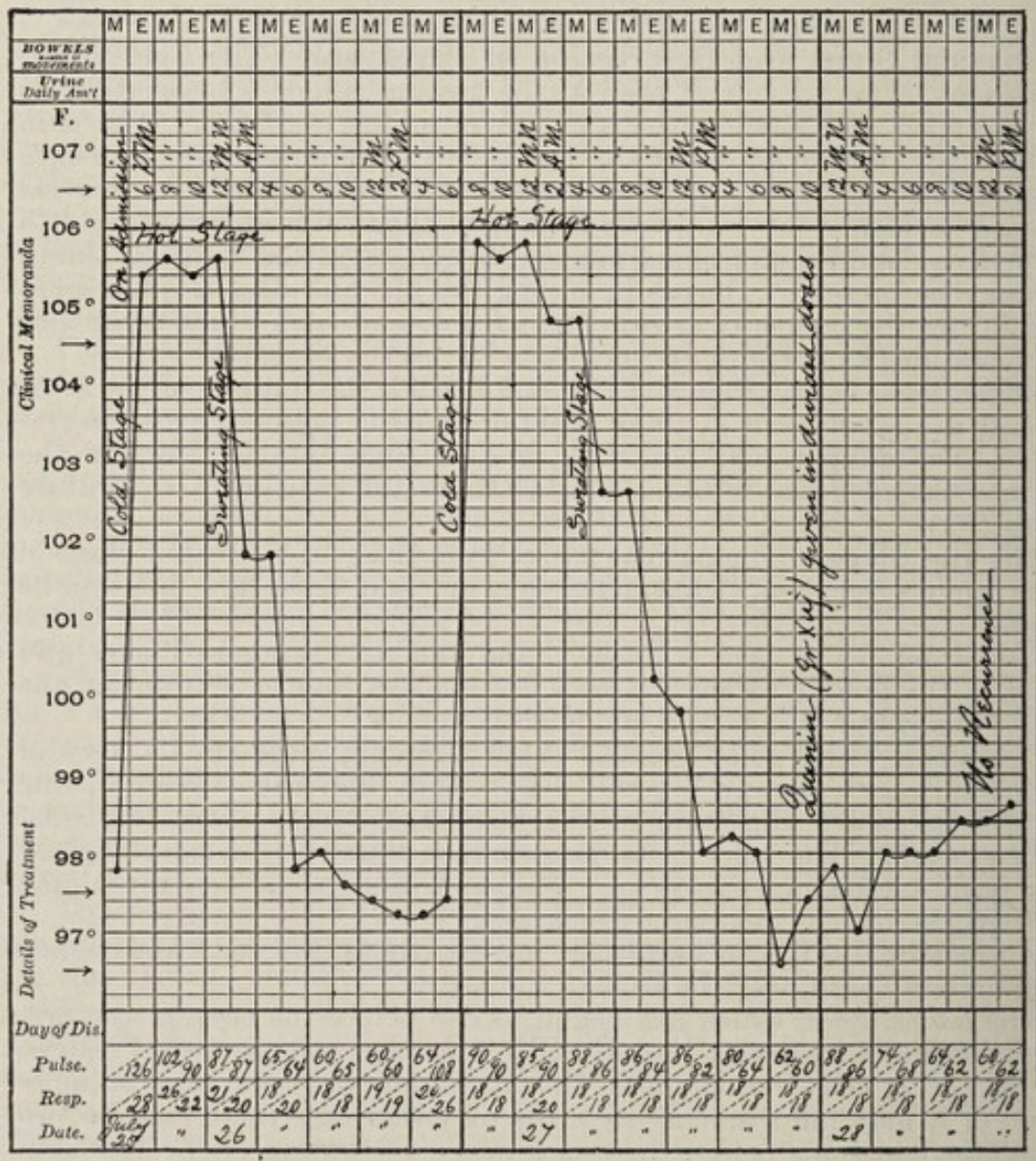
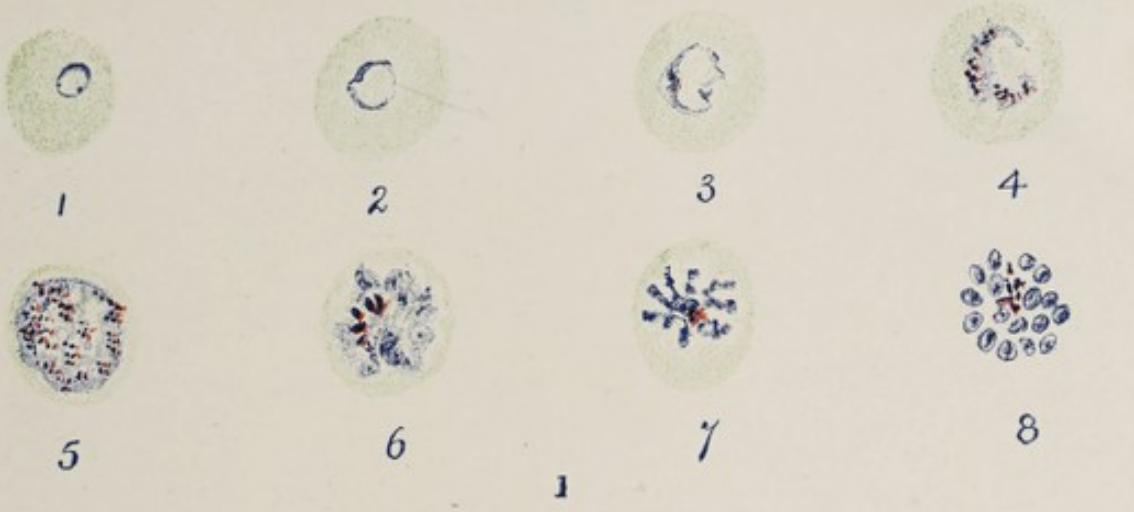
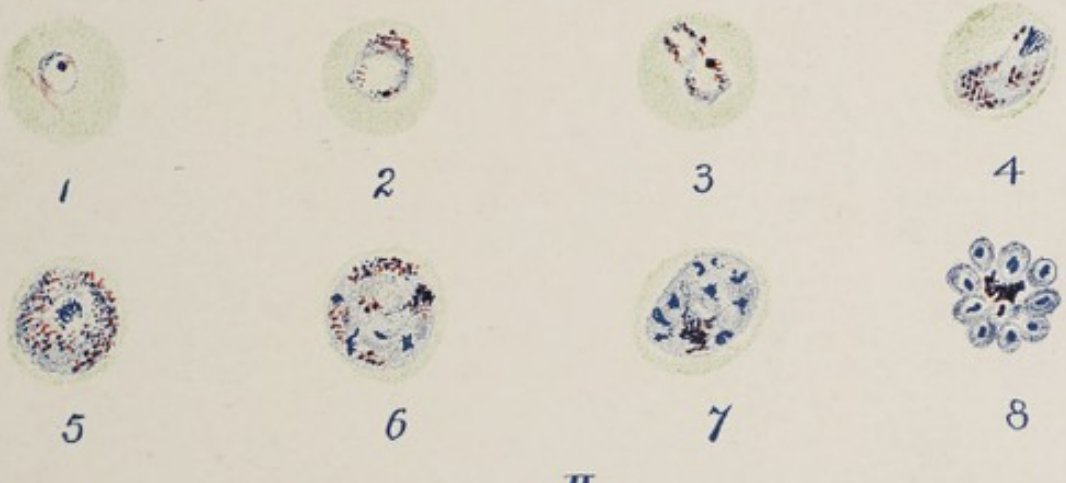


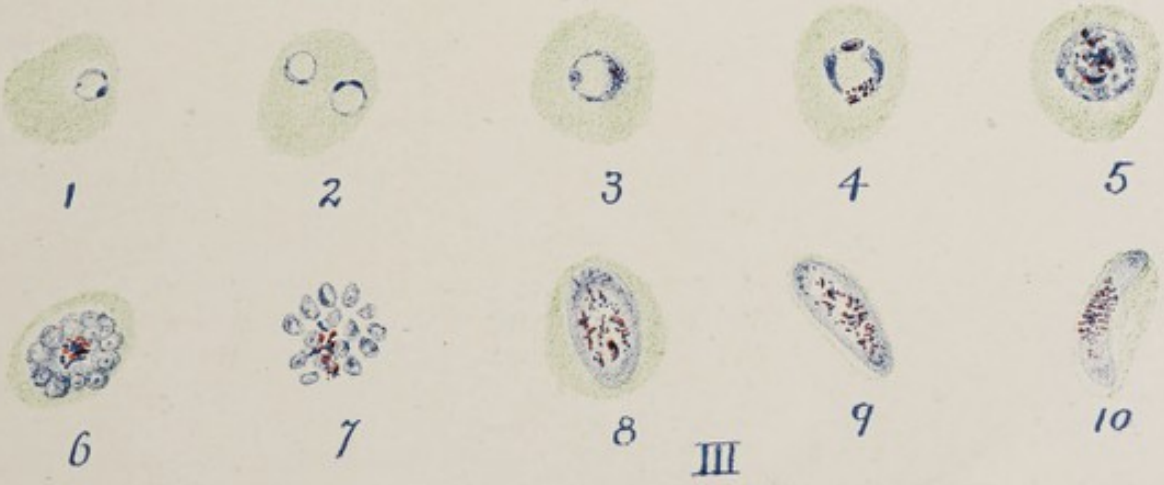
FIG. 363.—TEMPERATURE-CURVE IN A CASE OF DOUBLE TERTIAN FEVER. (C. F. C., aged forty-one years.) (J. M. Anders.)

but the morphologic characteristics of the parasite are constant. When the disease has progressed for some time, the red blood-cells show marked evidences of degeneration, as, for example, imperfect distribution of hemoglobin, cracks and fissures, streaks, irregular areas of decoloration, and poikilocytosis. The number of red cells in a cubic millimeter is reduced in direct proportion to the length of time the disease has existed and the severity of the type of infection. The hemoglobin also undergoes destruction. When intermittent fever has continued for a long

PLATE X







Malaria parasite stained by diluted borax methylene-blue. I. Tertian parasite. 1, ring form; 2, 3, and 4, young trophozoites; 5, fully grown schizont; 6, schizont about to divide; 7, beginning sporulation; 8, sporulation form, the schizont divided into merozoites. II. Quartan parasite. 1, ring form; 2 and 3, young trophozoites; 4, half grown trophozoite; 5, fully grown schizont; 6, schizont about to divide; 7, beginning sporulation; 8, schizont divided into merozoites. III. Subtertian parasite. 1, ring form; 2, 3, and 4, different stages of a trophozoite; 5, schizont beginning sporulation; 6, and 7, sporulation forms, the schizont divided into merozoites; 8, 9, and 10, different types of a crescent-shaped form or gamete. (From Rivas, "Human Parasitology.")

time pigment particles are seen in the blood-plasma. In uncomplicated cases of malaria leukopenia is a characteristic feature.

The *stained blood* shows all the changes more clearly than the fresh films. The change in size and shape of the erythrocytes, the various degenerations of the erythrocyte, the morphologic characters and the stage of development of the parasite, the characters of the leukocytes, and the presence or absence of malarial pigment are much better appreciated in stained smears. *A differential leukocyte count* will show an increase in the percentage of the large mononuclears.

The **urine** not infrequently contains traces of albumin, and in severe types of the infection one occasionally finds the evidences of acute nephritis—*e. g.*, albumin, casts, red and white blood-cells. This condition may be regarded as a complication, and is said by Jones to occur quite commonly in the American negro. Jaccoud asserts that the amount of urine excreted is increased for from three to six hours prior to the development of the chill. There are certain symptoms that point strongly to the existence of gastro-intestinal catarrh, but a clinical analysis of the stomach-contents does not disclose anything of special importance.

Summary of Diagnosis.—Prodromata are of little value in making the diagnosis of malaria. The occurrence of exacerbations, consisting of a chill, a hot and a sweating stage, which occur periodically and are accompanied by prostration and blood destruction, with the occasional presence of herpes, point strongly to malarial infection. The diagnosis is confirmed by the finding of the plasmodium in either the living or the stained peripheral blood.

Differential Diagnosis.—Malaria is to be distinguished from certain other infectious maladies, among which infection with pyogenic organisms occupies a prominent place. In the presence of **abscess,** whether deep or superficial, there are likely to be periodic paroxysms of chill, fever, and sweating, which simulate those seen in malaria. The presence of a leukocytosis and the absence of the malarial parasite from the blood serve to distinguish such a suppurative process from malaria.

Hepatic colic not infrequently gives rise to a temperature that may be mistaken for that of malaria—the so-called Charcot's intermittent fever. Tenderness over the liver, with pain in the region of the gall-bladder radiating to the right scapula, the presence of jaundice, and the findings of a blood examination will exclude malarial fever. Severe malaria may resemble intestinal perforation.

Renal calculi may at times excite a temperature which resembles in many respects that of malaria, but the abdominal pain and the area of distribution of the pain, with the passing of bloody urine, precludes the diagnosis of malaria.

Urethral fever frequently closely resembles malarial fever.

Clinical Course.—In the ordinary type of intermittent malarial fever the prognosis is favorable, and in cases in which treatment is instituted early complete recovery ensues. If however, the infection is permitted to exist for a long period before treatment is instituted, recovery is delayed, and the condition tends to assume a chronic form.

Estivo-autumnal (Malarial) Fever

Pathologic Definition.—Estivo-autumnal malarial fever is a type of malarial infection due to the presence of the plasmodium falciparum in the blood. Two varieties of this organism may be present: plasmodium falciparum tertianum, in which the cycle of development is forty-eight hours, and plasmodium falciparum quotidianum, in which the cycle of development is twenty-four hours.

Remarks.—The paroxysms are of longer duration than are those produced by infection with plasmodium vivax and plasmodium malariæ. The paroxysms are likely to anticipate one another, so that one has not ended before another seizure begins. The sporulation of the parasites takes place almost exclusively in the internal organs, the rosettes often blocking the blood-vessels of the brain, the heart, the liver, the spleen, or the kidneys, producing the various types of pernicious fever, depending upon the organ involved.

Varieties.—Algid Form.—The algid form of estivo-autumnal malaria is characterized by the occurrence of purging, vomiting, intestinal pain, and collapse. The condition closely resembles dysentery or cholera. Jaundice and severe nervous symptoms are present. The fever may be intermittent, and reach a maximum of 106° or 107° F. (pernicious intermittent), or it may be remittent. This form is due to the sporulation of the parasites in the blood-vessels of the intestine.

Comatose Form.—This variety is characterized by the sudden development of coma, with cyanosis, contracted pupils, stertorous breathing, rapidly failing pulse, and death. In some cases the coma appears gradually after the development of restlessness, delirium, or mental depression. This form of the disease is due to the sporulation of the parasites in the blood-vessels of the brain. Renal complications are to be expected in this clinical variety.

Cardialgic Form.—In this type of estivo-autumnal malaria the parasites sporulate in the heart muscle. There are precordial or epigastric pain, vomiting of blood, hiccough, dyspnea, weak, rapid pulse, collapse, and death.

A **hemorrhagic form,** a **choleraic form,** a **dysenteric form,** and a **pneumonic form** have also been described. The most common variety of estivo-autumnal infection, however, is the so-called **bilious remittent fever.** The urine is scanty, skin jaundiced, spleen hypertrophied, and liver enlarged in the majority of these cases.

Period of Incubation.—Celli gives the period of incubation of the estivo-autumnal parasite as five days.

General Complaint.—Such prodromal symptoms as headache, epigastric oppression, uneasiness, and anorexia occur, and a distinct chill may or may not take place.

Sweating Stage.—Following the remission in the temperature profuse sweating occurs, and during this stage the headache and epigastric symptoms disappear.

Nervous Symptoms.—The patient may be extremely nervous, and delirium is occasionally seen. As is also mania, rigidity of the neck, trismus of the muscles of the jaw, convulsive seizures, multiple neuritis, myelitis with paraplegia (involvement of the bladder and rectum), paralysis of the muscles of the glottis, aphonia, iritis, and hemianopia are among the less frequent nervous features.

Thermic Features.—One or even two elevations in the temperature may occur during the twenty-four hours, and these resemble closely the fever of intermittent malaria, except that in estivo-autumnal fever the paroxysms are considerably longer, and may last from twelve to twenty hours. The temperature rises more gradually in estivo-autumnal fever than in the ordinary intermittent type of malaria, and the decline of the fever likewise requires a longer period; consequently the temperature may not reach the normal after one exacerbation until a second elevation has set in. The peculiarities of estivo-autumnal fever just described have caused it to be regarded as a form of continued malarial fever, in

which case the periods of intermission become progressively shorter with the progress of the disease.

The patient may give a history of but one initial chill, which was soon followed by fever, the temperature rising gradually to from 104° to 105° F. within twelve hours.

Physical Signs.—Inspection.—During the attack the patient may become slightly cyanosed, and if the paroxysm is a severe one, there is a peculiar pallor of the cheeks that may be followed by a hectic flush. The tongue is parched and coated, the conjunctivæ are congested, the skin is slightly jaundiced, and herpes labialis is commonly present.

Palpation and **percussion** show the spleen to be moderately enlarged, and there is also slight increase in the area of liver dullness.

Laboratory Diagnosis.—Microscopic examination of the blood discloses the presence of the estivo-autumnal parasite.

Rivas Acetic Acid Concentration Method.*—(1) Collect about 0.1 c.c. of the patient's blood, drawn from the finger, in a narrow test-tube containing from 1 to 2 c.c. of a 1 per cent. acetic acid solution. Shake the mixture gently for from one to three minutes, or until complete hemolysis occurs; (2) centrifugalize for from ten to fifteen minutes, and pour out the liquid by carefully tilting the tube. The sediment remains at the bottom of the tube; (3) collect the sediment with a pipette; make slides or cover-glass preparations, and dry and fix in equal parts of alcohol and ether for from one to two minutes; (4) pour out the alcohol and ether, dry with filter paper, stain with diluted borax-methylene-blue for from two to three minutes, wash freely in running water, dry and examine under the oil-immersion lens. The malarial parasite is stained light blue, and is seen among the greenish stained detritus of erythrocytes. The leukocytes are stained a deep blue.

This method is very useful for the detection of the crescent bodies or gametes of the tertian parasite and can be used with advantage in the diagnosis of malarial carriers. Early during the course of remittent malarial fever there is a moderate reduction in the percentage of hemoglobin and in the number of red cells, but in neglected cases, and when repeated infections have occurred, the red cells become fewer and the hemoglobin shows a decided reduction in percentage. Leukopenia is an important feature of uncomplicated remittent fever.

In **stained blood** the red cells show the usual evidences of degeneration, the presence of the small ring forms of the parasites, and the characteristic crescentic gametocytes. There is an increase in the percentage of large mononuclear leukocytes.

Urine.—During the course of remittent fever the urine is diminished in quantity, its specific gravity is higher, and albumin is present. In about 5 per cent. of the cases true nephritis develops, in which case the color becomes high and casts are present. Mild types of remittent fever are seen in which the recurring paroxysms grow shorter day by day.

Differential Diagnosis.—The following tables show the distinctive features between remittent malarial fever and **typhoid fever,** and remittent malarial fever and **puerperal sepsis.**

* New Orleans Medical and Surgical Journal, January, 1919.

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS BETWEEN REMITTENT MALARIAL FEVER AND TYPHOID FEVER

Remittent Malarial Fever	Typhoid Fever
1. There may or may not be a history of exposure to the bites of mosquitoes, or of having had malaria during the past few weeks or months.	1. The history of an epidemic is often obtained.
2. Begins abruptly with a chill or a series of chills, which are followed by headache, and the characteristic fever and sweating stage.	2. A distinctive rigor is extremely uncommon, although chilly sensations may be experienced, but are not followed by high fever.
3. An examination of the fresh blood reveals the presence of the plasmodium. Pigment granules may be seen free in the plasma.	3. A blood examination is negative for plasmodia.
4. The Widal reaction is negative.	4. The Widal reaction is positive in dilution of 1:50 or higher.
5. The temperature rises abruptly and may display decided remissions for one, two, or even more days, when another elevation takes place. These elevations and remissions display a variable degree of periodicity. When treatment is not instituted, the fever continues over a period of several weeks.	5. There is but slight fever at first (99° to 100° F.); the temperature then rises gradually for a period of from five to seven days, and reaches its height in from ten to fourteen days; it continues high until between the seventeenth and twenty-first days, after which it gradually declines.
6. The skin may show periodic flushings.	6. A characteristic eruption appears on the abdomen in from the seventh to the ninth days, and continues to appear in two or more successive crops.
7. Constipation the rule.	7. At first there is constipation, but diarrhea develops toward the end of the first week, and there are usually from 3 to 12 pea-soup-like stools daily by the end of the second week.
8. Intestinal hemorrhage is rare.	8. Intestinal hemorrhage is a frequent complication.
9. The abdomen is normal or scaphoid.	9. Tympanites is a prominent symptom after the second week.
10. Nervous symptoms slight, and delirium unusual.	10. Nervous symptoms pronounced; delirium common.
11. Hemoglobinuria and hematuria with pronounced albuminuria quite common.	11. A mild grade of albuminuria in uncomplicated cases. Urine contains typhoid bacilli in from 6 to 20 per cent. of cases.

THE DISTINCTIVE FEATURES BETWEEN REMITTENT MALARIAL FEVER AND PUERPERAL SEPSIS

Remittent Malarial Fever	Puerperal Sepsis
1. Chill may develop at any time during the puerperium, and recurs with a variable degree of periodicity.	1. Chill from the third to the nipth day after delivery.
2. A study of the blood shows leukopenia.	2. Leukocytosis 10,000 to 30,000 in a cubic millimeter.
3. Plasmodia present in the blood.	3. Blood examination negative.
4. Differential leukocyte count shows an increase in the percentage of large mononuclear leukocytes.	4. Increase in the polymorphonuclear cells, 85 to 95 per cent.
5. The lochia remains normal.	5. Lochia diminished prior to the development of the chill and fever, but may become profuse and of an offensive odor later.
6. No tenderness either in the uterine or in the pelvic regions.	6. Pelvic and uterine tenderness common, though by no means a constant feature.
7. Involution of the uterus normal.	7. Subinvolution the rule.
8. Temperature affected by the administration of quinin.	8. Quinin exercises but little influence.

Malarial Cachexia

Pathologic Definition.—Malarial cachexia is the resulting anemia and wasting, with splenomegaly and enlargement of the liver, which follow repeated attacks of malarial infection. There may be hemorrhages from the various mucous surfaces, hemorrhages into the skin, and joint and muscle tenderness. Those affected with chronic malarial cachexia often display chronic nephritis, myocarditis, etc., and are especially likely to develop tuberculosis. (See Latent Malaria, p. 1023.)

Recurrent Malaria

Pathologic Definition.—As its name implies, in this form of malarial infection there is a reappearance of the general symptoms, due to the same group of parasites that caused the original infection, the symptoms recurring after an initial attack without reinfection by another group of plasmodia having taken place.

Remarks.—The exact time that has elapsed between the initial attack of malaria and the recurrence should be ascertained. This clinical problem is solved most satisfactorily by reference to the accompanying tables by Craig:

TIME OF RECURRENCES IN 18 CASES OF TERTIAN INFECTION

Case No.	Date of Initial Attack	First Recurrence	Second Recurrence	Third Recurrence	Fourth Recurrence	Fifth Recurrence
1	Nov. 2	20 days	21 days	.....	.....	.....
2	Aug. 4	18 "	20 "	.....	.....	.....
3	Aug. 28	19 "	30 "	26 days	46 days	.....
4	Nov. 6	20 "	24 "	.....	.....	.....
5	Jan. 17	20 "	32 "	30 days	24 days	.....
6	Nov. 23	21 "	20 "	26 "	.....	.....
7	Oct. 6	21 "	30 "	.....	.....	.....
8	Sept. 17	21 "	22 "	27 days	.....	.....
9	Aug. 27	22 "	36 "	.....	.....	.....
10	Feb. 12	22 "	18 "	16 days	27 days	30 days
11	Jan. 17	27 "	.....	.....	.....	.....
12	July 20	30 "	.....	.....	.....	.....
13	May 3	30 "	.....	.....	.....	.....
14	Nov. 1	30 "	.....	.....	.....	.....
15	Sept. 22	33 "	.....	.....	.....	.....
16	Sept. 1	37 "	.....	.....	.....	.....
17	Dec. 13	38 "	.....	.....	.....	.....
18	Sept. 22	41 "	.....	.....	.....	.....

ESTIVO-AUTUMNAL TERTIAN RECURRENCES. TIME OF THE VARIOUS RECURRENCES IN 55 CASES OF TERTIAN ESTIVO-AUTUMNAL INFECTION

Case No.	Date of Initial Attack	First Recurrence	Second Recurrence	Third Recurrence	Fourth Recurrence	Fifth Recurrence
1	Oct. 12	10 days	30 days	36 days	.....	.....
2	Nov. 19	12 "	.....	.....	.....	.....
3	Feb. 27	15 "	20 days	30 days	.....	.....
4	Nov. 2	18 "	30 "	30 "	.....	.....
5	Mar. 30	19 "	20 "	.....	.....	.....
6	Dec. 8	19 "	.....	.....	.....	.....
7	Jan. 24	20 "	.....	.....	.....	.....
8	Feb. 12	20 "	60 days	.....	.....	.....
9	Dec. 24	20 "	.....	.....	.....	.....
10	Feb. 6	20 "	20 days	.....	.....	.....
11	Feb. 6	20 "	48 "	.....	.....	.....
12	Dec. 25	21 "	33 "	.....	.....	.....
13	Mar. 1	22 "	.....	.....	.....	.....
14	Nov. 29	22 "	.....	.....	.....	.....
15	Nov. 14	24 "	.....	.....	.....	.....
16	Feb. 4	24 "	20 days	38 days	30 days	.....
*16½	Oct. 30	24 "	16 "	.....	.....	.....
17	Aug. 29	24 "	26 "	.....	.....	.....
18	Mar. 17	24 "	.....	.....	.....	.....
19	Feb. 4	25 "	16 days	20 days	.....	.....
20	Dec. 30	26 "	36 "	30 "	90 days	30 days
21	Jan. 26	26 "	48 "	90 "	.....	.....
22	Jan. 11	26 "	22 "	.....	.....	.....
23	Oct. 2	27 "	.....	.....	.....	.....
24	Nov. 2	27 "	.....	.....	.....	.....
25	Mar. 2	27 "	52 days	.....	.....	.....
26	Feb. 5	28 "	21 "	20 days	21 days	.....
27	Dec. 12	28 "	28 "	.....	.....	.....
28	Oct. 29	29 "	48 "	15 days	.....	.....
29	Jan. 17	30 "	.....	.....	.....	.....
30	Jan. 1	30 "	30 days	.....	.....	.....
31	Jan. 19	30 "	.....	.....	.....	.....
32	Jan. 20	32 "	.....	.....	.....	.....
33	Oct. 19	33 "	26 days	90 days	.....	.....
34	Jan. 19	34 "	40 "	.....	.....	.....
35	Oct. 18	34 "	50 "	.....	.....	.....
36	Jan. 25	34 "	26 "	17 days	.....	.....
37	Oct. 21	36 "	56 "	.....	.....	.....
38	Feb. 30	36 "	66 "	.....	.....	.....
39	Aug. 13	36 "	35 "	.....	.....	.....
40	Nov. 27	36 "	.....	.....	.....	.....
41	Sept. 1	37 "	49 days	.....	.....	.....
42	Oct. 18	38 "	.....	.....	.....	.....
43	Oct. 17	38 "	.....	.....	.....	.....
44	Aug. 13	38 "	.....	.....	.....	.....
45	Sept. 6	41 "	.....	.....	.....	.....
46	Oct. 31	42 "	20 days	.....	.....	.....
47	Jan. 1	45 "	30 "	.....	.....	.....
48	Nov. 3	46 "	21 "	.....	.....	.....
49	Dec. 7	49 "	.....	.....	.....	.....
50	Feb. 24	50 "	24 days	41 days	.....	.....
51	Oct. 24	51 "	39 "	.....	.....	.....
52	Jan. 18	61 "	156 "	.....	.....	.....
53	June 14	64 "	66 "	14 days	20 days	20 days
54	Mar. 3	80 "	120 "	96 "	.....	.....

* The case numbered 16½ brings the total of the table to 55 cases.

It is frequently impossible to estimate with any degree of accuracy the interval between the initial attack of malaria and that of the recurrence, and while it shall not be our purpose to outline such difficulties, we are inclined to believe that in many instances the time cannot be determined. The time will also be found to differ somewhat depending upon the type of organism represented by the case in question. The exact method as to how these recurrences are produced has baffled even the most competent students of the age, and at present various theories are offered.

Hemoglobinuria and Hematuria

In malarial infection the detection of red corpuscles (hematuria) or of hemoglobin (hemoglobinuria) in the urine constitutes the most important finding. The number of red cells in the peripheral blood is generally reduced, and may fall below 2,000,000 in a cubic millimeter; in fact, cases have been reported in which the number of red cells was below 1,000,000.

The peripheral blood shows great numbers of pigmented malarial parasites, and many of the leukocytes show pigmentation.

The general history obtained is that of a mild cold stage, following which the temperature becomes subnormal and remains so for an indefinite period, when hemoglobinuria and hematuria develop. These paroxysms occur with decided periodicity, although in some patients bloody urine may be voided daily or even hourly. Hemoglobinuria is occasionally observed to occur at irregular intervals. Chemically, the urine is found to contain a considerable amount of albumin, and in a small percentage of cases casts are found. In the hemoglobinuric variety red blood-cells are also present, but in the hematuric type it is unusual to find many erythrocytes.

Latent Malaria

Pathologic Definition.—By the term latent malaria is meant a condition in which plasmodia may be demonstrated in the blood of an individual in whom no definite clinical symptoms of the disease are observed. "The term should not be confined to those instances in which no symptoms of malaria have ever been present, for if the parasites be present in the blood in recurrent cases, between the attacks the disease is as truly latent as it may be before the initial one" (Craig).

Remarks.—In a statistical analysis of 1653 cases, Craig* found 424 (25 per cent.) to be latent infections, and of these, 307 occurred in American soldiers or civilians, whereas 115 were in Fillipinos.

Variety of Organism.—Among these 424 cases, the tertian parasite was present in 110; the quartan parasite, in 8; the tertian estivo-autumnal parasite, in 272; the quotidian estivo-autumnal parasite, in 25; combined tertian and tertian estivo-autumnal parasites, in 7; combined tertian and quotidian estivo-autumnal parasites, in 2. In 307 cases studied in Americans the tertian organism was found 81 times; the estivo-autumnal tertian, 199; the quotidian estivo-autumnal, 21; and combined infections, 6.

Latent Infection in Children Natives of the Philippine Islands. Craig examined the blood of 180 cases, and found that 87 (48.3 per cent.) showed the presence of plasmodia. The plasmodium vivax was present in 34; the plasmodium malariæ, in 6; plasmodium falciparum tertianum, in 44; the plasmodium falciparum quotidianum, in 4; combined infections were found in 3 cases.

* Jour. Infec. Dis., vol. iv, No. 1, January 1, 1907, p. 100.

"The infections in children diminished in number with advancing age; thus, between the ages of one month and five years, among 40 children, 79 per cent. were infected; between five and ten years, 37 per cent.; and between ten and fifteen years, 24.5 per cent" (Craig). The researches of Craig confirm the observations of Koch, Stephens, Christopher, James and other observers, all of whom found that the younger the child, the more susceptible is it to malarial infection.

Family Infection.—Several members of the same family are commonly found to be infected, a feature that further supports the fact that the transmission of malarial infection is likely to be limited, a finding that is borne out by the accompanying table by Craig:

Family	Number of Members	Number Infected	Variety
1.....	4	2	1 estivo-autumnal; 1 tertian.
2.....	3	2	2 estivo-autumnal.
3.....	4	2	1 estivo-autumnal; 1 tertian.
4.....	5	4	2 estivo-autumnal; 1 tertian; 1 quartan.
5.....	4	2	2 estivo-autumnal.
6.....	3	2	2 estivo-autumnal.
7.....	4	3	2 estivo-autumnal; 1 tertian.
8.....	3	2	1 estivo-autumnal; 1 tertian.
9.....	3	2	2 tertian.
10.....	6	4	2 estivo-autumnal; 2 tertian.

TRYPANOSOMIASIS (KALA-AZAR)

Pathologic Definition.—An acute infectious disease caused by the Trypanosoma gambiense. In this connection a variety of severe anemia occurring in Assam, associated with pyrexia and enlargement of the spleen and liver, has been shown to be due to a variety of trypanosomiasis in which only immature forms of the parasite (Leishman-Donovan bodies) have been found in the fluid obtained by splenic puncture. The trypanosomes are found to invade the blood-stream, connective structures of all organs, the reticular tissue of the lymph-nodes and spleen, and the substance of the brain.

Clinical Remarks.—Trypanosomiasis begins as a febrile affection, with enlargement of the superficial lymph-nodes and the presence of a diffuse erythema. The fever is of the continued type, and varies in degree in different cases. After a week or more the temperature falls, and there is a period of apyrexia of indefinite duration. The periods of pyrexia and apyrexia alternate irregularly, and in time the patients become wasted, anemic, and mentally deficient. During the first febrile paroxysm the skin presents irregular areas of erythema, associated with edema of the underlying connective tissue. The enlarged lymph-nodes are tender, but they seldom suppurate. Headache, neuralgic pains, rapid pulse, cardiac weakness, painful local swellings, enlargement of the spleen and liver, and orchitis are among the symptoms that have been observed. After a period of several years, during which these alternating attacks of fever and apyretic intervals have been observed, the patient gradually becomes lethargic, and the terminal stage of the infection, known as the *sleeping sickness*, begins. The weakness, wasting, and anemia now increase, the patient becomes indifferent to his surroundings, and is incapable of exertion. His gait is shuffling. His mental processes become very sluggish, and localized edemas appear. He presents fibrillary twitchings of the muscles of the face and tongue, and

tremors of the hands and legs develop. He takes to bed or sleeps on the ground. At first he can be aroused to take his meals, but this soon becomes impossible, and death occurs either in convulsions or in coma, or is dependent on some intercurrent disease, such as dysentery and pneumonia.

Exciting Factor.—Trypanosoma gambiense is transmitted from man to man by the tsetse fly, *glossina palpalis*, and possibly also transmitted by other insects.

Protozoölogy.—Trypanosoma gambiense is an animal parasite, belonging to the genus protozoa; order, flagellata. It has a spindle-shaped cytoplasmic body, having a nucleus (macronucleus) and a centrosome (micronucleus). The latter is situated at the posterior end of the body of the parasite. From the centrosome a flagellum arches over the dorsum of the cytoplasmic body, to project beyond the anterior end of the parasite as a free flagellum. The cytoplasm of the organism is prolonged from



FIG. 364.—TRYPANOSOMA LEWISI STAINED WITH A 2 PER CENT. AQUEOUS SOLUTION OF METHYLENE-BLUE (Boston).

the dorsum of the body to the flagellum to form the *undulating membrane*. The parasite has been cultivated by Rogers in a temperature below that of the human body, and the process of ex-flagellation is supposed to occur, free in nature or in the body in some animal vector (blood sucker, bed bug).

The **cutaneous manifestations** of trypanosomiasis may consist mainly of localized areas of erythema, or there may be a peculiar blotching over the extremities and upon the face and trunk.

Nervous Symptoms.—Restlessness and mental dullness are present, and when the parasite infects the meningeal fluid, the patient becomes dull and sleepy. Cheyne-Stokes respiration develops late.

Circulatory Phenomena.—The chief circulatory manifestation of the disease consists of thrombosis of the vessels of the extremities. The **ocular manifestations** consist of pallor and mottling of the fundus.

Laboratory Diagnosis.—The trypanosoma gambiense is detected in the peripheral blood of the infected person only with difficulty, even during the height of the paroxysms. Puncture of the enlarged lymph-nodes or injection of the blood of the suspected patient into monkeys or white rats will, however, clear up the diagnosis. The lymph-node

puncture is performed as follows: The skin over the enlarged organ is washed with soap and water, followed by sterile water, and a 1:1000 mercury bichlorid dressing is put on the skin for an hour. Then a sterile hypodermic needle attached to a syringe is plunged into the organ, and after being moved backward and forward a few times, so as to loosen the contents, the piston is pulled out and a few drops of the contained fluid are withdrawn. This fluid is then examined—as fresh specimens and as stained smears. (See Rivas Acid Test for Animal Parasites, p. 1019.)

Hemolytic Test.—Ray* states that blood obtained in the same manner as though for use in Gowers hemoglobinometer is first mixed with distilled water (2 drops of blood in 20 drops of water). The blood of kala-azar renders the mixture turbid. Later a white flocculent precipitate is seen throughout the fluid, and these flocculi collect as a precipitate within the course of a few hours. It is preferable to use a glass tube of small calibre for this test.

Blood studies in cases of human trypanosomiasis show a marked chloranemia and a leukopenia. The differential leukocyte count shows an increase of the large mononuclear leukocytes.

NEMATODES

FILARIASIS

Pathologic Definition.—A condition due to the presence of the embryos of filaria bancrofti (filaria nocturna) or of filaria loa (filaria diurna) in the circulating blood, which is believed to result finally in obstruction to the lymph-channels, with the development of elephantiasis, obstruction to the lymphatics of the kidney and rectum, and, rarely, cutaneous abscesses are formed.

Exciting and Contributing Causes.—The exciting cause of filariasis is the filaria bancrofti or other species of the genus Filaria. Man becomes infected by the bites of infected mosquitoes, usually of the genus Culex. Filariasis is a disease of the tropics and of subtropical regions. In the United States several cases of filariasis have occurred in a small section of country in North Carolina. A few cases have also been reported from Illinois, and we have studied a case of filariasis in a patient who had never lived south of New Jersey. The Filaria Loa has also been found in the peripheral blood stream of man.†

Rivas recommends the examination of large quantities of blood and was thus able to demonstrate forms of the parasites in the capillaries at all times.

Principal Complaint.—The patient may harbor filaria embryos in his blood for a long time and yet be in perfect health. The development of symptoms is thought by many writers to be dependent upon injury to the adult worm and the consequent blocking of the lymphatic vessels with improperly developed embryos. Upon injury to the adult worm the first symptoms to appear are attacks of fever that somewhat resemble malaria, and are known as *filarial fever*. The patient may complain of mental depression, anemia, weakness, and fatigue upon slight exertion. In some instances there is intense itching of the skin, as was seen in a case studied in Philadelphia. After several attacks of filarial fever separated by intervals of apyrexia, elephantiasis (Figs. 365, 366) begins to develop. The patient usually complains of inability to move the affected parts or

* Indian Medical Gazette, Jan., 1921.
† Jour. Am. Med. Assoc., May 7, 1921, p. 1301.

of discomfort caused by scrotal and labial hypertrophy. Roughness and scaling of the skin of the lower extremities appear early.

Physical Signs.—Inspection.—There may be general pallor, due to secondary anemia. When elephantiasis develops, the skin of the affected part presents a peculiar rough, scaling, and wrinkled appearance, not unlike the skin of the elephant, hence its name. As the result of this enlargement movements of the limbs are but slightly restricted. One or both limbs, the scrotum, or the vulvæ may be involved. (See Figs. 365 and 366.)

Palpation confirms inspection as regards those portions of the body showing elephantiasis.



FIG. 365.—LATERAL VIEW OF CASE OF ELEPHANTIASIS OF THE LABIA MAJORA.

Light area corresponds to opening of the vagina. (Patient studied and photographed by Dr. B. B. Ussher, Jamaica, W. I.)



FIG. 366.—ANTERIOR VIEW OF CASE OF ELEPHANTIASIS OF THE LABIA MAJORA.

(Patient studied and photographed by Dr. B. B. Ussher, Jamaica, W. I.)

Laboratory Diagnosis.—There are three types of filaria embryos: (1) Those found in the peripheral blood during the night (filaria nocturna); (2) those found during the day (filaria diurna); and (3) those continually present. In four cases studied in Philadelphia the filaria could be detected at practically any time during the twenty-four hours, but in one of these cases filariæ were abundant in the blood in but two days of each week.

Rivas Acetic Acid Concentration Method.*—This simple method consists in collecting a few drops—about 0.1 to 0.5 c.c.—of blood from the finger and placing it in about 5 c.c. of a 2 per cent. acetic acid solution.

* Southern Medical Journal, October, 1912.

After thoroughly shaking to complete hemolysis, the mixture is centrifugalized. Fresh cover-glass preparations are made from the sediment and examined under the microscope for the presence of microfilaria.

By this method the microfilaria may be demonstrated in the circulating blood at all hours of the day and night. The embryos are easily discerned under a ⅔-inch objective, and when the parasites are very active, this degree of magnification is most desirable. In studying organisms that are but slightly motile, a ⅕- or a ⅙-inch objective is entirely satisfactory (Fig. 367).

The hemoglobin and the red blood-corpuscles do not undergo marked changes unless some other cause for the secondary anemia is present. This last statement may not hold true, however, for advanced cases of filariasis. In slides smeared thickly with blood containing the filaria embryos the hemoglobin should be dissolved with distilled water, and then stained for twenty minutes with warm Delafield's hematoxylin.

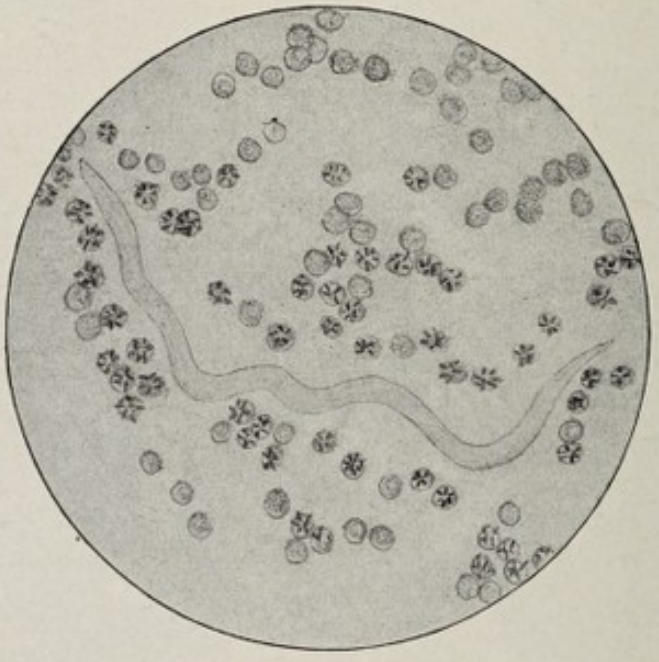


Fig. 367.—Filaria Sanguinis Hominis (Boston).

Living filaria in blood from case at Pennsylvania Hospital. Sketch forty-eight hours after blood was taken.

The **urine** often contains red blood-cells, hemoglobin, and filaria embryos in cases of chyluria. The urine is milky in appearance, and contains numerous particles of fat (chyle). When the quantity of chyle entering the urinary tract is extremely large, the urine may give off the odor of the food taken. The filaria embryos found in the urine are non-motile. In 132 cases of chylous ascites collected from the literature by one of us, there were but three instances in which this condition was dependent upon the filaria.

Summary of Diagnosis.—A history of having resided in the tropics or in districts in which the filaria are known to infest man is of great value in formulating a diagnosis. The presence of elephantiasis and the detection of the parasite (Fig. 367) in the circulating blood or in the urine furnish conclusive evidence of the existence of filariasis. In all cases of hematuria and chyluria the question of possible infection with the filaria should be entertained.

Differential Diagnosis.—Filariasis is to be distinguished from **obstruction to the lymphatic channels** following surgical operations upon the abdomen, the inguinal region, and the thighs; but here the history usually serves to distinguish traumatic elephantiasis. **Chyluria** is occasionally seen after surgical operations upon either the bladder or the pelvic viscera. In one instance we have seen chyluria follow puerperal sepsis. Intermittent attacks of fever may make a microscopic examination of the blood necessary in order to distinguish between trypanosomiasis and filariasis.

SCHISTOSOMA HÆMATOBIUM

(BILHARZIA HAEMATOBIA; BLOOD-FLUKE)

This is a trematode furnished with two sucking disks. The male is shorter and thicker than the female, the former being 4 to 15 mm. (1/6 to 3/5 in.) long, and the latter, about 20 mm. (4/5 in.) in length. It is found in Egypt, Cape Colony, and other parts of Africa.

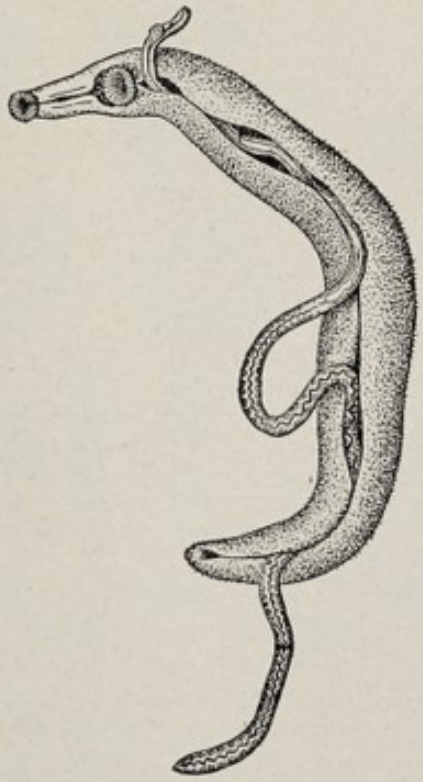


FIG. 368.—MALE AND FEMALE SPECIMENS OF THE HUMAN BLOOD-FLUKE (SCHISTOSOMA HÆMATOBIUM) ENLARGED. × 12 (After Looss).

Its presence in the blood gives rise to the following *symptoms:* hematuria, with stinging and burning of the urethra and pain during micturition. The ova of the parasites are found in the urine.

The adult parasites (Fig. 368) inhabit the veins of the portal system. Their ova, however, seldom enter the general circulation, but are found in the veins of the rectum and of the bladder. When the ova escape from the veins ulceration of the mucous surfaces ensues, and the organisms are found enmeshed in blood-clots in the urine (Fig. 369) or the feces. (See Hematuria, p. 697.)

Mode of Detection of the Parasite.—Transfer a portion of the thick urinary sediment to a glass slide, apply a cover-glass, and examine under a two-thirds inch objective. If large blood-clots are present, these

should be broken up or compressed gently between the slide and cover-glass to release the ova from the clotted material. The ova cannot be detected unless the smear of the sediment be comparatively thin, so that each individual cell will stand out prominently in the field. A high-power

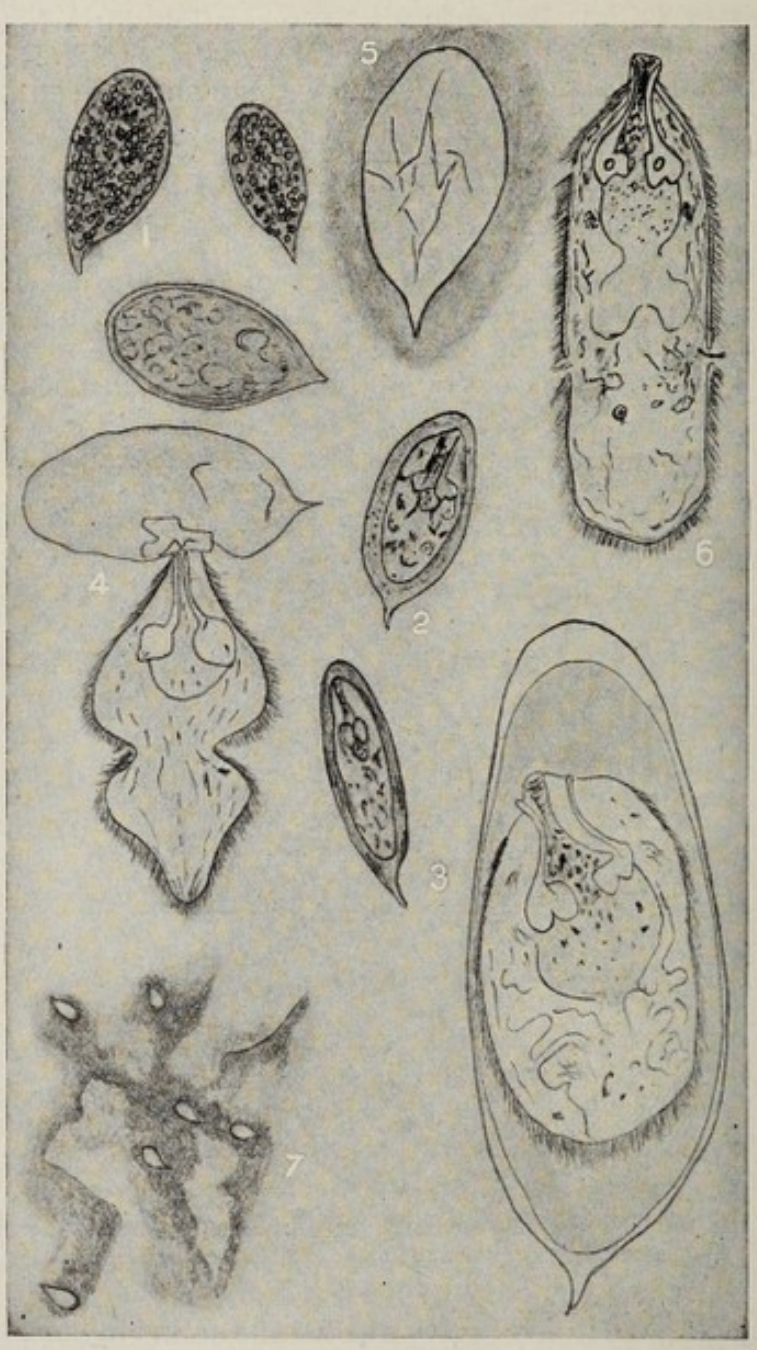


Fig. 369.—Schistosoma Hæmatobium (Bilharz).
1–4, Various stages in development of embryo; 5, empty shell; 6, surviving embryo (after Brock); 7, ova in urinary sediment (Boston).

$\frac{1}{6}$-inch objective may be employed for the study of individual ova, but ordinarily there is no advantage in employing this degree of magnification.

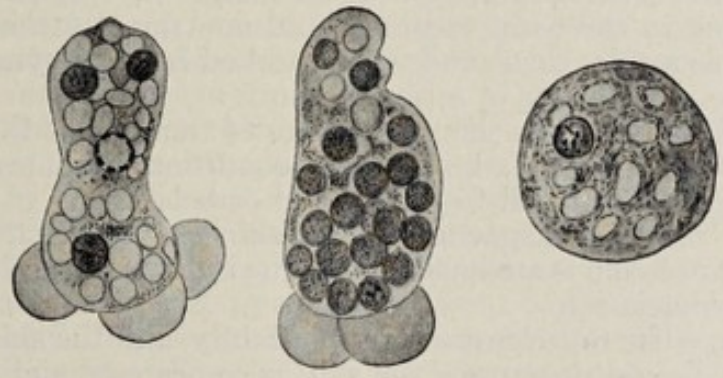
Anemia may follow hemorrhage from the bladder, which is generally persistent, and may continue for a period of several years. Eosinophilia has been detected soon after infection.

INTESTINAL ANIMAL PARASITES AND THEIR OVA

AMEBIC DYSENTERY

Pathologic Definition.—An acute infectious disease caused by entamœba histolytica, and characterized by the presence of multiple ulcers in the colon, which show a tendency to coalesce and to produce communicating sinuses in the submucous tissue and amebic abscess of the liver.

Exciting and Predisposing Factors.—The exciting cause is the entamœba histolytica (Stiles). Kofoid, Kornhauser, and Swezy* have described a variety of pathologic ameba, endamœba nana, which they found common in the American Tropics. Among the predisposing factors are **climate,** the disease being seen more commonly in the tropics than in temperate and more northern districts. Yorke,† in the study of 4000 chronic and convalescent cases found E. histolytica present in seven and one-half per cent. of them. Labbe,‡ in a systematic study of several



a *b* *c*

FIG. 370.—ENTAMŒBA HISTOLYTICA (Kruse and Pasquale).

a and *b*, Amebæ as seen in the fresh stools, showing blunt ameboid processes of ectoplasm. The endoplasm of *a* shows a nucleus, three red corpuscles, and numerous vacuoles; that of *b*, numerous red corpuscles and a few vacuoles; *c*, an ameba as seen in a fixed film preparation, showing a small rounded nucleus; × 600.

hundred cases found many of these to be simple carriers of cysts after dysentery was absent, and it took from 7 to 180 days for the cysts to disappear. Chatterjee§ has described atypical ameba in fatal cases of dysentery. One of us (Boston) treated three private patients who were born in Philadelphia, and had never been over 100 miles from the place of their birth. Amœba were abundant in the feces. Diagnosis confirmed by Dr. Rivas.

Age and Sex.—Adults seem to be afflicted oftener than children, and males more frequently than females. Amebic dysentery has long been regarded throughout India, China, Formosa, and the Philippine Islands as extremely fatal, and the disease is also encountered along the Mediterranean Sea and Nile River.

Feeding Experiments.—Amebic dysentery may be induced in the lower animals (cats) by injecting the living entamœba histolytica into the rectum. Craig produced typical dysentery in 66 per cent. of cases in which kittens were fed 5 c.c. of feces that contained motile entamebæ mixed with milk. Amebæ were found present in the feces in each

* Arch. Int. Med., July, 1919.
† British Med. Jour., April 12, 1919.
‡ Archiv. d. mal. de l'app. digestif, July, 1919.
§ Philippine Jour. of Science, Manila, October, 1920, 17, No. 4, p. 385.

instance, and the autopsy findings were those characteristic of this type of dysentery.

Incubation Period.—In Craig's experiments upon kittens the shortest period of incubation was seven days, the longest eleven days, and the majority of the animals developed diarrhea with blood-stained stools by the eighth day.

Principal Complaint.—The disease develops insidiously, with a mild diarrhea that continues for a period of from four to ten days, following which a variable degree of constipation occurs, lasting a somewhat longer time. There is always a succession of attacks of diarrhea alternating with periods of constipation. Clinically speaking, the disease assumes a chronic nature from the time the patient observes the first symptoms.

With the progress of the disease there is gradual loss of strength and of flesh, and the skin assumes a yellow hue. In *advanced cases* the patient may be unable to leave his bed, and in the majority of instances he complains of the general symptoms of anemia, *e. g.*, dyspnea, palpitation, vertigo, ringing in the ears, anorexia, and occasional attacks of nausea. The mind is, as a rule, clear, and when marked nervous symptoms occur, they are to be regarded as of serious import.

Thermic Features.—In the acute stage of the disease there is usually a marked febrile reaction, but as the condition becomes chronic the temperature is likely to fall to the normal or below.

Physical Signs.—Inspection.—The skin is yellow, the cheeks are sunken, the expression is anxious, the tongue is dry and pale, and there are evidences of emaciation.

Palpation.—The muscles are soft and flabby, and the skin is loose and dry. As the disease progresses the skin becomes cool and clammy. In advanced cases there may be edema of the ankles. The pulse is at first of about normal frequency, but later becomes more rapid, weak, and dicrotic.

Auscultation.—The heart-sounds are weak and fetal in character (late), a condition that is probably dependent upon an associated myocarditis.

Laboratory Diagnosis.—During the attacks of diarrhea the stools contain E. histolytica shreds of mucus, blood, pus, and occasionally sloughs from the mucous surface of the colon. When studied under the microscope,—$\frac{1}{12}$-inch oil immersion objective,—the gelatinous mucoid substance present in the stool will show the presence of many amebæ (Fig. 370). The detection of protozoal cysts, and stains employed: (1) a saturated aqueous solution of rubin S; (2) a saturated aqueous solution of eosin; (3) a 5 per cent. solution of potassium iodide with iodine.*

(*A*) Rub a portion of the stool into a fairly homogeneous paste.

(*B*) A loop full of this suspension is placed on the center of a slide, and to it is added an equal amount of one of the above stained solutions.

(*C*) When a mixture is effected with the feces and the stain, permit a cover slip to fall gently upon the mixture. Caution: avoid pressure.

Under the microscope cysts of the ameba coli and ameba dysentery stand out conspicuously as rather brilliant yellowish or greenish yellow spheres. In twenty-five per cent. of cases Charcot-Leyden crystals are present in the feces.

The *hematologic findings* are those of profound anemia, the hemoglobin and red blood-cells showing great loss. In the stained blood the red cells are found to be markedly degenerated, and to resemble in many

* Donaldson, Lancet, April 14, 1917.

respects the changes known to pernicious anemia. Eosinophilia has occasionally been observed.

Summary of Diagnosis.—Given a patient who has resided in the tropics and who presents the typical clinical history, *e. g.*, repeated attacks of dysentery alternating with constipation, progressive anemia, and marked emaciation, and the diagnosis becomes quite clear. It may be substantiated, however, by the detection of amebæ in the feces. The presence of anemia and of eosinophilia is of some value in formulating a diagnosis.

Differential Diagnosis.—Amebic dysentery is to be distinguished from **chronic dysentery.** In the latter the degree of emaciation and of prostration is but slight, the quantity of material dejected at each stool is large, and the ameba is not found in the feces.

Duration and Clinical Course.—Uncomplicated cases that tend toward a favorable termination go on to recovery in about ten weeks. The course of the disease may be greatly curtailed by treatment. It must be remembered that the tendency is always toward relapses, and that a relapse may occur when the patient is apparently cured. In relapsing cases convalescence is protracted over a long period, and the anemia and emaciation continue.

The *mortality rate* in certain epidemics has been found to range between 70 and 80 per cent., whereas in others it may fall to from 10 to 15 per cent. "In sporadic cases the mortality rate in temperate climates is not over 5 or 6 per cent" (Anders).

Complications.—Among the complications that occur in amebic dysentery are peritonitis, pyemia, malaria, hepatic abscess, bronchopneumonia, and hepatopulmonary abscess. Hemorrhage from the bowel has been reported.

Hepatic Abscess.—This complication may develop at any stage of the disease. In subacute cases it is prone to occur in from the fourth to the twelfth week. The abscess often occupies the convex surface of the liver, near the coronary ligament. In these cases the lung is also likely to become involved. Abscess of the liver is dealt with in the section devoted to Hepatic Diseases, but it is important to note here that hepatic symptoms may occur in cases in which, on account of the mildness of the attack, the local intestinal disturbance may have escaped observation.

Hepatopulmonary Abscess.—The character of the expectoration points conclusively to the nature of the lung complication. A history of a dry, hacking cough, with the sudden expectoration of a large quantity of gelatinous or mucoid and bloody material, is suggestive of hepatopulmonary abscess. In typical cases the expectorated material is of a brown or light chocolate color.

The sputum may be bile-stained, and when studied microscopically under a $\frac{1}{6}$-inch objective, it often shows liver-cells, bile-pigment, and crystals. The amebæ are readily seen with the $\frac{2}{3}$-inch objective, but the $\frac{1}{6}$ gives better magnification. The first expectoration from an amebic abscess does not contain bacteria unless the abscess has become infected secondarily. After the patient has been expectorating the contents of the liver abscess cavity for a time, secondary infection occurs, and then the expectorated material will also be rich in pyogenic bacteria. With the increase in the number of bacteria in the sputum the number of amebæ present is reduced. In a patient seen at the Medico-Chirurgical clinic (Philadelphia) amebæ were present in the sputum for a period of nearly nine months. This patient is at present in perfect health.

FLAGELLATA

"Members of the group flagellata or mastigophora are characterized by the fact that each organism displays from one to eight flagella. These flagella, by their active movements, render the animal capable of locomotion" (Fig. 371). Infection with these worms is common in temperate climates, as well as in the tropics.

BALANTIDIUM COLI

This is an oval organism that measures about 1 mm. in its greatest diameter. It differs from the flagellata in that its entire body is covered with fine cilia, which are thickest about the mouth of the parasite, and thinly distributed over the remainder of the body. The balantidium coli has a pale nucleus, and from two to four distinct vacuoles (Fig. 373).

Within the body of the parasite small particles of starch may be seen, and at times droplets of fat are detected.

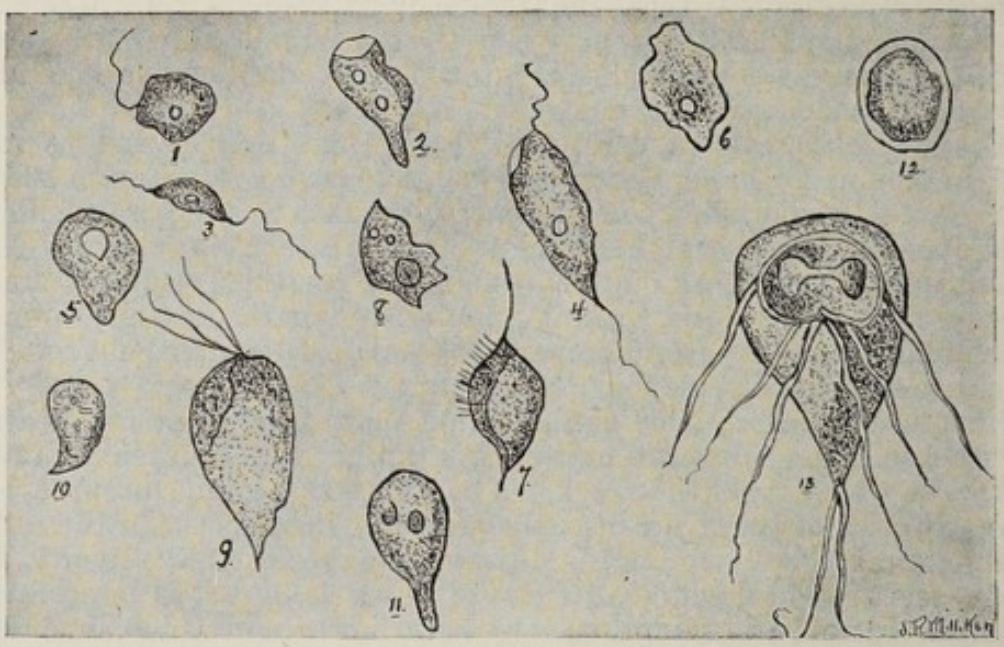


FIG. 371.

1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 10, and 11, Various forms of Cercomonas intestinalis (after Leuckart and Lamb); 6, 7, 8, and 9, various forms of trichomonas (after Scanzoni and Kölliker and Dock); 12, encysted form, and 13, adult form, of Megastoma entericum (Cercomonas) (after Grassi and Schewiakoff).

Clinical Significance.—Infection of man with the balantidium coli is believed to have its origin in the dejecta of swine. In all, 89 cases of persistent diarrhea due to this parasite were reported in 1904. The balantidium coli has been recovered from the feces in persons suffering from this infection, and at a time when other intestinal parasites were also present.

CRAIGIASIS

Remarks.—An acute or sub-acute intestinal condition, resembling amebic dysentery, has been described at length in American literature. The condition has been reported from various tropical sections including Honduras and the Philippines.

The exciting organism found in the feces is the "Craigia Hominis," first described by Surgeon Craig. "Craigia Hominis," and the ameba histolytica are to be found in the same feces.

The symptoms in connection with this condition resemble in many respects those described under amebic dysentery. (See p. 1032.)

Complication.—Among the complications that should be mentioned are pulmonary abscess, hepatic abscess, duodenal ulcer, arthritis and appendicitis. Barlow* has reported at length fifty-six (56) cases where dysentery was found to be dependent upon an infection by this organism.

WASKIA INTESTINALIS

A small flagellate described by Wenyon and O'Connor† in 1917 found it to infest the intestines of human subjects in Egypt. Since its discovery Waskia intestinalis has been detected in various portions of the World, including the United States. Hogue,‡ has given a detailed account of the morphologic, staining, and cultural characteristics of this parasite.

CESTODES

TAPE-WORMS

These parasites inhabit the small intestine, where they give rise to considerable irritation, which results in the development of a variable amount of intestinal catarrh. As the result of this condition, body depletion, toxemia, nervous manifestations, and progressive anemia may



FIG. 372.—EGGS OF TÆNIA SAGINATA (Mosler and Peiper).



FIG. 373.—BALANTIDIUM (PARAMŒCIUM) COLI (Eichhorst).

follow. Parasitic tape-worms in man include species belonging to the family Tæniidæ and to the family Bothriocephaloidæ. There are eight species that are known to be parasitic for man.

The segments (proglottides) of the tape-worm vary greatly in size (Fig. 375). The longer the tape-worm,—that is, the further it is from the head,—the larger is the segment. Passing from the largest segment, it will be found that each segment is smaller until the neighborhood of the head of the parasite is reached, where the segments appear to the naked eye as a slightly flattened thread. The segments of the tape-worm are of a yellowish-white or bluish-white color.

TAENIA SAGINATA (BEEF TAPE-WORM)

This worm is four or five meters long. The head is pigmented (Fig. 374), and the segments are long and fat (Fig. 375). The head is supplied with four powerful sucking cups, but has no rostellum or crown of hooklets. The uterus in the ripe segment is finely branched, and these segments are capable of *independent movement.* The eggs are characteristic (Fig. 372).

* American Journal Tropical Diseases and Preventive Medicine, May, 1915.

† Human Intestinal Protozoa in the Near East, London, Wellcome Bureau of Scientific Research.

‡ Jour. Am. Med. Assoc., July 9, 1921.

Taenia Solium (Pork Tape-worm)

The parasite consists of a number of segments and a single head (Fig. 378). When the segments are introduced into the stomach of an animal they undergo partial digestion by the animal's juices, the ova liberating their young in the intestinal canal; these young immediately find their way through the intestinal wall into the body-tissues of the animal, which now becomes their intermediary host. In the animal's tissues the young tape-worm develops only as far as the head, becomes encysted, and remains quiescent here until the flesh of the animal containing such cyst is ingested by a second animal, possibly man. In the stomach or the duodenum of the second animal the cyst is digested and the head of the tape-worm liberated. The liberated head then fastens itself to the mucous membrane of the intestine, and here rapidly develops its characteristic segments (Fig. 377).

Life Cycle.—When the segments of the mature tape-worm are introduced into the human stomach, cystic formation in the body-tissues follows, and the parasite is then known as the cysticercus. A fact to be borne in mind is that persons having matured segments of any form of tape-worm in their intestinal canal may, as the result of violent retching or vomiting, regurgitate some ef the segments into the stomach, where, suspended in an acid medium, the ova are liberated and develop into scolices and then go on to form cysticerci. Autoinfection with the beef tape-worm is by no means uncommon, and a knowledge of the symptoms to which it gives rise is of great clinical value.



Fig. 374.—Head of Tænia Saginata (Mosler and Peiper).

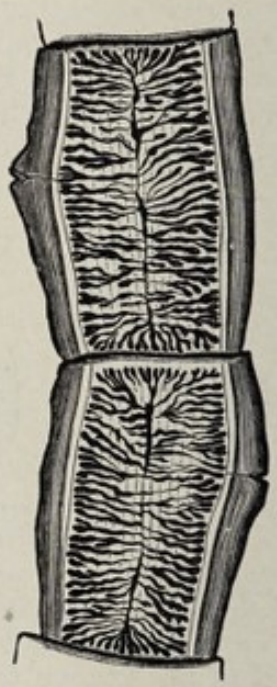


Fig. 375.—Mature Segments of Tænia Saginata.

Principal Complaint.—As a result of infection with any form of tape-worm there is an abnormal appetite, and a peculiar parched condition of the throat and mouth is present. A variable degree of mental hebetude, constipation alternating with diarrhea, and the passing of segments of the parasites (Fig. 377) from the rectum are observed.

If the parasite has been harbored for months or even years, a high-grade anemia is present, and this anemia may, in some instances, closely resemble one of the essential blood diseases.

Persons infected with cestodes become extremely nervous and irritable.

Physical Signs.—Inspection.—The skin is pale, often of a lemon-yellow or greenish hue, and the conjunctivæ generally show small, milk-

white areas, due to deposits of fat. The abdomen is, as a rule, scaphoid in shape.

Laboratory Diagnosis.—The detection of segments (proglottides, Fig. 377) or of ova in the feces is the only positive evidence of infection with a cestode.

Ova.—The ova of the tænia saginata (Fig. 376) closely resemble those of the tænia solium. The slight difference in size is no guide to the diagnosis unless measurements are taken. The ova escape with the feces.

DIBOTHRIOCEPHALUS LATUS (FISH-WORM)

Description.—A form of worm common in all countries bordering upon the Baltic Sea, in the vicinity of Lake Geneva, and in Holland. This parasite may attain a length of from one to five meters, the average size found being two meters, or about seven feet, in length.

Proglottides.—The mature proglottides do not escape from the rectum singly, but the segments are, as a rule, passed in large numbers, one foot or more of the worm being passed at a time. The individual segment is very thin at a point near the head. The segments gradually increase in size, the largest being those situated farthest from the head. The small segments appear to be greater in length than in breadth, whereas the medium-sized ones are almost square. In the center of each segment is a dark or slightly bluish spot, indicating the position of the genital pore.

Head.—The head is 2 or 3 mm. long by about 1 mm. broad. It is perfectly ovoid in contour, and closely resembles the expanded portion and handle of a spoon. It has two suckers, resembling slits, on the lateral margin of the head.



Fig. 376.—Eggs of Tænia Solium.



Fig. 377.—Mature Segments of Tænia Solium.

To the naked eye the head of this worm corresponds in size to that of a small pin. It may be of a light-gray or pearl-white color, and is sometimes opalescent.

Ova.—In fully matured segments the body of the uterus is seen to be so packed with ova that the center of the segment protrudes slightly. The detection of ova in the stool of man is of great diagnostic value. These ova are elliptic or ovoid in contour, and, as a rule, are of a muddy-white, brownish-white, or brown color. They vary in length from 0.06 to 0.07 mm., their width being usually equivalent to about one-half their length. With a one-sixth or a one-eighth inch objective a faint hyaline band may be seen at one end of the ovum, outlining an apparent lid.

HYMENOLEPIS NANA

This is a parasite occasionally encountered in the intestinal canal of man, but far more commonly seen in the intestine of the lower animals. It measures from 10 to 15 mm. in length.

Geographic Distribution.—The parasite is common in Italy, Egypt, and along the shores of the Mediterranean Sea. Deaderick found it to be quite common in the State of Arkansas, he having detected the ova of this parasite 8 times in 40 specimens of feces examined.

Description.—Proglottides and Ova.—The proglottides of the hymenolepis nana may be clearly seen in the accompanying illustration (Fig. 379). The ova are numerous and slightly opalescent oval bodies, enveloped in a distinct membrane.

Head.—The head of the parasite differs markedly from the heads of other tape-worms previously described, being more or less pear-shaped, and displaying four suckers and a club-shaped rostellum (Fig. 379). It contains from 24 to 30 hooklets, which are arranged in a single row to form a crown at the anterior portion of the head, instead of being inverted, as is shown in the illustration (Fig. 379).

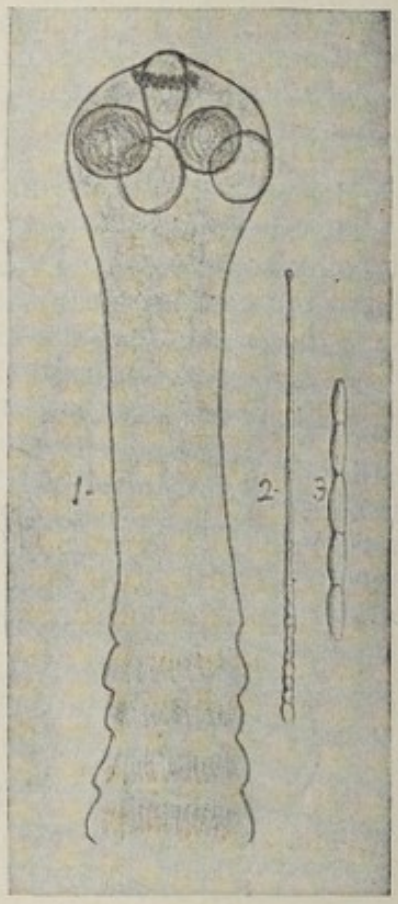


FIG. 379.—HYMENOLEPIS NANA FROM INTESTINE OF A CAT (Boston).

1, Head and neck (obj. B. and L. two-thirds); 2, head and neck (natural size); 3, largest segments (natural size).

HYMENOLEPIS DIMINUTA

This parasite was first described by Leidy, and in 1900 Packard reported the ninth case of infection in man.

The parasite varies in length between 25 and 60 mm. The head is provided with four quite well-marked sucking cups. The ova resemble those of the tænia solium (Fig. 376).

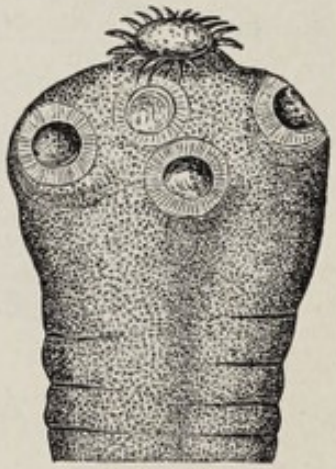


FIG. 378.—HEAD OF TÆNIA SOLIUM (Mosler and Peiper).

TAENIA MARGINATA

This parasite resembles in certain respects both the beef and the pork tape-worms, and has occasionally been known to infest the intestinal canal of man.

DIPYLIDIUM CANINUM

Description.—The dipylidium caninum, or dog tape-worm (Figs. 381 and 382), belongs to a family of intestinal parasites rarely encountered in man, but commonly attacking the cat and the dog. Its segments, which

are elliptic, elongated, tape-like bodies, are not easily confused with those of other intestinal parasites. The larval stage of this worm develops in lice and in fleas (Fig. 380). Stiles states that the dipylidium caninum is one of the smaller tape-worms, but should be looked upon as a pathogenic parasite, as it sometimes burrows into the intestinal mucosa.

The **head** of the parasite shows four sucking cups and a rostellum, surrounded by four rows of hooklets.

Ova.—The ovum of dipylidium caninum differs markedly from that of any form of tenia known to infest man. "In the genus Tænia we find a thick, striated inner shell (embryophore), while in dipylidium the inner shell is thin" (Stiles). But few ova are found in the feces of persons infected with this parasite.

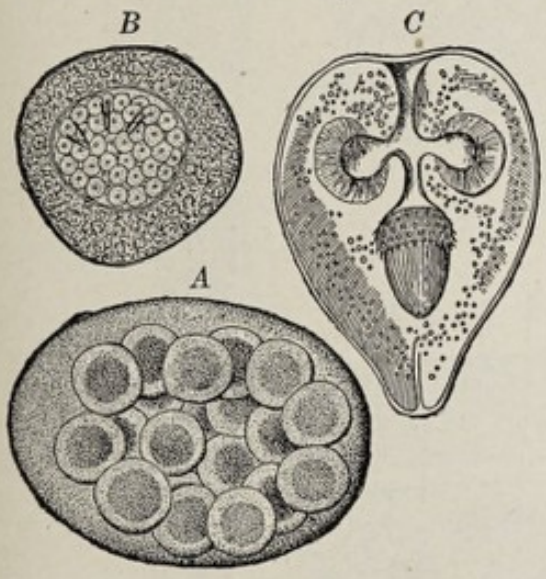


FIG. 380.

A, Egg packet of Dipylidium caninum; B, egg of same—six-hooked embryo (after Stiles); C, Cryptocystis tricodectis, as found in the flea (after Leuckart).

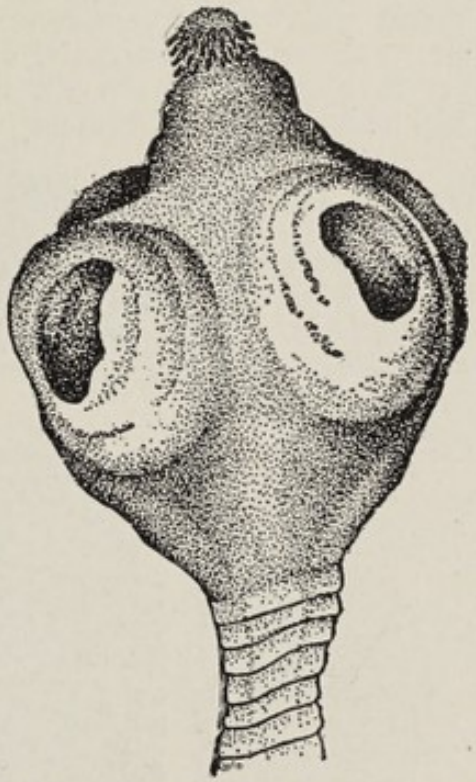


FIG. 381.—HEAD OF DIPYLIDIUM CANINUM (Stiles).

Showing four rows of rose-thorn hooks on the rostellum and four unarmed suckers.

TAENIA MADAGASCARIENSIS (Grenet)

Description.—A form of tape-worm found to infest persons residing on the eastern coast of Africa. It may attain a considerable length, its segments reaching a maximum number of 600.

A distinguishing feature of tænia Madagascariensis is that its segments are trapezoid, its rostellum being surrounded with a double row of hooklets, and the sucking-cups being well defined.

Under this name another type of tape-worm has recently been reported from eastern Africa. A single case has been reported.

TAENIA ECHINOCOCCUS

This parasite is another species of dog tape-worm, commonly found in members of the canine family, and rarely in the intestine of man.

In man the larval stage of the tænia echinococcus appears in the form of hydatid cysts. (See also Animal Parasites of Liver, p. 1048.)

Description.—The tænia echinococcus is about one-fourth inch in length, and is composed of four segments. The cephalic extremity, which is prolonged to form a well-marked net, is capped by a pointed rostellum.

In the center of the head are four well-marked sucking cups (Fig. 383). The rostellum is surrounded by a double row of hooks, numbering between 30 and 40. The last segment, when sexually matured, is as long as the three anterior segments; it is provided with papillæ at the margin of the proglottis, below the central line. The uterus is packed with ova.

General Remarks.—A hydatid cyst is an embryo tape-worm. It consists of a vesicle in which there is a scolex with four sucking discs and

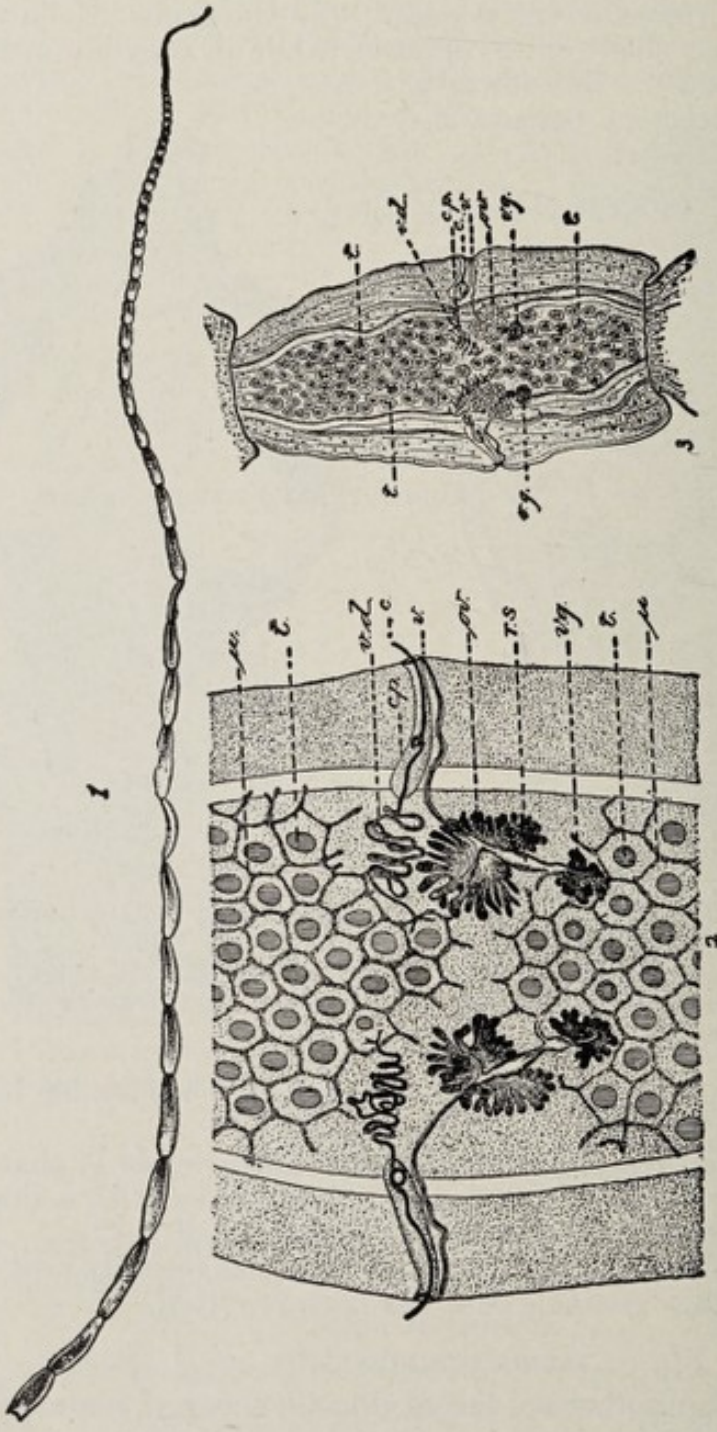


Fig. 382.—Dipylidium Caninum.

1, Adult strobila (natural size); 2, segments (Stiles) (highly magnified); 3, ground segment (after Diamari).

six hooklets, circularly arranged. After a time the scolex degenerates, the hooklets are shed, the cyst increases in size. Fluid obtained by puncture of an echinococcic cyst is, as a rule, clear, alkaline in reaction, and has a specific gravity between 1.005 and 1.015. The fluid is ordinarily free from albumin, and rich in inorganic salts, particularly in sodium

chlorid. The diagnostic findings are hooklets, scolices, and shreds of finely laminated membrane, and the diagnosis is made through the detection of any one of these substances. Crystals of cholesterin are commonly present.

Clinically, echinococcus disease is of great importance because it is a type of infection found wherever man is brought in contact with the dog or the wolf. Infection with this parasite is common in Russia, Finland, Iceland, and Australia.

Sites of Development.—The echinococcus cyst develops in any part of the human tissues, the favorite site, however, being the liver. We have seen echinococcus cysts in the liver and in the lung at postmortem nine times, and in one case 19 of these cysts were found in the brain.



Fig. 383.—Tænia Echinococcus, Enlarged (after Heller).

Above, at the right, echinococcus of natural size.

Summary of Diagnosis.—The diagnosis is based entirely on the recovery of fluid from the tumor and the detection therein of hooklets of the echinococcus.

Differential Diagnosis.—Among the conditions that may be confused with hydatid of the liver are: **distention of the gall-bladder, hydronephrosis, syphilis, carcinoma,** and **amebic abscess of the liver.** The following tables, modified from Anders, outline the distinctive differences between

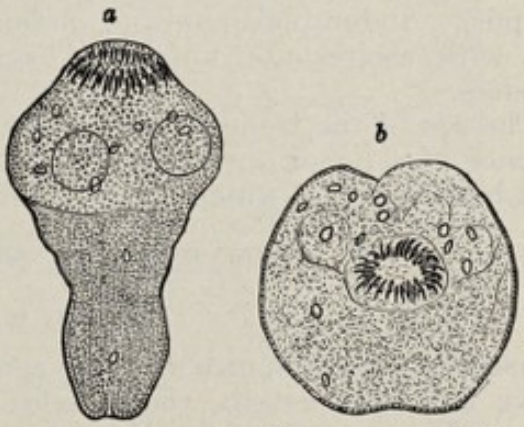


Fig. 384.—Head of Echinococcus (Mosler and Peiper).

a, Head protruded; *b*, head drawn in.

hydatid disease of the liver and disease of the gall-bladder and of the kidney: (See p. 1048).

Hydatid Cyst	Dilatation of the Gall-bladder
1. Previous history negative, except for the companionship of dogs.	1. A history of having passed biliary calculi is often obtained.
2. Pain and jaundice absent.	2. Attacks of biliary colic followed by jaundice either are present or enter into the previous history.
3. Enlargement in any direction is dependent upon the location of the cysts.	3. Enlargement is always in one direction—downward and posteriorly.
4. Tumor is firmly fixed to the liver or other viscera.	4. The tumor is somewhat movable.
5. Aspiration recovers fluid containing Charcot-Leyden crystals and hooklets of echinococcus.	5. Aspiration recovers bile-stained fluid.
6. *X*-ray studies may serve in separating these conditions.	

Hydatid Cyst	Hydronephrosis
1. The history is negative.	1. There is a history of renal calculi or of vesical inflammation.
2. There is no pain.	2. There may be severe pain.
3. The tumor is most prominent over the hepatic area, and is associated with enlargement of the liver.	3. The tumor is most prominent in the flanks and iliac fossæ. If it extends to the right hypochondriac region, it *does not* move with the liver.
4. The duration is indefinite, and the tumor is permanent.	4. The duration is short; a large amount of urine may be passed and the tumor disappear; termination in uremia is common.
5. Aspiration recovers cyst fluid, etc.	5. Aspiration recovers urine.
6. Cystoscopy and pyelography negative.	6. Pyelography positive. Cystoscopy of service.

TREMATODES OR FLUKES

Trematodes are parasitic for man in nearly all parts of the tropics and in many of the subtropical regions. *Fasciola hepatica* is a parasite of sheep which is occasionally found in man if he has been closely associated with these animals.

Paragonimus Westermanii (see p. 1029), *Schistosomum hæmatobium* (see p. 1029), *Fasciolopsis Buski*, and *Opisthorchis sinensis* are frequently found in man in certain parts of the world.

These parasites, when present in the intestinal tract or the liver, produce diarrheal attacks, the feces being found to contain blood, mucus, and pus. Abdominal pain and distention, anemia, and cirrhosis of the liver with ascites are important symptoms of infection with these parasites.

The *ova* of the trematodes vary in size, but are characterized by the presence of a lid or operculum, with the exception of those of schistosomum hæmatobium which are furnished with a spine.

INTESTINAL NEMATODES

ROUND-WORMS

Ascaris Lumbricoides.—The common round-worm is from four to twelve inches in length, the females being somewhat longer than the males. They are of a reddish-white or milk-white color and bear a more or less close resemblance to common earth-worms. They inhabit chiefly the small intestines, but frequently migrate to the stomach, large intestine, or even to the gall-bladder. Lumbricoides have been found in the pleura, and in the lung, according to Ransom.*

Several parasites may be present in the intestine at one time, and in exceptional instances many hundreds may be found. They gain entrance into the system by means of their ova, which are swallowed probably by some intermediate host with the food; the envelopes surrounding the ova are dissolved by the gastric juice, and the embryos are thus set free. F. H. Stewart† has conducted a series of experiments showing that the ripe eggs of the ascaris lumbricoides when eaten by rats or mice match, and their larva enters the animal's liver, probably through the bile ducts, or through the venules of the portal system. In the liver these larvæ were found to cause a rapid degeneration of the hepatic structure, and to make their way through the diaphragm and into the lung. Passing through the lung tissue and bronchi they appear in the animal's saliva approximately 8 days after infection. We are inclined

* Jour. Am. Med. Assoc., Oct. 18, 1919.
† British Med. Jour., Oct. 7, 1916.

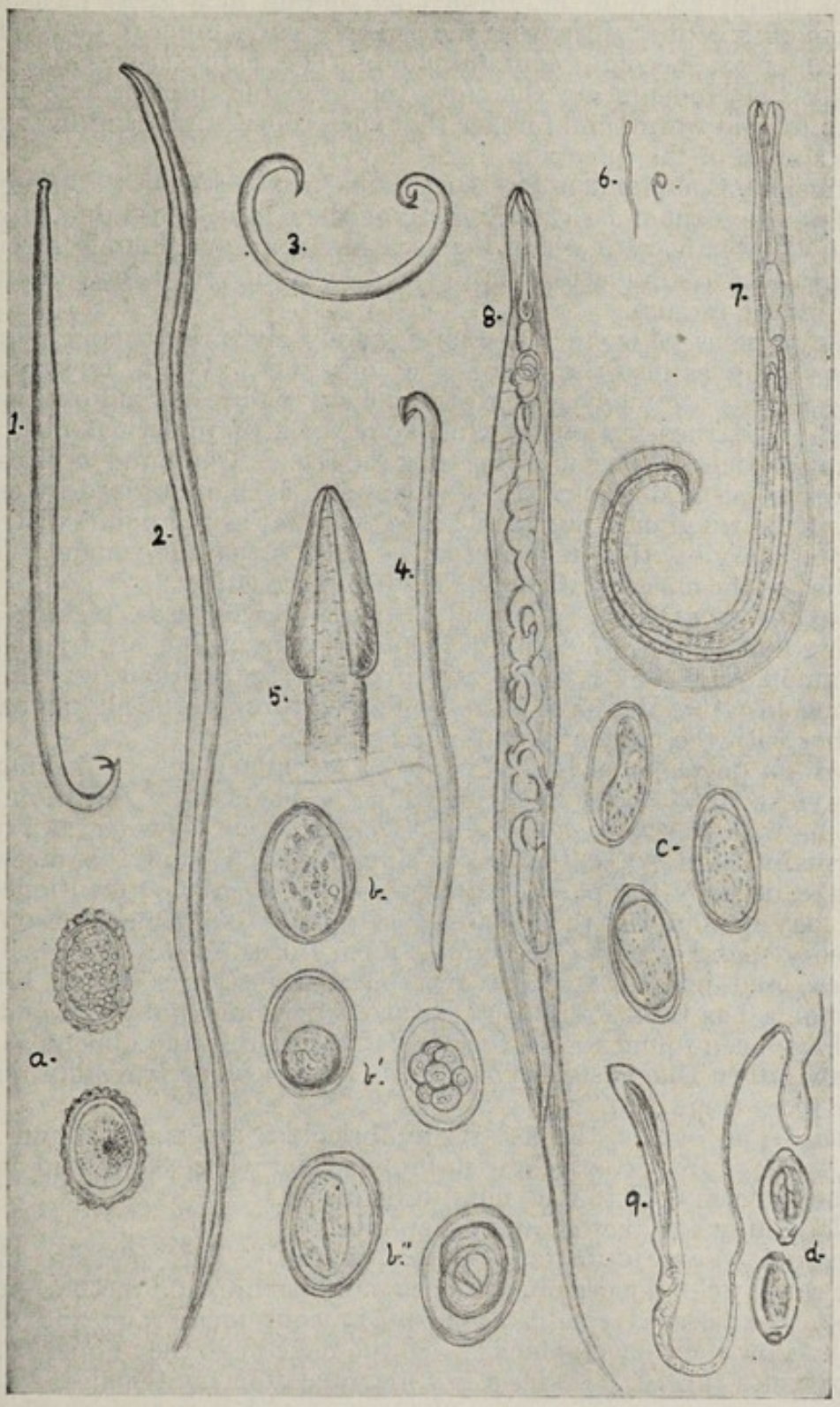


FIG. 385.—ASCARIS, OXYURIS, AND TRICHOCEPHALUS.

1, 2, and *a*, Ascaris lumbricoides: 1, Male; 2, female; *a*, ova.

3, 4, 5, *b*, *b'*, *b''*, Ascaris canis: 3, Male; 4, female; 5, head of female (magnified); *b*, ovum; *b'*, ova, showing segmentation; *b''*, ova showing embryo (Kobbold).

6, 7, 8, and *c*, Oxyuris vermicularis: 6, Male and female (natural size); 7, male; 8, female (magnified); *c*, ova (Boston) (obj. B. and L. one-sixth).

9 and *d*, Trichocephalus dispar: 9, Female (magnified); *d*, ova (obj. Queen one-sixth) (Boston).

to look upon this work of Stewart as solving in a great measure the problem of infection; since from the rodent's saliva much of the food eaten by man may become contaminated. These investigations suggest strongly that rodents are therefore the probable intermediate hosts of the lumbricoid worm, and further that such rodents are carrying agencies in the spread of the infection.

Principal Complaint.—The symptoms produced by the presence of round-worms cannot be clearly distinguished from those due to gastro-intestinal catarrh, with which the ascarides are so commonly associated. The first sign to draw attention to the disorder is the passage of a round-worm by the rectum.

The presence of one or two worms rarely gives rise to any symptoms unless they pass into the stomach or bile-duct. When, however, *large numbers* exist, they may give rise to colicky pains, coming on especially at night; diarrhea, vomiting, and symptoms of intestinal obstruction have also been observed. The tongue sign of Couillaud is present in both ascariasis and oxyuriasis infection, and is characterized by enlargement of the fungiform papillæ which stand out as red points distributed over the margins, the anterior surface, and tip of the tongue. This is regarded as the most reliable sign of parasitic infection.

Nervous Symptoms.—There are general nervousness, picking of the clothing and the face, etc., and in children convulsions are by no means uncommon. In rare instances worms have found their way into the peritoneal cavity, and have been discharged through the abdominal wall, together with the contents of an abscess.

Anemia develops early and is of the secondary type. A differential leukocyte count is of service in making a diagnosis of infection of the intestine with the various parasites, such infection showing, as a rule, an abnormally high percentage of eosinophiles. Among the mechanical affects caused by the parasite and its ova it should be mentioned that these may be found in the hepatic ducts, pancreas, stomach, œsophagus, accessory nasal sinuses, lacrymal ducts, Eustachian tubes, larynx, trachea, and bronchi. There are reported instances where broncho-pneumonia has been excited by parasitic ova, and both ova and parasites have been found to create specific irritation in the appendix.

Laboratory Diagnosis.—The ascaris lumbricoides is readily detected in the feces (Fig. 385).

Ova.—The ova of the ascaris lumbricoides are easily found in the feces. They are of a yellowish-brown color (Fig. 385), and vary in size, being from 0.06 to 0.07 mm. in diameter.

Blood may at times show eosinophilia.

Oxyuris Vermicularis.—(**Thread-worm.**)—This parasite inhabits the lower bowel—the cecum, colon, sigmoid flexure, and rectum—and the vagina. A diseased condition of the mucous membrane and sluggish bowels favor their development. To the naked eye they appear as short bits of white thread. Under a low magnification the females, which are the most numerous, will be seen to taper at each end; their uterine ducts are filled with numerous ova (Fig. 385), some of which contain embryos.

Predisposing and Exciting Factors.—These parasites gain entrance into the system by means of their ova, which are ingested with the food, or perhaps more frequently by the ova adhering to the fingers of those already affected; they are thus conveyed directly or indirectly to others. Israilten in examining the feces of 994 children found only 3 instances where infants were infested by intestinal parasites, and other writers have shown that the infection is uncommon during the first year of life.

Principal Complaint.—The symptoms are vague, and the diagnosis is usually made by finding the parasites in the stools of the child. The most common symptom is an irritation and itching at the anus or at the vulva. In girls, when vaginal infection exists, there is a discharge of mucus and blood from the vagina.

ANKYLOSTOMIASIS (UNCINARIASIS; HOOK-WORM DISEASE)

Pathologic Definition.—A disease caused by the presence of a nematode worm in the intestinal canal, and characterized by a severe secondary anemia, catarrhal enteritis, and secondary fatty degeneration of the viscera

Predisposing and Exciting Factors.—This disease was known before the Christian era. Of recent years, and particularly since 1898 in the United States, the disease has assumed great importance, because of its presence in Porto Rico and in the southern States. Two parasites



FIG. 386.—UNCINARIA AMERICANA (Boston).
1, Female, natural size; 2, head; 3, tail; 4, ova.

are known to be responsible for the disease: that form seen in Europe, Asia, and Africa is caused by *Ankylostoma duodenale;* that seen in the western hemisphere is caused by a worm, *Necator americanus* (Fig. 386).

Age.—Children are chiefly affected, but adults may also harbor the parasite.

Occupation is an important predisposing factor. The infection is known to be transmitted by soil pollution. The ova of the parasite are deposited on the ground with human feces, where they develop into larvæ, particularly in moist, sandy soil. The larvæ gain entrance to the tissues of the human host by burrowing through the skin, upon which they have been deposited with the mud containing them. Consequently, any occupation in which a person is likely to get mud containing larvæ on his hands or feet is one that predisposes to the infection. Hence it is seen most often in miners, brick-makers, farmers, civil engineers engaged in operations in an infected region, laborers, etc. In Porto Rico females affected with the hookworm were found to have contracted the infection by working in their rose-gardens. The larvæ,

passing through the skin, produce a pustular dermatitis known in Porto Rico as *mazamorra*, and in the southern United States as *ground itch*.

Principal Complaint.—The chief symptom of uncinariasis is a marked anemia, the characteristics of which will be described under Laboratory Diagnosis. There is a history of progressive weakness, nervousness, loss of weight, anorexia, perverted appetite, etc. In children infected before puberty physical development is retarded and mental evolution is delayed; the pubic hair fails to appear, the genitals remain infantile, and in girls menstruation is delayed. The symptoms of anemia are prominent: pallor of the skin and mucous membranes, headache, palpitation of the heart, dyspnea on exertion, vertigo, drowsiness, and localized edemas. Constipation, alternating with attacks of diarrhea, is a common symptom. Digestive disturbances are not marked or common; catarrhal stomatitis, salivation, flatulence, heart-burn, nausea without vomiting, pain and tenderness in the epigastrium are among the symptoms more frequently observed.

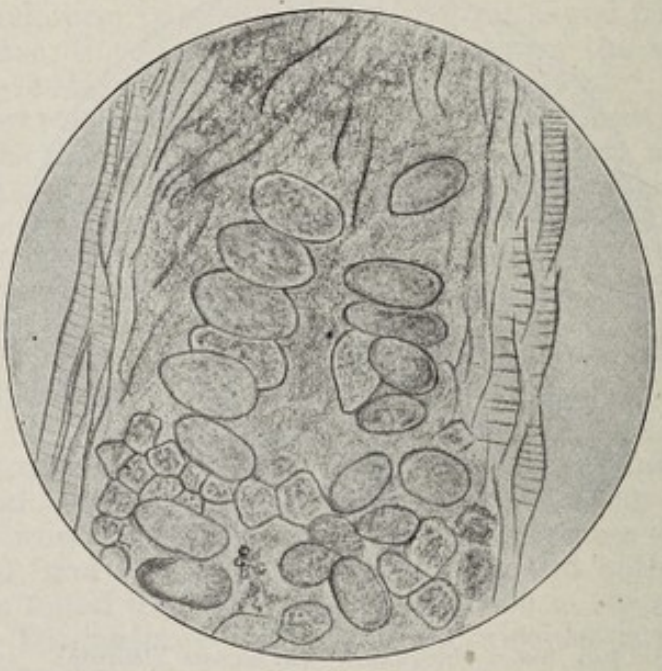


Fig. 387.—Section of Adult Uncinaria (Ankylostoma), Uterus Containing Ova (Boston).

Physical Signs.—Inspection.—The skin is ashy gray and often pigmented; the conjunctivæ and lips are extremely pale; the tongue is flabby and heavily coated. The body shows evidences of emaciation, although the face is usually full, and in advanced cases there is edema beneath the eyes. According to Ashford, this edema may so distort the face as to make recognition impossible. Edema of the hands and feet and abdominal distention due to ascites are seen late in the disease. The impulse of the apex-beat is indistinct.

Palpation reveals the presence of edema and fluid in the peritoneal cavity. The pulse is weak, irregular, and compressible.

Percussion is negative, unless there is effusion into the serous sacs, *e. g.*, peritoneum, pericardium, and pleuræ. The liver and spleen are not usually enlarged.

Auscultation.—The heart-sounds are rapid and weak, and soft (hemic) murmurs are heard over the base of the organ.

Laboratory Diagnosis.—The total length of the female worm, Necator americanus, varies between 9 and 11 mm., whereas the male

worm is from 7 to 9 mm. in length. The tapering form of the neck and head, which is slightly turned, is shown in Fig. 386. The female worm tapers gradually, terminating posteriorly in a slightly rounded point (Fig. 386). The tail of the male parasite displays a bursa from which two spicules project.

Detection of the Ova in the Feces.—The ova of Necator americanus are found in the feces. They measure between 0.064 and 0.075 mm. in length by 0.036 to 0.04 mm. in breadth. They are always deposited with segmentation begun, so that they are filled with two, four, or more segmentation spheres. They have a thin, transparent, clear white shell. The embryo may at times be seen in the shell. The detection of the ova in the feces is positive evidence of infection with the hook-worm.

The Blood.—The anemia of ankylostomiasis is a secondary anemia of high grade. The percentage of hemoglobin is markedly reduced—often from 30 to 50 per cent. The red blood-cells are also greatly diminished in number, and show the changes of degeneration, *e. g.*, poikilocytosis, variation in size, unequal distribution of the hemoglobin, granular degeneration and polychromatophilia, and the presence of normoblasts and megaloblasts.

In uncomplicated cases of uncinariasis the leukocytes are usually normal in number, eosinophilia is common, and myelocytes are sometimes present.

Summary of Diagnosis.—The clinical history is in no way typical of infection with the necator nor is the additional fact that the patient has resided in the tropics of special importance. A positive diagnosis is attained only by finding the ova or the adult parasite in the feces.

The presence of eosinophilia is of great value in making a diagnosis of intestinal parasites, but it is not pathognomonic of hook-worm infection. The high grade of anemia and the edema of the face and ankles are suggestive of uncinariasis.

Differential Diagnosis.—Uncinariasis may be mistaken for **leukemia, pernicious anemia, inanition edema** and **chronic plumbism.** In each of these, however, the clinical history will be found to be vastly different, and the detection of the parasite in the feces will furnish positive differential evidence. The hematologic findings are of service, since leukocytosis is characteristic of leukemia and fairly constant in chronic plumbism. In chronic lead intoxication the urine gives a reaction for lead.

Clinical Course and Duration.—When judicious treatment is instituted early, the disease runs a favorable course, practically all cases going on to recovery within a period of from two to six months. In cases of long-standing infection, and in the presence of profound anemia, the prognosis is guardedly favorable. In those in whom general edema is present there is a great tendency for complications to develop—*e. g.*, bronchopneumonia. It has been estimated that infection by the hook-worm is accountable for more than 20 per cent. of all deaths occurring in Porto Rico.

TRICHURIS TRICHIURIA

Description.—This parasite is a member of a family of Trichotrachelidæ, which inhabit the cecum in man. It will be found to vary between 40 and 50 mm. in length (Fig. 388).

Ova.—The ovum is of about the same size as the egg of the uncinaria, and measures about 50 to 54 microns in length by 21 to 23 microns in breadth. These ova are distinctly barrel-shaped, and present a light-

colored plug at each pole. They are red brown or yellowish in color (Fig. 385).

Clinical Significance.—Trichuris trichiuria is a common intestinal parasite. It is usually productive of no symptoms.

STRONGYLOIDES INTESTINALIS

This parasite is commonly found in the feces of persons residing in tropical and subtropical countries. In recent years it has been found by A. J. Smith, Claude A. Smith, Daland, Woldert, and Thayer in the States bordering on the Gulf of Mexico.



FIG. 388.—TRICHOCEPHALUS DISPAR (Heller).
a, Female; *b*, male (natural size). (Also known as trichuris trichiuria.)

ANIMAL PARASITES OF THE LIVER

ECHINOCOCCIC DISEASE

Pathologic Definition.—An affection of the liver characterized by the formation of a multilocular cyst containing a semiopaque fluid in which hooklets of the encysted scolex of tænia echinococcus are found. (See p. 1054.)



FIG. 389.
1, Scolex of Tænia echinococcus, showing crown of hooklets; 2, scolex and detached hooklets (obj. B. and L. one-sixth) (Boston).

Principal Complaint.—The majority of cases of echinococcus disease of the liver are discovered at autopsy, the symptoms being vague except in those cases in which the cysts reach a large size. Generally speaking, the only symptoms of echinococcus cysts are caused by pressure upon the bile-ducts or upon adjacent structures. Marked pressure upon the portal vein and the bile-duct may be followed by the development of ascites and jaundice. Occasionally there is a distinct history of the tumor having disappeared suddenly, the patient having passed by the rectum a large quantity of peculiar looking material at the time of its disappearance. It is doubtless this form of cyst that ruptures into the colon, nature in this way effecting a cure. When an echinococcus cyst becomes infected with pathogenic bacteria the symptoms described under Hepatic Abscess appear.

When the cyst occupies the superior surface of the liver and forces the diaphragm well up against the lungs, coughing results. Spontaneous rupture through the diaphragm may occur, and in such cases the patients expectorate the contents of the cyst and a cure is effected.

Physical Signs.—Beyond revealing the fact that the cyst is unusually large, **inspection** is negative.

Palpation may be of great value when the cyst is large and exhibits fluctuation. By making deep palpation over one portion of the cyst and percussing over another the palpating hand occasionally detects a peculiar thrill (hydatid thrill), which many writers regard as pathognomonic of the disease. Splenic enlargement is quite commonly associated with hydatid disease.

Percussion, as previously stated, will elicit the "hydatid thrill," or fremitus, and also confirms the findings of palpation as to the size of the spleen and the liver. Movable dullness shows the presence of ascites.

Auscultation.—Upon placing the stethoscope over one portion of the cyst and percussing over a distant area, a peculiar short, sharply defined, booming sound will be obtained (Santoni).

Laboratory Diagnosis.—**Aspiration** of the cyst usually results in the recovery of a fluid that contains the hooklets and scolices of the tænia echinococcus (Fig. 389). In those cases rupturing through the diaphragm and communicating with a bronchus, hooklets are found in the sputum. We have detected both scolices and hooklets of the tænia echinococcus in the dejecta of two patients in the Philadelphia Hospital after a cyst had probably ruptured into the colon. In a third case hooklets of the tænia echinococcus were found in the urine, and within forty-eight hours the degree of hepatic enlargement was decidedly reduced. In the latter case it was believed that the hepatic cyst had probably ruptured into the pelvis of the right kidney. These cases went on to recovery, and the laboratory findings were the only positive evidences displayed.

Summary of Diagnosis.—The diagnosis is based largely upon the presence of hepatic enlargement without tenderness, pain, or fever. The detection of the so-called hydatid fremitus is also of value. Aspiration of the cyst and the finding of hooklets in the cyst fluid constitute the only conclusive evidence unless either hooklets or scolices of the tænia echinococcus are found in the sputum, urine, and feces. The cysts may rupture externally, when the discharge will be found to contain cyst products. The presence of shreds of cyst membrane also furnishes conclusive evidence as to the nature of the disease.

Differential Diagnosis.—Hydatid disease of the liver must be distinguished from **dilatation of the gall-bladder,** from which condition it is readily differentiated by the fact that jaundice is more common in gall-bladder disease. The history is also of great importance in differentiating these two conditions, since previous hepatic disease is common in enlargement of the gall-bladder. Again, dilatation of the gall-bladder is always discovered at one anatomic point, and extends below the surface of the liver, whereas a hydatid cyst is more nearly oval in contour, and usually develops at a point near the center of the right or the left hepatic lobe. Cysts are more common upon the superior surface of the liver.

The distinctive features between hydatid cysts of the liver and **hydronephrosis** are shown in the table on p. 1050:

In rare cases an echinococcus cyst may resemble clinically a **unilateral pleural effusion of long standing,** but the distinction is made clear by examination of the aspirated fluid. (See Laboratory Diagnosis, p. 1049.)

Other Cysts of the Liver.—Other cysts may develop in the liver, but seldom attain sufficient size to be of clinical importance, and there is

Hydatid Cyst	Hydronephrosis
1. The history is negative.	1. There is a history of renal calculus or of vesical disease.
2. Pain is absent.	2. Pain is common when the tumor is large.
3. The tumor is more prominent over the hepatic area, and is associated with enlargement of the liver.	3. The tumor is most prominent in the flank and the iliac fossa. If it extends to the right hypochondriac region, it *does not* move with the liver.
4. There is no history of the patient having voided a large quantity of urine with disappearance of the tumor.	4. There is a history of the voiding of a large quantity of urine followed by disappearance of the tumor.
5. Auscultatory percussion shows the tumor to be connected with the liver.	5. The tumor is not attached to the liver.
6. The duration is indefinite, and uremia is absent.	6. Uremia is a common termination.
7. Temperature normal.	7. Paroxysmal rise of temperature. Dietl's crisis.
8. Pyelogram negative.	8. Pyelogram gives conclusive evidence.

no means of recognizing them unless they press upon the bile-passages or adjacent vessels. Clinically speaking, cysts of the liver are rare, Lipmann's analyses of the literature showing but 16 cases, 3 of which were retention cysts, 9 cystic adenomata, and 1 a chylous cyst.

LIVER FLUKES

General Remarks.—The ordinary liver fluke (fasciola hepatica) inhabits the hepatic ducts in man, and is also quite commonly seen in sheep, deer, swine, and the bovines. The ova of the parasite collect in the bile-ducts, and, together with the parasites, may cause a marked dilatation along certain portions of their course. When there is an acute inflammation of the lining membrane of these expanded ducts, the patient is likely to become jaundiced.

Among other types of trematodes (flukes) occasionally encountered in man are dicrocœlium lanceatum, fasciolopsis Buski, and opisthorchis sinensis.

Diagnosis.—This is based on the detection of the ova of the particular liver fluke in question in the feces.

NEMATODES (Round-worms)

Round-worms may enter the common bile-duct and cause obstruction, giving rise to acute obstructive jaundice. Such cases are rare.

AMEBIC ABSCESS OF THE LIVER

Pathologic Definition.—A condition excited by the entamœba histolytica, and secondary to amebic dysentery. It is characterized by extensive destruction of the hepatic tissue, with the formation of pus.

General Remarks.—Amebic abscess may develop at any time during the course of amebic dysentery, but is most likely to appear after the disease has become chronic. Residence in the tropics and a previous attack of dysentery are among the predisposing factors. (See p. 1048.)

There is progressive emaciation, together with a high grade of anemia, although the blood-findings are not characteristic. The recovery of amebæ from the stools points strongly toward the existence of hepatic abscess, when there is questionable enlargement of the liver.

In those abscesses developing on the superior surface of the liver there is likely to be cough, and the abscess may rupture into a bronchus.

ANIMAL PARASITES OF THE MUSCLES

TRICHINIASIS

Pathologic Definition.—A disease caused by infection of the intestinal tract with the trichinella spiralis. It is characterized by the deposit of embryos of the trichinella in the muscles and by eosinophilia.

Remarks.—Trichiniasis is primarily a disease of the rat.

Embryos of the trichina spiralis may appear in the intestine and escape with the feces during infection with that parasite. The adult parasite may also be found during the initial diarrhea.

Sources of the Trichinella.—The parasite was first found in pork—the usual source of transmission to man. The swine become infected by eating diseased rats, trichinous meats, or human dejecta containing embryos of the trichinæ. About 2 per cent. of hogs are found to be trichinous. Man is infected by eating raw or partially cooked meat containing the encysted larvæ of the trichinæ (Fig. 392).



FIG. 390.—TRICHINELLA SPIRALIS (LARVÆ) FROM HEAD OF RIGHT GASTROCNEMIUS MUSCLE; SEVENTH WEEK OF DISEASE (Boston).



FIG. 391.—TRICHINELLA SPIRALIS (LARVÆ) FROM OUTER HEAD OF LEFT GASTROCNEMIUS MUSCLE; TWENTY-FIRST DAY AFTER SYMPTOMS (Boston).

Principal Complaint.—There is usually a history of having eaten raw or partially cooked pork or other meats, followed in from two to five days by anorexia, nausea, vomiting, and cramp-like pains in the abdomen. The patient always suffers from headache and insomnia. If the amount eaten has been large, vomiting and diarrhea are severe. Following the acute intestinal symptoms the patient appears to improve slightly for a period of from ten to fifteen days, when the embryos begin to migrate, and a class of symptoms appear that are in many instances misleading. There may be a series of chills, chilly sensations, or a distinct rigor, followed within a few hours by fever ranging between 100° and 104° F. Within two or three days after the chill, distressing polymyositis appears. Practically all the muscles are stiff. There is a variable degree of muscular spasm, and the muscles of the calf and of the frontal region are extremely tender. There is intense soreness at the base of the chest, and agonizing pain upon deep inspiration—a symptom due probably to the presence of great numbers of larval trichinæ in the fibers of the diaphragm. Dyspnea is at times extreme.

The muscles of mastication are sore, and the patient is unable to open his mouth, and even swallowing may give rise to pain.

Thermic Features.—The temperature usually falls to hear the normal within from six to fourteen days. The pulse, as a rule, is increased in proportion to the degree of fever.

Physical Signs.—Inspection.—The occipitofrontalis and the jaw muscles are swollen, and the calf muscles and those of the arms are similarly affected, the greatest degree of swelling taking place near the tendinous insertion of the muscles. There is swelling of the frontal region and of the eyelid and face. The conjunctivæ are greatly congested, and minute hemorrhages beneath the conjunctiva are not unusual. The tendon reflexes are diminished or absent. Urticaria, herpes, and pruritus are present. The pupils are dilated.

Palpation.—Firm pressure exerted over any group of muscles gives rise to pain. The tendon-reflexes are lessened or abolished.

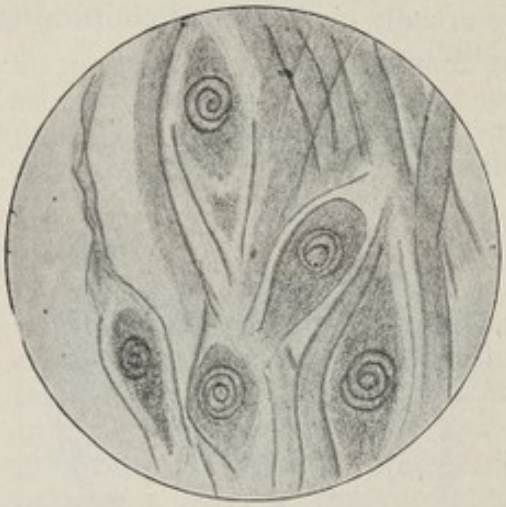


Fig. 392.—Encapsulated Trichina from Muscle One Year after Infection (Boston).

Laboratory Diagnosis.—There are but three points of special interest in the laboratory diagnosis—(1) The detection of the adult or embryo trichinæ in the dejecta during the initial attack of diarrhea; (2) the discovery of the embryos in the patient's muscle tissue in from twelve to twenty days after the initial diarrhea (Figs. 390 and 391); and (3) eosinophilia, (See table p. 1053).

Methods for Detection.—The skin should be cleansed thoroughly near the tendinous insertion of one of the calf muscles, and the skin and fascia then divided down to the muscle-sheath; the sheath is next incised, and a small portion of the muscle removed. This removed tissue should be placed in water and a portion of it teased thoroughly, placed upon a slide, and studied under a $\frac{2}{3}$ inch objective, when, if larval trichinæ are present, they will be detected among the muscle-fibers. Several months after the initial symptoms the larvæ are found to be encysted (Fig. 392).

Persons infected with trichinella spiralis display a high degree of eosinophilia—from 20 to 40 per cent.; the total number of leukocytes may, however, remain near the normal. The blood findings are: (*a*) eosinophilia, and (*b*) the detection of the embryo-trichinelli, in the peripheral blood.

Herrick and Janeway first demonstrated embryos of the trichinella spiralis in the circulating blood, and their observations have been confirmed by a number of writers, including A. H. Lamb. Embryos are present in the circulating blood a few days after the onset of symptoms. Experimentally, embryos are found to enter the blood in from eight to twenty-five days after infection. The embryo is cylindric, refractile, and curved, with both ends rounded, one extremity being slightly tapered and surrounded by a hyaline capsule.

Detection.—Dilute the blood with ten times its volume of three (3) per cent. solution of acetic acid. Shake well, and after the sediment forms lift a portion of it into a pipet for examination. Place on a slide, cover with a thin glass, and examine under a one-sixth ($\frac{1}{6}$) objective.

At times it may be well to close down the diaphragm, since these highly refractile bodies are often best seen under a rather feeble illumination.

Summary of Diagnosis.—A history of having eaten raw or partially cooked meat should always be regarded as of importance when coupled with the general symptoms of muscular rheumatism. Edema over the muscles, and particularly over the frontal region, is of great diagnostic value. A girdle pain following an attack of gastro-intestinal catarrh, accompanied by diarrhea and vomiting, should give rise to the suspicion of infection with the trichinella spiralis. Eosinophilia is the rule.

The diagnosis is substantiated by the detection of the larval trichinæ in the muscle tissue (Fig. 391) and blood.

Differential Diagnosis.—The accompanying table shows the distinctive features between acute trichiniasis, acute articular rheumatism, and acute muscular rheumatism:

TABLE SHOWING THE POINTS OF DIFFERENTIATION[1] BETWEEN ACUTE TRICHINIASIS, ACUTE ARTICULAR RHEUMATISM, AND ACUTE POLYMYOSITIS

Acute Trichiniasis	Acute Articular Rheumatism	Acute Polymyositis
1. There is a history of having eaten raw or partially cooked meats (pork).	1. History of previous attacks.	1. History of exposure to cold and wet.
2. Preceded eight to fourteen days by gastrointestinal disturbances, diarrhea, nausea, vomiting, and cramps.	2. Gastro-intestinal symptoms absent.	2. Gastro-intestinal symptoms absent.
3. Edema of the forehead and face seen early.	3. Edema absent.	3. Edema absent.
4. Swelling of muscles near tendinous insertions occurs late.	4. Muscles not swollen.	4. Swelling of body of muscles appears early.
5. Tenderness over the body of the muscles and near their tendinous insertions.	5. Tenderness over the articular surface of the long bones, and may involve the small joints.	5. Tenderness over the body of the muscles.
6 Joints not swollen.	6. Joints swollen, red, and tender.	6. Joints not swollen.
7. Effusion into the serous sacs of the larger joints absent.	7. Effusion into the serous sacs of the larger joints and fluctuation a common sign.	7. Effusion absent.
8. Dyspnea pronounced, and girdle pain upon deep inspiration.	8. Dyspnea not marked, and no girdle pain.	8. A sense of soreness over the chest.
9. Eosinophilia develops with the muscular symptoms (4 to 8 per cent. or higher). Embryos found in blood.	9. Eosinophilia not constant and seldom high.	9. Eosinophilia absent, as a rule.
10. Detection of adult trichinella in the dejecta during the initial attack of diarrhea.	10. No trichina in the dejecta. Constipation present early.	10. Feces negative.
11. Larval trichina present in the muscle tissues.	11. Muscle tissue normal.	11. Muscle tissue normal.
12. Conjunctivitis.	12. Rare.	12. Unusual.

Clinical Course and Duration.—Frederick A. Packard, in an analysis of 357 reported cases, found the mortality rate to be 44.07 per cent. Cases terminating favorably go on to recovery in from three to six months. An early diarrhea is said by some writers to be a favorable symptom, whereas others regard it as evidence of serious intestinal irritation, and as a sign that the patient has ingested a large amount of infected meat.

Cysticercus.—The cysticercus represents one developmental stage in the life-cycle of the tape-worm (see Tænia Solium, p. 1036). It is found in the muscles and viscera.

PARASITES OF THE BLADDER AND KIDNEY

Among the animal parasites that infect the urinary tract are the **schistosoma hæmatobium,** which may be recognized by the presence of its ova in the urine. Schistosomiasis has been further considered in detail on p. 1029. The ova are always found in the urinary sediment and in the small blood-clots. They vary in size from 135 to 160 microns in length, and from 55 to 66 microns in breadth. The extremity of each ovum is provided with a spine (Fig. 369).

Ova of **oxyuris and ascaris** are occasionally seen in the urinary sediment. Ova of the **trichuris trichiuria** and the adult **rhabditis pellio** are rarely seen in human urine, and cases have been reported in which the proglottides of **dibothriocephalus** have been found in the bladder.

Echinococcus Cyst of the Kidney.—Infection of the kidney with the tænia echinococcus is rare in the United States, though quite common in Scandinavia, Greenland, and Iceland. The tumor develops somewhat slowly, but displays all the physical signs characteristic of other growths of the kidney. In one case studied at the Philadelphia Hospital the cyst ruptured into the pelvis and the patient voided a large amount of bloody urine that contained hooklets of the tænia echinococcus.

Eustrongylus.—Rarely, indeed, ova of eustrongylus gigas are found in the urine, three such cases having come under our observation.

PARASITIC DISEASES OF THE LUNGS

ECHINOCOCCUS DISEASE

General Remarks.—Echinococcus disease of the lung is due to infection with the embryo of an animal parasite, the tænia echinococcus. The condition is frequently encountered in Australia, Iceland, and Russia. Hydatid cyst of the lung may be either primary or secondary, but in the majority of cases hydatid disease of the liver or of other viscera is also present. The statistics collected by authors in different portions of the world vary widely as to the frequency of involvement of the lung in this disease. Thomas, in an analysis of the reports of 1897 cases of echinococcus disease collected from practically all parts of the world, found the lung to be the site of disease in 11.59 per cent., whereas the cases collected in Australia showed pulmonary involvement in 16.56 per cent.

Mosler and Peiper assert that secondary echinococcus disease of the lung frequently results from perforation of the diaphragm by a hydatid cyst of the liver, in consequence of which the hepatic cyst communicates with the pleural sacs or directly with the lung as the result of adhesions existing between the visceral and diaphragmatic pleuræ.

Exciting and Predisposing Factors.—Infection with the echinococcus follows the ingestion of the ova of the adult parasite, which is known to infest the intestinal canal of dogs.

The most common predisposing factor is intimate association with dogs, the disease being common in Iceland and other countries in which these animals occupy the same quarters as their masters.

Principal Complaint.—Frankel distinguishes three clinical stages of the disease:

First Stage.—In this the symptoms are vague, but are suggestive of pulmonary congestion. Emaciation and fever are, as a rule, absent, the only symptom of clinical importance being the repeated attacks of hemoptysis. The quantity of blood expectorated at one time is small, the sputum being merely tinged or blood-streaked. Delgrange declares that hemorrhage from the lung is seldom absent altogether during the initial stage of pulmonary echinococcus disease. Repeated attacks of acute pleurisy are prone to occur, and moderate effusion into the pleura is not uncommon, although such liquid is absorbed within the course of a few weeks. In cases in which the pleura is attacked dyspnea and cough may be annoying.

Second Stage.—This is marked by the appearance of definite physical signs referable to pulmonary disease.

Inspection.—If the cysts are numerous, dyspnea is extreme. If a large cyst is present, there may be local bulging of the chest-wall or displacement of the heart.

Palpation may show that the tactile fremitus is diminished over the affected areas, whereas in those cases in which the pleura is involved or in which the cyst is surrounded by a dense fibrous capsule, the tactile fremitus may be increased.

The *percussion-note* is impaired. As a rule, the breath-sounds over the affected area are feeble, but, on the other hand, they may be exaggerated, depending upon the location of the cyst, the area of congestion surrounding it, and the presence of involvement of the pleura. Impairment may be detected over any portion of the lung, but by outlining the dull area in echinococcus disease this will often be found to be curvilinear, the convexity of the curve being directed upward.

During this stage pleural effusion is by no means uncommon, and when present, the symptoms of this condition (p. 148) will also appear. Pain in the side, cough, dyspnea, together with dullnes and crepitant râles, should suggest echinococcus disease, particularly when the patient has previously displayed the symptoms of the first stage of this malady.

Late during this stage the general symptoms suggestive of chronic destructive changes in the lung make their appearance, and, indeed, at this time the general clinical picture may simulate closely that of pulmonary tuberculosis (p. 860).

Third Stage.—This is marked by and succeeds rupture of the cyst or cysts, and the symptoms following such rupture vary directly with the direction in which the contents of the cyst are discharged; *e. g.*, in those cases in which the cyst ruptures into a bronchus, this may be ascribed to paroxysmal coughing, heavy lifting, or violence to the thorax. Cough is, as a rule, present during the stage of rupture, irrespective of whether or not the cyst communicates with a bronchus. Following rupture into the bronchus there is copious expectoration of a clear fluid or semifluid material that is found microscopically to contain hooklets, scolices, and often fragments of cyst membrane (Fig. 389), all of which are characteristic products of the tænia echinococcus. Secondary infection of the cyst may have taken place, when the material expectorated will be purulent in character. Pulmonary hemorrhage may be profuse at the time of rupture.

Rupture into the pleural cavity may be accompanied by a mild expression of shock, following which pneumothorax frequently occurs, although the cyst contents may escape into the pleural cavity without evincing the usual symptoms; on the other hand, the symptoms and signs of pleural effusion may be present.

Dieulafoy has called attention to the development of urticaria prior to rupture of the cyst, and artificial evacuation of the cyst may also be followed by this cutaneous manifestation.

X-ray Diagnosis.—In 1907 Levy-Dorn and Zadak reported their findings in a case of pulmonary echinococcus disease in which a distinct oval, black shadow was seen in the left lung, and another lighter shadow in the middle portion of the right lung.

Summary of Diagnosis.—The diagnosis is based solely on the detection of the products of the echinococcus cyst in the sputum or in the fluid obtained by aspiration.

Clinical Course.—Months and sometimes years are necessary for the cyst to develop to a size sufficient to produce physical signs. The chronicity of the disease depends largely upon the number of cysts present, and to some extent upon their location. Surgical interference not only modifies the course of the disease, but is said by Tuffier to effect a cure in 90 per cent. of all cases. Spontaneous rupture into a bronchus is, as a rule, followed by recovery, although the illness is somewhat protracted.

AMEBIC ABSCESS

Pathologic Definition.—A disease of the lung secondary to amebic abscess of the liver, caused by the entamœba histolytiça, and characterized by destruction of the pulmonary tissue with pus-formation.

Principal Complaint.—There is usually a history of having resided in the tropics, and of having suffered from an attack of dysentery, the clinical course of which corresponded closely to that described under Amebic Dysentery (p. 1031). Primary amebic abscess of the lung is extremely rare, the condition usually complicating amebic abscess of the liver.

Summary of Diagnosis.—The diagnosis is based entirely upon the detection of the entamœba histolytica in the sputum. In a case under our observation the sputum was frequently tinged with blood, and amebæ were present over a period of several months.

PARAGONIMIASIS

(Endemic Hemoptysis)

Pathologic Definition.—A chronic disease of the lung caused by a trematode worm, paragonimus Westermani, which produces cavities in the lung tissue, in which there is a characteristic exudate containing the ova of the fluke.

Geographic Distribution.—Thus far almost all cases of paragonimiasis have been reported from Japan, Korea, the Philippine Islands, Formosa, and China. The disease has been transported to the United States, although but few cases are on record. A peculiar disease characterized by bloody sputum and pulmonary hemorrhage has been detected in various portions of the United States among cats, dogs, and hogs, and the transmission of this disease to North America is doubtless explained by the great numbers of emigrants from the far east that settle in all sections of this country.

Exciting and Predisposing Factors.—The disease is caused by the presence of the lung fluke, paragonimus Westermanii.

Residence in Formosa, Japan, China, Korea, and certain of the East India Islands is the most potent predisposing factor.

Principal Complaint.—Cough is the most annoying symptom, being present during almost the entire course of the disease, and is usually most urgent upon rising after a night's sleep. Paroxysms of coughing are not unusual, and are frequently accompanied by the expectoration of a rusty brown, bloody-looking sputum that resembles anchovy sauce in appearance. When the patient clears his throat he is often able to eject a small quantity of this somewhat characteristic sputum. As a rule, there are repeated attacks of hemoptysis; these are slight at first, but as the disease progresses, profuse hemorrhage may follow. The patient states that upon slight exertion, even that of walking hurriedly, this bloody-looking fluid may be expectorated. Extreme weakness is present, and the general symptoms referable to secondary anemia appear, being dependent for their intensity upon the amount of lung destruction that has taken place.

Laboratory Diagnosis.—The sputum is usually quite profuse, especially after violent coughing; it is dark brown in color, and, as a rule, contains no blood, the color being due to the ova that are present. Free red blood-corpuscles may at times be found.

Filaria.—The literature contains records of the embryo filaria bancrofti having been found in the bloody sputum.

CUTANEOUS PARASITES

DRACUNCULUS MEDINENSIS

(GUINEA-WORM)

Remarks.—Dracontiasis, or guinea-worm disease, is a tropical affection caused by the dracunculus medinensis. The adult parasite inhabits the connective tissue, and belongs to the class of nematodes (Fig. 393). It is found on the western coast of Africa, India, Brazil, and Arabia. The adult female worm is cylindric in form, about 26 inches in length, and $\frac{1}{10}$ inch in diameter; it is of a milky color, and has smooth surfaces, with a tapering tail that is bent abruptly near its tip. The head is provided with a triangular mouth surrounded by six papillæ. The uterus extends nearly from the head to the tail, and is filled with embryos.

Predisposing Factors.—Man is probably infected by drinking water containing a small crustacean known as cyclops, which acts as the intermediary host.

The Embryo.—The embryo (Fig. 393) is nearly one-half inch in length, and its alimentary canal is readily distinguishable. The impregnated female works her way through the intracellular connective tissue for a period of from nine to twelve months, and when fully matured, burrows toward the legs, just above one of the malleoli; and she then migrates toward the surface of the skin, where a small vesicle is produced, which finally ruptures. The head of the worm, near which the uterus is located, is now in a position from which the embryos may be discharged. Symptoms of guinea-worm disease do not develop until the parasite is fully matured, when a vesicle or abscess appears at the site where the parasite comes in relation with the skin. There may be localized swelling, a feeling of tension, sensitiveness, and redness, and in many instances the worm may be felt beneath the skin. Developing from the abscess

is a more or less extensive ulcer, from which a portion of the adult parasite may protrude.

Detection.—The milky discharge from the ulcer, when examined microscopically, will be found to contain a number of embryos (Fig. 393).

Summary of Diagnosis.—The finding of the embryo of the parasite in the discharge from cutaneous ulcers is positive evidence of the existence of this disease.

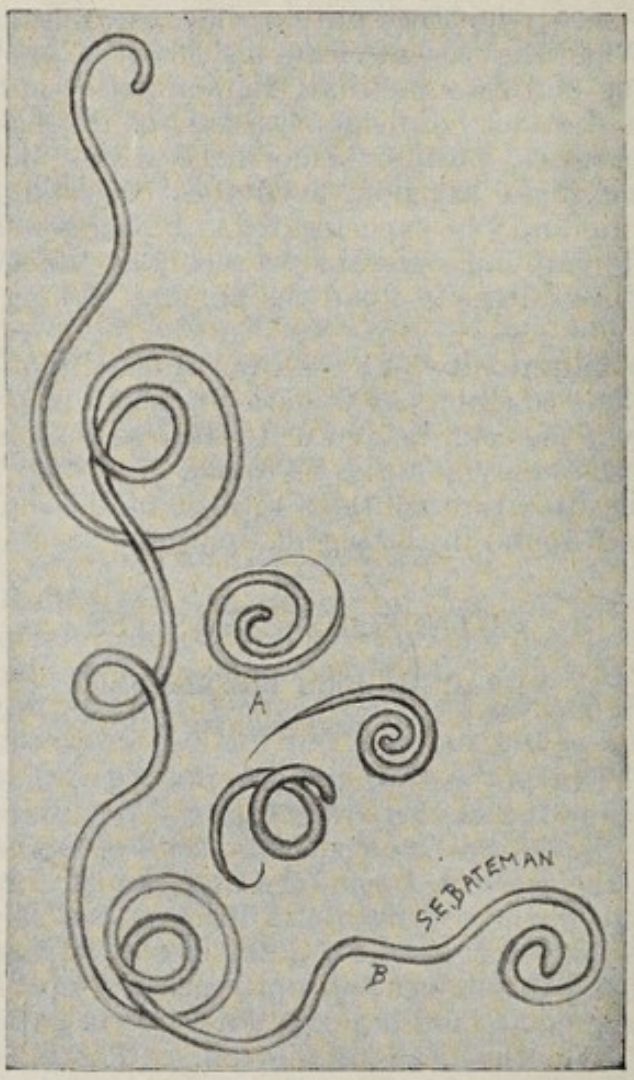


FIG. 393.

A, Embryo of guinea-worm (Dracunculus medinensis); *B*, adult female guinea-worm (Boston, after Bristow).

LARVA MIGRANS

This parasite is rather frequently encountered in Southern U. S., and the condition was regarded by Gray, Cholokowsky, Sampson, and Somolen as dependent upon the Gastrophilus larva, which burrows into the epidermis of man, making minute passages through the skin, and exciting a rather characteristic cutaneous eruption. Many of these cases developed among the U. S. soldiers on the Mexican Border during 1916, and were studied by Gray.*

At first there appears on the skin a fine eruption and this does not yield to ordinary treatment. The discomfort is so intense that the

* N. Y. Med. Jour., July 7, 1917.

vitality of persons thus infected is often depleted, as the result of loss of sleep. A few days later small vesicles appear, which are separated by areas of healthy skin. The vesicles ordinarily rupture, and about 24 hours following such rupture small serpentine furrows are apparent, and at the end of each furrow another vesicle makes its appearance. Treatment may cause the condition to remain dormant for from 4 to 6 days, during which time there is no irritation of the skin.

The rule is, however, that a second intense itching develops, and another serpiginous area marks the beginning of another clinical stage; and within 24 to 36 hours the entire condition is apt to reproduce itself.

This series of pathologic changes in the skin appears to go on ad infinitum, until the condition may spread over a large portion of the body.*

Gray described the microscopic changes in the skin as displaying many polymorphonuclears and a few lymphocytes.

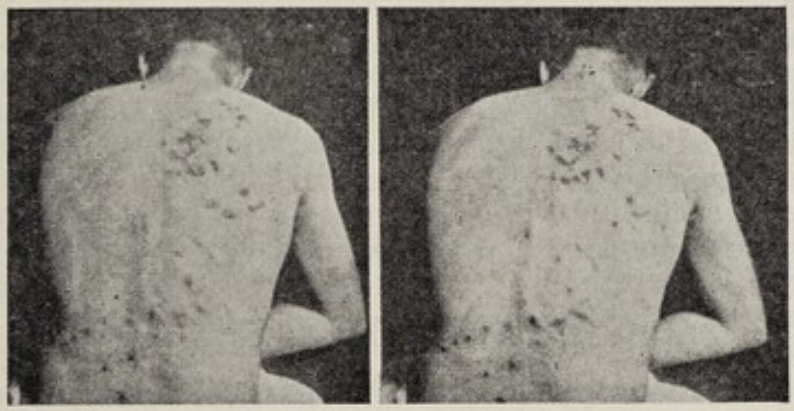


FIG. 394.—ACTIVE AND LATE STAGE LARVA MIGRANS FROM BORDER PATROL, SHOWING EXTENT OF LESIONS (Gray, N. Y. Med. Jour., July 7, 1917).

PSOROSPERMIASIS

Psorosperms belong to that order of protozoa known as sporozoa. A common form occurs in the muscles of swine (sarcocystis Miescheri).

Internal Psorospermiasis.—In man hepatic disease similar to that found in the rabbit is produced by the coccidium oviforme. The tumors formed by the coccidia may be palpable, and the liver may be quite tender. Chilliness, fever, malaise, stupor, and coma have been observed.

In the intestinal variety of internal psorospermiasis, nausea, vomiting, diarrhea, and the typhoid state may be seen. Involvement of the kidneys has given rise to hematuria.

External Psorospermiasis.—Cutaneous psorospermiasis, one variety of which was formerly termed *keratosis follicularis*, is characterized by the presence of lesions that at first are hard, crusty, and papular, later becoming confluent, situated on the face and lumbo-abdominal and inguinal regions. These growths contain either parasitic sporozoa or, as suggested by Montgomery, Darier, and others, parasites that belong to the blastomyces.

PARASITES OF THE EYE

CYSTICERCUS

This form of tape-worm has been known to invade the orbit.

* N. Y. Med. Jour., July 7, 1917.

FILARIA

The adult filaria loa has been recovered from the conjunctiva of man, as well as from the eye of the horse.

MYIASIS

This disease is an infection of the human tissue with the larvæ of certain dipterous insects. If these larvæ are found in the skin or in the mucous membrane of a cavity communicating with the surface of the body, such as the nose, the external auditory canal, or the vagina, it is known as **external myiasis.** If the larvæ are passed with the feces, the condition is termed **internal myiasis.** In the United States *compsomyia macellaria*, the screw-worm, is the most important of these parasites, although cases of infection with the larvæ of *dermatobia noxialis* are on record, and Swan reported a case of infection with the larvæ of *lucilia serricata*, and a case of infection with the larvæ of *lucilia cæsar*, which occurred in Philadelphia.

Clinical Features.—The larvæ are known to burrow through the tissues, destroying the mucous membrane, the muscles, and the cartilages. They may invade the serous sacs and the bones, producing extensive lesions. They have been recovered from the eye and the conjunctivæ. George Gray has reported five instances in which the larvæ of the screw-worm were found in human beings. He states that the parasite is common in domestic animals, and that it is widely distributed throughout America.

PARASITIC DISEASE OF THE BRAIN

Cysticerci are occasionally found within the substance of the brain and the ventricles, a case having been reported by J. Hendrie Lloyd. (See section on Nervous Diseases.)

The **plasmodium of malaria** may be found to plug the smaller blood-vessels of the brain.

CONSTITUTIONAL DISEASES

Clinical consideration of focal infection at this point is, in a measure, a repetition, but it has a direct bearing upon many of the so-called constitutional and endocrine maladies. (See p. 985.)

It is rather surprising at the extraordinary number of organs and variety of tissues of the human body that may become diseased as the result of focal infection, and this fact clearly proves to the internist that focal infection is quite as important to clinical medicine as is infection to surgery.

Speaking broadly, most of such foci are located in the head cavities. Tonsillar infection may occur at any age, but is most frequent in the young. Dental infection is most frequent after middle age. *Statistics show that* 80 *per cent. of devitalized teeth are infected.* The infectiveness of such a tooth must be assumed until it is proved innocent. Direct proof that a tooth is infected by identification of the organism is practically impossible in advance of its extraction.

Valuable information may be obtained from a roentgenogram, especially in disease of the anterior teeth, but a negative roentgenograph of a dead tooth does not prove such tooth non-infectious or harmless.

The infected area in periapical dental lesions usually contains no pus, but does show micro-organisms, chiefly streptococci. To obtain the infective organism after extraction, with little or no contamination, requires the cooperation of a skilled bacteriologist with the exodontist at the time of the extraction. Materials thus obtained frequently yield an almost pure culture of the pathogenic organism. Cultures taken from the depth of a crypt or the *surface of a tonsil may contain streptococcus hemolyticus or viridans.* Many infected tonsils give no history of an acute attack, and the patient may be unable to recall having had trouble from a dangerously infected tooth.

Whenever a patient is suffering from a disease, such as myocarditis, nephritis, cholelithiasis, gastric ulcer, appendicitis, chronic peritoneal adhesions, dilation of the colon, and both sub-acute and chronic articular rheumatism, as well as in neuritis, and certain ocular disturbances, it is often necessary to remove a suspected focus of infection, and culture the same, in order to complete our chain of diagnostic evidence and isolate the logical source of the malady under study.

Endocrine disorders, *e. g.,* thyroid, pancreatic, pituitary, suprarenal and gonadal dysfunctions not infrequently traced clinically to focal infection as a pre-existing and contributory factor.

DIABETES MELLITUS

General Remarks.—A disease of metabolism characterized by atrophy of the islands of Langerhans, fatty infiltration of the liver, or organic changes in the brain, with abnormal carbohydrate digestion. Since the use of insulin suggested by Banting, it is conceded that all cases of diabetes are of pancreatic origin.

The syndrome necessary to produce typical diabetes is composed of: (1) Intense thirst; (2) polyuria with glycosuria; (3) progressive emaciation and weakness; and (4) an inordinate appetite and hyperglycemia. When the urinary phenomena constitute the chief symptoms presented by the patient, the condition is known as glycosuria. The blood sugar may be above 12 (normal) and reach 20 without glucose appearing in pathologic amounts in the urine.

Clinical Types.—(1) **Infantile Diabetes.**—Diabetes of the newborn and diabetes occurring during the first decade of life is, as a rule, hereditary, although traumatism and acute infectious maladies have been regarded as potent factors in the production of this affection. Infantile diabetes is a rare condition, but we have studied the urine of 11 cases of diabetes mellitus occurring in children under ten years of age.

(2) **Pancreatic Diabetes.**—This type of the affection includes most and possibly all of the severe and mild types of diabetes.

(3) **Phosphatic diabetes** is a condition in which many of the general symptoms of diabetes are present, and, in addition, there is a decided increase in the elimination of phosphates. This increase has been known to reach a maximum of nine grams excreted during the twenty-four hours.

(4) **Alimentary Glycosuria.**—This is a form dependent upon the too liberal imbibition of carbohydrates, together with the inability to digest such substances (over taxing pancreatic powers). Folin and Berglund conclude that in the absence of emotional complications or a subnormal renal threshold (renal glycosuria, see p. 709), the ingestion of 200 gm. of glucose does not elevate the level of the blood sugar above the normal.

(5) **Transitory Glycosuria.**—This type of glycosuria is oftenest encountered after a breakfast that has been rich in carbohydrates. In certain low-grade conditions transitory glycosuria is not unusual, and for convenience of description these have been classified under the following subheadings: (*a*) toxic; (*b*) puerperal: (*c*) digestive; (*d*) intermittent glycosuria of arthritis; (*e*) cerebral glycosuria.

Toxic glycosuria is the term applied to the appearance of glucose in the urine after the administration of such toxic substances as hydrochloric acid, sulphuric acid, mercury, strychnin, glycerin, alcohol, nitrobenzol, lead, arsenic, phosphorus, potassium iodid, caffein, thyroid extract, tuberculin, pancreatin, phloridzin, diuretin, carbon monoxid, and morphin. Analgesics and anesthetics also possess the power of exciting transitory glycosuria, and several instances are recorded in which glycosuria has followed the administration of chloral, chloroform, and amyl nitrite. Several observers found small quantities of glucose in the urine after ether anesthesia, and Andral reports a case of true diabetes developing after ether narcosis.

Pathologic transitory glycosuria (toxic) is best exemplified by the glycosuria of cerebrospinal meningitis; it is also seen, though less commonly, in relapsing fever, typhoid fever, cholera, and diphtheria, in the advanced stages of pulmonary tuberculosis, rickets, and gastritis. During the course of certain acute infections, viz., scarlatina, measles, smallpox, malaria, and whooping-cough, glycosuria is occasionally encountered, and it has been known to follow such chronic conditions as interstitial nephritis, gall-stones, asthma, and syphilis.

Glycosuria developing during the course of another malady is often referred to as *functional glycosuria*.

Digestive glycosuria is recognized by its disappearance after the withdrawal of carbohydrates from the diet and the correction of digestive

disorders. The term lipemic diabetes has been suggested but thus far the exact metabolic relation existing between this condition and diabetes are under discussion.

Intermittent glycosuria of arthritis should possibly be included with hereditary glycosuria of the young or with that of gouty and obese adults.

(6) **Cerebral Glycosuria.**—A condition in which the presence of glucose in the urine is dependent upon a pathologic state of the central nervous system. Von Jaksch has found glycosuria in hysteric women and in cases of phosphorus-poisoning in which autopsy disclosed the presence of fatty degeneration of the liver. We have found glucose in the urine during the febrile stage of cerebrospinal meningitis, and glycosuria has been known to develop during the course of neuritis. Transitory glycosuria occurs in disseminated sclerosis, epilepsy, neuralgias, neuroses, psychoses, exophthalmic goiter, myxedema, after prolonged mental strain, sudden emotions, anxiety, and in certain forms of insanity.

(7) **Traumatic glycosuria** not infrequently follows severe injury to the head, chest, abdomen, or extremities; but in this case the presence of glucose in the urine is, of short duration or intermittent in nature.

(8) The so-called **puerperal glycosuria** is usually due to the absorption of lactose from the mammary gland. It may make its appearance at any time throughout the course of gestation or during the puerperium. We have studied more than 50 cases of puerperal glycosuria, and in many of these the condition did not exist prior to conception; in others a history of intermittent glycosuria was obtained. More than 25 per cent. of the cases the patients were Jewish, but in none did the amount of glucose present exceed 2 per cent.

The endocrines are doubtless an important factor in this disease, and the accelerating endocrine glands are controlled by the sympathetic, and the retarding cooperation by the parasympathetic. These constitute the two divisions of the lowest level of the nervous system. The visceral (vegetative or autonomic system) which acts apart from the will, and normally without causing sensation, subserves the functions of organic life. The sympathetic is katabolic in its action, conserving the reserves of the body in a kinetic energy; while the parasympathetic is anabolic, building up reserves. One of the most important steps in the mobilization is found in the blood sugar, and the sympathetic nervous system mobilizes the sugar into the blood by means of the endocrine glands, placing it there as a means of defense, and through parasympathetic action sugar is stored into the tissues as a reserve. Brown,* states "diabetes is a sign of exaggerated metabolism, evoked through the sympathetic and the associated endocrines." The posterior pituitary is associated with the control over kidney function, and when under-active urinary secretions may be increased. When over-active urinary secretion is diminished or increased.†

Predisposing and Exciting Factors.—(*a*) **Age and heredity** figure prominently as etiologic factors of diabetes. Heredity is generally conceded to be the most potent predisposing influence, two, three, and in one instance five members of the same family having suffered from the disease. Heredity is said to figure prominently in the diabetes of children.

The majority of all cases of diabetes occur between the thirty-fifth and sixtieth years; the malady is rarely seen before the tenth year, although it has occasionally been observed in children under one year of age.

* British Med. Jour., Aug. 7, 1920.

† H. J. John, J. Lab. and Clin. Med., June, 1924.

One of us (Boston) has been privileged to study the urine from (10) children suffering from diabetes mellitus. The youngest of these was three and one-half, the oldest nine years.

(*b*) **Focal Infection.**—This has been observed in many cases of apparently acute diabetes. Focal infection may explain why diabetes frequently follows acute infections, and why many cases recover.

(*c*) There is commonly an unbalancing of function seen in the thyroid and adrenalans, the parathyroid, and the pancreas, but thus far this phase in the etiology is not clear. It is to be remembered that endocrine unbalancing may likewise depend upon focal infection. The results following the use of "Iletin" (insulin) in the treatment of diabetes shows conclusively that pancreatic dysfunction exists in most cases.

(*d*) **Race** exerts a decided influence in the production of diabetes, the disease being extremely rare in the negro* and particularly common in the Caucasian.

(*e*) **Nationality** also figures in the production of diabetes. Hebrews are more often afflicted than Gentiles, a fact thought to be due not so much to the habits and customs of the Jewish people as to the marrying near relatives' (cousins, etc.).

(*f*) **Station.**—Diabetes is a disease of the well-to-do members of society; in our service at the Philadelphia General Hospital and in various medical clinics in Philadelphia it is rarely encountered, whereas in private practice a large number of cases are seen.

(*g*) **Obesity,** gout, rheumatism, syphilis, and pregnancy (puerperal diabetes) have all been named as etiologic factors.

Among the **exciting factors** are: (1) Pancreatic disease; (2) hepatic disease; (3) disease of the brain or nervous system (sclerosis, tumors, cysts, lesions of the fourth ventricle or of the spinal cord). Anders and Jameson in an analysis of 246 cases of tumor of the pituitary body found twenty-eight (28) of them to show glycosuria. In nine (9) of these cases glycosuria was intermittent. Sixteen (16) of these cases displayed glycosuria and acromegaly; and (4) traumatism—*e. g.*, trauma to the spine, loins, and abdomen, injury to the head and extremities.

Boston and Kohn in a paper discussing the saliva in diabetics found that the salivary power was slightly higher in diabetes, than in control cases. There was no definite relationship between the diastolic energy of the saliva, and the quantity of sugar contained in the urine. In diabetes the saliva displayed a degree of acidity ranging from .0146 to .0219 per cent.†

Special Clinical Types.—For convenience of description and to avoid confusion the disease will be considered under the heads of Acute Diabetes Mellitus, Chronic Diabetes Mellitus, and Glycosuria, the three varieties presenting one common leading symptom, namely, the appearance of glucose in the urine. Thyroid disease with goiter and even exophthalmos may be present.

Acute Diabetes Mellitus.—Instances in which diabetes may be said to run an acute course are extremely uncommon, yet it is not unusual to see cases in which the various symptoms of the disease follow one another in rapid succession. In such cases emaciation, progressive weakness, a high percentage of glucose, acetone, and diacetic acid in the urine all develop within a few months, a fatal termination occurring in less than one year. The blood sugar is 150 to 400 mgm.

* Med. Times, N. Y., July, 1922.
† N. Y. Med. Jour. Mar. 17, 1917.

Chronic Diabetes Mellitus.—The onset is insidious, and the patient is often unaware of his condition until it is discovered as the result of urinalysis.* Among the early symptoms there may be dyspnea or gastritis, or the patient may complain of being constantly tired, and exhibit some mental hebetude. Following these symptoms the knees may seem to bend too far backward or the clothing lie as a weight upon the shoulders. Later more pronounced and characteristic symptoms of the malady appear, but these, as a rule, follow one another slowly, an interval of from three to six months elapsing between the appearance of the different characteristic features to be described further on.

Diabetes following shock, traumatism, or extreme grief and anxiety may begin abruptly, and pursue a somewhat acute course for several months, when all the manifestations of the disease become chronic in nature, and the patient may live for several years. In this type of diabetes glycosuria may occur at intervals, particularly after a meal rich in carbohydrates. This symptom is almost always intermittent in character for a period of months or even years. Polyuria, ravenous appetite, intense thirst, and gradual progressive weakness, with marked nervous symptoms, constitute the initial symptoms that suggest true diabetes.

Glycosuria.—Under this head are included those cases in which glycosuria is the only symptom, the other characteristic manifestations of diabetes mellitus being absent. In the majority of cases of simple glycosuria, therefore, polyuria, emaciation, progressive weakness, and nervous symptoms are not present. Glycosuria is seldom continuous, but, instead, runs a remittent or an intermittent course. Again, glycosuria is commonly dependent upon dietetic errors, overexertion, either physical or mental, or the presence of some acute or chronic infection. Glycosuria may occur as the result of faulty digestion, either gastric or intestinal, or from faulty metabolism of a questionable nature, which is not essentially associated with appreciable disease of the pancreas, liver, or brain.

In glycosuria the cutaneous symptoms, intense thirst, and ocular manifestations common to diabetes mellitus are lacking. The condition is readily amenable to treatment, in which respect simple glycosuria differs markedly from diabetes mellitus.

Renal Glycosuria.—D. S. Lewis of Montreal,† discusses "renal glycosuria" and reports 3 cases. The cardinal points in the diagnosis are: (1) Glycosuria without hyperglycemia. (2) Little, if any, relationship between the carbohydrate intake and the amount of glucose excreted in the urine. (3) The patient shows no tendency to develop diabetes mellitus. (4) Signs and symptoms of diabetes mellitus absent.

Two clinical types of renal glycosuria are recognized (*a*) One of unknown origin, in which the blood sugar curve is normal. (*b*) This type is associated with chronic diffuse nephritis, or arterial sclerosis, in which instance the patient displays a high, and prolonged rise in blood sugar.

Principal Complaint.—The patient may complain of general malaise and weakness, or state that he is tired after a night's rest. His clothing appears to be too heavy for comfort, and he is frequently unable to wear an overcoat. There are soreness and weakness of the calf muscles. A history of having taken on flesh during the past few months or years is often obtained, and the patient attributes his shortness of breath and exhaustion to the increase in weight.

* Banting, Annals of Clin. Med. Vol. 3, Mar., 1925, N. Y., p. 565.
† Arch. Int. Med., April, 1922.

The appetite may at first be unaffected, but as the disease progresses it becomes ravenous, and there is a craving for sugars and carbohydrates. Occasionally, however, the appetite may remain normal throughout the entire course of the disease.

After diabetes has progressed for an indefinite period **thirst** develops, and increases with the progress of the disease. The greater the amount of glucose in the blood, the more intense is the thirst, until, in advanced cases, it is not unusual for the patient to drink several gallons of water during the twenty-four hours. Cases have been observed, however, in which all the other cardinal symptoms of diabetes were present except the intense thirst and polyuria.

Oral Symptoms.—The tongue is large and dry, even in the early stages of diabetes, and as the disease progresses this dryness becomes more and more marked, until, in the later stages, the tongue is parched, fissured, and of a bright-red color. In some cases it is coated, and the lips are dry and fissured, the gums swollen and edematous, and, rarely, a bloody exudate escapes from the bases of the teeth.

The secretion of the mouth is commonly acid in reaction, and when the saliva is subjected to chemical analysis, it will be found to contain glucose.

Stomatitis develops during the course of advanced diabetes, when the gums recede from the teeth, the teeth decay and become loose, and small ulcers form along the margins of the gums and on the cheeks. Infection of the buccal mucous membrane by the thrush fungus and other extensive ulcerations of the mucous surface occasionally develop.

Digestive Symptoms.—Considering the quantity of food ingested, the digestive function is almost normal early during the course of diabetes, but later, after the patient has become extremely emaciated and weakened, less food is taken, and the digestion becomes impaired. The metabolic rate is increased.

The bowels may move regularly or there may be constipation or diarrhea; the latter condition lasts for but a short period, and is followed by constipation. In those cases in which the diabetes is due to disease of the pancreas or to obstruction to the escape of bile into the intestines, the stools may contain fat.

Cutaneous Manifestations.—The skin is apparently normal to the touch early during the course of diabetes and before polyuria has developed, but after the disease is well advanced, the skin becomes dry and rough, and sweating is absent, even in the groins and axillæ. In advanced diabetes the patient is extremely pale, and at times a slight lemon tint is observed. Boils and abscesses of the skin are a prominent feature of well-established diabetes. Itching of the skin, particularly at night is present in about 60 per cent. of all cases. In fact, itching of the scalp and of the skin over the calf muscles may belong to the earliest symptoms of diabetes. Eczema of diabetic origin is one of the most annoying manifestations of this affection; it usually develops about the genitalia, but may affect any portion of the body. In a case studied at the Philadelphia General Hospital the entire body was involved in the eczematous process.

Xanthoma Diabeticorum.—A rare condition of the skin (Lough and Killian recognize but 75 authentic reported cases) seen in diabetic subjects, and characterized by papular lesions and groups of lesions showing as (Fig. 395) inflammatory nodular elevations. The base of the lesions may be reddish or brownish in color, while the apex is pale yellowish, or yellow white. Itching is rather common.

Blood Chemistry.—Lipemia and abnormalities in the cholesterol have been seen in connection with these subjects.

The hair becomes dry and lusterless, and in nearly all cases tends to fall out after the other symptoms of diabetes become well marked. The nails become thickened and horny, or extremely brittle, and their surfaces are marked by furrows and ridges. In a case seen by us onychia with shedding of the nails occurred. Owing to the extreme emaciation the bony skeleton becomes especially prominent. Gangrene of the feet, particularly of the toes, is a serious cutaneous symptom, and is due to general arteriosclerosis.

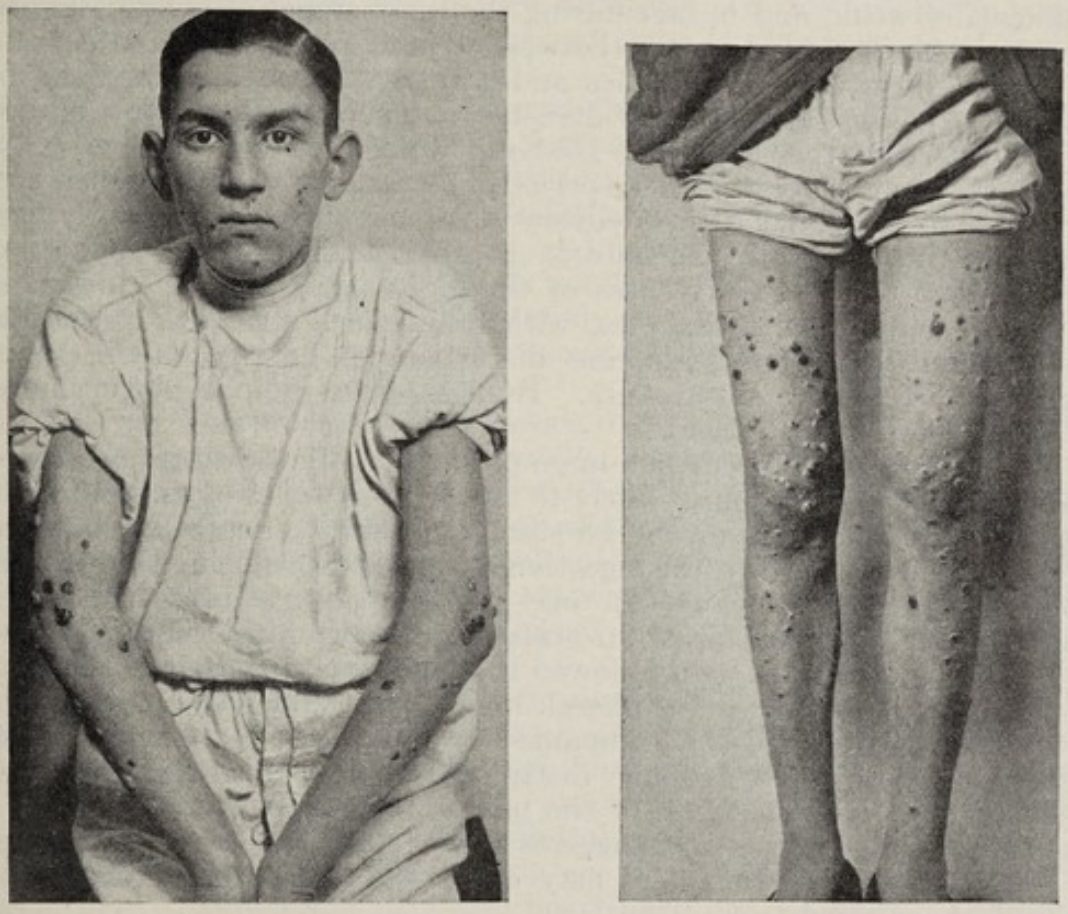


FIG. 395.—XANTHOMA DIABETICORUM.
Case reported by Lough and Killian (Medical Clinics of N. A., July, 1924, p. 337).

Pruritus vulvæ in the female and balanitis in the male constitute troublesome symptoms, and are probably due to the irritating properties of the diabetic urine. Abscesses of the vulva often cause intense suffering.

Ocular Phenomena.—The conjunctivæ are pale and often show peculiar yellowish spots—deposits of fat. The margins of the eyelids are commonly reddened and covered with small scales. Abscesses and boils of the eyelids are distressing, and failing vision, retinal hemorrhages, and cataract all occur during the later stages of diabetes.

Aural Symptoms.—Among these may be mentioned otitis media, otalgia, tinnitus aurium, and, rarely, mastoid disease.

Respiratory Symptoms.—Pulmonary complications do not occupy a prominent place in the general symptomatology of this affection. Pulmonary tuberculosis is a common termination of diabetes, but among the cases studied by us it was not of frequent occurrence. Pulmonary

gangrene is an occasional finding. Both lobar and lobular pneumonia have been known to complicate diabetes. Dyspnea is often present, and is dependent either upon pulmonary disorder or upon general weakness with cardiac failure.

The mucous membrane of the nose and pharynx is dry, and the patient's voice is somewhat husky. Rhinitis is uncommon. Abscesses of the nose are of frequent occurrence, and we have seen several cases in which abscess of the nose preceded the onset of diabetic coma.

Circulatory Peculiarities.—In advanced diabetes the circulatory tension is, as a rule, high, and the arteries are wiry and atheromatous. The frequency of the heart's action is not increased unless the patient is unusually weak, and in fact during the early stages of arteriosclerosis the pulse may be found to vary between 40 and 70 beats a minute.

Sexual Weakness.—Impotence and a premature menopause may be among the earliest symptoms of diabetes, and should always be regarded as suggestive of this malady. Diabetic women rarely conceive. The disease often develops during the period of gestation, and in such instances is likely to continue after delivery. Intense itching of the vulva, with shooting pains in the clitoris, is a most troublesome symptom. In the male, hypersensitiveness of the glans penis may be present in advanced diabetes. In diabetes, with bronzing of the skin, there is to be expected extensive endocrine disturbances, among which sexual regression is a conspicuous feature. Hemosiderosis is a pathologic change to be expected in such cases.

Muscular cramps occur in a large proportion of all cases of confirmed diabetes, and these are most likely to affect the muscles of the calf of the leg. Cramp in the region of the stomach (gastric crises) may occur at any time during the day, the ingestion of certain foods being held responsible for the gastric pain. In one of our patients intestinal cramp was excited by the eating of an orange or the drinking of orange-juice, and a much less severe pain followed the ingestion of tomatoes.

Nervous Symptoms.—Peripheral neuritis may develop during the course of diabetes, and is accompanied by numbness and tingling of the extremities, and such trophic disturbances as perforating ulcer and thickening or even shedding of the nails. Sensation to prick of pin is disturbed in extremities, and suggests approaching gangrene. Neuralgia is a prominent symptom, and may affect the lower extremities, loins, back, face, or arms.

Diabetic tabes exhibits many of the features characteristic of ataxia; thus the knee-jerks are diminished or absent, as is shown by Williamson's series of 50 cases of diabetes, among whom 25 showed this sign. Lancinating pains, paralysis of the extensor muscles of the feet, and the ataxic gait are observed, and paraplegia has also been encountered.

Temperament.—The patient is extremely irritable, and is unduly affected by trivial causes. Hysteric outbreaks and hypochondriasis are seen to occur during any stage of the disease. The mentality may be unusually active at times, the power of concentration of mental forces being abnormally increased, but following such period there is a corresponding stage of mental hebetude.

Coma.—Diabetic coma develops only at the terminal stage of this affection in about half the cases. It is almost invariably fatal. We have found coma to occur earlier during the course in young patients and in those in whom emaciation and prostration were rapid and progressive. The precursors of coma are: A fruity odor of the breath and of the urine; a reduction in the amount of glucose excreted; a diminution in the quan-

tity of urine voided during the twenty-four hours; an increased reaction for acetone and for diacetic acid in the urine; the appearance of β-oxybutyric acid in the urine; the occurrence of a chill or of a series of chilly sensations; intense headache, dimness of vision, and neuralgic pains in various parts of the body.

For convenience of study we have classified diabetic coma under five heads, as modified by Anders:

(1) *Abortive coma*, which tends to run a short course and terminates in recovery; in this class of cases there is a special tendency for repeated attacks of coma to occur, one of which ends fatally.

(2) A group in which diabetic coma follows violent exercise with extreme exhaustion and circulatory collapse. To this group the largest number of cases belong. This form of coma is, as a rule, fatal, lasting for from a few hours to four days.

(3) Cases in which headache and the other signs of severe autointoxication are followed by coma, a fatal issue ensuing within a few hours.

(4) Coma developing abruptly during the course of an acute inflammatory process, such as abscess, tonsillitis, gastritis, etc. In this type of coma the circulatory, respiratory, and febrile symptoms may be prominent, but bear no direct relation to the degree of coma, which continues for from one to five days, ending fatally.

(5) Coma developing in aged persons during the course of such chronic conditions as eczema and gangrene.

Thermic Features.—The temperature may be normal throughout the course of diabetes. Not uncommonly, however, the temperature fluctuates between 99° and 100° or even 101° F. in cases in which there is no positive evidence of the existence of an acute inflammatory process. An elevation of temperature the result of a complicating acute infection resembles more or less closely that peculiar to the existing condition. In many cases of diabetes a subnormal temperature is present, particularly during the morning hours.

Symptomatology.—A diabetic may complain of no symptoms at first. The condition may be noticed after urinary tests for the ketone bodies, or by the more scientific and more reliable studies of the blood.

After acidosis has progressed to an intense form and diabetic coma is impending, we have a definite clinical picture. The patient may be extremely restless; the respirations are deep and labored (Kussmaul's breathing). Substernal pain and heart-burn are common. There may be confusing pains in abdomen. Persistent vomiting is often present, the vomitus having an odor of acetone. Constipation is often obstinate. There is an odor of acetone to the breath. The patient becomes drowsy and later coma supervenes, from which the patient rarely awakens.

Laboratory Diagnosis.—Frequent estimation of the blood sugar is the only trustworthy guide for prognosis. One of the early symptoms of diabetes is the presence of glucose in the urine. Numerous writers have maintained that glucose is found in normal urine. It is our opinion that normal urine does not contain glucose in sufficient quantity to reduce Fehling's solution, and that a urine that will give a positive reaction for glucose with that solution is a pathologic one.

The quantity of urine voided during the twenty-four hours is, as a rule, above the normal (50 ounces), and as much as from 200 to 500 ounces may be excreted. The specific gravity is high, varying between 1.025 and 1.050, although we have detected small amounts of glucose in urines of low specific gravity—1.010 and even 1.006. The reaction of diabetic urine is acid; it is of normal color, free from sediment, emits a sweetish

odor, and upon shaking displays a heavy white froth that remains for some time. The total amount of sugar in the plasma is ordinarily greater than the corpuscular sugar, but seldom exceeds 4.85 gm. The total amount of sugar in the blood of diabetics varies within wide limits, but is always above normal. The blood sugar may be high, and examination of the urine give negative results.

Chemically, the urine is found to contain glucose in variable amounts, a typical case showing from 1 to 3 per cent. of glucose. Early in the disease, however, there is merely a trace of glucose—too small a quantity to be estimated; in other cases the glucose may exceed 5 per cent. As a rule, the percentage of glucose present in the urine in a given case of diabetes or of glycosuria will be found to fluctuate in direct proportion to the amount of carbohydrates ingested; thus, we have seen the percentage of glucose fall from 4.5 to 1 per cent. after the withdrawal of carbohydrates from the diet. Occasionally a specimen of urine will be found to contain both albumin and glucose. The amount of colloidal coefficient is high, exceeding 1.79. Urine voided one to three hours after a meal containing carbohydrates is most likely to contain glucose.

The detection of fat in the feces is highly suggestive of pancreatic diabetes.

A microscopic study of the urine should always be made. Evidences of nephritis are uncommon in diabetes, but when the disease has reached an advanced stage, marked nephritis may be present, and even before the terminal renal lesion develops, casts may be found in the urine.

Blood Chemistry.—Normally the blood sugar varies from 0.09–0.12 per cent. and in early cases of diabetes you may find glycosuria when the blood sugar rises above 0.16 or 0.17 per cent. In advanced cases with nephritic symptoms, glycosuria may be absent when higher blood sugar figures of 0.2 to 0.35 per cent. are obtained. At present clinicians are adopting the plan of recording the blood sugar from 80 to 120 mgm. per 100 c.c. of blood. It is easier in keeping records to refer to this; *e.g.*, blood sugar 130 or blood sugar 180—or whatever it may be at a given time—always keeping in mind that 80 to 120 serves as the normal for most persons.

Caution.—Patients in whom hyperglycemia exists, and the blood sugar registers 150 to 175 may not show glucose in the urine when it is tested by Fehling's solution. It is common to find such cases, who are well advanced diabetics and yet glycosuria is not present.

De Noird and Schreiner have noted that diabetics who are also syphilitic do not show a high diastatic activity. Normally the diastatic activity of the blood is 16 or 17. (See Blood Chemistry, p. 371.) Nonglycosuric diabetes is recognised.*

The cholesterol content is subnormal in cases showing high fever.

Hypercholesterolemia may be found in the lipemia of diabetes.

The average cholesterol in combination as esters is about 33.5 per cent. and 58 per cent. of the total cholesterol is in the plasma.

In the lipemia of diabetes figures as high as 26 per cent. have been reported.

Blood.—There is a secondary anemia, and a differential count shows an increase in the lymphocytes to 40 or even 70 per cent.

In eczema and inflammatory conditions of the skin (boils, abscesses) cocci, bacilli, and fungi may be detected in the secretions from these lesions, but these are probably but another proof of the lowered resistance of the patient.

* A. E. Tanssig, Medical Clinics of N. A. Mar., 1924, p. 1545.

Diabetic Acidosis.—Diabetic acidosis is considered by some writers to be exactly similar to the acidosis seen in other conditions; others claim that there is a difference, however, the acidosis seen in diabetes is rather intense, and its pathogenesis is fairly definite. Here beta-oxybutyric, and diacetic acids, and acetone play quite a definite rôle. These acids result from the faulty metabolism of fats, and the diminished utilization of carbohydrates figures as another factor since it is essential for the complete oxidation of fats.

The relation of acidosis in fasting is interesting. In normal individuals, fasting will produce an acidosis, whereas in diabetes, fasting may defer both glycosuria and acidosis.

The blood *lipoids* in diabetes have been studied extensively by Joslin, Bloor, and Gray* of Boston, who included in their series 131 specimens taken from 87 cases of diabetes. The fatty acids, cholesterol and lecithin, were the groups considered.

It has been shown that the metabolism in fat on the part of a diabetic patient during fasting gave a quotient above that of the normal individual when under the same circumstances.

Of the fat lipoids about 50 per cent. are found in the form of combined fatty acids (Oleic and Palmitic), 30 per cent. cholesterol, while the remaining 20 per cent. are composed of lecithin and related bodies.

An increase is observed in the blood lipoids as the disease becomes more and more serious. The average blood lipoids for the whole blood amounts to 0.59 per cent. in normal subjects, and has been found increased to 0.83 per cent. in mild diabetics; and to 0.91 per cent. in average cases. The increase in blood lipoids affects for the most part the fatty acids, which are usually doubled or trebled. The cholesterol may be doubled, and the lecithin increased by 30 per cent. A sudden increase in cholesterol is suggestive of prolonging diabetic hyperlipemia.

One of us (Boston) has recently studied a case of diabetes during her first lactation, and it was found that the patient's milk contained an abnormal amount of fat, reaching a maximum of 11.2 per cent.

Summary of Diagnosis.—The syndrome necessary to the diagnosis of diabetes mellitus includes intense thirst, polyuria with glycosuria, progressive weakness and emaciation, and polyphagia. If any one of these symptoms is absent in a given case, we are dealing with atypical diabetes or with alimentary glycosuria. For convenience of study diabetes and glycosuria have been considered together, although they may differ widely in their clinical manifestations, etiology, and prognosis. *The blood sugar is abnormally high.*

Course and Duration.—The conditions influencing the prognosis in diabetes are: (*a*) The age of the patient; (*b*) the presence or absence of a history of traumatism to the trunk or cranium; (*c*) a history of heredity; (*d*) the mode of development, *e. g.*, whether it occurred during gestation, after delivery, or following severe shock or mental strain; (*e*) overeating of all kinds of foods, particularly of starches and sugars. Again, the prognosis is influenced by environment, occupation (sedentary or active), and the patient's ability to carry out a proper course of treatment.

Diabetes developing during the first year of life, and even before the tenth year, runs a rapid course, and usually terminates in death within from six months to two years. The younger the patient, as a rule, the more rapid and shorter is the course of diabetes. When the disease appears during the third, fourth, and fifth decade, it runs a more chronic course, and may continue over a period of from ten to thirty years.

* Jour. Am. Med. Assoc., 1917.

Diabetes following traumatism is seldom amenable to treatment and generally runs a rapid course. Hereditary diabetes developing early in life is of short duration, but if it develops later, it may be materially influenced by judicious treatment, although, as a rule, the prognosis in these cases is unfavorable.

Diabetes developing during the course of pregnancy, soon after delivery, or following severe shock and mental strain may be either mild or severe in character. We have seen cases belonging to this last class in which diabetes persisted for more than thirty years. In one instance, that of a woman now under observation, glycosuria developed during a period of gestation thirty-five years ago, and she is at present suffering from diabetes, and has had one attack of coma within the past year.

When diabetes appears as the result of overeating and of insufficient exercise, sedentary habits, and the like, the correction of such habits is followed by a decided amelioration in all the symptoms, and the prognosis is favorable.

RACHITIS (RICKETS)

Pathologic Definition.—A disease of metabolism that occurs during childhood, and that is characterized by developmental abnormalities of the bones and cartilages, with the production of physical deformities. Those portions of the bony skeleton most likely to be involved are the ends of the ribs and the long bones. The teeth are abnormal in nearly eighty per cent. of cases. An examination of the diseased long bones shows the presence of pronounced changes in the vicinity of the junction of the epiphysis with the diaphysis. A microscopic examination reveals the fact that there is an increased proliferation of the cartilage-cells, with a proportionately scanty fibroid matrix and imperfect calcification.

Exciting and Predisposing Factors.—Rickets is seen to affect the new-born, and is by no means a rare condition. Pappenheimer and J. Minor found a definite increase in the size of the parathyroid glands, in fourteen necropsies. The calcium content of the blood is often diminished.

Malnutrition of the mother during the period of gestation and of lactation, close confinement, and syphilis are predisposing factors. Children who receive too little sunlight, and fresh air, as well as a limited amount of raw fruits and green vegetables are prone to rachitis.

Locality.—Rickets is found to be more common in the large cities than in rural districts. The disease is prevalent in Russia, Italy, Great Britain, and Germany.

Race is not without influence, the African negro being especially prone to acquire this disease, and in America the half-breed is also highly susceptible.

Social Station.—Rickets is especially common among children of the poorer classes, who are surrounded by an unfavorable environment. Occasionally rickets is seen among the well-to-do classes, but in this case the disease is usually the result of improper diet, insufficient sunlight, and imperfect ventilation.

Diet.—Rickets is in a great measure dependent upon improper feeding; hence the disease is more common among artificially fed children than among breast-fed infants.

Age.—Practically 75 per cent. of all cases develop the disease before the end of the second year, although rickets may first appear as late as from the sixth to the tenth year.

Clinical Picture.—There is usually a clear history of one or more of the predisposing factors previously outlined. The mother states that the child has been less playful than usual, and has suffered from gastro-intestinal disturbances for some weeks or possibly months before true rachitic symptoms developed. The child is at first restless and irritable, sleeps poorly, and in some cases moderate fever may be present. The mother states that the child *sweats* profusely during sleep, the pillow being wet with perspiration while the remainder of the bed-linen coming in contact with the child's body is dry. Rachitic children generally push the covers from about their head and chest during sleep, and are consequently more or less exposed to cold.

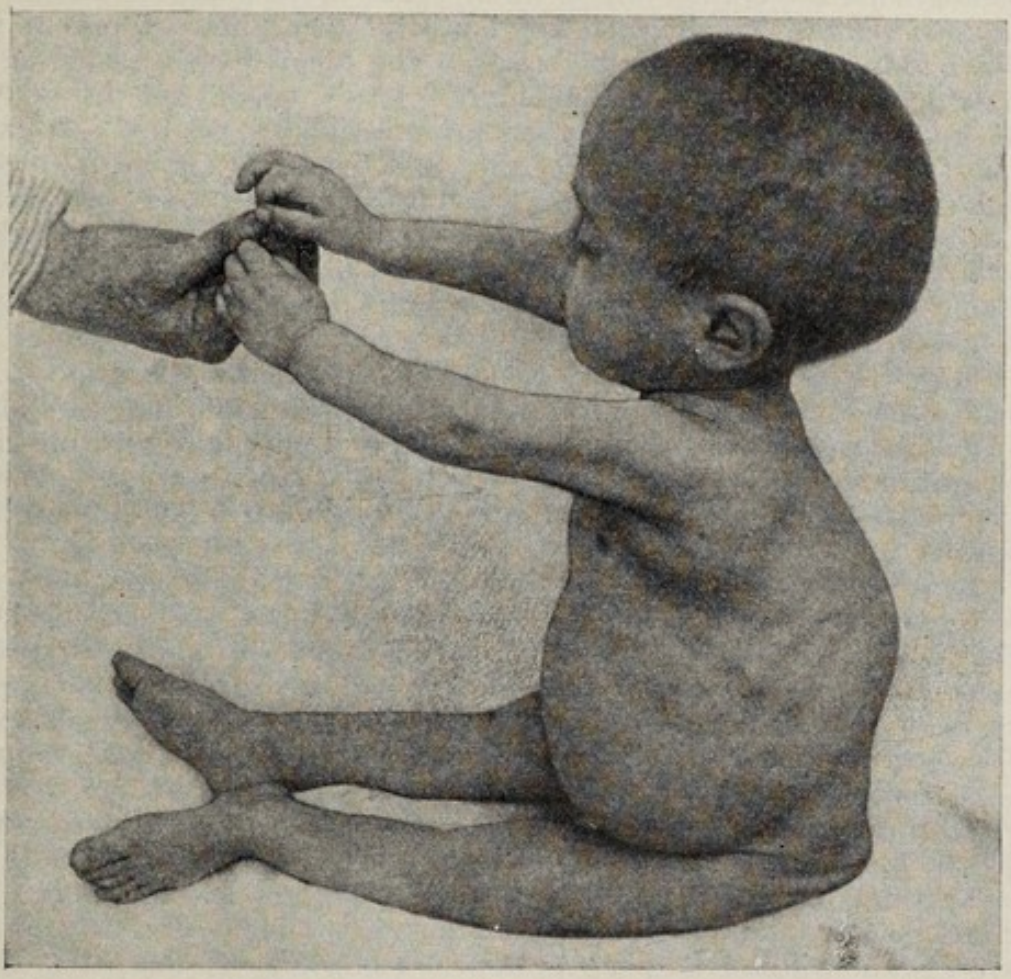


FIG. 396.—RICKETS (Potter, after Dr. W. L. Stowell).
Note the size and shape of head, the rosary, Harrison's groove, kyphosis, prominent belly, bowing of legs, and the enlargement of wrists.

Marked **tenderness** is an early feature, and in selected instances may be localized over the bony surfaces; it is also found to affect the soft parts, and the child consequently prefers to rest rather than to be handled. The mother may very early observe that the child shows a lack of inclination to move his limbs, and whenever this condition prevails, a careful examination should be made for the possible existence of rickets or of scurvy. In chronic rickets months may elapse before definite bony deformities appear.

Owing to malnutrition the *muscles* of the extremities become soft and flabby, and there may be an apparent swelling, or at times atrophy, of

such muscles, which usually goes hand in hand with impairment of function—the so-called "rachitic" paralysis.

Nervous Symptoms.—Rickets with marked deformity of the cranial bones is occasionally associated with laryngismus stridulus, and tetany of the upper extremities is also an occasional symptom. Epilepsy is quite common in rachitic children, and is probably dependent in part upon the degree of gastro-intestinal irritation present.

Enlargement of the abdomen is a conspicuous feature, and is usually due to flatulence and, in selected cases, to enlargement of the liver and spleen.

Changes in the Bony Skeleton.—Among the first bones to undergo changes are the cranial bones, the ribs, the radius, and the ulna. The cranium is large, this enlargement, however, being more apparent than real, and due to the diminished size of the facial bones. The sutures remain open, and the fontanels are large. Craniotabes is most frequently seen in infants under one year of age, and is due to pressure. It affects the surfaces on which the head of the child rests. It should be remembered that craniotabes is often a syphilitic manifestation. A rachitic head (Fig. 396) is generally of square outline, or it may present marked angularities, with an increase in the anteroposterior diameter and flattening at the top. Hyperostosis may result in prominence of the parietal and frontal eminences.

The veins of the scalp are enlarged, and the hair is scanty. On auscultating over the anterior fontanel, a systolic murmur may be audible.

The *teeth* may not be erupted until late, and may decay during childhood, although occasionally they may be misshapen and yet show no tendency to decay. Dysfunction of the thyroid may induce late eruption of the teeth.

The *ribs* become beaded early, and swelling occurs at the junction of the ribs with the costal cartilages. The ribs are curved quite acutely at the lateral dorsal portion of the chest, and again curve in abruptly toward the sternum. Harrison's curve consists in a peculiar, furrow-like appearance, beginning at the anterior end of the eighth or ninth rib, and extending toward the axilla. There may be bulging of the sternum, producing the so-called "chicken-breast."

Deformities at the junction of the diaphyses and epiphyses of the radii are among the early bone lesions of rickets, and both the radii and ulnæ are commonly found to be deformed. The clavicles may be curved and the scapulæ show marked thickening; in selected cases deformity of the vertebral column may be present. Deformity of the pelvis is also seen, and when rickets has occurred in a female child, an *x*-ray examination should be made when the child reaches puberty, in order to ascertain whether any pelvic deformity exists.

Swelling at the lower end of the tibiæ is also an early osseous change, and curving of the femora may be present.

Laboratory Diagnosis.—Secondary anemia is commonly present, and the hemoglobin may fall to from 60 to 70 per cent. Moderate leukocytosis may be present, but is not a constant feature. A differential count of the leukocytes may show an increase in the relative number of lymphocytes, a clinical finding that may be present in children suffering from malnutrition.

X-ray Diagnosis.—In typical cases the existence of rickets can be determined without the use of the *x*-rays, but in those cases in which malnutrition, gastro-intestinal symptoms, and profuse sweating of the head are prominent, deformity of the bones may be made out with the

x-ray long before such osseous change can be recognized by other methods of diagnosis.

Summary of Diagnosis.—Early during the course of rickets, and before bony changes are apparent, the features of greatest diagnostic importance are: (1) The general evidence of malnutrition, together with the progressive loss of weight and the presence of secondary anemia; (2) gastro-intestinal catarrh; (3) profuse sweating of the head during sleep; (4) the application of the *x*-ray to ascertain beginning deformity of the bones of the cranium, ribs, and tibiæ. After well-marked bony deformities have developed, the characteristic alterations in the bones of the head and chest at once become apparent.

MYELOMATA (BENCE-JONES ALBUMOSURIA)

Pathologic Definition.—A malady characterized by the formation of multiple new-growths (myelomata), chiefly of the flat bones, although in certain cases the long bones may also be the seat of myelomatous infiltration.

Historic Note.—Since the publication, in 1847, of Bence-Jones' case of osteomalacia fragilitas rubra associated with albumosuria, 37 similar cases have been recorded in which neoplasms of the bones, regarded as probable myelomata, were disclosed at autopsy.* In 9 of the reported cases tumor growths were observed antemortem. Von Jaksch and Fitz have each reported albumosuria occurring in connection with myxedema and Askanazy calls attention to a case of lymphatic leukemia in which the urine contained Bence-Jones albumose. Albumosuria may be produced in the dog by the administration of poisonous doses of pyridin. In 1902 we reported 3 cases of Bence-Jones albumosuria, in one of which there was bone deformity, and within the course of one year from the date of our report the other two cases died. In 1902 Boston described at length a rapid reaction for the detection of this form of albumose in the urine,† and in August, 1903, he reported a case of Bence-Jones albumosuria.‡

Predisposing and Exciting Factors.—Age.—From our analysis of the reported cases of questionable myelomata with albumosuria, we find that the youngest case reported was twenty-four years of age. The condition was also found in patients of thirty-two, thirty-three, thirty-six, and thirty-seven years respectively. Ten were between the age of forty and fifty, and 7 between sixty and seventy; in the remaining cases the age was not stated.

Injury.—In 15 per cent. of cases there was a definite history of severe traumatism to the bony structure.

Sex.—Of 35 reported cases, 80 per cent. of males were found to be affected.

Symptomatology.—Pain is an almost constant symptom, but a single exception to this being found among the reported cases. The pain is commonly described as a bone pain, or as rheumatism, lumbago, or neuralgia. The patient usually states that the pain occurs without apparent cause, is severe, and is accompanied by an apparent "giving way" of a portion of the bony skeleton. At times the pain may be dull and continuous, and again it may be cramp-like, lancinating, and pass rapidly. Pressure over the affected bones, as well as exercise, aggravates

* Anders and Boston, address before the College of Physicians, Philadelphia, June 4, 1902.

† Ibid., April, 1903.

‡ Boston, Amer. Jour. Med. Sci., October, 1902.

the suffering. The pain is more common over the flat bones, although the extremities may share in this agonizing symptom. *Cramps* involving the lower extremities are fairly common, and toothache, falling of the teeth, and necrosis of the maxillary bones, with well-marked salivation are occasionally encountered. Pain may be increased by the act of deglutition.

Neuralgia.—Facial neuralgia was present in 30 per cent. of the reported cases. Paralysis of the hypoglossal nerves and of the motor portion of the trifacial nerve has been recorded. In one case there were numbness and tingling of the feet and legs, and in one of our cases paralysis and twitching of the left side of the face occurred. Cephalalgia is mentioned as a prominent symptom in 70 per cent. of the cases. In 3 of our cases it was most troublesome, and in another it occurred periodically.

Painful **micturition** was present in one of our cases, and frequent urination was mentioned in 4 of the reports furnished by the literature.

Voice.—Changes in the voice were observed in 16.4 per cent. of the reported cases, whereas in 12.5 per cent. mention was made of an appreciable impairment of the auditory function.

Ocular Phenomena.—Impairment of vision occurred in 4 cases furnished by the literature, and in 2 of our cases retinal changes, consisting of hemorrhage and colloid degeneration, were detected.

Emaciation.—Progressive emaciation is an almost constant feature, and hand in hand with this go anemia, prostration, and such gastro-intestinal symptoms as nausea, vomiting, diarrhea, and constipation.

Jaundice is occasionally observed.

Glandular enlargement occurred in approximately 15 per cent. of all cases.

Laboratory Diagnosis.—In 4 cases coming under our observation the leukocytes fluctuated between 16,000 and 40,000 per c.mm.; the hemoglobin varied between 55 and 70 per cent., and the red cells numbered between 3,000,000 and 3,700,000 per c.mm. In 3 cases in which a differential blood count was made the eosinophilic cells were diminished in number or absent.

When Bence-Jones albumosuria is coexistent with myelomata, the quantity of urine voided during the twenty-four hours is likely to exceed the normal. The specific gravity has been found to range between 1.004 and 1.040. In many of the cases recorded in the literature, and in 2 under our own observation, the urine was of the consistence of syrup. Chocolate or coffee-colored urine has been described by various writers, and in other cases the urine was said to be transparent and of low specific gravity. In applying the ordinary test for serum-albumin, a positive reaction is obtained when Bence-Jones albumose is present, and, indeed, it is customary to find both serum-albumin and albumose present in the same specimen. Casts may be present, and are ordinarily of the amyloid or hyaline varieties.

Deformities.—In an analysis of the reports of cases furnished by the literature we find that bony deformities existed in 67 per cent. Fractures were common (25 per cent. of cases), and often occurred from slight causes.

Summary of Diagnosis.—The diagnosis is based largely upon the clinical history, which usually includes pain, either neuralgic or boring in character, tenderness over the bony structures, emaciation, and prostration. A history of traumatism to the bones, together with pain at the site of injury and deformity, is of great clinical value, whereas a tendency toward fractures must also be considered. The detection of

albumose in a urine of the consistence of syrup or of a coffee color makes the diagnosis fairly positive.

Complications and Duration.—In our analysis of 35 reported cases pneumonia figured as a complication in 12.5 per cent. The condition usually terminates in death within the course of two years, although one case has been recorded in which the condition existed for eight years.

GOUT

Pathologic Definition.—A chronic disease resulting from the abnormal disposition of purin substances in the body, and characterized by an increase of the uric acid in the blood. In typical cases there is a characteristic deposition of monosodium urate in the cartilages of the joints and adjacent structures. There are present recurring attacks of arthritis. At first the deposited substance is fluid in character, but contains small masses of crystalline substance that later become hard. Secondary inflammatory changes result in fibrous overgrowth, which is accompanied by a variable degree of deformity and flexure at certain joints. Acute ulceration may follow, and gouty tophi be extruded. Gouty deposits have been found in the cartilages of the ears, nose, and larynx.

Inflammatory changes generally take place in the kidneys, and stony deposits may be found within the kidney substance, which, in turn, lead to a variable degree of destruction of the organ.

Varieties.—(1) Acute gout; (2) retrocedent gout; (3) chronic gout; and (4) irregular gout.

Predisposing Factors.—(1) **Age.**—Primary attacks occur most frequently during middle life. They are rare before puberty, although exceptionally they may be seen to occur even in childhood; after puberty, however, they become more frequent, this frequency decreasing rapidly after the fiftieth year is reached.

(2) **Heredity.**—The cases that develop quite early in life often show a striking hereditary taint, and it has been asserted that 50 per cent. of all cases of gout are directly traceable to a hereditary tendency.

(3) **Sex.**—The arthritic form is less frequent in women than in men, whereas in chronic gout women are more often attacked.

(4) Focal infection is to be considered in every case. Certain clinicians believe that there is also an allergic phenomena associated with gout.

Symptomatology.—Clinical Picture of Acute Gout.—The onset is that of a more or less typical acute arthritis, and is at times preceded by prodromal symptoms that vary greatly with the individual cases. Slight muscular cramps and pains, dyspepsia, mental irritability, inability to sleep, and depression of spirits may antedate an attack of acute gout, following which there may be a period of relief just prior to the outbreak of an acute attack.

Attack.—This generally develops during the *morning hours*, and the patient may be awakened by severe *pain* in the region of the great toe. Pain soon becomes agonizing, and is described as though the toe were held in a vise. Within the course of a few hours the joint becomes *swollen* and *tender*, is unusually *hot* to the touch, and for some distance from the joint the skin pits upon firm pressure. Within the course of a few hours the suffering generally abates, the fever falls, and the patient becomes bathed in perspiration. After a mild attack of gout the patient may go about his usual work. One or two days after an initial attack there is a variable degree of enlargement of the joint, the edema returns, and the paroxysm recurs during the night or early morning hours. The number of paroxysms will vary greatly for a period of from six to eight

days, although after the first forty-eight hours they are likely to be less severe. By the end of the first week the joint has usually returned to the normal size, and the patient suffers no inconvenience.

Acute gout returns at varying intervals, the longest of which occurs between the first and the second attack. A single joint may be affected, although after repeated attacks other joints commonly become involved.

Thermic Features.—With the onset of the paroxysm the temperature rises to from 101° to 103° F.

Retrocedent Gout.—This is a sudden transmission of the arthritic symptoms to some internal organ, and during a paroxysm the joint-inflammation may quickly disappear and intense pain develop in the region of the stomach. Faintness, nausea, vomiting, and diarrhea are now common. The pulse becomes rapid, weak, and at times compressible. Precordial pain, dyspnea, palpitation, and mental anxiety are occasionally referred to as *suppressive gout.*

Nervous Manifestations.—Severe cerebral symptoms are occasionally observed, and are most often dependent upon uremia.

Clinical Features of Chronic Gout.—This clinical type is secondary to the acute variety. The transition is gradual, the intervals between the attacks are short, whereas the attacks themselves grow milder and milder, but are of longer duration. Local inflammation subsides, and in long-standing cases disappears entirely. There is a tendency for the disease to involve other joints, and while at first corresponding joints are attacked, later there is gouty involvement of the other joints of the feet, and eventually the articulations of the hands and wrists are attacked.

Deformity ensues as the result of an accumulation of chalky deposits in and about the articular surfaces. The *skin* covering the chalky deposits may undergo ulceration, and the calcareous material be discharged.

Associated Conditions.—Among these are chronic nephritis, general arteriosclerosis, cardiac hypertrophy, myocarditis, valvular heart disease, and chronic catarrh of the gastro-intestinal tract. There is an unusual amount of fat in the supraclavicular fossæ in uric acid arthritids.*

Irregular Gout.—Under this head should be included those cases in which some of the symptoms of gout exist, with or without the presence of gouty deposits around the articular surfaces of certain joints. In irregular gout there is usually a history of a hereditary tendency to develop the disease, although this form of gout may be acquired.

Clinical Manifestations.—**Pains** are generally localized to the muscles, but may occur in any portion of the body, and are acute and lancinating in character. Certain groups of muscles are particularly prone to be affected, as, *e. g.*, the muscles of the neck, of the lumbar region, and of the thighs.

Gastro-intestinal Disturbances.—These resemble closely those seen in typical cases of lithemia. Colic, accompanied by diarrhea, is an occasional feature. During the course of irregular gout the patient may also suffer from parotitis, bronchitis, tonsillitis, and catarrh of the laryngeal mucous membrane.

Nervous Manifestations.—Cephalalgia, facial neuralgia, sciatica, a burning sensation of the skin, tingling of the extremities, pain in the hands and feet, and intense itching are among the less common nervous manifestations of this type of the disease. In selected cases eczema may occur. Gouty neuritis is occasionally seen, and in practically all cases the temperament becomes extremely irritable as the disease progresses.

* Ebstein, Berlin, Klin. Wchnschr., 3; 2198, Nov. 25, 1924.

Laboratory Diagnosis.—The urine is of high color, high specific gravity, often scanty, and on standing uric acid is deposited. These features are not, however, peculiar to gout alone. In many cases uric acid is in excess only at intervals, whereas at other times it may be diminished in quantity. Following the administration of atophan, Tuelzer found the uric acid in the urine increased. A heavy reddish precipitation in the urine of gouty subjects, following the use of atophan, is of diagnostic value when accompanied by amelioration of annoying symptoms. Glycosuria may develop at any time during the course of chronic gout. Albuminuria may be present, and oxaluria is also an occasional finding. Finck finds that the alkalinity of the blood is diminished in gout, but increased at the onset of each exacerbation.

Blood Chemistry.—Uric acid is increased in the blood in gout.

Ocular Manifestations.—Tophi in the cornea, and rarely in the eyelids, as well as conjunctivitis, keratitis, iritis, hemorrhagic retinitis, and glaucoma may accompany the other manifestations of gout.

Auditory Phenomena.—Impairment of the auditory sense may be observed within a few months after birth, and rarely occurs in long-standing cases.

Diagnosis and Differential Diagnosis.—Gout is diagnosed chiefly from the clinical history, which includes one or more of the conditions known to predispose to this disease. The onset of the initial attack, and its tendency to return at intervals and to spread to other joints, are characteristic of gout. The presence of mild fever at the onset of each attack and the development of distinct nodular masses in the vicinity of the articular surfaces go far to support the diagnosis. Disturbances of the gastro-intestinal tract are also of some value in formulating the diagnosis.

Gout is to be distinguished from **chronic rheumatism,** although the fact that the former disease displays a special predilection to attack the small joints (great toe), whereas chronic rheumatism commonly involves the larger joints and fingers must be borne in mind. The characteristic onset of each attack of gout is but mildly evidenced during the course of chronic rheumatism.

ENDOCRINE DISORDERS

BASAL METABOLISM IN DISEASE

The expressions "Basal Metabolism," and "Metabolic Rate" have come into considerable prominence in medicine within the last few years, during which period clinical calorimetry has risen to a position of undeniable dignity. The consideration of the subject indicates the importance of this newer knowledge in its field for diagnoses and prognosis—also the limitations of its exploitation and the interpretation of results.

Food and muscular activity are, perhaps, foremost in increasing the exchange of materials and the output of heat; but basal metabolism refers to the behavior of the organism in its energy transformation without food, and during rest.

The classic instance of the helpful demonstrations of variations in basal metabolism is found in disturbances in thyroid function, the high and low rates in hyperthyroidism and hypothyroidism, respectively. With respect to the other glands of internal secretion, however, it must still be said that the variations in basal metabolic rate for which they are responsible cannot be foretold. It is important at this time to realize and transmit this conclusion, which is clearly indicated in a recent review of the subject by Aub and Taylor. The pertinent literature is enormous; but for those who are not sufficiently expert to sift fact from fiction, and truth from pseudoscience, the best rule is to maintain an attitude of intelligent skepticism, whenever small variations of basal metabolism exist.

The rate of metabolism of an individual, in health and in disease, is subject to marked physiologic fluctuations. The physiological variations must be reduced to a minimum in order to establish a convenient basis for comparison of metabolism of different individuals, or of the same individual on different occasions. The term universally selected to designate this basis is known as Basal Metabolism, and may be defined as the minimum heat production of an organism at complete muscular rest and in a post-absorptive condition, or, as Harris and Benedict have expressed it, the catabolism in the absence of muscular activity and the stimulating influences of recently ingested food. It must be borne in mind that the modern conception of basal metabolism does not mean the lowest possible metabolism, for Benedict has shown that the metabolism during sleep sinks to a lower level than when the patient is awake and in complete muscular repose.

Basal metabolism as a diagnostic measure, although subject to error in estimation and interpretation, is probably more constantly reliable than many of our other laboratory measures, both as to its qualitative and quantitative value. It is of the greatest value in hyperthyroidism since that disease is so distinctive in its course and symptoms and so characteristically a disease of hypermetabolism.

Frazier notes that the metabolic rate is of special value in diagnosis in that it offers a ready means of distinguishing cases of true hyper-

thyroidism from those cases of neurasthenia, cardiovascular disease or tuberculosis, who present the clinical picture of toxicity and who happen to have a simple adenomatous enlargement of the thyroid. These cases are often sent to the surgeon as a court of last resort.

It has been the practice to take readings on all goiter cases before and after treatment, whether that consist in ligation or thyroidectomy. If the case comes to ligation as the initial step in treatment a second reading is taken either before leaving the hospital or when the patient returns for thyroidectomy several months later. The final reading, after all treatment is over, is usually made within a year from the last operation, when the patient returns for final observation. For the convenience of study and analysis the cases are divided into four groups, based on the metabolic rate.

Group 1. Basal metabolic rate from 10 to 20 per cent.
Group 2. Basal metabolic rate from 20 to 40 per cent.
Group 3. Basal metabolic rate from 40 to 60 per cent.
Group 4. Basal metabolic rate from 60 and up.

At the same time the cases are graded according to the symptomatic evidence of toxicity alone. This is done without a knowledge of the metabolic rate. In group 1 is placed the mildest cases, *i. e.*, those with the lowest grade of toxicity; and in group 4 the severest cases, *i. e.*, those with the highest grade of toxicity. Groups 2 and 3 are intermediate. There is a certain conformity between the groups graded by the clinical picture and graded by the metabolic rate. In fact, the conformity is sufficient to enable one to say that in the majority of cases there is in the basal metabolic rate a numerical index of the patient's toxicity This affords at once a means of classifying the patients, a guide to the treatment and a measure of the improvement under any particular treatment.

The metabolic rate is also useful in determining the amount of improvement which any course of treatment may have effected. It is interesting to note that after ligation the average reduction is greater than after thyroidectomy. That the two figures cannot be compared, and any deductions drawn, as to the relative value of these two procedures, is evident when we consider the type of case, which is selected for ligation. These cases which have a preliminary ligation have the highest metabolic rates. In reducing the metabolic rate it is as though we are reducing the height of a pyramid; much less effort is expended in taking away the top half, the labor increasing with each successive step. It is easier, therefore, to cut down the top half of a metabolic rate by ligation than to remove the remainder, this more difficult part of the work being accomplished by the thyroidectomy. The reduction in total points, therefore, is less after thyroidectomy than after ligation.

In conclusion, experiences at the clinics show that the estimations of basal metabolism are of value in the following cases:

(1) In eliminating those cases which will not be benefited, and might be made worse by operation.

(2) In offering confirmatory evidence of the degree of toxicity; and in offering a quantitative rather than a qualitative index for use in diagnosis, prognosis and treatment.

(3) It may be possible by the metabolic rate to determine how much thyroid tissue may be removed. The reduction of the metabolic rate to points well below that of the normal range (−10 per cent.) should imply that too much secreting substance had been removed. Such cases must be studied clinically for signs of hypothyroidism.

Routine Preparation of Patients for Obtaining a Basal Condition

In order to obviate false metabolic rates as the results of the physiological factors that have been pointed out in the above, the following routine procedure is recommended to be carried out on all patients to be tested:

(1) Patient is told to refrain from violent or fatiguing muscular exertion the day before the test, and to retire not later than ten o'clock that evening.

(2) He is directed to eat a light supper, preferably without meat, not later than seven o'clock the evening before the test; water but no food may be taken before bed time.

(3) No breakfast, drugs, and preferably no water are to be taken the morning of the test; however, a glass of moderately cold water, an hour and one half before the test, will probably not alter the rate.

(4) A cold bath should not be taken on the morning of the test.

(5) Smoking should not be permitted the morning of the test, unless the patient is in the habit of indulging before breakfast, and, then, not within one and one-half hours of the determination.

(6) The patient should present himself at the metabolic station at 8 or 8:30 A. M. If in hospital, he should be brought in a rolling chair or on a litter; if ambulatory, he should refrain as far as possible from muscular exertion.

(7) All stiff or constricting garments, as corsets, collar, belt, shoes, etc., should be removed, and women should take out all hair pins and combs. It is advisable that women should be provided with a kimona.

(8) Patient is directed to empty bladder, and also bowels if necessary.

(9) Patient is taken to metabolic room, which should be done in cheerful but subdued colors with no unshaded lights; in addition, it should be well ventilated, although without perceptible air currents, and the temperature maintained between 65 and 70° F.

(10) The operators should be kind, sympathetic and above all, gentle. One of them should show the apparatus and explain the harmlessness of the test to the patient, assuring him that he is to breathe pure air or oxygen, and that an operator will be on hand during the entire test period.

(11) Patient is put to bed lying on his back and is made as comfortable as possible with one or two pillows as desired; chewing gum, etc., removed from mouth.

(12) If patient appears restless or apprehensive a preliminary test lasting from three to four minutes is carried out. The breathing appliance is then removed and the test begun. He should be instructed that at no time is he to assist in adjusting the breathing appliance.

(13) The rest period for hospital patients should be maintained for from twenty to thirty minutes; for ambulatory cases, thirty to sixty minutes, depending upon the extent of the previous muscular exertion. It is essential during this period to secure complete relaxation, and for this reason it is absolutely necessary to prevent anything that may tend to excite the patient, such as discomfort, noises, conversations, and friends or visitors. If the latter part of rest period is disturbed, as by movement, it should be extended five to ten minutes longer, depending upon the degree of exertion.

(14) To assure co-operation, and at the same time to allay any secret apprehension, with all patients, a trial test should be carried out immediately before the actual test.

(15) Temperature, pulse and respiration should be taken after patient is at rest in bed, but before the preliminary test. Pulse and respiration should be taken several minutes after this test, and again during the preliminary and trial tests, as well as at five minute intervals during the actual test.

(16) After the test has been completed the patient is weighed, nude, and height taken in bare or stocking feet.

All restlessness and nervousness, irregularity in breathing, swallowing, etc., should be carefully noted and recorded. Should the patient appear extremely restless, enough so as to cause a pathologic change in the basal metabolic rate, he should be told to come back for another test at some future date. This has the preference over attempting to secure a normal rate in a nervous individual by repeating the test on the same day.

INTRODUCTION

Our present scope of endocrinology necessitates that anything a book may contain upon the subject will, in the near future, not only be obsolete and inadequate, but in many instances incorrect. Incompleteness is made necessary on account of our need for further and more definite endocrine physiology. It is contended by many writers that the majority of endocrine disorders are polyglandular, and that when the origin of a disease is definitely located, in one gland, others of the endocrine system undergo more or less important pathologic changes, and variations in function.

The principal endocrine organs are the thyroid, the parathyroids, the thymus gland, the lymph glands, the suprarenal glands, the gonads, the hypophysis cerebri (or pituitary gland), the epiphysis cerebri (or pineal gland), and the insular tissue of the pancreas (islands of Langerhans). It is quite possible that other organs, as the spleen, the kidneys, the liver, the salivary glands, the prostate, tonsils, and Weldeyer's ring of lymphoid tissue about the throat, and the lymph tissue about the ileocecal valve also perform endocrine functions in addition to their other physiologic activities.

The paranephroids have been described at length by Waldeyer-Hartz and consist of small, somewhat nodular, structures located in various parts of the body, and containing chromaffin cells; and similar bodies containing suprarenal cortical substances, the so-called accessory suprarenals, and containing both cortical and medullary substances are recognized.

The paraganglia are structures that contain both suprarenal, accessory suprarenal structures, and chromaffin cells—in this special group should be included the carotid gland, coccygeal gland, lumbar paraganglia is located in the sympathetic terminal branches, plexuses, the broad ligament, rectum and epididymis.

Consideration has also been given by the above authors, to the accessory dianephroid bodies (resting outside of the adrenal cortex), and separate structures of the abdominal system, and found on and in the kidneys, liver, pancreas, mesentery, abdominal sympathetic, retroperitoneal structures, vas deferens, testicle, ovaries, tubes and broad ligaments, and in the suprarenal bodies. It has been shown that prolonged inanition causes abnormal function and often disfunction of the endocrines.

The genital glands appear to have two different functions (*a*) generative; and (*b*) individuality of sex. The placenta and fetus appear to exert an unquestionable action upon these glands.

Progressive deafness is one of the features of endocrine disease, but this condition is most often seen after prolonged disease of the mouth

and teeth. Associated with it are the general clinical features of asthenia and lack of sexual vigor, and the glands claimed to be involved are the thyroid and interstitial tissue of the sex glands. Parathyroid (p. 1107) and thymus pathology have been noted (p. 1104). Among the first evidences presented to the otologist are an apparent thickening of the drum membrane, and later thickening of the connective tissue of the middle ear organs. The nerve structures suffer pathologic changes.

The hypophyseal colloid is regarded as the important part of the secretions, especially, of the pars intermedia. (Writers differ as to the question of a pituitary secretion p. 1117.)

Magnus believes that choline or a substance identical with it is the hormone of intestinal peristalsis, and that the nervous system of the Auerbach plexus initiates rhythmic movements of the intestines.

Fairly typical cases of Recklinghausen's clinical syndrome have been found to show scoliosis, lesions of the glands of internal secretion, with pituitary, thyroid (p. 1088) and adrenal pathology p. 1153.

Clinical Consideration.—Alleged endocrine hyperfunction in the light of our present knowledge is of less importance in medicine than is hypofunction. Hyperfunction is practically unknown in experimental research, and hyperfunction is considered clinically with the theory of disfunction or toxic secretion. The question of hyperfunction is not applicable to glands that accomplish their results by detoxication.

Hyperfunction in man is assumed by many investigators to be the etiologic factor in:

(1) Toxic goiter (the thyroid p. 1093)
(2) Acromegaly (anterior lobe of pituitary p. 1124)
(3) Hypertension (adrenal medulla and thyroid p. 1153)
(4) Early puberty (suprarenal cortex p. 1153. Pituitary and pineal p. 1113)
(5) Diabetes (thyroids p. 1061)
(6) Sexual excesses (the gonads p. 1158)
(7) Excessive menstruation (ovaries, corpus luteum, p. 1162)

Our methods now in use are not capable of detecting the active products of the thyroid or any other endocrine in any of the nonendocrine body tissues. We therefore have no means at hand for the detection or estimation of hormones.

Hypofunction.—It is suggestive that none of the endocrine glands work at near full capacity during health. From one-half to seven-eighths of any one of these systems may be removed from healthy animals, and the remaining portion continue, the physiologic function and maintain health. It is therefore almost impossible to give clinical values from histopathologic changes found in the ductless glands.

In the absence of any method whereby endocrine products (hormones) and their quantitative estimation can be detected in the blood and other tissues and excreta, we have only the clinical picture of the case in question as a guide. It is possible that further knowledge of amylase, and the diastatic ferment may furnish further beacons to light the way through our present gloom.

Endocrine hyperfunction and hypofunction through mutual (reciprocal) stimulation or inhibition of the different endocrines, describe a phase of endocrinology indicated, by a maximum of fiction with a minimum of fact. Among the known clinical evidences are:

(1) Castration retards involution of the thymus.

(2) The ovaries and testes do not develop in their normal way, in hypothyroidism or in hypopituitarism.

(3) There are a few records where the parathyroids were found enlarged after removal of the thyroid.

(4) Tumor involving the suprarenal cortex is occasionally found in the sexual precocity of children. See p. 1153.

(5) Sexual organs and sex characteristics are retarded where disease or compression of the posterior pituitary lobe exists. See p. 1136.

The loss in weights of the thyroid, testis and pancreas as observed by Krieger* in 135 autopsies are set forth in the following table:

Thyroid	Testes	Pancreas
47.0	41.0	44.8 per cent. in seven cases of chronic dysentery
20.6	28.7	33.0 per cent. in twenty-seven cases of malignant tumor
23.3	40.3	30.5 per cent. in thirty-one cases chronic malignant infection
35.8	49.4	28.0 per cent. in forty cases of tuberculous general

In striking contrast with the foregoing loss in weight, the suprarenals together showed an increase in many instances. A loss of 8.6 per cent. was found in seven cases dead of chronic dysentery, while the remainder of his observations disclosed a gain of 21.5 in twenty cases of malignant tumor, 23.2 in thirty-one cases of chronic infection, and 6.6 in forty cases of tuberculous.

The hypophysis was examined in but thirty cases and in all instances the weight was within normal limits.

The spleen gave a loss in weight. Forty-four and six-tenths per cent. in eleven cases dead of acute conditions, 36 per cent. in case of chronic dysentery, 27.6 per cent. in malignant tumors and 48 per cent. in nineteen cases of senility.

Metabolism.—The metabolic rate is shown to be influenced more or less directly by certain of the endocrines. It is not to be taken that the general regulation of metabolism is wholly within the glands of internal secretion for there are other factors which exert definite influences upon metabolism.

There is conclusive evidence that the pancreas has specific action in regulating the usage of carbohydrates and it is claimed that the parathyroids exercise an isolating influence on the metabolism of salts. Other ductless glands are claimed to exert an influence in the metabolism of foods.

Aub† states that there are but four glands, classified among the group known to have internal secretion, that are capable of materially influencing metabolism.

(1) The thyroid ranks first.

(2) The gonads (testes and ovaries) probably influence the rate, because there is a definite slowing down of metabolism in many instances where these organs have been removed from human subjects. The gonads may exercise their influence through thyroid activity.

(3) The anterior pituitary exerts an influence somewhat analogous to that seen to follow castration, and there is a gradual reduction in the basal metabolic rate whenever disease destroys this portion of the hypophysis.

More research is needed in connection with this phase of hypophyseal function because both hypophyseal and thyroid involvement may be present in the same subject.

(4) The suprarenal structures according to recent research exercise some influence over metabolism.

* Ztschr. Anat. Berlin, 1920, 87–134.

† Jour. Am. Med. Assoc., July 8, 1922.

Many writers have endeavored to classify and at the same time describe the endocrine glands, but the question of classification remains a mooted subject. Further data regarding the physiology of these structures is essential in order to attain a clinical classification. Waldeyer-Hartz* gives the following classification for the endocrine structures.

(1) True endocrine glands, with definite forms and exclusive or essential internal secretion.

(*a*) Ectodermal: hypophysis, epiphysis cerebri and suprarenal medulla.

(*b*) Mesodermal: suprarenal cortex, genital glands, testis and ovary.

(*c*) Appendages to (*a*) and (*b*):—paranephroids (accessory suprarenal glands).

(*d*) Endodermal: thyroid, parathyroids and thymus.

(2) Double glands, (true glands with external and internal secretions).

(*a*) Mesodermal: prostate, seminal vesicles, kidneys (?).

(*b*) Endodermal: liver, pancreas, gastric and duodenal glands.

(3) Glands of uncertain endocrine function.

(*a*) Ectodermal: milk glands, salivary glands.

(*b*) Endodermal: postbronchial bodies.

(4) Structures of various sorts, to which internal secretions are ascribed:—spleen, choroid plexus, myometrial cells, pyrrhol cells, fat bodies, placenta and fetus.

The iodothyrin of the thyroid colloid is probably poured directly into the lymph and blood; and its special actions have been considered at length under hypothyroidism and hyperthyroidism. The thymus has as its chief function control of the skeletal structure.

The prostate and seminal vesicles are concerned in the motility and preservation of spermatozoa.

Pousson† claims a clinical relationship between the toxic products of the adenomatous prostate and their noxious action on the general health. The above claims appear to have some direct bearing upon the symptoms of prostate disease, although we do not find sufficient data to enable us to further discuss the subject.

The accepted physiology of the liver, the islands of Langerhans, as well as the peculiarities of the pancreas and duodenal secretions, have long been considered in connection with the endocrines.

Among the questionable hormonopoetic organs, the salivary and milk glands deserve mention. Fat bodies including the panniculus adiposus, the suprarenal, orbital, and others are believed to have for their function the limitation of energy. Efforts have been made to connect the function of the postbronchial gland with that of the thyroid.

The suprarenal glands are to be considered clinically as two distinct organs, which consist of a cortical and a medullary portion of each gland. It is also important to realize that the medulla develops from the same structure, as does the sympathetic ganglia. The medullary cells are referred to as chromaffin.

The paranephroids have been described at length by Waldeyer-Hartz and consist of small, somewhat nodular, structures located in various parts of the body, and containing chromaffin cells; and similar bodies containing suprarenal cortical substances, the so-called accessory suprarenals, and containing both cortical and medullary substances are recognized.

The paraganglia are structures that contain both suprarenal, accessory suprarenal structures, and chromaffin cells: in this special group

* Ztschr. f. Urol., 15:153, Leipsic, May, 1921.

† Bulletin Medical Paris, July 23, 1921.

should be included the carotid glands, coccygeal glands, lumbar, paraganglia, and other paraganglia located in the sympathetic terminal branches, plexuses, the broad ligament, rectum and epididymis.

Consideration has also been given to the accessory dianephroid bodies (resting outside of the adrenal cortex), and separate structures of the abdominal system, and found on and in the kidneys, liver, pancreas, mesentery, abdominal sympathetic, retroperitoneal structures, vas deferens, testicle, ovaries, tubes and broad ligaments, and in the suprarenal bodies. (It has been shown that prolonged inanition causes abnormal function and often dysfunction of the endocrines.)

Monosymptomatic dystrophies belong to two groups:

(*a*) Includes aplasias, hypotrophies or atrophies. Nanism, infantilism and thyroid hypotrophy are fair examples of this group.

(*b*) Includes dystrophies proper resulting from abnormal nutrition of the organs. Groups (*a*) and (*b*) are not accepted by all clinicians.

Cases of renal aplasia are ordinarily divided into three clinical classes. (1) Real cachectic dystrophies with endocrine cachexias and dwarfism. (2) Symptom complex of interstitial nephritis. (3) Permanent albuminurias usually associated with defective growth.

Draper's tables of growth and precociousness during childhood and puberty.*

TABLE A

Pediatric period, 0–12–14 years.	Outstanding feature, growth	Rate	Pathologic acceleration	Glandular pathology
			Physiologic acceleration	Hereditary influence; Environment: (*a*) Nutrition (*b*) Infection
			Physiologic retardation	Hereditary influence; Environment: (*a*) Nutrition (*b*) Infection
			Pathologic retardation and disproportions: (*a*) Psychic (*b*) Physical	Glandular pathology
		Extent and what stops it (?)	Dwarfism	Special parts
			Average	Bony
			Gigantism	Soft parts

TABLE B

Puberty period, 10–15–16 years.	Pathologically precocious (tumor of pineal)		
	Physiologically precocious	Hereditarial influences; Environment: (*a*) Nutritional (*b*) Infectional (mumps)	
	Physiologically delayed	Hereditarial influences; Environment: (*a*) Nutritional (*b*) Infectional (mumps)	
	Pathologically delayed	Lorain	(Pituitary tumor)
		Fröhlich	(Pituitary tumor)

Following all acute infections. *e. g.*,—dysentery, typhoid fever, tonsillitis, influenza, endocrine disturbances are likely to occur but it is often difficult to determine clinically whether or not the patient is suffering from hyper, or hypofunction of the adrenals; or of any other of the endocrines. This most desired art can only be obtained in diagnosis after we have been favored by the further experiments of careful observers.

Intra-ocular Pressure.—The current theories which attempt to explain intraocular tension (pressure) are one and all inadequate when correlated with clinical experiences. It was these facts that led Imre, Jr. (1) to

* Medical Clinics of N. A., July, 1924, p. 69.

use the Schiotz tonometer in his routine and hospital observations since 1910. The normal intraocular tension fluctuates between 15 and 26 mm. Hg. when the heart ceases to beat the pressure falls to 8 mm. Hg. Any marked deviation from the average normal tension of 20, calls for further clinical study. Should the intraocular pressure differ in the two eyes, complete eye-ground, visual acuity and field of vision, records, together with a radiographic study of sella turcica are indispensable.

Significance.—Endocrine disbalance is to be suspected in event of alterations in the intraocular tension: J. Imre, Jr. cites three cases of pituitary tumor where he found the tension of the two eyes subnormal and unequal—(one case of subtension had an intraocular pressure for the R. E. 23, L. E. 15).

The intraocular tension was found to be low in cases of hyperfunction of the thyroid according to the report of Heretel (2) published in 1919; and Wessely confirms Heretel's observations by concluding that thyroid hyperfunction usually causes a low intraocular pressure. Imre found over 50 per cent. of goitre subjects to have high tension, but many of his patients had a very low blood pressure. It is possible that the tension in Grave's disease varies according to the severity and stage of the malady. The tension of the two eyes is invariably different, and the reading commonly varies for the same eye, which is conclusive that the regulator of intraocular tension is disturbed. Cases of glaucoma often display evidences of hypofunction of the thyroid.

A routine estimation of intraocular pressure by means of the tonomoter affords an hitherto neglected method for diagnosis (see Ovary-intraocular Pressure in Pregnancy, p. 1163).

THE THYROID

MYXEDEMA

Pathologic Definition.—A nutritional disorder, associated with atrophy and loss of function of the thyroid gland. There is a myxedematous infiltration of the subcutaneous tissues and a cretinoid cachexia.

Clinical Varieties.—(1) True myxedema; (2) cretinism (the absence of thyroid function-congenital, or lost during childhood); (3) operative myxedema, due to total removal of the thyroid glands.

Clinical Consideration.—*Gull's disease* is the term employed to designate the myxedema of adults; whereas congenital myxedema is to be considered under cretinism. Thyroid deficiency may result either from conditions under which there is an insufficient production of the colloid, or by those conditions causing an overconsumption of the colloid (conditions demanding unusual, metabolic activity, or abnormal detoxication). Defective food supply induces an under-supply of colloid, therefore, pronounced thyroid deficiency is oftenest found among the poorer classes. Foods poor in iodine and vitamines bring about thyroid dystrophy, and symptoms of thyroid deficiency may result from an exclusive meat diet, or from the too liberal use of canned meats and foods. Pathologic activities and changes in the thyroid are, as a rule, attributable to nutritional, infectious, and psychic phenomena. The conditions that lead to an unusual demand upon the thyroid gland and the process of detoxication are:

(*a*) Unsanitary surroundings (poor housing, use of contaminated water, etc.).

(*b*) Absorption of bacterial and other toxins from the gastro-intestinal tract have been proven to exert a remarkable influence on the thyroid

glands. Intestinal parasites when permitted to exist for a long period have a profound action upon the thyroid.

(*c*) Chronic focal infections have in our experience displayed a definite etiologic relation to the production of selected cases of thyroid dystrophy. Barach* cites 25 cases where chronic tonsillar infection antedated thyroid dysfunction.

(*d*) A deleterious effect upon the thyroid is commonly seen during the course of, and after, mumps, whooping-cough, scarlatina, bronchopneumonia, diphtheria, and tonsillitis, and in such chronic conditions as pulmonary tuberculosis, chronic tuberculosis, pyorrhoea alveolaris, and peridental abscesses. Any acute or chronic infection, and particularly focal infection, is liable to be followed by thyroid unbalance.

(*e*) The ingestion of toxic exudates from the tonsils, gums, teeth, and nasal pharynx are contributing factors to hypothyroidism.

(*f*) Intestinal stasis with irregular areas of dilatation of the colon have been known to antedate thyroid dystrophy.

(*g*) Consanguinity and heredity have not in our experience been found of importance.

(*h*) Psychic influences—anxiety, mental distress, fright, etc., have long been regarded as important factors influencing the thyroid and under such influences there may either be a distinct stimulating or inhibitory effect.

Symptomatology.—Thyroid deficiency is manifested clinically on the one hand by the myxedematous cretin, and on the other with some symptoms seen in hyperthyroidism. Symptoms may be pronounced, or so slight as to be almost imperceptible, consequently it is difficult to classify clearly the symptomatology of thyroid dystrophy. A fact to be kept in mind is that thyroid secretion during health acts on the individual cells as a catalyzer playing an important rôle in both building up and breaking down of the body cells, and promotes the growth and functional activity of such cells, facilitating in the destruction of exhausted cells and governing the elimination of waste products.

(1) A peculiar hard edematous swelling which does not pit readily on pressure results from defective elimination.

(2) The abnormal ontake of fat likewise results from inadequate elimination.

(3) The infiltrated muscles do not contract with vigor, consequently progressive weakness is observed and the evidences of malnutrition are apparent.

THYROID FUNCTION, 52 CASES

Hyperthyroidism, 20 (38.5 per cent.)		Hyperthyroidism, 32 (61.5 per cent.)	
Male	5	Male	12
Female	14	Female	18
Glycosuria		Glycosuria	
Present	7	Present	2
Absent or increased tolerance	1	Absent or increased tolerance	16

(4) Motor and sensory impulses are delayed. Slowness in the production of tendon reflexes is always present, and this interval, between the time a blow is struck over the tendon and the usual reflex response, is appreciably increased.

(5) Mental hebetude, loss of memory, and confusion may be among the early symptoms.

* N. Y. Med. Jour., Dec. 7, 1921.

(6) The speech is sluggish, the voice abnormal and articulation difficult. Drowsiness is the rule, but the patient does not become refreshed as the result of sleep. Headache develops late during thyroid insufficiency. Mild vertigo is an annoying symptom, and may become extreme upon slight exertion. The hearing shows moderate impairment, and the patient frequently complains of an uncomfortable noise.

(7) Vague pains of a neuralgic or rheumatoid nature are experienced. The movements are sluggish, reflexes weak, gait stumbling, slow and simulates that of exhaustion. The movements of the hands are clumsy, and the finer movements are produced with difficulty.

Ear, Nose, Oral and Throat Manifestations.—These vary greatly in degree and often one or more of these features are present in persons who do not display any other gross evidence of myxedema.

(1) The tongue is frequently large, and shows indentations of the teeth along its edges. Deep fissures on the surface of the tongue may be the most conspicuous sign.

(2) A hard elastic condition of the inferior turbinates (the so-called primary atrophic rhinitis, and nasal hydrorrhea) are not infrequent.

(3) Infiltration of the submucosa of the respiratory tract, especially of the bronchi and bronchioles with narrowing of the lumen is not an uncommon post mortem finding in subjects who have suffered from unexplainable difficulty in breathing, cyanosis and asthmatic seizures.

(4) Infiltration of the larynx including the vocal cords accompanied by the characteristic rough voice is rather constant. There may be only loss of the singing voice in otherwise healthy persons.

(5) Hypertrophy of the tonsils and of the adenoids with their usual associated symptoms is common.

(6) Thickening of the tympanic membrane and of the membrane of the Eustachian tube, when accompanied by tinnitus, and progressive deafness may be the most annoying symptom in thyroid underfunction.

Whenever the period of bleeding, after removal of the tonsils, is prolonged thyroid underactivity is to be suspected. The coagulation time of the blood is prolonged. Intraocular pressure is altered in hypothyroid cases.

Tests for Hypothyroidism.—In cases of hypothyroidism the symptoms will disappear or show improvement within the course of two to four weeks after the institution of thyroid therapy. The metabolic rate is low. The administration of from 200 to 500 gms. of grape sugar by mouth does not produce alimentary glycosuria in outstanding cases of myxedema.

Cretinism in America.—Cretinism is claimed to be prevalent throughout the United States and Canada. One of us (Anders) investigated this condition in 1918 and in addition to a review of the literature, reported 43 unpublished cases; and Gordon* in his review of the literature with additional private cases brings the total number of reports to 340.

Myxedema may be divided into the following classes:

(1) Cretinism
(2) Childhood myxedema
  (*a*) Congenital myxedema
  (*b*) Infantile myxedema
  (*c*) Juvenile myxedema (see Childhood Adiposity)
(3) Adult myxedema
(4) Post-operative myxedema

*Endocrinology, March, 1922.

There are still found subdivisions of this type of disfunction of the thyroid, but since all forms are dependent upon one and the same cause, thyroid hypofunction, we are inclined to regard the subdivisions as merely arbitrary and not essential.

Childhood myxedema as seen in North America is placarded by the following clinical characteristics. (Figs. 397–398.)

Etiology.—Underfunction of the thyroid may become manifest after birth, during early childhood, or in adolescence (the juvenile type) or be attack in infancy or during childhood (pre-adolescent type). A normal child remains as such until attacked by some acute infection (measles, whooping cough, scarlet fever, influenza, etc.). Gordon in his collection of 340 cases found 31 of them to follow acute infection. Normal children may develop this condition after an attack of jaundice, vaccination, cholera-infantum, and at the weaning time. Koplik has seen three cases following jaundice neonatorum:—myxedema did not develop until the ages of 6–12 and 15 months. There are recorded instances where myxedema was preceded by an intestinal disturbance. Among 20 breast fed cases 8 developed myxedema while nursing. Gordon reports a pair of twin boys that remained normal until the ages of 11 and 15 years when with the onset of myxedema these boys developed epilepsy. We recall a case antedated by chronic disease of the tonsils, and another appeared after dysentery.



Fig. 397.—Feet and Legs of a Child 9½ Years in a Case of Sporadic Cretinism Showing Wide Space between Prominent Great Toe and Next Little Toe (H. I. Goldstein).

Congenital idiocy ("Angeborene Idiot") in addition to mental defects displays underdevelopment of the genitals. The testes may be undescended.

Physical Signs.—The face appears to be swollen, rounded, and the features somewhat distorted and expressionless. The skin and mucous membrane displays a peculiar pallor, or the so-called cretinoid cachexia. The fingers are thick and clubbed, and their cutaneous covering rough and deeply wrinkled at certain portions, while the articular surfaces of the skin may be somewhat elevated. The hair is thin over the scalp and has a rough and lusterless appearance. In extreme cases pubic and axillary hair may be absent. The mucous membranes are also thickened, consequently the tongue, lips, and nose are appreciably enlarged, and the teeth may be loosened. The feet and lower extremities present a condition quite similar to that of the hands (Fig. 397). The movements are slow and the gait somewhat uncertain, and there is often disturbed coordination.

Palpation.—The hair feels rough and lifeless. The skin is somewhat roughened, and, while appreciably thickened, does not pit upon pressure. Late during the course of myxedema the signs of peritoneal fluid are occasionally observed. Ordinarily it is impossible to palpate the thyroid gland, and this may be in part due to atrophy of the organ on the one hand, and to thickened myxedematous tissue of the neck on the other.

Percussion.—This physical method is of but limited service, except for determining the size of the heart (dilatation) and the presence of abdominal fluid, both of which features are seen late during the disease.

Auscultation.—The speech is slow, somewhat drawn, and accentuation impaired so that the patient's voice is in monotones, to which are attached a peculiar nasal element. (See Childhood-myxedema.)

Laboratory Diagnosis.—The quantity of nitrogen excreted through the urine is below that of the normal. In some cases the urine may be found to contain albumin and sugar. The metabolic rate is low.

Cretinism.—This is allied very closely to myxedema, inasmuch as it is due to the same cause—congenital maldevelopment, atrophy or absence



FIG. 398.—CRETIN BORN IN PHILADELPHIA OF ITALIAN PARENTS.

Five and one-half years old. Height 22½ inches.

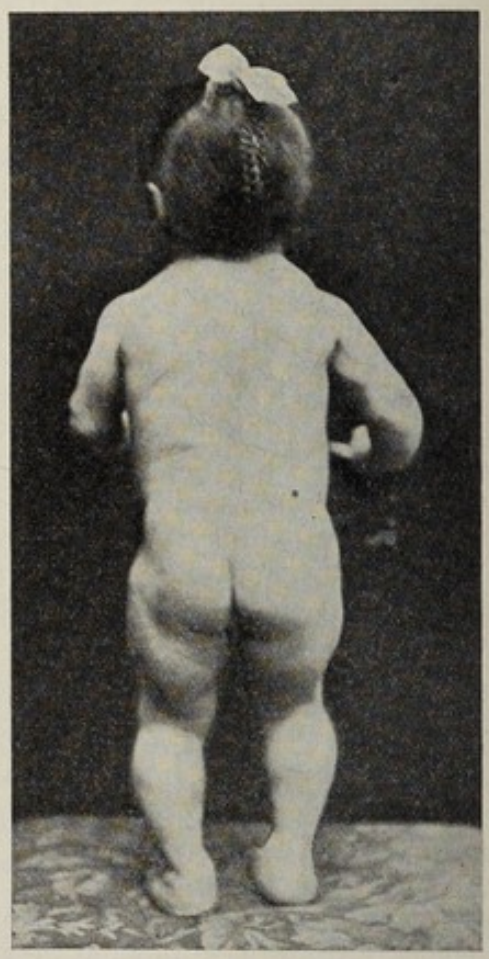


FIG. 399.—POSTERIOR VIEW OF CASE SHOWN IN FIG. 398.

of the thyroid gland. It is endemic in certain localities, as Switzerland, but may sometimes be found sporadically. The symptoms are recognized early in infancy. The growth is stunted, the figure small, walking is delayed, and the bones are usually poorly formed. The facial appearance is typical, consisting in a retracted nose, large lips and mouth, and lolling and enlarged tongue with some dribbling of saliva. The face is large, the lower jaw and brow are prominent, and the eyes are small. The intellect is usually impaired and talking is interfered with. If the disease is marked, there may be an anteroposterior curvature of the spine with protrusion of the abdomen. The skin is usually waxy and pale and the hair brittle (Figs. 398 and 399).

Amaurotic Family Idiocy.—A rare disease, first described by Sachs, characterized by mental impairment, observed during the first months of life and leading to absolute idiocy, paralysis or paresis of the greater part of the body, which may be either flaccid or spastic, the reflexes being either normal, increased, or diminished, with diminution of vision terminating in absolute blindness; the latter is typical of the disease and consists pathologically of a cherry-red spot in the region of the macula lutea, and later in atrophy of the optic nerve. The disease terminates fatally, as a rule, before the age of two years. The condition is first noticed from about the third to the sixth month, the first symptoms being those of general apathy, followed by disturbance of vision which rapidly leads to blindness. It is a familial disease, and nearly all the reported cases have been Jewish patients. The etiology of the disease is still obscure.

Adiposis Dolorosa.—A disease first described by Dercum, appearing in adult life and characterized by gradual fatty enlargements of various portions of the body, associated with some pain and tenderness. There is usually great muscular weakness and a curious mental disturbance which is generally associated with a neuropathic disposition. The cause of the disease is unknown. Adiposity of Infancy and Childhood (p. 1136).

GOITER (GRAVES' DISEASE; BASEDOW'S DISEASE, HYPERTHYROIDISM)

A disease characterized by protrusion of one or both eyeballs, enlargement of the thyroid gland, palpitation, and a general neurotic condition. It is the result either of excessive or abnormal secretions of the thyroid gland. It is more common in women and generally appears in early adult life.

Clinical Consideration.—The endocrine or hormonopoietic glands constitute a chain of structures among which most close interrelation exists, because of an inherent tendency on the part of one gland of this system, when diseased, to produce an associated disease of one or more other members of this system. It will be found that in cases of multiglandular syndromes a clinical analysis is made with difficulty in comparison with uniglandular disease.

Clinically over-activity of the thyroid gland (hyperthyroidism) has an associated clinical syndrome which will be found in striking contrast with the syndrome presented by hypothyroidism. (See Differential Diagnosis.) Among the cardinal features of this syndrome should be mentioned (*a*) fine tremor; (*b*) persistent tachycardia; (*c*) struma; (*d*) prominence of the eyeballs with progressive weakness and psychoses.

In hyperthyroidism there are evidences of the production of a toxin which exerts a peculiar action upon the cardiovascular system, and upon the autonomic structures and the tissues that are particularly concerned in metabolism. This substance has been referred to by Kendall as thyroxin.

Among the symptoms and signs resulting from autonomic innervation should be mentioned the ocular phenomena (p. 1087) rapidity of the heart, abnormalities of the skin, digestive, intestinal, respiratory, and genital systems. It may be allowable in this connection to call attention to the autonomic nervous system as consisting clinically to two parts,—the sympathetic system, and the cranial or vagal autonomic system. In most cases of hyperthyroidism both of these nervous systems suffer.

Predisposing and Exciting Factors.—It is quite generally accepted that focal infection plays a conspicuous part in enlargement of the

thyroid. Billings* reports many instances of thyroid enlargement following focal infection, and in some of these thyroid intoxication existed. Vincent in the study of 156 cases of acute rheumatic fever, found that thyroid gland enlarged in 68.3 per cent. of them. Any acute infectious fever ordinarily aggravates the thyroid condition, and the gland increases in size during the attack. It has been the author's experience to encounter many cases where removal of the focus of infection was followed by lessening in size of the gland, and improvement in the symptoms resulting from thyroid disease. The thymus is hyperplastic in over 40 per cent. of cases dying from intercurrent disease. Posterior pituitary overactivity is a frequent accompaniment of hyperthyroidism with exophthalmos, and of exophthalmic goiter. Asher and Flack have



FIG. 400.—FATAL CASE OF HYPERTHYROIDISM TREATED IN 1924 in the Philadelphia General Hospital.

Ligation of thyroid arteries gave no relief. The condition was antedated by extensive infection of the teeth and tonsils.

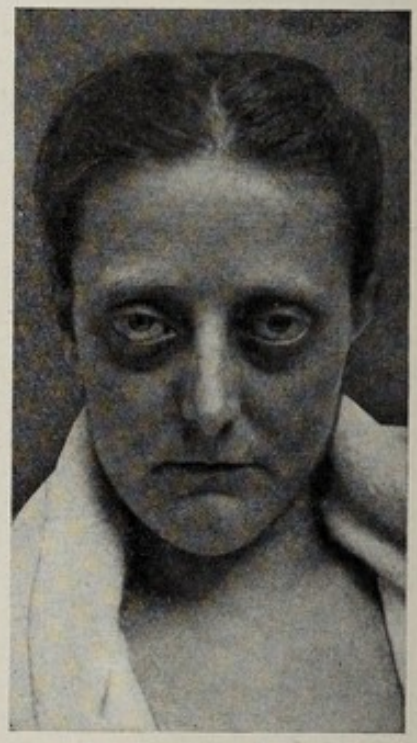


FIG. 401.—EXOPHTHALMIC GOITER, PHOTOGRAPHED AT THE TIME WHEN GOITER WAS NOT MARKEDLY ENLARGED.

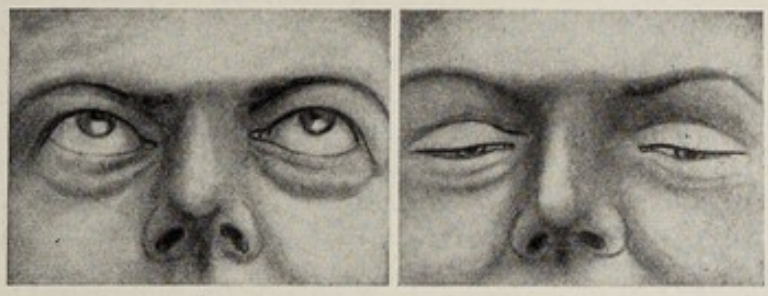
given the earliest concrete experimental evidences of a definite relation between the thyroid and adrenals.

Symptoms and Signs.—Cardiovascular Features.—Tachycardia is the most constant of this group, and the heart may become irregular and the pulse decidedly intermittent. Attacks of cardiac palpation are common. Cases of long standing show an appreciable evidence of myocarditis, and later there may be cardiac dilatation, and auricular fibrillation. Variations in blood pressure are found. A pulse rate of 120 to 140 is the rule.

Respiratory Symptoms.—These are chiefly limited to a sense of dyspnea, periodic attacks of rapid respiration, shallow breathing, and a rapid rising and falling of the trachea, and slight cough.

*The Lane. Med. Lectures, 1917, p. 103.

Gastro-intestinal Features.—Among these should be mentioned an unusually good appetite, early during the disease. Intermittent attacks of diarrhea are to be expected, and are so severe that they suggest acute intestinal infection. The stools are watery, bile tinged and contain particles of undigested food. These attacks are associated with an acute exacerbation of the disease. The metabolic rate is temporarily increased and the patient's physical condition advances rapidly from bad to worse. Frequent attacks of nausea and even of vomiting may develop without apparent cause



1 2

FIG. 402.—METHOD OF OBTAINING BOSTON-KOCHER SIGN, WHICH CONSISTS IN A SPASMODIC CONTRACTION OF THE UPPER LID WHEN FIRST ATTEMPTING TO LOOK AT A FINGER. NOS. 1 AND 2.

Cutaneous Features.—Erythema of the face and neck is an occasional feature. A discrete pink rash may appear on the arms, lower extremities and occasionally over the entire body. Attacks of profuse sweating, involving the palms of the hands and soles of the feet are common. The skin is thin, delicate and of an extraordinarily soft texture. Emil Sergent described his vasomotor phenomenon generally referred to as Sergent's white line and regarded it as evidence of adrenal insufficiency.

Ocular Phenomena.—Most of the eye signs are dependent upon exophthalmos. (1) There is an appreciable widening of the lid slits



FIG. 403.—METHOD OF OBTAINING VON GRAEFE'S SIGN, WHICH CONSISTS IN LAGGING OF THE UPPER LID WHEN THE FINGER IS FOLLOWED FROM ABOVE DOWNWARD.

(Dalrymple's sign). (2) Dissociation of the movements of the eyeball and of the superior lid (Von Graefe's sign). (3) There is also widening of the palpebral fissure (Stellwag's sign). (4) Inability of the eyes to converge upon near objects (Moebius' sign). (5) Inability of the upper lid to follow the eyeball downward without a spasm of the lid after which the lid continues to descend (Boston's sign), and (6) tremor of the superior lid, especially when the patient rotates the eye from above downward (Kocher's sign). Interference with vision is also observed. Infrequent winking is an early feature. Intraocular pressure is disturbed. (See Ovary, pp. 1087 and 1162.)

Psychic Phenomena.—Patients exhibit a peculiar restlessness, quickness of movements, and a high degree of alertness. They are apprehensive, fearful, anxious, and in many instances it is impossible to reason with them. Insomnia is a frequent and annoying symptom. Fine tremors, especially of the hands, eyelids, and muscles of the face are observed. Progressive muscular weakness is among the commonest of complaints.

Genito-urinary System.—In the female there is an appreciable relation between the thyroid gland and the genitalia, and there is a moderate enlargement of the thyroid at puberty and during pregnancy. Menstrual disturbances are present in 25 to 30 per cent. of all cases. The breasts may show hypertrophy in both male and female subjects, but after hyperthyroidism has existed for a long period the mammary glands show atrophy. In both sexes there is hypoplasia of the genital organs.

Polyuria may occur at any time during hyperthyroidism and suggests an associated involvement of the pituitary. An increased thirst is to be expected when polyuria exists, and frequency of micturition may be the first complaint suggesting possible pituitary involvement.

Laboratory Findings.—Lymphocytosis with a corresponding diminution in the polymorphonuclear neutrophiles is the rule. We are inclined to attach but limited importance to this finding since hyperthyroidism is frequently associated with disease of the thymus. Metabolism is increased.

Late in the course of exophthalmic goiter the urine is likely to contain albumin and hyalin casts. Intermittent albuminuria is common. In beginning hyperthyroidism glycosuria is an occasional finding.

In hyperthyroidism with goiter, Blank studied the blood in 41 cases and found poikilocytosis present in 30 per cent. of them. The hemoglobin is usually diminished; although Blank found 28 per cent. of his cases of Graves' disease to be normal in this respect. The color index may fluctuate greatly, but is of little diagnostic value. The number of leucocytes per cubic mm. is likewise valueless. Fifty per cent. of cases display polychromasia, and basophilic stippling is present in from 55 to 75 per cent. of such bloods.

Blood Chemistry.—H. O. Mosenthal* states that nervous patients do not necessarily have a high metabolism as is seen in cases of exophthalmic goiter.

The patient (Fig. 400) was placed comfortably upon a cot, and remained in the recumbent posture during the test. The blood-pressure, pulse and respiration were taken and, as seen in the table on p. 1097 were—systolic 130—diastolic 58, pulse pressure 72, pulse 92, and respiration 28. She was then given hyperdermically 5 minims of adrenalin chloride. The blood pressure, pulse and respiration were recorded 2½ minutes later. The peculiar changes in these clinical observations (as originally described by Goetsch) resulting from the injection of adrenalin chloride, are set forth in the table and chart on pp. 1097–1098.

Summary of Diagnosis.—Typical cases practically never escape detection, but in obscure cases there may be present only one of the following symptoms, *e. g.*, tachycardia, progressive emaciation, intermittent attacks of watery diarrhea, a fine tremor of the hands, mental anxiety with quickening of the muscular movements. Attacks of profuse sweating of the palms of the hands and soles of the feet, or any one of the eye signs herein mentioned should cause the clinicians to consider, at least, hyperthyroidism.

* N. Y. Med. Jour., 114, June 6, 1921.

X-Ray.—In cases where the enlarged thyroid is beneath the sternum, it is disclosed through roentgenologic studies.

Special Tests.—Therapeutic test may be of service and consists in the fact that in hyperthyroidism it frequently happens that the patient cannot tolerate iodine and its administration aggravates tachycardia. The administration of small doses of thyroid extract three or four times daily will produce unquestionable symptoms of hyperthyroidism in incipient cases.

WARD NOTES

NAME Catherine Carr

GOETSCH TEST

TIME	BLOOD PRESSURE			PULSE	RESPIRATIONS	REMARKS
	S	D	P			
Normal	I30	58	72	92	28	
2.5 Min.	I34	60	74	96	32	Tremors and pallor
5.0 "	I38	50	88	I00	36	
7.5 "	I36	44	92	I04	32	Marked tremors Extrasystoles
I0.0 "	I34	46	88	I00	32	Irregular pulse
I5.0 "	I38	40	98	96	32	Cervical pulsations
20.0 "	I40	38	I02	I04	32	Tremors increased
25.0 "	I50	40	II0	I00	32	
30.0 "	I40	50	90	I04	28	Pupils dilated
35.0"	I50	40	II0	I08	36	Pulse bounding
40.0 "	I46	44	I02	I08	36	
45.0 "	I44	44	I00	I20	32	Restlessness
50.0 "	I58	40	II8	I20	36	Flushing and sweating
55.0"	I52	42	II0	I20	40	Tremors increased
60.0 "	I44	48	96	I20	40	
70.0 "	I40	50	90	I04	40	Sweating subsides
80.0 "	I40	50	90	I04	40	Pallor
90.0 "	I38	50	88	I04	36	Tremors lessened

FIG. 404.

The **epinephrin mydriasis** was described by Loewi who found that the administration of a few drops of 1 to 1000 solution of epinephrin produces dilatation of the pupils. We have found this test positive in a rather large percentage of typical cases, but in both early and late cases the reaction has not proven satisfactory.

Abderhalden's ferment test may be used in the diagnosis of hyperthyroidism; but this test is too complicated to be used in general diagnosis.

Pituitary Test.—Claude, Baudouin and Porak found that the subcutaneous injection of posterior pituitary lobe solution induced bradycardia in cases of hyperthyroidism.

Complement Deviation Test.—Marinesco, Roseo recommend a deviation test claiming that in advanced hyperthyroidism there is sufficient substance (antigen) in the blood serum to induce a definite reaction.

Kottman-reaction for Thyroid Activity.—*Technic.*—(*a*) To 1 c.c. of clear serum are added 0.25 c.c. of a 0.5 per cent. solution of potassium iodid and 0.3 c.c. of a 0.5 per cent. solution of silver nitrate.

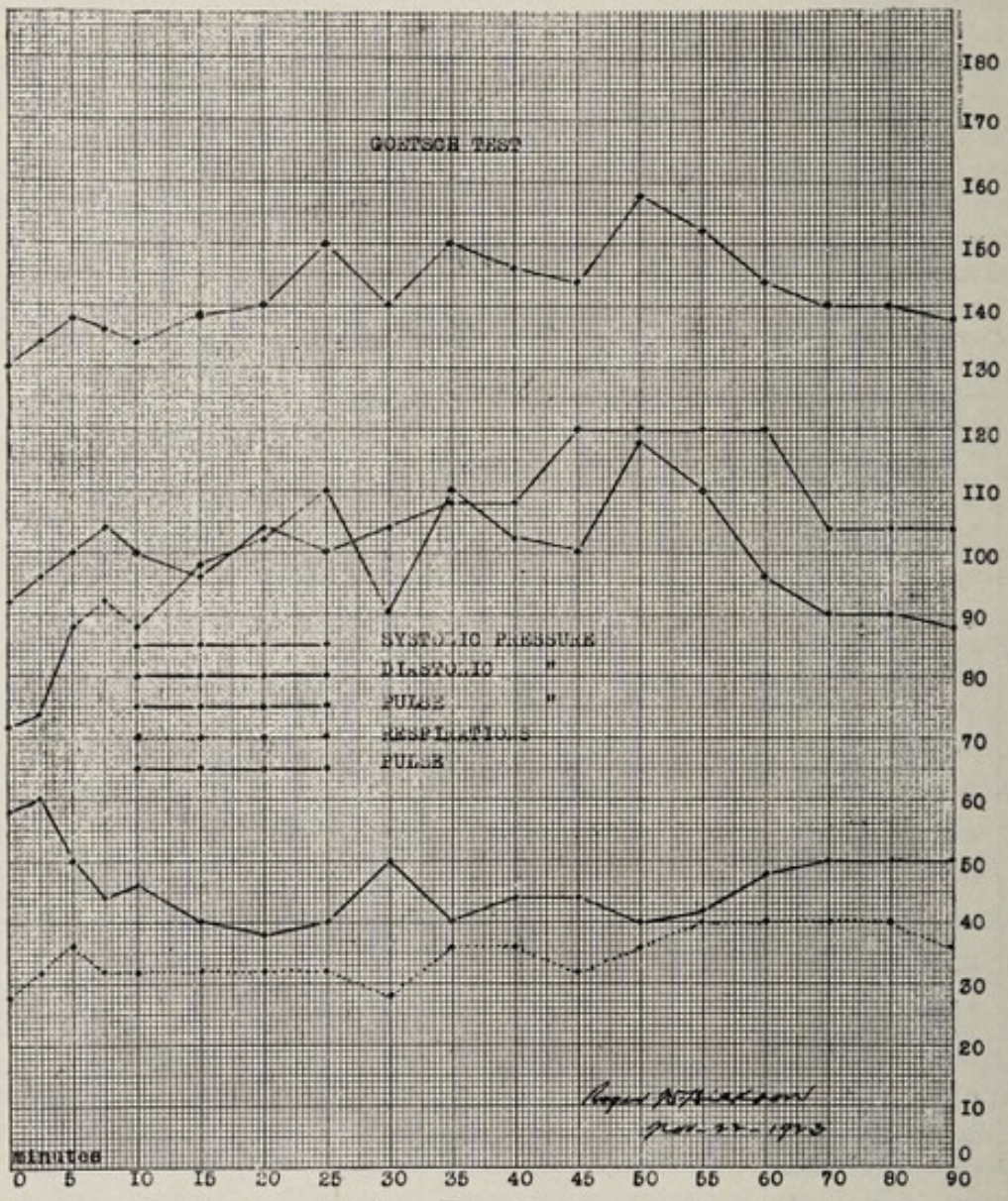


Fig. 405.

(*b*) Expose the resulting suspension of silver iodid in the serum for five minutes at a distance of 25 cm. to a 500 watt Mazda lamp (or other light of equal intensity).

(*c*) Add 0.5 c.c. of a 0.25 per cent. solution of hydroquinon and observe the color changes at five minute intervals.

A dark room is theoretically desirable—but diffused daylight does not materially interfere with results. The serum should be freshly drawn, preferably before food, free from hemoglobin and clear. Test tubes used should be carefully cleansed and of uniform size. Thorough mixing of the reagents by gently agitating and rotating the tube is

important. Reagents should be freshly prepared and accurately measured, because a slight excess of iodid retards the reaction; whereas an excess of the silver nitrate accelerates the appearance of the color. The color reaction that develops after the addition of hydroquinon varies with different sera.

Kottman found that serum from hyperthyroid cases gave the original yellowish color, which persisted for a considerable time. Normal serum displays a brown color—(silver iodid reduced to free silver). Serum from hypothyroid cases develops an accelerated brown color reaction. The reaction is retarded in serum from individuals who have had bromids.

Differential Diagnosis.—The following table will serve to distinguish Graves' disease from myxedema.

Graves' Disease	Myxedema
1. Enlargement of thyroid, either visible or substernal; usually diffuse.	1. Absence or apparent atrophy of gland.
2. Pulse frequent 110 to 140, commonly irregular.	2. Pulse slow, small, and ordinarily regular.
3. Vasomotors excitable.	3. Vasomotors retarded.
4. Expression anxious, or a suggestion of anger.	4. Eyes somewhat fixed, apathetic, expressionless.
5. Increased area between eyelids, protrusion of eyes (exophthalmos), common.	5. Normal or narrow lid slits.
6. A delicate, thin, moist, highly vascular skin.	6. Skin thick, dry, desquamating, and rough.
7. Fingers long, slender, and tapering at terminal phalanges.	7. Fingers short, thick, with broad ends.
8. Bony structure; delicate.	8. Bones short, thick, with slow growth.
9. Excessive excretions; appetite voracious early, anorexia late.	9. Excretion poor, anorexia, sluggish digestion.
10. Metabolism increased.	10. Metabolism diminished.
11. Restless, disturbed sleep, and extremely nervous.	11. Sleeps well, always drowsy.
12. Intensified action, oversensitiveness.	12. Sensations dulled, apperception slow.
13. Confusion of ideas; hallucinations, mental excitations; rarely mania and melancholia.	13. Slowness of thought; apathy; want of sentiment.
14. Tremor of the extremities; muscles act quickly.	14. Sluggishness in movements of extremities.
15. Intolerance of heat.	15. Complains of feeling cold.
16. Shallow breathing, and limited expansion of chest; movements of the trachea.	16. Deep respiration, usually slow.
17. Progressive loss in weight.	17. Moderate, gradual increase in weight; obesity common.
18. Unusual haste, or restless haste.	18. Slowness of movements, with clumsiness.
19. Patient appears young for age.	19. Patient appears too old for age.
20. Diarrhea.	20. Constipation.

SIMPLE GOITER

Simple goiter has been found extremely common amongst school girls in different portions of the United States. Marine and Kimball of Cleveland, made a survey in 1917 beginning at the schools of Akron, Ohio, examining girls from the 5th to the 12th grades. Their reports show that thyroid enlargement is very common in girls at this age, and that it is six times as frequent in girls as in boys. But little is known as to the etiologic factors of simple goiter, but the investigation of the writers herein referred to found that the chief prophylactic measure was the administration of iodine, given in the form of sodium iodide in 0.2

gm. doses. Of 2190 pupils taking iodine 5 developed some enlargement of the thyroid gland. Out of 2305 pupils not taking iodine, 495 showed thyroid enlargement.

Laboratory Findings.—During acute infection of the thyroid, the urine may be cloudy, and display a heavy sediment, on centrifugation, which at first resembles pus. Microscopically most of these cells contain one large nucleus. Their cytoplasm stains faintly with methylene blue, and many of the cells display vacuoles. There are also areas which resemble fat, but none of these particles answer to the requirements of fat when treated with oxalic acid or sudan III. Pepper* has reported these endothelial leucocytes in connection with thyroid infection. The analysis of 4006 thyroidectomies from the Mayo Clinic for simple colloid and adenomatous goiters showed 13.5 per cent. of them to be substernal, 0.6 per cent. of which were regarded as intrathoracic. In 25.4 per cent. of cases hyperthyroidism existed, and an appreciable deformity was apparent in but 30 per cent. of the cases, while 10.7 per cent. of them showed dilatation of the veins of the neck and chest. Among 452 patients studied, 10 per cent. showed either partial or complete paralysis of both vocal cords.

SCLERODERMA

This is a peculiar disease characterized by either a general or local disturbance of the skin and some of the underlying tissues. It may be limited to the face, neck, upper limbs, genital organs, or to certain other portions of the skin, when it is called morphea. It is characterized by a peculiar hardening and contraction of the skin, which sometimes becomes discolored, and there may rarely be eruptions over the involved parts. The skin is hard to touch, cannot be pinched, and does not pit to pressure. It produces deformities, and when over the face it will cause a mask-like condition; when in the fingers, a peculiar deformity and contraction; and if limited to the chest, may inhibit respiration. Atrophy of the parts may follow. Some endocrinologists believe this condition to depend upon endocrine dysbalance.

Scleroderma has been found in those afflicted with both thyroid and adrenal disease and there are also cases where the application of *x*-ray to the thyroid and thymus has been followed by prompt relief. Sclerodactylia (scleroderma involving the fingers and toes with changes in the bones) is also a feature of hyperthyroidism and was present in the case of a male, age 46, who came under the care of one of us at the Northwestern General Hospital. This man gave a history of asthma extending over a period of 12 years and through which he had become totally incapacitated.

A large substernal thyroid was demonstrable. There was present exophthalmos and the other signs and symptoms of hyperthyroidism.

Following the second application of *x*-ray treatment, all symptoms of asthma disappeared. The exophthalmos became less pronounced and the patient made an uninterrupted recovery.

THE THYMUS GLAND

Clinical Consideration.—It is generally believed that the thymus should be included in the hormonopoietic system, because of substances produced that exert an important influence upon growth and the function of other organs in early life. It exerts a tremendous effect on type

* Am. Jour. Med. Sci., Sept., 1920.

and the physical and bony growth of the individual, and likewise influences the development of the sexual organs. Its physiologic retrogression occurs in early years previous to which date the thymus has inhibited the development of the sexual structures, and following retrogression permits the sexual organs to assume their proper growth. The thymus is not definitely proven to belong to the endocrine system.

Thymus hyperplasia is commonly found as a pluriglandular condition, such hyperplasia being present in goiter, myxedema, pituitary dystrophy, and acromegaly. The thymus is hyperplastic in at least 40 per cent. of cases of Basedow's disease that succumb to intercurrent disease, and Falta regards over 80 per cent. of Basedow's that die from the disease itself have associated disease of the thymus.

With reference to under-function of the thymus there is but little positive clinical evidence at hand, and on account of many disputed points in this connection, we omit further discussion of hypothymus. The known clinical syndrome of over-function of the thymus is now recognized, and appears under such titles as hyperthymismus, asthma thymicum, and thymicolymphaticus. Some symptoms of the thymic syndrome are apparently due to mechanical pressure of the enlarged gland; while other symptoms doubtless depend upon the over-production of the thymus hormone.

"In status lymphaticus there seems always to be an associated hypoplasia of the chromaffin system, whereas in status thymicus (a large thymus without status lymphaticus) the chromaffin system may be normal" (Barker).

The too early removal or destruction of the thymus is followed by an early development of the genitalia, and too late a disappearance of the thymus inhibits the development of the genitalia and delays puberty, thyroid and adrenal activity.

The number of sudden deaths of young children reported in connection with various forms of enlargement of the thymus gland is steadily increasing. The thymus gland has been found enlarged in eighteen cases of epilepsy reported by Ohlmacher. Hemorrhage into the thymus gland is clinically indistinguishable from hemorrhage of the mediastinum.

THYMUS HYPERPLASIA

This condition when seen in children usually makes its appearance during the first few weeks or months of life, and its annoying symptoms commonly subside after the second year. The vital points at which pressure is made by the enlarged thymus are between the posterior surfaces of the manubrium sterni and the vertebræ. Another favorite point of pressure (occurring more commonly in adults) results in compression of the trachea between the bronchocephalic trunk and the left common carotid. Pressure at this point may not be confined to the ring of the trachea alone. The original idea that symptoms of thymic disorders resulted from pressure is growing less popular, and clinical opinion favors the production of these symptoms through thymic dysfunction. It is impossible to apportion, at present, the exact part of thymic symptoms referable to pressure and those produced through abnormal function.

According to Crotti, the superior opening of the thorax of a child has an anteroposterior diameter of 2 cm. This writer calls attention to the fact that the anteroposterior diameter of the superior opening of the thorax may be appreciably lessened by extension of the head, an anatomic feature which explains why patients suffering from thymus enlarge-

ment experience more dyspnea when lying upon the back and when the chin is hyper-extended.

Inspection.—There is commonly present a variable degree of dyspnea with cyanosis. There are seen playing of the nostrils, and undue movement of the auxiliary muscles of respiration. At each inspiratory effort there is a distinct depression immediately above the sternum. Paroxysmal attacks of dyspnea are described by most patients while in others the breathing is always labored.

Palpation.—By placing the index finger immediately above, and behind the episternal notch, the impact of the enlarged thymus is readily

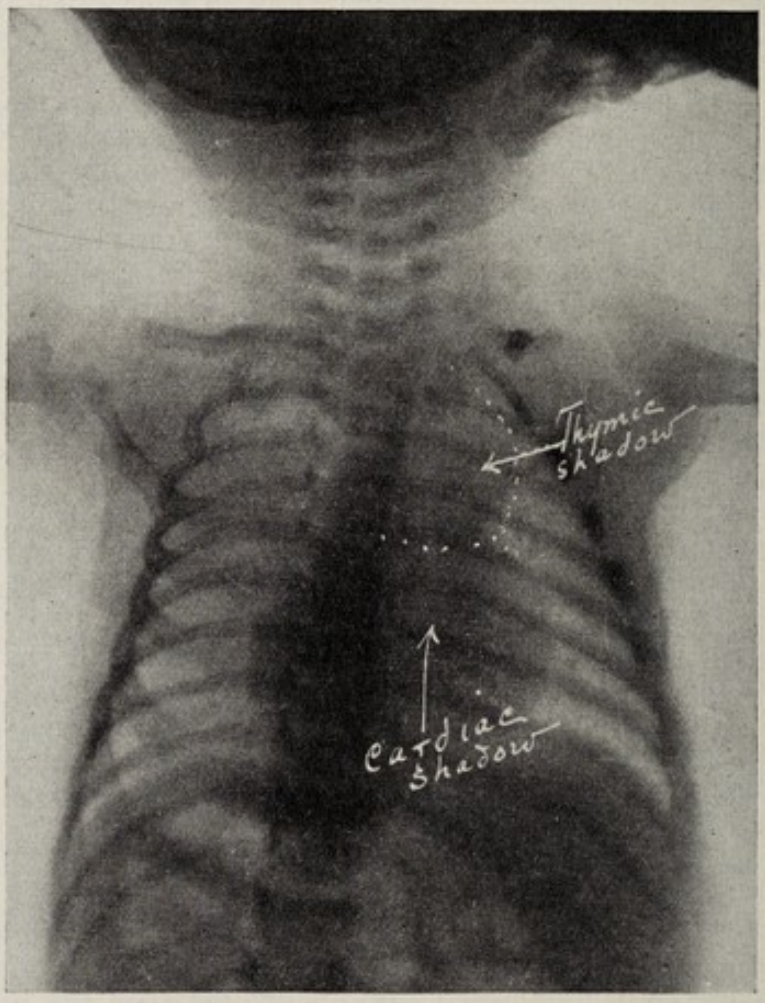


FIG. 406.—CHILD, AGE 5 MONTHS, WHO HAD A COARSE VOICE AND HAD EXPERIENCED ATTACKS OF DYSPNEA SINCE BIRTH.

He received *x*-ray treatment at the time this picture was taken, and after four treatments enjoyed health. Dotted line shows the extent of thymic shadow.

palpable. Sudden elevation of the chin is followed by an appreciable increase in the degree of dyspnea.

Percussion.—Light percussion over the upper portion of the sternum will be found to reveal an area of dulness which varies proportionately with the extent of thymus hyperplasia. It is possible in many cases to outline the enlarged thymus by auscultatory percussion; two instances have occurred in children in the Philadelphia General Hospital, where the thymus was accurately outlined in this manner (findings confirmed by necropsy).

Auscultation.—In many cases the respiratory sounds are loud, and a distinct inspiratory stridor may be heard when standing some distance

from the patient. During an attack of dyspnea a less marked expiratory stridor is occasionally present. In selected cases, the respiratory sounds are approximately normal between the attacks of dyspnea. Numerous moist and dry râles are heard over the greater portion of the chest. A sign of great value is that in dyspnea from an enlarged thymus, the voice is normal both during and between the respiratory paroxysms. Any abnormality in the respiratory function of an infant or child calls for consideration of the thymus as a possible etiologic factor.

STATUS THYMICOLYMPHATICUS

Pathology.—The thymus remains large until after twelve years of age. The adrenals are claimed to be deficient both as to size and chromaffin content. The pituitary body is, as a rule, small and bound down by the clinoid processes. Gonadal development is deficient. The vascular system displays vessels of small caliber, a feature best demonstrated by the aorta and coronary arteries.

Incontinence of urine and enuresis is commonly observed. Sergent's white line is present and obtained by stroking the skin of the abdomen. Hyperplasia in the lymph nodes, spleen and intestines is present. Schridde has considered at length the thymic constitution.*

Skeleton.—The skeletal tissue is abnormal, either the thorax is too long for the legs, or the hands too long for the arms and legs. This body disproportion is suggestive of thymic disease.

Teeth.—Invariably the eruption of the teeth is delayed, and this is especially true in permanent dentition. The central incisors of the upper jaw are, as a rule, large (but do not protrude as in pituitary disease); while the lateral incisors are unusually small, and the canine teeth often fail to develop their fang-like characteristics, but resemble more closely the incisors on their cutting edges. The molars appear very late. (See Ovarian and Testicular Endocrinology.)

Joints.—The joints are loosely constructed, consequently dislocations are common, and many patients are able to produce extraordinary contortions. The extremities, and in fact the entire body appears to be loosely coupled and even the fixed joints (sacroiliac) are slightly moveable. Due to these imperfect joints, especially those of the feet, the patient does not move about as does the normal subject.

Skin.—The skin is unduly soft and velvet like to the touch, while the cheeks assume almost an artificial pinkness. The bluish veins are seen to shine through the translucent skin. Brook in his study of the relation between thymus disease and lesions of the skin, contends that psoriasis is an expression of thymic dysfunction and in the treatment of lichen ruber, planus and ichthyosis he has obtained favorable reports after *x*-ray treatment of the thymus. (See Scleroderma.)

Hair.—In the axillary and pubic regions fine down-like hairs are present, but the secondary normal growth appears late. The hairy growth on the head is liberal and often profuse.

Gonads.—The male shows an unusual retardation in growth of the genitalia. The external organs display some resemblance to that of the female. Undescended testicle is common. In males it is equally common to find tooth deformities in connection with those who are wanting in the true elements of masulinity. As has been repeatedly stated in other departments of science the man with normal teeth always has a masculine voice, whereas the feminine characteristics of the voice, etc., are present in beardless men who do not present the ordinary fea-

* Münch. med. Wchnschr, 71: 1674, Nov. 28, 1924.

tures of mature men. (See Hypopituitarism, p. 1136.) In females the clitoris is abnormally large, while other features of puberty are delayed. Hyperplasia of the lymph tissues, of the nose, throat and tongue together with palpable cervical and axillary glands is the rule.

Eyes.—The pupils are, as a rule, large and mobile. The sclera a clear bluish white, and the vessels of the fundus unusually narrow in caliber.

Laboratory Findings.—The blood displays a relative lymphocytosis. The blood sugar is low, as is also the carbon dioxid tension of the blood plasma. Coagulation time is prolonged, and may reach 12 to 15 minutes.

Clinical Features.—Among the clinical symptoms common in status lymphaticus are to be found those referable to a sluggishness of all negative (sympathetic) functions. A common complaint is difficulty in breathing, and frequent yawning. Constipation is the rule. The patient is unable to undertake any business, or to carry out satisfactorily his functions in life. The blood-pressure is as a rule low. The blood shows an increase in mononuclear cells.

Symmers of New York in his analysis of 4000 autopsies emphasizes most of the foregoing characteristics, and Emerson gives the following necessary features for the recognition of this condition. In cases of men, one finds scantiness of hair on the face, chin, upper lip, axilla and sternum, with a tendency for the feminine distribution of pubic hairs. The thorax is slender and the arms and thighs rounded in contour resembling that of the female. There is hyperplasia of the genitals. The skin has a delicate appearance and a velvet like feel. In event of hyperplasia of the lymphatic tissues of the upper respiratory tract the diagnosis is complete.

In females the scant pad of hair in the arm pits, and pubes and the slender thorax is common. Rarely women of thymic conformation show an abnormal growth of hair on the face and upper lip.

STATUS THYMICUS

The existence of disease of the thymus in no way prevents the patient from developing other maladies. The fact that these cases present evidence of low resistance suggests strongly that they are susceptible to many types of infection. It behooves the clinician to keep in mind the symptoms and signs resulting from thymic pathology. Clinical thymic phenomena are often present although in a great measure overshadowed by the symptoms of other maladies—*e. g.*, incipient tuberculosis, focal infection and nephritis.

Thymic Asthma.—This term was applied to define a certain type of respiration, supposedly dependent upon thymic disease, by Klopp as early as 1829. The chief symptom in children is respiratory stridor.

Jackson has detected through bronchoscopic examination that the trachea is more or less collapsed in this condition and similar findings have been reported by Brayton and Heublein, Pitfield, and Parker.

Thymic asthma is commonly found in children and the accompanying illustrations (Figs. 407–408) show twins, the mother had eclampsia at their birth. Both children had a harsh crowing voice. One suffered from repeated attacks, and in many of these the nurse had to resort to artificial respiration in order to revive the child. After Dr. M. K. Fisher had treated the thymus with *x*-ray all symptoms gradually lessened and recovery followed. There was noticeable harshness of the voice at the age of sixteen months.

In children the attack ordinarily develops while the child is crying, it suddenly stiffens, throws its head upward, has a stare-like expression, and becomes unconscious. There may be retraction of the abdomen, followed by cyanosis of the lips, face and extremities. After an attack, the child is exhausted, but within the course of a few hours returns to normal.

Spasmophilia.—The term "spasmophilic diathesis" refers to a constitutional anomaly characterized by an hyperexcitability and irritability of the nervous system. The most common active manifestations are convulsions, laryngospasm, spasmodic apnea, and the carpopedal spasm. The latent evidences are Chovostek's facial phenomenon and Trousseau's sign. Among the most constant findings is Erb's sign. Hyperexcitability of the peripheral nerves is evidenced by reaction to the galvanic

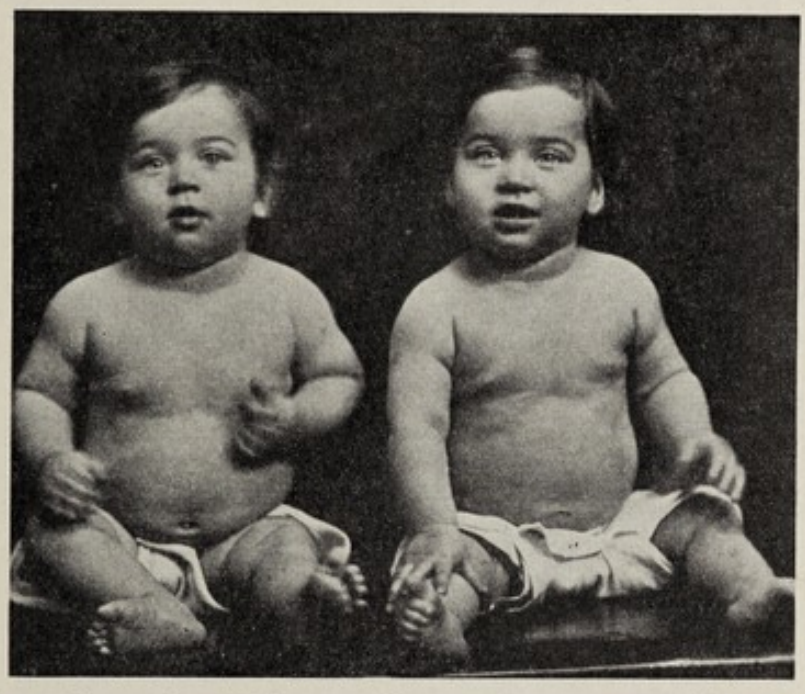


FIG. 407.—TWIN GIRLS, AGE 11 MONTHS, MOTHER SUFFERED FROM ECLAMPSIA AT TIME OF BIRTH.

One child had repeated paroxysmal attacks of dyspnea. *X*-ray study showed a large thymus shadow. Following *x*-ray treatment, the symptoms disappeared, except a rough, crowing voice remained until two years of age (see Spasmophilia).

current. We will have occasion to refer to these clinical signs, under tetany, parathyroid disease and by way of differentiation in connection with other maladies. Death may result from pressure of a large thymus upon the trachea, but it is more generally believed by physiologists that death results from adrenal exhaustion.

Mors Thymicus.—Sudden death has been noted in a number of previously healthy children, and it was this fact that called attention to hyperplasia of the thymus. As early as 1888 Garowitz wrote on this subject, and attributed death to pressure of the thymus on the trachea.

There now exist two theories: The one claiming that mechanical pressure induces death in these cases, while the other is chemical or anaphylactic in nature. It would appear to the clinician as a fair disposition of this subject to suppose, at least, that both of these elements are present in many of the cases, and that the anaphylactic reaction is possible essential in order that mechanical obstruction be produced. It

is with difficulty and often impossible to separate true cases of mors thymicus from that of thymic asthma. The first symptoms are the development of sudden attacks of dyspnea followed by cyanosis, semiconsciousness with fixation of the eyes, apparent holding of the breath (apnea), and blueness of the skin. It is during these attacks that death occurs. These cases may show a special tendency to spasmophilia.

Myasthenia Gravis.—This syndrome was first given in detail by Erb in 1891 and its chief features are fatigue of the muscular system without definite pathology in the nervous system, but with minor changes in the muscles. The ocular muscles are often among the first to be involved, although the condition may be limited to movement of the limbs.

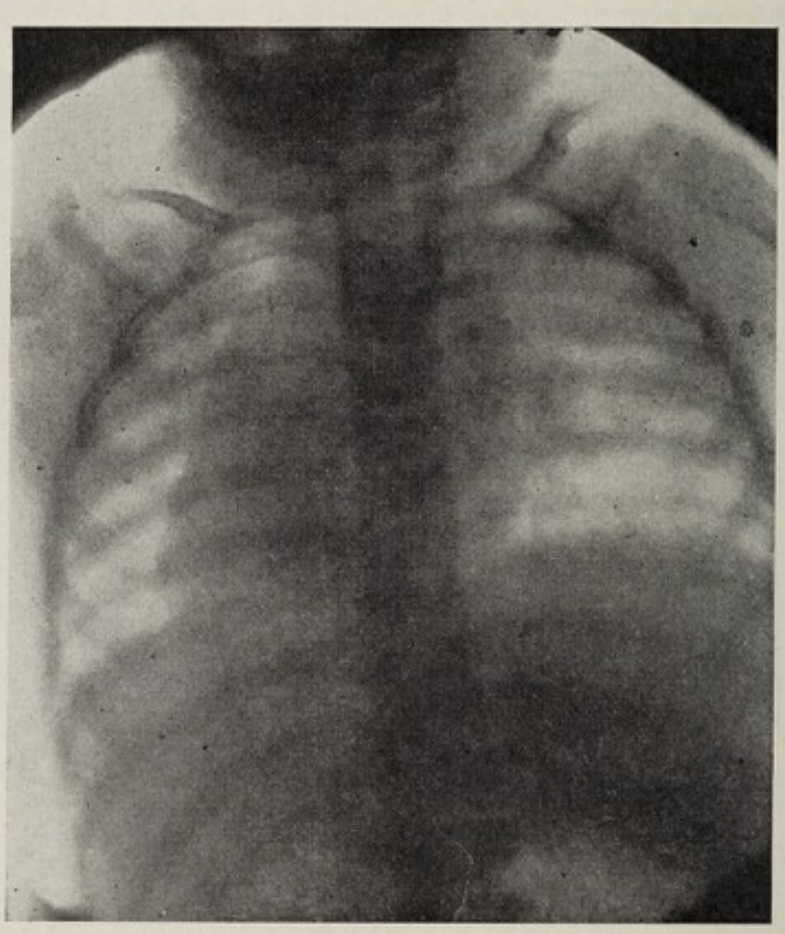


Fig. 408.—*X*-ray Shows Thymus Shadow of Twin Girl Described in Fig. 407.

A rather characteristic feature is that after prolonged rest, the patient is able to use his muscles in practically a normal manner. Reaction by the effected muscles to the faradic current is at first normal. Such muscles at first react but later do not respond to the current. Starr in his compilation of reported cases found that 45 per cent. of them died within six months after the initial attack. Oppenheim's report shows that 26 of his 34 cases were fatal; and Hun in the study of 114 cases reports 50 deaths, seven recoveries and fifty-seven were improved. Dana* gives an exhaustive timely review of this subject.

Pathology.—Weigert has reported at length two cases of myasthenia where thymic tumor existed and Mandelbaum and Cellar found thymic lesions to be present in 11 out of a total of 44 cases. Authors differ as to

* Jour. Am. Med. Assoc., Jan. 28, 1922.

the exact character of the findings in tumors where myasthenia is a symptom. Hoxie (Barker, Endocrinology and Metabolism, p. 411) cites an interesting example of this condition.

A woman aged 41 years appeared at the Northwestern General Hospital, complaining chiefly of weakness and epileptic seizures, and when seen by one of us (Boston) represented clinically an advanced case of myasthenia. Twelve days after admission to the hospital she died, following slight exertion. The thymus was of extraordinary size and weighed 35 gm. The measurements were—length, 7 cm.; width, 6 cm. and thickness, 1.5 cm. There were present petechial hemorrhages into the pleura and sub-endocardial hemorrhages on the tricuspid valves. There was marked dilatation of the right auricle, with moderate dilatation of the left heart. The myocardium presented a bluish tint, but on section was pale red and decidedly soft. The heart's blood was not clotted—dark red and viscid.

Differential Diagnosis.—Myasthenia is to be distinguished from exophthalmic goiter, because both conditions have in common muscular asthenia and emaciation.

Myasthenia gravis does not have a thrill, bruit or hyperplasia of the thyroid; and the vasomotor changes known to exophthalmic goiter are also absent. It is characterized by extreme fatigue, dysphagia, thickness of the speech, diplopia, ptosis, and weakness of the muscles of the limbs.

Myasthenia Prostatitis.—It will be found that in many cases of prostatic inflammation, present in addition to muscular weakness, an abnormal area of dullness beneath the sternum, and at times, the *x*-ray evidence of thymic enlargement. In robust subjects with the foregoing group of clinical phenomena it is not uncommon to find the systolic blood pressure from 90 to 110 mm.

Associated Endocrinopathies.—Associated endocrine disorders are to be expected in thymic disease. The thymus is involved in cases of exophthalmic goiter: Garrè and Capelle found the thymus enlarged in 95 per cent. of cases dead of this condition. Eddy in his collection of 240 cases found thymus pathology in 201 instances, or 83.7 per cent. of them. Symptoms referable to dysfunction of the thymus are present in more than 50 per cent. of the cases regarded as "Graves' Disease."

Reference to hypoplasia of the gonads has been mentioned and diminished axillary, pubic and face hair (hypotrichosis) calls for suspicion of abnormal function on the part of the pituitary (posterior lobe) and adrenals.

PARATHYROID GLANDS

The parathyroid glands, in man, consist of two pairs; a set on each side composed of a superior and an inferior gland, both of which are in close proximity to the thyroid.

The superior glands are the most constant in their position and are loosely connected to the thyroid capsule. The inferior glands are less constant in their relation to the lobe of the thyroid being usually found posteriorly and at the outer margin of the lobe near to the tip. They are often displaced downward and may be separated some distance from the thyroid.

Sandstroem's glands are situated at some distance from the thyroid in certain laboratory animals, and it is probable that this anatomic feature has caused such vastly different reports by laboratory workers

who claimed that they had removed the parathyroids from animals under observation. Post-operative tetany is attributed to a removal of all the parathyroid glandular tissue, but whenever parathyroid tissue is permitted to remain tetany does not develop. Vassale and Massaglia contend that the parathyroids have a selective action in neutralizing the toxins arising from pregnancy, and from muscular fatigue. This study gives rise to the hypothesis that hypofunction of these glands is a factor, and possibly the exciting cause of eclampsia.

In laboratory animals it is difficult to separate satisfactorily the clinical phenomena of eclampsia and of tetany, both of which follow removal of the parathyroid tissue. Sparapani and his associates have shown that in animals after both external parathyroids, and one of the two internal parathyroids have been removed the animals show slight albuminuria, as the only morbid symptom.

Pathology of the Parathyroids.—Bergatrand has reviewed the literature with reference to tumor or hyperplasia of the parathyroids, and further stated that this condition was found in 200 cadavers examined. In certain cases the parathyroid may be enlarged while the thyroid is either normal or atrophied. Tumor-like enlargements of the parathyroids have frequently been found accompanying osteomalacia, but this condition is not a constant feature. Parathyroid tumor has also been reported in cases dead of nephritis, tetany, eclampsia, and epilepsy. Bergstrand examined at necropsy the parathyroids in 50 cases of nephritis, and found one or more parathyroids enlarged in 10 of the cases. Animals that die of tetany or from eclampsia following removal of the parathyroid glands display pathologic changes in the kidneys and in the liver. Cases of "renal dwarfism" and of chronic nephritis with genu valgum have also been reported in connection with pathology of the parathyroids, which suggests that there may be a connection between parathyroid hypofunction, kidney function, osteomalacia, and genu valgum. There are also recorded instances where death has followed operation for genu valgum, and tumor involving the parathyroids was found at necropsy.

Bliss found hemorrhage into the parathyroid tissues in subjects dead of bronchopneumonia, and whooping-cough, and bronchopneumonia in rachitic and syphilitic subjects. At two autopsies on bodies dead of infantile tetany Bliss noted increased vascularity of the parathyroid glands. Proescher and Diller cite an interesting instance where a case of tetany revealed parathyroid hemorrhage with extensive lesions of the spleen, kidney, and liver.

Parathyroid pathology has been found in rickets with enlargement of the glands in all of fourteen necropsies reported by Pappenheimer and Minor.

Cordier has reported the case of a man age 41 years, who suffered from chronic diarrhea, cachexia, paroxysm of pain in the cervical and prelaryngeal regions, with tetany of the arms. At autopsy hematoma of the tracheo-thyroid space was found and had destroyed the right parathyroid, and there were hemorrhages in the left parathyroid.

Massaglia has shown experimentally that hypofunction eventually causes deleterious effects upon the liver, kidneys, and the nervous system.

Physiologic and Clinical Consideration.—The parathyroid glands were first described by Sandstroem in 1890, but their physiologic and clinical importance was not generally appreciated until 1896, when Vassale and Generali detected that these glands were essential to human life, and that the abolition of their function resulted in tetany and death.

Experiments upon laboratory animals have shown that removal of the two external parathyroids from a dog, together with the thyroid caused the development of myxedema. The removal of parathyroids was not followed by morbid symptoms (the one remaining parathyroid appears to be sufficient to maintain health). The reports at hand of the various laboratory experiments tend to show that the function of the thyroid and that of the parathyroid are vastly different in herbivorous animals.

Bergstrand, of Stockholm, Sweden, has recently reported the case of a chronic epileptic aged twenty-two years, in whom he found the two inferior parathyroids to weigh 320 mgm. and 310 mgm. respectively, while the superior parathyroids gave a weight of only 25 mgm. and 45 mgm. (normal). There was also present enlargement of the thymus.

Bergstrand cites another instance of parathyroid disease and thymus pathology existed in the same patient, where the right upper parathyroid weighed 40 mgm., the right inferior 120 mgm., left upper 40 mgm., left inferior 370 mgm. In this patient the general changes of senility were prominent. The patient had suffered for years from attacks of fainting. The blood pressure was subnormal and at autopsy there were present pathologic changes in the brain. These observations call for a careful clinical analysis in cases showing a separate involvement in either the inferior or superior parathyroids and suggest a connection between the inferior parathyroids and fainting attacks, major and minor epilepsy.

Calcium metabolism has long been associated with altered parathyroid function. Massaglia contends that abnormal parathyroid action in the intestine and upon materials entering the portal circulation is to be considered in connection with idiopathic diseases of the liver. Clinically speaking we are at a stupendous disadvantage since we are ignorant of hyperfunction of the parathyroid glands. A number of physiologic chemists have furnished extensive reports regarding disease of the parathyroids, and its relation to metabolism.* The two outstanding facts in this connection are that the parathyroids are concerned in calcium and probably in guanidin. Ulcerations of the skin are rather common in parathyroid disease, and ulcer of the gastrointestinal tract is at times improved by parathyroid therapy.

Clinically the phenomena resulting from diseases or removal of the parathyroid is divided into two classes: (1) Cases that develop morbid symptoms soon after parathyroid removal or disease.

(2) Latent parathyroid insufficiency designates a condition which arises after one remaining healthy parathyroid has been able to continue the parathyroid function for an indefinite time, and then becomes unable to meet the demands made upon it, following which tetany develops. In selected cases where the heart's action is irregular, improvement follows parathyroid therapy.

Chondrodystrophia has been found in connection with parathyroid pathology, where either some of the parathyroids were diseased or could not be found.

General osteitis fibrosa has been connected with struma parathyroidea according to many clinical reports. Simmonds† has compared this condition with the bone changes found in hypophyseal disease. The parathyroids are usually enlarged.

Frankel reported an interesting case where the parathyroids weighed 4.9 gm. This writer calls attention to the fact that pathologic changes in the parathyroid are seldom present in tetany, and at the same time

* Endocrinology, July, 1921, p. 414.

† Deutsche med. Wchschr., Berlin, 1921.

insist that parathyroid pathology is commonly associated with osteitis fibrosa.

The diagnosis of parathyroid disease in connection with symptoms of eclampsia (cramp-like epigastric pains which are often the earliest symptom), is made possible through the therapeutic test. The administration of moderate doses of parathyroid by mouth is followed by relief in such cases. The use of parathyroid will be of value in certain cases of nephritis that display all the classic evidences present in the urine, and in addition pronounced irritability of the tendons, muttering delirium, and a semicomatose state. In this last class of cases parathyroid substance by mouth is followed by a prompt amelioration of all the nervous phenomena (the therapeutic test). A change in the feel of the skin, an increase in the flow of urine, and a diminution in the quantity of albumin is to be expected, but casts may persist for an indefinite period.

TETANY

Definition and Consideration.—A peculiar form of rigidity and spasm of the terminal portions of the upper and lower limbs, characterized by irritability of the nerve trunks. There are also trophic disturbances such as loss of hair, brittleness of the nails and anomalies of the teeth. During pregnancy the parathyroids show hyperemia, and tetany is occasionally encountered during pregnancy, and in nursing women. Acute tetany accompanied by pronounced nervous and cutaneous symptoms may follow operation on the thyroid gland, where the parathyroids were also removed and this condition is known clinically as tetania parathyropriva. Bandler states that "one normal parathyroid instead of four suffices."

The parathyroids may become tuberculous, and in such cases Chvostek's phenomena develops. Tetany may develop in infants, and a definite relationship appears to exist between tetany seen in females at puberty, menstruation, pregnancy, and lactation. It is generally conceded that the parathyroid glands maintain the balance of neuro-muscular activity, therefore, myasthenia (muscular debility) and tetany according to Chvostek are diametrically opposed; tetany developing in those cases where there is hypofunction, and myasthenia in cases where hyperfunction exists. The relationship existing between the thyroid and parathyroid glands is conspicuous, and after the removal of the parathyroids, thyroid hypertrophy frequently follows.

Special Clinical Types.—Tetany and Gastro-intestinal Disease.—The literature furnishes a description of four conditions in which tetany may be present, and these are referred to as a tetany in duodenal dilatation, gastric tetany, tetany in connection with intestinal helminthiasis and tetany with pathology of the colon.

Duodenal Tetany.—In 1902 Fennick Young reported a case of tetany with extensive abdominal adhesions, and stenosis of the duodenum; and two years later Blazitek recorded the condition in dilatation of the duodenum due to pressure from an abdominal tumor.

Barket and Estes cite a case with dilatation of the stomach and duodenum also associated with familial hematoporphyrinuria and tetany.

Gastric Tetany.—Tonic spasm of the stomach with gastric dilatation was described by Kussmaul, and this was studied by Bovert and Devic as early as 1892.

Carl Wirth in his analysis of the reported cases up to 1910 concludes that most of them are accompanied by gastric dilatation, and pyloric stenosis. The so-called gastric tetany is more common in aged subjects.

Tetany in Helminthiasis.—A fatal case of tetany complicated by tape-worm, was reported by Greenfield in 1903. As early as 1874 Regal cited a case of (tenia mediocanellata) tape-worm complicated by tetany. It was not until 1890 that Gley detected the true function of the parathyroid glands. Kohn in 1895 gave the first unquestionable data regarding the physiology of Sandstroem's glands.

Dilatation of the colon is found in cases suffering from tetany, and the only record at hand is that of Longleaf published in 1907 giving a description of four cases of the so-called "colonic tetany." In view of our present knowledge of associated pathology of other endocrine glands (pituitary) further study is necessary in order to well establish this clinical type.

Tetany in Acute and Chronic Infections.—Tetany may develop during the course of, or following, acute articular rheumatism, ulcerative endocarditis, measles, scarlet fever, influenza or in fact any acute infectious malady. It is also to be seen in nephritis, tuberculosis and focal infections.

Maternity Tetany.—Tetany is occasionally found during pregnancy, menstruation and lactation.

In maternity tetany it is necessary to exclude other varieties of tetany in order that a diagnosis may be established.

Parathyroid pathology is to be expected in this and all clinical types of tetany, and renal pathology may also be present.

Forced respiration has been shown by Grant and Goldman* to produce symptoms identical with those of tetany.

The unity of pathogenesis in tetany possibly rests in certain metabolic conditions that are excited by either parathyroid insufficiency or by a hyperactivity of the parathyroids: (*a*) Disturbance in calcium metabolism; (*b*) The effect of abnormalities in the gastro-intestinal tract; (*c*) A disturbance in the acid base equilibrium; (*d*) Thymus intoxication; (*e*) An abnormal accumulation of guanidin (results from decomposition of the leukomain—a decomposition of nuclein) derivatives in the blood stream, and (*f*) Alterations in the production of certain specific ferments.

Paresthesia is to be expected. Dermographism and erythemas are occasionally observed, and instances are reported where herpes, pigmentations and urticaria occurred.

Symptoms of Tetany.—There may be present the general symptoms of gastro-intestinal disturbance, and the first distinctive symptoms are those of numbness or pain in the fingers, hands, or feet, gradually followed by an increasing stiffness and a curious and characteristic spasm of these parts, which consists in the fingers being extended and approximated in a cone-like manner, sometimes the thumb being in the palms; the wrists are generally flexed, the elbows drawn in toward the side of the chest, and the forearm pronated. In the lower limbs the legs are extended and the feet turned inward, simulating the position in equinovarus. This characteristic position is the result of a spasm which may last from a few minutes to an hour or longer, and may involve both the lower and the upper limbs, but generally only the upper. When the disease is very marked, the spasm may involve the muscles of the chest and diaphragm or larynx, causing interference with breathing, but this is rare. The sphincters are rarely affected. Laryngeal spasm when

* Am. Jour. of Physiology, June, 1920.

present in subjects suffering from tetany suggests the coexistence of thymic pathology (see Spasmophilia).

Van Passen contends that it is the free calcium ions which are important in the pathology of tetany, rather than the total calcium contained in the blood.

It is characteristic of these spasms that they may be brought on by any form of excitation, such as pressure over the brachial arteries or the nerve-trunks of the arm (Trousseau's symptom); by stimulation, especially with the galvanic current, which will produce increased excitability (Erb's sign), and tapping any nerve—as, for instance, the facial on the side of the face—will produce a spasm of the muscles in its distribution (Chvostek's sign). All of these symptoms are only indications of the general irritability of the nerves and muscles, and are given here not as specific symptoms, but because of the fact that they are so frequently described in conjunction with this disease.

Bronchotetany is believed by Moschini* to depend upon a spasmotic condition of the bronchial muscles and Lederer has classified this condition as bronchial tetany, and thinks it should be associated with tetany, laryngospasm, and infantile eclampsia.

Spasmophilic Electrical Reactions.—If the cathodal opening galvanic contraction (COC) can be obtained with a current of 3 ma. or less the spasmodic state is due to tetany or spasmophilia.

The myotonic symptoms present in selected cases of tetany are:

(*a*) Intentional spasm on opening and closing the mouth, and on opening the hand.

(*b*) Increased general muscular excitability.

(*c*) Slowness in contracting the muscles.

(*d*) Spasm when opening and closing the eyelids.

(*e*) Sudden stiffening of the hands when they are immersed in cold water.

Tetany and myotonia have been reported as occurring in the same patients, and in these, there are at times a general increase in muscular excitability, while on other occasions there is a sluggish contraction of the muscles. The reflexes are not increased in all cases—they may be normal, subnormal or exaggerated.

X-ray.—Schuller was the one—first to describe osteoporosis in tetany of long standing. Rickets and osteomalacia have been mentioned in this connection, and the histologic changes in the bones conforms closely to what is found in rickets.

The nephritic type is also recognized.

Metabolic Rate.—"An analysis of the results of these various metabolic studies on tetany indicates that, on the whole, the metabolic processes are accelerated."

Laboratory Findings.—There is an increase in the total urinary nitrogen and it has been found that the ammonia in the urine is increased in selected cases. In acute tetany the total nitrogen of the urine is increased—the ammonia ratio is increased.

Associated Endocrinopathies.—Pathology of the thyroid is rather common in connection with parathyroid disease, and the symptoms of parathyroid disease may be modified as the result of such pathology.

It is claimed that the pituitary is implicated in cases of tetany and in such combined endocrinic imbalance, periodic attacks of polyuria are present.

* Policlinic Pract. Sect., 28:1616, Rome, Nov. 28, 1921.

Definite disturbances in connection with the pancreas is an uncommon factor in tetany; however, attacks of temporary glycosuria are recorded. In connection with the gonads mention should be made of maternity tetany. (Tetany following abortion.)

Diseases Showing Parathyroid Pathology.—Among the parathyroidogenous syndromes aside from tetany that have been claimed by certain clinicians, but still demand further observation before they can be accepted as wholly dependent upon hypoparathyroidism should be mentioned: Disease of the bones, rickets, osteomalacia (Paget's disease), Parkinson's disease (paralysis agitans), Thomsen's disease (myoclonia), chorea, myasthenia gravis and certain psychoses.

The foregoing conditions have been suggested by various writers as dependent upon dysfunction of the parathyroids.

The relationship of chronic renal disease to pathology of the parathyroids is not well established, although Bergstrand in his report of fifty autopsies made on subjects dead of nephritis found one or more of the parathyroid glands enlarged in ten (20 per cent.) of the cases.

Certain cases of nephritis respond admirably to the administration of parathyroid therapy. The deposit of calcium granules in various parts of the body has also been attributed to parathyroid dysfunction.

There are to be seen cases that display certain features of tetany, myasthenia and prostatitis in conjunction with the signs of thymic hyperplasia. The clinical observations that support this relationship is that the patient's general condition improves after the application of judicious treatment to the prostate.

Cases of acute infection, *e. g.*, bronchopneumonia, develop some of the symptoms known to tetany and at autopsy these subjects display pathology of the parathyroids.

PINEAL GLAND

In those cases where the pineal gland is practically destroyed by malignant tumor a profound cachexia with trophic changes results. Pineal tumors are also exciting factors in obesity without genital atrophy. Pineal tumor is most often seen in boys before the seventh year of age. These tumors are, as a rule, teratomata, and the symptom-complex in this condition is—abnormal growth in heighth, unusual growth of hair, premature growth of the genitalia, and of the sexual instincts, together with mental precocity. Diminution in the pineal tissue may also be accompanied by the above clinical features prior to the seventh year of age.

This organ under normal conditions exerts an inhibitory influence upon the development of the sexual glands, and possibly upon mental development. There is recognized an antagonism between the pineal gland and the hypophysis; and pituitary insufficiency is associated with hypogenitalism. "When in a young individual (boy) there is increase in stature and unaccustomed growth of hair, obesity, drowsiness, a premature genital and sexual development, with evidence of precocity of adolescence, pineal tumor must be considered according to Frank Hochwart."

Zandren* reports the case of a boy of sixteen years who displayed retention of teeth, under development of the testes, and an absence of the secondary sexual traits. He died following an abdominal operation and complete necropsy gave the following weights: thyroid, 19 gm.; hypophysis, 9 gm.; thymus and adrenals normal, testes hypoplastic

* Acta Med. Scand., Stockholm, 1921.

and corresponding microscopically with that of a six months old baby. The pineal gland was absent in this case. Sexual adiposity, cachexia and idiotism may be connected with pineal pathology.

It has been found that young subjects in whom there is an underdevelopment of the sexual organs, with a profuse growth of hair, which extends to the thighs and abdomen, choked disc, and optic neuritis, that pineal pathology served as the only apparent cause.

Disappearance of the subcutaneous fat, nasal hydrorrhea, hypertrichosis and polyuria have apparently been connected with disease of the pineal gland; and pineal pathology possibly serves as an etiologic factor in lipodystrophia.

OBESITY (POLYSARCIA ADIPOSA; LIPOMATOSIS UNIVERSALIS)

Pathologic Definition.—A disease of metabolism, characterized by the deposit of an abnormal amount of fat in the areolar tissue of the body. Not only is the adipose tissue greatly increased in localities in which it is normally found, but the various internal organs and tissues that are normally quite free from fat may show decided fatty infiltration. The condition is often accompanied by hypertrophy and dilatation of the heart. (See p. 329.) Fatty changes may also be present in the arterial system, and endarteritis with sclerosis and varicose veins are often encountered. Histologically, the fat-globules will be found to vary in different forms of obesity, the globules being larger in the plethoric variety of the disease than in the anemic or hydremic form. (See Pineal Gland, p. 1113, and Pituitary Diseases, p. 1117.) Familial obesity appears to be worthy of consideration.

Predisposing and Exciting Factors.—Diseases of the posterior pituitary lobe, thymus and pineal gland may be exciting factors. Among the chief predisposing factors are heredity, climate, habit, occupation, temperament, age, and sex. Among 543 cases that came under our care in which the family history was noted, heredity was distinctly traceable in 60.7 per cent. Gout either occurred in association with the condition or was present among the antecedents in 43.2 per cent. of these cases, and the same was true of rheumatism in 35.5 per cent. In 10 the condition dated from longer or shorter periods of enforced rest, as following accidents, and infectious diseases, such as typhoid fever (in 4.7 per cent.). In 16.2 per cent. of the cases the disease dated from childbirth, and in 4.8 per cent. of 437 females it followed marriage.

Climate.—Obesity is more frequent among the inhabitants of hot, moist climates, and of low countries in the temperate and arctic regions. Hence it is commonly observed among Orientals, Dutchmen, South Pacific Islanders, southern Italians, and certain Africans.

Social Condition.—Sedentary habits and occupations constitute a common predisposing factor. A sluggish temperament also favors the accumulation of an abnormal amount of fat.

Age and Sex.—Most cases occur in persons of advanced middle life, *i. e.*, between forty and fifty years of age, but hereditary obesity often dates from infancy and early childhood (see Obesity of Childhood and Juvenile Adiposity) in women it may appear at puberty, and between the thirtieth and fortieth years. Women seem to be more prone to corpulence than men. Congenital monstrosities (idiots, cretins,) and hemiplegics are frequently found to be excessively fat.

Exciting Factors.—An important exciting factor in the production of obesity is the ingestion of fat-building foods which tend to favor the accumulation of fat, irrespective of the amount of exercise taken.

Clinical Picture.—The patient may complain of inconvenience and of discomfort on walking or on working. As the viscera become involved, subjective symptoms develop. An early and annoying symptom is dyspnea upon exertion, due to a weak heart and to interference with respiration by heavy chest-walls and the upward crowded diaphragm. In plethoric subjects the face and mucous membranes are red and congested, whereas in anemic subjects the skin is pale, the muscles are flabby and weak, the pulse is small and compressible, and dyspnea, palpitation, weariness, drowsiness, and vertigo are present. In plethoric corpulent subjects the muscles are firm and strong, and the pulse and heart-beats are vigorous; late in the disease, however, the pulse becomes weak and irregular, and finally tachycardia may be seen. "Muscular power may diminish, and irregular fat masses (in the anemic variety) in the subcutaneous tissue are seen." Gastric catarrh and gastrectasia, inordinate thirst, and bulimia may be observed. Constipation may be followed by chronic diarrhea.

Sexual Peculiarities.—Sexual desire is diminished, and azoöspermia is not rare. Corpulent women often suffer from uterine displacement and prolapse, and amenorrhea, sterility, endometritis, and leukorrhea are common.

Cutaneous Phenomena.—The skin is often irritated (intertrigo) by the excessive sweating and by the friction of cutaneous surfaces in the folds of fat, as under the breast, in the abdominal and inguinal regions, and around the scrotum and labia. This may be followed by eczema, painful excoriations, pruritus, acne rosacea, and alopecia.

Physical Signs.—The liver is commonly found to be enlarged, but owing to the presence of excessive fat and thickness of the abdominal wall this finding is best obtained by means of auscultatory percussion. The intensity of the heart-sounds is dependent directly upon the degree of cardiac hypertrophy or of degeneration of the heart muscle presented by each individual case. The signs of fatty heart are often obtained upon physical examination.

Laboratory Diagnosis.—In the anemic variety the condition is due to chlorosis; in the plethoric form the red cells will be found to fluctuate between 6,000,000 and 9,000,000 per c.mm., and the hemoglobin will commonly exceed 110 per cent.

The urine may be normal, although at times polyuria and again oliguria may be present. As a rule, the urine is rich in urates and uric acid.

Diagnosis and Differential Diagnosis.—The existence of associated conditions, complications, and sequelæ should be carefully ascertained. In myxedema the skin is thick and inelastic, and the physiognomy is much altered, the lips, tongue, nostrils, and mouth being thickened by infiltration. Obesity is also to be distinguished from adiposis dolorosa. (See p. 1116, and adiposis tuberosa simplex, below.)

Complications.—Hernia, cardiac asthma, bronchitis, pulmonary congestion, edema, arteriosclerosis, albuminuria, glycosuria, anginal attacks, cerebral hemorrhage, and coma have all been observed.

ADIPOSIS TUBEROSA SIMPLEX (ANDERS' DISEASE)

Pathology of the endocrine system is often found, but the relation between such changes and the disease is not well established.

This condition resembles adiposis dolorosa (Dercum's disease) clinically, but differs from the latter in that it is apparently dependent upon general obesity, with which it has been thus far found to be associated.

"Circumscribed fat masses appear in the subcutaneous tissues; they form distinct, moderately dense, slightly movable, somewhat flattened tumors, ranging in size from a bean to that of a hen's egg. Their number varies all the way from one-half dozen to two dozen or more. These moderately firm fat-nodules are not distributed over the entire body, but in some cases are confined to the extremities, particularly the lower, and in others to the abdomen. The tumor masses show no tendency to fuse together, and are not elevated above the surrounding surface; they are sensitive to the touch, and may be the seat of pain, which varies in intensity within rather wide extremes, being moderately severe and distressing in rare cases and trivial or even absent in the majority of instances. The lymphatic glands are not involved, and the skin remains soft, flexible, and non-adherent. The mental processes are normally active, and also the muscles; asthenia is not present, and there is no more indisposition to physical exertion than is observed in cases of obesity, as a rule. The knee-jerks are present, and the cutaneous sensibility is unaltered, in some cases at least. The mammæ and abdominal panniculus adiposis may be overhanging or pendulous. It is an uncommon condition, since it was noted by one of us (Anders) in only 4 out of a total of 324 cases."*

From the nodular variety of *adiposis dolorosa*, the condition under discussion distinguishes itself by the absence of any psychic disturbance and asthenia out of proportion to the polysarcia, and more particularly the complete disappearance of the fat masses as the result of treatment directed to the extreme obesity. *Lipomas*, by their painlessness, soft, doughy, semi-fluctuating consistence, their more globular shape, as evidenced by the slight though distinct elevation above the surrounding surface and more or less lobulated character, may be also excluded. Moreover, these tumor-like subcutaneous growths are not dependent on associated general obesity, and are not amenable to medicinal, and dietetic, treatment.

Adiposa Dolorosa.—A disease described by Dercum, appearing in adult life and characterized by gradual fatty enlargements of various portions of the body, associated with some pain and tenderness. There is usually great muscular weakness and mental disturbance.

LOCALIZED ADIPOSITY

B. Myers† reports the case of a woman age 44 years, who showed evidence of the accumulation of fat at the age of 22. Her 14 brothers and sisters were of normal stature. The fat was over the body with the following exceptions. Fat accumulation terminated abruptly at the waist, ankles and neck, leaving the hands, feet and face of normal size.

Among the chief symptoms should be mentioned weakness and headache, vertigo, evidence of hysteria and areas of hemianesthesia. Dizziness was more pronounced when the patient was in the recumbent posture.

There are to be seen certain subjects, usually females, where there is present a slight increase in adiposity of the trunk and abdomen, while the thighs and legs present an abundant layer of fat. This accumulation of fat on the lower extremities is ordinarily observed after the establishment of menstruation, and is progressive. In many of these cases there

* Amer. Jour. Med. Sci., March, 1908.
† Proc. Royal Soc., London, Jan., 1922.

are present some of the symptoms commonly seen in Fröhlich's Syndrome, p. 1136 and in lipodystrophia (p. 1163). Amenorrhoea is associated with this form of adiposity. Adiposity of Infancy—Pre-adolescence and Juvenile Periods, p. 1136.

PITUITARY

The pituitary has justly been referred to by various writers as "the gland of personality," and to this Pfahler and Pitfield add that it might equally well be termed "the gland of romance." The pituitary exercises a definite influence upon physical and mental vigor, stature, physique, color, amount and distribution of the hair, sexual characteristics and possibly personal likes and dislikes.

Physical beauty, as we term it, in the light of our present knowledge is chiefly dependent upon the pituitary. The individual afflicted by pituitary disease may develop an hideous appearance, become mentally restless, never develop beyond the stage of childhood, grow to be a dwarf, a giant, an over-fat monster; or on the other hand he may become depressed and immoral even to a criminal degree. Rasmussen in the examination of seventy-two (72) hypophyses found 41 males gave an average weight of 0.710 grams and 31 females 0.745 grams. There is a gradual increase in weight during pregnancy. The gland is largest from the twentieth to the fortieth year.

The first anatomic changes in the gland were recorded by Willis in 1684, and Beuetus describes a tumor of the hypophysis in 1700. In 1823 Rayer reviewed the records of several anatomists, describing alterations in the pituitary. Morgagni as early as 1766 refers to the gland's rich yellow color; its being filled with mucus; and its atrophy as found at various autopsies.

Rayer reported in detail a case of the "narcoleptic state" now recognized as hypopituitarism, in 1814. The ocular phenomena were present and progressed to blindness; at necropsy the pituitary was seen to be a thumb and a half in diameter (probably 1½ to 2 inches) and the optic nerve was compressed and flattened at the chiasm.

Back* gives a translation of Rayer's summary of pituitary diseases, written in 1823.

In 1899 Oppenheim† came forward with an important rule in diagnosis, which showed that by *x*-ray study it was possible during life to determine pathologic alterations in the sella turcica.

X-ray Appearance of Sella Turcica.—Roentgenographic study of the sella turcica in children has been made by Gordon and Bell describing many characteristic features of this portion of the skull, as coming within normal bounds. The average depth and length of the sella has been found to be greater in girls than in boys. Classification made from a study of roentgenograms divides the sella, as found in children, into three groups: (1) "which are circular, there are well-developed anterior clinoids and straight dorsum sellæ;" (2) "which are oval, there are poorly developed clinoid processes and straight bulbous dorsum sellæ, also well developed anterior and posterior clinoid processes, and near-bridging;" (3) "which are flat and saucer-like, there are very poorly developed anterior and posterior clinoid processes and dorsum sellæ."

The sella turcica is an unyielding bony cavity. The pituitary is closely enveloped, and the organ is richly supplied with a sensitive

* Jour. of Endocrinology, Jan., 1922, p. 42.
† Wien. klin. Rundschau, 1901, xv, p. 883.

sympathetic, and circulatory mechanism. This protective bony structure of the sella often is productive of the symptoms considered under abnormal function of the pituitary. Physiological changes in the size of the pituitary takes place at adolescence, menstruation, during pregnancy, sexual excitement, and the result of mental strain—consequently certain abnormalities are due to inability of the pituitary to expand.

Epilepsy.—It is claimed that Raymond Viscusense first called attention to the association of pituitary disease and epilepsy in 1705. His detail report of the case of "Le Cardinal De Bonesy" who suffered from epileptic seizures for a period of eleven years, during which time he developed blindness, failing memory and died of an epileptic seizure. A tumor the size of a hen's egg was found to involve the pituitary gland.



FIG. 409.—PATIENT, AGED FIFTY-FOUR YEARS.

Normal sella. Note the smooth outline of the bony walls, the solidity of the clinoid processes, the clear sphenoidal sinus below and the uniform density both within the sella and outside. (Pfahler and Pitfield in Amer. Jour. Med. Sci., April, 1922).

Among the many other writers who recognized the connection between pituitary disease and epilepsy at an early date, should be mentioned Greding, who observed anatomic changes in the gland in 1781, and Wenzel reported two cases one in 1810 and another in 1811. Wenzel elaborated to some extent upon the disturbed function of the pituitary and its part in the production of epileptic form seizures.

In some cases where epilepsy accompanies dysfunction of the pituitary, the patient experiences either a gustatory or an olfactory disturbance during the aura. In one instance the odor of some rancid substance was experienced—in another, an odor resembling that of bananas, and in a third case, a bitter taste was experienced. Dr. Spangler has reported a patient who had a sense of taste, and the odor of burned oil immediately before each epileptic seizure.

Clinical.—In view of our present knowledge two main types of pituitary disorder are known, (*a*) hyperpituitarism resulting in acromegaly in



FIG. 410.—CASE OF A FEMALE AGED TWENTY-TWO.
Note the narrow space between the clinoid processes. McKenna of Pittsburgh contends that this is an almost constant finding in epileptics (Courtesy of Dr. Mulford K. Fisher).

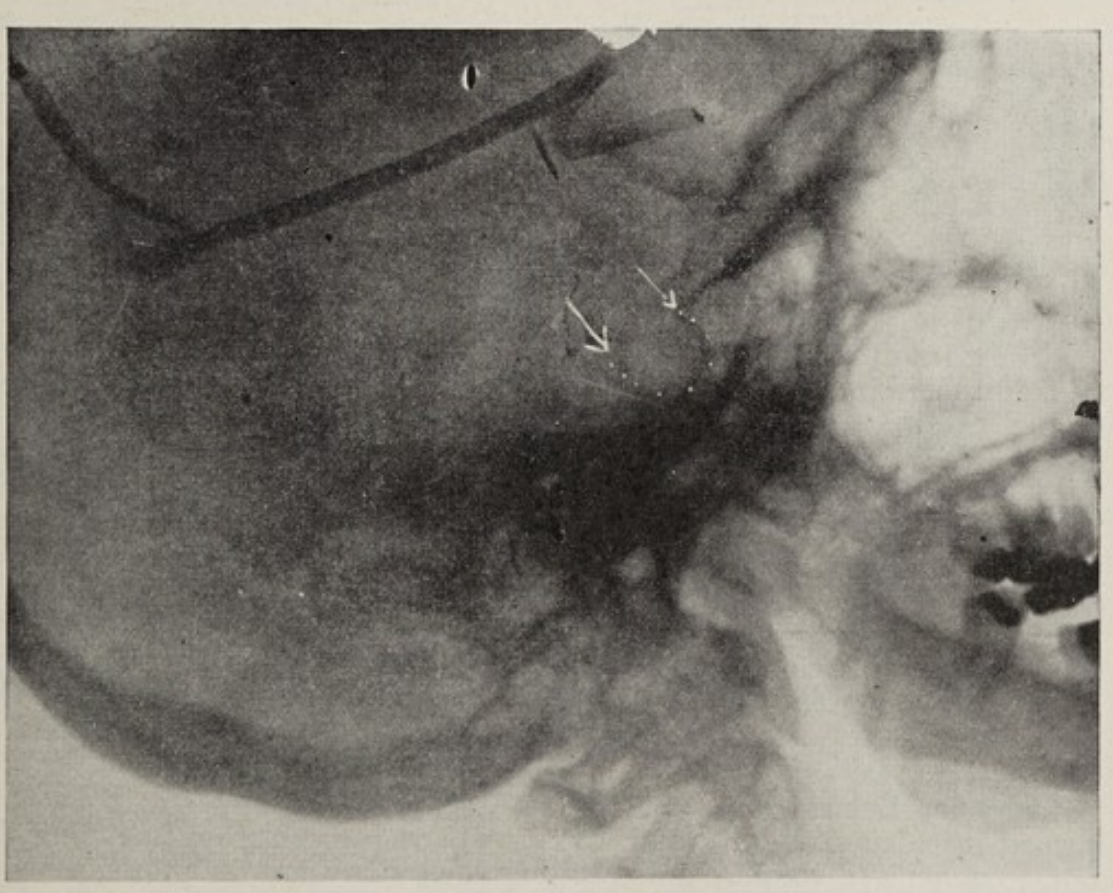


FIG. 411.—PRIVATE CASE—FEMALE, AGED THIRTY-FOUR.
Note unusual depth of sella, high perpendicular posterior clinoids. There were present subluxation of the hip and femur articulations, with moderate dilatation of the colon.

adults, gigantism in the young; and (*b*) hypopituitarism leading to the syndrome of Fröhlich in young subjects, and to the adiposities in adults. Reichman has described at length a third type, and Freedman has added a fourth type differing only from the Reichman case, in that obesity was present. Clinical data is not sufficient to enable us to regard the cases of Reichman and Freedman as separate types of pituitary disease.

It will be immediately apparent in our dealing with this subject that we are seriously in need of definite data regarding hyperfunction of the pituitary in both the young and in adult subjects. Sinus infection both acute and chronic may give definite manifestations of pituitary dysfunction. Pituitary migraine is recognized by some endocrinologists, but it is uncertain whether or not this special class deserves consideration.

Structures and Functions.—The anterior lobe is formed of glandular epithelial cells, these glands being tubular in nature, and the entire structure is highly vascular. The glands are without ducts, and frequently contain colloid-like material which resembles in many respects that seen in the thyroid gland.

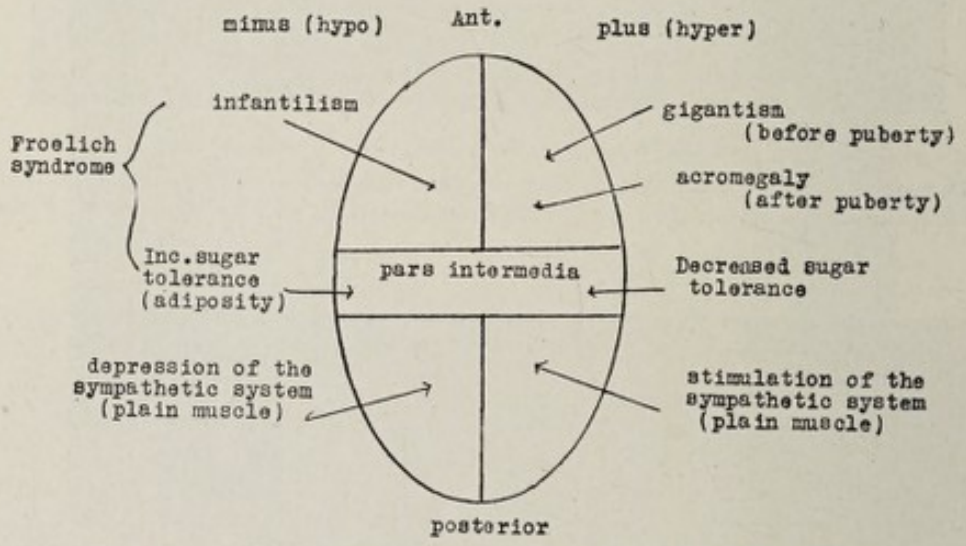


FIG. 412.—(Mackay, in Medical Clinics of N. A., May, 1924).

The pars intermedia (that portion which surrounds the cleft) is likewise epithelial in character, but less coarsely granular than is the anterior lobe. The epithelial cells also contain a colloid-like material, which is claimed to be without iodine.

The posterior lobe is composed of a vascular connective-like tissue. Thus far there is a certain amount of doubt as to the functions served by the different portions of the pituitary body, and these unsettled questions are probably due to the fact that experimentally and clinically it is unusual to obtain lesions limited only to one lobe. For clinical study the posterior lobe is ordinarily considered with the pars intermedia; and some writers contend that much of its function is due to the pars. The evidence generally accepted at present indicates that the functions of the pituitary are:

Anterior Lobes.—This portion of the pituitary appears to be concerned in calcium metabolism, the growth of the skeleton, including the bony connective tissues, and cartilaginous strutures and possibly also in the development of the gonads, and in the deposit of fat (see p. 1114). All abnormal skeletal development, and cases of asthenia in young, subjects suggests the possibility of anterior pituitary disturbance.

The earliest clinical method through which we are able to estimate the function of the anterior lobe before the preadolescent age (when the genitals should normally develop) is through the study of the child's osseous development: "*x*-raying certain bones for each yearly age to determine whether the nuclei of certain epiphyseal ends have appeared or united with their shafts, we can determine rather definitely whether the anterior lobe of the pituitary gland is performing its normal function." (Engelbach.) (See Adiposity of Childhood, pp. 1113, 1136).

Posterior Lobe.—This portion, including the pars intermedia is concerned definitely in many clinical phases. The extracts and preparations now used in clinical medicine depend upon the structures of these portions for their activities. The skin, accumulation of fat, sexual characteristics, voice, and many clinical features give direct evidence of posterior lobe function.

There are to be found in the posterior lobe (including the pars intermedia) elements which exercise decided effects upon the system, and are further capable of contributing toward certain definite clinical phenomena. The diagnostician must use the following statements while formulating his summary of diagnosis, or known clinical factors depending upon posterior lobe function will be overlooked or underestimated.

Here may be the opportune place to call attention to the results obtained by the use of these extracts, since their use is frequently essential in diagnosis.

(1) Posterior gland substance contains an element, which when administered to human subjects, greatly increases the secretion of the urine, and may even lead to polyuria. Whenever polyuria exists, and in all cases where abnormal urinary excretion attains, the possibility of pituitary implication deserves consideration.

(2) There is also present an element which exerts a galactagogue effect, and when pituitary extract is administered to lactating animals a decided increase in the daily flow of milk follows. Abnormal function of the mammary glands is rarely seen in pituitary disease.

(3) The most constant effect obtained by the administration of pituitary substance is upon unstriped muscle. Its effect is immediately apparent upon the intestine, and the uterus. The pituitary, therefore, becomes an important factor in connection with chronic enlargement of the colon, local colonic dilatations, dilatation of the stomach, and intestinal stasis. Its importance in obstetrics and gynecology is well known.

(4) It is claimed by physiologists that there is also present in the whole substance of the gland, an element which tends to diminish carbohydrate tolerance, but there appears to be no definite data as to which portion of the gland provides this substance. It is to be remembered, however, that in hypopituitarism (diminished function of the posterior lobe) the patient's tolerance for sugar is ordinarily increased, and that glycosuria is occasionally present in cases of acromegalia (anterior lobe disease). Any decided deviation from the normal sugar content of the blood, or of the urine, invites a careful study of the pituitary functions.

(5) Clinically the symptoms in certain cases suggest that some portion of the pituitary is concerned in thyroid activity, and in the sexual glands.

(6) The blood pressure is affected by the hypodermic use of pituitary preparations, a decided rise taking place soon after the drug is adminis-

tered. One dare not conclude from the foregoing fact that the function of the pituitary is largely to elevate blood-pressure, because chemical preparations derived from the pituitary glands may, when circulating within the body in the form of an hormone, possess definite functions.

(7) There is a depressor element in the pituitary, the clinical evidence of which is, that after the elevation of blood-pressure, resulting from the hypodermic use of pituitary substance has given way, an unusually low pressure follows.

It is claimed by certain surgeons that a depressing effect may be the initial action of pituitary extract when given hypodermically to relieve shock. The influences of pituitary function on blood pressure is of limited concern in diagnosis, on account of the numerous maladies where normal blood-pressure is the rule.

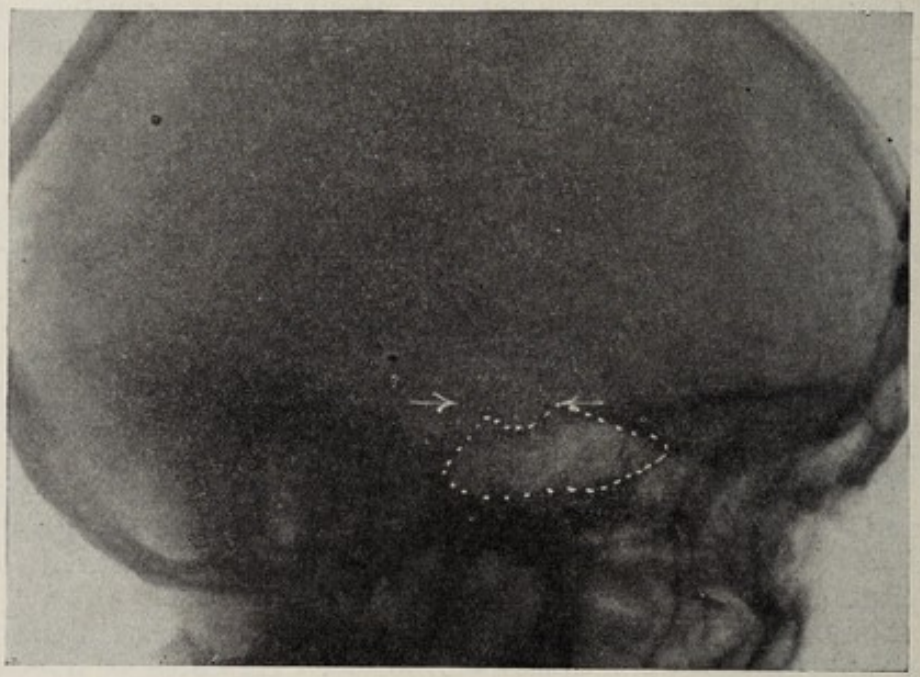


FIG. 413.—PRIVATE CASE A. H. D.

Note the rather shallow sella turcica and the unusually large shadow of the sphenoidal sinuses. There were present extensive dilatation of colon, appendix, and rectum.

(8) Lohnstein* found that 31 per cent. of epileptics show clinical manifestations referable to disease of the pituitary body. (See Epilepsy, p. 1203.

Pars Intermedia.—The exact function of this portion remains undetermined. It has been found by P. E. Smith,† that in the amphibian the degree of pigmentation is diminished after this portion of the gland is removed, and that by its early removal the "albino" is produced.

Disturbances in Function.—Clinically diseases of the pituitary are considered under the following sub-headings.

(*a*) Disturbance in the internal secretions.
(*b*) Local pressure symptoms.
(*c*) General pressure symptoms.

* Amer. Jour. Med. Sci., Jan., 1922.
† American Anatomical Memoirs, No. 11, 1920.

Jung and Fehr have reported instances where enlargement of the pituitary during the course of pregnancy has caused bitemporal hemianopsia. The sella turcica may be abnormally large and the disturbance in pregnancy may develop at any stage of gestation. In favorable cases vision returns and annoying symptoms disappear after parturition. Symptoms and signs of acromegaly are as a rule absent. (See Ovary, p. 1162.)

It is rather common to find patients where all three of these groups are present. Again it appears necessary that we give in detail the clini-

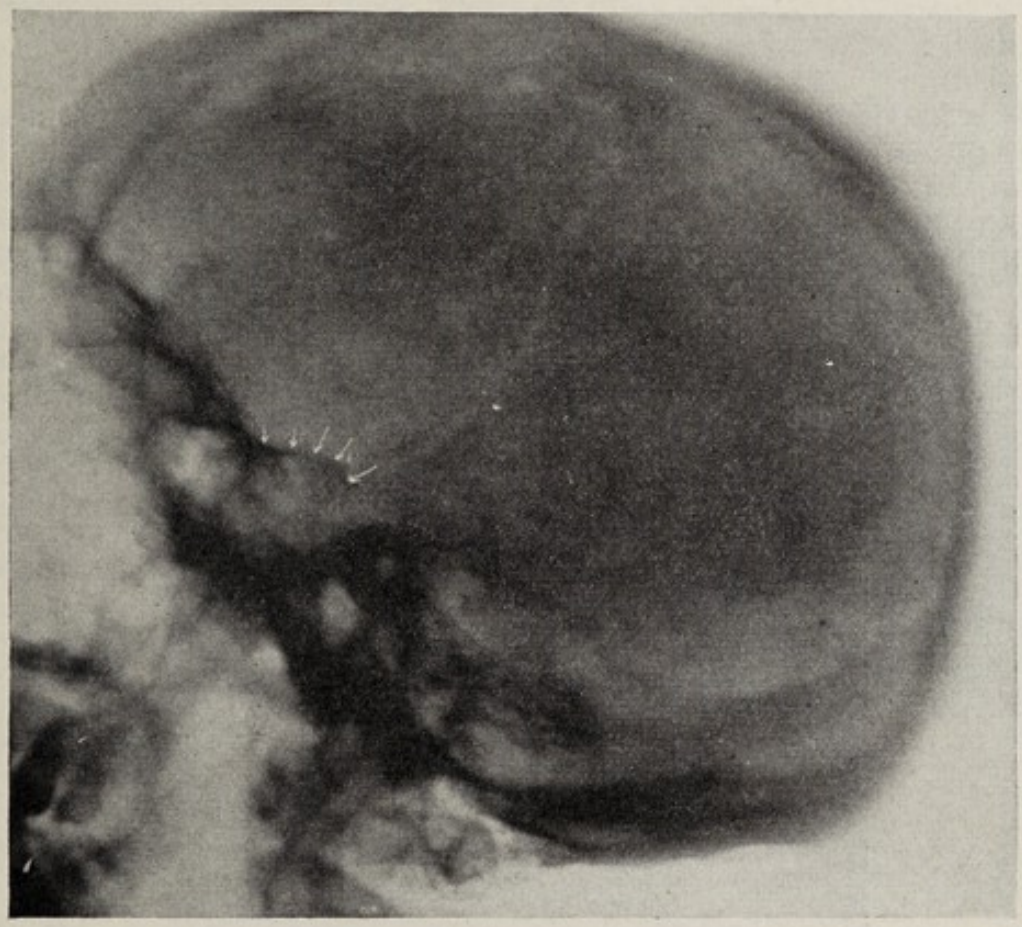


Fig. 414.—Private Case.

Note the bridge of bone forming the complete roof over the sella turcica. Dilatation of the colon was the only other abnormal *x*-ray finding (courtesy of Dr. Quinlinin).

cal characteristics of cases of advanced pituitary disease. The great aid to internal medicine must come through the early recognition of these maladies, when their correction may be accomplished before vast structural changes have resulted. There is at times doubt as to what functions should be apportioned to different parts of the gland, and there is likewise some doubt as to which portions of the gland are mainly concerned in different clinical syndromes. It shall be our purpose through the following scheme to endeavor to present the subject in the light of the present day knowledge.

THE PITUITARY

Anterior lobe	Increased function	In young subjects gigantism
		In adults acromagely
	Decreased function	In young subjects ateliosis (Lorain's disease) with undergrowth
		In adults unknown
		In childhood and early adolesence hypophyseal asthenia "Fliess' syndrome"
Posterior lobe	Increased function	In young subjects unknown
		In adults unknown
	Decreased function	In young subjects distrophia adiposa genitalis (Fröhleich's disease)
		In adults adiposities—Adiposa dolorosa—adiposa tuberosa

GIGANTISM

It is impossible to show that all cases of overgrowth are dependent upon pituitary abnormalities; although Sternberg in his studies has shown that 20 per cent. of such subjects develop acromegaly later in life; and that 40 per cent. of the so-called giants later become victims of acromegaly. It has frequently been found at necropsy that a giant has an unusual large pituitary fossa and overgrowth of the pituitary. Brissaud first called attention to the probability of connection between acromegaly and gigantism. In gigantism the overgrowth is symmetric, and there is a uniform relation between the length and size of the various portions of the skeleton. (See Testes.)



FIG. 415.—ACROMEGALIA—SHOWING SEPARATION OF TEETH, THICKENING OF SKIN OF FACE, AND THICKENING OF LIPS (courtesy of Dr. H. J. Goldstein).

ACROMEGALY

Introductory.—It is contended by most clinicians that the case of Sancerotte-Noel, observed from 1766 to 1773, represents the first

authentic record of acromegaly. The malady was not recognized as such, until Pierre Marie presented the report of two cases.* Marie described the condition, now known as acromegaly, in detail, and we see no reason why this clinical type of pituitary malady should not be referred to as Marie's Syndrome. Many of the earliest cases were reported by Brigidi, Chalk, Verga, and Kelbs, but these appeared under a number of clinical titles, among which are to be found osseous hypertrophy, pachydermatous cachexia, gigantism and ophthalmic cachexia.

Pierre Marie in his report makes mention of definite enlargement of the pituitary gland. . The rule is to find an abnormal overgrowth of the anterior portion of the gland; although cases are recorded where hemorrhage, tumor, and cysts were found. Both males and females are afflicted, and the condition develops after the age of 30 years. Children are attacked, as shown by the accompanying illustrations. (Figs. 419 and 420.) The syndrome of acromegaly may possibly depend upon hydrosyphilis. Epilepsy is occasionally associated with acromegaly and symptoms resulting from changes in the spinal cord may be present.

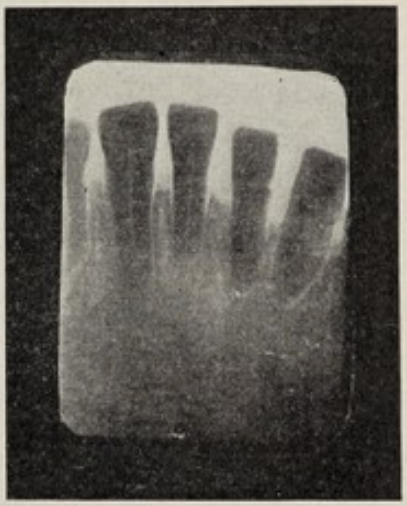


Fig. 416.—Separation of the Teeth in Acromegaly.

Head and Face.—The cranium shows but moderate change; while the face displays enormous hypertrophy, especially in the verical direction. The orbits are enlarged, and their bony structure thickened. The abnormality of the frontal region, shows by *x*-ray study, an increase in the size of the frontal sinuses. The temporal areas appear to be depressed, probably due to overdevelopment of the orbits. The upper jaw displays evidence of overgrowth, and the lower jaw even more marked hypertrophy (prognathism). The size of the mouth is unusual, and is in part due to increase in bony structures. The teeth become widely separated (Fig. 416), and this separation increases with the advance of the disease. There is hypertrophy of the tongue, and of the lips. *X*-ray further demonstrates that there is thickening of the tables of the skull. The pituitary body is enlarged, and there may rarely be seen erosion of the clinoid processes. Thickening of the eye-lids and hypertrophy of the nose are apparent. The ears show a varying amount of thickening, and often display uniform enlargement. A patient presenting any one of the foregoing characteristic features of acromegaly, calls for careful consideration regarding pituitary implications.

Thorax and Pelvis.—The thorax is decidedly enlarged, being both widened and deepened; while the subcostal angle is increased. The pelvis is enlarged in all diameters, and an *x*-ray study shows the bones to be thickened.

Circulatory System.—Hypertrophy of the heart together with enlargement of the blood vessels is a common finding—dilatation of the blood vessels and sclerotic changes are the rule. Varicose veins and hemorrhoids are by no means uncommon, and the signs and symptoms of Raynaud's disease (p. 1319) are indeed common.

Spine.—The individual vertebra are thickened. Some patients have not experienced a distinct increase in height; while others have grown several inches since the onset of their symptoms.

*Rev. de Med., 1886, vol. vi, p. 297.



FIG. 417.—ACROMEGALIA IN A WHITE SUBJECT COMPLICATED BY LYMPHATIC LEUKEMIA. Displaying characteristic features and enlargement of the hands. *X*-ray study revealed enlargement of the sella turcica (courtesy of Dr. H. J. Goldstein).



FIG. 418.—SHOWS BEAUTIFULLY THE PROGNATHISM IN A CASE OF ACROMEGALY; THICKENING AND ENLARGEMENT OF BONES OF SKULL AND OF FACE; SEPARATION OF TEETH AND LARGE SELLA TURCICA (courtesy of Dr. H. J. Goldstein).

Hands.—Changes in the hands are even more characteristic than are those in the face and body. Both the hands and fingers are increased in size, the enlargement depending upon an increased width, rather than in length. All forms of hand enlargement are to be seen in selected cases (Fig. 417). The thenar and hypothenar eminences show a decided increase in size, and the nails are small.

Feet.—Changes in the feet develop early and are first noticeable in the toes. One of the earliest symptoms is that the patient's shoes are too narrow and cause discomfort. There is thickening in the connective tissue of the skin. The nails do not appear to share their proportion in the general hypertrophy. The heels appear massive. In one case that came under our notice both great toes were of enormous size, and at necropsy a cyst of the pituitary was found. Enlargement of the feet



FIG. 419.—ACROMEGALY IN FEMALE CHILD FIVE YEARS OF AGE.

is chiefly of connective tissue formation in the early stages of the disease. Late there are changes in the bony structure. Deposits of bone beneath the periosteum has been detected in the legs, and muscular enlargement is the rule.

Skin.—There is a peculiar pallor. The skin of the hands and feet has a leathery feel. Dermographism is to be seen in some cases.

Hairiness of the body is not uncommon and in women this is noticeable about the breasts, but later spreads to other portions: arms, legs and in aged women a well developed beard is not uncommon.

Clinical Consideration.—The skin and complexion are that of a semi-cachectic appearance. There are intervals of profuse sweating, and pigmentation is seen late. The hair gradually becomes coarse, and its distribution in females simulates that normally seen in males. The

TABLE A.—TOTAL CASES OF ACROMEGALY, 215 (ANDERS AND JAMESON, IN AMER. JOUR. MED. SCI., FEB., 1922)

AGE (CASES MENTIONED, 195)		SEX (CASES MENTIONED, 194)		LESIONS OF PITUITARY (CASES MENTIONED, 99)	LESIONS OF THYROID (CASES MENTIONED, 68)	GLYCOSURIA (CASES MENTIONED, 91)	
MALE	FEMALE	MALES	FEMALES			PRESENT	ABSENT
37.14 Average age, 38.3	38.76	90 (46.4 per cent.)	104 (53.6 per cent.)	"Tumor" ..... 41 Adenoma ..... 15 Sarcoma ..... 12 Sella turcica enlarged .. 13 Enlarged ..... 6 Hypertrophy ..... 3 Various 9	Enlarged ..... 24 Goiter ..... 20 Atrophy ..... 17 Hypertrophy ... 7 Functional 23	32 (35.2 per cent.)	59 (64.8 per cent.)

TABLE B.—COMBINED ACROMEGALY AND THYROID DISTURBANCE, 91 CASES (ANDERS AND JAMESON, IN AMER. JOUR. MED. SCI., FEB., 1922)

AGE (CASES MENTIONED, 86)		SEX (CASES MENTIONED, 86)		LESIONS OF PITUITARY (CASES MENTIONED, 47)	LESIONS OF THYROID (CASES MENTIONED, 68)	GLYCOSURIA (CASES MENTIONED, 47)	
MALE	FEMALE	MALES	FEMALES			PRESENT	ABSENT
39.64 Average age, 39.85	39.98	37 (43 per cent.)	49 (57 per cent.)	"Tumor" ..... 13 Adenoma ..... 11 Sarcoma ..... 6 Enlarged ..... 4 Sella turcica enlarged .. 4 Hypertrophy ..... 3 Various 6	Enlarged ..... 24 Goiter ..... 20 Atrophy ..... 17 Hypertrophy ... 7 Functional 23	14 (30 per cent.)	33 (70 per cent.)

TABLE C.—ACROMEGALY WITHOUT THYROID DISTURBANCE, 124 CASES (ANDERS AND JAMESON, IN AMER. JOUR. MED. SCI., FEB., 1922)

AGE (CASES MENTIONED, 109)		SEX (CASES MENTIONED, 108)		LESIONS OF PITUITARY (CASES MENTIONED, 52)	GLYCOSURIA (CASES MENTIONED, 44)	
MALE	FEMALE	MALES	FEMALES		PRESENT	ABSENT
35.4 Average age, 37.18	37.67	53 (49 per cent.)	55 (51 per cent.)	"Tumor" ..... 28 Sella turcica enlarged ..... 9 Sarcoma ..... 6 Adenoma ..... 4 Cyst ..... 2 Enlarged ..... 2 Degeneration 1	18 (41 per cent.)	26 (59 per cent.)

skin and mucous surfaces of the lips are apparently thickened. The tongue may protrude between the incisors. It has been claimed that at least 40 per cent. of acromegalics show diabetes mellitus at sometime during the course of this malady.

The larynx is hypertrophied and in females it protrudes like that of men, and the voice becomes masculine.

Respiratory Organs.—There is a noticeable increase in the width of the nose, which involves both the bones, cartilages and soft parts. The larynx is decidedly hypertrophied and is accountable for the harshness and gutteral tone of the voice. There is also enlargement of the accessory sinuses. The epiglottis is thickened, the arytenoid cartilage and the ventricular bands are also enlarged and Jackson has described laryngeal stenosis in connection with acromegalia.

The nervous phenomena are of extreme interest since some of these patients are of ordinary intelligence. Selected cases show an unusual

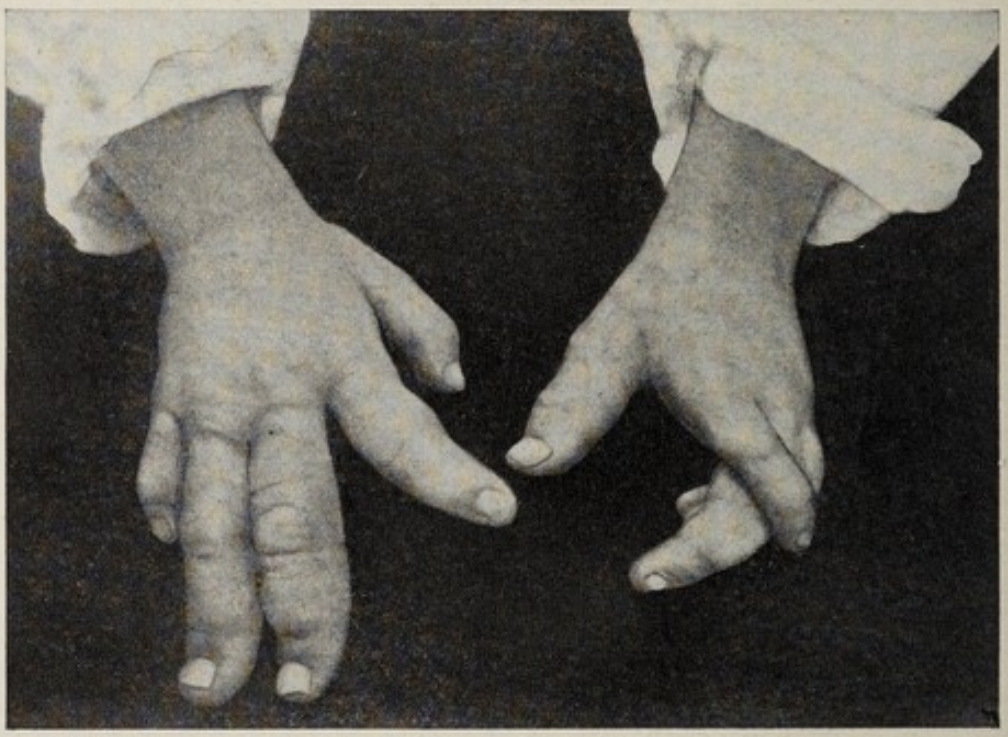


FIG. 420.—HANDS IN CASE OF ACROMEGALY SHOWN IN FIG. 419.

ability for business. At some time during the disease most cases become mentally dull. During the early stage of the malady mild and other severe pains in the bones and joints, headache, and ocular pains, form the chief complaint.

Ocular phenomena were recognized early and according to Beck,* 359 reports appeared in the literature from 1821 to 1901. Amblyopia and amaurosis are considered in the earliest references to pituitary disease. Pressure symptoms, including disturbed vision, blindness, exophthalmos, abducens paralysis, diplopia, neuroretinitis, hemianopsia and optic atrophy have been given liberal consideration by ophthalmologists. Records show that Heblund, in 1833, Harvey in 1865 and Leber in 1866 each wrote upon blindness and other ocular diagnostic features of pituitary disorders.

Zuckerkandl has shown by illustrated charts that lesions of the optic tract are not caused by stretching or pressure on the chiasm but

* Jour. Endocrinology, Jan., 1922, p. 44.

by constriction of the blood vessels. In 60 per cent. of cases the chiasm is a trifle to the right or to the left of the midline.

Tumor growths are often irregular and this may explain why the ocular phenomena vary greatly in different cases. Hemianopsia has been found in 70 to 80 per cent. of cases. Homonymous hemianopsia was present in 7 of 100 cases reported by Zuckerkandl's and unilateral nasal hemianopsia was present in 4.4 per cent. of his cases; scotomata (isolated areas of blindness) were observed in 11 per cent. of the cases. Atrophy of the optic nerve is said to be present in 89 per cent.; optic neuritis 4.4 per cent.; and choked disc in 8.9 per cent. of all cases. In spite of all the above ocular signs and symptoms in cases suffering from pituitary tumor, actual disturbance of vision is found, early, in only 50

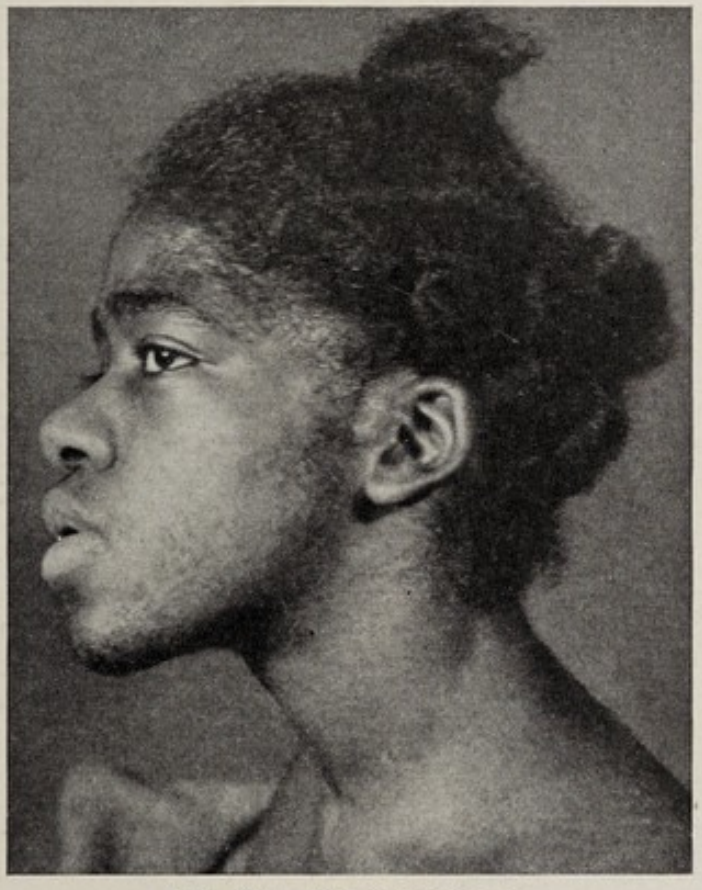


FIG. 421.—HYPERTRICHOSIS.

Female—age 19 years—from the service of one of us (Boston, 1924). Philadelphia General Hospital. Note development of hair on forehead, heavy beard, masculine expression—there was also an overdevelopment of the hair on the arms, legs and back. The pelvic measurements were characteristic of the male. The lower extremities and arms were of the masculine type. *X*-ray study showed an enormous sella turcica, with apparent destruction of the anterior clinoid process. Wassermann reaction positive.

per cent. of the cases. (See Weight of Pituitary, p. 1117, also Intraocular Pressure in Thyroid and Pregnancy.)

The renal features include polyuria and glycosuria.

Heart.—The heart may show some enlargement, and also dilatation. The arteries (brachials and femorals) are thickened, and have a leathery feel. The veins are frequently varicosed. The blood-pressure varies widely, probably due to associated complications.

Asthenia is the most striking symptom, and the rule is for patients to be unable to endure the exertion that others of their size and age daily perform and enjoy.

Gonads.—The external genitalia becomes hypertrophied. There is diminished sexual desire in females, and usually impotency in males. In women the mammary glands lessen in size and amenorrhea is the rule.

Metabolism.—Blood Chemistry.—Generally speaking metabolic studies thus far reported have but limited bearing upon diagnosis and vary at different stages of the disease.

Blood chemistry shows a retention of calcium phosphates and magnesia. There are isolated reports where there is also a retention of nitrogen in the blood.

The metabolism of carbohydrates is disturbed and sugar is present in the urine either continuous or intermittent—in 4 per cent. of all cases. Pituitary glycosuria is to be considered although its absence does not disprove the diagnosis of acromegalia.

Summary of an Early Diagnosis.—Prolonged asthenia and lack of vigor together with abnormality in the quantity of urine (polyuria or

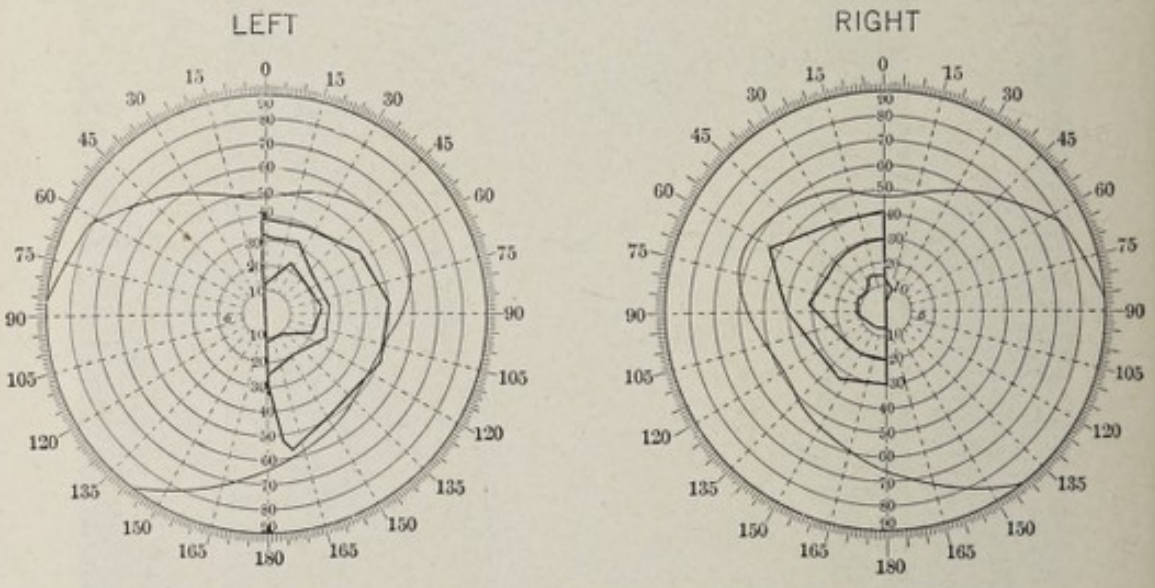


FIG. 422.—(Anders and Jameson in Amer. Jour. Med. Sci., Feb., 1922.)

glycosuria) calls for a careful estimation of the pituitary function. Any over-development of the skeleton, and coarseness of features, *e. g.*, enlargement of the nose, orbits, protrusion of the lower jaw, large protruding central incisors, thickness of the lips, and oversize of the fingers or the toes, practically always signifies endocrine dysfunction and probably pituitary implication. It is the recognition of pituitary disease when but few of these features are present that will lead to the greatest good.

ATELIOSIS (LORAIN'S DISEASE)

A state of under-development regarded as the reverse of gigantism. Subjects are under-size, but the bodily proportions are fairly well maintained. Lorain attributed this condition to under-function of the anterior pituitary lobe in children.

A patient of 30 gives the appearance of one twelve to fourteen years of age. The lower jaw is poorly developed, and the teeth are erupted irregularly. The muscles never develop beyond that seen antedating puberty. The skull is unusually small.

The skin is delicate and soft. In males the face is beardless, the voice feminine, the flow of urine may be increased or diminished. Concerning

the sexual glands puberty is never attained. Nephritis is seen in many of these children and this clinical fact calls for further clinical investigation with reference to nephritis in young subjects.

Atypical Forms.—The literature contains a few records of pituitary disease where the subjects were of small stature (ateliosis) displayed a peculiar roughness and erythema of the face, dimness of vision with apparently normal visual fields and eye grounds, over-fatness, short thick fingers, small feet, pendulous abdomen with almost female development of the mammary glands, in male subjects. Location of hair in these

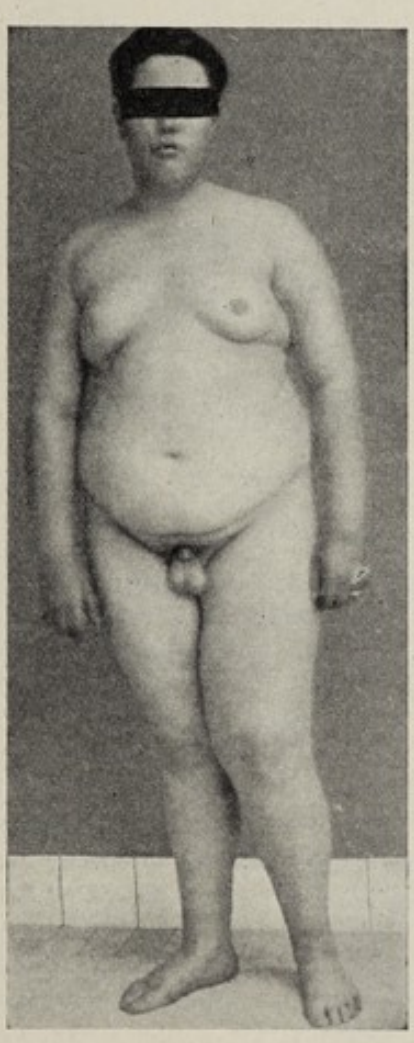


FIG. 423.—NOTE MAMMARY ADIPOSITY, MARKED PADDING OVER HYPOGASTRIUM, MONS, AND UPPER THIGHS, GENU VALGUM, AND APLASIA OF PENIS (Tierney, in Medical Clinics of N. A., November, 1920).

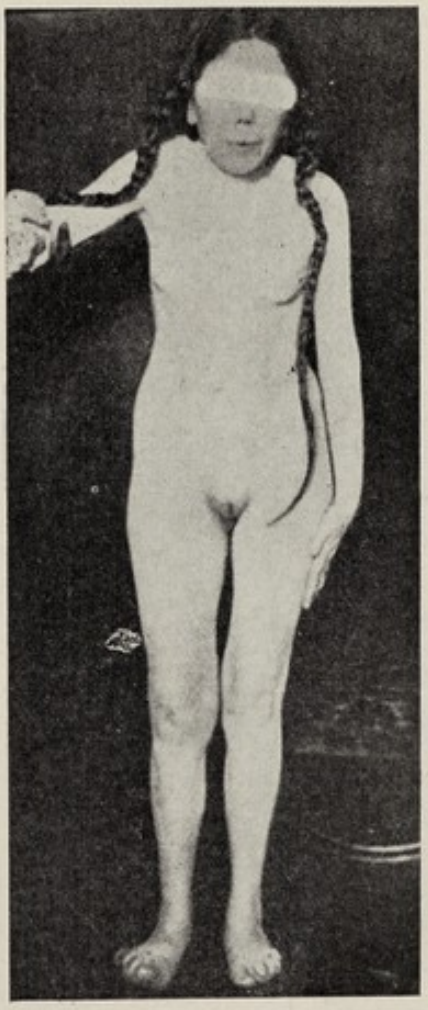


FIG. 424.—PATIENT FORTY-FOUR YEARS OLD.

Never menstruated; infantile genitalia; cretinoid face with saddle nose; mental age nine years; blood pressure 90/60. Case of Lorain infantilism and infantile myxedema. Note growth of hair on scalp and absence of fat below the knees (Lisser).

subjects is unique, displaying, as they do, a rich growth at the bridge of the nose; while the remainder of the body is covered with lanugo hair. In these cases there has been found abnormal tooth development as in the case of Friedman where the lower molars were unerupted and impacted.

This type of cases is worthy of consideration because according to our present knowledge the patient's stunted growth points to deficiency in the morphogenetic principle of the anterior pituitary lobe. The

posterior lobe is probably responsible for the hypertension and glycosuria when present. Cutaneous features (hypertrichosis) and cholesteremia both suggests involvement of the adrenals. Ossification of the epiphyses is abnormal in dwarfs, and proof that the thyroid is also implicated, is shown by the fact that these subjects increase in height following the administration of thyroid extract.

HYPOPHYSEAL ASTHENIA (FLIESS'S DISEASE)

Under-function of the anterior lobe of the hypophysis has seldom been connected with any special chain of symptoms. Fliess* described at length what he refers to as hypophyseal asthenia, and which includes the following special clinical features:

(*a*) General fatigue.

(*b*) Diminished power of concentration.

(*c*) Polyuria which may be accompanied by enuresis.

(*d*) Neuralgic pains, involving chiefly the occipit, sciatic region, spine and loins.

(*e*) Abnormalities in menstruation, common.

Fliess claims that the first four of the special features in hypofunction of the anterior lobe, while frequently observed in women, and especially during the period of gestation, are also experienced by male subjects, at puberty.

The general features of Fliess's syndrome are common to many diseases, but this syndrome has to support it the therapeutic fact that practically all cases improve when treated by preparations of the anterior lobe. Fliess's syndrome has been found to involve more than one member of the same family.

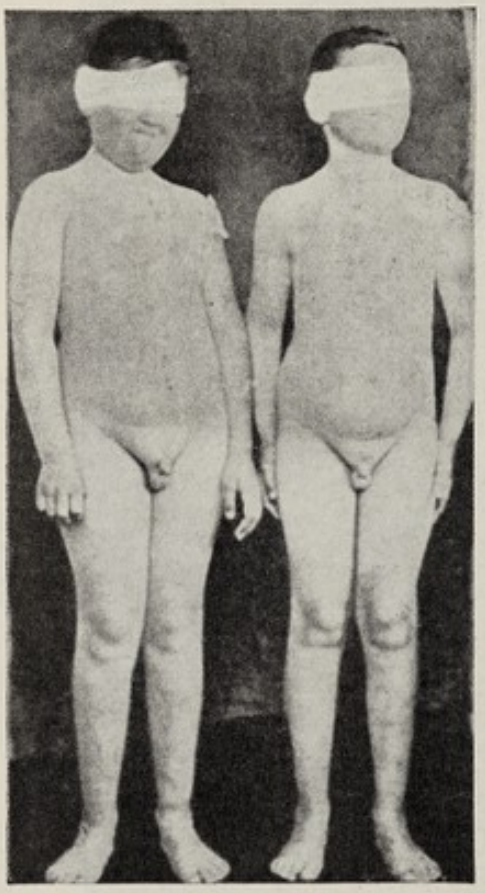


FIG. 424*a*.—TWINS AGED TEN.

Identical examples of Fröhlich's dystrophy adiposo-genitalis. Mental age three years; note girdle obesity and infantile genitalia; prostate absent (Lisser).

There are some young females in whom the predominant symptoms are amenorrhea and pelvic pain, with occasional attacks of dysmenorrhea. Menstruation is as a rule scanty in these subjects, the periods irregular, and at times absent for months. The skin is coarse, often dark, voice heavy and there may be obesity.

THE PITUITARY DURING PREGNANCY

A number of experiments concerning the function of the anterior pituitary lobe in pregnancy have been recorded, and among these the work of A. Gentili appears worthy of mention.

* Med. Klin. Berlin, 1920.

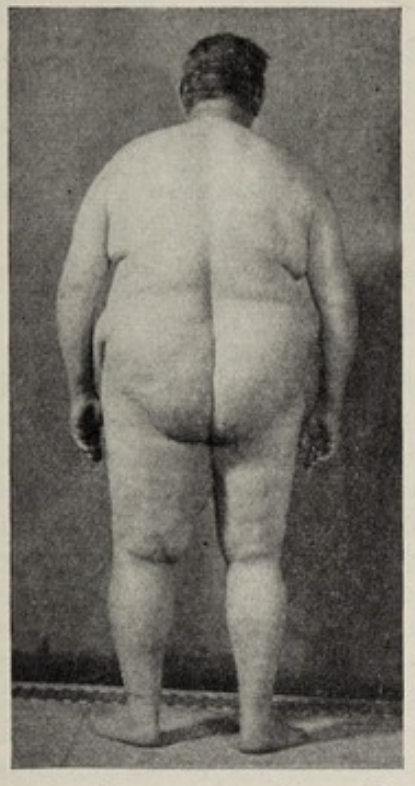


FIG. 425.—MALE AGED FIFTY YEARS.

Height 5 ft. 6 in., weight 320. Weight under 200 pounds until five years ago. There have been present intense headaches and the general symptoms of pituitary dysfunction. *X*-ray reveals growth involving the sella. Under the care of one of us at the Philadelphia General Hospital, 1924.

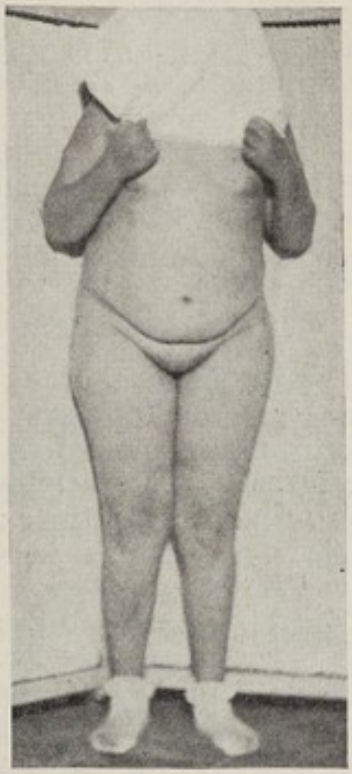


FIG. 426.—GIRL AGED FOURTEEN YEARS.

Height 5 ft. ¼ in. Weight 205 pounds. The sella is small and the clinoid process encroached upon the pituitary. Absence of sexual characteristics. Has not menstruated (courtesy of Dr. H. I. Goldstein).

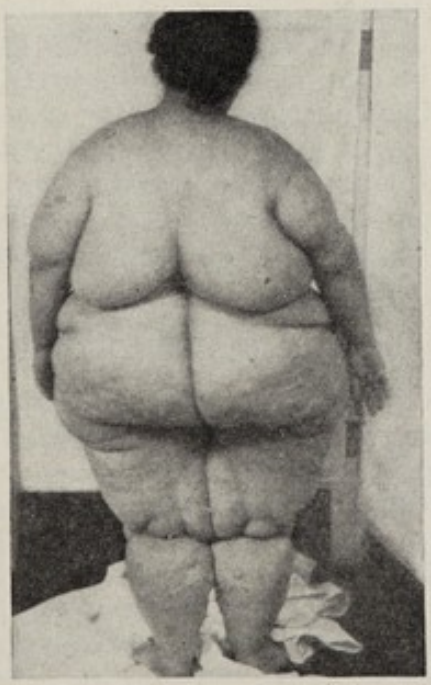


FIG. 427.—FEMALE AGED TWENTY-THREE YEARS.

Height 4 ft. 11 in., weight 208. Under the care of Dr. Weisenberg at the Philadelphia General Hospital, 1924. The sella turcica is shallow and a bridge-like bony formation covers the pituitary.

The author studied the pituitary gland in 100 animals, chiefly bovines, in the various stages of pregnancy, and found that the weight of the pituitary body practically doubled between conception and the end of gestation. The anterior lobe showed an increased amount of lipoid substance, and there was present an unusual amount of colloid material. The changes in the pituitary should be considered in connection with changes in the parathyroids and thyroid during the period of gestation with reference to albuminuria and eclampsia.

ENDOCRINE ADIPOSITY

(1) The first clinical groups to be considered is that of infantile, childhood and juvenile adiposity, which are probably the earliest sign placarding insufficiency of the posterior lobe of the pituitary during the adolescent age. These children are noticed by over-weight during childhood, in proportion to their age and height; and it is not uncommon to find both boys and girls, betweeen the ages of twelve and fourteen years, whose weights vary between 160 and 210 pounds. (2) Adiposity occurring at birth—Engelbach sets the maximum weight of the new-born at eight pounds and overweight at birth suggests hypothyroid in the infants. (3) Juvenile adiposity, when seen, suggests insufficiency of the posterior lobe of the pituitary in 80 per cent. of cases, and is frequently associated with insufficiency of the anterior lobe. (4) Adiposity developing in late adult life may be due to a single or a combined hypopituitarism, hypogonadism and hypothyroidism.

Concerning the subject of adiposity, there is much contention regarding its etiologic factor—certain writers contending that there is a cerebral hippocampal lesion. Aschner, of Switzerland, believes that the lesion of the tuber cinereum can produce adiposity in animals, and his observations have been confirmed by Bermer and Bailey.

The foregoing remarks show that there is much in question regarding extra pituitary lesions in the etiology of adiposities.

Associated Fröhlich's.—Cases of preadolescent adiposity may present abnormal function of both the anterior and posterior lobes of the pituitary. It cannot be emphasized too strongly that juvenile adiposity is a danger signal, indicating the possibility of a lack of genital growth and normal function, with the various nervous manifestations that follow this condition during postadolescent age. The majority of these cases have suffered from bilobar pituitary insufficiency for a long time, and it is possible for them to be complicated by abnormal function of the thyroid gland.

FRÖHLICH'S SYNDROME

Historic Note.—Ward* reports a typical case of underfunction of the pituitary. Autopsy revealed a tumor which replaced the pituitary and compressed the optic and olfactory nerves.

Bernard Mohr, published his elaborate clinical and pathological report on the case of a woman aged 27, in 1840. The symptoms were unmistakably those of Fröhlich's syndrome.

The autopsy showed a large degenerated pituitary body, an enormous increase in the subcutaneous fat, and there was an excess of fat about the viscera and omentum.

Fröhlich's work, of 1901, stands out preeminently since he was the one to show the clinical connection between pituitary dysfunction and

* London Med. Repos., Sept., 1823, p. 217.

genital aplasia. Fröhlich in 1901 contended that pituitary disease should be divided into two clinical classes.

(*a*) Those with symptoms and signs of acromegalia.

(*b*) Those without acromegalia.

Beck credits Rollarits with making a survey of the literature in 1904, when he found 52 cases of pituitary disease without acromegaly and 42 of these cases were published before Fröhlich's article, which appeared in 1901.

Pathologic Definition.—The hypophysis was found pathologic in twenty-three of forty-one cases studied at autopsy by Leschke. Cases showing dystrophia also presented associated lesions of the midbrain. The literature is prolific in records, describing varieties of pathology of the pituitary, the cells, and adjacent structures in cases of dystrophia adiposa genitalis. The skin displays an extreme cachectic appearance. Endocrine pathology is not always limited to the pituitary and gonads.

Oberndorfer in a report on the postmortem findings in eight cases mentions large tumors of the hypophysis twice; sarcoma, teratoid, and cancer, each once; and one glioma arising from the infundibulum. Each of the tumors cited exerted pressure upon the pituitary, or had completely replaced the gland by new growth.

There is a conspicuous overgrowth of the subcutaneous fat. The skin is pale and delicate; and axillary and pubic hair is sparing or absent. The characteristic changes of sex seldom develop, except where there is also present disease of the anterior pituitary lobe.

The pituitary body is frequently compressed by curved clinoid processes, a small sella turcica and from tumor of the pituitary and surrounding structures. Optic atrophy may be found.

Duffy* has described at length hypophyseal duct tumors, most of which are suprasellar in position; and divides these pathologically into three classes: (*a*) a papillary benign cyst; (*b*) an uncalcified or calcified adedonia, which may be malignant; and (*c*) a malignant spindle cell carcinoma, which may give metastasis to the cervical lymphatics. Hypophyseal duct tumors may be found in connection with Fröhlich's syndrome, senile changes in the endometrium, and atrophy of the spermatogenous epithelium of the testicles.

Clinical Classification.—Three well defined clinical types are recognized but any classification we may give must be regarded as serving for the present, since no one classification is universally accepted.

(*a*) The Levi-Lorain type of pituitary infantilism, which displays skeletal undergrowth and genital aplasia without adiposity.

(*b*) Fröhlich's type, which presents skeletal undergrowth (in most cases), genital aplasia, and adiposity.

(*c*) Neuroth-Cushing type characterized by skeletal overgrowth, genital aplasia with adiposity. This variety is less common than the previous mentioned types, but is in our judgment an equally well defined type of hypopituitarism.

(*d*) Hypopituitarism with acromegaly is gaining favor as a variety of pituitary disease, and an example of this type has been reported by Lisser.†

Symptoms.—Appearance.—The child shows a tendency towards infancy, and even where the size is normal, and the weight excessive, infantile features persist. In children there is an over-abundance of the subcutaneous fat. With advancing age the female characteristics

* Annals of Surgery, 1920, 532 and 725.

† Endocrinology, Jan., 1922, p. 30.

are maintained in male subjects. The normal changes of puberty are always delayed.

Cutaneous Features.—The skin is unusually soft in both children and adults, but with advancing years the skin acquires a peculiarly fine network of wrinkling. Axillary and pubic hair is wanting, or poorly developed. In adult males the pubic hair is arranged like that seen in the female. The beard is usually wanting.

Stature.—This varies within wide limits. In children over-fatness is invariably present. The height of the subject varies greatly—normal or over-height being the rule. Both over-stout, short, and slender adults are seen (Figs. 425, 428). The variations in stature may depend upon the degree of posterior pituitary implication, and upon the presence of other endocrine complications.

Voice.—The voice remains rather high pitched in males, and in adult females the voice is likely to be coarse and somewhat masculine, as was observed in two of our private cases. In most cases the thyroid gland is small. The sexual characteristics are delayed in their appearance, and patients 20 and 30 years of age may show little of the changes expected at puberty. In female subjects menstruation is delayed, and when present is markedly irregular. We have, however, seen subjects that have borne children, but abortion is the rule in such patients. In males of mature age sexual ambitions are but slight or absent.

Amenorrhea has long been recognized as an important symptom of pituitary disease and our first record of its recognition was given by de Han, in 1761. de Han's case in addition, became blind, unduly fat and presented the other common features of Fröhlich's syndrome. The autopsy showed a large infundibulum which contained pultaceous and calcareous material. There was pressure upon the chiasm.

Amenorrhea has been ably discussed by the earlier writers on pituitary pathology, as accompanying overweight, headache, mental dullness and the various eye signs and symptoms now recognized as almost characteristic of Fröhlich's syndrome.

Urine.—The quantity of urine voided during the 24 hours may be excessive. There are reported instances where the characteristics of diabetes insipidus were present. Cases of hypopituitarism are rather prone to develop nephritis. A characteristic feature is that all subjects display an unusual tolerance for sugar, being able to ingest large quantities of sugar without the appearance of glucose in the urine.

Blood Chemistry.—Flores has reported a case where diminished sexual activity, slight kyphosis, without showing glycosuria and a blood sugar reading of 0.136; creatinine 0.0013 blood cholesterin 0.633 were present. This case presented a large cella and choked disc of the right eye.

Mentality.—The majority of cases show sub-normal mental faculties. Many cases will be seen where the degree of mentality is approximately normal, and this faculty is most often encountered in young male subjects.

Circulation.—The heart sounds are distant and resemble somewhat that of the fetal heart. The frequency of the pulse may not be disturbed; although it becomes greatly accellerated as the result of exercise, and during the course of any acute infection. The blood pressure is low in uncomplicated cases. Mild cases of hypopituitarism are common and their most outstanding symptom is circulatory weakness.

Eyes.—Local pressure symptoms are due to interference with the optic tracts and chiasm. Pressure is oftenest exerted upon the inner portion of the two tracts, and upon the posterior portion of the chiasm—fibers passing to the two nasal halves of the retina being compressed.

Bilateral hemianopsia is an early symptom and Riddoch has called attention to disassociation in the fields of vision for color, and fixed and moving objects. In the majority of instances the fields of vision are diminished. Those cases that continue to advance from bad to worse develop in addition to hemianopsia progressive diminution in the remaining fields until blind. Neuralgic pains along the course of the 5th nerve is a rare, but annoying symptom. (See Acromegaly, p. 1124.)

Ears.—The formation of spongy bony growth in the labyrinth, has been reported.

These features are also found in parathyroid disease.

General Pressure.—New growths of the pituitary body and surrounding tissues are apt to lead to increased intracranial pressure. Pressure may be exerted in such a direction as to interfere but slightly, if at all, with the optic nerves. Whenever the lesion originates in the pituitary body there is an early interference with vision as described under local pressure signs. The early symptoms of general pressure are, headache, pressure upon the 5th nerve, and the evidence of an increased pressure within the cranium. The early eye changes are optic neuritis and atrophy.

Blood Chemistry According to Lisser's Studies of a Case.—The fasting blood sugar curve is 0.103 per cent.; a half hour later 0.125; at the end of the hour it had fallen to 0.047 per cent.; and two and a half hours later it was 0.088 per cent.

Metabolism.—Basal metabolism has been found at 14 per cent. above the normal in young subjects afflicted with Fröhlich's type, and in whom amenorrhea was present; while in other cases the basal metabolism may range as low as 5 per cent. below the normal in young subjects, and Lisser found it 26.4 per cent. below normal in the case of a male 27 years of age.

Summary of Diagnosis.—Young subjects are over-fat, retain the feminine characteristics until after the age for puberty, show an unusual tolerance for sugar, frequently display polyuria and are of lowered vitality. In adults the skin remains soft, an abnormal development of pubic hair, in males the voice remains high pitched. Headache, neuralgia and cardiac asthenia are the rule. Typical cases of Fröhlich's syndrome are fairly common, but atypical (mixed) cases where hypopituitary exists in conjunction with some other endocrine disbalance is far more common, and in these a polyglandular syndrome is present.

Calcification of the Pituitary.—Calcification of the pituitary is a fairly common condition, and its diagnosis is made positive by means of a roentgeographic study. Many cases have already been recorded where symptoms of pituitary origin were present and were relief from such symptoms following the administration of pituitary preparations.

The most recent literature we have at hand is a report by Pfahler and Pitfield,* and these authors also cite cases of calcification of the pineal gland.

It is unnecessary for us to enumerate the various symptoms and signs referable to pituitary disease, let it suffice to add that many of these are present to a greater or lesser degree in all cases of calcification of the pituitary or of its capsule.

DIABETES INSIPIDUS

Pathologic Definition.—Pathologic changes in the hypophysis are present in approximately 50 per cent. of all cases. Tumor of the pitui-

* Amer. Jour. of Med. Sci., April, 1922, p. 491.

tary or surrounding structures with pressure upon the posterior pituitary lobe may exist. The pathologic changes are similar to those found in "Fröhlich's Syndrome." Leschke in an exhaustive discourse on midbrain pathology contends that the midbrain is concerned in diabetes insipidus. Internal hydrocephalus, pineal tumor, tuberculosis of the infundibulum, bullet wounds of the midbrain, and brain syphilis have been found at autopsy, without extensive disease of the hypophysis. Pathologic changes in the kidneys are not constant in nature, or regular in appearance. Camus and Roussy* contend that diabetes insipidus may result in pathologic conditions at the base of the brain without pituitary involvement. Bailey and Bremer have recently shown that a punctured lesion of the hypothalamus is also capable of producing polyuria, and that such polyuria persists after denervation of the kidney. Hypophyseal

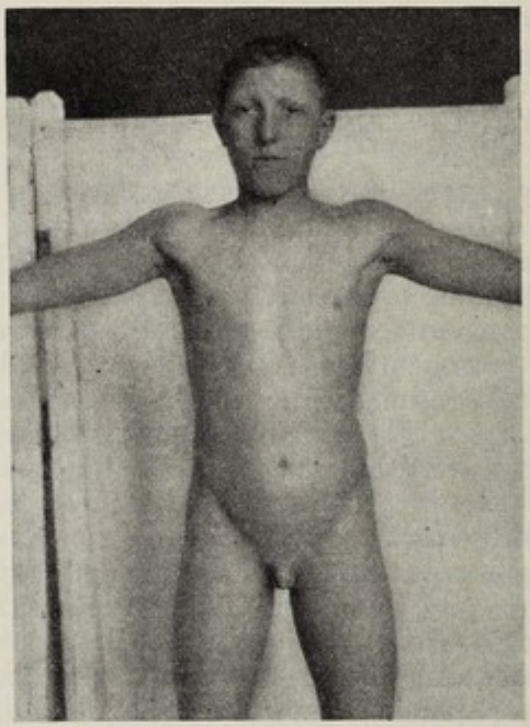


FIG. 428.—DIABETES INSIPIDUS—HYPOPITUITARISM.

Male, aged 14½ years, admitted to Philadelphia General Hospital, 1924, for alopecia of eyebrows and scalp. No sugar in urine after ingestion of 100 and 200 grams of glucose. Sella small spicule of bone extending into the posterior pituitary. No evidence of beard or hair in the axillary or pubic regions, and the shoulders, hips and thighs feminine in contour. Urine above 100 ounces per day.

lesions have been found rather common. V. Hann† reports positive findings in three cases and reviewed the post-mortem record of seven additional cases, all of which show unmistakable evidence of pathologic changes, capable of causing hypophyseal dysfunction.

Clinical Consideration.—Diabetes insipidus is regarded as a symptom in the hypopituitary syndrome. It is generally conceded that the hormone of the posterior pituitary lobe exerts a physiologic controlling action over the elimination of water through the renal filter.

It has been shown that polyuria when due to pituitary disease permits a normal amount of solids to escape through the kidneys during the twenty-four hours; therefore the only abnormal feature is the fluid of water that is filtered through the kidneys.

* Compt. rend. Soc. de biol. (Paris), 1920.
† Frankf. Ztschr. f. Path., 1918.

Predisposing and Exciting Causes.—(1) Pathologic lesions of the pituitary body and altered pituitary function is chief among the causes. (2) Heredity serves as the most potent predisposing factor, a statement that is borne out by the statistics of Weil, who found that in the 91 descendants of a certain family, 23 suffered from polyuria. The record of descendants of a man living in Northern Pennsylvania, who was afflicted with diabetes insipidus, showed that 18 cases of diabetes insipidus appeared in three generations. In the series of cases just referred to males and females seemed equally prone to transmit the disease; although not a single instance of polyuria in a female was found. It was the rule, however, for each female who married to bear one or more sons who suffered from diabetes insipidus, and in no instance did a son have more than one heir who displayed this malady.

A case of traumatic diabetes insipidus has been reported by Tidy* where male age 25 years received a wound through the left inferior eye lid. The patient was unconscious for a time and later developed intense thirst and polyuria, voiding 180 to 300 ounces of sugar free urine, per day. Sugar did not appear in the urine after the administration of 250 grams of glucose.

It was the privilege of one of us (Boston) to see 11 of these 18 cases—all were blonds, 7 were slender, hair thin, beards sparing, general vitality subnormal. The remaining 4 cases were somewhat obese, with a suggestion of feminine characteristics, but none were typical of Fröhlich's syndrome. Syphilis may be an etiologic factor.

(3) Temporary diabetes insipidus may follow extreme shock, as from fright, nervous strain, traumatism to the head, and rarely trauma of the trunk and extremities. It may also follow acute infectious diseases, *e. g.*, acute nephritis, influenza, etc. Lesions of the fourth ventricle are said to cause diabetes insipidus, and it has also been known to accompany paralysis of the sixth nerve.

Principal Complaint.—Diabetes insipidus develops gradually with the growth of the child, so that the mother does not realize that the child is taking an abnormal quantity of liquids until it is two or more years old. If the malady follows traumatism or acute infections, it develops abruptly. The frequent passing of large quantities of urine is a constant symptom, and is usually followed by intense thirst and the imbibition of a large quantity of water. The appetite is normal or excessive. The skin and mucous surfaces are generally drier than in health.

Laboratory Diagnosis.—The quantity of urine voided during the twenty-four hours is in direct proportion to the amount of fluid ingested, and will be found above 400 ounces. Such urines are pale, of low specific gravity, 1.001 to 1.006—and show a low percentage of solids, although the total amount of solids voided during the twenty-four hours may equal the normal. Traces of glucose are occasionally present, and inosite has been found.

Summary of Diagnosis.—The diagnosis is based upon the existence of polyuria (urine of low specific gravity without well marked glycosuria), and the presence of intense thirst in a patient who is well nourished. Pressure from tumor of the pituitary gives characteristic fields of vision. (See Fröhlich's Disease, p. 1136.)

THE PANCREAS

It has been deemed advisable to consider the pancreas, and the recognition of its diseases in connection with endocrine disturbances,

*Proc. Royal Soc., Med., London, Jan., 1922.

since many—and possibly all—pancreatic pathology is connected more or less intimately with the various functions of the pancreas.

"Of the nature of this internal secretion we know nothing but that it is essential to the carbohydrate metabolism and is apparently of the nature of a hormone inhibiting the utilization of sugar; and is antagonistic to the secretion of the adrenal medulla and influenced by the internal secretion of the thyroid and probably by that of the hypophysis, while its nervous regulation is furnished by the sugar-center of the medulla and the sympathetic system.

"The majority of the writers on the pancreas regard the islets as the seat of this *hormone production;* a minority hold that both islets and acinar tissue are concerned in the production of an internal secretion" (Barker).

Functional inefficiency in the production of the pancreatic hormone eventually leads to disturbances in carbohydrate metabolism, which is manifested in varying degrees of lessened sugar tolerance in each afflicted individual. Later there is the development of diabetes with associated disturbances in both fat and protein metabolism. (See Diabetes, pp. 1061, 1064.)

Pathology.—Pathologic changes in the islets of Langerhans are a fairly constant feature in diabetes mellitus. In some instances the pancreas shows only sclerotic changes, but the rule is for the sclerotic areas to encroach to a greater or lesser degree upon the islets.

Pancreatic pathology is, as a rule, associated with other endocrine pathology, in diabetes: *e. g.*, thyroid, pituitary, and changes causing pressure on the mid-brain.

The following is an abstract of Verron's exhaustive report on the necropsy findings in six cases of diabetes:*

Case 1.—Atrophy of the pancreas; goiter. Both lobes of the hypophysis enlarged, and in the pars glandularis a largely increased number of eosinophil cells were found. The pars intermedia was normal, but presented large vacuoles. The pars nervosa was normal.

Case 2.—The pancreas appeared normal, and there were no pathologic changes in the islands of Langerhans. The hypophysis was small (no mention of the sella was made).

Case 3.—The pancreas showed arteriosclerosis and contained much fat. The islets were normal. In the hypophysis the pars intermedia was very small. The pars nervosa was normal, but contained many basophil cells. In the pars anterior were seen many mitoses.

Case 4.—The pancreas showed unimportant sclerosis in some islets. In the hypophysis the pars anterior was small and the lobus posterior large. In the pars anterior a large number of eosinophil cells and in the pars posterior, pigmentation were seen. The pars intermedia showed necrosis.

Case 5.—The pancreas was slightly atrophic—there was psammoma (hard fibrous tumor) in the pars intermedia of the hypophysis.

Case 6.—Metastasis of a cancer was found in the hypophysis. The pars posterior and intermedia had been destroyed by the tumor. It is of inestimable importance to note the sizes and shape of the sella and the position of the clinoids in all instances where polyuria or glycosuria are present. Given these additional facts the opportunity for the pituitary to expand and functionate or to be compressed and inhibited, is immediately apparent. *X*-ray study of the sella turcica will often disclose unmistakable pathology in cases of diabetes.

* Zentralbl f. allg. Path. u. path. Anat. (Jena, 1921).

Amylase (Diastase).—Diastase in the body of animals acts not only as a digestive ferment, but also aids in mobilizing the deposited glycogen; it is to be found in connection with glycogen in organs, and is contained in all the body fluids in serum. The ferment is not consumed during its activity, but is constantly formed anew, chiefly in the pancreas and the salivary glands—the excess is eliminated with the urine, feces, and perspiration—it is rendered partially inactive, probably, in the subcutaneous tissues.

Laboratory experiments show that after removal of the pancreas, the salivary glands do not produce diastase. The amylase of the blood suggests that some organ other than the pancreas may produce this substance and it is intimated by physiologists that liver diastase should exist.

The amylase content of the blood may show the great variation of 100 per cent., but the amyolytic action is not a significant factor, therefore the actual estimation of the diastase present, has not thus far, served us in diagnosis.

The amylase content of the urine is commonly higher than that of the serum. In nephritis there may be a diminution of the ferment in the urine, and also in the serum, while in other cases showing nephritic symptoms, both urine and serum findings are normal. Cases of nephritis characterized by impermeability of the kidney may display diminished urinary diastase, and an increase in the serum. Results in the estimation of this ferment have been inconsistent. A study of this ferment bids fair to produce valuable clinical data; but our present methods have not given satisfactory results.

Methods of Examination.—Clinical Remarks.—The great difficulty with which disease of the pancreas is recognized antemortem is doubtless responsible for the small space allotted to this subject in works on diagnosis and general medicine. Recently, the efforts to establish a method for the recognition of pancreatic disease have been limited to laboratory research, and for this reason the various laboratory methods employed to further the diagnosis of pancreatic disease, and the clinical significance of such findings, will be described here.

Fatty Stools.—Either constipation or diarrhea may be present in disease of the pancreas. The stools often contain fat-globules, which give to the mass of dejecta a glazed or greasy appearance. Microscopically (⅙ to ⅛ inch objective), the field shows many oil-globules. If further proof is desired, a drop of a saturated alcoholic solution of Sudan III is allowed to pass underneath the edge of the cover-glass, and as it mingles with the fat-globules contained in the stool, each globule coming in contact with the solution is stained a brilliant pink. Staining with a weak solution of osmic acid renders the oil-globules black. For practical purposes, we have found Sudan III the more reliable and convenient fat stain.

Undigested Fats.—The quantity of fat present in the stool in pancreatic disease is in direct relation to the amount of fatty food ingested, the inability to digest fats being one of the characteristic features of a pancreatic lesion.

Clinical Significance.—Fat in the stools occurs clinically in acute pancreatic hemorrhage, acute pancreatitis, pancreatic carcinoma, pancreatic cyst, when the organ is firmly compressed, pancreatic calculi, and acute and chronic pancreatitis.

Meat-fibers (beef, pork, etc.) are imperfectly digested when any condition, either mechanical or functional, that interferes with the escape of

the pancreatic secretion into the duodenum exists. In certain cases of pancreatic disease we have found that a macroscopic study of the stool showed the presence of many particles of meat-fiber. Meat-fiber may be detected only microscopically, and there may be but few fibers present in the stool, even though the patient has ingested a meal rich in lean meats, therefore the following test is of great value:

Nucleus Test.—Schmidt's test, which was first described in 1904, is conducted as follows:

(1) Harden a particle of lean beef not larger than 0.5 cm. in diameter (or the size of a pea) in absolute alcohol for a few days.

(2) Then tie it in a small bag of Brussels net.

(3) Return to the alcohol until required for use.

(4) After washing in water for three hours permit the patient to swallow several of these small net bags, each containing a meat-ball.

(5) Eighteen hours later the net bags and their contained meat-balls are recovered from the feces.

(6) Wash the Brussels net thoroughly, open the bag, and transfer the meat-ball to clean water, where it is to be thoroughly washed and made ready for microscopic study.

(7) The outer layer of the meat-ball will, in nearly all instances, be found to be digested. Microscopically, the nuclei of the cells will be broken in health, but if pancreatic digestion is imperfect, the nuclei of the fibers occupying the interior of the meat-ball will not be destroyed.

(8) The meat-ball may be cut in half, and tissue obtained from the center of the ball teased thoroughly upon a slide and examined immediately, to detect the state of the nuclei present, or, as is possibly still better, though less practical, the entire meat-ball may be hardened and sectioned and a careful microscopic study made of the sections. Whatever course is pursued, the meat-ball must be removed from the Brussels net and studied within a short time after it is passed by the bowel, otherwise the test is valueless.

Caution.—Should the meat-ball pass through the intestinal tract too soon, the test will be valueless. In a healthy person digestion may be complete in from twelve to fourteen hours, but from eighteen to twenty hours are required to complete the process when testing for disease.

Clinical Significance.—The nucleus test is but fairly reliable as an aid in making a diagnosis of disease of the pancreas. If the nucleus test is positive, disease of the pancreas is likely to be present, and although, as stated, it is by no means infallible, it is probably one of the best tests at hand.

The Cammidge Reaction.—In 1904 P. J. Cammidge described a test for the detection of pancreatic disease, which is commonly known as the Cammidge reaction. The test consists in boiling the filtered urine with hydrochloric acid, and, after treatment with lead salts and the removal of these salts, heating with phenylhydrazin hydrochlorid, and examining the sediment for the occurrence of rosets of yellow, needle-like crystals. Cammidge originally described two reactions, which he called the A and B tests; but later modified his method and proposed a reaction which he calls the C test, which is now generally used. Cammidge originally thought that glycerose was the substance which produced the osazone crystals; but he abandoned this view, and later advanced the opinion that a pentose formed from some "antecedent substance" in the urine by boiling with hydrochloric acid gave rise to the crystals.

Method.—The urine is first shown to be free from albumin and glucose. In determining the absence of the latter ingredient the test with Fehling's

solution is not accurate and the phenylhydrazin hydrochlorid test should be employed. If albumin is present, it should be removed by the addition of acetic acid, by boiling, and filtering. If the phenylhydrazin hydrochlorid test gives a positive reaction, the glucose should be removed by fermentation.

Forty cubic centimeters of filtered urine known to be free from albumin and glucose, and 2 cubic centimeters of strong hydrochloric acid (sp. gr. 1.16), are placed in a small Erlenmeyer flask, in the mouth of which a small funnel is placed to act as a condenser, and boiled on a sand-bath for ten minutes from the time the first bubbles are observed. The flask is then cooled in running water and 8 grams of lead carbonate are slowly added to neutralize the acidity. After standing for a few minutes so as to allow the reaction to be completed, the flask is again cooled in running water and its contents filtered through a well-moistened, close-grained filter-paper, until a perfectly clear filtrate is obtained. The filtrate is then treated with 8 grams of lead acetate and the resulting precipitate is removed by filtering through a moistened filter-paper. Repeated filtration should be done if the first filtrate is cloudy. The lead now in solution in the fluid is next removed by adding 4 grams of powdered sodium sulphate, bringing the contents of the flask to the boiling-point, and filtering after cooling in running water. The lead may also be removed by passing a stream of sulphuretted hydrogen through the fluid and filtering. The former method precipitates the lead as a sulphate, the latter as a sulphid. Ten cubic centimeters of the filtrate resulting from the last operation are made up to 17 cubic centimeters with distilled water and 0.8 gram of phenylhydrazin hydrochlorid, 2 grams of sodium acetate, and 1 cubic centimeter of 50 per cent. solution of acetic acid are added. The mixture is placed in a small Erlenmeyer flask fitted with a funnel condenser and the whole boiled on the sand-bath for ten minutes from the time of the appearance of the first ebullition. The hot fluid is filtered through a filter-paper previously moistened with hot water into a test-tube provided with a 15 c.c. mark. If the filtrate falls short of the 15 c.c. mark, it is made up to that point with distilled water and the two fluids carefully mixed. A stopper is then put in the tube and the tube placed in an upright position in a test-tube rack overnight, or until the solution is cool, preferably the former. The sediment is then pipetted off and examined with the $\frac{1}{6}$-inch dry lens. A positive reaction is indicated by the presence of rosets and sheaves of delicate, long, yellowish, needle-shaped crystals. These crystals curl up at the ends and have a tendency to branch.

Discussion of Laboratory Diagnosis.—Tests to determine a deficiency or absence of pancreatic excretion from the intestine: (1) The stools are larger than normal and are often devoid of bile pigment. (2) After the ingestion of a large amount of fat, 250 or 300 grams of butter, the stools show the presence of fat and have a somewhat butter-like appearance (under normal conditions the average human stool is normal after the ingestion of 300 grams of butter fat per day). Buttery stools constitute a positive symptom in deficient or absent pancreatic excretion. (3) Sahli's glutoid capsule dissolved promptly in duodenal fluid containing a normal amount of pancreatic excretion. These capsules are not soluble in the gastric juices. Capsules may be filled with such substances as iodoform, salicylic acid and potassium iodid, and when given by mouth are dissolved in the duodenum. The contained substances are detectable in the saliva in from fifteen minutes to one hour after their liberation in the duodenum. (4) Lean beef fibers are not destroyed in the absence of

normal pancreatic excretion, consequently a diet rich in meat is followed by a feces containing much meat fiber. The nuclei of the meat fibers are not destroyed in the absence of pancreatic excretion. (See Schmidt's Meat Bag Nuclei Test.) (5) Cammidge's test with the urine is rather difficult, and we question whether it is attended by better or even equally good results, with those to be obtained through the foregoing measures. (6) The use of the duodenal tube and the recognition, in the duodenal fluid of pancreatic excretions (trypsin), an amylolytic or diastatic ferment (amylase), and a lipolytic ferment (steapsin or lipase in the duodenal fluid is a measure of later use and is, we believe, preferably in those cases where such tests can be employed.

ACUTE HEMORRHAGIC PANCREATITIS

Pathologic Definition.—A disease probably excited by infection of the pancreas with bacteria, and characterized by both circumscribed and diffuse hemorrhagic infiltration into the substance of the organ. There may also be thrombosis of the pancreatic veins and round-celled infiltration involving the interlobular tissue. Hemorrhage may extend to the adjacent structures, and hyperemia and ecchymoses are at times seen upon the gastric mucous membrane. In selected cases there is evidence of localized peritonitis, and disseminated fat necrosis is commonly associated with it.

Exciting Factors.—The exciting factor in man is not definitely determined. Experimentally, Flexner found that by injecting acids and alkalis into the duct of Wirsung, acute pancreatitis resulted, and the same investigator found, that by injecting cultures of pathogenic bacteria, a similar result ensued. These experiments strongly suggest that the disease is probably of microbic origin.

Predisposing Factors.—**Age** figures prominently—nearly all cases have been seen in persons over forty. Those having suffered from gastroduodenal catarrh, from chronic dyspepsia, or from diabetes, appear to be most susceptible to this type of disease. Traumatism over the epigastrium is not only a predisposing but a probable exciting factor in certain cases. Pancreatic hemorrhage may give rise to pancreatitis, and acute infectious fevers also predispose to the development of acute pancreatitis.

Principal Complaint.—There is usually a history of chronic gastrointestinal disturbances or of traumatism to the abdomen. The development of symptoms is *sudden*, and among them should be mentioned *violent deep-seated pain*, oftenest limited to the epigastrium, but which may be as low as the umbilicus. Accompanying the extreme pain are *nausea*, *violent retching*, and *vomiting*. Intermittent pains, when present, are generally conceded to be the result of associated gall-stone colic. Hiccough may develop early, and be a prominent and annoying symptom, although in other cases it may be absent. The patient may be conscious, or there may be a variable degree of delirium. Labored respiration is an early feature, and, in fact, dyspnea may persist throughout the attack. The patient may faint while occupied with his usual duties, and there is also a rapid tendency toward collapse. Constipation is the rule, although diarrhea may be present.

Thermic Features.—A high temperature is seldom seen, whereas moderate fever is the rule; the temperature may, however, reach 103° or 104° F. During the stage of collapse the temperature may become subnormal.

Physical Signs.—**Inspection.**—The patient is usually found in the recumbent posture, or the chest may be tilted slightly forward and the

legs flexed upon the abdomen. The expression is that of agony, and within a few hours the cheeks become sunken, the features distorted, and the expression anxious. In those cases in which dyspnea and cardiac failure are prominent, there is cyanosis, which is most apparent in the lips, ears, and fingertips, and, in fact, the face may display a peculiar dusky hue. Abdominal distention is occasionally present. Jaundice, when present, is usually dependent upon the presence of gall-stones.

Palpation.—Localized tenderness is often elicited in the epigastrium, and slight rigidity of the muscles overlying this area is not uncommon. The entire abdomen may be somewhat tense as the result of tympanites. The pulse becomes rapid early, and as the condition progresses, it becomes small, weak, dicrotic, and compressible.

Auscultation.—As the disease progresses, the heart-sounds, in addition to being rapid, may lose their muscular quality.

Laboratory Diagnosis.—The *vomitus* at first contains the contents of the stomach, and later may be made up almost entirely of mucus. Bloodstained material is often ejected.

Diarrhea may be present, the stools being watery in consistency and containing particles of fat.

The quantity of *urine* excreted may be normal or slightly decreased. Glycosuria is an occasional feature, but in such cases it is necessary to eliminate the existence of this condition prior to the development of the present attack. Albuminuria is the rule, although it is not a constant feature. Cammidge's reaction is positive.

Summary of Diagnosis.—In all cases the diagnosis is made with difficulty, the symptoms of hemorrhagic pancreatitis closely resembling those found in other pathologic abdominal conditions. The age of the patient (after middle life), the history of previous dyspepsia or of diabetes, and a possible history of traumatism to the abdomen are of considerable importance. Most characteristic, however, is the sudden onset, the deep-seated epigastric pain followed by nausea, vomiting, and circulatory collapse. Cammidge's reaction and the presence of fat in the feces are also to be considered.

Differential Diagnosis.—Obstruction of the Bowel.—When the obstruction occurs in an aged person, the distinction is made with difficulty. (*a*) Acute intestinal obstruction is more common in the young than in the aged, and the pain is less definitely localized than that of pancreatitis. (*b*) Abdominal distention if more marked in intestinal obstruction. (*c*) Fecal vomiting, a characteristic feature of obstruction, is absent in acute hemorrhagic pancreatitis. (*d*) The temperature is normal at the onset, but soon becomes subnormal in obstruction; (*e*) indicanuria is a somewhat constant symptom in obstruction.

Acute Gastroduodenal Catarrh.—(1) In this condition there is a distinct rise in the temperature at the onset. (2) The symptoms are not sudden and the pain is of a different character—not deep-seated or localized, as is the case in acute inflammation of the pancreas. Cammidge's reaction is negative, as is also an examination for fat in the feces. There is not the same degree of prostration and as marked a tendency toward circulatory collapse as are characteristic of acute pancreatitis. Gastric crises, abdominal angina, angina pectoris, p. 333, and gastric ulcer, p. 543, with perforation may resemble hemorrhagic pancreatitis.

Clinical Course.—This is, as a rule, rapid, the condition going on from bad to worse. Although surgical treatment is said to be of value, the majority of cases terminate fatally between the second and the fourth days.

SUPPURATIVE PANCREATITIS

Pathologic Definition.—A disease characterized by acute or subacute inflammation of the pancreatic substance, terminating in suppuration. Suppuration may be diffuse, with the formation of numerous minute abscesses, although it is more common to find a single abscess within the head or body of the organ. There is generally extensive destruction of the pancreatic tissue, and the inflammatory process may extend to adjacent structures. Disseminated fat necrosis is occasionally present, and both hepatic abscess and pylephlebitis are seen at times.

Predisposing Factors.—The causal factor may be acute hemorrhagic pancreatitis that has gone on to suppuration. Extreme prostration sets in early, and there is progressive loss of flesh, together with a peculiar dusky pallor or slight jaundice. Secondary infection is to be given consideration as are also remote foci of infection.

Thermic Features.—The fever is irregular, ranging between 99° and 102° to 104° F.

Physical Signs.—Inspection.—The expression is anxious, the skin is jaundiced, and the abdomen is slightly distended.

Palpation.—Tenderness over the epigastrium is commonly present, and pressure usually excites pain. A distinct mass may occupy the epigastric region. Both tenderness and pain are usually limited to the left side of the median line, and abnormal tension of the abdominal muscles is the rule. The spleen is often palpable.

Summary of Diagnosis.—The character and localization of the pain, the irregular temperature, the presence of emaciation and prostration, together with hiccough and vomiting, point strongly toward the existence of pancreatic abscess. Fatty stools at times constitute the only symptom that points directly toward pancreatic disease, and in many cases it is impossible to formulate a diagnosis without knowledge upon this clinical point; indeed, the diagnosis of suppurative pancreatitis is, as a rule, founded upon general, rather than upon accurate scientific, principles.

Clinical Course.—In a small percentage of cases the disease assumes a chronic course, the patients living for weeks or even months; if perchance, the pus should make its escape into the stomach or intestine, recovery may follow. Most cases, however, terminate in death by the end of the first week.

GANGRENOUS PANCREATITIS

Pathologic Definition.—This condition is usually the terminal stage of the affection, and resemble that described for acute hemorrhagic pancreatitis. The majority of, if not all, cases terminate in death. There are no known clinical methods by which we are able to recognize the existence of gangrenous pancreatitis antemortem.

CHRONIC PANCREATITIS

Pathologic Definition.—A chronic inflammatory process characterized by involvement of the substance of the pancreas, and resulting in an abnormal formation of fibrous tissue. The glandular substance may be almost obliterated. Owing to pressure upon the small ducts, small cysts may form. Interstitial hemorrhages are occasionally present, and extensive adhesions may surround the organ. In the chronic suppurative type of the disease small circumscribed abscesses exist.

Principal Complaint.—This is no way characteristic of the disease in question, and the early symptoms of chronic pancreatitis resemble those of chronic dyspepsia. The patient gives a history of chronic gastric catarrh, with more or less periodic outbreaks of diarrhea. After the condition has become well advanced, he may complain of deep-seated epigastric pain, which is often paroxysmal. During these paroxysms the patient becomes unusually anxious; he may have attacks of faintness, and express a sense of great fear. Emaciation is rather rapid, and weakness is progressive.

Thermic Features.—During the attacks of pain moderate fever may be present.

Physical Signs.—Inspection.—Cachexia develops within the course of a few months, and continues throughout the disease. There is evidence of emaciation, and the skin overlying the abdomen may be peculiarly wrinkled.

Palpation.—Deep pressure elicits the fact that there is moderate tenderness over the epigastrium, although a distinct mass is seldom palpable.

Laboratory Diagnosis.—The feces contain fat, and the nucleus test may be positive, p. 1144.

The urine is often bile-stained, and may contain fat. The Cammidge reaction is positive. Glycosuria is fairly common, and, in fact, true diabetes mellitus may be a feature of chronic pancreatitis. (See p. 1144.)

Summary of Diagnosis.—The general features of chronic pancreatitis, with intermittent attacks of diarrhea, following which periodic attacks of deep-seated epigastric pain develop and are accompanied by fever, faintness, and anxiety, form a group of symptoms that strengthens the clinical picture. The presence of fat in the stools and of a positive Cammidge reaction in the urine, when taken in connection with the foregoing symptoms, points strongly toward the existence of chronic pancreatitis.

Clinical Course and Duration.—The condition runs a decidedly unfavorable course. The duration will be found to vary greatly, depending upon the portions of the pancreas affected. Necropsy has revealed the fact that extensive areas of sclerotic change may be present in the pancreas and the patient during life display no symptoms referable to the pancreas.

PANCREATIC HEMORRHAGE (APOPLEXY)

Pathologic Definition.—A condition characterized by the presence of circumscribed areas of hemorrhage into the gland and adjacent tissues. The pancreas is often enlarged, although it may be of the normal size. In the region of the hemorrhage the organ is soft. Extensive hemorrhage may infiltrate the omentum and transverse colon, and invade the retroperitoneal fatty tissue and mucous membrane. Late, secondary reactive inflammation and necrosis are prone to occur. The pancreas is often acutely attacked during the course of epidemic parotitis, and influenza. Pancreatitis may follow other of the acute infections. It is not definitely established that all instances of infection are ascending from the intestinal tract, and there is much to suggest that both acute and interstitial pancreatitis may arise from some remote focus. (See Focal Infection, p. 985.)

Predisposing Factors.—Age serves as the most prominent predisposing factor, since the condition is seldom seen in persons before the

fourth decade. About 75 per cent. of cases have occurred in males. Traumatism may be a direct cause. A history of chronic alcoholism is often obtainable. Some local vascular weakness or lesion (*e. g.*, necrosis) may operate as a cause. Severe *symptomatic* pancreatic hemorrhage may be secondary to acute pancreatitis and carcinoma.* Singularly, those apparently in perfect health may be attacked.

The **diagnosis** is based upon the suddenness of onset, with colicky pains in the upper portion of the abdomen, and, later, the occurrence of nausea and obstinate vomiting. Depression and, indeed, prostration become profound within a few minutes, and the patient expresses great fear of impending death.

Thermic Features.—Immediately following the attack, the temperature becomes subnormal, and remains at this point until death occurs; in some cases, however, the temperature approximates the normal during the greater portion of the attack.

Physical Signs.—Inspection.—The face is pinched, the expression is anxious, and the skin is pale and bathed in perspiration.

Palpation.—The pulse is weak, small, rapid, and compressible, and becomes imperceptible shortly after the onset of the attack.

Summary of Diagnosis.—A careful consideration of the clinical history, physical signs, and symptoms renders it possible for one to make a probable diagnosis of hemorrhage into the pancreas, although the clinical course of this condition is so rapid that the diagnosis is seldom made except at autopsy.

Clinical Course.—All cases terminate in death in from one-half to twenty-four hours. One of us, from a study of twenty-four cases, concluded that death was the immediate result of shock, or was caused by pressure upon the solar plexus.

PANCREATIC CARCINOMA

Pathologic Definition.—A disease characterized by the presence of a primary carcinoma of the head of the pancreas. In the majority of cases sclerotic changes are present, with enlargement of the head of the organ. The carcinomatous process may extend to the surrounding tissues. Occlusion of the pancreatic duct may result in cystic formation. Carcinoma of the liver, stomach, and duodenum is occasionally found to complicate pancreatic carcinoma. In a recent survey of the literature Goldstein found only twenty cases of primary sarcoma of the pancreas.

Predisposing Factors.—Age.—Aged men are affected more often than are aged women, but carcinoma of the pancreas is also occasionally found to occur during early adult life. Speed† in an analysis of 52 cases gives the average age at 57 years.

Principal Complaint.—This is no way characteristic, and, generally speaking, the patient's complaint is practically the same in this disease as in pyloric carcinoma. As a rule, the patient gives a clear history of having suffered from chronic dyspepsia, accompanied by an appreciable loss in both strength and flesh. *Pain* in the region of the epigastrium is the rule, and may be deep, boring, and continuous in character, or it may be intermittent; the former, however, is the more common. Paroxysms of epigastric pain (60 per cent. of cases)

* "Pancreatic Hemorrhage," Jour. Amer. Med. Assoc., December 2, 1899, by J. M. Anders.

† Amer. Jour. Med. Sci., July, 1920.

may develop at any stage of the disease, and during these attacks the patient often enters into a state of *collapse*. *Vomiting* may result either from acute pain or from an associated gastric catarrh, but is in no way characteristic.

Physical Signs.—Inspection.—Emaciation is pronounced, and there is usually slight distention of the upper portion of the epigastrium. If the tumor is situated well anteriorly, a distinct prominence is seen. Jaundice, due to obstruction of the common duct, is not unusual. The tongue is heavily coated.

Palpation.—Firm pressure over the region of the pancreas elicits pain if the head of the organ is involved, but in those cases in which the tail of the pancreas is the portion chiefly involved, pressure causes but slight pain, and possibly only discomfort. It is at times possible to palpate distinctly a mass in the epigastrium that is decidedly tender. Speed in his series detected an abdominal mass in 55 per cent. of cases, and ascites was present in 20 per cent. of them. Edema of the lower extremities may appear late in the disease.

Results of Pressure.—(*a*) If pancreatic carcinoma cause sufficient infiltration to result in obstruction of the common bile-duct, jaundice results. (*b*) Pressure upon the portal vein, either from the mass itself or from surrounding adhesions, is likely to be followed by ascites. (See Signs of Ascites, p. 627.) (*c*) Because of the anatomic relation of the pancreas, pressure is often exerted upon the thoracic duct and results in the development of chylous ascites (p. 630). (*d*) From pressure upon the inferior vena cava dropsy of the lower half of the body and of the duodenum results, and as a consequence of the latter, the patient may display the symptoms of acute intestinal obstruction.

Laboratory Diagnosis.—The blood presents the changes of secondary anemia, *e. g.*, the red cells and hemoglobin are greatly reduced, and stained specimens show evidences of pallor and degeneration of the erythrocytes. (See Blood, p. 356.) Leukocytosis is often present.

Constipation is the rule, although intermittent attacks of diarrhea are present in nearly every case of pancreatic carcinoma; during these attacks the feces have a greasy appearance and contain a large amount of fat. If the pancreatic function is greatly interfered with, muscular fibers pass through the digestive tract without undergoing complete dissolution, and the nucleus test (p. 1144) is positive.

In a large proportion of all cases the urine contains glucose, and a portion of the broken fat molecules is often present.

Summary of Diagnosis.—Rapid and progressive anemia, a deep, boring pain in the epigastrium, undigested muscle-fibers, and fat in the feces are among the early symptoms upon which the diagnosis of carcinoma of the pancreas is founded.

Later *jaundice*, with enlargement of the gall-bladder, the presence of a mass in the epigastrium, together with the absence of the gastric findings characteristic of pyloric carcinoma, further support a diagnosis of pancreatic carcinoma.

Differential Diagnosis.—At times it is extremely difficult to distinguish between carcinoma of the head of the pancreas and *carcinoma involving the transverse colon, the omentum*, or the *pyloric end of the stomach*. The accompanying differential table (modified from Anders) sets forth the clinical differences between carcinoma of the pancreas and carcinoma of the pylorus:

Carcinoma of the Pancreas	Carcinoma of the Pylorus
1. The tumor is deep-seated and fixed; later it becomes slightly movable. It is not associated with gastric dilatation.	1. Tumor is more freely movable, and is usually associated with dilatation of the stomach.
2. Symptoms of chronic dyspepsia are mild.	2. There are more marked gastric symptoms.
3. The vomitus is bilious in character and rarely contains blood.	3. "Coffee-ground" vomitus is the rule.
4. Free hydrochloric acid is present in the gastric fluid after a test-meal; lactic acid is absent.	4. Free hydrochloric acid is greatly decreased or absent. A decided reaction for lactic acid is the rule.
5. Oppler-Boas bacilli are absent from the gastric fluid.	5. Oppler-Boas bacilli are present in the gastric fluid, and blood-cells are common.
6. The stools contain undigested muscle-fibers and sometimes fat.	6. Tarry stools, when present, indicate hemorrhage.
7. Metastasis to the liver is unusual.	7. Common.

The distinction between *carcinoma of the pancreas* and *carcinoma of the colon* is made by inflating the colon, when, if the lesion is localized in the colon, the tumor is brought anteriorly and is readily palpable, moving with respiration.

Clinical Course.—The course of pancreatic carcinoma is extremely rapid, and may terminate fatally in from a few weeks to as many months. Removal of a portion of the gland is said to prolong life.

PANCREATIC CALCULI

Pathologic Definition.—A condition believed to be caused by an inflammation or other morbid process that may give rise to an alteration in the secretory function of the pancreas, with the formation of calculi.

Summary of Diagnosis.—A colic-like pain is localized along the left costal margin, and usually radiates to the back and left shoulder. If the colic is severe, the pain may radiate over the upper half of the abdomen and to the right side of the body, and in such instances it is practically impossible to distinguish between this condition and that of hepatic colic. The detection of fat in the stools and of undigested meat-fibers and undestroyed nuclei, when considered in conjunction with the foregoing symptoms of colic, justify the presumption that pancreatic calculi exist.

Course.—The case usually terminates as one of chronic pancreatitis. (See p. 1148.)

PANCREATIC CYST

Varieties.—In classifying cysts of the pancreas from the standpoint of their etiology we have: (*a*) Those resulting from traumatism to the organ. Körte, in his analysis of 121 cases, found that 33 of them were dependent upon trauma. (*b*) Cysts following prolonged chronic inflammation. (*c*) Retention cysts, which depend upon occlusion of the duct of Wirsung by calculi or as the result of pressure from new-growths.

Predisposing Factors.—Age.—In Körte's analysis of 116 cases, 66 of them were between the ages of thirty and fifty. Cysts have been found in children during the first year of life.

Symptoms.—These are in no way characteristic of the condition in question, unless the internal secretion of the pancreas is disturbed when hyperglycemia may develop. In the majority of instances pain is absent, although paroxysms of *colic* may be experienced. The *pain*, as in other forms of pancreatic disease, radiates to the left shoulder, in striking distinction to pain in hepatic disease, which radiates to the right

shoulder. *Jaundice* and *ascites* commonly result from pressure upon the liver and upon the inferior vena cava. The *stools* may contain fat, and occasionally the patient complains of salivation. *Glycosuria* and *albuminuria* may be present, but neither of these is characteristic of the existence of pancreatic cysts.

Physical examination may disclose the presence of a smooth, fluctuating tumor in the epigastrium. Pancreatic cyst is oftenest located either above the stomach or immediately below the colon. The tumor moves but slightly with respiration, and there are recorded instances in which cysts of extreme size have occupied the upper portion of the abdomen. The development of pancreatic cyst is, as a rule, insidious, although a rapidly forming cyst is occasionally encountered.

Laboratory Diagnosis.—Fluid obtained by puncture of a pancreatic cyst may be either clear or blood-stained, and has a specific gravity ranging from 1.010 to 1.030. The fluid contains methemoglobin, hematin, and cholesterin. The fluid contains ferments, which are capable of digesting nearly all types of food. Glycosuria is rare.

Summary of Diagnosis.—The diagnosis is based almost entirely upon the physical signs. The presence of fat in the stools goes to support the findings obtained by physical examination.

Course.—Surgical interference materially modifies the course of the disease and may effect a cure.

SUPRARENAL CAPSULES

In considering the pathology of the suprarenal glands the reader is referred to Addison's Disease, p. 1155.

The suprarenal glands have been found to exert a definite influence over muscular power, and likewise to have a toning effect upon the autonomic nerves. Among the infectious diseases, diphtheria appears to exert the most serious after-effects on the adrenals. New growths of both the cortical and medullar substance of the adrenal glands produce definite physiologic changes and symptomotology. In some instances where Raynaud's syndrome has been observed the patient develops extensive pigmentation of the skin, nausea, albuminuria and convulsions. Adrenal pathology has been found where the foregoing symptoms were present. Among the conspicuous signs and symptoms of hypo-adrenia are: asthenia hypotension, weak cardiac action, weak pulse, sensitiveness to cold, anoxria, indigestion, constipation, anemia, low metabolism and psychasthenia. The skin is often dry, Sergent's white line may be demonstrable, and the patient's capacity for endurance is subnormal. Epilepsy is occasionally found in connection with abnormal function of the suprarenal capsules but the exact relation between suprarenal disease and epilepsy is not established.

Disease of the suprarenal cortex is likely to be accompanied by premature development of the entire organism (see pineal gland, p. 1113). Cortical disease is commonly associated with over-development of the secondary sexual characteristics, and genitalia, accompanied by excessive growth and adiposity; while the development of the psyche and sexual instincts do not keep pace. **Virilismus** is a condition seen in women and girls and characterized by hypertrochosis of the face, body, and extremities. There are also present somatic and genital changes resembling that seen in the adult male. Jump* divides the condition clinically into pre-adolescent and post-adolescent virilismus and Hirsutism. In Hirsutism and virilismus the gonads are also abnormal.

* Endocrinology and Metabolism, Vol. 2, p. 351.

The relation existing between hyperplasia of the suprarenal cortex and acromegaly appears to be indefinite. Cortical disease is responsible for such gastro-intestinal symptoms as anorexia, vomiting and diarrhea. It also has to do with such psychic alterations as convulsions, delirium, and coma, "hyperplasia of cortex causes rapid growth of the organism; premature development of the secondary sexual characteristics; of the genitalia; and in adults, abnormal hairy growth." (Falta.)

Sergent contends that the cholesterin is probably a product of the suprarenal cortex, and this feature may explain in part why a low cholesterin content of the blood is seen in certain infections.

Disease of the Suprarenal Medulla.—"Hyperplasia of the chromaffin tissue produces a tall, weak individual." (Bandler.) It is contended that during interstitial nephritis there is an increase in function of the chromaffin tissue, (a feature which may explain the pigmentation seen in chronic nephritis), and such changes are not infrequent in advanced diabetes, and where there is extensive arterial sclerosis. Hyperplasia of the medulla may be associated with an increased flow of urine, and an excess of sugar in the blood. It is to be remembered in this connection that adrenalin increases blood pressure, diminishes the depth of respiration, and accelerates striated muscles. In addition it is claimed to relax the stomach and intestine and to increase contractions of the pylorus, ileo-coecal region, and the internal sphincter-ani (Falta). The uterine muscles are stimulated. Adrenalin exerts a selective influence on the sympathetic nerve ends, consequently a function of the chromaffin, (medulla tissue), and the maintainance of the normal excitability of the sympathetic nerves. "It is concerned with the regulation of blood pressure, distribution of the blood; preservation of the tonus of organs innervated by the sympathetic, maintains constant the sugar of the blood, and is intimately related to metabolism." (Falta.)

In cases of so-called Addison's disease there is often decided loss in weight, which, is as a rule, dependent upon intestinal disturbances, *e. g.*, anorexia, paroxysmal attacks of colic, diminished peristalsis, and isolated areas of dilatation of the intestine (involves the ascending colon and cœcum). Pigmentation has been described at length under Addison's Disease.

In acute Addison's disease low blood-pressure, a low sugar content of the blood, and an unusual tolerance for grape sugar are to be found in connection with disease of the suprarenal medulla, Progressive weakness is an almost constant symptom. The cortical portion of the adrenal glands is also responsible for disorders of the gastro-intestinal tract, *e. g.*, increased flow of saliva, vomiting, and otherwise unexplainable diarrhea.

The vegetative nervous system, consisting largely of a system of ganglia communicates with the fourth ventricle, subthalmic region, mesencephalon, and also passes into the chromaffin system (adrenalin), the thyroid, and doubtless to other of the endocrines. This system and the endocrines are readily influenced by psychic factors.

It has been repeatedly proven at necropsy that patients dying as the result of shock following minor operations displayed extensive disease of the adrenal structures. A point in diagnosis strongly supportive of the foregoing claims that the administration of adrenalin extract hypodermically promptly relieves profound shock (Hart). Weakness and irregularity of the heart beat is an early clinical factor in adrenal disease, and sudden dilatation of the heart is often antedated by such further evidence as anorexia, vomiting, dyspnea, and syncope. (See parathyroid disease, p. 1107.)

During the course of acute infectious disease where the adrenal tissues suffer severely, (typhoid fever, diphtheria, influenza, and scarlet fever), the clinical evidence of myocardial involvement appears rather abruptly. The diagnosis of adrenal implication is made only through the administration of adrenalin. Hypodermically physiologic doses of some adrenal preparation when given every four to six hours to cases of hypoadrenia causes an amelioration of annoying symptoms.

ADDISON'S DISEASE

Pathologic Definition.—A chronic malady characterized by degeneration of the suprarenal capsules, the semilunar ganglia, a bronze pigmentation of the skin, and, at times, fatty degeneration of the heart, liver, and kidneys. The pathologic findings at postmortem vary considerably in different cases.

Tumors of the suprarenal cortex produce clinically premature development of the entire organism, which in many respects is similar to that seen in tumors of the pineal gland. The majority of new growths in the suprarenal glands are seen in young females, with a resultant excessive development of the secondary sexual characteristics, and of the external genitalia, with early ossification, and dentition. Where cortical tumors are found in the fully developed organisms, pronounced pathologic changes are observed in the sexual organs, *e. g.*, involution of the uterus, excessive development of hair, and the approach to the masculine type. Hyperplasia of the suprarenal cortex may also accompany the changes of acromegaly.

Tokumitsu contends that the cortex of the supra-renal proliferates and undergoes hypertrophy when a ligature is thrown around the pancreatic duct.

New growths of the suprarenal medulla have been found associated with extraordinary production of the long bones, multiple skin fibromata, fibrous changes in the arterial system. Pigmentation at the margin of the lips, mucous surface of the cheek, soft palate, borders of the tongue, about the nipple, linea alba, genitalia, and anal folds. Disease affecting the entire suprarenal gland may display any, or all, symptoms describing medullary and cortical lesions.

Predisposing and Exciting Factors.—A history of tuberculosis may be obtained, as may also a history of traumatism to the trunk. Males are affected in approximately 70 per cent. of cases. Young adults are most often diseased, although this condition may be observed at the extremes of life. Suprarenal pathology is present.

General Complaint.—Before definite cutaneous manifestations are detectable there are experienced a progressive asthenia, pronounced lassitude, and loss of physical and mental energy. Later fatigue, dyspnea, headache, tinnitus aurium, and vertigo develop. The appetite is poor and nausea with paroxysmal attacks of vomiting are common. Pain in the epigastrium and lumbar region is frequent, and this, at times, assumes the neuralgic type. Diarrhea may be a late and annoying symptom. The mind generally remains clear, although mental depression and delirium are occasional features.

There are two types of asthenia, the one is a myasthenia of adrenal origin, and was described at length by Erb and Goldtham. The other asthenias do not reveal adrenal pathology at necropsy. These clinical types are distinguished by means of the dynamometer; adrenal insufficiency gives a curve showing a sudden drop. The muscular weak-

ness of other asthenic conditions show a slowly declining curve resembling that of normal fatigue.

Physical Examination.—General.—The patient's general appearance is that of an old person. He moves slowly, his general attitude is one of exhaustion. The skin displays a variable degree of pigmentation, which varies through the successive shades of a dusky yellow, bronze, olive, greenish brown, or black. Pigmentation is seldom uniform over the entire body. It is deepest, however, where normally pigmentation is present, *e. g.*, face, neck, back of hands, abdomen, groin, nipples, and genitalia. Pigmented spots are often seen on the various mucous membranes. A brown line is occasionally apparent at the junction of the mucous membrane of the lips with the skin. Those portions of the body that receive pressure from the clothing also show an unusual degree of pigmentation. Decided irregularity in the pigmentation of both the skin and the mucous surfaces is a rather prominent feature of Addison's disease. Moderate enlargement of the superficial glands is at times present.

Local.—The mucous membrane of the buccal cavity often shows white patches, while certain portions of the skin may present similar areas of leukoderma. The apex-beat is feeble and there may be seen pulsation over the great vessels. The hair is at times rough, and apparently poorly nourished.

Sergent's White Line.—It was in 1903 that Sergent gave his technic for obtaining this sign, which is obtained by:

(*a*) Stroking the skin of the abdomen with a smooth object.

(*b*) After a definite period paleing of the skin (a white line) appears.

(*c*) The white line increases for a short period (one or more minutes).

(*d*) The line gradually fades.

W. L. Muller in his studies of the various phenomena of dermographism and their significances claims originality to a white line, quite identical with Sergent's line.

Duval described his "ligne blanche" in 1885 but does not claim it appears on the skin of the abdomen in normal persons.

As early as 1873, we find that Baulmer described this "white line" in connection with typhus fever.

In 1875 Vulpain regarded this phenomena as normal for many subjects.

Samuel Wright of London has given us an exhaustive consideration of the various types of dermographism* and concludes that the "white line" is of questionable clinical significance. It has recently been regarded as a sign of adrenal disease but we are unable to find substantial proof to this effect.

Rowntree† has called attention to change in the skin following treatment, results of heat, posture and sunshine.

Palpation.—The *apex* is felt to be weak, the muscles flabby, the skin rather harsh, and the extremities cold. The pulse is lacking in both volume and force. Tenderness in the epigastrium and abdominal region is rather common.

Auscultation.—The heart-sounds are weak, and there is an appreciable lessening in the booming quality of the first sound.

Laboratory Diagnosis.—The quantity of urine voided during the twenty-four hours may exceed that of normal, and is often rich in indican. The cholesterin content of the blood has been found by Sergent to vary between 0.9 and 1.1 and the administration of the whole gland will

* Endocrinology, July, 1922, p. 493.

† Rowntree, Studies in Addison's Disease, Jour. Am. Med. Assoc. Jan., 31, 1925, p. 327.

increase the cholesterin from 1.2 to 1.7. The quantity of urea excreted during the twenty-four hours is subnormal. Tubercle bacilli have been found in the urine of those suffering from Addison's disease. There is a moderate reduction in both the red and the white blood-cells, and in the hemoglobin, although complicated cases may show leukocytosis. Where Addison's disease develops during the course of extensive tuberculous glandular involvement of the abdomen, the feces may contain an abnormal amount of fat, and rarely an absence of bile, due to involvement of both the liver and the pancreas. The feces rarely shows tubercle bacilli. Crises of diarrhea may appear at any time and are accompanied by severe colic-like intestinal pains, abdominal retraction and cramp in the calf muscles. The pulse is weak, circulatory collapse is iminent and coma is to be feared. Rowntree* found the blood area increased in all of 16 cases studied. The fasting blood sugar was below normal in nine cases. Achlorhydria is common.

Differential Diagnosis.—Among the maladies with which Addison's disease may be confounded, especial mention should be made of (*a*) sarcoma and carcinoma of the peritoneum; (*b*) hepatic cirrhosis, and chronic venous, hepatic congestion (liver spots); (*c*) pregnancy during its latter stage, and diseases of the uterus and its appendages may at times be accompanied by extensive pigmentation of the skin (chloasmata); (*d*) vagabondism, the irritation from pediculi and dirt together with exposure is often followed by cutaneous pigmentation; (*e*) exophthalmic goiter; (*f*) the posteruptive stage of syphilis; (*g*) the prolonged use of nitrate of silver and the mixture of race-bloods may one and all, in exceptional cases, produce conditions that must in turn be distinguished from Addison's disease.

Hypoadrenia.—The term hypoadrenia was suggested in 1907 by Sajous as signifying the following syndrome, which is seen during the course of all severe types of acute infectious fevers, *e. g.*, scarlet fever, diphtheria, typhoid fever and influenza, and in senile subjects, who display cardio-vascular pathology, and focal areas of infection. The symptoms are those of extreme prostration, weak rapid pulse, cyanosis and at times pallor, yawning, respiratory collapse, and in brief the symptoms suggestive of shock. As early as 1903 Sajous called attention to the fact that this syndrome was especially common in Asiatic cholera and in this connection he mentions weak rapid pulse, muscular weakness, subnormal skin temperature and respiratory collapse. It has been our experience to find this chain of symptoms in connection with advanced stages of focal infection, although Sajous in his writings did not emphasize focal infection as an etiologic factor in hypoadrenia.

The pathologic changes in the adrenal glands may be but slight and possibly not demonstrable since underfunction of a structure may not in all cases be indicated by either macro or microscopic pathology.

Hyperglycemia is frequently found in connection with hyperadrenalism. In cases of hyperadrenalism the subcutaneous injection of one or two mgm. of epinephrin is followed (one-half to two hours later) by hyperglycemia and the appearance of sugar in the urine.

TONSILS

Clinical observations point to the tonsils as organs that perform a useful function. Their absence in fish (water breathers) and their presence in other vertebrates (air breathers) certainly stamps the tonsils part in evolution. Versel described these lymphlike organs in 1543; but it was not until 1724 that Santorini wrote about the adenoids.

*Rowntree, Studies in Addison's Disease, Jour. Am. Med. Assoc., Jan. 31, 1925, p. 327.

Wharton made an extended study of the glandular tissues at the base of the tongue in 1865. These glands and the ring of the adenoid tissue surrounding the pharyngeal inlet were compared with similar organs in in lower animals by the early writers. They are not regarded as endocrines.

Lacouchie is credited with a complete description of the tonsils, but it remained for Luschka to describe the pharyngeal tonsil, and to separate the different lymphoid tissues at the base of the tongue "Luschka tonsils."

There are two maximum collections of lymph-glands in the human body—one in the region of the throat (Waldeyer's ring) and the other is about the ileocecal valve. Nature's protective measures are again exemplified by the lymph-nodes arranged at these two portals where infections commonly enter the human body.

Physiologists are divided as to the function of the tonsils and glandular tissues of the throat, but it is a fairly constant belief that the tonsils have to do with the excretion of urine. The tonsils dare scarcely be considered separate from the other glandular structures of the throat; however, they certainly serve a protective purpose when healthy. Their removal after disease is not followed by any appreciable deleterious effects —a clinical suggestion that the other glandular structures of the pharynx continue their former physiologic activities.

THE GONADS

It has long been known, through repeated demonstrations, that interference with the discharge of the seminal fluid has no decided effect on secondary sexual characteristics; whereas removal of the testes is followed by marked physical changes in the individual. In the female human subject any operation which prevents the normal passage of the ova through the Fallopian tube, and into the uterus, has no appreciable influence on secondary sexual characteristics or habits; while removal of the ovaries induces pronounced and unmistakable changes.

We have endeavored under this subject to discuss clinical features that will be found of diagnostic assistance in separating all gradations of gonadal abnormalities from other conditions with which they may be confused. The testes are dealt with in their relation to internal secretion.

Testicle transplantation and associated endocrinapathies as they appear in precocious, and retarded puberty are mentioned. The characteristics of eunuchoidism, (whether this depends upon mechanical or pathologic causes) are discussed in the hope of guiding the physician to a clearer conception of these baffling problems in diagnosis.

The endocrine organs do not produce, but merely influence, augment or check the conditions that lead to sexual differentiation.

TESTES

Clinical Consideration.—There are to be found in the testicle, three possible sources of an internal secretion, viz.; the spermatogenic cells, the cells of Sertoli, and the interstitial cells of Leydig. The consensus of opinion is that the interstitial cells are the ones chiefly concerned in the elaboration of the testicular internal secretion.

When the spermatogenic cells are destroyed by disease, it does not necessarily follow that the interstitial cells likewise suffer destruction. In certain diseases (tuberculosis) sexual characteristics are maintained and sexual desire is normal, and at times greater than normal, even where pathologic study shows no active spermatogenic tissue present.

The foregoing facts appear to warrant the deduction that the testicle has two definite functions, one that of reprocreation and the other the

maintenance of sexual characteristics and the equilibrium of nervous, and mental faculties. The former dependent upon the spermatogenic cells, and the latter upon the activities of the interstitial cells of Leydig. In this connection we quote from a paper by Mott and Such.*

Mott and Such have shown by the examination of the testicles from twenty-seven cases of dementia praecox that there are present extensive pathologic changes in the cells of Leydig. The interstitial cells were also found abnormal in cases of prolonged suppurative pericarditis, empyema, infected gun shot wounds, spinal menigitis and septic endocarditis.

The testicle is peculiarly sensitive to any change in position therefore the undescended testicle rarely produces perfect spermatozoa; and in both men and the lower animals where both testicles are undescended such animals are commonly sterile.

The transplantation of a testicle in the higher animals is followed by the immediate loss of spermatogenic function, and degeneration of the spermatozoa-forming elements. The interstitial cells of Leydig on the other hand remain healthy and according to Lespinasse† increase in number and retain their normal staining properties. The length of time that the interstitial cells have lived and proved their function after a successful transplantation is unknown. The above stated function of the interstitial cells serves as the only explanation and possible excuse for testicular transplantation.

Associated Endocrinopathies.—Cases of precocious puberty (in both males and females) are occasionally observed and may develop at any time from one month to the usual age. Careful analysis of these cases demand that they be classified under four groups.

(1) Those associated with tumor of the adrenal cortex.

Adrenal cortex tumor as a cause of precocious puberty is rather frequent and somewhat more common in girls than in boys. In selected cases the tumor becomes enormous and may be readily palpable. In precocious puberty dependent upon adrenal tumor the testicle does not produce spermatozoa, although in other types of this condition spermatozoa are claimed to be present. There is a note worthy clinical connection at this point for the adrenal cortex is developed from the same embryonal structures as the interstitial cells of Leydig.

(2) Those accompanying tumor of the testicle.

Tumors of the testis are found in children and in some cases they are followed by all the characteristics of puberty. Sacchi has reported a case where after removal of the diseased testicle the voice, which had become decidedly masculine, again became infantile; sexual impulses ceased and the external genitalia greatly diminished in size.

(3) Tumor of the pineal gland.

These patients present in addition to over development of the sexual organs, symptoms referable to pressure by the pineal gland, upon the adjacent brain.

(4) Hyperfunction of the testicle in the absence of any known appreciable cause for such overactivity.

Retarded Puberty.—It is of great importance that the clinician obtain a complete history in order to arrive at a diagnosis of retarded puberty in those cases where there is but slight retardation. Cases of retarded puberty are likely to consult a physician at a late period when they find they are poorly developed. Nearly all of these subjects

* N. Y. Med. Jour., Sept. 6, 1922, p. 245.

† Barker's Endocrinology and Metabolism, Vol. 2, p. 502.

consult the physician for relief of sexual inactivity. Cases of hormonic deficiency clinically suffer from impotency, sterility and an absence of libido.

Whenever there are present destructive lesions of the testicles or ovaries they may be followed by underdevelopment of the genitalia and also of the secondary sexual characteristics. Should similar lesions develop in subjects after puberty they first induce impotency and later genital atrophy.

A typical congenital type of sexual under development is often found to be associated with lesions of the pituitary and thyroid glands (see Hypopituitarism and Hypothyroidism). Destructive lesions of the anterior lobe of the pituitary may also be followed by hypogenital development. The secondary sexual characteristics do not develop beyond their present state, at the time such lesions occur. In the late stages of underfunction of the pituitary, impotency and sexual psychoses may comprise a prominent clinical feature.

Eunuchoid Characteristics.—It is an established fact that the general habitus of young male subjects undergoes characteristic changes when they are deprived of the influence of the endocrine element of the genital glands. It matters not whether this deprivation follows castration at an early age, or the testicles are atrophied as the result of disease. They are usually taller than other men of their race or nationality, and in the majority the skeleton is appreciably disproportioned. Both the upper and lower extremities are of greater length than harmonizes with the total height. The increased height is chiefly found in the lower half of the skeleton. The skeleton is poorly constructed, the bones being of extraordinary length and unusual slenderness. The pelvis is somewhat similar to the female type, but its bones are light. The superior and inferior maxillæ display an overdevelopment lending a characteristic appearance. The root of the nose is depressed.

The epiphyseal unions remain unossified until a late period. The tissues of the neck are so filled in as to give it a childlike appearance. The larynx is also small resembling that of a child. The thyroid and cricoid cartilages are unossified. The voice resembles that of a boy approaching puberty. Among other phenomena should be mentioned the softness of the skin of the face, with a slight yellowish tinge, while the skin of the trunk is equally soft and displays a peculiar pallor. The scalp is covered by a luxuriant growth of soft hair. The chest is free from hair as are also the armpits and forearms. Lanugo is seen in place of the beard with an occasional hair scattered over the chin. The eyebrows are rather well developed. The average subject at the age of twenty years has the wrinkling of the face that would be expected in a man of sixty.

Types.—We find two special types of the eunuch, the emaciated type which develops extraordinary height and an exaggerated skeletal disproportion, while the face assumes the characteristics of advanced age (Fig. 429).

The fat type presents a somewhat puffed appearance of the skin with an unusual tendency toward over-development of the abdomen. The breasts, lower abdomen, nates and hips display a marked collection of fat.

In studying these cases it is necessary to determine the characteristics by the following measurements: (1) The distance from the top of the head to the superior border of the pubic bone, and the distance from the superior border of the pubic bone to the soles of the feet. (2) The upper measurement is referred to as "superior length," while the lower measurement is

designated "inferior length." (3) In normal adults these distances are approximately equal to the distance between the tips of the fingers when the arms are outstretched (Fig. 429). Eunuchoid tallness is noticed in the lower limbs.

There is unusual development of the upper eyelids which lends to the patient a specific drowsy expression. Muscular weakness is the rule. The degree of development of the secondary sexual characteristics depends upon the age at which mechanical or pathologic castration took place. All sexual organs show underdevelopment and underfunction. The normal desire to be a leader or a ruler of his associates is absent. With eunuchs peace and indolence commonly prevails, and the mebabolic rate is diminished.

Atrophy of the Testes in Mental Diseases.—The physiology of the different cells present in the testicles were considered at length by

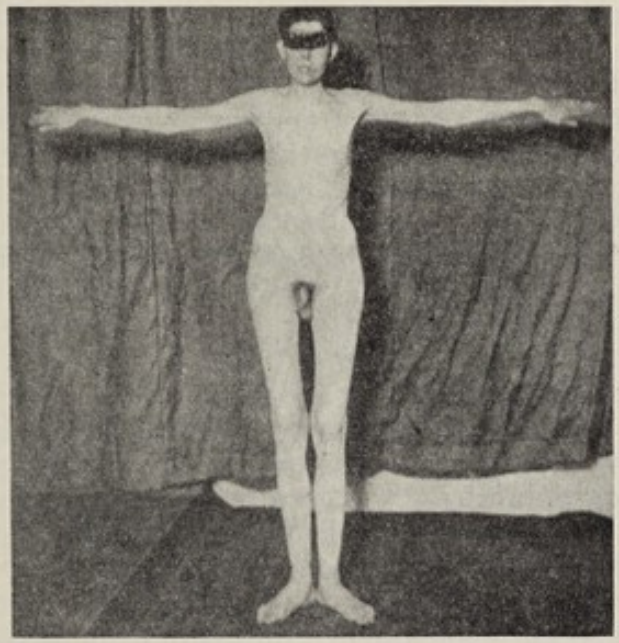


FIG. 429.—HYPOGONADISM, AGED TWENTY-FOUR.

Note the absence of general and mammary adiposity, with the exception of an even fulness along the entire thigh. Proportions, facies, hands, etc., typical (courtesy of Dr. W. N. Adkins, Atlanta, Georgia).

Ancel and Bouin in 1903, and in 1904 these writers presented an important article upon this subject. Pluto gave due consideration to the interstitial cells as early as 1896, and in 1897 Lenhosseck contributed to the literature pertaining to testicular physiology and pathology. In 1901 Rigard added valuable knowledge concerning "Le Spermatogenises" and in 1915 Kojima presented his timely paper "The Ductless Glands in One Hundred Cases of Insanity." Thornton acquainted us with the behavior of the testes toward certain vital dyes, in 1916; and closely following upon this paper comes the work of Kojima considering the endocrines in dementia præcox. Mott has contributed an article of inestimable value which gives a detailed account of his studies in Dementia Præcox.

Armed with a working knowledge of the observations of the foregoing writers Mott and Such have conducted a series of clinical and pathological studies which seem to connect certain clinical phenomena, of a mental character, with pathologic changes in the testes.

"In spite of this secondary atrophy which effects the testes of so many paralytics, the average weight of the pair after removal of the tunica vaginalis and epididymis in 8 grams heavier than the testes of cases of dementia præcox. Whereas in the great majority of cases of dementia præcox an emulsion of the testes showed no spermatozoa, the reverse was found in general paralysis."

Eunuchoid Acromegaly.—There are instances where after surgical castration or following complete loss of the function of the testes, overgrowth of the skeletal structures follow. Changes in the voice, effeminate characteristics for the deposit of fat, and alterations in the physique, approaching that of the female, are well marked where castration is performed early in life.

Lobstein has cited the case of a man age 44 years, in whom following atrophy of the testes the intellect was impaired, the voice resembled that of a boy at puberty, and measurements of the cranium, and the upper and lower extremities showed an extraordinary overgrowth. In eunuchoid acromegaly, the lower jaw does not share proportionately in the bony overgrowth; and the alterations in other bony structures of the head are less pronounced than in pituitary acromegaly. There was present an excessive accumulation of fat over the abdomen, trunk and nates.

Esher has reported the case of a youth of twenty years, who presented about one hundred small cutaneous and sub-cutaneous tumors showing some pigmentation. There were present many characteristic features of acromegaly and also undescended testicles.

THE OVARY

Clinical Consideration.—It is when the sexual organs, (gonads) approach their maturity that female patients frequently complain of headache, which is at times supraorbital, again occipital, and occurs with considerable periodicity. There is also loss of appetite, nervous seizures (rarely epileptiform), lack of substantial mental balance, and symptoms approaching a psychologic crisis.

Puberty calls for a careful study, with special attention to pituitary function; while the adrenals and thyroid should be given due consideration since puberty in the female stamps the most important epoch for endocrine imbalance. The premenstrual blemish is seen in 95 per cent. of females, and consists in a reddish blotch or papule which ordinarily appears at the right nasolabial furrow. This blemish may not exceed the size of a pin head, or it may be larger and go on to pustule formation. Rarely the blemish appears on the forehead, back, chest, or chin. Garretson contends that in hypogonadism abnormal thyroid enlargement is present with each menstrual period.

It is held by Kaplan,* that the teeth are of inestimable value in determining the presence of endocrine (ovarian and testicle) abnormalities. It appears to be definitely established that the central incisors convey a clinical message from the pituitary, and likewise that the canine teeth give an expression of the patient's suprarenal function.

Poorly formed teeth, when present, are regarded as supportive evidence of ovarian or testicular abnormalities. They are not to be confused, however, with abnormal location of the teeth due to smallness of the superior maxillary bones, (see Teeth in Thymus Disease, and Testes).

It has been further found that in females with masculine features, beard, masculine arrangement of pubic hair, etc., abnormal teeth are the rule.

* N. Y. Med. Jour., July 6, 1921.

Patients displaying dystrophia adiposogenitalis of Fröhlich often reveal at necropsy tumor (squamous epithelial) of the hypophyseal duct, and in these cases the endometrium shows changes simulating senility. There are cessation of ovulation and senile changes in the ovaries.

H. J. Van Den Berg* has given a brief report of ten females where epilepsy appeared to be intimately associated with ovarian function. (See Epilepsy.)

Rosenbloom† claims that before and during menstruation there is an increased function of the chromaffin tissue, and it is at this period that swelling of the thyroid gland is seen.

It has been found that in young females where the arms, hands, legs and feet are unusually long, menstrual abnormalities are commonly present.

Haarlem in his study of the blood chemistry in this variety of amenorrhea, found that these cases have a fasting blood sugar of 0.14 per cent., but after 100 gm. of glucose has been ingested the blood sugar rapidly reaches the maximum of 0.24 per cent.

The most constant features are the male distribution of the pubic hair, a tendency for hair to appear on the face in a manner somewhat like that in the youth between the age of 12 and 16 years, an exceptional amount of hair in the arm pits, and an abnormal growth above the nipple and occasionally on different points on the mammary glands. Menstruation is at normal.

Ocular Phenomena of Pregnancy.—During the course of pregnancy, bilateral hemianopsia and in fact total blindness accompanied by excruciating headaches is always suggestive of pituitary hypertrophy. The changes in the pituitary are detected through *x*-ray study. The symptoms ordinarily disappear after termination of pregnancy.

The intra-ocular tension is reduced during pregnancy as has been shown by J. Imre, Jr., of Budapest, who found the average tension of the 42 healthy pregnant women was 12 mm. Hg. as against 20 the normal pressure. (See p. 1087.)

Cases of osteomalacia have been seen where during pregnancy the intra-ocular pressure was only 5 mm. Hg. (normal 15 to 26).

Blood Changes.—Chlorosis is the most characteristic feature and is commonly related to ovarian dysfunction, although it may be seen in adrenal disease.

Blood Chemistry.—In pregnancy the rise in blood sugar following the ingestion of glucose does not exceed normal limits.

Williams has conducted a series of tests which show that the uric acid of the blood is appreciatively increased in patients suffering from eclampsia, and general toxemia of pregnancy, with arterial hypertension.

LIPODYSTROPHIA PROGRESSIVA SUPERIOR

Cases falling into this particular clinical category have been described under a variety of names, but the one clinical term that appears to be generally accepted is that of lipodystrophia progressiva and was suggested in 1911 by A. Simons in his description of this unusual condition.

The first case was published by Barraquer in 1906, and in 1907 Harry Campbell exhibited a typical case before the Clinical Society of London. Case reports have come from every section of the civilized world. H. L. Smith of Baltimore, in his review of the literature published in 1921,

* Endocrinology, July, 1921, p. 441.
† Jour. Am. Med. Assoc., June 18, 1921.

concludes that there are records of twenty-seven well defined cases—twenty-one in females.

One of us* reported two cases, and in a survey of the literature was able to find 58 authentic case reports.

Etiology.—It is fair to assume that the causal factors in all cases of lipodystrophia, whether typical or atypical, are more or less closely identical. The literature appears to furnish little regarding etiology. Some writers have suggested that it is probably of endocrine origin, while others refer to it as hereditary, some cases having developed after severe fright, while others had as a precursor some acute infection—such as measles, scarlet fever, whooping cough, and other conditions.



FIG. 430.—LIPODYSTROPHIA PROGRESSIVA IN A FEMALE AGED SIXTEEN YEARS.

Note the thin folds of velvet like skin that can be lifted ½ to 3 inches from the muscle. The skin could also be lifted from the arms, neck, face and thorax. Emaciation of the face, neck together with an extraordinary growth of hair on the scalp (Boston).

Clinical Characteristics.—The characteristic clinical features of lipodystrophia progressiva consists in a slowly advancing, symmetrical disappearance of the fat from the subcutaneous tissues (panniculus) of the face, head, neck, upper extremities, trunk and abdomen, as low as the crests of the ilia and upper boundary of the pelvis. Hand in hand with this progressive loss of fat from the upper portions of the body, the hips, thighs and legs remain normal in size or show an appreciable, progressive increase in dimensions.

Cases furnished by the literature show that approximately one half of them do not conform closely to the foregoing clinical outline, but display many features in common. Limited areas of lipodystrophia, as

* Boston, N. Y. Med. Jour. and Record, Dec. 5, 1923.

shown by extreme emaciation of the face, neck or thorax, have been described.

These atypical cases are most often found in male subjects and show considerable variation in the parts of the body displaying fact atrophy.

Symptomatology.—Most of these patients express a general sense of good feeling. Their chief symptom is that they become tired after exertion. The majority of them are forced by their friends to consult a physician on account of their emaciated appearance. These patients may be regarded as eccentric and they display an extraordinary degree of determination. The mind is clear, they are of average intelligence, and the patients we have seen were possessed of exceptional memory.

Clinical examinations of the secretions and excreta have not revealed anything of interest, but two cases have gone to autopsy and in these, pathologic changes were present in the ovaries and in the thyroid. One showed a tumor growth of one suprarenal. *X*-ray study of the bony structures of the sella turcica and hollow viscera have not revealed any constant abnormality in connection with lipodystrophia.

PAROTIDS

Clinical Consideration.—The parotid gland is receiving considerable clinical consideration and Erlich* has directed attention to the clinical relation existing between the parotid and the glands of internal secretion. (See Mumps, p. 943.)

It has long since been known that in selected cases, where atrophy of the thyroid and testes existed the parotids were hypertrophied. Some writers tend toward the acceptance of the salivary glands as endocrine organs. Under normal conditions the parotid glands are neither visible or palpable. Malnutrition has been proven to be an important factor in the production of overgrowth of the parotid tissue. During 1916–1918 enlargement of the parotid glands was observed in children located in the European War zone, (where the diet was almost exclusively of carbohydrates), and in these children the glands returned to normal when a more liberal diet was given. (See Tonsils, p. 1157.)

* Presse. Medicale. Paris, Feb. 15, 1922.

DISEASES OF THE NERVOUS SYSTEM

By T. H. Weisenburg, M.D

General Considerations

In making a diagnosis of any organic nervous disease, each symptom should not only be appreciated but also interpreted as being associated with a definite lesion of a certain part of the nervous system. To do so it is necessary to have an accurate knowledge of its anatomy, physiology, and pathology.

The nervous system consists of the brain, the spinal cord and the sympathetic system of plexuses, and the nerves connecting with the peripheral parts of the body and the internal organs. The brain is the principal part of this system, and in it are represented the so-called centers for every possible voluntary and involuntary movement, consciousness, and thought. The spinal cord is the pathway for fibers coming from the brain, and in it are nerve-cells which represent every part of the body, with the exception of the internal organs, which are similarly represented in the sympathetic plexuses (Fig. 431).

The brain consists of two lateral hemispheres, connected by a band of white fibers called the corpus callosum; of a system of ganglia which are in the center and between the hemispheres, this including the caudate nucleus, optic thalamus, and lenticular nucleus; and of the cerebellum, consisting of two lateral hemispheres and a central part or the vermis. Within the brain are a system of communicating cavities or ventricles which are in continuation with the central cavity of the spinal cord. These are the two lateral ventricles, occupying parts of the lateral hemispheres; the third ventricle, situated between the optic thalami; and the fourth, which is between the cerebellum and the medulla oblongata, communicating below with the central canal of the spinal cord and above with the third ventricle by means of the aqueduct of Sylvius. These cavities in life are filled with fluid. The brain is intimately surrounded by the pia, which dips between the convolutions and into the fissures, accompanying the vessels into the interior. Surrounding the pia is the dura arachnoid, which envelops all parts of the brain and subdivides the cranial cavity into two parts—that which includes the cerebrum proper, or the two lateral hemispheres, and the posterior part, which covers the cerebellum and is called the tentorium cerebelli.

Anatomically the brain consists of a system of convolutions and fissures arranged in a definite manner for a given purpose. The outer part of the convolution is called the cortex, it being from ⅛ to ¼ of an inch in thickness, and consists of a system of nerve-cells arranged in layers. From these nerve-cells arise nerve-fibers. Those which go into the internal capsule are called the projection fibers and are concerned with motor, sensory, and special functions, while the fibers which connect one part of the brain with another are called the association fibers, and are concerned with the correlation of function of the different parts of the brain.

As a result of investigation definite functions have been assigned to different parts of the cortex, these being motor, sensory, and special.

The general underlying principle is that in the cortex are represented, as, for instance, in the motor, movement, and any irritation of a motor center will produce movement of the related part in the opposite side of the body, while destruction will cause loss of that movement. The same principle is true of the other portions of the cortex. The basal ganglia consisting of the caudate and lenticular nuclei and the optic thalamus are the great centers controlling the automatic associated functions, such as deglutition, respiration, and emotional expression. The caudate and lenticular nuclei being the motor representatives, and the thalamus the sensory portion of this complicated mechanism. The two cerebral hemispheres are in intimate connection with the cerebellum, which is the great coördinating center of all voluntary and involuntary movements.

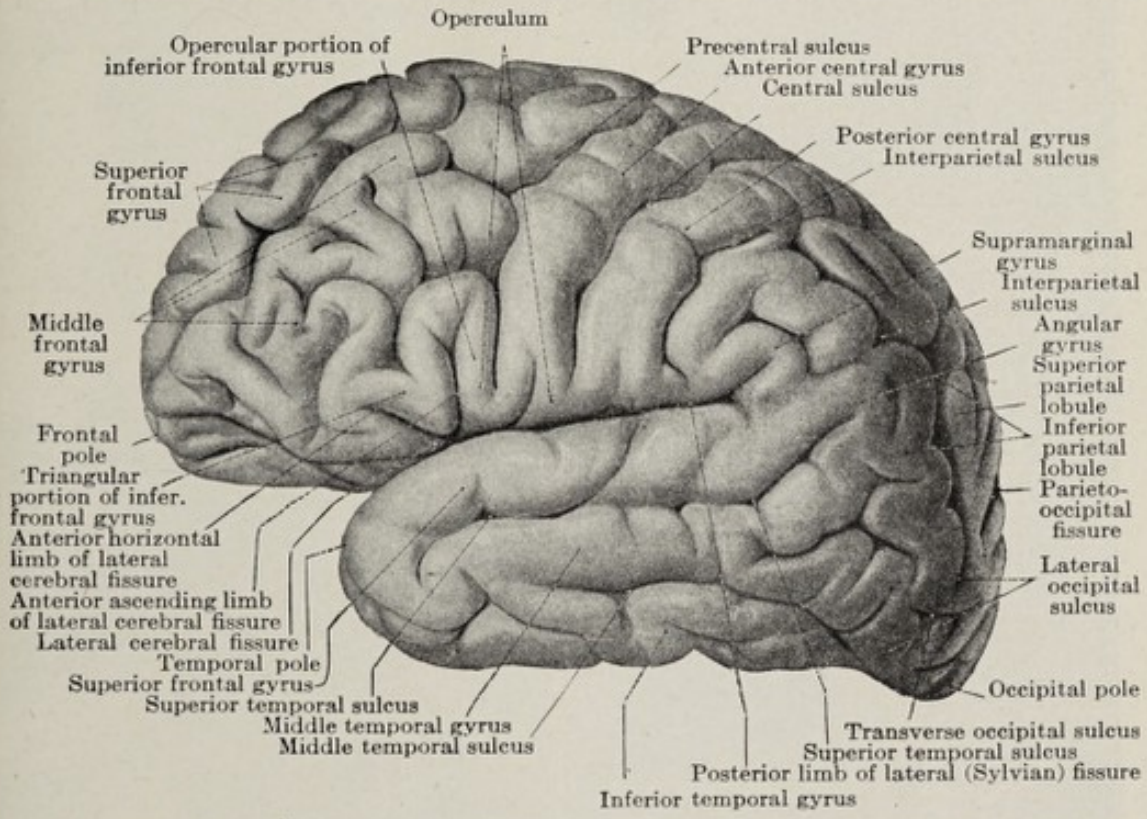


FIG. 431.—THE FISSURES AND CONVOLUTIONS OF THE CEREBRAL CORTEX AS SEEN FROM THE LEFT SIDE. THE CEREBELLUM AND BRAIN-STEM HAVE BEEN REMOVED (Sobotta and McMurrich).

Motor Symptoms; Method of Obtaining Them and Their Interpretation.—Every part of the body has a nuclear representation in the nervous system. By that is meant that every muscle-fiber is in relation with cells which are located in the anterior horns of the spinal cord throughout its whole extent, and in the so-called nuclei of the different cranial nerves from the third to the twelfth inclusive, in the crus, pons, and medulla, these parts being really the upward continuation of the spinal cord. Thus, for instance, if there is a destruction of the nerve-cells in the facial nuclei in the pons, there will be loss of function in the muscles of the face; and if there is a disturbance of the cells in the anterior portions of the spinal cord in the lumbar region, there will be alteration of function in the corresponding muscle of the leg (Fig. 432).

In other words, there are two great forms of representation in the nervous system: That in the cortex, which is concerned purely with motion; while in the spinal cord and its prolongation, including in this the crus,

pons, and medulla, are represented not motion, but the innervation of the individual muscle-fibers. There must necessarily be a connection between these two systems, and this is effected by means of the motor tracts. These have their origin in the motor centers in the cortex. From here they go through the anterior part of the posterior limb of the internal capsule, and those fibers which are concerned with the movements of the opposite side of the body below the head go through the crus, pons, cross over in the medulla, and then are transmitted by means of the crossed pyramidal tracts into the spinal cord. Some of these fibers do not decussate in the medulla, but descend on the same side of the cord in the direct pyramidal tract. From here these fibers go to the cells in the anterior horn. For example, the nerve-fibers which come from the nerve-cells in the leg center first go through the internal capsule, then the crus,

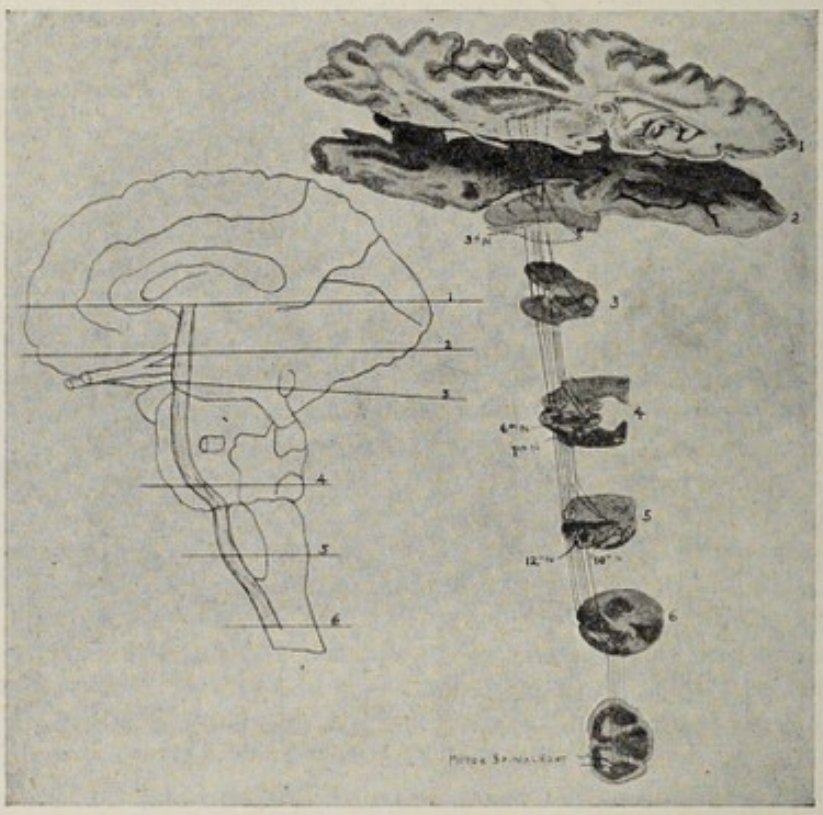


Fig. 432.—Diagram Showing Course of Motor Fibers (Pickett).

pons, cross over in the medulla, then go through the crossed pyramidal tract all the way down the cord to the lumbar segment, and then join the cells in the anterior horn, while the fibers in association with the arm only go as far as the cells in the anterior horn of the cervical part of the cord. Correspondingly, the motor fibers which come from the face center go through the internal capsule and leave the motor tracts in the upper part of the pons because the facial nuclei are in the lower part of the pons, while those fibers which are in relation with the muscles of the eyeball begin to leave the motor columns just below the internal capsule and above the crus because the oculomotor nuclei are in the crus and pons.

THE UPPER AND LOWER MOTOR NEURONS OR SYSTEMS

The upper part of the motor system, that is, the cortical cells and the fibers coming from them to the nuclei of the motor cranial nerves in the crus, pons, and medulla, or to the cells in the anterior horns of the spinal

cord, but not including them, is called the upper motor neuron or system, and by the lower motor neuron or system is meant the nuclei of the motor cranial nerves or of the cells of the anterior horn of the spinal cord and the fibers coming from them, this including the motor peripheral or cranial nerves as far as their ending in the periphery. We see, then, that each neuron or system, so called, has its own center or nerve-cell and a fiber continuation.

A normal relation between the upper and lower motor neurons or systems is necessary in the performance of any movement, for while the impulse originates in the upper neuron, its performance is the result of the action of the lower, and if there is a lesion in either there necessarily results

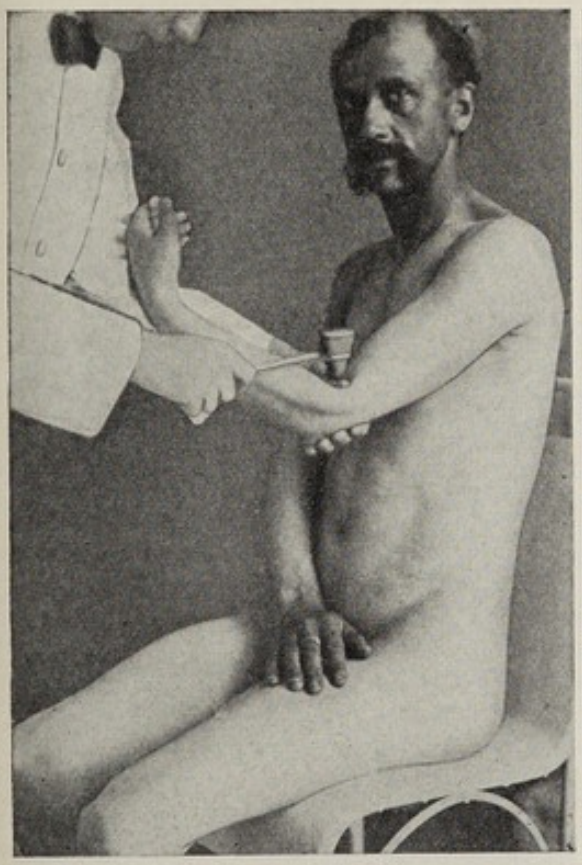


FIG. 433.—METHOD OF OBTAINING BICEPS REFLEX.

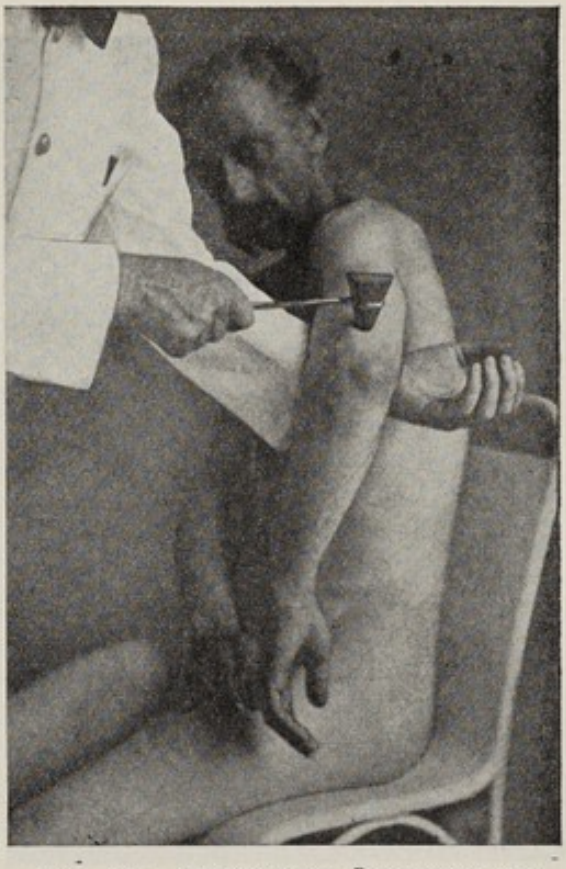


FIG. 434.—METHOD OF OBTAINING THE TRICEPS REFLEX.

a disturbance of this relation of tone. Thus, in a lesion of the upper neuron there will be overaction of the lower, and vice versa. This overaction on the part of the lower motor neuron is manifested by an exaggeration of the tendon reflexes and spasticity or stiffness in movement, and on the part of the upper by a flaccidity or loss of tone and abolition of reflexes. In other words, in a lesion in the upper motor neuron there will be spasticity and increase in the tendon reflexes, while in a lesion of the lower, flaccidity and loss of the tendon reflexes.

REFLEXES

It is, then, upon the normal relation or the tone between the upper and lower motor neurons or systems that the condition of the tendon reflexes will depend. Every reflex has its physiologic arc, this consisting of a sensory impulse, a center, and a motor response. The simplest example

is the knee or patellar jerk, in which, after tapping the patellar tendon, the impulse is carried by the sensory nerves and posterior roots to the cells of the anterior horn in the second, third, and fourth lumbar segments, and from here the motor response is transmitted by the anterior roots and the peripheral motor nerves. If there is a lesion in any portion of this arc, there will be loss of the reflex, no matter what the condition above in the spinal cord and brain. The first principle, then, in the attainment of any reflex is to have its arc intact and in normal condition. Should, however, there be a lesion in any portion of the upper motor neuron or system anywhere in its course, this disturbing the normal tone, there will result exaggeration of the reflexes because of loss of cerebral or what has often been called inhibitory influence. That every reflex has a cerebral



FIG. 435.—METHOD OF OBTAINING THE PATELLAR JERK.



FIG. 436.—METHOD OF OBTAINING THE ACHILLES JERK.

influence is proved by the fact that if there is a complete transverse lesion, for instance, in one segment of the cervical cord, all the reflexes below are lost, even though the arcs are intact.

Reflexes are of two kinds: First, deep or tendon; and second, superficial or skin. The usual tendon reflexes employed are:

(*a*) In the Upper Limb: The biceps and triceps.

The biceps reflex is obtained by having the patient flex the arm on the forearm, at right angles, with the thumb of one hand of the examiner on the biceps tendon. Striking the thumb with the percussion hammer will produce flexion of the forearm upon the arm (Fig. 433). The center of the reflex is in the fifth cervical segment.

Triceps Reflex.—With the arm in the same position, if the triceps tendon is struck near its insertion in the elbow, extension of the forearm

on the arm will result (Fig. 434). Spinal center is in the sixth and seventh cervical segments.

(*b*) In the Lower Limb:

The knee or patellar jerk is best obtained by crossing one leg over the other and striking the patellar tendon near its insertion. A forward movement of the leg will result (Fig. 435). Spinal center is in the second, third, and fourth lumbar. When the reflex is diminished, it may sometimes be brought out by reinforcement. This is done by having the patient lock his hands and then pull them apart, the examiner striking the tendon at the time of the greatest effort.

Achilles jerk is best obtained by having the patient kneel on a chair and then tapping the Achilles tendon near its insertion into the heel.

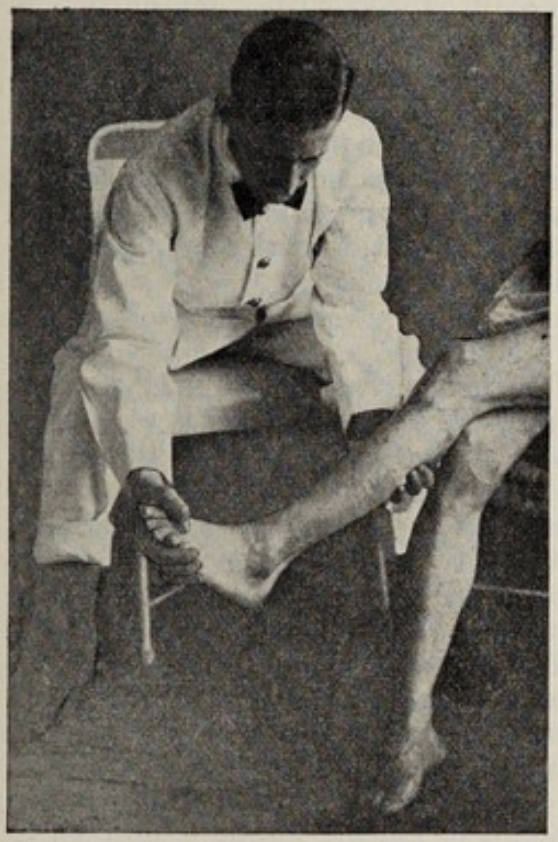


FIG. 437.—METHOD OF OBTAINING ANKLE CLONUS.

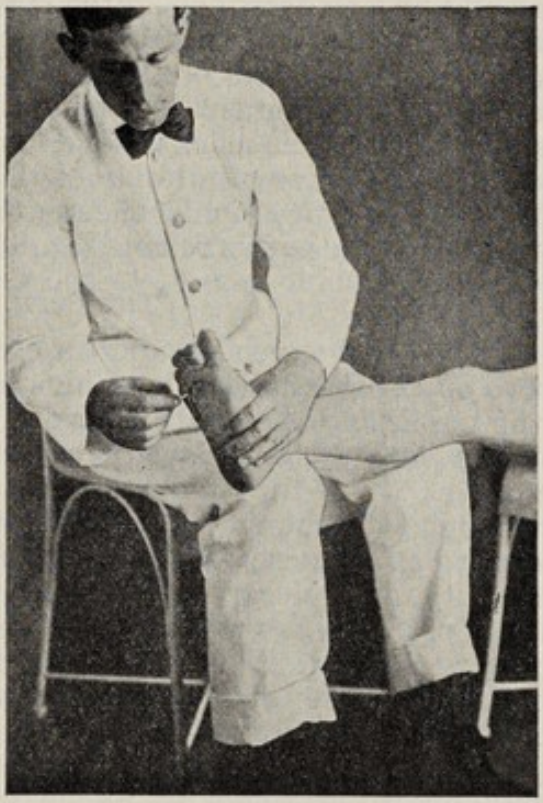


FIG. 438.—METHOD OF OBTAINING THE BABINSKI REFLEX SHOWING EXTENSION OF THE LARGE TOE.

A flexion of the foot on the leg will result (Fig. 436). Spinal center is in the first sacral.

Ankle and Patellar Clonus.—A clonus is obtained only when there is an exaggerated tonicity, and always indicates a lesion of the motor or pyramidal tracts. *Ankle clonus* is obtained by first flexing the leg upon the thigh. With one hand held over the calf of the leg, the other holding the foot, a sudden flexion of the foot on the leg is made, this resulting in to and fro movements which are regular in rhythm (Fig. 437).

Patellar Clonus.—With the leg extended on the thigh the patella is grasped between the thumb and the forefinger and suddenly brought forward.

Biceps and triceps clonus is sometimes obtained similarly to that of the ordinary reflexes.

Rarely, ankle clonus and sometimes patellar clonus can be obtained in hysteria, but the movements are not regular and the rhythm is influenced by the will.

Skin or Superficial Reflexes.—The abdominal or umbilicus reflex is obtained by stroking on one side of the abdomen, the umbilicus moving toward the side stroked. Spinal center is in the ninth, tenth, and eleventh thoracic segments.

The cremasteric reflex is obtained by irritating the inner portion of the upper thigh, this resulting in upward movement of the scrotum. Spinal center is in the first lumbar segment.

Plantar reflex is obtained by irritating the plantar surface of the foot, flexion of the toes resulting. Spinal center is in the second sacral.

Babinski reflex is obtained by irritating the plantar surface, extension of the toes resulting. Irritation is best produced with a match, which should first be drawn along the outer part of the foot and then across the sole. The important part of this reflex is the extension of the large toe, and the movements of the small toes may be disregarded. It is also advisable to first grasp the foot at the ankle so as to prevent any voluntary movement. This reflex is never obtained in a functional condition and is always indicative of a lesion of those motor fibers which are in relation with the leg. A lesion of the motor fibers in relation with the upper limb will not produce this reflex (Fig. 438).

The Pupil in Diagnosis

The pupil or central aperture in the iris is determined by the state of two opposing muscles; the sphincter iridis, whose function it is to narrow the pupil, and the dilatator iridis, which increases the size of the pupil. The iridic muscles receive their nerve supply from the autonomic nervous system; while the sphincters are innervated by the parasympathetic through the oculomotor, and the dilator by the sympathetic through the cervicalis. Physiologic dilatation is often present during undue physical activity, mental strain, deep study, emotion, and fright.

The pupils are of diagnostic importance, and their examination consists in comprehending their size, shape, equality, and the various pupil reactions. The diameter of the normal pupil varies from 2 to 6 mm., and any measurements beyond this scope should arouse suspicion. Miosis is a condition where there is a decided narrowing of the pupil; and mydriasis refers to undue widening. During infancy and early childhood the pupils are comparatively small, and display their maximum size after maturity, and during early adult life, and again diminish in size after middle life, gradually decreasing with advancing years. The pupils should be of equal size; although slight physiologic variations may exist. In the vast majority of cases the pupil is round, but rarely one detects either an oval or an elliptical pupil; while slight irregularity may be a normal feature in aged subjects.

Corectopia (abnormal location of the pupil) while rare, suggests nothing of clinical importance in general medicine, and should be studied from the standpoint of the ophthalmologist.

The *pupillary phenomena* of value in diagnosis, are its various reactions together with the promptness and vigor of the response of the pupil as seen in fatigue, early adult life, old age, and disease. The pupils react to light as well as to accommodation or convergence, and to sensory and cortical stimuli. Whenever light is flashed into an eye the normal pupil contracts quickly (in approximately one-half second); dilates, and again contracts, then again dilates until its state of equilibrium is located

(the direct reflex to light). During the foregoing reflex the opposite pupil, even when shaded, also contracts as does its fellow, and this phenomena is referred to as the consensual light reflex.

Method.—It is preferable to make these tests in daylight with the patient seated or standing before a window, and to request him to look into the distance at some fixed object, thereby eliminating the element of accommodation. Whenever daylight is impracticable, the patient may sit facing a moderately brilliant light. The examiner operating from one side covers with a card each of the patient's eyes, and while keeping one eye covered removes the shade from the eye to be examined, noting carefully the changes that take place in the pupil. The procedure may be reversed, and in this way the pupillary reaction of the opposite eye is observed. Obtain the consensual light reflex by slightly uncovering or elevating the card over the eye to be examined, but prevent all light from entering this eye, and proceed with the application of light as before to the fellow eye. The pupillary changes in the eye that is shaded from the light are now apparent.

The sensory reflex of the pupil consists of a dilatation upon irritation of a sensory spinal or cranial nerve. This reaction is best produced by drawing a pin, or the point of a pencil, several times over the skin of the neck corresponding to the anterior border of the sternocleido-mastoid muscle. The reflex arc of connection in this particular reaction exists in the stimulating afferent nerve, the ciliospinal center, and fibers of the cervical sympathetic.

(1) The *cortical reflex of* Haab refers to a condition where there is a contraction of the pupil when the patient is in semi-darkness and concentrates his mind upon a light that he imagines is before him.

(2) The *paradoxical light reflex* represents a state in which the pupil dilates instead of contracts when exposed to light.

(3) The *myotonic reaction* is characterized by the persistence of the pupillary contraction to convergence after the latter convergence has been discontinued.

(4) The *neurotonic reaction* is a prolonged contraction of the pupils to light after illumination has been removed.

(5) The *Westphal-Pilcz reaction* may be obtained both by the direct, and by the consensual method, and consists in a contraction of the pupil when the patient attempts to close his eyes against some resistance.

(6) *The Argyll Robertson Pupil.*—During the course of tabes dorsalis pupillary abnormalities are of inestimable diagnostic importance, and in many cases serve as the earliest reliable diagnostic factor, and miosis is found in nearly 80 per cent. of all cases. The light reflexes, both direct and consensual, are lost, but the pupil appreciably narrows rather promptly upon accommodation or convergence. Both eyes are invariably affected, but may differ slightly in the degree of miosis. Conspicuous in this reaction is the fact that the vision is good, unless there be optic atrophy. Early during the course of syphilis the only evidence of an approaching Argyll Robertson pupil may be that the pupillary reflex light is sluggish. Late during the course of syphilis miosis may give way to mydriasis and absolute immobility, a clinical feature which is rather common in general paresis. Irregularity of the pupils is not an uncommon feature in luetic disease. Adrenalin dilates this pupil.

(7) During the course of paresis of the insane the Argyll Robertson pupil may persist for a time; although the consensual light reflex is usually affected before the direct reflex.

(8) In cerebral syphilis the Argyll Robertson pupil is rather uncommon, and on the other hand we ordinarily find a fixed and dilated pupil (a wide pupil absolutely immobile), and this phenomena may be limited to one eye in brain syphilis.

(9) The ocular phenomena present in encephalitis lethargica have been described at length pp. 908, 1172. The pupillary reaction consists in a widely dilated pupil, inactive to both light and accommodation. Occasionally the pupil is found to react to light, and not to accommodation. Double vision is a common feature in connection with encephalitis.

(10) *Horner's Syndrome.*—Horner describes a clinical condition where there are contraction of the pupil, moderate ptosis, enophthalmos (retraction of eyeball) and alterations in the secretion of sweat, together with vasomotor dilatation of the neck and face. Horner's syndrome suggests the existence of grave disease of the cord, *e. g.*, syringomyelia. Tuberculosis at the apex of one lung, possibly through pressure upon the sympathetics, may be responsible for an imperfect Horner's syndrome. Tumor or growth at the apex of the chest will produce this syndrome, which is occasionally accompanied by weakness of the hand and forearm on the affected side.

(11) Certain cases of brachial plexus palsy of the lower arm type, are found to present Horner's syndrome; while in Duchenne-Erb's paralysis, upper arm type, pupillary signs are normal.

(12) During the course of hyperthyroidism there is a tendency toward dilatation of the pupils. The possibility of pressure upon the sympathetics must be given due consideration in connection with disease of the thyroid, and tumors of the neck, *e. g.*, aneurism of the arteries arising from the aortic arch. Mediastinal tumors, tumors of the upper cord, and disease of the vertebra are all capable of producing certain phases of Horner's syndrome.

(13) The pupil is of value in distinguishing between hysteria and organic disease. In true coma the pupils are always contracted; while in hysteria they are normal, or slightly dilated, and respond to the several pupillary reactions.

(14) Hemiplegia is frequently accompanied by inequality of the pupils. In hysterical paralysis and localized weaknesses pupillary reactions approximate the normal.

(15) During acute alcoholism and convulsions depending upon an organic disturbance, the pupils are as a rule, widely dilated, and do not react normally to light. Attending attacks of syncope the pupils become widely dilated and are inactive.

(16) The pupils are dilated in dementia præcox and other forms of mental aberration accompanied by excitement; but in the absence of complicating diseases the pupil may react to the various stimuli.

(17) Wernicke's hemiopic pupillary reaction is often confused by men in the study of general medicine, since the reaction is positive when a pupil does not react, when the blind half of the retina is illuminated. A negative reaction signifies that the pupil does react under illumination.

Wernicke's reaction should be applied only by the ophthalmologist. Its chief usage in diagnosis is for the study of cases of hemianopsia, and serves as a means of locating the lesion. When the pupil does not react to light hemianopsia is probably due to involvement of the optic tract, anterior to the colliculus. If the pupil does react the trouble is regarded as being located further back, and the common cause is some pathologic change in the occipital cortex.

(18) Diphtheria displays a peculiar pupillary phenomena after the acute stage, when one often finds that the pupils do not react to accommodation; while the light reflexes are present.

(19) Acute peritonitis and other inflammatory conditions of the abdomen, *e. g.*, acute appendicitis, are accompanied by dilatation of the pupil on the affected side when pressure is made over the area of tenderness. In the absence of abdominal tenderness such pressure does not cause any pupillary change.

(20) Botulism has as a characteristic clinical sign ophthalmoplegia interna; the pupils are well dilated and do not respond to illumination. Accommodation is paralyzed, and ptosis is ordinarily associated. It is of clinical interest to note that similar pupillary phenomena are common in encephalitis lethargica.

(21) Nephritis.—Cases of sudden blindness with negative ophthalmic findings and normal pupils are usually dependent upon uremia. During uremic coma the pupils are contracted, and in selected cases practically stationary. Wide dilatation of the pupils in uremia suggests the approach of a fatal termination.

(22) "Blindness of both eyes is accompanied by dilated pupils which are immobile to light but reacting to accommodation and sensory irritation. Very rarely in the case is the light reflex preserved, when we must assume that the visual fibers alone have been destroyed, while the pupillary fibres have been spared. However, if the blindness is due to a bilateral supranuclear or cortical lesion the appearance and behavior of the pupils will be normal" (J. H. Bailey). In monolateral blindness the following pupillary phenomena are observed:—Illumination of the blind eye does not cause its pupil to contract, nor does the pupil of the fellow eye; but when the seeing eye is illuminated its pupil will contract as will also the pupil of the blind eye. These reactions serve to distinguish between a dilated pupil due to blindness, and one dilated as the result of paralysis of the sphincter iridis. In event of unilateral amaurosis the pupil of the affected eye is but moderately dilated because its consensual contraction is present.

Eserin assists in classifying paralytic mydriasis since it produces prompt contraction of the pupil when the lesion is nuclear, and should the lesion be peripheral the pupil remains dilated. Atropine will dilate a pupil that is contracted from eserine.

(23) *Cataract.*—The pupillary reflexes are but moderately impaired in uncomplicated cataract even in cases where cataract has advanced to a stage where the patient is practically blind.

(24) *Unconscious States.*—During the stage of hypnotic trance the pupils are dilated. In sleep they are contracted. Unconsciousness induced by the use of alcoholics displays a somewhat contracted pupil, however, when wood alcohol is responsible, both pupils are dilated. Carbon monoxide (coal gas) poisoning gives pupils that are dilated, fixed, and the earliest sign of approaching consciousness is a return of pupillary activity.

(25) Hippus.—Clonic spasm of the iris is encountered during the course of hysteria, neurasthenia, epilepsy, and meningitis. The term hippus is also applied to the oscillatory movements of the pupil as it changes from dilation to contraction, or to rest.

(26) *Heart.*—Oscillation of the pupil may be seen, and in selected subjects occurs with the heart beat, and also with the respiratory movements. The heart is slowed from 5 to 10 beats per minute (nor-

mally) following compression of the eye-ball. The oculo-cardiac reflex is inverted when compression causes increased pulse rate.

(27) *Anisocoria* refers to inequality of the pupils. A moderate degree of inequality may be present in health, but a more marked difference is seen in disease. It occurs in insanity, paresis, locomotor ataxia, thoracic aneurism, tumors of the mediastium, during and immediately after epileptic seizures, disease of the teeth with accompanying sinus involvement syphilis, encephalitis, and unilateral blindness.

(28) Drugs.—Among the drugs whose physiologic action it is to contract the pupils should be mentioned opium and its alkaloids, grain alcohol, carbolic acid, calabar bean (physostigmin), jaborandi (pilocarpin) and poisonous mushroom.

Lethal and at times medicinal doses of the following drugs cause the pupils to dilate:—Cannabis indica, chloroform, belladonna, and its derivatives, ether, turpentine, cocain, digitalis, nitroglycerin, and scopalamin. Adrenalin causes dilatation of the pupils in hyperglycemia.

SENSORY SYSTEM

The arrangement of the sensory fibers is more complex than that of the motor because of the great number and variety of sensations. The principle, however, is the same. There is still a great lack of definite knowledge regarding the course of the sensory fibers. It must be remembered that while motor impulses travel from the cortex, sensory impulses are transmitted to the cortex by means of the peripheral sensory nerves and the spinal cord. It is possible that in the cortex, sensation is represented similarly to that of motion, and that, just as in the motor area there is representation of motion, so in the sensory centers there is representation of the sensation concerned in the particular movement, and that there is a correlation of function between the two. In support of that theory is the fact that the cortical motor and sensory centers concerned in a particular movement are in apposition.

Within a few years our views of the subdivisions of sensation have been considerably modified, chiefly through the work of Head. Instead of the usually accepted subdivision of touch, pain, and heat and cold, these authors have shown that common sensation is based upon three kinds of sensibility which are present and may be demonstrated in the peripheral system:

"(1) A system corresponding to the group of impulses which they have called deep sensibility. The end-organs of this system respond to the stimulus of pressure and to the movement of joints, tendons, and muscles. Painful impulses can also arise within this system in consequence of injury of a joint or excessive pressure. This sensory mechanism is capable of responding in such a way that the patient appreciates both the locality of the stimulus and the direction of movement in any joint which lies within an area innervated solely by this system; and yet the integrity of deep sensibility carries with it no power of appreciating a stimulus, such as that of cotton-wool, even over hairy parts. Nor does it permit of the discrimination of two compass-points applied simultaneously to the skin, even when widely separated.

"The fibers which connect these sensory impulses run mainly with the muscular nerves, and are not destroyed by division of all the sensory nerves to the skin.

"(2) The protopathic system, capable of responding to painful cutaneous stimuli and to the more extremes of heat and cold. Its end-organs are grouped in points on the surface of the body, sensitive to one

only of these stimuli. Their response is diffuse, and unaccompanied by any definite appreciation of the locality of the spot stimulated.

"(3) The epicritic system. To the impulses of this system we owe the power of cutaneous localization, of discriminating two points, and of recognizing the finer grades of temperature, called cool and warm."

These three forms of sensibility are transmitted from the periphery by means of the posterior roots into the spinal cord. Anatomically, the posterior roots are supposed to contain five different sets of fibers, each having a different termination (Fig. 439).

One goes to the nerve-cells of the anterior horns of the same side and is supposed to subserve reflex functions.

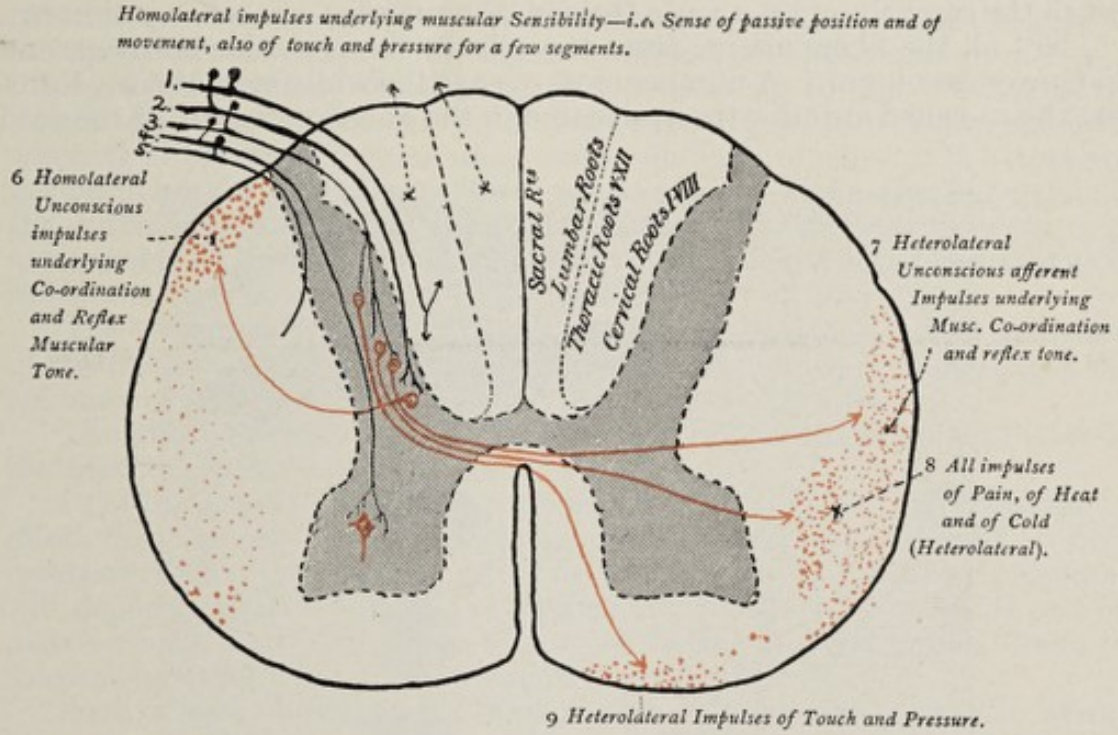


FIG. 439.—DIAGRAM TO ILLUSTRATE THE TERMINATION OF PERIPHERAL AFFERENT FIBERS IN THE SPINAL CORD, AND THE ORIGIN OF THE SECONDARY CENTRAL PATHS (partly after Edinger), WITH A BRIEF SUMMARY OF THEIR FUNCTION.

1, Bundles of fibers passing up in the posterior column—many myelopetal (to spinal cord) and the remainder bulbopetal (to posterior column nuclei); 2, fibers terminating around the cells of Clarke's column; 3, fibers arborizing around cells in the posterior horn, and intermediate gray matter; 4, ditto around the anterior horn cells; 5, ditto swerving into the lateral column to neighboring gray matter; 6, direct, or dorsal spino-cerebellar tract; 7 and 8, Gowers's tract, *i. e.*, (7) ventral spino-cerebellar tract, (8) tract, spino-thalamic et tectalis; 9, ascending tract in the anterior column (W. Page May).

The second ends in the cells of Clarke's column, this consisting of a group of cells situated at the base of the posterior horns, running along the whole extent of the spinal cord, but principally from the first thoracic to the second lumbar. From these cells new fibers arise which run to the postero-lateral portion of the same side of the cord, forming the so-called direct cerebellar tract, lateral to the motor columns and behind the tract of Gowers. This tract maintains this position in the spinal cord and enters the cerebellum by means of the inferior cerebellar peduncle and is supposed to end in the superior vermis.

The third set of fibers end in the nerve-cells of the posterior horns on the same side. From here new fibers arise, most of which cross over in

the gray and white commissure, forming the so-called Gowers's tract, situated anterior to the direct cerebellar and outside of the lateral motor columns. These fibers ascend in the spinal cord and in the lateral portions of the medulla and pons, terminating in the lateral and ventral nuclei of the optic thalamus. From here a new set of fibers arise, these ending in the sensory cortex. Some of the fibers of Gowers's tract, however, are given off along their course and end in the superior vermis of the cerebellum and in collateral nerve-cells situated in the medulla. Gower's tract also receives a number of fibers from the cells of the posterior horn on the same side. The fibers that cross over in the gray commissure are called the *spino-thalamic fibers*, and those that go up in the homolateral Gowers's tract are known as the *indirect cerebellar group* because they reach the cerebellum by a route through the superior cerebellar peduncles.

Not all the fibers arising from the cells in the posterior horns ascend in Gowers's column. A number cross over in the white commissure, forming the so-called anterior tract, situated in the anterior portion of the cord

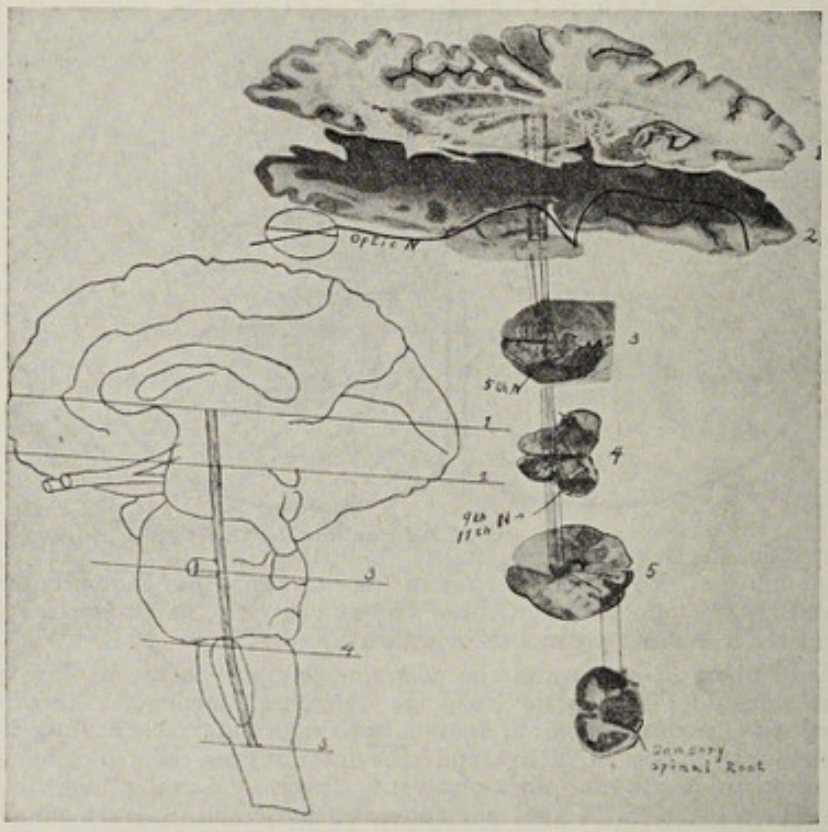


FIG. 440.—DIAGRAM SHOWING COURSE OF SENSORY FIBERS (Pickett).

in front of the anterior horns.

The fourth system of fibers enters the posterior columns, forming the tracts of Goll and Burdach, and ascends in the spinal cord, terminating in the nucleus cuneatus and gracilis in the medulla oblongata. Every fiber after its entry in its course upward runs mesially, the fibers from the root above forcing it inward. Thus, in the column of Goll are transmitted the fibers from the posterior roots of the sacral, lumbar, and lower thoracic from the fifth to the twelfth inclusive, while in the column of Burdach, which first becomes evident in the fifth thoracic segment, are transmitted the fibers from all the cervical and the upper five thoracic roots. The fibers of the column of Goll terminate in the nucleus gracilis, and of the

column of Burdach in the nucleus cuneatus. From these nuclei new fibers arise forming the internal arcuate fibers which decussate in the medulla and run upward, forming the so-called lemniscus or median fillet. These tracts occupy a position in the median line just back of the motor fibers, in both the medulla and pons, and terminate in the lateral and ventral nuclei of the optic thalamus. From here new fibers arise which run through the posterior part of the posterior limb of the internal capsule, terminating in the sensory cortex (Fig. 440). The fifth arborize around the cells of the gray matter lateral to the horn.

The Three Sensory Neurons or Systems.—We see, then, by tracing the course of the sensory fibers after their entry into the spinal cord, that there are three sets of neurons or systems, instead of two, as in the motor. The first or peripheral has its center in the cells of the ganglia on the posterior roots. The fibers coming from these cells divide in a "T"-shaped manner, the external divisions going to the end-organs by means of the peripheral nerves, and the central part into the spinal cord, where they divide into descending and ascending branches. The descending branches are probably reflex in function, while the ascending transmit the different forms of sensibility, terminating in the nerve-cells in the gray matter of the same side of the spinal cord, or in the posterior column nuclei in the medulla oblongata.

The second neuron or system starts from these nerve-cells and ends in the median and lateral nuclei of the optic thalamus, it consisting of the columns of Gowers, the anterior tracts, the median fillet.

The third neuron or system starts at the optic thalamus and ends in the cerebral sensory cortex.

It is important to keep the anatomic limits of the three neurons in mind, for the sensory disturbances resulting from lesions will in each instance differ. In the peripheral or first system the sensory symptoms will depend first of all upon the particular nerve or root diseased and its distributions, and alterations will occur in the three different forms of sensibility—the deep, protopathic, and epicritic.

Just as soon, however, as these peripheral types of sensibility arrive in the spinal cord, they are readjusted, and touch, pain, and temperature sensations arriving, no matter from what system, are transmitted in the second neuron along definite tracts, and instead of having the three peripheral types of sensibility, there will be disturbance either of touch, pain, heat, or cold in its entirety.

In the third system or neuron there is again a readjustment, and instead of separate pathways all the different forms of sensibility run together, and a lesion in any portion will cause disturbance either partially or totally of all forms.

THE TRANSMISSION OF SENSATION TO THE CEREBRAL CORTEX AFTER ITS ENTRY INTO THE SPINAL CORD

Although we distinguish many different forms of sensibility, and while it is believed that each is transmitted along definite tracts in the spinal cord, it is probable that every type of sensation is transmitted along more than one tract.

Touch and Pressure Senses.—Sensation for touch probably ascends in the posterior columns or the columns of Goll and Burdach on the same side of the spinal cord to the respective nuclei in the medulla, and from there, after its decussation, by the median fillet to the optic thalamus, and then to the sensory cortex. It is also believed that touch sensation is transmitted by the heterolateral anterior columns. The important point

is that destruction of one of these tracts will cause incomplete, while destruction of both causes complete, loss of touch sensation. The sense of pressure, which is transmitted in the peripheral nerves along different fibers from those of touch, ascends in the spinal cord with touch sensation, for nearly always loss of one will be associated with loss of the other. When considering loss of touch and pressure sensation, it must be remembered that most of the fibers concerned with these senses do not decussate in the spinal cord, and that unilateral lesions will cause a greater disturbance on the side of the lesion. This differs from the other forms of sensation because the fibers conducting them decussate in the spinal cord, and, therefore, unilateral lesions will cause the principal disturbance upon the opposite side. In testing for touch sensation it is best to employ cotton-wool or else the pressure of the examining finger. In testing for pressure, weights of various sizes should be used.

Pain and Temperature Sensations.—These are transmitted in the column of Gowers. While it is admitted that pain, heat, and cold are transmitted in these tracts, it is probable that separate fibers are concerned with each type, for it is possible to have disturbance of one without derangement of the other. In both the medulla and pons the fibers conducting pain and temperature sensations are apart from the other senses but after their entry into the optic thalamus, they are conducted with them through the posterior limb of the internal capsule to the sensory cortex.

In testing for pain and temperature sensation test-tubes with hot and cold water should be used. It is advisable in a given case to have these always of the same temperature.

Muscle Sense.—By this term is meant every form of sensibility transmitted from the muscle, tendon, capsule, and joint concerned with the movement of a part. As such it must be made up of the sense of position, of active and passive movement, of pressure, and of touch sensations. It is probable that this complex sense is transmitted on the same side of the cord in both the posterior and lateral columns. The impulses in the posterior are concerned with the conscious appreciation of this sense, while that transmitted in the direct cerebellar tract to the cerebellum is concerned with unconscious coördination.

Sense of Position.—The limbs should be absolutely relaxed and the eyes closed. When testing, for instance, the right upper limb, it should be placed in a given posture and the patient asked to put the other limb in the same position, or else be asked to describe where it is, or vice versa.

Sense of Movement.—The test is similar to that of the sense of position, the patient being asked to describe the movement or have the opposing limb moved in accordance with the movement of the examiner, or vice versa.

Ataxia.—By this is meant an incoördinate movement. In some diseases, as in locomotor ataxia, when the posterior columns are degenerated, the incoördination is increased with the eyes shut. In testing the upper limbs the patient should be asked to put his finger to his nose or to put them together. In testing the lower limbs it is best to place the patient on his back and have him move the heel to the knee, leg, or toe. In testing for the whole body, the patient should be asked to stand up and put his heels and toes together. If the patient staggers and falls, this is sometimes called *Romberg's sign*. The ataxic gait may be due to a disease of the posterior columns of the spinal cord, as in locomotor ataxia, or may be the result of cerebellar disease. These can be distinguished, however, because in the former the ataxia is increased when the eyes are

shut and the incoördination is limited only to the limbs, whereas in cerebellar disease the whole body is ataxic and the patient walks like a drunken man. As a rule, closure of the eyes does not influence cerebellar incoördination.

Symptoms of Sensory Irritation.—If the irritation is in the cortical sensory area, there will be spasms of pain upon the opposite side of the body similar to the motor spasms or Jacksonian convulsions, the result of irritating motor lesions. If the irritation is succeeded by destruction, there will, of course, be disturbance of sensation or anesthesia upon the opposite side of the body, this depending upon the extent of the cortical area involved.

Sometimes, if an irritating lesion is present in the projection sensory fibers, as in the internal capsule, there may be pains upon the opposite side. These are known as *central pains*. As a matter of fact, they may result from an irritating lesion in any portion of the sensory tracts, whether in the pons or the spinal cord, as sometimes happens in syringomyelia.

If the irritation involves the posterior root or a peripheral nerve, there may be at first numbness or *paresthesia* in the related distribution. These paresthetic phenomena may be variously described, such as crawling, tingling, or pin and needle sensations. Greater irritation will cause pains which may be of a sharp, shooting character, such as are present in tabes, or a girdle sense described as a tight band around the waist or leg.

By *polyesthesia* is meant diffusion of sensation, a touch being appreciated in more than one point. By *allochiria* is meant the appreciation of sensory irritation in a corresponding part of the opposite limb—seen in cases of locomotor ataxia.

Referred Pains.—The work of Head and Dana has demonstrated that there is a relation between superficial skin areas and diseases of the viscera and of the spinal segments. Because of this, in diseases of the internal organs, pain is referred by means of the spinal nerves to certain skin distributions, which may be appreciated by the patient who complains of a soreness or tenderness. The following table and illustrations from Head show the areas of referred pains (Fig. 441).

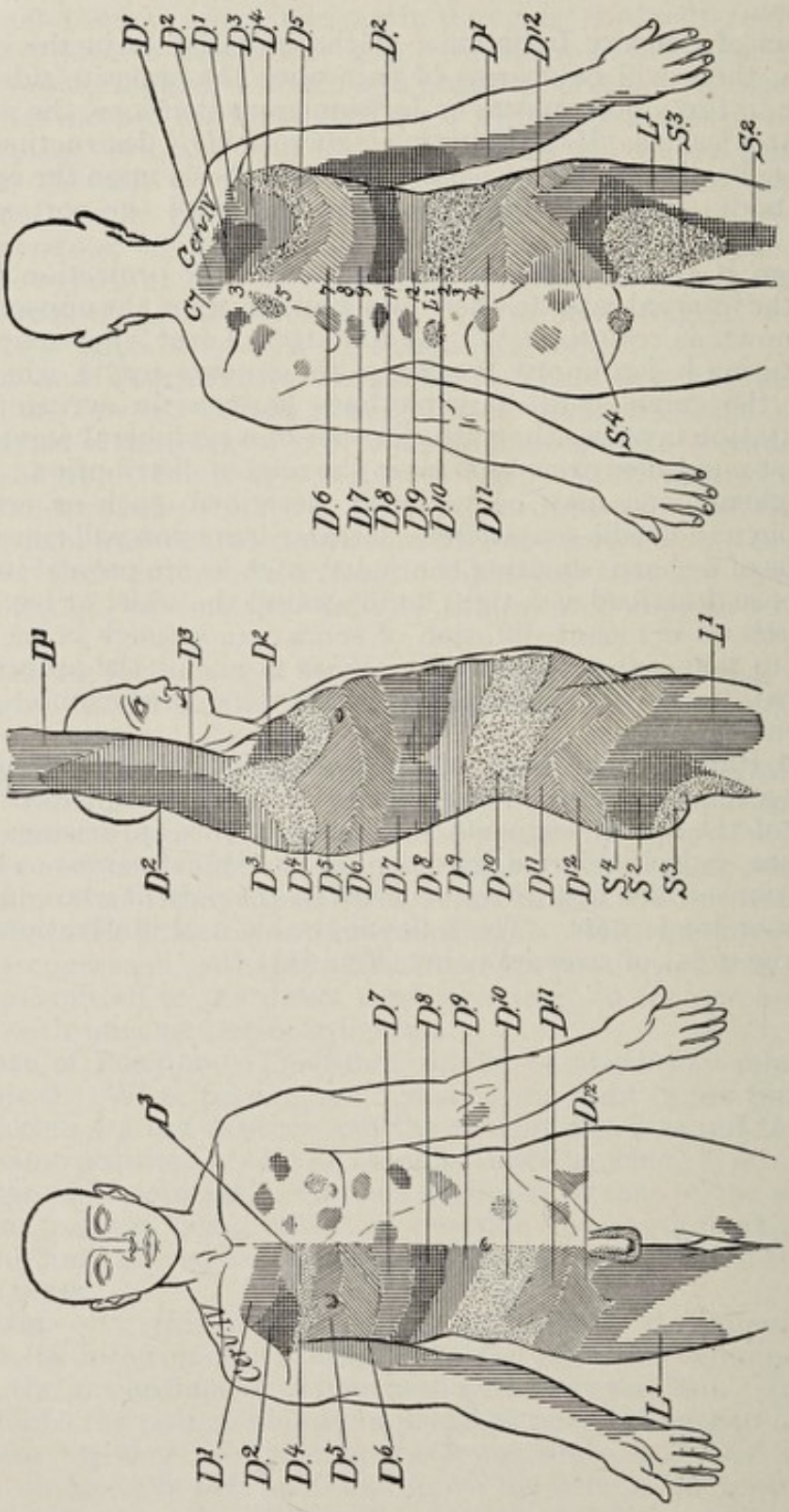


FIG. 441.—CUTANEOUS AREAS AND MAXIMAL POINTS OF PAIN RELATED TO THE VERTEBRAL SEGMENTS (after Head).

TABLE SHOWING AREAS OF PAIN REFERRED FROM VISCERAL DISEASE

Heart.—First, 2d, 3d, dorsal segments.
Lungs.—First, 2d, 3d, 4th, 5th dorsal.
Stomach.—Sixth, 7th, 8th, 9th dorsal; cardiac end from 6th and 7th
Pyloric end from 9th.
Intestines.—(A) Down to upper part of rectum.
Ninth, 10th, 11th and 12th dorsal.

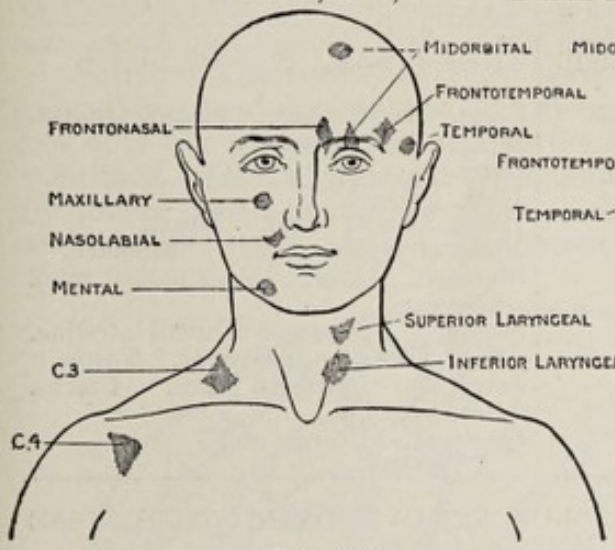


FIG. 442.

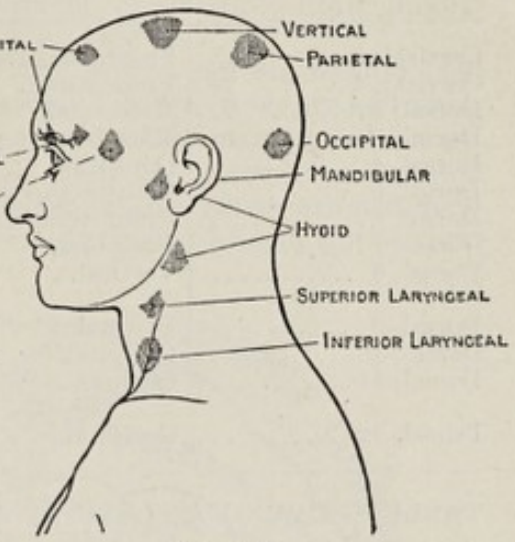


FIG. 443.

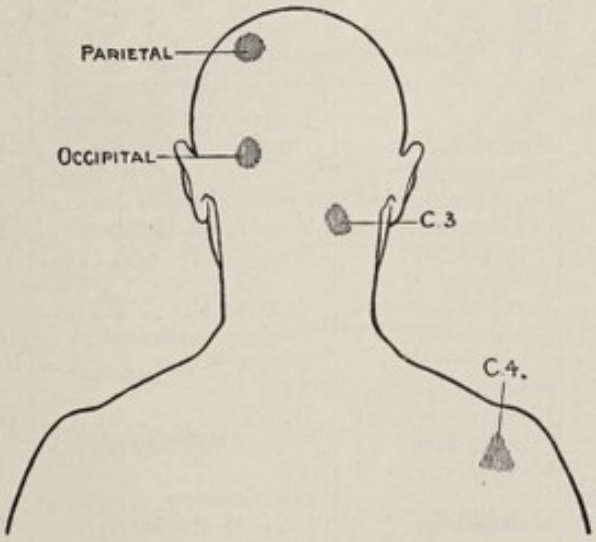


FIG. 444.

FIGS. 442, 443, AND 444.—MAXIMAL POINTS OF REFERRED AND ASSOCIATED PAIN ON THE HEAD AND FACE (after Head).

(B) Rectum.
Second, 3d, and 4th sacral.
Liver and Gall-bladder.—Seventh, 8th, 9th, 10th dorsal.
Perhaps 6th dorsal.
Kidney and Ureter.—Tenth, 11th, and 12th. The nearer the lesion lies to the kidney, the more is the pain and tenderness associated with the 10th dorsal. The lower the lesion in the ureter, the more does the 1st lumbar tend to appear.
Bladder.—(A) Mucous membrane and neck of bladder.
First, 2d, 3d, 4th sacral.
(B) Overdistention and ineffectual contraction.
Eleventh and 12th dorsal and 1st lumbar.
Prostate.—Tenth, 11th, 12th dorsal.
First, 2d, 3d sacral and 5th lumbar.
Epididymis.—Eleventh and 12th dorsal and 1st lumbar.
Testis.—Tenth dorsal.
Ovary.—Tenth dorsal.
Appendages, etc.—Eleventh and 12th dorsal and 1st lumbar.
Uterus.—(A) In contraction.
Tenth, 11th, 12th dorsal and 1st lumbar.
(B) Os uteri.
First, 2d, 3d, 4th sacral, and 5th lumbar very rarely.

In the following tables Head has also shown the relation of head pains to visceral diseases and diseases of the head and neck.

TABLE SHOWING ASSOCIATED PAINFUL AREAS ON THE HEAD RELATED TO VISCERAL DISEASE IN THE BODY

Area on Body	Associated Area on Scalp	Organs in Particular Relation to These Areas
Cervical, 3	Frontonasal (rostral).	Apices of lungs. Stomach. Liver.
Cervical, 4	Frontonasal.	
Dorsal, 2	Midorbital.	Lung. Heart. Ascending arch of aorta.
Dorsal, 3	Midorbital.	Lung. Arch of aorta.
Dorsal, 4	Doubtful.	Lung.
Dorsal, 5	Frontotemporal	Lung. Heart.
Dorsal, 6	Frontotemporal.	Lower lobe of lungs. Heart.
Dorsal, 7	Temporal.	Bases of lungs. Heart. Stomach.
Dorsal, 8	Vertical.	Stomach. Liver. Upper part of small intestine.
Dorsal, 9	Parietal.	Stomach. Upper part of small intestine.
Dorsal, 10	Occipital.	Liver. Intestine. Ovaries. Testes.
Dorsal, 11	Occipital.	Intestine. Fallopian tubes. Uterus. Bladder.
Dorsal, 12	Occipital.	Intestine. Uterus, etc.

TABLE SHOWING ASSOCIATED PAINFUL AREAS RELATED TO DISEASE WITHIN THE HEAD AND NECK

Organ at Fault	Maxima of Pain and Tenderness	Organ at Fault	Maxima of Pain and Tenderness
Ciliary muscle (errors of accommodation)	Midorbital.	Lower first and second molars	Hyoid and pain in the ear.
Cornea	Frontonasal.		
Iris	Frontotemporal. Temporal and maxillary.	Lower third molar	Superior laryngeal.
		Membrani tympani	Hyoid.
		Middle ear	Vertical and behind ear.
Vitreous (glaucoma)	Temporal.		
Retina	Vertical.	Tongue, tip	Mental.
Teeth (upper incisors)	Frontonasal.	Tongue, lateral part	In ear and hyoid.
		Tongue, base	Superior laryngeal. Occipital.
Upper canine and first bicuspid	Nasolabial.		
Upper second bicuspid	Temporal or maxillary.	Tonsil	In ear and hyoid.
		Nose, olfactory portion	Frontonasal and midorbital.
Upper first molar	Maxillary.		
Upper second and third molars	Mandibular.	Respiratory portion and posterior nares	Nasolabial.
		Larynx	Superior and inferior laryngeal.
Lower incisors, canine, and first bicuspid	Mental.		
Lower second bicuspid	Mental or hyoid.		

CEREBRAL LOCALIZATION

Motor Centers.—The motor functions have been placed directly in front of the central or Rolandic fissure in the precentral convolution on the lateral surface of the brain, and in the anterior part of the paracentral convolution on the median surface. Every movement has its cortical representation, the head center being in the lower part of the precentral convolution, then the centers for the face, arm, trunk, abdomen, and leg, coming in order, that for the leg being on top. Thus, a man stands upside down in his motor cortex. Should there be any lesion such as would irritate any of these centers,—for instance, a tumor in the arm area on the right side of the brain,—there would result convulsive movements of the

upper limb. Should this lesion destroy this center, paralysis of the limb would result. It must be remembered that while the centers concerned in the innervation of structures necessary for a movement are somewhat distinct, there cannot be and there is not a definite division, and that the nerve-cells related to different functions are in apposition and intermingle. Thus it is that irritation by an electric current or by a tumor, for instance, of the arm area, while it will cause a convulsion of an upper limb, might also cause movements of the lower limb (Fig. 445).

Sensory Centers.—Directly back of the motor centers behind the central fissure are located the sensory functions. In this area are included not only the postcentral but also the superior and inferior parietal convolutions. In the postcentral convolution itself are placed the centers for touch, pain, temperature, that is, those sensations which are primary and which develop first. Their localization is similar and in apposition

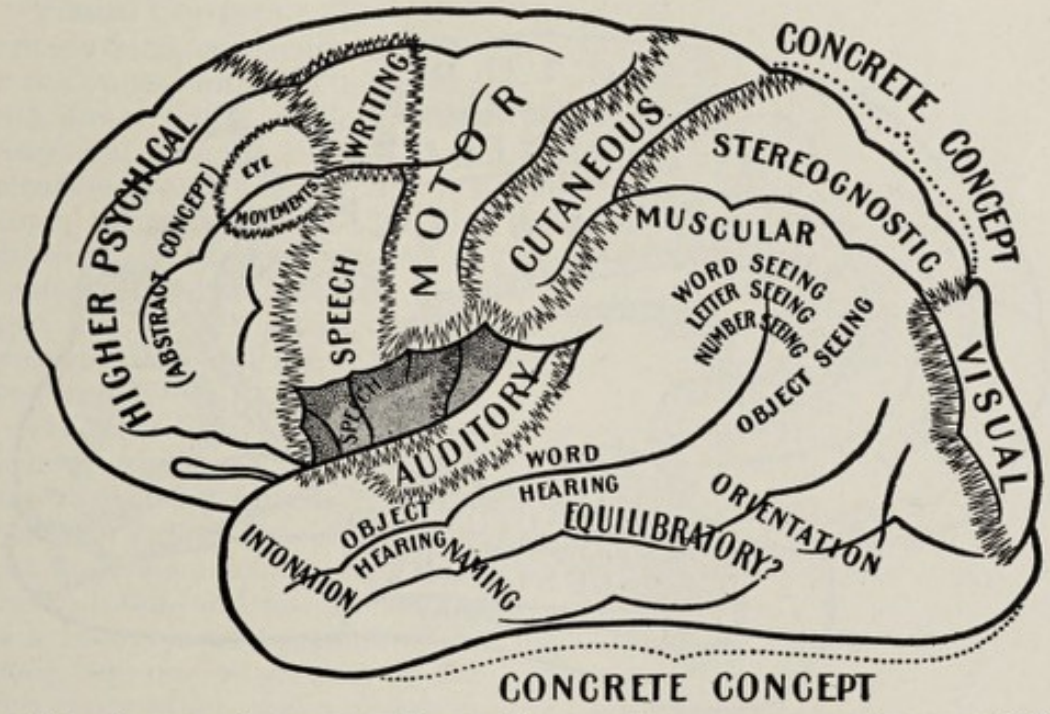


FIG. 445.—LATERAL SURFACE OF BRAIN, SHOWING LOCALIZATION OF FUNCTION (Mills).

to that of the motor functions, that is, those which are concerned in the innervation of the head are below and of the leg on top. In the parietal convolution have been placed the centers for the so-called acquired sensations, that is, the senses of pressure, movement, position, localization, and stereognosis, or the ability to recognize objects placed in the hand. In the inferior parietal convolution the above sensations are localized for the upper limb, and in the superior parietal convolution for the lower limb. Should there be any irritative lesion, for instance, in the center for sensation in the upper limb on the right side of the brain, there will be numbness and pain localized in the left upper limb, these sensations being analogous to the convulsive movements which result from irritative phenomena of the motor centers. Destruction of any sensory center will also in a similar way produce loss of sensation or anesthesia.

Aphasia.—Within a few years the question of aphasia has aroused renewed interest, because of the contention of Pierre Marie that there is neither motor nor sensory aphasia, but that it is entirely due to a disturbance of general intelligence, and specifically of that concerned with

language. He rejects the old and classic view that speech has cortical localization, and contends that it is entirely an intellectual process, and that whenever there is a lesion of so-called Wernicke's zone,—in which he includes the superior and inferior parietal lobes and the posterior portion of the first and second temporal convolutions,—there will be defect of intelligence for the comprehension of spoken language, or what is ordinarily called sensory aphasia; and if, in addition, there is a lesion in the lenticular zone, in which he includes the lenticular nucleus, there will be anarthria or difficulty in articulation, or what is ordinarily called motor aphasia. The controversy is still going on, and the writer has deemed it advisable to present here the old views with some modifications.

Motor Aphasia.—In the posterior portion of the third or inferior frontal convolution is Broca's convolution, that is, the gyrus which surrounds the end of the ascending limb of the fissure of Sylvius. This convolution is adjacent and in front of the head and face center, and is

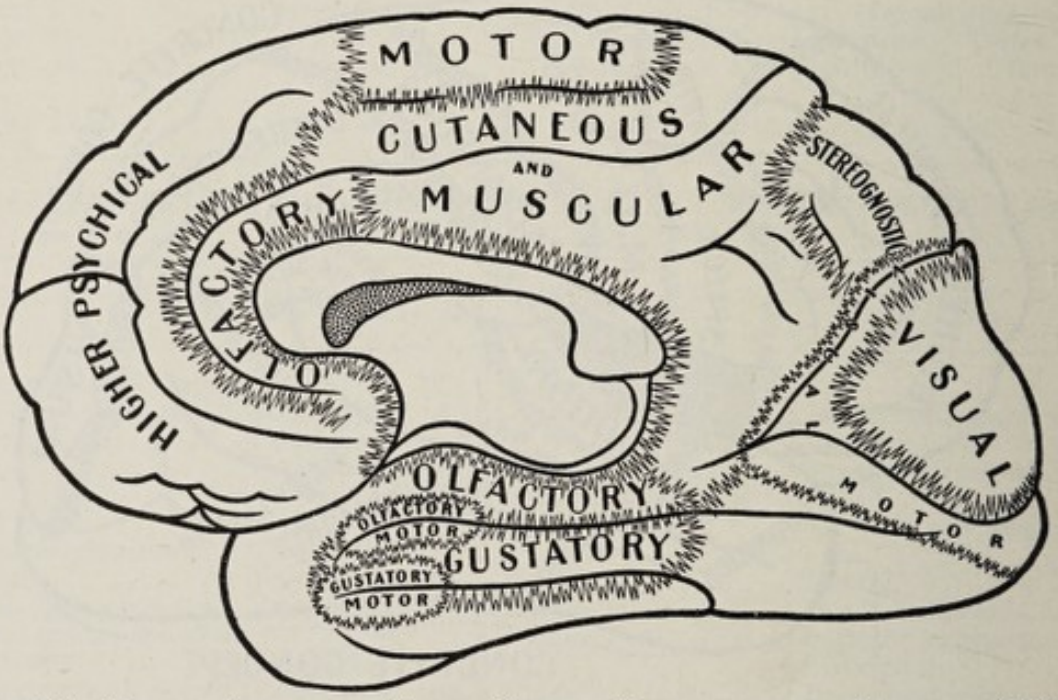


Fig. 446.—Mesial Surface of Brain, Showing Localization of Function (Mills).

the part of the brain which controls motor speech. Should there be a disturbance of this center, the patient would know what he wanted to say, would understand everything said to him, but would not be able to talk or repeat words; not because of any paralysis of the muscles which are concerned in speech, but because of destruction of the coördinating center which controls these muscles. This is motor aphasia.

As the majority of us are right-handed, the speech center is localized mostly in the left cortex. In left-handed persons, however, the speech center is on the right side of the brain. Another important point must be remembered: what act controls the right- or left-handedness of the individual? Given a person who is equally skilful with either hand, but who writes with the right, such a person will be right-handed. In other words, the function of writing, which is perhaps the highest of the developmental functions, controls the side on which the speech center is principally localized (Fig. 445).

Sensory Aphasia.—In the middle portion of the left first and second temporal convolutions in right-handed persons is the center for sensory

speech. A lesion of this part will cause loss of memory for words. Such a person would be unable to understand what is said to him, but he would be able to talk because his motor apparatus is intact. His words, however, would be unintelligible and devoid of meaning.

Word and Letter Blindness.—Around the end of the first temporal convolution is what is called the angular gyrus. This convolution is directly back of the inferior parietal or sensory convolution, and between it and the visual or occipital centers. In right-handed persons this center controls the ability to recognize words, letters, and figures. In a destruction of this are the patient will be unable to write his name, or, in fact, to write anything, or to read words, letters, or figures or to write from dictation. He would, however, be able to recognize other objects, as pictures or music, or he would be able to sketch or draw or recall from memory any object in which words, letters, and figures are not concerned. This is called word, letter, or figure blindness.

Visual Centers.—The centers for vision are localized in the occipital convolutions, especially around the part surrounding the calcarine fissure or the cuneal lobe. The parts around the calcarine fissure are concerned with direct vision, while the other portions of the occipital cortex control peripheral vision. Should there be a lesion, for instance, of the right calcarine fissure, there would be loss of direct vision in the left half of each central visual field. In a lesion of the occipital lobe of the right side there will result blindness of the left half of each visual field, that is, left lateral homonymous hemianopsia, because the right occipital lobe supplies the right half of each retina, this controlling the left field of vision. In an irritating lesion of these parts, there will be flashes of light in the corresponding fields.

Psychic Centers.—The higher psychic functions have been placed in the frontal lobes, and especially in the left. In any lesion of these lobes there will result failure of memory, loss of intelligence and of reasoning, change of disposition and of character. It must be remembered, however, that there is no definite mental disturbance associated with a lesion of the frontal lobes, and failure of intelligence is not diagnostic of such lesion, for a lesion in any portion of the brain must cause some loss of intelligence, for every portion of the cortex is in constant communication with every other, and a destruction of one part must cause a disturbance of the integral whole.

Subcortical Centers.—Generally speaking the symptoms of a tumor or a lesion localized underneath the cortex will depend entirely upon what fibers are cut off. As any lesion will interfere with the fibers related to more than one function, the symptoms will never be clean-cut. For instance, a tumor localized underneath the precentral convolution will not only have motor symptoms but will also cause disturbance of sensation.

Cerebral Centers for Bilateral Acting Functions, Such as Laughing, Crying, Eating, and Swallowing.—While it is acknowledged that in the cortex are localized the centers for every motion, sensation, and special act, it must be remembered that this is only in so far as simple acts, like lifting a finger or moving a limb, are concerned. Where, for instance, it is necessary to perform a complex act, such as talking, laughing, crying, eating, and swallowing, there must be some one place or center which coördinates the different functions which such an act must constitute. The speech centers, probably because of their importance, are largely localized in the cortex, but they also have representation in the subcortex. As to where the centers for laughing, crying,

eating, and swallowing are, we are not certain, but we believe that they must be localized in some of the ganglia in the subcortex; among these the optic thalamus and the lenticular and caudate nucleus probably playing the most important rôle.

The Optic Thalamus.—The thalamus is anatomically divided into two halves by the lamina interna, its internal portion consisting of the anterior and median nucleus, and its external of the lateral nucleus, which is divided into anterior, middle, and posterior thirds, and dorsal and ventral halves. It also contains the center, median, and arcuate nuclei and the ventral nucleus, which are in the basal part of the thalamus. The pulvinar forms the posterior part. It is known that the continuation of the fibers of the fillet end in the anterior dorsal part of the lateral nucleus, while the continuation of the fibers of the superior cerebellar peduncle end in the posterior part of the lateral nucleus.

The functions of the thalamus are not accurately known. Lesions limited to it, however, cause the following group of symptoms: Vasomotor and trophic phenomena, principally on the side opposite the lesion, but sometimes on the same side, these consisting in burning and prickly sensations, flushes of heat, sometimes of cold, aching pains, and rarely of erythematous or acneiform eruptions. Secondly, because of the irritation of the sensory fibers, disturbance of sensation, especially of touch and muscle sense, and sometimes astereognosis and pains in the limbs of the contralateral side. Thirdly, disturbances in the emotions, the patient being able to voluntarily innervate the facial muscles, but unable to laugh or cry on the side opposite the lesion. Occasionally there is involuntary howling or crying. Fourthly, involuntary movements, consisting sometimes in deviation of the head, neck, and body to the opposite side, or of incoördinate movements, these being the result of irritation of the fibers which are the continuation of the superior cerebellar peduncle. If the internal capsule is pressed upon, there are disturbances of motion on the opposite side, but sometimes, because of pressure upon the knee of the internal capsule, disturbance in the central innervation of the face, muscles of mastication, and tongue.

Caudate and Lenticular Nucleus.—Nothing definite is known of the functions of these structures. Bilateral lesions of the lenticular nucleus sometimes cause involuntary laughing and crying, and because of the recent work of Marie the lenticula has been considered a part of the zone of speech. (See Tremor of Paralysis Agitans, p. 1336.)

Localization of Fibers in Internal Capsule.—The internal capsule is the name given to the pathway of fibers (Fig. 447) which come from the cortex. It contains an anterior limb, a knee, and a posterior limb. The anterior limb transmits the fibers coming from the frontal to the opposing cerebellar lobe, the so-called fronto-cerebellar fibers. The knee of the internal capsule transmits those fibers which come from the lowest portion of the precentral convolution, *i. e.*, the head and face centers, these being the fibers which go to the nuclei of the cranial nerves situated in the crus, pons, and medulla, *i. e.*, from the third to the twelfth nerves inclusive.

The posterior limb of the internal capsule transmits in its anterior portion the motor fibers, in its middle the sensory, and in its posterior portion the fibers which come from the occipital or visual lobes. Should there be a lesion of the posterior limb of the internal capsule, as, for instance, a hemorrhage, there would result hemiplegia, hemianesthesia, and hemianopsia on the other side. This is the only place in the brain where one lesion will always give these three symptoms.

The Crus or Cerebral Peduncles.—The cerebral peduncles are practically the continuations of the posterior limbs of the internal capsule and transmit the fibers for motion and sensation, thus connecting the brain proper with the brain stem.

The nucleus of every cranial nerve, from the third to the twelfth inclusive, receives its innervation from the opposite cortical center. The first and second cranial nerves do not enter in this, as they are really parts of the brain. The nucleus of the third or the oculomotor nerve is situated in the posterior portion of the crus and its fibers have their exit at the foot of the cerebral peduncles.

A *unilateral lesion*, therefore, of the *cerebral peduncle* would always give oculomotor palsy on the same side, and paralysis of the arm and leg only on the other side of the body.

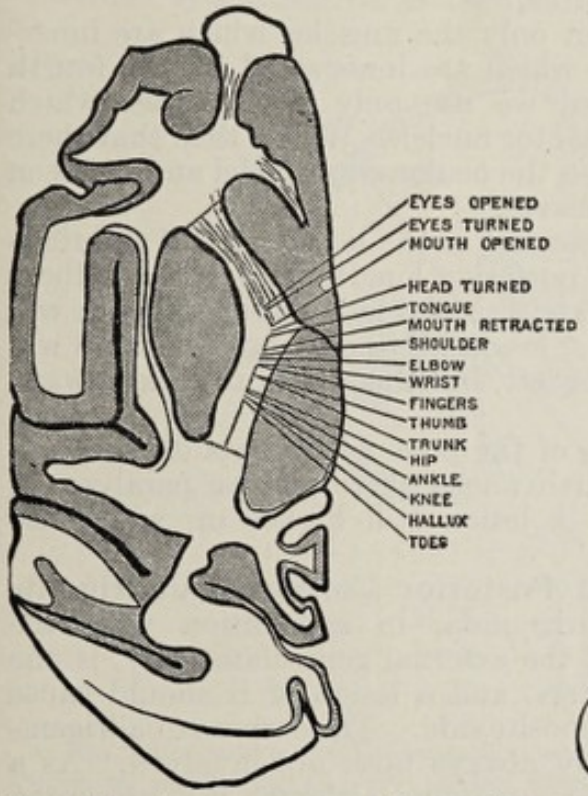


FIG. 447.—ARRANGEMENT OF MOTOR PATHS IN THE INTERNAL CAPSULE (after Ferrier).

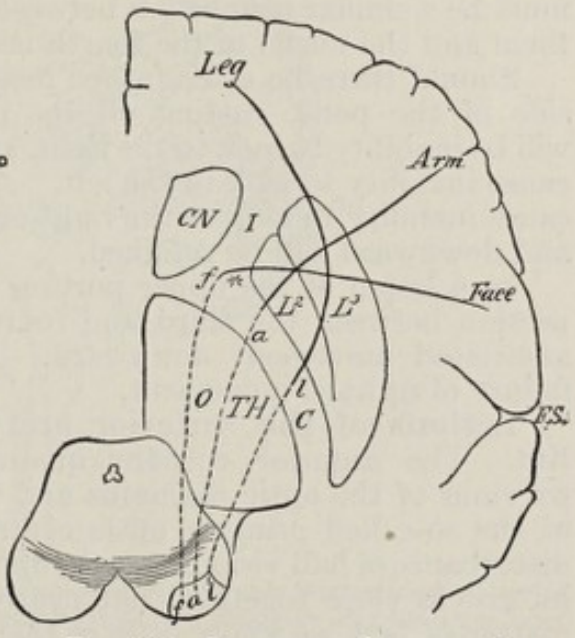


FIG. 448.—DIAGRAM TO SHOW THE RELATIVE POSITION OF THE SEVERAL MOTOR TRACTS IN THEIR COURSE FROM THE CORTEX TO THE CRUS (Gowers).

The section through the convolutions is vertical; that through the internal capsule, *I*, *C*, horizontal; that through the crus is again vertical; *CN*, caudate nucleus; *O*, *TH*, optic thalamus; L^2 and L^3, the middle and outer parts of the lenticular nucleus; *f*, *a*, *l*, face, arm, and leg fibers. The words in italics indicate the corresponding cortical centers.

The Pons.—In the pons are located the nuclei of the fifth, sixth, seventh, and partially of the eighth cranial nerves, the exits of these nerves corresponding in order. In a *unilateral lesion of the upper part of the pons* there will be paralysis of the fifth nerve on the same side with hemiplegia of the opposite side. In a *lesion limited to the lower portion of the pons* there will result facial palsy on the same side and paralysis of the arm and leg only on the other side.

In discussing the symptoms of lesions in the crus and pons, it has been assumed that these are confined to the anterior portions of these structures. Should the lesion, however, be more extensive, there would necessarily have to be involvement of the sensory fibers, which are local-

ized directly back of the motor, and there would result, in addition, sensory symptoms on the other side.

Paralysis of Associated Ocular Movement.—Should, however, the lesions involve the median portions of the crus and pons, there would be paralysis of associated ocular movement. This is rather difficult to understand unless it is remembered that it is impossible to move one eye without the other, and therefore every movement of the eyeballs must be an associated movement. When we look to the right, we use not only the external rectus muscle on the right side, but also the left internal rectus, *i. e.*, we are receiving innervation from the nuclei of the sixth and third cranial nerves. To make this possible there must be a connection between these nuclei, and this is effected by the posterior longitudinal bundle, which is located in the posterior and median portions of the crus and pons.

In looking downward we use not only the muscles which are innervated by the third, but also those which are innervated by the fourth cranial nerves. In looking upward we use only the muscles which receive innervation from both oculomotor nuclei. We see then that there must be a similar connection between the oculomotor nuclei and between them and the nuclei of the fourth nerves.

Should there be a lesion, for instance, in the lower part of the right side of the pons, cutting off the posterior longitudinal bundle, there will be inability to look to the right, and a similar lesion on the left side will cause inability to look to the left. A lesion cutting off both bundles will cause inability to look to the right or left, but the ability to look upward and downward will be retained.

In a lesion of the upper portion of the pons which cuts off the connection between the third and fourth nuclei there will be paralysis of associated movement downward. A lesion still higher up will cause failure of upward movement.

Lesions of the Anterior and Posterior Corpora Quadrigemina.—The anterior corpora quadrigemina, in association with the pulvinar of the optic thalamus and the external geniculate body, is one of the so-called primary optic centers, and a lesion of it should cause disturbance of half vision upon the opposite side. The corpora quadrigemini are so close together that nearly always both are involved. As a matter of fact we know little of their functions, although it is presumed that the anterior are concerned with vision and the posterior transmit the central fibers of hearing. Nearly always lesions of this part are extensions of tumors, either from the aqueduct of Sylvius or more commonly from the pons, peduncle, or cerebellum. Because of the proximity of the third and fourth nuclei they will be involved early and bilaterally, and as the tumor grows the sensory and then the motor fibers become affected. Nearly always the fifth nerve is either unilaterally or bilaterally diseased.

Partial or Total Lesions of the Medulla Oblongata.—Isolated lesions are unusual. As a rule, tumors occupying this part are extensions from the pons or cerebellum. Hemorrhages are rare, and nearly always cause sudden death because of involvement of the ninth and tenth nerves. Thrombosis or embolism, especially of the inferior cerebellar artery, is not at all unusual, and is especially prone to occur on the left side. The symptoms in such a case will be unilateral disease of the eighth, ninth, tenth, eleventh, and twelfth nerves, with involvement of the motor and sensory fibers innervating the opposing arm and leg.

The Cerebellum.—Anatomy.—The cerebellum consists of a middle portion or the vermis and two lateral lobes. It is connected with the rest of the brain by three processes called the cerebellar peduncles, the superior or first connecting it with the brain proper, the middle with the pons, and the inferior with the medulla and spinal cord. In the middle are situated the dentate nuclei, the nucleus fastigii, and the nuclei emboliformis and globosus. In addition certain nuclei situated in the medulla oblongata are in direct communication with the cerebellum, and should be regarded really as part of it. These include Deiters' nucleus, the nucleus vestibularis, and the nucleus magnocellularis substantia reticularis—these being called together the paracerebellar nuclei.

The **functions** of the cerebellum are not definitely known. Experimental and clinical evidence seems to show that lesions in any portion will produce symptoms of incoördination of a definite character. It has

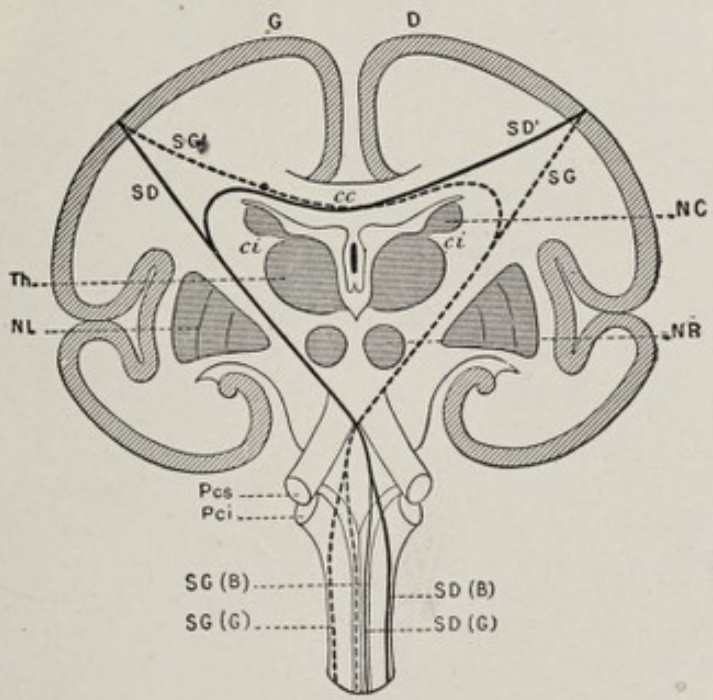


FIG. 449—SCHEMATIC VERTICAL TRANSVERSE SECTION OF THE HEMISPHERES PASSING THROUGH THE INTERNAL CAPSULE AND REPRESENTING THE SENSORY PATHWAYS (Church and Peterson, after Brissaud).

G, Left hemisphere; D, right hemisphere; *cc*, corpus callosum; *ci*, internal capsule; SG, sensory pathway from left side of cord; SD, sensory pathway from right side of cord. Both sides are brought into intimate relation through the corpus callosum, and the sensory representation is uniformly bilateral.

recently been demonstrated by Sir Victor Horsley that the cortex of the cerebellum is inexcitable, but that irritation of the intrinsic cerebellar nuclei will produce conjugate deviation of the eyes and head to the same side, besides flexion of the homolateral elbow, and that deeper excitation of the paracerebellar region will produce extension of the contralateral elbow, hyperextension of the neck and trunk, with powerful extension of the lower limbs.

It is probable that the cerebellum is concerned with the coördination of every voluntary movement, whether this be of the limbs, eyes, or of those muscles which are concerned in articulation, eating, or swallowing. It is characteristic of cerebellar incoördination that it is only apparent in voluntary movements, and that it does not increase when the object is attained or when the eyes are shut, and that it is not dependent upon any disturbance of peripheral sensation.

It has also been recently held that lesions of the cerebellum will produce weakness or paresis of the muscles of the trunk and limbs, but this is not a true weakness in the sense that it is not dependent upon the motor fibers. Besides, there may be present in the muscles a lack of tone, so that it would be possible to move the limbs like a flail. If the lesion is in the middle lobe or the vermis, the symptoms of incoördination

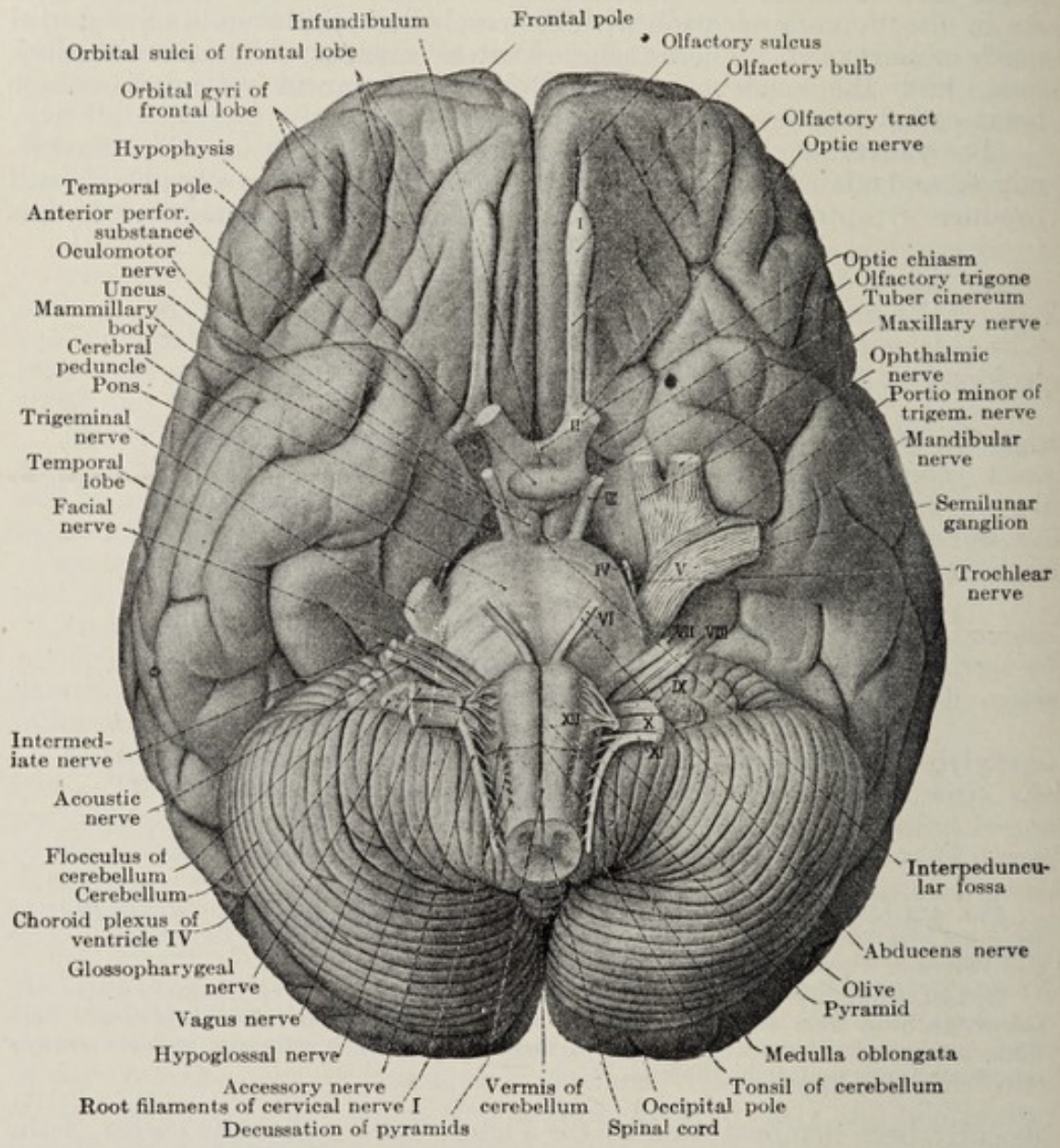


FIG. 450.—THE BASE OF THE ENTIRE BRAIN, WITH THE POINTS OF EMERGENCE OF THE TWELVE CEREBRAL NERVES UPON THE LEFT (Sobotta and McMurrich).

The entire semilunar ganglion has been retained. The hypophysis has been displaced slightly backward and compressed to expose the infundibulum. The Roman numerals indicate the number of the cerebral nerves.

are most marked, and will involve both parts of the body, while unilateral lesions will of course produce unilateral ataxia and atonia.

Whatever symptoms are produced by lesions of the cerebellum or by those lesions which invade the cerebellum by pressure are dependent upon this disturbance of coördination. This is apparent in every movement, whether it be in the gait, station, in the movement of a limb or limbs, or

of the eyes or of those muscles which are concerned in eating, talking, and swallowing. Other localizing symptoms will be discussed under the head of cerebellar tumors.

The Cranial Nerves and Their Diseases

There are twelve pairs of cranial nerves. These are known either by special names or numerically. The first and second, or the olfactory and optic, should really be considered as parts of the brain proper and not as distinct cranial nerves (Fig. 450).

THE OLFACTORY NERVE

The center for the olfactory nerve is not definitely known, but its function is concerned with smell, the loss of which (anosmia) is very frequent in fracture of the base of the skull. It is also lost in inflammatory conditions of the nose and turbinate bones and in any lesion which destroys the olfactory nerves or bulbs. Irritative disturbances of smell (parosmia) are present in hysteria and other functional neuroses or may sometimes form the aura of an epileptic convulsion.

THE OPTIC NERVE

The optic or second nerve is the nerve of vision. From the orbits, in their course backward, the optic nerves enter into and form the optic chiasm, and then the optic tract, and from here the visual fibers go to the primary optic centers, this constituting the anterior corpora quadrigemina, the external geniculate body, and the pulvinar or the posterior portion of the optic thalamus. From here the fibers pass through the extreme posterior portion of the posterior limb of the internal capsule to the occipital lobe.

It must be remembered that the visual fibers coming, for instance, from the right occipital lobe, innervate the right half of each retina or the temporal part on the same side, and the nasal on the other, and thereby supply vision to the left half of each visual field. A lesion interrupting the fibers coming from the right visual centers or the occipital lobe, for instance, either in the extreme posterior portion of the posterior limb of the internal capsule or in the so-called primary optic centers or in the optic tract, must give loss of half vision in both visual fields on the other side or left *lateral homonymous hemianopsia.*

The decussation of the optic fibers takes place in the chiasm and that of the nasal fibers in the center. A lesion, therefore, in the center of the optic chiasm will cause loss of innervation to the nasal part of each retina, or *bitemporal hemianopsia* (Fig. 451).

A lesion interrupting the fibers on either side of the optic chiasm, as, for instance, the right, will cause loss of innervation to the right temporal retina, and therefore loss of the nasal field of vision of the right eye. A bilateral lesion must give bilateral loss of vision of the nasal fields, or *binasal hemianopsia.*

A lesion destroying the whole optic chiasm, as, for instance, a tumor of the hypophysis, will cause loss of vision in both eyes. Destruction of either optic nerve will, of course, give blindness in the corresponding eye.

Choked Disc or Optic Neuritis.—Whenever there occurs increase in intracranial pressure, whether because of a brain tumor, trauma, or internal hydrocephalus, pressure will be exerted upon the optic chiasm and optic nerves. This is because pressure in any portion of the brain will result in

a heightened tension in the lateral and third ventricles, the latter pressing directly upon the optic chiasm and optic nerves.

In every choked disc there must be some inflammation of the optic nerve or optic neuritis, but in optic neuritis choked disc does not necessarily occur, for the latter is distinctly a pressure symptom. When the optic nerve is pressed upon, there will be first a stasis of the vessels, this resulting in a swelling of the veins, it being so severe at times as to produce hemorrhages. There will also be retardation of the arterial flow, this causing a diminution in the size of the arteries. Because of this stasis there will result an edema, it causing a swelling of the optic nerve-fibers or of the optic nerve-head. If the pressure is continued, the nerve-fibers will become diseased, this resulting in impairment of vision. This is

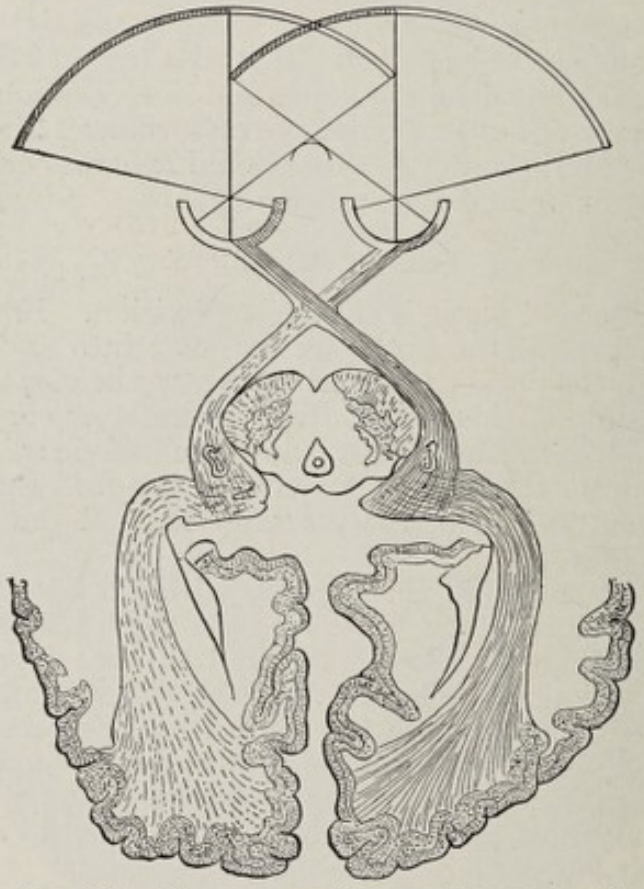


Fig. 451.—Diagram of Visual Paths (Starr).

choked disc. If the pressure is continued for a long time there will necessarily result atrophy of the optic nerve-fibers.

Optic Atrophy.—Optic atrophy may be primary or secondary. When primary, it may be the result of an atrophic condition of the optic nerve, but it generally indicates a spinal cord disease, such as locomotor ataxia, Friedreich's ataxia, or any spinal cord disease in which the posterior columns are involved. Secondary optic atrophy is nearly always the result of an old choked disc or optic neuritis.

Pupils and Their Reactions.—The ciliary muscles react to two forms of stimulus: (1) light, (2) movement of the eyeballs. No matter what the stimulation, the contraction or dilatation of the pupil is performed by the same muscles, but the innervation differs. The ordinary light stimulation is transmitted by means of the optic nerves to the oculomotor nucleus, and from here the impulse to the ciliary muscle is carried by the oculomotor nerve. This is the light reflex arc, and if there is any

disturbance anywhere in the arc, there will be impairment or loss of the reaction of the pupil to light. The fibers which are concerned with the reaction of the pupil to movement, as, for instance, in convergence and divergence, and in upward, downward, and outward movements, have probably a similar arc, with the addition that they are in connection with the nuclei of the muscles necessary to perform a certain ocular movement.

THE OCULOMOTOR NERVE

The oculomotor or third nerve supplies all the muscles of the eyeball with the exception of the superior oblique and the external rectus. A total paralysis will cause drooping or ptosis of the upper lid, outward and downward deviation of the eye, with inability to move it in any but the outward and downward direction, and an enlarged pupil which does not react to any form of stimulation. Unilateral paralysis is nearly always due to basal syphilis (Fig. 452). It must also be remembered that just at the exit point of the third nerve at the foot of the cerebral peduncle, the different fibers which make up the nerve are still separated, and it is possible for a basal syphilitic lesion to involve only a few of the fibers. It is because of this that at times only a partial oculomotor paralysis will result from syphilis, such, for instance, as internal rectus palsy, drooping of the upper lid, or disturbance of the iridic reflexes. Fractures of the base of the skull, basal tumors, and aneurisms may rarely cause oculomotor palsy.



Fig. 452.—Syphilitic Oculomotor Palsy. Drooping of the Left Upper Lid.

The nuclei of the oculomotor nerves in the posterior portion of the crus are very close together, and a lesion or a hemorrhage in this area will nearly always cause bilateral oculomotor palsy. The disease causing such hemorrhage is known as *acute superior polioencephalitis* (of Wernicke). It comes on acutely and is usually accompanied by fever and its attending symptoms, and the pathology consists in multiple hemorrhages and areas of inflammation in the gray matter surrounding the aqueduct of Sylvius. The nuclei of the fourth and sixth cranial nerves may also be involved, and there will result what is known as complete bilateral *ophthalmoplegia*, or paralysis of all the muscles of the eyeball, causing inability to move the eyes in any direction. Areas of inflammation or hemorrhage sometimes involve the cranial nuclei in the lower portion of the pons and medulla, and we may have, in addition to the ophthalmoplegia, the symptoms of such involvement. Rarely the disease in the lower part of the pons or medulla is independent, when it is known as *acute inferior polioencephalitis* (of Wernicke). In such cases we have the symptoms of acute bulbar paralysis, with difficulty in talking, eating, and swallowing, and paralysis of the muscles innervated by the seventh, ninth, tenth, eleventh, and twelfth nerves.

Ophthalmoplegia, or paralysis of all the muscles of the eyeball, may be internal, external, or complete. By *internal ophthalmoplegia* is meant paralysis of the ciliary muscles, this resulting in rigid pupils. By *external ophthalmoplegia* is meant paralysis of the external muscles of the eye. In complete ophthalmoplegia there is inability to move the eyeballs in any direction, drooping of the upper lid, and rigid pupils. Unilateral ophthalmoplegia may result from a lesion in back of the eyeball, and commonly occurs in *cavernous sinus thrombosis*, when there will be, in addition to the ophthalmoplegia, a protrusion of the eyeball with stasis of the veins and edema of the lids. In nearly all cases of cavernous sinus thrombosis there will ultimately be bilateral involvement.

Bilateral external ophthalmoplegia may be the terminal stage of an old polioencephalitis, may be part of a chronic degeneration of the motor cranial nuclei, as in progressive bulbar palsy, or may be an independent disease coming on in childhood or in early adult life with apparently no recognizable cause, when it is called chronic ophthalmoplegia.

THE TROCHLEAR NERVE

Isolated paralysis of the trochlear or fourth nerve is an extremely rare condition and hardly ever occurs. It is generally found in association with palsies of the other ocular muscles. This nerve supplies the superior oblique muscle, which pulls the eye downward and outward. Basal syphilis is nearly always the cause of paralysis.

THE ABDUCENS NERVE

The abducens or sixth nerve supplies the external rectus muscle, which pulls the eye outward (Fig. 450). Temporary or permanent paralysis is a very frequent and early symptom in basal syphilis and brain tumors. This nerve is probably more frequently diseased than any of the other ocular nerves. This is partially due to the fact that it has the longest course of any of the nerves in the base of the brain, and it is therefore more vulnerable to pressure, trauma, or a lesion in any portion of the skull. Its involvement with other nerves has already been discussed.

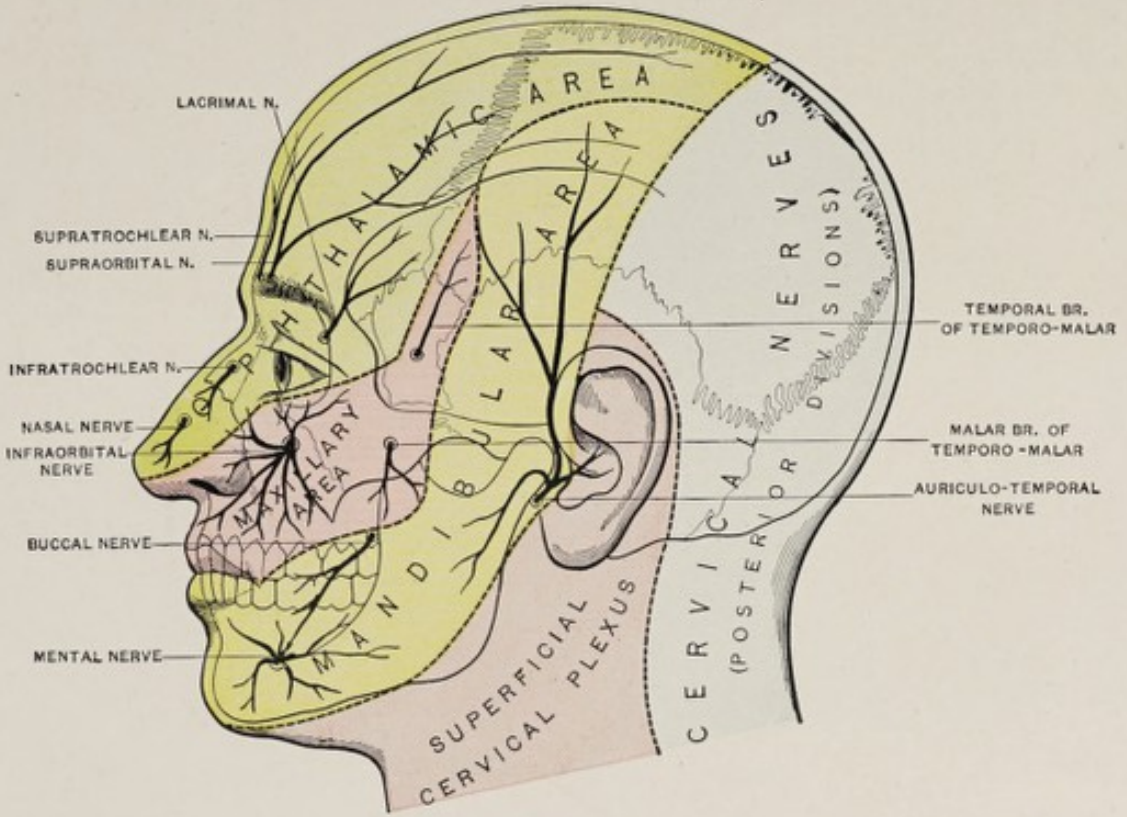
THE TRIGEMINUS NERVE

The trigeminus, or the fifth nerve, has both a sensory and a motor function, it being mostly sensory. The motor part supplies the muscles of mastication. The sensory division supplies sensation for the face, eye, nose, palate, and pharynx, and also the anterior two-thirds of the tongue.

In **paralysis of the motor fifth** there will be inability to chew on the side of the paralysis, the contraction of the masseter and temporal muscles will be weak, and the jaw will deviate toward the affected side. Isolated paralysis of the motor fifth nerve never occurs, and when present may be one of the symptoms of chronic nuclear degeneration of the bulbar nerves. It may, of course, occur in pontile tumors, when there are, in addition, such other symptoms as paralysis of associated ocular movement and hemiplegia. When the result of a basal lesion, as syphilis, the sensory part of the nerve is involved in addition, this causing disturbance of sensation in its distribution. It is frequently temporarily paralyzed in early hemiplegia.

In an irritating lesion of the sensory part of the fifth nerve there will be pain either in its whole distribution or the subdivisions of the nerve, that is, the supraorbital, infraorbital, or mental.

Tic Douloureux.—Facial Neuralgia.—Neuralgia is defined in its primary sense as pain, or a painful sensation of a rather definite clinical



Sensory Areas of the Head, showing the General Distribution of the Three Divisions of the Fifth Nerve (Gerrish).

type, limited to the sensory distribution of a sensory peripheral nerve or nerves. The pain is always distributed to some area supplied by the 5th nerve, and one must therefore consider first any and all possible pathologic conditions that may be found within the distribution of the 5th nerve (see Fig. 453). Again pathologic areas may be found, and in such event the careful and complete eradication or correction becomes an essential feature in connection with the diagnosis. Complete recovery ordinarily follows such treatments.

Etiology.—The causes in quintus neuralgia are most often found along the course of the 5th nerve. Due to the wide spread distribution and intimate relationship that the 5th nerve occupies with the bones and bone cavities, these are favorable sites for etiologic pathology. Further the response of the 5th nerve in certain constitutional diseases and toxic poisons must not be ignored in facial neuralgia. The 5th nerve displays a greater tendency to be afflicted by neuralgia than does any other nerve,

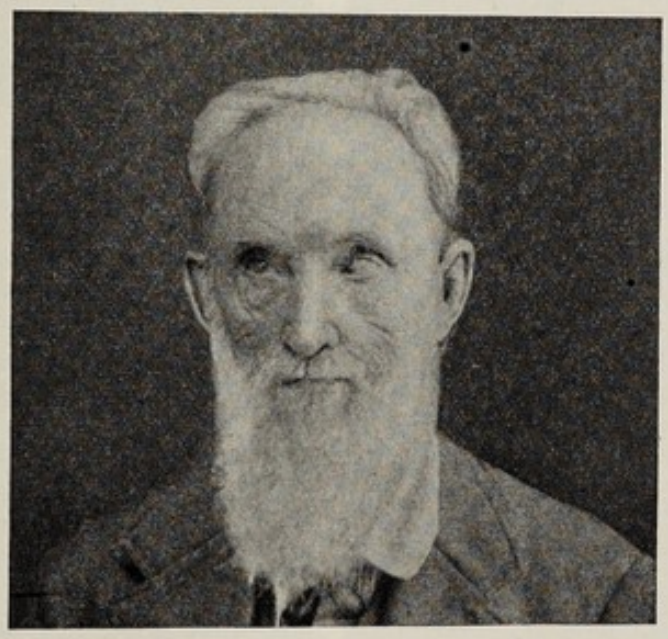


FIG. 453.—ARTERIOSCLEROTIC PALSY OF OCULAR MUSCLES, SHOWING PARALYSIS OF LEFT EXTERNAL RECTUS.

and this is in part, due to the fact that the superior and inferior maxillary branches are distributed to the teeth. The exposed portion of the terminal nerve filaments are necessarily subjected to numerous irritations, which doubtless explains the frequency of quintus neuralgia.

Exciting Factors.—Disease of the teeth plays a predominant rôle in etiology, and this is true whether the teeth are undergoing constructive or destructive changes. Constitutional defects in the shape, position, or in the development of the teeth, as is seen in ovarian, testicular, pituitary, and thymus disease, may rarely be sufficient to produce trigeminal neuralgia. Suppurative gingivitis, disease of the jaw bones, of the cranial sinuses, and of the ear (mastoid cells), may be found in a pathologic state in connection with trifacial neuralgia. Pathologic conditions in the orbit and its contained structures is capable of exciting facial neuralgia. During the course of such diseases as diabetes, advanced arterial sclerosis, malaria, and the anemias, we find our patients especially prone to develop trigeminal neuralgia. Syphilis contributes as a cause due to its likelihood to produce focal infection. Tumors encroaching upon any portion of the

5th nerve, or of the bony structures it supplies, may be accountable for this symptom. Rarely trifacial neuralgia is one of the earliest symptoms in the development of tabes dorsalis and it has been observed in connection with beginning multiple sclerosis. Certain clinicians hold that trigeminal neuralgia has a psychic etiology.

Neuralgia of the superior and inferior branches of the 5th nerve calls for a systematic *x*-ray examination of the teeth and maxillary bones. Radiographic study of the cranial sinuses will in a certain number of instances reveal much valuable information. Pulp nodules have for years been recognized as an exciting factor in trigeminal neuralgia, and it has been our privilege to have several of these cases treated by skilful dentists who have given them prompt and permanent relief. Impacted teeth may contribute to neuralgia.



FIG. 454.—LEFT FACIAL PALSY SHOWING INABILITY TO WRINKLE THE BROW.



FIG. 455.—DROOPING OF THE LEFT ANGLE OF THE MOUTH WITH INABILITY TO SHUT THE EYE.

THE FACIAL NERVE

The facial or seventh nerve supplies the muscles of the face. Its nucleus is in the lower and posterior portions of the pons, and the nerve in its course outward surrounds the nucleus of the sixth nerve. Its exit is just between the pons and medulla. Because of this anatomic relation, any gross lesion involving the seventh nucleus will nearly always involve the sixth, and vice versa. The usual form of facial palsy is that known as peripheral or Bell's palsy. Lesions causing this may be either in the pons, at the exit of the nerve at the base of the brain, in the Fallopian canal, or in its extracranial course.

Central facial palsy is that form of facial paralysis in which the lower part of the face only is paralyzed, and is the result of a lesion in any portion of the central facial fibers between the facial centers in the cortex and its nucleus in the pons. The reason for the escape of the upper portion of the face in such paralysis is due to bilateral cortical innervation.

In a large majority of cases ordinary **peripheral facial palsy** is the result of a neuritis which may be of infectious origin. Rarely it is due to basal syphilis, tumors, fractures, etc. When resulting from a lesion in the pons, facial paralysis is generally accompanied by other symptoms, such as palsy of the sixth nerve, paralysis of associated ocular movement, or hemiplegia upon the other side. Abscess of the middle ear is a common cause as well as mastoid operations. When the lesion is in the Fallopian canal, we have, in addition to the usual symptoms, temporary disturbance of taste in the anterior two-thirds of the tongue because of involvement of the chorda tympani which runs along with the seventh nerve in the Fallopian canal.

The symptoms of peripheral paralysis of the facial nerve depend upon the degree of its involvement. When the paralysis is total, there is inability to wrinkle the brow, to shut the eye, to elevate the corner of the mouth, to whistle, or to pronounce labials properly (Fig. 454). Besides, there will be drooping of the lower lid and of the corner of the mouth, and the wrinkles on that side of the face will be smoothed out. Because of the drooping of the lower lid there will be widening of the palpebral fissure and excessive flow of tears because of the lack of proper conduction into the nasal cavity. Electrical reactions of degeneration will be found, their degree depending upon the extent of the neuritis. Sensory disturbances may be present at the onset, when the patient may complain of pain in the face, and there may also rarely be herpetic eruptions in the ear because of involvement of the geniculate ganglion.

Most cases of peripheral facial paralysis recover provided the cause is an ordinary neuritis such as results from "colds" or rheumatism, and that prompt treatment is instituted. In those cases in which the nerve is cut, unless an anastomosis is performed recovery cannot be expected. Sometimes, years after the occurrence of such paralysis, there may occur secondary contractures.

THE AUDITORY NERVE

The auditory or eighth nerve has two divisions—the cochlear, which is the nerve of hearing, and the vestibular, which is concerned with equilibration. The nucleus of the eighth nerve is in the posterior and lateral portion of the inferior part of the pons and the upper part of the medulla oblongata, and may be affected by vascular lesions or tumors of this area. As a rule, deafness is due to middle-ear involvement. Rarely the eighth nerve is involved at its exit in the cerebello-pontile angle by basal syphilis or tumors. Disease of the vestibular portion of the eighth nerve is discussed under the heading of vertigo.

THE GLOSSOPHARYNGEAL, THE PNEUMOGASTRIC, AND THE SPINAL ACCESSORY NERVES

The glossopharyngeal, the pneumogastric, and the spinal accessory, or the ninth, tenth, and eleventh nerves, have their nuclei in the posterior and lateral portions of the medulla, and their functions are intimately concerned with one another, and a lesion in the nucleus of one will nearly always involve the other. The consequences of such lesions will not be discussed, because hemorrhages in this region will nearly always cause paralysis of respiration and death. Chronic degenerative diseases, however, will often involve these nuclei, as in progressive bulbar palsy. It is only necessary to add that the *ninth nerve* supplies taste sensation for the posterior third of the tongue and the muscles of the upper part of the pharynx. The *tenth* supplies the muscles of the pharynx, larynx, heart,

lungs, and other viscera, and the *eleventh nerve*, besides being an accessory nerve to the tenth, supplies the sternomastoid and the trapezius muscles, paralysis of this causing inability to turn the head to the opposite side and drooping of the shoulder.

THE HYPOGLOSSUS NERVE

The hypoglossus, or twelfth nerve, supplies the tongue. Its nucleus is in the posterior median portion of the medulla. It is one of the first nuclei to be involved in such degenerative nuclear diseases as bulbar palsy, when there will be fibrillary tremors, atrophy, and weakness of movement. Isolated paralysis of the twelfth nerve is very rare, but sometimes occurs as a result of basal syphilis, fractures of the base, or tumors in the posterior cranial fossa. Sometimes in hemiplegia temporary unilateral paralysis of the tongue may occur, and when the tongue is protruded it will be projected to the side of the paralysis (Fig. 456).

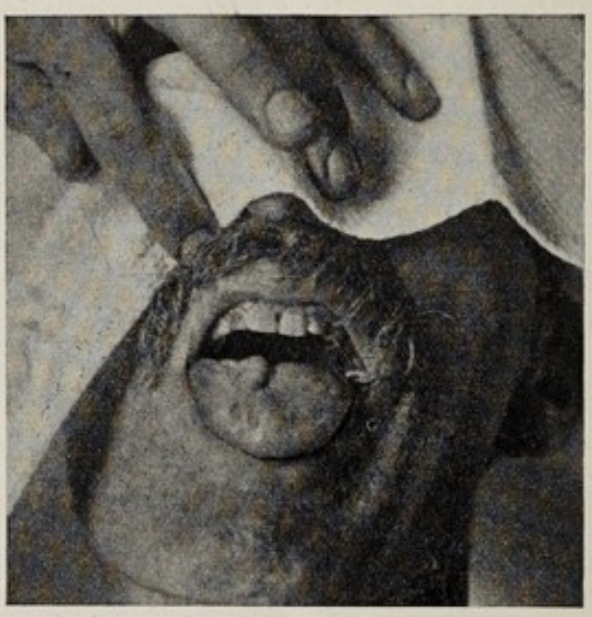


FIG. 456.—ILLUSTRATING ATROPHY OF RIGHT SIDE OF TONGUE.

DISEASES OF THE BRAIN

General Symptoms.—Certain general symptoms may be present in any disease of the brain, the degree and number depending upon the nature, extent, and location of the lesion. They are headache, nausea, vomiting, vertigo or dizziness, disturbances in motility, such as tremors, convulsions, general or focal in type, partial or total paralysis, disorders of sensation and disturbances of vision or of the other special senses, and, lastly, alterations in mentality.

Headache, as a result of any cerebral lesion, is nearly always due either to an irritation of the dura or to an increase of intracranial pressure, which causes tension of the dura. The meninges are innervated by the sensory portion of the fifth nerve, and disease, therefore, of this part must cause pain. At times the headache is localized to the place of direct irritation, but, as a rule, it is general. The pain is usually severe and constant and is difficult to relieve by medication, and vomiting does not lessen its intensity. The location and character of the headaches as they occur in tumors and other brain diseases will be discussed under their heading.

The majority of headaches are, however, due to causes which are not a direct result of irritation of the dura, but are possibly caused by vascular changes. Under this are included the reflex headaches resulting from disturbances of the ocular, nasal, sinus, aural, buccal, pharyngeal, laryngeal, and visceral functions. In fact, there is no organ in the body disturbance of which has not been thought to be a possible cause for headache. A still greater variety of head pains are due to general disturbances, as syphilis, acute rheumatism, or diabetes, but the largest number of all occur in the so-called functional neuroses. It would be interesting to differentiate the various locations of headaches resulting from reflex and other causes, but this is impossible, for, as a matter of fact, the pains may occur in any portion of the head. The general characteristic of all neurasthenic and so-called functional headaches is that they are nearly always in the back part of the head and neck, or in the top of the head, and are described as a pressure sensation and sometimes as a band around the head. Headaches resulting from disturbance of the sensory portions of the fifth nerve or the Gasserian ganglion and from migraine will be discussed separately.

The **nausea** and **vomiting** which are present in diseases of the brain are generally indicative of intracranial pressure, for they are not present unless such be the case. They are probably due to an irritation of the ninth and tenth nerves. The nausea may appear in the morning or at any time, and may be accompanied by vomiting, but the latter, as a rule, does not relieve the nausea or the accompanying headache. The vomiting is generally projectile in character and comes on without warning. These symptoms are generally indicative of brain tumor. A greater amount of nausea and vomiting is present in cerebellar lesions.

Vertigo or **dizziness** is also considered a pressure symptom in diseases of the brain. The dizziness may be objective or subjective, *i. e.*, the patient may either see objects move before him or may have a sensation that he moves himself. In cerebral tumors this symptom is not very common, but in cerebellar lesions vertigo appears very early and is very marked and persistent. It is probably due to pressure which is exerted on the vestibular division of the eighth nerve.

Ménière's Disease.—This is the name given to a symptom-complex the leading characteristic of which is vertigo accompanied by loud noises in the ear. The disease generally occurs in the latter end of life, and, as a rule, begins with noises in the ear accompanied by some dizziness. These first come on occasionally, and gradually the tinnitus increases, the noises sometimes resembling the shrieking of a whistle, and are accompanied by excessive vertigo, which, as a rule, terminates in nausea and vomiting. During the attacks the patient feels weak and is pale. At first the disease is unilateral, but ultimately there is bilateral involvement. Disturbance of hearing finally comes on, the deafness then becoming progressive. The tinnitus, vertigo, and deafness now become constant, sometimes preventing the patient from assuming an erect posture. Rarely when the deafness becomes complete the vertigo and tinnitus cease. It is supposed that this symptom-complex is due to a disease of the terminal filaments of the vestibular nerve in the labyrinth, and there may also be disease of the semicircular canals.

Disturbances in motility do not occur unless there is an involvement either of the cortical motor centers or of the fibers coming from them. Because of the readiness with which motor symptoms are detected they are more quickly appreciated than any of the other symptoms. They may consist of tremors, forced movements, convulsions, either general or focal, and partial or total paralysis.

Tremors.—A tremor may be indicative of a general disease, such as *paralysis agitans*, when it is coarse, vibratory, and lessens on effort. In disseminated sclerosis the movement is made worse on effort and is called an *intention tremor*. It also differs from that present in paralysis agitans in the fact that it is not vibratory and resembles more an irregular movement.

A general tremor of the limbs may sometimes be present in old age, hysteria, and other functional neuroses.

Fibrillary tremors are always indicative of a chronic degeneration or atrophy of the cells in the anterior horns of the spinal cord or of the motor cranial nuclei in the medulla. The movements are fine and consist in a wave-like twitching of one or a number of muscle-fibers.

Such other movements as are present in chorea, myokymia, and its subdivisions will be discussed separately.

Forced or Associated Movements.—By this is meant the forced movement of a healthy limb when the patient attempts to move the paralyzed limb, as in hemiplegia. It is probable that this is due to the fact that one side of the cortex innervates both sides of the body.

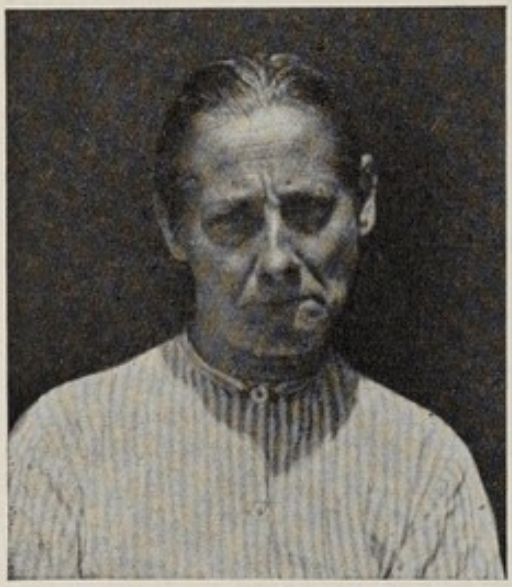


FIG. 457.—ATHETOID MOVEMENTS IN THE FACE IN A CASE OF OLD INFANTILE DIPLEGIA.

Athetosis.—It may be present in the face or in all of the limbs, or in any one of the limbs, and is always indicative of a lesion in the motor columns or cortex, either at infancy or birth. The athetoid movement is slow, twisting, and constant (Fig. 457).

Convulsions.—These are spasmodic movements of a part of a limb, of a whole limb, of one-half of the body or of the whole body, and may be accompanied by loss or impairment of consciousness. If the convulsive movement is limited to a part of a limb or one-half of the body, and if it always begins in the same muscles, it is called a *focal* or *Jacksonian convulsion*, and is nearly always indicative of an irritative lesion in the motor cortex. In Jacksonian convulsions or epilepsy the spasms come on quickly and may last from a few seconds to several minutes, and are generally clonic in type, and, as a rule, are not accompanied by unconsciousness.

It is of the utmost importance to see where a Jacksonian convulsion begins, what muscles or movements it involves, and their succession. Supposing, for instance, twitchings begin in the fingers of the right hand, and from here the movements extend into the muscles of the forearm, arm, and shoulder, and then into the muscles of the face. This would be indicative of a lesion in the left motor cortex, probably extending from the hand to the face center, from the middle to the lower portion of the precentral convolution. Should, however, the convulsion involve the leg instead of the face, it would indicate that the lesion extends from the middle of the precentral convolution upward or to the leg center. These facts are of the utmost importance when surgical procedures are considered, for upon their correct observation will rest the probable site of operation. General convulsions are nearly always indicative of epilepsy or of uremia.

EPILEPSY

Definition.—A chronic progressive disease, characterized by periodic loss or impairment of consciousness, with or without convulsions.

There is no disease which has so many variations in its form, but in all the cardinal point of an epileptic attack is either impairment or loss of consciousness. When an attack is unusual it is either because the convulsions have been suppressed or were not present at all, that consciousness was only partially impaired or the attack consisted of so-called psychic or mental manifestations known as epileptic equivalents. These will be described separately.

It is supposedly more frequent in the male sex, although this is disputed by many. Race has no influence upon the frequency of the disease.

Predisposing Factors.—Epilepsy has been considered as a sensitization disease by Spangler* who has written extensively upon this subject; and by Miller† who has given a comprehensive clinical consideration of the features in common that are dispiayed by hay fever, asthma, urticaria, eczema, migraine, and epilepsy. There is no other disease in which heredity plays so important a part. Epilepsy in one of the grandparents, but especially in the parents, will predispose the child toward epilepsy. Mental or brain diseases, and especially disease of the ductless glands or syphilis in the parents, are important predisposing factors. Thompson in the study of 4334 children, found that convulsions occurred during the first three months in 3½ per cent.; first year in nearly 8 per cent. and during the first year and a half in 7 per cent. of all cases. Disease of the brain and membranes is a common causal factor in the convulsions of infancy and in 72 per cent. of Thompson's cases the cerebral lesion followed an acute infection.

Epilepsy in the female assumes a number of clinical phases which have been brought out by Spangler in his study of 164 private cases. In this collection 62 of the females married and 37 of these had 80 children; 5 had several miscarriages, and 18 were never pregnant. Of the 37 married women 14 had their first convulsion during gestation and 3 during the period of lactation.

Sixty-three of the cases developed convulsions before menstruation was established and 21 first experienced convulsive seizures at the establishment of menstruation, and 78 of Spangler's 164 cases developed epilepsy after the establishment of menstruation while in 71 of these women, attacks were most usual at the menstrual period. Hypophyseal tumor has been rather commonly found in epileptics, and not all of such cases presented the characteristics of Fröhlich's syndrome, during life. (See Pituitary.)

A variety of pathologic changes have been found in the pituitary and according to Lohnstein's‡ review of the literature about thirty per cent. of epileptics show such pathology. Calcification of the pineal body has been found in a few instances.

In the early cases it is possible that reflex convulsions, such as are caused by toxemic and gastric disturbances, may be the exciting factors. Epilepsy, of course, may occur in any organic disease in which the motor cortex of the fibers are involved, as in hydrocephalus and tumors, and also following trauma. Posterior fossa tumors are reported as causal factors.

* Med. Jr. and Record, Nov. 19, 1924 also Atlantic Med. Journal, Dec., 1924.
† Amer. Jour. Med. Sci., p. 635, Nov., 1924.
‡ Amer. Jour. Med. Sci., January, 1922.

Patton believes guanidin to be an exciting factor and Sabbatini has shown that the application of sodium makes the brain more excitable, which excitability is lessened by calcium.

In view of tetany, epileptic seizures and eclampsia being produced directly by the removal of the parathyroid glands, epilepsy should, at least, be considered in connection with endocrine disease. Barr found that the administration of phosphoric acid increased the frequency of attacks in true epileptics.

Deficiency in the pituitary is claimed to result in epilepsy, and there are numerous experiments supporting this belief. Tucker in studying 200 cases of epilepsy found that 31 per cent. of them showed pituitary implication. Munsen studying epileptics at the Craig Colony observed that the pituitary gland was somewhat smaller in size, and weighed less in epileptics than in normal children.

It has been suggested that the mechanism in the thyrotoxic type of epilepsy is induced indirectly through the sympathetic adrenopituitary cycle. Leiner reports a case probably belonging to the thyrotoxic type and accompanied by eclampsia. (See Parathyroid.)

Leiner,* sites a case of pituitary origin, and the history of a fall with injury to the head is common in this class of epileptics. Epilepsy has always been associated with disease of the thyroid in such cases as cretinism, myxedema and simple goitre, and in many of these, obstinate constipation has persisted.

Epilepsy may be seen in cases suffering from thymus disease, two such examples are reported by Leiner. There is also to be recognized the gonadal type in which there is always a delayed, or abnormal development, of either the ovaries, and testis. In epileptics of gonadal origin abnormal development of the teeth is common. (See Ovary and Testis.)

Varieties and Symptoms.—There are three chief types of attacks: First, *major epilepsy*, or *grand mal;* second, *minor epilepsy*, or *petit mal;* and third, *psychic epilepsy.*

Major epilepsy, or **grand mal,** may or may not be preceded by an aura. This may consist in a disturbance of any of the special senses, such as flashes of light or temporary blurring of vision, a peculiar odor or taste, noises in the ear, or a feeling of numbness ascending one of the limbs, as from the arm to the shoulder, or the foot to the abdomen and neck, or it may be referred to one of the viscera as a sensation of numbness rising from the stomach to the throat. Sometimes it consists in a feeling of dizziness or of a sensation or of a fear that something is going to happen. Rarely there may be a so-called dreamy stage. An aura may last from a few seconds to a minute or longer, and, as a rule, is immediately followed in a typical attack by loss of consciousness, the patient falling to the ground, sometimes hurting himself. There may be a cry—the so-called epileptic cry. The body then becomes rigid in tonic contracture, the head may bend backward, the fingers are clenched, the face is blue and livid, the eyes may roll in any direction, and the teeth are locked. Generally the patient bites his tongue and froths at the mouth. The tonic convulsion may last from a few seconds to several minutes, and is succeeded by clonic or intermittent movements, which may also last from a second to several minutes. Relaxation then follows, and the patient may rally from the attack immediately or may not do so for several hours or longer, feeling weak and exhausted afterward. Because of the contraction of the abdominal walls on the bladder, there is usually some dribbling of urine, and there may be excretion of feces. In those cases where

* N. Y. Med. Jour., July 6, 1921.

epilepsy is progressive, apparently 75 per cent. of them die before the age of twenty years; sudden death in the course of sleep is rather common.

The above description is that of a typical attack of major or idiopathic epilepsy. There are, of course, variations, some attacks being more severe than others. An attack may consist in an aura, followed by the epileptic cry, but the tonic and clonic movements may be very slight, although there may follow just as severe a period of exhaustion as that which succeeds the more severe attack Sometimes the spasms may be very limited, such as movements of the jaw, smacking of the lips, or twitching of a limb, but the important point is that in all of these incomplete attacks there is impairment or loss of consciousness, and nearly always there is a preceding aura and the succeeding period of exhaustion which characterize the more severe attacks.

By **minor epilepsy,** or **petit mal,** is meant a condition in which there is either a partial or an incomplete loss of consciousness and no appreciable or a mild convulsive movement. The milder forms consist only in an aura, followed by a slightly dazed feeling which may last a second or so, but in which there is no actual loss of consciousness. In the more severe attacks, besides the aura the patient will fall to the ground and the loss of consciousness is more complete, the patient feeling dazed for a moment or so. It can be easily recognized from this that there may be many varieties of petit mal, depending upon the presence of the different forms of aura and the extent of the impairment of consciousness.

By **psychic epilepsy** is meant a condition in which certain mental symptoms take the place of the convulsion or spasm with loss of consciousness. By many these attacks are likened to the incomplete form of the minor epileptic attacks, as, for instance, when there is only an aura accompanied by loss or impairment of consciousness. It is probable that these so-called psychic attacks take the place of the spasm, and as such are known as *epileptic equivalents.* They resemble the mental conditions which sometimes occur before and after a spasm. By describing, then, the different forms of psychic epilepsy or epileptic equivalents we will be describing the mental conditions which occur before and after an epileptic attack.

The commonest form is that in which the patient loses consciousness a moment or so and performs mild, automatic movements, such as unbuttoning his clothes, or making use of some exclamation, and then resuming his previous occupation or what he had been previously engaged in. The patient has no recollection of the occurrence.

When the automatic movement is prolonged for some time, it is called *epileptic ambulatory automatism.* The patient may be in this condition for an hour or longer or for several days, and rarely weeks, and he may wander or travel over considerable distances and behave himself in an apparently orderly manner and after it is over have no recollection of what he had done.

Acute maniacal conditions sometimes take the place of epileptic attacks. They usually come on suddenly, with a feeling of irritability and exhibition of temper, and suddenly the patient becomes maniacal. These attacks sometimes take the form of homicide, suicide, or pyromania or the desire to burn objects.

Instead of acute mania there may be *temporary delusional* conditions which may last only a short time, or the patient may become stuporous or in a *catatonic* condition, or he may get into the so-called *dreamy state.* Again, the attacks may take the form of *paroxysmal laughing,* and *crying* or of *narcolepsy* or periodic sleeping.

Frequency of Attacks.—It is impossible in the beginning of this disease to foretell the frequency of the attacks. As a rule, epilepsy occurs periodically, and in ancient times it was thought that it occurred nearly always once a month, at the time of the full moon. There is no question that in the majority of cases proper treatment will lessen the number of the spasms. The frequency of the attacks will to some extent depend upon the time of the onset and the type of the spasm. In those cases in which they come on in early life, it is probable that they will occur with more frequency and that they will be more severe, while in those in which the attacks begin late in life they will probably not occur so often. Heredity also plays an important part, for in a child in whom there is a neuropathic disposition, and especially one in whom the stigmata of degeneration occur, it is probable that the attacks will become frequent. In those cases in which there are, first of all, minor attacks or attacks of so-called psychic epilepsy, there is also no rule regarding the frequency of the attacks, for most of these cases will finally terminate in typical major epileptic attacks.

It is not at all unusual for epilepsy to occur at night, when it is called *nocturnal epilepsy*, and it may be a number of years before the patient himself becomes aware of his disease, and it may not be until some one sees him in the fit or he has an attack in daytime that the disease is really suspected. Sometimes after the attacks have been manifested in daytime they may for a time come on at night.

Sometimes one attack follows another without the patient regaining consciousness in the interim. Such a condition is known as *status epilepticus*. The patient may be in this state for hours, sometimes for two or three days, and may have as many as seventy attacks a day. They sometimes terminate in death.

In females, epileptic seizures are apt to abate and are often absent during the period of gestation; and they may also be influenced in a similar way during the period of lactation. Violent hemorrhage is also followed by an absence of major attacks during that period wherein restoration of the blood is taking place. The administration of an anesthetic, particularly ether is liable to be followed by an absence of major attacks for a period of weeks or even months. Surgical operations of whatever nature causes an amelioration of the severity of the attacks and in some cases both major and minor attacks are absent for months following an operation.

"If in an epileptic an acute fever or an infectious disease develops, such as pneumonia, erysipelas, typhoid fever or scarlet fever, as a rule all epileptic symptoms disappear during the course of the intercurrent disease. The major attacks with convulsions are absent, the minor seizures with disturbance of consciousness do not occur, and the 'dreamy state' or border line symptoms are held in abeyance." (Spangler.)

Pituitary Epilepsy

In connecting the pituitary with the epilepsy of adolescence and nocturnal enuresis the following clinical points may be of service.

(*a*) A small contracted pelvis, undescended testicle point strongly to pituitary involvement.

(*b*) The various types of Fröhlich's disease must be excluded, as must also acromegaly in order to exclude the possibility of the pituitary as a factor in epileptic seizures.

Summary of Diagnosis.—History of epilepsy, insanity, or nervous disease in parents; convulsions which began in childhood and which have

progressively become more frequent, and which may be ushered in by an aura (unusual taste or smell) and may be followed by an epileptic cry; and then convulsions which are first tonic and then clonic. These are characterized by rigidity of the head, back, and limbs, blueness of the face, frothing at the mouth, biting the tongue, and dribbling of urine, the whole lasting about two or three minutes, and which is followed by a period of exhaustion. Consciousness is recovered in from a few minutes to an hour or a number of hours, with a feeling of weakness.

Laboratory and Differential Diagnosis.—The cardinal point of epilepsy is loss of consciousness and inability to recall anything which has occurred during the attack. The convulsions are characteristic. Sometimes true idiopathic epilepsy may simulate Jacksonian convulsions, but in these cases there is an entire absence of the usual accompanying symptoms, such as headache, nausea, vomiting, vertigo, and choked disc. In hysteria the movements do not have the tonic and clonic succession, the tongue is never bitten, and there is never dribbling of urine, and, most important, there is no loss of consciousness. In epilepsy the blood sugar is not increased and is frequently below normal; whereas, spinal sugar is practically always increased.

Laures and Gascard* found a decided increase in the urea content of the cerebrospinal fluid in epileptics, and a notable decrease in this content of the spinal fluid in hysteria. The calcium content of the blood is often diminished. Prior and Jones in their investigations show that before an attack there is an increase in the calcium in the urine, and a diminution of phosphates. After the attack an increase of both phosphates and chlorids is found. The alkalinity of the blood in epileptics is diminished, and it falls to its lowest point preceding the attack. Accompanying the low alkalinity, there is a low leucocyte count. After the attack the leucocytes increase, and a rise in calcium content, and in the alkalinity of the blood follows.

Clinical Course and Complications.—From the very nature of the disease the prognosis is poor, for the convulsions nearly always become more frequent, more severe, and longer in duration. It has been estimated that in about 10 per cent. of the total number of epileptics cure can be expected. Psychic epilepsy is nearly always followed by petit mal, or later by grand mal, or, what often happens, there may be the three varieties of attacks in one person. The earlier the onset and the frequency of the attacks, the worse the prognosis. When the attacks come on after the twentieth year, the convulsions will not be so frequent and the disease will not make such rapid progress. In nearly all cases the mental functions become ultimately impaired, this resulting partially from the lack of development of the other portions of the brain, from the result of attacks and the constant medication which nearly all patients undergo.

Besides the usual mental enfeeblement which accompanies the disease, the degree of which depends upon *the early* onset, severity, and frequency of the attacks, there may be total loss of intelligence, this resulting in what is known as chronic epileptic insanity or dementia. The patient usually dies as the result of some intercurrent disease.

PARTIAL OR TOTAL PARALYSIS

It must be borne in mind that in the motor cortex are represented the centers for movement, and if these are destroyed paralysis of movement will occur, the extent and completeness depending upon the centers

* Presse Medicale, Paris, June 16, 1920.

destroyed. Paralysis of one limb, the result of a cortical lesion, is not unusual, and is due to a localized lesion such as tumor, vascular occlusion, hemorrhage, trauma, or localized inflammations.

Hemiplegia

Definition.—A paralysis of one-half of the body, this including the leg, arm, and lower part of the face, with only a temporary involvement of such bilaterally acting muscles as are concerned with looking upward, eating, talking, swallowing, and respiration.

Most hemiplegias result from the bursting of a cerebral vessel or apoplexy. Unusual paralyses are those in which the regular order of symptoms is not present or some unusual symptom occurs. These will be explained later. It is more often present in the male, probably because of the greater frequency of early arteriosclerosis and syphilis.

Predisposing and Exciting Factors.—Hemiplegia sometimes runs in families, but in most instances heredity plays no important part, with the exception that if a patient inherits a disease such as syphilis, which gives an early arteriosclerosis, hemiplegia is more liable to occur. Any lesion which interrupts the motor fibers between the motor cortex and the decussation in the medulla will give a hemiplegia on the other side, the form of the specific paralysis and the accessory symptoms depending upon the seat and the extent of the lesion. In most instances this is a hemorrhage; but the other frequent causes are thrombosis, cerebral angiospasm, embolism, tumors, injuries of the motor cortex, uremia, and other toxic causes.

Varieties.—Hemiplegia may come on as the result of a lesion at birth, at the infantile period, or that period at which the child cannot walk, in the time of mature development or between the time when the child is fully able to walk and early adult life, about the twenty-first year, and from this time on. These subdivisions have been made because the clinical type of the paralysis will differ according to the time of life it comes on.

Hemiplegia Resulting from Injuries at Birth.—This occurs only when, as a result of difficult or instrumental labor, there is an injury to the motor cortex either of one side or of both sides. Pathologically, meningeal hemorrhages are most frequently found. If the injury is one-sided, a hemiplegia will result, and the child from its earliest life will be unable to use the limbs of one side. The characteristic of this palsy is that the paralyzed limbs will never fully develop and will always be smaller than those on the healthy side, and there will be present athetoid movements. If the meningeal hemorrhage is removed early, it is possible to obtain considerable return of power. Brachial palsy may follow trauma to the nerves.

Should there be *bilateral meningeal hemorrhage*, there will be paralysis on both sides of the body, or a so-called *infantile diplegia*. In such case there will be liberal spasticity, increased reflexes, and the Babinski reflex. Besides, the limbs will never become fully developed, and there will be present athetoid movements of the upper and lower limbs and in the muscles of the face, head, and neck. In most instances, also, there will be inability to talk.

Paralysis Coming on during the First Two Years of Life or in the Infantile Period.—To understand this it is necessary to have a knowledge of the development of the motor system. The child when it is born cannot walk because of lack of development of the motor fibers. This can be

readily seen when a cross-section is made of the spinal cord of a newly born child, for the myelin sheaths of the motor fibers will not stain. On the contrary, if the spinal cord of a chicken, which walks immediately after birth, be stained it will be found that the myelin sheaths are fully developed. That is why the chicken can walk and the child cannot. Ordinarily it takes from one to two years for the myelin sheaths to obtain full development, and when this is reached the child will be able to walk. It can be readily seen from this why it is an error to force or urge children to walk before they are able to do so themselves, and also is an evidence of the cause of deformities of such children. Should, therefore, a lesion involve the motor centers or fibers in this period, there will result a hemiplegia, and, similar to the paralysis which occurs as a result of meningeal lesions, there will be spasticity, increased reflexes, Babinski reflex, and lack of development of the limbs, but this will not be as great as in lesions at birth. It can also readily be seen why a lesion occurring near infancy will cause a greater lack of development. Athetoid movements, as a rule, do not occur, and if the lesion should be bilateral, it is probable that there will not be much impairment of speech (Fig. 458).

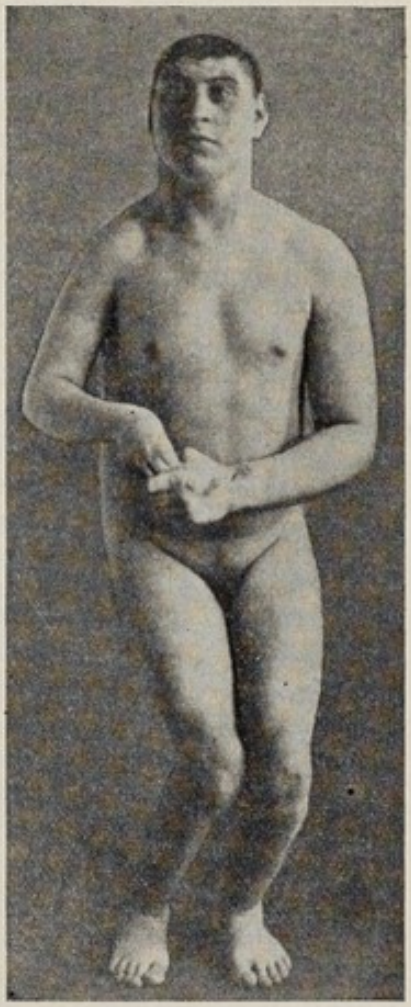


FIG. 458.—RIGHT INFANTILE HEMIPLEGIA WITH CONTRACTURES, LACK OF DEVELOPMENT OF LIMBS, AND IDIOCY.

Paralyses Which Occur from the Second Year or the Infantile Period to Full Maturity. A child grows up and does not reach full development until about the twenty-first year, sometimes later. The hemiplegia which occurs in this period will differ from the paralysis occurring later only in the fact that there will be lack of development of the limb, this being greater the earlier the lesion. The causes are generally injury to the head, early syphilis of the nervous system, and embolism.

Hemiplegia Occurring after the Twentieth Year.—The hemiplegias which occur after the twentieth year do not differ as to type, but they do as regards their etiology. It is a safe rule to assume that when hemiplegia occurs in early adult life, before the fortieth year, the cause is syphilis. The other causes may be embolism, uremic or toxic conditions, brain tumors, or injury to the head. If the result of syphilis, there may or may not be present the indications or early history of such disease.

Hemiplegia Coming on after the Fortieth Year.—Hemiplegias coming on after the fortieth year are usually the result of apoplexy. The other causes are also operable.

APOPLEXY

By apoplexy is meant the bursting or occlusion of a blood-vessel, the usual seat of hemorrhage being in the lenticulo-striate artery. Such a lesion will usually injure the posterior limb of the internal capsule, thereby

causing hemiplegia on the opposite side; and if the sensory and visual fibers are also involved, hemianesthesia and hemianopsia. Hemorrhages in the other portions of the brain and brain stem will give various symptoms according to their localization. (See section on Cerebral Localization.)

When apoplexy occurs, there is usually an accompanying shock, the patient being rendered unconscious. It is somewhat difficult to tell which side is paralyzed, because in the period directly following the attack there is so much shock that there is complete loss of tone in all of the limbs, and it will be impossible to recognize by the resistance which limb is paralyzed. Later on, of course, tonicity will become apparent in the sound side. It will be found, however, that on the side of the paralysis there will be drooping of the lower part of the mouth, dribbling of saliva, and stertorous respiration. The paralytic will bring to aid all of the accessory muscles of respiration, and in expiration the cheek on the paralyzed side will be puffed out, and because of this there will be dribbling of saliva from the paralyzed to the healthy side. This is an important sign. Again, if the patient is stuck with a pin, there will be reflex movement on the sound side and not on the paralyzed side.

As a rule, the patient regains consciousness within a few hours, and from then on there will be a progressive return of power. If, however, the patient does not regain consciousness in twelve hours or more, the prognosis is invariably fatal.

When hemiplegia is due to *embolism*, there is always an accompanying heart disease and the signs of a valvular lesion. The onset is generally abrupt and unconsciousness is nearly always present. It may come on at any age, but generally in the young.

Hemiplegia due to *thrombosis* nearly always has a slow onset and occurs after the fortieth year. In such cases there is nearly always a cerebral arteriosclerosis, and there is usually a history of some disease, such as syphilis or rheumatism, these being prone to produce arteriosclerosis. There is hardly ever unconsciousness.

When hemiplegia is the result of *syphilis*, the onset is usually abrupt, and, as a rule, there is no unconsciousness. It generally occurs in persons before the fortieth year.

Hemiplegia sometimes occurs in the course of or following an *infectious disease*, such as typhoid fever, scarlet fever, measles, diphtheria, whooping-cough, etc. In most of these cases the paralysis is the result of multiple areas of cortical inflammation, and there is produced what is known as *encephalitis*. Again, the disease instead of producing multiple areas of inflammation in the brain may cause thrombosis, this resulting in hemiplegia. The extent and character of the paralysis will depend upon the cortical areas involved.

In the course of a *uremic condition* it is possible to have paralysis of one side of the body. It is characteristic of this disease, however, that the paralysis is never complete, that it does not last long, and that it is always accompanied by convulsions, which may be either Jacksonian or general in type. There are also present the accompanying symptoms of uremia, such as unconsciousness, urinous odor, dropsical condition of the limbs, and albumin, casts in the urine and the blood chemistry known to nephritis.

The paralyses which come on in the course of *an injury to the head* are usually accompanied by the surgical symptoms of the injury. This subject will be discussed separately, as will also paralyses resulting from *brain tumor*. In the latter condition the hemiplegia comes on very gradually, and there are always the accompanying symptoms of an irritating lesion of the brain.

PLATE XII



Moving Picture of Left Hemiplegia. (Courtesy of Mr. Sigmund Lubin of Philadelphia, Pa.)

Symptoms.—Premonitory symptoms are sometimes present in those cases in which hemiplegia follows apoplexy, thrombosis, or cerebral arteriosclerosis. The reason for this is that in these instances there is either a weakening of the cerebral vessel walls or there may be, as in apoplexy, a congestion of the vessels or heightened arterial tension, which results finally in the bursting of its walls. In thrombosis the premonitory symptoms may last for a long time, because in this condition we have a gradual closing up of the lumen of the vessel, and in arteriosclerosis there is usually the same condition. These premonitory symptoms generally consist in headache of an indefinite character, sense of dizziness or fullness of the head, sometimes noises in the ears, and in arteriosclerotic conditions a more or less complete failure of memory, and occasionally tingling or numb sensations in the limbs which subsequently become paralyzed. Sometimes there may even be a temporary weakness in one or both limbs. As a rule, however, these preliminary symptoms are not present. Most hemiplegias occur at night, the patient going to bed in good condition, to find himself paralyzed in the morning.

If there is an accompanying loss of consciousness and stupor, which is especially true in hemiplegia resulting from apoplexy, the patient may not rally at all and die within a few to twenty-four hours. In most cases, however, consciousness is not lost very long, the patient feeling fairly well within a half hour or an hour. At first the paralysis will be complete and flaccid, there being inability to move the arm, leg, and lower part of the face on one side. Within a few hours, or a day or two at the most, recovery of movement begins. The earlier this recovery, the better the prognosis; and it is a safe presumption that if there is no recovery of function within two or three days after the attack, the paralysis will remain as it is. The return of power is always greater in the lower than in the upper limb, and it is for this reason that most hemiplegics are able to walk. Because of the fact that, naturally, the flexor muscles are stronger in the upper limb and the extensors in the lower, there will be greater return of function in these groups, and it is because of this greater recovery that there develops what are termed *contractures*, and in nearly all hemiplegics this contractured condition of the limbs will be of the flexor type in the upper and extensor in the lower, there being inability to move the shoulder, the arm is held closely adjusted to the side, the forearm flexed on the arm and slightly turned inward, and the fingers clenched. In the lower limb the foot will be turned in and extended and the leg adducted, the knee being held near the median line. When such a patient walks, he has what is called unilateral spastic or hemiplegic gait, dragging the toes along the ground, the leg being only partially bent at the ankle and knee and swung around the body like a pendulum. The arm is usually held close to the side of the body (Plate XII).

Of course, the degree of recovery will depend upon the extent of the destruction of the motor fibers. If that is complete, there will be no recovery at all, and the paralyzed limbs will become stiff or spastic and contractured. Whenever there is a lesion of the motor columns, as has been explained in a previous section, the involved limbs will become stiff or spastic, contractures will result, all of the tendon reflexes will be increased, and there will be present the Babinski reflex, which always indicates a lesion in those motor fibers in relation with the leg, and possibly ankle and patellar clonus, depending upon the degree of the spasticity and involvement of the motor tracts.

Atrophy of the muscles of the paralyzed limb always occurs following hemiplegia, and this can be noticed first especially in the muscles of the

shoulder, and later in the muscles of the hand and leg. This is due partially to disuse, and principally to a disturbance of trophic function of the cells in the anterior horns of the spinal cord whose innervation is disturbed. This atrophy is general and not very marked, and must be distinguished from the lack of development of the limbs occurring as a result of a lesion at birth or soon after. The limbs, also, because of the disturbance of trophic function, have poor circulation and are generally cold, and there may also be disturbance in the growth of the nails and hair, and the skin, as a rule, does not react as well as that of the healthy side.

Motor aphasia, or difficulty or inability to talk, although the patient understands what is being said to him, occurs when the lesion in right-handed persons is on the left side of the brain. The completeness of the aphasia will depend upon the extent of the destruction of the motor cortex concerned with motor speech. A similar condition occurs if the lesion is on the right side in left-handed individuals. In most cases, except when the lesion is very large and cortical, there is some recovery in the function of motor speech, but occasionally the aphasia may be absolute, so that the patient can utter only one or two words, as "yes" or "no." This subject has been more fully discussed under the head of aphasia. Sometimes in lesions of the right side of the cortex in right-handed individuals there may be a temporary aphasia, this only lasting for a day or two. This is partially due to shock, and also to the fact that in most individuals the motor functions have some bilateral representation. Of course, sensory and other forms of aphasia occur if the relative centers are destroyed.

As has already been mentioned, in an ordinary hemiplegia there is paralysis only of the lower and upper limb and lower part of the face, and there is no disturbance of such bilaterally acting muscles as those concerned with looking upward, mastication, eating, swallowing, and respiration. That is the rule; but if the patient is carefully examined immediately after the attack, there may be a little weakness, which lasts only for a short time, as, for instance, of the masseters, in looking upward, the tongue may be protruded to one side or the respiratory muscles may not act as well on the paralyzed side as on the other. To have a permanent disturbance of function there must be bilateral cerebral lesions. Such a condition is known as *pseudo-bulbar palsy*, and will be discussed under a separate heading.

The above description of the symptoms and course is that of the usual hemiplegia occurring in the middle or latter part of life as a result of an interruption only of the motor fibers. If there should be, in addition, an involvement of the sensory fibers, especially in hemorrhages destroying the posterior limb of the internal capsule, there will be, in addition to the motor symptoms, alteration of sensation on the other side of the body, and also disturbance of vision because of the interruption of the visual fibers, of hemiplegia, hemianesthesia, and hemianopsia.

The symptoms of *hemorrhages occurring in the cerebral peduncle, pons, and medulla* have been discussed in the section on cerebral localization when discussing the symptomatology of lesions in these areas. In addition to the specific symptoms of such lesions, there will be the usual symptoms of shock, such as described under apoplexy.

Summary of Diagnosis.—A man past middle life, with or without headache, dizziness, or fullness in the head, goes to bed at night and is found unconscious with a paralysis of one side of the body. When examined, he does not respond to questions, the limbs are flaccid, and there is no resistance or tonicity of movement. There is stertorous

respiration, puffing out of the cheek on one side, and drooping of the mouth on the same side, dribbling of saliva from this side, and if he is stuck with a pin he will move the limbs of one side only, the paralysis being on the side of the drooping of the face. The patient usually recovers consciousness within an hour or longer, and if right-handed and the hemiplegia is on the right side, will have an accompanying difficulty in talking, or motor aphasia, although he will understand everything that is said to him. He will be able to begin to use the limbs within a few hours, and in a week or so there will be considerable recovery of movement, especially in the flexor groups in the upper and extensor in the lower, and the limb will become stiff, spastic, and contractured and there will be increase of reflexes with the Babinski phenomena, with or without ankle clonus, besides drooping of the corner of the mouth and inability to show the teeth. He will be able to wrinkle the brow and shut his eyes without any difficulty and he will have a hemiplegic or unilateral spastic gait.

Differential Diagnosis.—There is no difficulty in diagnosticating a hemiplegia the result of an organic lesion, because of the usual symptoms of weakness, spasticity, increased reflexes, and the Babinski reflex. It is sometimes, however, difficult to recognize what the exact cause of the hemiplegia may be, and this is important, especially as regards treatment. These points, however, have been considered when discussing the causes of hemiplegia. Sometimes hemiplegia occurs in hysteria, but in the latter condition there will always be the accompanying symptoms, the paralysis is never complete, the contractures are not typically of the flexor and extensor group in the upper and lower limbs, and the Babinski reflex is never present.

Clinical Course and Complications.—The prognosis in any given case of hemiplegia will depend upon the extent of the destruction of the motor fibers. If that is complete, there can be no return of function. In most cases, however, there is always enough recovery to enable the patient to walk and to use his upper limbs somewhat. The prognosis in cases of apoplexy has already been discussed under that head. In hemiplegias resulting from such toxic causes as uremia and diabetes, the prognosis depends upon the ability to overcome such toxemia, and if that is accomplished, the paralysis will disappear.

The complications occurring in hemiplegia depend upon the extent of the involvement other than that of the motor fibers, and the specific symptoms will depend upon the location of the lesions. These symptoms have been discussed under cerebral localization.

In nearly every hemiplegic there will be some impairment of mental functions. This is due to the interruption or destruction of some of the association brain fibers. The ordinary course of life of a hemiplegic need not necessarily be shortened, except that it must be remembered that whenever there is a destruction of the motor fibers there is lessened general resistance, especially on the hemiplegic side.

Diplegia

Definition.—A paralysis or paresis of both upper and lower limbs and of the lower portions of the face resulting from bilateral lesions of the motor fibers either in the cortex or anywhere in their course between the cortical motor centers and the decussation in the medulla.

Varieties.—Diplegia may result: (1) from lesions which are either congenital or occur before birth; (2) from lesions or injuries at birth; (3) from lesions occurring in early infancy or in the first few years of life; and (4) as a result of lesions occurring in the latter end of life. The clinical

picture in each instance differs, and therefore will be discussed under separate headings.

Diplegia Resulting from Lesions Which are Either Congenital or Occur before Birth. Congenital Spastic Rigidity of Limbs (Congenital Hypertonia). Little's Disease.—Under this classification will be included only those cases in which, as a result of premature birth, there is a weakness of all four limbs, although many writers include under the term Little's disease spastic paresis of the limbs resulting from lesions at birth.

To better understand the symptomatology of so-called congenital spasticity of the limbs, it is necessary to remember that the motor tracts are not fully developed at birth and do not become so until after the first year. Therefore, the earlier the interruption of the motor fibers, the greater will be their lack of development. A child born prematurely will not only have undeveloped motor fibers, but will also have lack of development of other fibers concerned with sensation and association of ideas and of thought. It is because of this that there is, in addition to the spastic symptoms in the limbs, lack of mental development, which sometimes is very great.



FIG. 459.—INFANTILE DIPLEGIA SHOWING CONTRACTURES AND ATHETOID MOVEMENTS IN THE LIMBS AND FACE.

In such a child the limbs are undeveloped and poorly shaped and walking will either be impossible or delayed many years. The upper limbs are never as much involved as the lower, and in most instances it will be possible to use them. There is hardly ever any weakness of the lower part of the face. As in all cases where there is a lesion of the motor columns, there will be stiffness or rigidity of the limbs with increased reflexes and the Babinski phenomenon. Besides, the contracture in this disease is typical. The thighs are flexed on the abdomen, the knees adducted, almost touching each other, the legs extended from the knees at an acute angle, and the feet are held in a position of equinovarus. There is hardly ever any contracture in the upper limbs. The rigidity in these cases is excessive, and is more so than in lesions of the motor fibers occurring later in life. Convulsions with spasms in the limbs are very frequent, as are also athetoid movements both in the limbs and face. The mentality in most cases is poor, although rarely the child is capable of considerable development. The disease is progressive and no cure can be expected.

Diplegia Resulting from Lesions or Injuries at Birth.—Most diplegias appearing at birth or soon after are the result of cortical injuries sustained in difficult labor, as bilateral meningeal hemorrhages from the use of forceps. In these cases there may or may not be present the surgical evidences of injury. The subsequent history consists in the development of convul-

sions, which may be either Jacksonian or general in type, with sudden or gradual development of paresis or paralysis of the limbs of one or both sides, accompanied by a gradually increasing rigidity, exaggeration of reflexes, and the Bakinski phenomenon. Such is the course if there is no operative interference with removal of the hemorrhages. Besides, there will be considerable mental impairment, and as the case progresses there may develop athetoid movements, and deformed and contractured limbs with considerable lack of development. The speech functions in most of these cases never become developed (Fig. 459).

Internal Hydrocephalus.—Another frequent cause of infantile diplegia is internal hydrocephalus, by which is meant an increase of cerebrospinal fluid in the ventricles of the brain. The cerebrospinal fluid is probably secreted by the choroid plexus, and if there is any interference with the normal outflow of the fluid, or if there is an overproduction of fluid, there will necessarily result a dilatation of the ventricular walls, or internal hydrocephalus. These causes may be congenital, such as closure of the foramen of Magendie or of the aqueduct of Sylvius, or an aberrant secretion of the choroid plexus. When this disease appears later in life, the closure of one of the foramen may result from a basilar meningitis, which is usually of a tuberculous nature. Whatever the cause, the gradual increase of fluid in the ventricles will increase the size of the cerebral cavities and cause pressure of the brain substance, with consequent atrophy and loss of function (Fig. 460).



Fig. 460.—Moderate Hydrocephalus, Showing Enlargement of Head.

If the causes are congenital, the child may be born with a very large head, but in most instances it does not become apparent until after birth, when it will be noticed that the development of the child both physically and mentally is delayed. The head gradually becomes large, especially in the frontal and middle portions, the fontanels do not close and bulge, and the head sometimes assumes an enormous circumference. The face does not show any deformity, with the exception that the eyes may bulge. Coincident with this it will be noticed that the limbs do not become developed and soon show an increasing weakness, with rigidity and exaggerated reflexes and the Babinski phenomenon with contractures. The mentality is poor, although sometimes there may be considerable development. Associated with internal hydrocephalus there may be a rachitic condition of the chest.

There is a form of hydrocephalus known as *external hydrocephalus*, by which is meant an accumulation of fluid in the cortical meninges. This occurs nearly always in association with chronic meningitis, and will be discussed under that head.

Diplegia Resulting from Lesions in Early Infancy or in the First Few Years of Life. Acute Encephalitis.—These result mostly from inflammation of the brain, such as occurs in the course of the various

infectious diseases and is known as encephalitis. Pathologically there is usually found congestion of the vessels with round-cell infiltration with destruction of the nerve-cells and fibers. Occasionally the meninges are also diseased. The foci of inflammation are nearly always multiple and usually involve the motor fibers. If the lesions are limited only to one side of the brain, unilateral paralysis will occur. Sometimes the inflammation is purulent in nature and may be in association with a purulent meningitis. Benard* found the spinal fluid to display lymphocytosis. The naked eye appearance of the fluid is normal. There may, or may not, be present albumin and glucose. When the glucose content is to be found from 0.67 to 1.06 grams encephalitis is probable. The content is increased in uremic subjects.

Paralysis resulting from such encephalitis does not differ from the usual form of hemiplegia, with the exception that the onset is acute and there is present a history of an infectious disease with fever and its accompanying

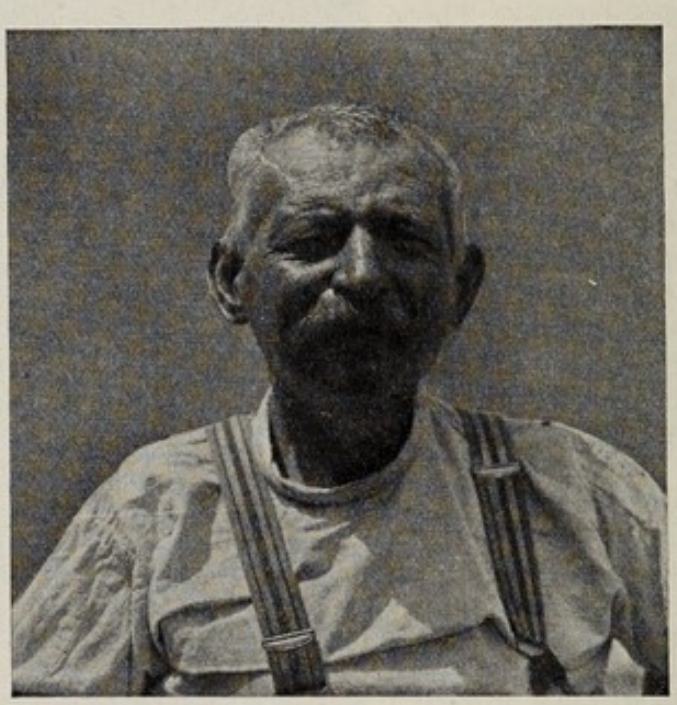


FIG. 461.—INVOLUNTARY CRYING IN PSEUDOBULBAR PALSY.

symptoms. The paresis or paralysis comes on immediately after this, and the degree of the diplegia will depend upon the extent of the motor involvement. The limbs become increasingly spastic and rigid. The undevelopment of the limbs will depend upon the time of the occurrence of the lesion; the nearer birth, the greater will be the lack of development. Besides, there will be contractures, and possibly athetoid movements.

Acute inflammations of the brain occur elsewhere than in the cerebrum. They are frequently present in the gray and white matter surrounding the aqueduct of Sylvius, when it is called *superior poliæncephalitis*, or it may be present in the medulla, where it is known as *inferior poliæncephalitis*. This has been more fully discussed on page 1112. In association with the latter diseases and with cerebral encephalitis there may be similar inflammations in the spinal cord, such as *acute poliomyelitis* (pages 903, 905), or there may be at the same time inflammations in many or all of these areas.

* Paris Medical, June 5, 1920.

Diplegias Resulting from Lesions Occurring in the Latter End of Life (Pseudo-bulbar Palsy).—This usually comes on after the fortieth year and results from multiple areas of softening on both sides of the brain. Rarely, however, because of syphilitic inflammation the disease may be present in young adults. There is usually an attack of hemiplegia on one side, with its attending symptoms, and in the course of a few years—possibly one or two or longer—there is another attack, which causes a hemiplegia on the other side of the body. Immediately after the second attack the symptoms of so-called pseudo-bulbar palsy appear. Because of the bilateral motor involvement there is a varying weakness or paralysis in the lower and upper limbs. In most cases there is a preponderant paralysis on one side, or the involvement of the limbs may be very small, and there is usually present spasticity with increased tendon reflexes and the Babinski phenomenon.

This symptom-complex is called pseudo-bulbar palsy because the symptoms, other than those in the limbs, resemble those present in true bulbar palsy, but the lesions differ in each. As has been previously explained, whenever there occurs a lesion on one side of the brain, as in apoplexy, there is usually paralysis only of the limbs and lower part of the face, with an escape of the bilaterally acting muscles concerned in eating, talking, swallowing, and respiration, because these functions have bilateral cerebral centers. If, however, there are bilateral lesions interrupting the motor fibers anywhere in their course between the cortex and the medulla, there will necessarily be involvement of these bilateral functions, and there will be difficulty in talking, eating, and swallowing. The speech will be thick, indistinct, and "bulbar" in character; eating, chewing, and swallowing will be difficult, the patient choking very frequently, it being a common cause of death; besides there will be disturbance in the emotional qualities, as in laughing and crying, and there is present what is called involuntary or forced laughing and crying (Fig. 461).

There should be no difficulty in distinguishing this disease from true bulbar palsy, for in the latter, besides the so-called bulbar symptoms, there will be, in addition, fibrillary tremors and atrophy in the muscles of the face, tongue, palate, pharynx, and larynx. The involvement will be gradual and there will be no history of bilateral hemiplegia.

BRAIN TUMORS

Under this head will be considered tumors, abscesses, areas of softening, or whatever else may give the symptoms of a neoplasm in the brain. The most common form of tumor is the glioma, next in order being sarcoma, endothelioma, fibroma, fibrosarcoma, carcinoma, tuberculoma, adenoma. Fluid obtained by spinal puncture gives reaction for a trace of cholesterol. (See Cell Count, p. 1268. The Bárány test will be found of service in the diagnosis of tumor, p. 1223.)

Glioma.—This form of tumor is almost always primary and single, although metastasis may rarely occur. The tumor may be as small as a cherry or as large as a hen's egg. It always grows from the brain substance itself and is of slow growth. It is not sharply defined, but infiltrates into the brain substance, and it is difficult to tell it from normal brain tissue, although sometimes there is an increased consistency to pressure and there may be a slight swelling. The border zone of the tumor may present an increased number of blood-vessels and there may be islets of new tissue.

Sarcoma.—The growth may be small, flat, or nodular or may be of large size. It is primary and usually solitary. Sarcomata always grow

from the meninges, periosteum, or cranial bones, or from the pial covering of the blood-vessels. It never grows from the brain substance, and therefore, unlike the glioma, it always compresses the brain tissue and may be distinct from it, although not infrequently it infiltrates the latter. Even when growing within the brain a distinct margin may sometimes be found, due to the softened area surrounding it. It is usually harder in consistency than the glioma, slower in growth, and very vascular.

The tumor may soften or caseate, and myxomatous, hemorrhagic, and cystic changes are not uncommon. Cystic changes are especially common in the cerebellum, not only in sarcomata, but also in gliomata. If the fibrous tissue is very marked, we have a fibrosarcoma.

Sarcoma may manifest itself as a diffuse multiple sarcomatosis. This may involve, first, the nervous substance and the meninges; and, second, the membranes only, when they may appear in the form of small tumors or as a diffuse infiltration. When the brain or its meninges are implicated in sarcomatosis in about two-thirds of the cases, a tumor of the cerebellum is found. They may also be found in the fourth and lateral ventricles, Gasserian ganglia, and *pituitary body;* in fact, almost anywhere.

It is important to remember that when sarcomatosis is present the soft tumor masses grow in the pia about the cranial nerves and spinal roots and may produce little or no compression or destruction of the nervous tissue. It is because of this that few clinical symptoms may appear, although there may be extensive alterations in the nervous tissue. A correct diagnosis of sarcomatosis of the brain and the pial covering is often impossible.

Endothelioma.—This is a form of sarcoma which grows either from the endothelial lining of the dura or from the perivascular spaces. It differs from sarcoma only in that the cells are arranged in clumps or columns and that it is more vascular. It never infiltrates the brain tissue, but compresses it, and is a very favorable growth for removal. When it is present, there may be an accompanying overgrowth of the cranial bones covering it.

Osteosarcoma.—Occasionally a sarcoma will grow from the cranial bones, or it may involve the cranial bones secondarily. In such cases the tumor is called an osteosarcoma.

Glioma, sarcoma, and cysts of various kinds are more frequent in the adult, and tuberculous growths are more common in persons below the age of twenty years.

Tuberculoma.—Tuberculous growths occurring in childhood are more frequently located in the cerebellum than in any other portion of the brain. In the adult they are found with equal frequency in this region and in the pons and cerebral cortex. They are nearly always multiple and secondary to a tuberculous process elsewhere in the body. A tendency to symmetrical arrangement is also sometimes observed. Their size varies from a small nodule to a large fist. Macroscopically it is hard to distinguish a tuberculoma from a syphiloma. Both have poor blood-supply and a tendency to caseate; the tuberculous growth, to pus formation. Again, both have a tendency to grow from the meninges, although the tuberculous growths are found in the substance of the brain and may have granulation; areas and miliary tubercles about their border.

The growth of a tubercle may be either rapid or slow. Tuberculous tumors may give no clinical symptoms. This has been explained by the slowness of the growth, the brain tissue gradually accommodating itself to increased pressure. It is possible, however, to demonstrate by certain silver stains the persistence of the axis-cylinders in these growths,

this explaining the persistence of function. Surgically it is not advisable to operate upon tuberculous tumors, as they are multiple and cannot be removed. A tuberculous growth may be part of a general tuberculous meningitis or there may exist tuberculous meningitis alone. If the symptoms of meningitis arise, it is always a wise procedure to look for a tuberculous process in the lungs as an aid to diagnosis.

Syphilitic Growths.—Gummata are rarely found postmortem, although they are usually thought to be the most common form of brain tumor. The usual results of syphilis in the nervous system are an endarteritis of the blood-vessels, round-cell infiltration, and meningitis. The endarteritis is usually general, and because of the weakening of the blood-vessel walls, early hemorrhages may result.

Syphilitic meningitis usually involves the basal membranes, but may also involve those of the cortex. In the latter instance the meninges may be half an inch in thickness and thereby compress the brain and give focal symptoms of tumor. Occasionally the syphilitic process involves the brain substance itself, causing a diffuse cellular infiltration, or the bones may be involved, causing a carious condition of a part or many of the cranial bones.

When basal meningitis occurs, it may involve the whole extent, or, what is more often the case, only the meninges near the chiasm, thus involving the second, third, fourth, and sixth cranial nerves.

At times, instead of meningitis there may be diffuse areas of softening throughout the brain, these areas being yellowish-red in color, soft in consistency, and well defined from the surrounding brain tissue. Syphilitic growths are usually rapid in development, but it must be remembered that the various pathologic conditions which lead on to the growths are long present.

Fibromata.—These tumors are rare, but they are relatively more frequent in the cerebellum than in the cerebrum, and especially in the cerebello-pontile angle.

A fibroma invading the cerebello-pontile angle or the angle between the pons and the cerebellum may be only part of a general neurofibromatosis. This, however, is rare, and usually a tumor in this area is the only expression of this process or a central neurofibromatosis. The growth is slow and generally unilateral, although in rare instances it may be present on both sides. Experience has shown that they are more common on the left side in the ratio of three to two.

The fibroma may be as small as a cherry or the size of a large egg. The growth is firm, hard, nodular, and has a distinct capsule surrounding it. When located in the cerebello-pontile angle, they are generally loosely attached to the brain by an atrophic nerve-trunk and a few blood-vessels or a meningeal process. These attachments may be easily ruptured. These tumors are in organic relations, especially with the acoustic nerve, and more rarely with the trigeminus and facial nerves. They nearly always grow from the endoneurium and rarely from the perineurium or epineurium. Consequently it is possible to find medullated nerve-fibers either in the periphery of a tumor or in its center. As a rule, if many cranial nerves are involved, there is a general neuro-fibromatosis.

These tumors compress greatly the lateral lobes of the cerebellum, the pons, and the medulla oblongata. At times even the temporal lobes may be compressed. Because of the slow growth and nature of the tumor clinical symptoms may not appear at all or only late in the disease. Tumors of the cerebello-pontile angle are among the most favorable for surgical removal.

Carcinoma.—Carcinoma of the brain is always secondary to growths elsewhere in the body, generally from the stomach, lungs, or breast. The tumor may grow in the substance of the brain, but mostly grows from the dura or the cranial bones. Carcinomata may be as small as millet-seeds or of large size, and may occur anywhere in the brain substance. At times there may be an infiltration of cancer cells in the pia covering the whole brain substance. This, however, is a rare occurrence. The possibility of toxic changes must be considered, as it is not improbable that through intoxication caused by carcinoma elsewhere in the body symptoms of tumor may be present.

Such other tumors as *adenoma*, *cholesteatoma*, *lipoma*, and *psammoma* very rarely occur in the brain, and as they do not differ from similar growths elsewhere, will not be considered.

Cysts.—Cystic degeneration of gliomata and sarcomata is very common. Other tumors, as fibroma and carcinoma, are prone to undergo cystic change, but more rarely. It is possible for the whole tumor to disappear and only the cyst remain, so that microscopic examination will be necessary to detect the small tumor mass in the walls of the cyst.

Congenital cysts may occur in the fourth and lateral ventricles or in the substance of the brain. This, however, is a rare occurrence.

The most common cystic changes found in the brain are due to parasitic growth, the *cysticercus cellulosæ* and the *echinococcus*. These, however, are so rare in this country that they will not be considered.

Cysts due to traumatism may occur, but their genesis is by no means clear. It is probable, however, that they are the result of a hemorrhage which has occurred at birth or soon after. As the brain tissue at this time of life is not fully developed, cystic changes or porencephalus may result.

Cystic tumors occasionally grow from the choroid plexus in any of the ventricles. These may not give any symptoms, but if sufficiently large will compress the ventricular walls and the surrounding brain tissue.

The Influence of Brain Tumors upon the Surrounding Structures.—At operation when the dura is removed there is nearly always increased tension and the parts may bulge. The surface of the brain is flat and the fissures may be abolished, and the pia covering the neoplasm is generally poor in blood-supply. The tissues near the growth may be softened. Pressure symptoms nearly always result, this depending upon the nature of the tumor, the extent of its growth, and its location. The greatest pressure is nearly always exerted in the nearby structures, but often a tumor of the cortex may exert pressure upon the cranial nerves at the base of the brain.

The cerebrospinal fluid may be increased in brain tumor, but this is especially so when the growth is in the posterior cranial fossa, because pressure here is exerted directly upon the communication between the lateral and fourth ventricles, or upon the veins of Galen, which convey the blood from the choroid plexus to the sinus rectus. Because of this, increased tension results in the lateral and third ventricles, the latter causing direct pressure upon the optic nerves.

The Diagnosis of Tumors of the Cerebrum.—In the preceding pages the individual symptoms and pathology of tumors have been considered and analyzed, and continuous reference will be made to their contents. The collective symptoms as they occur in brain tumors will now be discussed.

The general symptoms of brain tumor are headache, nausea, vomiting vertigo or dizziness, and choked disc. As a rule, all these symptoms are present in a tumor of fairly large dimensions, but a growth may exist with-

out the presence of any of these. Such a growth, however, must be small and of such character as not to cause pressure. The symptoms which are present in the great majority of cases are headache and choked disc.

The *headache* may be localized to the site of the lesion, but, as a rule, it is general.

Choked disc occurs in about 90 per cent. of cases, and may be greater on the side of the tumor. The swelling of the optic nerves is always greater in cerebellar lesions and comes on earlier than in cerebral lesions.

Cushing described inversion and interlacing of the color fields, which has been usually thought to be characteristic of hysteria, as an early pressure phenomenon.

Nausea, *vomiting*, and *vertigo* are especially prone to be present when the growth is large and great intracranial pressure exists. (See Spinal Pressure and Puncture of Lateral Ventricles, also Bárány Test.) These

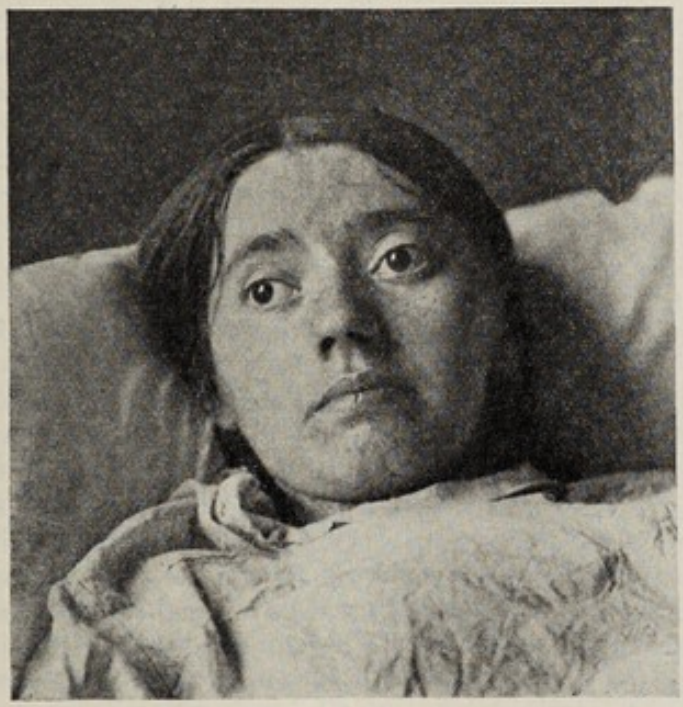


FIG. 462.—FACIES OF A BRAIN TUMOR, SHOWING SOME EXOPHTHALMOS WITH WEAKNESS OF RIGHT INTERNAL RECTUS.

symptoms are also more liable to be present in tumors which press upon the medulla, as is the case in occipital lesions and in tumors of the cerebellum.

When considering the symptoms of brain tumors, the side on which such a growth may occur must be taken into consideration. Tumors which are located on the left side of the brain can be more readily detected because our knowledge of localization is better on this side. This, of course, is in a right-handed individual. The contrary would be true of a left-handed person.

It is, of course, impossible to tell exactly, when the symptoms of a brain tumor are present, what the nature of the growth may be. If there are present elsewhere in the body certain conditions, such as carcinoma, tuberculosis, and abscess of the lung, or if there is a history of syphilis, the presumption is justifiable that similar conditions exist in the brain, provided the symptoms come on in regular order. Growths in

the cerebral cortex are more likely to be sarcoma or glioma, while in the brain stem glioma and tuberculoma are more common.

It is also important, from a diagnostic standpoint, to differentiate between a *cortical* and a *subcortical* growth. A *tumor which is cortical* may in time involve the subcortex, and a subcortical tumor may in time involve the cortex. Generally speaking, a cortical lesion will always give irritative phenomena. If in the motor cortex, there will result Jacksonian convulsions on the opposite side, to be followed later by paralysis. If in the sensory cortex, there will first be numbness and pains of the Jacksonian type, this to be followed later by anesthesia. If the location is in the occipital lobes, there will first be irritative visual phenomena, such as scintillating scotoma in the visual fields related to these areas, and later loss of vision. Generally speaking, then, in a cortical growth there will be irritative phenomena, to be followed by paralytic symptoms (Fig. 462).

In a *subcortical growth* the symptoms will depend entirely upon what fibers are cut off, as in the subcortex a tumor, no matter how small, will always involve fibers concerned with more than one function. The symptoms of a lesion in this area will always be greater than in a cortical lesion, for in the latter instance a tumor may involve only a very limited portion of the cortex, this giving only a few symptoms. Again, in a subcortical lesion irritative symptoms are not likely to occur, and the earliest symptoms are those of loss of function.

It is well known that tumors have a predilection for certain areas. These are the frontal, central or motor, parietal, occipital, and temporal. The symptoms which occur in growths of these parts will be taken up in order.

Tumors of the Frontal Lobe.—Tumors in this area are not very common. The growths more often are of the sarcomatous variety, and in most instances grow from the frontal bones or from the orbital plate. When the neoplasm is limited to the frontal lobe itself, there are, as a rule, very few localizing symptoms. In the frontal lobes have been placed the centers for higher psychic functions, this being especially so in the left; but it cannot be said that any special mental symptoms occur from destruction of these areas. The usual mental symptoms are gradual change in disposition, gradual loss of memory, of intellect, and of the power of reasoning. As can be readily seen, these symptoms may occur from tumors in any portion of the brain. Headache may and may not be present, and is prone to be localized to the orbit and frontal bones. Nausea, vomiting, and dizziness are not very common, and choked disc is a rather rare occurrence except in those instances in which the tumor is mostly localized to the orbital part of the frontal lobes and direct pressure is exerted upon the optic nerve, in which case the choked disc is unilateral. In the latter instance the olfactory nerve is also pressed upon, causing loss of the sense of smell on that side. If the tumor is of large size and involves the precentral convolution, motor symptoms will be present.

In the middle portion of the third convolution have been placed the centers for the movement of the head and eyes, and if a lesion irritates these centers conjugate deviation of the head and eyes, or of both, will result to the opposite side. If the lesion, however, destroys these parts, the head and eye will be directed to the side of the lesion. This is because of the unrestrained action of the muscles which are innervated by the opposite cortical centers. If the lesion involves the inferior posterior portion of the third frontal or Broca's convolution, motor aphasia will be present.

The frontal lobes are in direct connection with the opposite cerebellar lobe by the so-called frontocerebellar fibers. In a growth of the frontal lobe in which the tumor is largely subcortical, cerebellar symptoms may result, and it is difficult to differentiate the symptoms from those of a cerebellar lesion. This, however, is a very rare occurrence.

Another symptom which is sometimes supposed to be present is an abnormal tendency for poor jokes, or the "Witzelsucht" of the Germans. This, however, is of questionable value.

The symptoms, then, of a tumor in the frontal lobe are headache, localized mostly to the frontal bones, occasional nausea, vomiting or vertigo, and occasionally optic neuritis, which is mostly unilateral and confined to the side of the lesion. The special symptoms are loss of memory and change in disposition.

If the tumor is of large size and presses upon the adjoining motor areas, the above symptoms are accentuated, and there may be, in addition, motor symptoms which may be either of an irritative or a paralytic character, and which are confined to the limbs of the opposite side, conjugate deviation of the head or eyes or of both, and motor aphasia.

Tests of the Vestibular Reactions (Bárány Tests).—The physiological studies of the functions of the labyrinth by Ewald, Flourens, Breuer and others were correlated by Bárány in a systematic method for the study of vertigo. The vestibular apparatus is stimulated by rotation, hot or cold water irrigation of the ear, or by the galvanic current, and the resulting reactions recorded. By this method one determines whether the peripheral apparatus, in the ear, is intact. With a knowledge of the central pathways to the cerebellum, the eye nuclei, the cerebrum, the motor paths to the eye, arm and other body musculature. it is possible to determine the point at which impulses are interrupted.

Technic as employed by Dr. Robert J. Hunter, at the Philadelphia General Hospital, is as follows:

The ears are first examined to note the presence of wax, which would interfere with the caloric test. The condition of the drums are noted. In the presence of a discharge or perforation only sterile water should be used. The fork tests are next employed to determine the presence and character of deafness, if such defect exists. The eyes are examined for the presence or absence of spontaneous nystagmus and when present its direction and character noted. Vestibular nystagmus is differentiated from ocular nystagmus by the fact that its oscillations are not equally rapid in both directions. It is named after its quick component, which is the cerebral pull, due to an attempt of the eyes to regain their original position. The slow or cerebellar component is always toward the side, receiving the greatest stimulus. Nystagmus may be horizontal, rotary or vertical in direction. Care should be exercised not to have the eyes turned too far (beyond 45°) since this may cause a physiological nystagmus due to tension on the eye muscles. One next proceeds to test the past pointing.

(1) The patient is seated, eyes closed and the head forward 30°; direct him to extend the arm in front of him and feel the examiner's finger; then have him raise the arm and bring it back and again touch the examiner's finger.

(2) A normal person will touch the examiner's finger practically every time; whereas inability to touch the operater's finger and pointing to one side is an abnormality (past pointing). The direction and extent of error is recorded.

The caloric test is used regularly because each ear can be examined separately, whereas in the rotation test both ears are stimulated.

(*a*) Adjust the head 30° forward, bringing a line from the external auditory meatus to the external canthus of the eye in a horizontal position.

(*b*) To quickly determine that the vestibular apparatus is normal: take a five ounce syringe, fill it with cold tap water, at 68° F. and inject the water into the ear. Do this slowly because it is the effect of cold that is desired.

(*c*) Lift up the eyelid, have the patient look down, while the examiner carefully inspects the conjunctival blood vessels and notices the time at which nystagmus begins (45 seconds normal).

(*d*) Nystagmus is rotary with the quick component to the side opposite the ear tested.

(*e*) The vertical canals have been stimulated in the foregoing position, therefore to test the horizontal canal place the head backward 60°, thus bringing the external semi-circular canal into play and the line from the external canthus to the external auditory canal into a perpendicular position.

(*f*) The character of the nystagmus changes immediately, becoming horizontal and also toward the opposite ear.

(*g*) Past pointing should be tested with the eyes closed and with both arms, for the horizontal canal and the vertical canals. In each case the normal patient makes an error toward the side irrigated. It is also important to note the direction and extent of past pointing, as well as, its approximate duration. Record the presence of nausea or vomiting and of subjective vertigo. Should any abnormality be present one should not depend solely upon the hand syringe, but, proceed to irrigate the ear with the regular irrigating apparatus (douche bag) so that an even flow of cold water (68° F.) may be maintained. Observe the time nystagmus begins (45 seconds) and in the event that no reaction occurs continue at least for four minutes, then proceed as above. Both ears should be irrigated. It is a good plan to have some hot water ready to put in the ear to counteract the cold after the examination is complete, in patients displaying evidences of extreme stimulation. Water at 110° F. may be used in which case past pointing and nystagmus as described above are reversed in direction. One should be cautious in interpretating abnormal findings when warm water is used as it cools very easily.

Chair Test.—(1) Place the patient in the rotary chair with the head 30° forward and use the head rest so that the head will remain in this position. (2) Rotate ten times to the right in twenty seconds with the eyes closed. (3) Have the patient open his eyes and look at a distant point directly in front of him: note the direction of nystagmus (normal 24 seconds). (4) Both horizontal canals have been stimulated, the nystagmus is therefore, horizontal. (5) It being a maxim that the nystagmus is always in the plane of the canal stimulated, and it is to the opposite side. Viz., to the left. (6) The patient is next turned to the left and the same observations taken. He is then rotated ten times in ten seconds and with the eyes remaining closed, past pointing is tried. It is in the direction he is turned, that is, rotate to the right, horizontal canals in line and he past points to the right. (7) The patient is instructed to close the eyes, place his knees together, the clenched hands on the knees and the forehead on the fists. Rotate five times in ten seconds and ask the patient to sit erect without opening the eyes. The examiner stands at the back of the chair ready to catch the patient, as this reaction is often very violent and the patient feels he is falling from the chair. As he

attempts to sit erect he fails to the side to which he was turned. He falls in the direction of the flow component of his nystagmus, which in this position is rotary. The nystagmus is to the side opposite to which he is turned. The vertigo or sense of movement is to the side opposite the past pointing. (8) If the head is placed backward the past pointing and nystagmus are reversed, since the direction of the flow of endolymph in the vertical canals is likewise reversed.

Clinical Significance.—These tests are of value in all cases with vertigo, nystagmus or muscular incoördination. Their methodical use will give the diagnostician a clinical lead, that has not been suspected. Many cases of tinnitus, show an accompanying degeneration of the eighth nerve. The importance of active elimination and search for foci of infection is emphasized. The majority of the cases tested will give normal findings. These are the cases in which (*A*) there is some toxin circulating, causing a slight stimulation of the end organ in the ear, as found in alcoholism, constipation, or the use of quinine and salicylates; (*B*) a circulatory disturbance as in cardiac disease, or wearing a tight collar; (*C*) a reflex irritation, as in errors of refraction. The vertigo is due to a stimulation of the labyrinth, rather than to a destruction of the parts. The term hypersensitive labyrinth is used, when a very slight stimulus, causes nystagmus and past pointing.

In cases of more severe trauma, one finds a tardy response to stimuli, or a part of the labyrinth not functionating. These are hard to differentiate from intracranial cases, except that they are usually bilateral. They are observed in toxic neuro labyrinthitis, from abscess of the teeth, infected tonsils, chronic arthritis, syphilis, diabetes and similar causes. Prompt eliminative treatment, frequently restores the labyrinth to normal. Given a case with inner ear findings, it is impossible, with the caloric or rotation tests, except from inference, to state whether the end organ is itself affected, or the nerve leading from it. The Galvanic test, with which we have had no personal experience, may be of use in this situation. A case giving partial or no response with the other tests, gives a normal response with the Galvanic test. We conclude that the lesion is in the end organ. A complete loss of labyrinthine function, is usually associated with loss of hearing, although total loss of hearing, with normal vestibular reaction, and also, normal hearing with total loss of vestibular reaction, has been observed.

Cerebellopontine angle tumors are frequently neuromata of the eighth nerve and give accurate Bárány findings: Total loss of hearing and vestibular function on the affected side, with normal hearing on the opposite side. The vestibular findings on the opposite side are (*a*) loss of all reaction through the vertical canals; (*b*) normal reaction through the horizontal canal. These reactions will be found to vary from day to day depending upon the degree of pressure on the eighth nerve. Other tumors of the cerebellum, may give a varying degree of loss of vestibular function and this may differ widely from time to time, but the involvement of the vestibular tracts, contributes to the diagnosis of tumor. Slowly growing tumors of the upper part of the vermis have been found with no vestibular symptoms. A slowly growing tumor of the brain may produce but few symptoms; whereas a much smaller acute growth, will give definite findings. In the interpretation, remember that some of the pathways have not been proven, and the localization has to be made more or less empirically. Bilateral loss of reaction in the vertical canals, is often the only vestibular sign of supra tentorial tumors. It is also found in meningitis. Eagleton believes it is due to increased intracranial pressure. Cases with normal vertigo and past pointing, but no nystagmus, are interpreted as lesions of the posterior longitudinal bundle in the pons. Should paralysis of an eye muscle be present, the lesion is supranuclear, if nystagmus can be induced. Conjugate deviation of the eyes, toward the side of the slow component, replaces nystagmus when the cerebral or quick component is inhibited. It has been noted in tumor of the frontal lobe and in Friedreich's ataxia.

There are cases in which the patient complains of marked vertigo, but the tests as described above, are negative. However if we place the head in a position to either side, or backward, we note a rotary nystagmus, which once having been induced, cannot again be elicited, until the patient has rested, fifteen minutes or more. We believe this symptom signifies an affection of the Otolith Apparatus.

Ménière's Disease.—With the use of vestibular tests the above title has given way to several more refined localizations. Fraser says, that except in the bleeding diseases, leukemia and pernicious anemia, hemorrhage into the labyrinth has never been proven by microscopical examination. These cases are more often due to some toxemia or degenerative process affecting the nerve.

Tumors of the Motor Area.—Growths in this location are more common than in any other portion of the cerebrum, and are mostly sarcomata

or gliomata. The symptoms will depend upon the location and extent of the lesion. If the growth is limited, for instance, to the center for movement of the upper limb, the symptoms will be referred to this part. If the lesion is of large extent, the symptoms, of course, will be referred to the related parts. Jacksonian or focal convulsions nearly always result from a cortical lesion. A tumor, for instance, involving the center for the upper limb will give Jacksonian convulsions beginning in this limb. If the growth extends downward, the movement will extend from the upper limb to the muscles of the head and face. If the growth extends from the middle to the upper portion of the precentral area, the convulsions will extend from the arm to the lower limb. It must be remembered that a convulsion which is first Jacksonian may become general in character, and that in an epileptic convulsion there may sometimes be Jacksonian manifestations. If the tumor destroys the motor areas, paralysis in the related parts will result.

Lesions in the motor area are rarely only confined to the precentral convolution, and mostly also involve the postcentral convolutions or the sensory centers, in which case sensory symptoms will be present in addition to the motor. If the lesion is irritative, there will be pains of a Jacksonian type in the limbs of the opposite side; or if the lesion is destructive, disturbance of sensation or anesthesia in the related limbs on the opposite side will result.

If the tumor involves the frontal lobes, and especially the head and eye centers, conjugate deviation will result to the opposite side if the lesion is irritative, and to the same side if the lesion is destructive. If the tumor is on the left side of the brain in a right-handed individual, motor aphasia will also be present.

As a rule, tumors in the motor area give symptoms of great pressure, and headache, nausea, vomiting, and choked disc are present in most instances. Some of these symptoms may, of course, be absent, but, as a rule, headache and choked disc are present. (See Puncture of the Lateral Ventricles.)

The symptoms, then, of a tumor confined to the motor area are headache, nausea, vomiting, choked disc, and Jacksonian convulsions on the opposite side, to be followed later by paralysis depending upon the extent of the lesion.

If the tumor invades the postcentral convolution, there are, in addition, sensory symptoms, such as pains and disturbances in sensation for touch and pain. If the growth invades the frontal lobes, there may be at first conjugate deviation of the head and eyes to the opposite side, and later to the same side. A lesion in the left side of the brain in a right-handed individual will also always give motor aphasia. The contrary is true in left-handed persons.

Tumors of the Sensory Area.—This includes the postcentral and superior and inferior parietal convolutions. Growths involving only this part are very rare, for in most instances the adjoining motor centers are also diseased. As has already been stated, most tumors of the motor area involve the postcentral convolution.

Isolated tumors involving either the superior or inferior parietal convolutions may rarely occur. In such case a lesion of the superior parietal convolution will give disturbance in the sense of localization, of position, of movement, of pressure, and ataxia in the lower limb, with inability to recognize objects placed against the sole of the foot.

A lesion involving the inferior parietal convolution will give the above symptoms in the upper limb instead of the lower. In addition, in both there may be headache, nausea, vomiting, and choked disc.

In most parietal lesions the adjoining postcentral convolution is involved, and there are, in addition to the symptoms already enumerated, disturbances in touch and pain. In irritative lesions of the sensory areas there may be numbness and spasms of pain in the related limbs similar in character to the Jacksonian spasms, the result of motor irritation.

If the growth involves the adjoining occipital convolution, disturbance in vision will result. If the lesion is left-sided in a right-handed person and the angular gyrus is involved, there is, in addition, word and letter blindness, this causing inability to read or write voluntarily, or from dictation.

Tumors of the Occipital or Visual Area.—Growths in this area are not very common. They cause early pressure symptoms, as a rule, and disturbances of vision are among the first manifestations. There may be flashes of light or scintillating scotomata in the related visual fields, to be followed later by disturbance of vision, for light or for color, and lastly hemianopsia. Visual hallucinations are common, and usually occur on the side opposite the lesion, but may be on the same side. They may occur in the blind fields. Besides there may be a dissociation of the color sense; that is, while the patient may be able to recognize and match all colors, and the form of objects, he is unable to recognize the particular color of an object. If the lesion is right-sided, there will be left lateral homonymous hemianopsia, and vice versa. Occipital headache is always marked, as is also nausea, vomiting, and vertigo, and choked disc will come on early. This is because direct pressure is exerted upon the cerebellum. There may be, in addition, the symptoms of cerebellar incoördination.

If the growth involves the adjoining parietal or angular gyri, their related symptoms will occur.

Tumors of the Temporal Lobes.—Growths in this area are of rare occurrence, in most instances the adjoining parietal lobes being also involved. If the lesion is on the left side of the brain in right-handed individuals and the growth is confined to the temporal lobes, the symptoms will be those of pure sensory aphasia, *i. e.*, the patient will be able to talk, but he will have loss of memory for words as to their meaning and his speech will be unintelligible. (See Bárány Test.)

If the lesion is on the right side of the brain in right-handed individuals, no localizing symptoms will be present. This is the so-called "silent area" of the brain. There may, of course, be headache, nausea, vomiting, and choked disc. If the growth involves the adjoining parietal lobes, their related symptoms will occur. (See Ventricular Puncture, p. 1277.)

Tumors of the Subcortex.—In the process of growth nearly every cortical tumor will become subcortical, so that practically every growth of the cerebral hemispheres will have symptoms the result of interruption of cortical fibers. The specific symptoms will depend upon what fibers are interrupted. The differential diagnosis between growths in the cortex and subcortex has already been referred to. It is only necessary to add that subcortical growths nearly always are gliomata or sarcomata, that they are slow in growth, and that, as a rule, the first symptoms are those of intracranial pressure, with the symptoms depending upon whether the motor, sensory, or special fibers are involved.

Tumors of the Lateral, Third, and Fourth Ventricles.—Growths in these cavities are rare, and are relatively more frequent in the fourth than in the third or lateral ventricles. They may grow either from the ependymal walls of the ventricles—so-called ependymal glioma—or from the choroid plexus, and may be sarcomatous or glandular in nature. Cysti-

cerci are common abroad, but not in this country. Tumors in these cavities may be secondary to growths of surrounding structures, or the growths in the ventricles may involve the surrounding tissue, but, as a rule, a ventricular tumor does not grow into the brain substance.

Puncture of the Lateral Ventricles.—Dandy recommends the following technic for puncture of the posterior horn of the lateral ventricles. (1) Finding the occipital protuberance select a point six centimeters towards the vertex. (2) The point of election is three centimeters to R. or L. from the foregoing landmark. (3) Make a small opening by trephine at this location. (4) The ventricle is reached through the opening by inserting a cotton cannula.

Uses.—Intracranial pressure can be estimated; the amount of ventricular fluid can be gradually withdrawn; air may be returned in the place of the fluid; the size and contour of the ventricle is clearly shown by radiographic study. This method may serve in the diagnosis of cerebral tumors.

Tumors of the Fourth Ventricle.—The symptoms will depend largely upon the size of the growth and upon the pressure symptoms exerted on either the cerebellum, medulla oblongata, or pons. If the tumor is small, it may give no symptoms; but as it grows it may block up the normal flow of fluid, and thereby cause internal hydrocephalus, and give the usual pressure symptoms, as headache, nausea, vomiting, vertigo, and marked choked disc. These general symptoms vary because the closure of the fourth ventricle may at times be incomplete. Generally speaking, the specific symptoms of tumors in the fourth ventricle are those of a lesion in the posterior cranial fossa; that is, there will be, besides the general symptoms, cerebellar incoördination, and if pressure is exerted upon the floor of the fourth ventricle, there may be involvement of the twelfth, and especially of the ninth and tenth nerves; and as a result of this, sudden death, because of respiratory or cardiac failure, is very frequent. Because of pressure upon the pons there may be paralysis of the seventh, and especially of the sixth nerves.

Tumors of the Third Ventricle.—It is extremely difficult to diagnose tumors in the third ventricle, and it is doubtful whether a small tumor in this area can ever be diagnosticated in life. If, however, the growth is large, besides the general symptoms of headache, nausea, vomiting, vertigo, and choked disc, which may or may not be excessive, depending upon the closure of the foramen of Monro and the general intracranial pressure, the specific symptoms will depend largely upon the direction of the growth. In most instances tumors of the third ventricle grow backward and extend into the structures surrounding the aqueduct of Sylvius involving the region of the oculomotor nuclei. If such be the case, besides oculomotor palsy, because of involvement of the posterior longitudinal bundle, there will be paresis or paralysis of associated ocular movement upward. For the same reason involvement of the superior cerebellar peduncle or the red nucleus will cause cerebellar incoördination. If the growth is very large, it may press upon the optic chiasm, and, besides causing excessive choked disc, it may produce paralysis of the sixth and third nerves. Lateral pressure upon the internal capsule may cause paretic symptoms either of one or both sides, and pressure upon the thalamus, disturbances in vasomotor and trophic functions on the side opposite the lesion, of mimetic expression, and sometimes involuntary howling, circulatory movements, or deviation of the body to the side opposite the lesion, disturbances of sensation, and pains upon the other side of the body.

Tumors of the Lateral Ventricles.—Growths in these areas are difficult to diagnosticate, because in most instances the symptoms will be those of pressure upon the internal capsule, which will cause hemiplegia on the opposite side. It has been thought that lesions of the lateral ventricles produce convulsions, but this is questionable. The general symptoms of brain tumor are here also very marked.

Tumors of the Crus or Cerebral Peduncles.—Growths limited to the cerebral peduncles are very uncommon, and in most cases are either extensions of tumors of the pons or of the third ventricle. The specific symptoms, if the lesion is unilateral, will consist of oculomotor palsy on the same side, with hemiplegic involvement on the other.

Tumors of the Pons.—Growths in this area are usually tubercular or gliomatous in nature, of slow growth, and usually occur in young adults. The symptoms will depend upon what fibers are involved, but as the pons is small, and as in most cases there is involvement of all of the structures, the specific symptoms will be those of involvement of the different cranial nerves in the pons, of the fifth, sixth, and seventh, and because of disease of the posterior longitudinal bundle, there will result paralysis of associated ocular movement, and as the motor and sensory fibers are involved, their associated symptoms. There will, of course, be the usual general symptoms of headache, nausea, vomiting, vertigo, and choked disc. Cerebellar symptoms will be present if the growth involves either the superior, middle, or inferior cerebellar peduncles. The symptomatology of lesions in the pons has been discussed on page 1189.

Tumors of the Medulla Oblongata.—These are uncommon and are usually gliomatous in nature. The specific symptoms will be those of involvement of the ninth, tenth, and twelfth cranial nerves. In such cases, however, there will be interference with cardiac and respiratory functions and death.

Tumors of the Cerebellum.—When considering the relative size of the cerebrum and cerebellum, it is probable that tumors are more frequent in the latter. Growths in the posterior cranial fossa may involve either the substance of the cerebellum or the surrounding structures, the latter giving the symptoms of cerebellar disease because of pressure or involvement of this organ. It is also necessary to consider growths which occur in the cerebrum, but which, because of pressure, give symptoms of cerebellar disease. (See Bárány Test, p. 1223; Puncture of Lateral Ventricles, p. 1228; and Cerebrospinal Pressure, p. 1277.)

The general symptoms of tumors of the cerebellum are headache, nausea, vomiting, vertigo, choked disc, and incoördination.

Headache, as a rule, is present, and is more severe in lesions of the cerebellum itself than in extracerebellar lesions, and is generally localized to the back part of the head and neck. Sometimes the pain is so severe as to cause retraction of the former. Occasionally no headache is present.

Nausea and *vomiting* are, as a rule, present early, and are more intense in intracerebellar lesions.

Vertigo is present nearly always, and is one of the prominent symptoms. It may consist in a feeling of dizziness in which objects may swim before the eyes and the patient feels as if he were losing consciousness, or in a feeling of rotation of objects before the eyes or of rotation of self. Vertigo, as a rule, is more marked in extracerebellar lesions, and is probably dependent upon involvement of the vestibular branch of the eighth nerve. It is the opinion of some that when there is a sensation of rotation of objects before the eyes, whether the lesion be intracerebellar or extracerebellar, it is always from the diseased to the healthy side. When there is a sen-

sation of rotation of self, the direction is the same in intracerebellar lesions, but opposite in extracerebellar lesions. This symptom, however, is by no means certain.

Occasionally a sense of dizziness is obtained when the eyes are deviated to one side, generally to the side of the lesion, but there is no dizziness when the head is deviated. In such case the vertigo may be due to a weakness of one of the ocular muscles, and is not a true cerebellar vertigo.

Choked disc is one of the early and most constant symptoms of lesions in the posterior cranial fossa. As a rule, it comes on earlier and is more marked than in lesions of the cerebrum. It may be greater on the side of the lesion. Sometimes choked disc comes on after the appearance of other cerebellar symptoms, and when it does so, its development is usually very rapid. Tumors of the substance of the cerebellum itself usually give a greater choked disc because of the direct pressure exerted upon the fourth ventricle.

Incoördination results from a lesion in any portion of the cerebellum or its connections. As has already been stated, it is probable that the cerebellum is concerned with the coördination of every voluntary movement, and therefore whatever symptoms are produced are dependent upon this.

A lesion in the middle portion or the vermis will produce the greatest amount of incoördination, this being apparent on either side of the body, whereas lesions involving only a lateral lobe will produce a preponderance of symptoms on the side of the lesion. Tumors outside of the cerebellum will produce mostly unilateral symptoms unless the middle lobe or the vermis is involved, in which case bilateral ataxic symptoms will be present.

The incoördination of cerebellar disease is manifested only when an effort is made, and is not dependent upon peripheral symptoms, *i. e.*, there is never disturbance of sensation and no involvement of muscular sense. This incoördination becomes apparent in the gait, station, position of the head and limbs, movements of the eyeballs, head and limbs, and in talking, eating, and swallowing. These will be taken up in order.

When considering the ataxia present in cerebellar diseases, it is necessary to consider also the possible influence of the *weakness and the atonia* which sometimes result from lesions of the cerebellum. This question is by no means settled, but there is no doubt that in lesions of the vermis itself there may be paresis or weakness in the muscles of the limbs, and especially those of the trunk, and in lateral lobe lesions weakness has been found in the limbs and trunk muscles of the same side. This can be readily seen after operations upon the cerebellum in which this organ has been injured. The weakness is not prominent and is not always present. It is also characteristic of cerebellar disease that the limbs, especially on the side of the lesion, lose their accustomed tone and are rather flaccid. This symptom is also by no means constant, and is present especially in lesions of the vermis.

The *gait* in cerebellar diseases resembles that observed in a drunken person. The patient will make a few steps and then will totter or lurch to one side or the other, or backward or forward, and, recovering, will repeat this. In lesions of the vermis this is most marked, but in lateral lobe, and in extracerebellar lesions in which the former is pressed upon, it will not be so prominent. Generally the patient will have a tendency to walk to one side, usually to the side of the tumor, and will occasionally have a tendency to fall to this side. If such a patient's gait were not corrected, he would tend to walk in a circle, the center of the circle being the side of the tumor. The patient is generally aware of this tendency to

walk to one side, and in his effort to correct this will sometimes walk to the opposite side.

As a rule, the closure of the eyes will not tend to increase the incoördination if the lesion is in the vermis, but sometimes in lateral lobe and extracerebellar lesions the gait is distinctly made worse when the eyes are closed. If the motor columns are pressed upon, as is not infrequent in extracerebellar lesions, there is added a spastic condition on the side opposite the tumor. A bilateral spastic condition is also often present when there is a complicating internal hydrocephalus. This spasticity to a certain extent will modify the incoördinate gait.

The *station* and *attitude* of a patient with cerebellar disease depend largely upon the position of the growth. In lesions of the vermis itself there may be retraction of the head and extension of the lower limbs with flexion of the upper. There may also be lordosis in the lower portion of the spinal column. It has been supposed that the attitude and position of the trunk and head are considerably modified by the weakness which is supposed to be present in the erector spinæ and other trunk muscles. This is questionable, for the alternate contraction of these muscles is probably only an effort to keep the parts above in their proper position and is only a part of the general incoördination. Sometimes in tumors of the cerebellum the head is held in certain positions in such a way so that the growth would avoid pressing directly upon the vermis. In tumors, for instance, of the left lateral lobe, the patient will be inclined to lie on his left side, for when he lies on the right pressure may be exerted upon the vermis. This symptom, however, is not by any means constant. Very often patients with cerebellar tumors will hold their heads in abnormal positions, because they see double, and by holding their heads in certain positions they are able to avoid this.

If the patient is placed with his feet together, he will have a tendency to fall, generally to the side of the lesion. As a rule, if the eyes are closed the ataxia will be increased, and this is especially so in extracerebellar lesions.

The incoördination or ataxia which is present in the limbs is of two types, *i. e.*, it may be made worse with the eyes shut, or this may have no influence upon it. This ataxia is dependent upon the lack of coördination in the muscular contractions, and is not dependent upon any sensory disturbances. As a rule, it is greatest on the side of the lesion, but it may also be observed on the opposite side. If the upper limb on the side of the tumor is moved in any direction, for instance, as in supination and pronation, it will be found that the movement will not be as well or as rapidly performed as upon the other side. The same thing is true if the lower limb is moved. These symptoms are dependent upon the lack of coördinate contraction of the muscles concerned in the movements.

Incoördination in the movement of the eyeballs, or nystagmus, is present nearly always in lesions of the cerebellum (see Bäräny Test). This incoördination of the eyeballs is similar to that observed in any other movement, and is present only when the eyeballs are moved, and is greater when they are directed to the side of the lesion. This nystagmus may consist in to and fro jerkings, and is greater in lateral deviation.

Incoördination of the muscles which are concerned in talking, eating, and swallowing sometimes occurs in lesions of the cerebellum and its connections. This, however, is not a very common occurrence. Disturbance in these functions dependent upon the incoördination of the muscles concerned must be differentiated from the difficulty observed in these func-

tions when an extracerebellar tumor presses upon the cranial nerves innervating the muscles necessary to perform these acts.

Cranial Nerve Symptoms.—The cranial nerves, as a rule, are not involved in lesions of the middle lobe of the cerebellum. In tumors of the lateral lobe it is possible to have involvement of the fifth, sixth, seventh, and eighth cranial nerves on the same side, but, as a rule, such cranial nerve involvement indicates a tumor in the angle between the pons and cerebellum or the cerebello-pontile angle.

The *first* or *olfactory nerve* is hardly ever diseased. The same is true so far as the *third* and *fourth cranial nerves* are concerned.

The *fifth cranial nerve* may sometimes be involved, especially in extracerebellar lesions. Very rarely a tumor may grow from this nerve.

Unilateral involvement of the *sixth nerve* is a very common symptom in extracerebellar lesions. Bilateral sixth nerve paralysis may sometimes be present in unilateral lesions, but, as a rule, this indicates a tumor in the middle lobe.

The *seventh nerve* is nearly always involved in tumors of the cerebello-pontile angle, and a fibroma may grow from this nerve. A lateral cerebellar tumor may sometimes cause involvement of this nerve by pressure.

Tumors of the cerebello-pontile angle, as a rule, grow from the *eighth nerve*, and are generally fibromata. (See Bárány Test.) At first there may be such subjective symptoms as roaring, hissing, or buzzing noises in the ear, and later complete nerve deafness. This nerve may also sometimes be involved by pressure from a growth in the lateral lobe of the cerebellum.

The *ninth*, *tenth*, *eleventh*, and *twelfth nerves* may be involved in extracerebellar lesions, this resulting from pressure, thus causing difficulty in talking, eating, and swallowing. Bilateral involvement is uncommon, and, as a rule, indicates lesions in the medulla itself.

Pupillary Symptoms.—Tumors of the cerebellum probably have no direct effect upon the condition of the pupils, alterations in them probably depending upon the presence of optic neuritis or choked disc.

Motor Symptoms.—The weakness or paresis which is sometimes present in cerebellar lesions has already been discussed, and is not dependent upon pressure on the motor columns. An extracerebellar tumor, as a rule, compresses the motor fibers of the pons, and this causes the spastic condition on the side opposite, with the consequent weakness, increased reflexes, and the presence of the Babinski phenomenon. In complicating internal hydrocephalus this condition may be bilateral.

As a rule, lesions of the cerebellum have no influence upon the state of the reflexes, for they may be increased, diminished, lost, or in normal condition.

Convulsions.—Convulsions sometimes occur in the course of cerebellar disease. These may be general or limited to certain parts. If general, as sometimes occurs in lesions limited to the vermis, there is retraction of the head, extension of the lower limbs, and flexion of the upper, and the whole body is held in tonic contracture.

Tumors which involve the seventh nerve may cause tremors in its distribution, and sometimes convulsions which are limited to this nerve and are focal or Jacksonian in character.

Instead of this there may occur irregular fainting spells, during which time the patient feels giddy and has a tendency to fall. These are not really convulsions, and are dependent upon the vertigo common in this disease.

In diagnosing, then, tumors of the posterior cranial fossa it is necessary to consider whether the growth is limited to the cerebellum or whether it is extracerebellar. Not only that, but it is necessary, when limited to the cerebellum, to recognize, if possible, whether the tumor is localized to the center or to the lateral lobe.

Summarizing the symptoms of a tumor in the vermis, we have as follows: occipital headache, excessive nausea and vomiting, intense vertigo, bilateral choked disc; incoördination in every movement of the body, whether in the limbs, trunk, movements of the eyeballs, and sometimes in articulation, in eating, and in swallowing; sometimes weakness in the limbs and the muscles of the trunk, with atonia, an ataxic gait, poor station, and rarely so-called cerebellar fits, during which time the head is retracted, the legs extended, and the arms flexed—all in tonic contracture.

Tumors of the lateral lobe of the cerebellum give headache, nausea, vomiting, intense vertigo, bilateral choked disc, which may be greater on one side, incoördination in all movements of the limbs, but which is greater on the side of the lesion, a staggering gait with a tendency to lurch to the side of the lesion, nystagmus, more marked in looking to the side of the lesion, sometimes paresis and atonia in the limbs of the same side, and, if the tumor is large, it may press upon the cranial nerves on the same side. (See also Bárány Test, p. 1223.)

Extracerebellar lesions may be either in the angle between the pons and the medulla, *i. e.*, the so-called cerebello-pontile angle, or may grow from the occipital or temporal bone primarily, and secondarily involve the structures in the cerebello-pontile angle and the cerebellum itself.

Tumors of the cerebello-pontile angle are usually fibromata, and grow from the eighth, seventh, fifth, and sixth nerves in order of frequency, and the first symptom will depend upon what nerve is involved. If the growth is on the eighth nerve, there is first a roaring, buzzing, or hissing noise on the side of the tumor, to be followed by deafness, and then the symptoms of paralysis of the seventh and sixth nerves as these nerves are pressed upon, and more rarely of the fifth nerve. There are, besides the general symptoms, headache, nausea, vomiting, vertigo, which may be excessive if the eighth nerve is diseased, and choked disc, which, as a rule, is greater on the side of the tumor. When the cerebellum is pressed upon, there are, in addition, incoördinate symptoms in the limbs, greater on the side of the lesion, paresis and atonia, only rarely on the side of the tumor, a staggering and incoördinate gait to the side of the tumor, and less frequently nystagmus, which is greater when the eyes are deviated to the affected side. If the tumor grows from the seventh nerve, spasms in its distribution may be observed. As a rule, the growth will press upon the motor fibers of the pons, giving, in addition, weakness and spasticity, with increase of reflexes in the limbs of the opposite side.

If the tumor grows from the dura covering the occipital or temporal bones, the symptoms may be a little more diffuse, and may give not only the symptoms above enumerated in tumors of the cerebello-pontile angle, but, in addition, there may be involvement of some of the cranial nerves on the same and opposite side.

Sometimes *diffuse syphilitic lesions* in various portions of the brain or a pial infiltration at the base of the brain may give the symptoms of a cerebellar tumor to such an extent that it is almost impossible to make a differential diagnosis. There may be present all of the general symptoms of a cerebellar lesion, but there will be, in addition, almost always a greater involvement of the cranial nerves, such as that of the third—a very unusual condition in pure cerebellar or extracerebellar lesions. Multiple

sarcomatous tumors may also give the symptoms of a tumor in the cerebellum or of the angle, and in such instances it is almost impossible to differentiate the symptoms from those resulting from basal syphilis. (See pp. 1219 to 1225.)

ABSCESS IN THE BRAIN

Chronic otitis media is the most frequent cause of abscess in the brain. It may be due to such other causes as traumatism, or may be a part of a general process, or it may follow an abscess in the lung. When it is the result of middle-ear disease, the abscess is generally localized to the temporal lobe or to the cerebellum on the same side, but it may cause an abscess in the parietal or other lobes. This, however, is uncommon. Pus may be transmitted along the facial and acoustic nerves from the middle ear and cause an extradural abscess. Occasionally an abscess in the pia will result.

In most instances a localized abscess is only a part of a general purulent cerebrospinal meningitis. Sometimes a localized pus cavity may rupture and cause a general purulent meningitis. The abscess is usually surrounded by a thick wall and considerable inflammation surrounds it. The pus itself is very thick and contains the usual microörganisms.

Symptoms.—The localizing symptoms of an abscess in the brain are similar to those of any other lesion or growth. Because of the fact that most abscesses occur as a complication of middle-ear disease or extension of such inflammation, most pus cavities or abscesses are to be found either in the temporal area, in the cerebello-pontile angle, or in the cerebellum, or, what often happens, besides a lesion either in the temporal or cerebellar areas there may also be a meningitis, with its accompanying symptoms. Specifically it cannot be said that there are any general symptoms which indicate an abscess in the brain. The inference is that if there is a history of, or if there is an abscess in the middle ear, and if following it there are symptoms which are referred to either the temporal or cerebellar areas or the meninges, the lesion is purulent and secondary to middle-ear disease. There may be, as is usually the case in any growth, headache, nausea, vomiting, vertigo, and sometimes choked disc, these depending upon the extent of the lesion and the pressure exerted in the cranial cavity. There may or may not be changes in the temperature, such as result from pus elsewhere. The other symptoms will depend upon the location of the lesion, whether temporal or cerebellar. In hemorrhage of the brain the spinal fluid shows a high cholesterol content—a feature which is also present in brain abscess. (See Cell Count, p. 1268.)

INJURIES TO THE BRAIN

The general symptoms of injuries to the brain will depend largely upon the character and extent of the injury. It is possible to have a fracture of the skull without any injury to the brain tissues, or a severe injury to the brain without involvement of the enveloping bones. It is impossible in any given case to foretell what the results of an injury may be, but an effort is made here to classify the symptoms which may occur. It should be understood, however, that this classification cannot be, and is not intended to be, a definite one, for any and all symptoms may occur in any given case.

Classification of Injuries.—There may be (1) fracture of the vault of the skull, with or without injury of the brain; (2) fracture of the base of the skull with or without injury of the brain; (3) hemorrhages from the vessels of the meninges, either extradural or intradural, either with or

without involvement of the brain itself; (4) injuries to the brain, which may consist, first, of large hemorrhages which are either single or multiple; second, of multiple small hemorrhages which cannot be seen except under the microscope; and, lastly, so-called contusion of the brain; (5) injuries of some of the cranial nerves without any other involvement; and (6) the functional neuroses.

General Symptoms.—Inasmuch as certain general symptoms occur no matter what the injury, these will be first discussed. As a rule, if the injury is severe enough there will be impairment of consciousness. If this is complete, so that the patient cannot be aroused, it is called *coma*. If the patient can be aroused so that questions can be answered, it is termed *stupor*, whereas an expression of wandering ideas accompanied by stupor is designated *delirium*.

In most instances the period of unconsciousness will not last long and the patient will rally within a few hours, but sometimes the stupor may persist for a number of days and even longer. It is possible for the patient to regain consciousness and then to again lapse into a period of stupor. As a rule, if the patient rallies within a few or less than twenty-four hours, the prognosis is good, whereas stupor lasting for more than a day will make the prognosis very grave. It is necessary in a great many instances to diagnose such a comatose condition from those arising in alcoholism, uremia, diabetes, and hysteria. There should, however, not be much difficulty in making a differential diagnosis if the underlying causes are considered.

Certain general symptoms may always be present whenever considerable *compression* of the brain exists, no matter from what cause. This, of course, can only be apparent after the patient has rallied from whatever mental condition the injury has placed him in. These are headache, which may be localized to the point of injury or may be diffuse, nausea, vomiting, sometimes vertigo, choked disc, stertorous respiration, and slow pulse. These symptoms occur only when there is great compression, such as occurs from hemorrhages or depressed fractures.

The *physical evidences of injury*, such as contusion and laceration of the scalp, swelling of the injured tissues, subconjunctival and subcutaneous ecchymosis, and the escape of cerebrospinal fluid from the ear or nose, may be present. It is necessary, however, to remember that severe hemorrhages or destruction may occur within the cranial cavity without the slightest external evidence of injury.

Fracture of the Vault of the Skull.—Cause and Symptoms.—This, as a rule, results from direct injury, such as are caused by stab, sword, and bullet wounds or blows upon the head. The fracture may be at the point of injury, or the effects of this may be so diffuse that the fracture is on the other side of the skull, or at times at the base. There may be in all cases a visual point of injury, such as contusion of the scalp, and if there is a fracture, the accompanying depression, which can be felt unless the swelling of the tissues is too great. In most instances the fracture will be depressed and will injure the meninges and the brain tissue underneath. In all instances an incision should be made for the purpose of diagnosis. The general symptoms will be impairment or loss of consciousness, depending upon the force and extent of the injury, and the focal symptoms will depend upon what part of the brain is injured. If the frontal lobe is injured, there will be no focalizing symptoms; if the motor part, Jacksonian convulsions or paralysis on the other side of the body; if Broca's convolution, motor aphasia if the patient is right-handed and the injury is on the left side of the brain; if the temporal convolutions,

sensory aphasia under the same conditions; if the parietal areas, sensory symptoms on the other side of the body; and if the occipital lobes are involved, hemianopsia on the other side.

Very often a direct injury to the brain will cause no apparent contusion at the point of insult, and even though a fracture is present it may be of such character as not to cause depression. It is hardly possible, however, for a fracture to be present without some symptoms, for if the injury is severe enough to cause a solution of continuity in the bone, it is severe enough to cause an injury of the meninges, this resulting in a laceration of some of its vessels. It is, then, from the focal symptoms caused by the resulting hemorrhage that we are able to make a diagnosis, the symptoms depending upon the part of the brain which is compressed.

Sometimes if the blow is severe enough, or even if the injury is very slight, there may result an accompanying fracture of the base, the symptoms of which will be discussed later. Again, it must be remembered that if an injury is severe enough to cause a fracture, it will also cause a severe contusion of the brain itself, this resulting in multiple areas of small hemorrhage, which later on may become absorbed and no symptoms remain, or this may be replaced by connective tissue. The occurrence of these multiple areas of small hemorrhage will be largely influenced by the state of the blood-vessels in the given individual, for if there is present an arteriosclerosis, such weakening of the blood-vessels may result as to cause a secondary hemorrhage into the brain substance.

Fracture of the Base of the Skull.—Cause.—It is impossible to tell just when and what kind of injury will produce a fracture of the base of the skull. It may result from a fall on the back or buttock or from a blow upon the head. Whenever there results such a fracture, there will be, as a rule, severe injury to the brain, or there may be an accompanying fracture of the vault. In about two-thirds of the cases there will be loss of consciousness, from which the patient may rally in a few or less than twenty-four hours, although it is possible to have a stupor lasting a week or longer with full recovery of the patient, and in those cases in which no unconsciousness results there may be a momentary stupor.

Symptoms.—Accompanying the stupor there may be the physical evidences of injury, such as bleeding or the escape of cerebrospinal fluid from the nose, throat, or ears, rupture of the membranes of the ear, and subconjunctival or subcutaneous ecchymosis back of the ear. There may also be stertorous respiration, a slow, weak pulse, and either a dilatation or contraction of the pupils. Of these, the most important symptom is the condition of respiration, and especially of the pulse. The pupillary symptoms may be absolutely disregarded, for while it is held by a great many that a dilatation of the pupils will always result on the side of the injury, this is probably fallacious.

It is upon the focal symptoms that the diagnosis of fracture of the base must be made. This will depend upon the line of fracture and upon the possible existence of a hemorrhage. In nearly all cases some of the cranial nerves will be involved, and of these, the optic and the sixth, seventh, and eighth cranial nerves are most commonly the seat of injury.

The *first or olfactory nerve* is frequently involved from a fracture in any portion of the skull, probably because of injury to the ethmoid, unilateral or bilateral loss of smell and impairment of taste resulting.

The *second or optic nerve* is very frequently diseased, either on one or both sides. This may be either because of a hemorrhage in or about the optic chiasm, or, what is more frequently the case, because of fracture

through the optic foramen. The impairment of sight will depend upon whether one or both optic nerves are diseased and upon the part of the nerve which is injured. Very frequently there will be neither fracture through the optic foramen nor hemorrhage involving the optic nerve, but a momentary pinching of the nerves. Whether this causes a hemorrhage into the sheath or into the nerve itself, or whether it causes a destruction of fibers with a consequent atrophy, is not known; but the fact remains that such pinching will in many cases result in a diminution and sometimes total loss of vision. In rare instances it is possible to have such an injury of the optic nerve with consequent optic atrophy, without the accompaniment of any other symptom, and more rarely still this impairment of vision may be in the form of irregular hemianopsia.

The *third or oculomotor nerve* is rarely involved, and occurs especially when there is a fracture through the orbit and the middle cranial fossa. It may be unilateral or bilateral. In most instances only part of the distribution of the oculomotor nerve is paralyzed, this resulting in drooping of the upper lid, or possibly a weakness of some of the ocular muscles.

The *fourth nerve* is only rarely diseased in injuries of the brain. The *fifth nerve* is sometimes involved in fracture of the middle cranial fossa, but its occurrence is also rare.

The *sixth, seventh,* and *eighth nerves* are probably more frequently involved in fractures of the base than the other cranial nerves, and in most instances together. This is because the exits of these nerves at the base are so close together.

Very rarely the *ninth, tenth, eleventh,* and *twelfth cranial nerves* are diseased, this causing difficulty in eating, talking, and swallowing, and irregularity of the pulse and respiration. These are only present in severe cases, which nearly always result fatally.

It is characteristic of these cranial nerve palsies that they are not of permanent duration, for in most instances, if the patient lives, a partial and sometimes total recovery may be expected.

Sometimes there results in fracture of the base of the skull hemorrhage from one of the basal arteries. The symptoms of this will depend entirely upon the place of hemorrhage and upon the structures compressed. In most instances the hemorrhage is in or about the optic chiasm, this causing paralysis of the ocular muscles and impairment of vision, and if the hemorrhage is large enough, the general symptoms of compression, such as headache, nausea, vomiting, and choked disc.

Summarizing, then, the symptoms of fracture of the base of the skull, there may be either coma, stupor, or delirium, which may last from a few to twenty-four hours or a number of days, and from which the patient may or may not rally, stertorous respiration, slow, irregular pulse, bleeding from the nose, throat, or ear, sometimes the escape of cerebrospinal fluid, subconjunctival or subcutaneous ecchymosis, and paralysis of some of the cranial nerves, with irregular pupils. If there is an accompanying hemorrhage into the substance of the brain, the symptoms will depend upon whether the motor, sensory, or special fibers are involved; if there is a fracture of the vault, the additional symptoms of this.

The **prognosis** will depend upon the extent of the cranial nerve involvement, whether or not there are hemorrhages in the brain substance, and upon the stupor and the state of the respiration and pulse. The prognosis is always best where the patient rallies within a few or twenty-four hours, and the state of the pulse is the best indication of the results to be expected.

Injuries of the Meninges.—Causes and Symptoms.—Under this head will be considered traumatic diseases of the dura and the pia-arachnoid and rupture of its vessels. In most cases of fracture of the skull there will result some injury of the underlying meninges. This may be a contusion or a laceration of the dura, which may be followed in time by adhesions, the whole giving the picture of an external pachymeningitis. If the internal surface of the dura is involved, there will be adhesions to the pia-arachnoid and the brain itself. The symptoms of external pachymeningitis will depend upon the extent and location of the lesion, the focal symptoms depending upon the part of the brain involved. In all cases there should be some headache localized to the diseased part.

More commonly, however, as a result of injuries to the brain there may be an inflammation of the pia-arachnoid which may involve not only the injured parts, but the meninges of the whole brain and cord, giving the symptoms of a cerebrospinal meningitis. One of the most frequent causes of this is infection through the wound. The symptoms will depend upon the severity of the disease. If the meningitis is of septic character, there will be fever, sweats, chills, coma, stupor or delirium, retraction and rigidity of the head, stiff neck and back, rigidity of the extremities, various cranial nerve palsies, sometimes choked disc, occasional convulsions, either focal or general in character, and paralysis of the limbs which may be hemiplegic in type. Lumbar puncture will always demonstrate the presence of pus and various pyogenic bacteria.

Sometimes an abscess of the brain will follow a septic injury, or it may occur in the course of a purulent meningitis. The symptoms of the former have been sufficiently dealt with under the head of tumors of the brain, while in the latter instance the additional symptoms will depend upon the focal lesions resulting from the location of the abscess.

Meningeal Hemorrhages.—Rupture of the blood-vessels of the meninges is one of the commonest results of injuries of the head, and of these the middle meningeal artery is usually involved. It contains three branches, and, as a rule, an injury will produce laceration only of the central or the principal branch, the focalizing symptoms of which will be convulsions, Jacksonian in character, of the other side of the body, accompanied by paralysis of the hemiplegic type, and if the lesion is on the left side in a right-handed person motor aphasia.

The anterior portion of the middle meningeal artery supplies the frontal convolutions, and in a rupture of this vessel there will be motor aphasia if the lesion is on the left side of the brain in right-handed persons, with stupor, and no focalizing symptoms unless the motor cortex is also involved. The posterior branch of the middle meningeal artery supplies the occipital and parietal convolutions, and hemorrhage of this part will produce hemianopsia plus sensory symptoms on the opposite side of the body. In all these instances there will be the symptoms of the accompanying shock of the hemorrhage, as stupor or coma, irregular pupils, stertorous respiration, and slow pulse. There may or may not be an accompanying fracture of the skull

Injuries of the Brain Substance.—The brain may be severely injured without any external evidence of fracture of the skull. The occurrence of hemorrhage in the brain tissue in conjunction with the latter condition has already been discussed. There may result in any injury to the skull either one hemorrhage or multiple hemorrhages of large size, or, what very frequently occurs, multiple small hemorrhages which can only be detected under the microscope. As a rule, whenever an injury is severe enough to cause a hemorrhage into the brain substance

there will be multiple hemorrhages throughout the brain, and the symptoms will depend largely upon the greatest point of hemorrhage, this in most cases involving the motor fibers. There will be either total or partial unconsciousness or stupor, convulsions, and hemiplegia of one side, with conjugate deviation of the head and eyes and sometimes paralysis on both sides of the body. In such cases the prognosis is almost always hopeless.

Whenever there results multiple microscopic areas of hemorrhage, the symptoms present will be those of cerebral contusion, the patient being in a mentally irritable condition complaining of diffuse headache, dizziness, inability to concentrate, lack of energy, and a general nervousness. In such cases the prognosis in the young is excellent, for these multiple small areas of hemorrhage will practically almost always disappear leaving no symptoms; but if they occur in elderly persons, they may be the starting cause of a slow hemorrhage into the brain tissue.

By *contusion* of the brain is meant that condition which results from a shaking up of the cranial contents. There is usually a dazing or a confusion of the intellect which may be momentary or last from a few minutes to an hour, and from which the patient recovers, the symptoms being entirely of a mental character. As a matter of fact, it is really the condition described in the previous paragraph as resulting from multiple microscopic areas of hemorrhage or softening.

Terminal Effects of Injuries to the Brain.—These will depend largely upon the character of the injury and its effects and the benefit of whatever therapeutic measures have been employed. Injuries to the skull such as those which involve the meninges and brain are among the most frequent causes of traumatic epilepsy. If the injury is over the motor area, Jacksonian convulsions may result, but very often injury anywhere in the brain, especially if this occurs in the young, may be followed by general or idiopathic epilepsy. Such other effects as hemiplegia or diplegia and impairment of vision and sensation need no further discussion.

The mental symptoms are by far the most important. Very often a trivial injury will cause a change in the disposition of the individual and produce more or less irregular headache, dizziness, lack of attention to business details, with the addition of many functional symptoms which will be discussed later.

It is also a mooted question whether injuries to the brain can produce insanity. It is probable that in very rare instances injury may cause the earlier appearance of insanity where there has been a predisposition for it, but it is hardly possible that direct injury to the brain may cause insanity. There is no denying, however, that mental impairment is not an infrequent occurrence.

CHRONIC BULBAR PALSY (GLOSSO-LABIO-LARYNGEAL PARALYSIS)

Definition.—A disease of the motor cranial nerve nuclei of the medulla and pons, usually involving the fifth to the twelfth inclusive, and characterized by progressive weakness, atrophy, and fibrillary tremors in their distribution, with progressive difficulty in talking, eating, and swallowing.

The pathology is similar to that of chronic poliomyelitis, and consists of a progressive degeneration of the motor cranial nuclei. The disease is slow in its onset, and usually begins in the nuclei of the twelfth nerve, gradually involving the other motor nuclei, and only rarely those concerned with the movements of the eyes. Sometimes this degeneration

occurs at the end of an amyotrophic lateral sclerosis, or it may be the starting-point of such disease.

Predisposing and Exciting Factors.—The disease occurs in the latter end of life, and is probably the result of an early death of the parts concerned. It may be a manifestation of a lack of resistance or of maldevelopment. Usually the disease starts without an exciting cause.

Symptoms.—Because of the fact that the nuclei of the twelfth, eleventh, and the motor parts of the tenth and ninth cranial nerves are first diseased, the early manifestations nearly always consist in a slowly increasing difficulty in pronunciation of certain words, especially those in which action of the tongue and lips are prominent, as R, L, G, B, P. At the same time or soon after there will be some difficulty in swallowing, and there may be very early regurgitation of food, and eating becomes slow. Speech becomes more and more difficult, typical bulbar speech being slow, nasal in type, monotonous, indistinct, and hard to understand. Soon after there will be difficulty in chewing, and eating of meat will become almost impossible, the patient living nearly on soft or milk diet. Choking spells are very common, and may come on with the slightest form of irritation of the pharyngeal muscles or independently of the swallowing of food. Coincident with the above symptoms weakness and atrophy will develop first in the tongue, its surface becoming furrowed and irregular, and fibrillary tremors will be prominent. The weakness of the tongue gradually increases until it will be impossible to move it even from side to side. The lips become thin and droop, and with the atrophy of the cheeks produce an expressionless countenance, the so-called bulbar face. Dribbling of saliva is a common symptom, and is probably caused by the inability of the facial and orbicular muscles to retain the secretion. The palatal, pharyngeal, and laryngeal muscles are next involved, and their reflexes are lost early. If the disease progresses, there may be at the very last involvement of the ocular nuclei, causing inability to move the eyes in any direction; but, as a rule, the disease terminates before this, the patient usually choking to death. The mentality is hardly ever involved, although the patient becomes somewhat weak-minded. Sensory symptoms are never present (Fig. 463).



FIG. 463.—CHRONIC BULBAR PALSY IN A CHINAMAN, SHOWING TYPIC FACIES, LACK OF EXPRESSION, AND DROOPING LIPS.

Summary of Diagnosis.—A person past thirty with gradually increasing difficulty in articulation, this terminating in a slow, thick, monotonous, indistinct speech; increasing difficulty in swallowing and chewing, with choking spells, dribbling of saliva, weakness, atrophy, and fibrillary tremors in the facial muscles, lips, and tongue, and absence of the palatal, pharyngeal, and laryngeal reflexes.

Differential Diagnosis.—There should be no difficulty in diagnosing this disease. Occasionally, however, besides the symptoms above enumerated there may be weakness, spasticity, increased reflexes, with atrophy and fibrillary tremors in the muscles of the upper and lower

limbs, such as occur in amyotrophic lateral sclerosis. Again, bulbar palsy may occur at the end of an amyotrophic lateral sclerosis. This subject has been more fully discussed on page 1252.

In pseudobulbar palsy besides the difficulty in eating, talking, and swallowing, there is always a history of preceding attacks of hemiplegia occurring on one and then the other side, with the accompanying symptoms, and, most important of all, there are no fibrillary tremors or atrophy in the face, tongue, and lips.

Acute Bulbar Palsy.—Sometimes as a result either of a thrombosis of one of the bulbar vessels or a hemorrhage or in acute epidemic encephalitis there may be an acute involvement of the nuclei of the medulla. Thrombosis of this area nearly always involves the *inferior cerebellar artery* of one side: The symptoms may come on acutely, with or without unconsciousness, and there will be difficulty in eating, talking, and

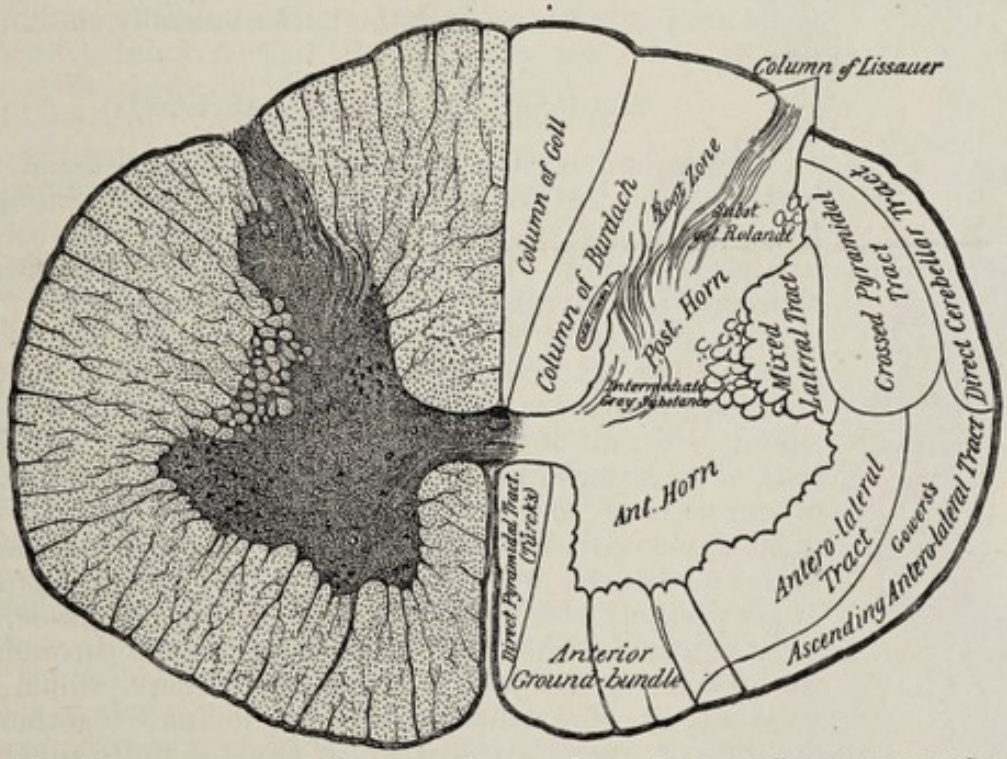


FIG. 464.—CROSS-SECTION OF CERVICAL SPINAL CORD, SHOWING ITS ANATOMIC SUBDIVISIONS (Schaefer).

swallowing, which subsides somewhat in a few days, and there are usually, in addition, motor and sensory symptoms, generally referred to the side opposite the lesion, and unilateral cranial nerve paralysis.

Sometimes as the result of or during the course of infectious diseases, alcoholism, or ptomain poisoning, there may occur areas of hemorrhage or inflammation in the medulla or pons. These have already been discussed under the head of superior and inferior polioencephalitis on page 1195.

Myasthenia Gravis (Asthenic Bulbar Palsy).—By this is understood a disease which is characterized by rapid fatigue and exhaustion in certain muscles. It may be limited to movement of the limbs or may be referred to the distribution of the motor cranial nuclei, especially those concerned with the movement of the eyeballs. It usually occurs in young adults without any apparent cause. When the patient rises in the morning or on first effort there may be no apparent weakness, but gradually, if the symptoms are limited to the cranial nerves, there will be drooping of the

upper lids, with closure of the eyes, diplopia, or weakness in the muscles of the face. Sometimes there may be difficulty in talking and in eating and swallowing. If the patient lies quietly, there may be a temporary recovery of function with weakness again as effort is made. When these symptoms are referred to the limbs, the movement may at first be normal, the patient gradually tiring. It has also been found that the electric reactions to the faradic current, which are normal at first, soon become diminished—the so-called myasthenic reaction. The prognosis in most cases is not very good. Pathologically a disease of the thymus gland has been found in some cases. The motor cranial nuclei are not diseased. (See Thymus Gland, p. 1106.)

Clinical Course and Complications.—The disease hardly ever lasts more than two or three years, the symptoms gradually increasing, the patient usually choking to death.



FIG. 465.—THE FIGURES INDICATE THE RELATIONS OF THE VERTEBRAL BODIES AND SPINES TO THE CORRESPONDING SPINAL SEGMENTS OF THE CORD (Church and Peterson).

DISEASES OF THE SPINAL CORD

The spinal cord is situated in the spinal canal, and extends from the lower portion of the medulla oblongata to a point opposite the upper border of the second lumbar vertebra. It consists of eight cervical, twelve thoracic, five lumbar, and five sacral segments. The cord is composed of gray and white matter, the former being in the center and surrounded by the white matter. The gray matter is divided equally on both sides of the spinal cord and is connected by a commissure and consists of an anterior and a posterior horn. It is composed of nerve-cells and their dendritic processes, axis-cylinders, nerve-fibers, and neurogliar tissue which holds these structures in place. The white matter consists of nerve-fibers and neurogliar and connective tissue, besides arteries, veins, and lymphatic vessels throughout the whole spinal cord. The nerve-fibers which are situated in the white matter are bound together in bundles or tracts, each of which has a definite function. Normally these cannot be differentiated, and it is necessary to have pathologic processes, or what is called secondary degeneration, to bring out the different tracts (Fig. 464).

From the nerve-cells situated in the gray matter of the anterior horn come the so-called anterior roots, which are motor in function. The posterior roots enter into the spinal cord in an area called the entrance root zone, median to the inner surface of the posterior horn of the gray matter. The fibers transmitted by the posterior roots come from the periphery and ascend into the spinal cord, and are sensory in function. On each posterior root is situated a collection of nerve-cells called the posterior root ganglia. The anterior and posterior roots join together to form one nerve which goes through the dura. Each spinal segment has a pair of anterior and posterior roots which form two nerves, one coming off from the right and one from the left side of the cord.

The spinal cord is surrounded by the pial sheath, and is held in place by the anterior and posterior roots and connective-tissue septa (ligamenti denticuli) and by the cerebrospinal fluid, these structures being attached to and surrounded by the dura, which in turn is held in place in the spinal canal by the attached peripheral nerves and bands of connective tissue from the anterior surface of the dura to the vertebra.

Spinal Roots.—The anterior and posterior roots travel within the dura for various lengths before they join to form a peripheral nerve. It is necessary to know the place of exit of each nerve-root, and an easy way to remember it is that every nerve-root leaves the spinal canal at the bottom of the corresponding vertebra; thus, the second lumbar root leaves at the bottom of the second lumbar vertebra, etc. There is an exception, however, so far as the cervical roots are concerned. There are eight cervical segments and only seven cervical vertebra, so that the eighth cervical root leaves at the bottom of the seventh cervical vertebra. As the end of the cord is opposite the upper border of the second lumbar vertebra, the course of the cervical roots in the spinal canal before their exit is very short. It is longer for the thoracic roots and still greater for the roots from the lowest portion of the spinal cord; thus the second lumbar root has a course of three or four inches within the spinal canal.

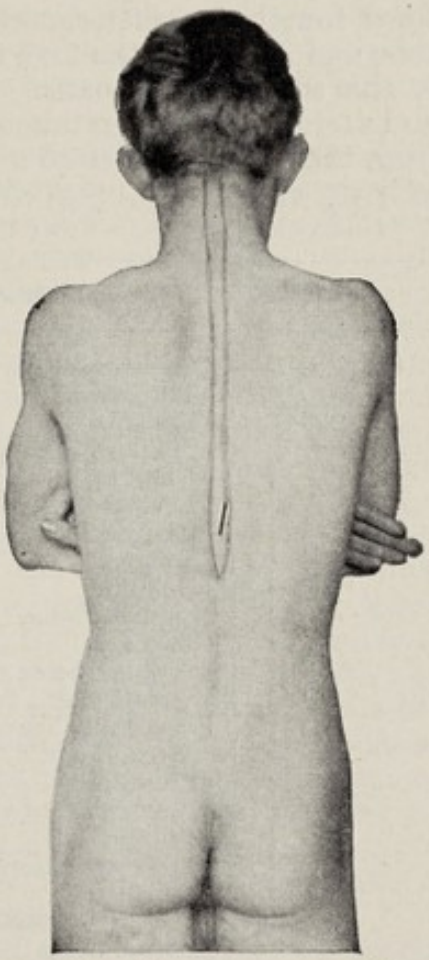


Fig. 466.—Showing the Relation of the Spinal Cord to the Body Surface (Church and Peterson).

Spinal Segments.—It is also necessary from a diagnostic standpoint to know the relations of the different spinal segments to the vertebra. This, however, is not definite and cannot be fixed by any rule, and reference therefore must always be made to charts. It should be remembered, however, that the spinal cord ends opposite the upper border of the second lumbar vertebra, and that sometimes in children it is a little lower. The end of the spinal cord is called the conus medullaris, and its fibrous prolongation the filum terminale (Fig. 466).

Functions.—The spinal cord has two functions: one, to conduct impulses to and from the brain; and, second, to supervise and control the motor and trophic functions of the limbs, chest, and abdomen. A better understanding of the cerebrospinal system will be had if it is remembered that there are two sets of centers in the nervous system, and that in the higher or in the cerebrum is represented the center for every motion, sensation, and special act, in this being included also the cerebellum; and that in the lower centers, in which are included the crus, pons, medulla, and spinal cord, are represented the whole surface of the body. For instance, in the crus, pons, and medulla there are collections of nerve-cells or nuclei which are concerned with the innervation of the movements of the face, eyes, nose, throat, and eating, talking, and swallowing, whereas in the spinal cord the collections of nerve-cells in the anterior horns are concerned with the movements of the limbs, trunk, and abdomen, and that the peripheral nerves which connect the peripheral

musculature with the spinal cord have exactly the same function that the cranial nerves have which connect their musculature with the nuclei in the crus, pons, and medulla.

Localization.—There are two enlargements in the spinal cord—the so-called cervical and lumbar. This is necessary because the enormous musculature of the limbs requires a large number of nerve-cells. The cervical enlargement begins in the fourth and includes the fifth, sixth, seventh, and eighth cervical and first thoracic segments, whereas the lumbar enlargement begins in the first lumbar segment and includes the second, third, fourth, and fifth lumbar. From here on, the spinal cord gradually tapers off. That part of the cord which includes the second, third, fourth, and fifth sacral is called the *conus medullaris*, and just above this, and including the fifth lumbar and first and second sacral segments, is the so-called *epiconus*. The nerve-roots coming from the lumbar and sacral cords, when taken together, have been called the *cauda equina*, from their resemblance to a horse's tail.

MOTOR AND REFLEX FUNCTIONS OF THE SPINAL-CORD SEGMENTS.—(*After Starr and Edinger.*)

Segment.	Muscles.	Reflexes.
Cervical	Sternomastoid.	
	Trapezius.	
2–3	Scaleni.	
	Small rotators of head.	
	Diaphragm.	
	Lev. ang. scap	Dilatation of pupil by irritating side of neck, 4–7 cervical.
	Rhomboids.	
4	Spinati.	
	Deltoid.	
	Supinat. long.	Scapular reflexes, 5 C.–1 D.
5	Biceps.	Supinat. long., 5 C.
	Supinat. brev.	
	Serrat. mag.	
	Pectoralis (clav.).	Biceps, 5–6 C.
	Teres minor.	
6	Pronators.	Posterior wrist, 6–8 C.
	Brachialis ant.	
	Triceps.	
7	Long extensors of wrist and fingers.	Anterior wrist, 7–8 C.
	Pectoralis (costal).	
	Latiss. dorsi.	Palmar, 7 C–1 D.
	Teres maj.	
	Long flexors, wrist and fingers.	Epigastric, 4–7 D.
8	Extensors of thumb.	
Dorsal 1	Intrinsic hand-muscles.	Abdominal, 7–11 D.
2–12	Dorsal and abdominal muscles.	
Lumbar	Abdominal muscles.	Cremaster, 1–3 L.
1	Iliacus.	
	Psoas.	Patellar, 2–4 L.
2	Sartorius.	Bladder, 2–4 L
	Flexors of knee.	
	Quad. femoris.	
3	Int. rotators of thigh.	
	Adductors of thigh.	Rectal, 4 L.–2 S.
4	Abductors of thigh.	
	Tibialis ant.	Gluteal, 4–5 L.
	Calf-muscles.	
	Ex. rotators of thigh.	
5	Extensors of toes.	Achilles, 5 L.
	Peronei.	
Sacral	Long flex. of toes.	Plantar, 1–2 S.
1–2	Intrinsic foot-muscles.	Anal, Virile, 3–5 S.
3–5	Perineal muscles.	

Motor Functions.—The nerve-cells situated in the gray matter of the anterior horns innervate directly the peripheral musculature, and it is probable that a number of nerve-cells are concerned with each nerve-fiber. It is necessary to know what cells are concerned with the innervation of every muscle (see table above). It will be seen from this that we do not know exactly this location, and that approximately every muscle has a representation in the nerve-cells of one or two segments. Should there be a lesion destroying the cells supplying any muscle or group of muscles, there will necessarily be loss of power, and as these nerve-cells are also trophic in function, there will be, in addition, atrophy and loss of tone or flaccidity in the related parts. Besides, in the performance of every movement we have a sensory irritation or impulse, a center which is in the nerve-cells and a peripheral or motor response; this is the so-called physiologic reflex arc, and an interference with any part of it will cause a loss of any form of reflex.

Summarizing, then, the symptoms of a lesion destroying the cells of the anterior horn, there will be loss of power or paralysis in the related muscles, atrophy, loss of tone or flaccidity, loss of reflexes, and electric reactions of degeneration. Such is the case in acute anterior poliomyelitis or acute infantile spinal palsy. Should there be a slow or chronic degeneration of the cells in the anterior horn, such as occurs in chronic poliomyelitis, there will result fibrillary tremors in the related muscle-fibers, gradual atrophy and loss of power, loss of reflexes, and reactions of degeneration.

The second function of the spinal cord is that of conduction of impulses, either from or to the brain. These are transmitted by means of the different tracts situated in the white matter of the spinal cord. The motor functions are transmitted from the motor cortex by means of the crossed and direct pyramidal tracts. For instance, the right crossed pyramidal tract comes from the left motor cortex, the decussation having taken place in the medulla. From the pyramidal tracts these fibers probably go to the cells of the anterior horn of the spinal cord of the same side, and from these cells come the anterior roots, and from the anterior roots the motor part of the peripheral nerves. A lesion of the motor columns causes weakness, spasticity, increased reflexes, and the Babinski phenomenon. If the lesion involves the pyramidal tracts above the cervical cord, these symptoms are present in both the upper and lower limbs, but if the lesion is below the cervical enlargement, it is only possible to have these symptoms in the lower limb on the same side.

Reflexes.—The reflexes to be considered are the biceps and triceps in the upper, and the patellar or knee-jerk and the Achilles jerk in the lower limbs. Whenever there is an exaggerated spasticity, there may be ankle and patellar clonus. In every lesion of the motor columns involving the big fibers there will be obtained the so-called Babinski reflex.

Electric Reactions of Degeneration.—A normal nerve or muscle will respond to any form of electrical stimulation. A muscle without its normal nerve supply degenerates and reacts abnormally to electrical stimulation. Normal electrical reactions are as follows: Stimulation of the nerve with a faradic current produces a quick and sharp contraction of the muscle; the same is obtained with a galvanic excitation, but the galvanic cathodal closing contraction (CCC) is greater than the anodal closing contraction (CCC). Exciting the muscles directly by placing the electrode over the respective motor-points of the individual muscles gives the same results as nerve stimulation. A complete reaction of degeneration (RD) consists of loss of excitability of the nerve to both currents; loss of faradic excitability of the muscle; hyperexcitability of

the muscle to galvanic, contracting slowly and sluggishly, and the ACC. becomes greater than the CCC.

Reactions of degeneration are not obtained until about one or two

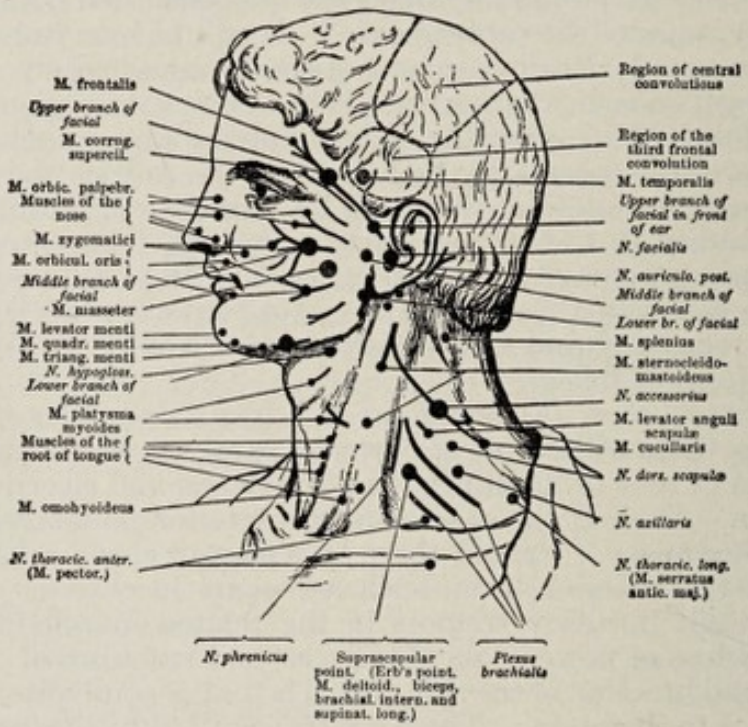


FIG. 467.—NERVES AND MOTOR POINTS IN FACE AND NECK.

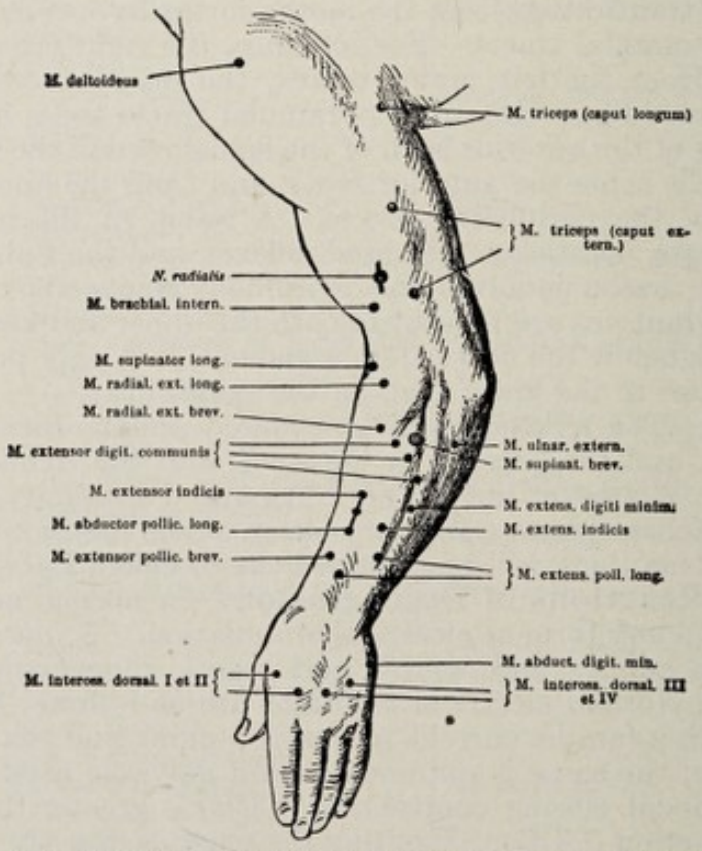


FIG. 468.—NERVES AND MOTOR POINTS IN UPPER EXTREMITY.

weeks after the severance of the nerve, and should never be sought for as long as a nerve is inflamed or there is pain on pressure. Its presence makes the prognosis doubtful; its absence, good (Figs. 467–471).

Sensory Functions.—The sensory fibers which enter the spinal cord by means of the posterior roots take various courses after their entrance.

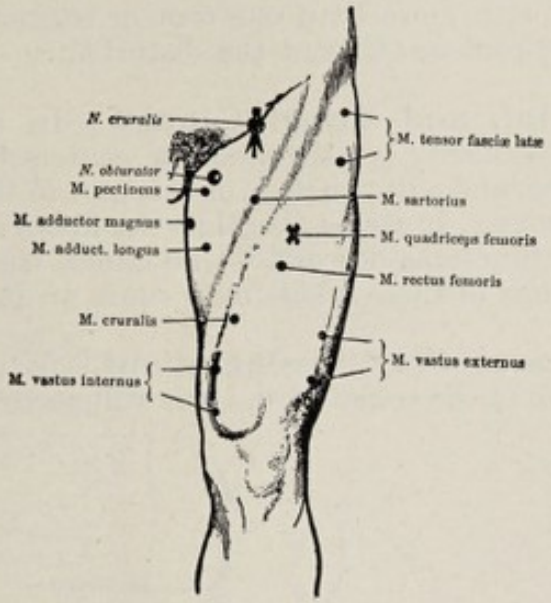


FIG. 469.—NERVES AND MOTOR POINTS IN LOWER EXTREMITY.

If a disease involves a posterior root and destroys its fibers, there will be loss of all forms of sensation in the parts from which these fibers come. The skin areas of sensation which are in relation to a posterior root are

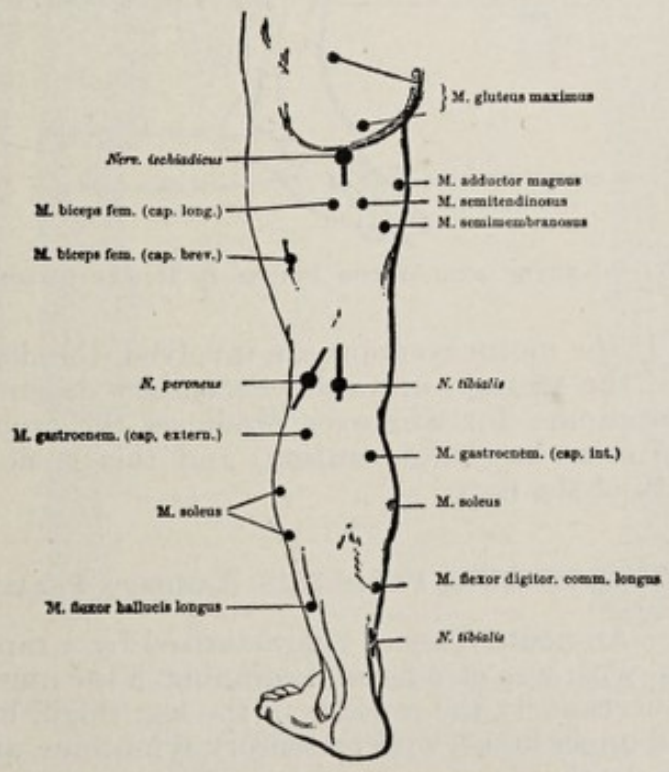


FIG. 470.—NERVES AND MOTOR POINTS IN LOWER EXTREMITY.

fairly well known, and run in bands lengthwise in the limbs and horizontally in the chest and abdomen. It is necessary to distinguish the area of sensation in relation with a certain root from that of the segment which this root supplies. In the former the disturbance of sensation will always

be unilateral, while in a lesion involving any segment of the spinal cord the disturbance of sensation is most often bilateral (Plate XIII). It is probable that sensation in any part of the limbs or of the chest and abdomen is in relation with more than one root or segment, and in a lesion which destroys one root or segment the disturbance of sensation will be very limited.

Bladder, Rectal, and Sexual Centers.—In the second, third, and fourth sacral segments are situated the centers for bladder, rectal, and sexual functions, and a destruction of this part of the cord will cause a loss of these functions. It seems also that the fibers concerned with the bladder and rectal functions descend in the lateral columns of the spinal cord, and that lesions in these tracts may cause an impairment in these functions.

Influence of Secondary Degenerations.—Whenever there is a lesion in any portion of the spinal cord, there will necessarily be secondary

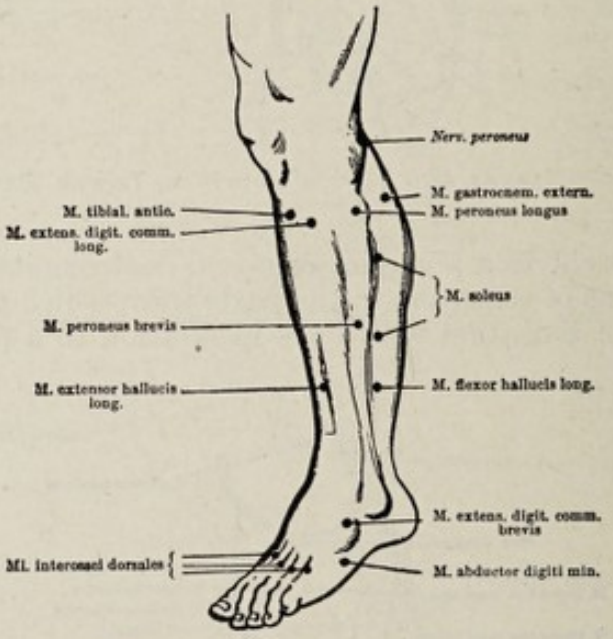


Fig. 471.—Nerves and Motor Points in Lower Extremity.

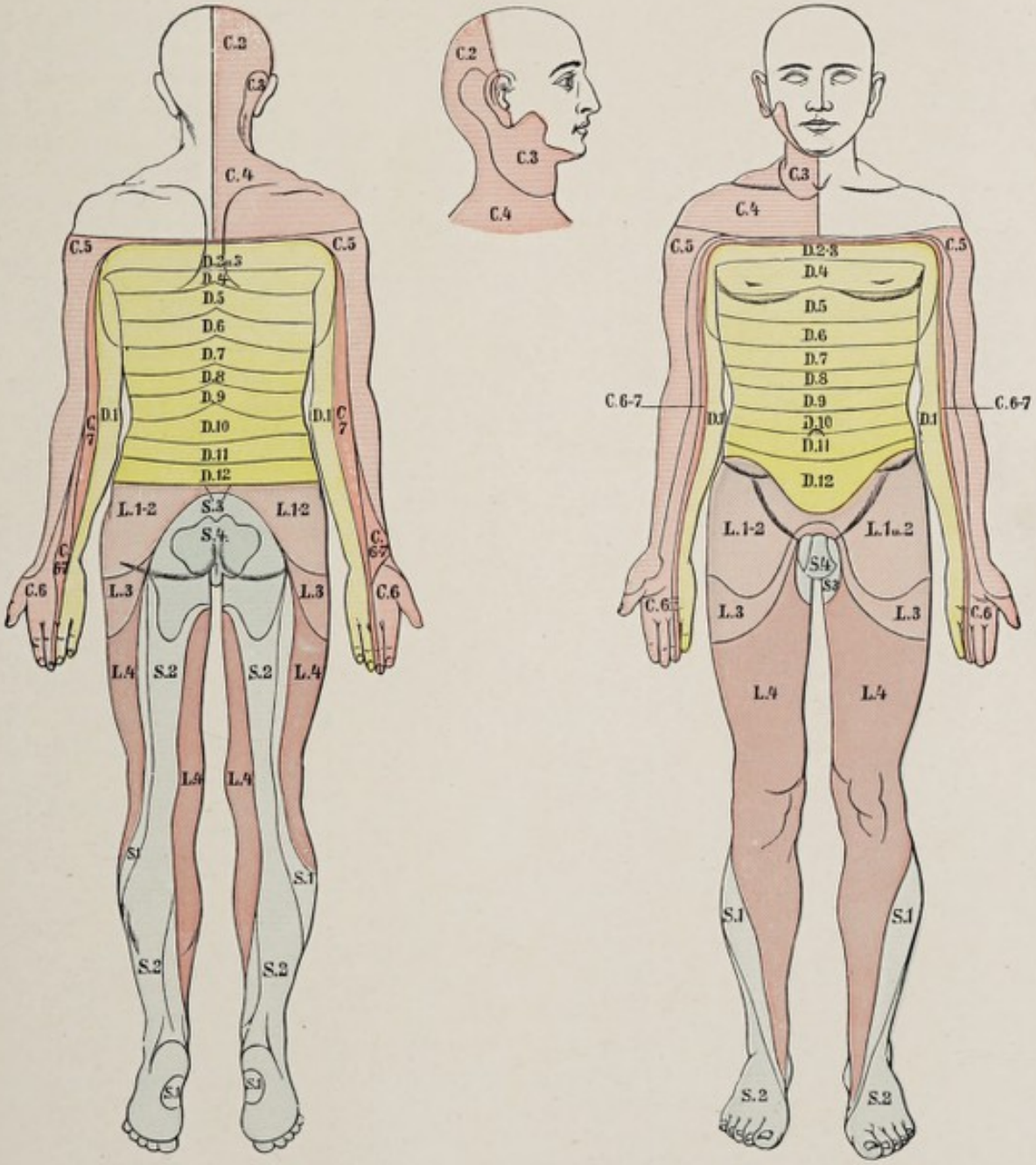
degeneration. If the motor columns are involved, the degeneration will be downward; if the sensory, upward. Secondary degenerations do not cause active symptoms, for whatever produced the original lesion has also caused the secondary degeneration, and this is no more than a mechanical death of the part.

ACUTE ASCENDING PARALYSIS (Landry's Paralysis)

Definition.—An acute disease, characterized by a rapidly ascending flaccid paralysis, with loss of reflexes, beginning in the muscles of the foot and involving successively the muscles of the leg, thigh, buttocks, abdomen, thorax, and upper limbs, with no sensory symptoms, and terminating in most cases in death.

In the original description of Landry no alterations in the nervous tissue were discovered. Since then, while we still accept the view that there is a type of acute ascending paralysis as originally described, it is a fact that most of these cases are either types of acute anterior poliomyelitis or multiple neuritis. There are, however, true cases of Landry's

PLATE XIII



The Sensory Innervation of the Body by the Spinal Segments, according to Kocher.

Red: Cervical segments.
Brown: Dorsal "
Violet: Lumbar "
Blue: Sacral "
} The intensity of the color depends upon the level of the segment.

C_2, D_2, L_2, S_2, etc. = Second cervical, dorsal, lumbar, sacral segment, etc.

paralysis, and in these there has been found pathologically alterations in the nerve-cells of the anterior horns, an engorgement of the vessels of the cord, and a slight inflammation of the meninges. Diffuse inflammation of the spinal cord is rarely observed.

Contributing and Exciting Factors.—It has been known to follow a cold, influenza, various infectious diseases, and other similar causes. It is probable that it is due to an acute intoxication, and that this may be caused by various agents, and that the toxin acts upon the entire central nervous system. The toxic theory is supported by the uniform finding of an enlarged spleen and the febrile symptoms which usually usher in and accompany the paralysis. Bacteriologically a number of bacilli have been found, but none are characteristic.

Symptoms.—The onset is acute and there is usually a rise of temperature with its accompanying symptoms. There is first a diminution of power in the muscles of the lower limbs, nearly always of the foot and leg. This ascends rapidly, and in the course of one, two, or a number of days there is successive involvement in the muscles of the buttocks, loins, abdomen, chest, arms, and neck. The limbs are flaccid, the reflexes are lost, and there may be some paresthetic phenomena, such as numbness, but no other sensory disturbances. The bladder and rectum are never involved and the mind remains clear to the end. The course is rapid and may be fatal in a few days, through either respiratory or cardiac paralysis.

This symptom-complex has been modified to a considerable degree, and while we still recognize a rapidly ascending form of paralysis, other symptoms may be present. It can be assumed that the symptoms just described are to be found in the early stages of the disease, and if it be not fatal we may have added anesthesia of the limbs, abdomen, and chest, pain on pressure over the nerve-trunks, atrophy of the muscles, reactions of degeneration, and sometimes paresis of the functions of the bladder and rectum. If the medulla oblongata is involved, there are added the symptoms of bulbar palsy.

Summary of Diagnosis.—Acute onset with rapidly ascending flaccid paralysis of the muscles of the leg, thigh, abdomen, chest, arms, and neck, with loss of reflexes; no disturbance of sensation, with the exception of occasional numbness in the limbs; and no involvement of the bladder and rectum, the disease terminating in death in a few days. The mind remains clear to the end. If death does not ensue, the subsequent symptoms are those of an acute ascending myelitis.

Differential Diagnosis.—Most cases of so-called Landry's paralysis are either types of acute anterior poliomyelitis, multiple neuritis or of acute epidemic encephalo-myelitis (see p. 908). From the former the disease can be distinguished by the rapidity of its course, and by the fact that the paralysis is ascending and involves both sides equally, whereas in acute anterior poliomyelitis the paralysis is partial and involves only part of a limb. From multiple neuritis Landry's disease can be distinguished by the fact that there is absence of pain on pressure over the nerve-trunks and of anesthesia, while in multiple neuritis the paralysis is limited only to the muscles supplied by the different peripheral nerves.

Clinical Course and Complications.—The disease is usually of rapid progress, terminating in death in a few days. If, however, the patient lives, there will be present, as described, the symptoms of acute ascending myelitis, with remaining disturbance of sensation and motion and bladder and rectal symptoms.

CHRONIC POLIOMYELITIS (SUBACUTE ANTERIOR POLIOMYELITIS); PROGRESSIVE MUSCULAR ATROPHY (PROGRESSIVE SPINAL MUSCULAR ATROPHY)

Definition.—Under the above headings are discussed those diseases in which there is progressive or chronic degeneration of the cells in the anterior horns of the spinal cord. Different symptoms are described in each, but in all the pathology is the same, the difference in the clinical symptoms being due to the extent and rapidity of the chronic degenerative process. All are characterized by weakness, atrophy, fibrillary tremors, and gradual loss of reflexes and of the normal electric reactions. In all the disease comes on in adults, more especially after the fortieth year, and nearly always the pathologic process involves predominantly the cervical cord, causing the symptoms to be referred largely to the upper limbs. (See also p. 903.)

Contributing and Exciting Factors.—The causes that produce a chronic degenerative disease of the cells in the anterior horns are not definitely known, but inasmuch as the process begins in the latter end of life it may result, first, because of a primary defect in the development of these structures, or what has been termed an abiotrophy; and, secondly, in the spinal cord as well as in the other parts of the cerebrospinal system there is constantly going on a process of wear and repair. If the repair is not equal to the wear, there may result a premature degeneration or destruction of certain elements, and if, added to this, there is some defect in development, there may result chronic degenerations in the cells of the anterior horn, as in the subject under discussion, or in other portions of the cord, as in lateral and amyotrophic lateral sclerosis.

The exciting causes of the degenerative process are not known, but it is possible that severe injuries of the cord, an old inflammation, or possibly syphilis, may be the starting-point of the process.

Varieties and Symptoms.—Inasmuch as the terminal picture in all the varieties is the same, the symptoms known under the different headings enumerated will appear in the beginning of the disease. These depend upon the extent and rapidity of the involvement of the cells in the anterior horns, and are discussed separately.

Chronic Poliomyelitis (Subacute Poliomyelitis).—Under these headings are included those diseases in which the degeneration of the cells in the anterior horns comes on subacutely or more rapidly than in progressive muscular atrophy, and in which the first symptom is that of weakness, to be followed by atrophy and fibrillary tremors. In the latter disease the first symptom is that of atrophy, followed by wekaness or paralysis.

The disease always comes on in adult life, and the patient first notices a weakness in one upper limb, nearly always the right, which is soon followed by a similar weakness in the left. The diminution in power is not limited to a few muscles, but nearly always involves the whole hand, arm, or forearm. Very soon the muscles in the right limb gradually atrophy and fibrillary tremors make their appearance. The tendon reflexes gradually diminish and electric excitability, both by faradic and galvanic currents, becomes diminished. This atrophic weakness continues, and may finally involve the lower limbs, and also the muscles of the head and neck and the chest and abdomen. In the terminal stage the reflexes are lost and there is no response to electric currents because of the absence of muscle.

Progressive Muscular Atrophy (Progressive Spinal Muscular Atrophy).—This comes on nearly always after the thirtieth year, and the

patient first notices a wasting in the small muscles of the palm of the hand, soon followed by fibrillary twitchings, or the tremors may appear first. The muscles of the thenar and hypothenar eminences and of the interossei are nearly always the first to be affected, and as the atrophy, tremors, and weakness increase, the patient will experience increasing difficulty in adducting and abducting the fingers and the thumb, or flexing or extending the phalanges. This may be first noticed by a lessened ability to write or sew or to approximate the thumb with the tips of the other fingers. As the disease progresses, because of the involvement of the interossei and lumbricales, there appears what is known as the *claw hand*, because of the hyperextension at the metacarpal joints and flexion of the phalanges. Because of the wasting of the dorsal thumb muscles there may be what is known as the *monkey hand*.

In most cases the right hand is involved or there may be a coincident involvement of both hands. The progress of the disease is slow and it may take a year or more for the atrophy to extend above the wrist. Gradually the muscles of the forearm, and then the arm, become atrophic and weak, and fibrillary tremors are seen everywhere. As the atrophy involves more and more of the hand, the so-called claw hand disappears and there is extension of all the fingers, or what is called the *skeleton hand*.

As a rule, the disease next involves the muscles of the shoulder and neck, that is, the trapezoid, rhomboid, and sternomastoid muscles, causing the head to fall forward, or it involves, instead, the muscles of the shoulder. The ganglion cells in the lumbar region next becomes involved, causing progressive atrophy, tremors, and weakness in the lower limbs. As this progresses there may be involvement of all the anterior horn cells in the spinal cord, causing wasting, tremors, and weakness in every part of the body. If the patient does not die because of involvement of the respiratory muscles, the disease may progress upward and involve the motor nuclei in the medulla and pons, causing symptoms of bulbar palsy, with difficulty in eating, talking, swallowing, and chewing, with atrophy and tremors in the related muscles. As a rule, however, the patient dies before bulbar paralysis comes on.

The tendon reflexes become gradually diminished as the disease progresses, and finally will be lost, either because of destruction of the reflex arc or absence of muscle and tendon to produce the reflex. The excitability to both faradic and galvanic currents is diminished from the start and finally is lost. Sensory symptoms are never present and the bladder and rectum are never involved until the last, when the sphincters become weak. This is probably because their innervation is in the spinal cord. The different bones and joints in the limb take part in the general atrophy. Mentality does not become seriously involved until the last.

Summary of Diagnosis.—Chronic Poliomyelitis (Subacute Poliomyelitis).—A previously healthy adult develops increasing weakness in one or both upper limbs, or more rarely in one or both lower limbs. This is followed by gradually increasing atrophy, with fibrillary tremors, gradual loss of tendon reflexes and of excitability to both faradic and galvanic currents. Sensation is not impaired and bladder and rectal involvement does not occur.

Progressive Muscular Atrophy (Progressive Spinal Muscular Atrophy).—A previously healthy adult develops wasting, with fibrillary tremors in the muscles of the thenar and hypothenar eminences, and in the interossei and lumbricales muscles of one hand, usually the right. Atrophy and tremor precede the weakness. These progress and involve finally all the muscles of the hand, forearm, and arm, usually of both sides,

causing in their progress the so-called claw and monkey's hand. The muscles of the back, shoulder, and neck next become diseased, and finally the lower limbs and the muscles of the abdomen and trunk. If the patient lives long enough, bulbar symptoms supervene. The tendon reflexes and the excitability to the electric currents are gradually diminished and finally lost. Sensation and mentality are never impaired. Bladder and rectal impairment does not occur until the last.

Differential Diagnosis.—In their onset these diseases must be differentiated from amyotrophic lateral sclerosis and syringomyelia. In amyotrophic lateral sclerosis there will be, in addition, spastic symptoms in the lower limbs, with increase of tendon reflexes and the Babinski reflex, while in syringomyelia there is the typical dissociation of sensation, that is, the ability to recognize touch and not pain and temperature sensations. (See Cell Count, pp. 1268 and 1362 also Colloidal Gold Test, p. 1287.)

Clinical Course and Complications.—The progress of the disease is slow and bulbar involvement is not very common. Usually the patient dies from some intercurrent cause.

AMYOTROPHIC LATERAL SCLEROSIS

Definition.—A progressive disease, characterized by gradual atrophy, fibrillary tremors, and weakness, usually beginning in the small muscles of one hand, and finally involving all the muscles of both upper and sometimes of the lower limbs and of the chest and abdomen, with spasticity, and increased reflexes of the lower and later of the upper limbs, terminating in bulbar palsy.

The pathology of the disease consists in a gradual degeneration of the cells of the anterior horns of the spinal cord, with a primary degeneration of the motor or pyramidal tracts throughout their whole extent. The disease is allied to progressive muscular atrophy, and probably has the same etiology, that is, an abiotrophy or lack of vital endurance of both the motor columns and the cells of the anterior horns. The cells of the anterior horns in the cervical cord are nearly always predominantly affected, and their symptoms develop first. The degeneration of the motor columns usually begins at the same time or soon after, and first involves the spinal portions only; but as the disease progresses the whole cortico-spinal motor tracts are involved, and in not a few instances the degeneration can be traced into the motor cortical centers. The degeneration of the cells of the anterior horns extends finally into the thoracic and lumbar cords and the motor nuclei of the medulla and pons. Degenerations of the anterior motor roots coming from the cells of the anterior horns have also been found. The peripheral nerves show typical atrophy.

Symptoms.—The onset of the disease is similar to that of progressive muscular atrophy. There is usually first wasting, with tremors in the muscles of the thenar and hypothenar eminences, and then in the dorsal interossei and lumbricales, followed by weakness. These symptoms progress slowly and involve the muscles of the forearm and arm or one or both upper limbs. Coincident with this progressive wasting, tremor, and weakness, the patient experiences difficulty or stiffness in walking, stumbling over slight objects. The weakness and stiffness of the lower limbs increase, and if the patient is examined at this time there will be found spasticity with increased tendon reflexes, with ankle and patellar clonus and the Babinski reflex. As the disease progresses the tendon reflexes in the upper limbs become increased and contractures may

develop in both the upper and lower limbs. Besides the spastic paralysis of the lower limbs the muscles gradually atrophy and fibrillary tremors are prominent.

As the disease progresses not only may there develop atrophy, weakness, and tremors in the muscles of the abdomen and chest, but because of the involvement of the motor nuclei in the medulla and pons there supervene the symptoms of bulbar palsy, with difficulty in eating, talking, swallowing, and chewing, the patient finally choking to death. If the patient lives long enough, nearly every case of amyotrophic lateral sclerosis terminates in bulbar palsy. Sometimes the bulbar symptoms may be the very beginning of the amyotrophic lateral sclerosis, but this is rare.

Sensory symptoms are never present. Bladder and rectal impairment is not an uncommon symptom. This is because the cortico-spinal sphincter fibers are probably transmitted in the lateral columns. The mental functions are not impaired until the last.

The tendon reflexes in this disease are nearly always increased, but may be lost in the latter end because of the complete atrophy of the muscle and tendon. Electric reactions are first normal, but later may become diminished.

As in all cases where there is a degeneration of the lateral columns, there may occur spasmodic contractures of one or of both limbs which are more or less painful.

Summary of Diagnosis.—A previously healthy adult develops wasting, fibrillary tremors, and weakness in the small muscles of the hand, usually the right, which gradually increases, and involves the hand, forearm, and arm of both sides. Coincident with this, or soon after, the lower limbs become weak, stiff, the gait is slow and spastic, the reflexes are very much exaggerated, and the Babinski phenomenon is present. The upper limbs soon become spastic and stiff and their tendon reflexes are exaggerated. The atrophy and tremors involve the lower limbs and finally the muscles of the abdomen and chest, terminating in bulbar palsy, with difficulty in eating talking, swallowing, and chewing, the patient finally choking to death. (See Cell Count of Spinal Fluid, p. 1268 and Colloidal Gold Test, p. 1287.)

Differential Diagnosis.—In the onset of this disease the symptoms resemble those of progressive muscular atrophy and syringomyelia. From the first it can be distinguished by the presence of spastic symptoms, with increased reflexes in the lower and upper limbs, and from syringomyelia by the fact that there are no sensory symptoms, such as inability to recognize pain and temperature with preservation of touch sensation.

Clinical Course and Complications.—The progress of the disease is usually slow, the length of life depending upon the bulbar involvement. Usually after this appears the patient dies in from one to two years, either because of disturbance of the vagi, or, what is commonly the case, he chokes to death.

LATERAL SCLEROSIS (PRIMARY)

Definition.—A progressive disease, characterized by weakness, spasticity, and increased tendon reflexes of the lower and upper limbs.

Contributing and Exciting Factors.—Focal infection is frequently present, and is claimed as an exciting factor in certain instances. It is possible that the degeneration or sclerosis of the motor columns is primary, and not dependent upon a previous disease, and is the result of a lack of vital endurance. The degeneration involves equally the direct

and crossed pyramidal tracts of both sides, and affects first the thoracic and lumbar regions. The sclerosis is progressive, and in the course of many years it may involve the whole cortico-spinal motor tracts. Its isolated occurrence is rare.

Symptoms.—The disease nearly always begins in early adult life or about the twentieth year. The patient first notices that he does not walk as quickly as formerly and that there is a tendency to stumble over slight objects. This may be apparent in one or both lower limbs. Gradually the gait becomes stiff and slow and the limbs weak, until finally the patient can only walk with difficulty, dragging both toes, feet scraping the ground. The limbs become rigid and there is considerable resistance if an attempt is made to move them, it being likened to the resistance offered in bending a lead pipe. Spasms or cramps of the muscles are common, and often when walking is attempted spasm of the adductors of the thigh will cause the so-called scissors gait, in which one leg is placed directly in front of the other (Plate XIV).

The patellar and Achilles jerks become gradually increased and ankle and patellar clonus is common. Plantar irritation will always produce the Babinski reflex. There is never disturbance of sensation, but the patient may complain of numbness. The muscles are firm and rigid and their nutrition good. Atrophy never occurs.

For many years the rigidity and weakness may be confined to the lower limbs, but gradually the upper become similarly involved, and there will develop an increasing rigidity with exaggeration of the triceps and biceps reflexes, and sometimes clonus of these reflexes. If the sclerosis involves the motor columns above the pyramidal decussation, there will be increase of the jaw jerk, and, what is not at all infrequent, spasms of the muscles concerned with the emotions or involuntary laughing and crying.

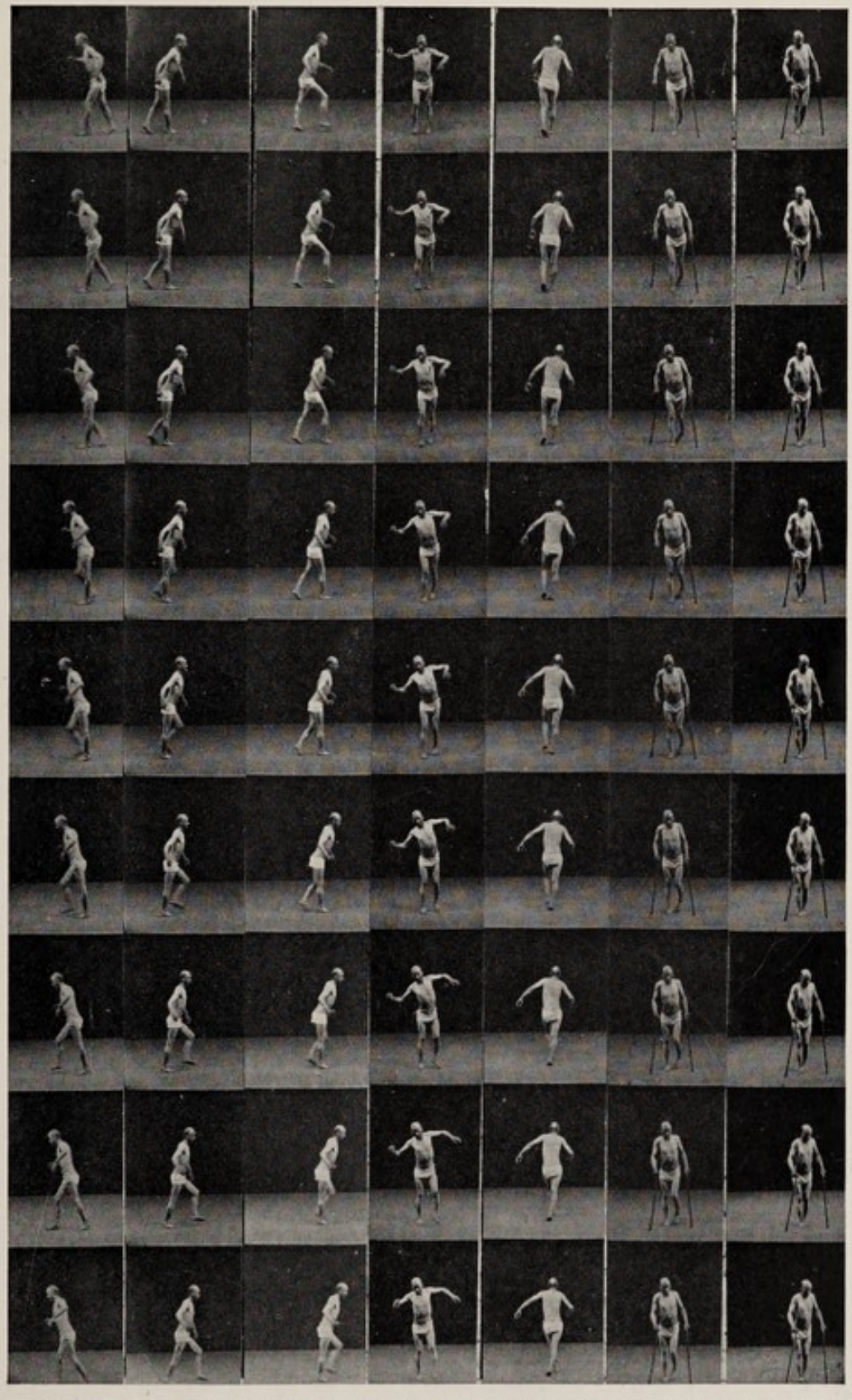
Hereditary or Family Spastic Paralysis.—There is a form of lateral sclerosis which is hereditary, several or all the members of the same family being affected. The symptoms may appear soon after birth or in early childhood, or may not appear until early adult life, and in no other way differ from the usual form.

Unilateral Ascending or Descending Sclerosis of the Motor Columns. Only recently Mills described a form of lateral ascending or descending degeneration of the motor columns limited to one side. The disease may first affect one lower limb and in the course of time involve the upper, or vice versa. It may be the beginning of a bilateral sclerosis or the starting-point of a multiple sclerosis.

Summary of Diagnosis.—Weakness or stiffness of one or both lower limbs, progressive in character, with a stiff spastic gait in which one foot is dragged after the other, sometimes causing the so-called scissors gait, in which one foot is placed in front of the other; exaggerated patellar Achilles jerks, with patellar and ankle clonus and the Babinski phenomenon. Pain and disturbance of sensation never occur. The muscles are tense and rigid, cramp-like contractures are common, and atrophy is never present.

Differential Diagnosis.—Primary lateral sclerosis is rare. Inasmuch as sclerosis of the lateral columns may occur in amyotrophic lateral sclerosis, and in any disease in which the motor columns are interrupted, as, for instance, in a myelitis, such a diagnosis should not be made until after a number of years have elapsed and there is either no beginning atrophy and fibrillary tremors common in amyotrophic lateral sclerosis, or there is no history of previous paralysis with disturbance of sensation such as occurs in myelitis.

PLATE XIV



Moving Picture of Spastic Gait in a Case of Lateral Sclerosis. (Courtesy of Mr. Sigmund Lubin of Philadelphia, Pa.)

Clinical Course and Complications.—The disease lasts for a long time, and it is possible for the sclerotic process to proceed for thirty or forty years. As the spastic symptoms increase the rigidity may become so extreme that the patient will be unable to walk and becomes bedridden, and there may develop contractures in which the thighs are drawn up on the abdomen and legs on the thighs. Contractures in the upper limbs are not so common, but may occur. Sometimes there may be a slight disturbance of bladder functions, because of the fact that the cortical sphincter fibers are probably transmitted in the motor columns.

EPILOIA

Epiloia is a coined name given to a syndrome consisting of hypertrophic sclerosis of the cortex of the cerebrum with nodular swellings on the floor of the lateral ventricles, associated with adenoma sebaceum, with growths in the kidneys, more rarely in the spleen and lungs, and practically always accompanied by mental deficiency, and sooner or later by epilepsy.

SYRINGOMYELIA

Definition.—A chronic disease, characterized principally by typical dissociation of sensation, that is, ability to recognize touch, with loss or disturbance of pain and temperature sensations, combined with atrophy, fibrillary tremors, weakness in the upper and sometimes in the lower limbs, with spasticity and exaggerated reflexes, especially in the lower limbs.

Pathologically there is usually found a cavity in the central portion of the spinal cord. It is usually largest in the cervical region and diminishes gradually as the thoracic and lumbar segments are approached, and may extend upward into the medulla and pons. The cavity usually involves the gray matter and may extend into the posterior and lateral columns, and may rarely affect only one side of the cord. In life it is filled with fluid.

Contributing and Exciting Factors.—The syringomyelic cavity in most instances results from lack of normal development of the spinal cord. Sometimes there is first an overgrowth of neurogliar tissue, a central gliosis, or a tumor which breaks down, forming a cavity. More rarely traumatism may sometimes produce hemorrhages into the cord, these breaking down and producing cavities. Sometimes the normal central canal is widened, producing what is called a hydromyelia; but unless it is very large, there may be no symptoms.

Symptoms.—The whole symptom-complex of this disease depends upon the interruption of the fibers concerned with pain and temperature sensations, with preservation of touch sensation and the involvement of the anterior cornu and lateral columns. This is because the pain and temperature fibers cross over in the central gray matter, and as the cavity is nearly always in this area, these functions are interrupted. If the cavity is limited only to the central gray matter, there may be present only the dissociation of sensation which is referred to the related peripheral part, usually in the upper limb, but in most cases the cavity also involves the adjacent cells of the anterior horns plus the lateral columns, their related symptoms developing, such as fibrillary tremors, atrophy, weakness with spasticity, and increased reflexes of the lower limbs. It can be readily seen, then, that the symptoms in different cases may vary.

The disease usually begins in a young adult, the patient sometimes becoming aware of it by the fact that he burns himself without pain.

If examined, touch sensation will be found to be normal, but heat or cold or both will not be recognized as such. Sometimes one or the other temperature sensations are alone disturbed, or heat may be as cold and cold referred to as hot. The disturbed areas are usually in the upper limbs, chest, and back, depending upon what spinal segments are destroyd. Coincident with this dissociation, or soon after, atrophy, tremors, and weakness in the small muscles of the hand develop, and there may be present a typical claw hand, its progress being very much like that of either progressive muscular atrophy or amyotrophic lateral sclerosis. Soon after there may develop weakness and spasticity of the lower limbs, with exaggeration of the tendon reflexes and the Babinski phenomenon (Fig. 472).



Fig. 472.—Atrophy and Contractures in Syringomyelia.

The progress of the disease is usually slow, and may last for twenty or thirty years, with gradual increase of the wasting, tremors, and loss of power, finally involving all of the upper limbs, shoulders, and chest, and sometimes the lower limbs. The areas of sensory dissociation also gradually increase. If the cavity involves the gray matter of the lumbar and sacral cord, besides the sensory dissociation in the lower limbs and buttocks there will be impairment or loss of bladder, rectal, and sexual functions, and sometimes there may be loss of the knee or Achilles jerks because of interference with the central portions of the reflex arcs.

If the cavity extends into the medulla and pons, the symptoms depend upon the extent of the involvement. Usually in the medulla the cavity is unilateral, and there may be partial difficulty in eating, talking, and swallowing; or if bilateral, typical bulbar symptoms develop with tremors, atrophy and weakness in the tongue, facial, masseter, and pterygoid muscles. If the cavity involves the sensory fibers, there may be dissociation of sensation in the face. Rarely primary optic atrophy occurs,

and more rarely still pupillary symptoms because of involvement of the cervical sympathetic.

Trophic symptoms are very common in syringomyelia. These may consist in different forms of skin eruption or a destruction of the joints either of the fingers or of the wrist and elbow or shoulder, resembling very much the so-called Charcot joint of tabes dorsalis. Occasionally there may be sharp shooting pains in the limbs and girdle sense (Fig. 473).

Summary of Diagnosis.—A young adult suddenly burns himself without being aware of it, or there may develop tremors, wasting, and weakness in the small muscles of the hand, with claw-like contractures. Examination demonstrates preservation of touch, with loss or disturbance of pain or temperature sensations, or of both, in the upper limbs and chest. Atrophy, tremors, and weakness may develop in the lower limbs, and there may be, in addition, spasticity with exaggerated reflexes and the Babinski phenomenon. The dissociation of sensation increases and may involve considerable areas of the back, front of the chest, and upper limbs. If the disease progresses into the thoracic and lumbar cords, similar dissociation will be present in the chest, abdomen, and lower limbs. Rarely dissociation of sensation in the face and bulbar symptoms may supervene.

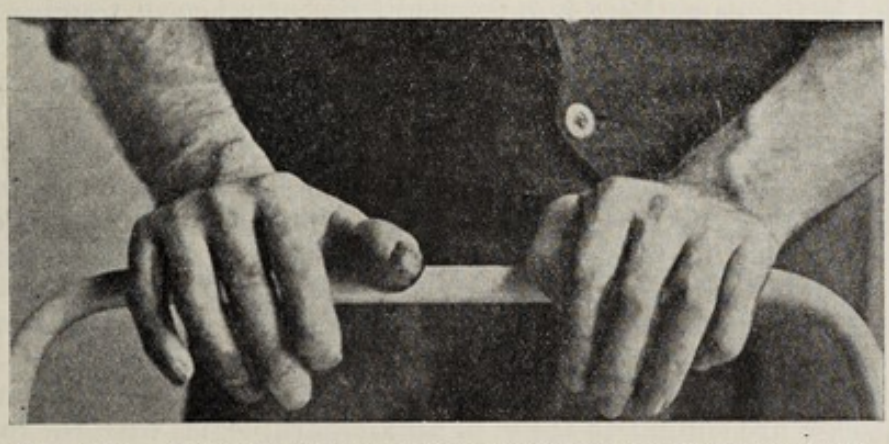


FIG. 473.—TROPHIC ENLARGEMENT OF THUMB IN SYRINGOMYELIA.

Differential Diagnosis.—There should be no difficulty in recognizing this disease because of the typical dissociation of sensation. In its early progress, however, it may be necessary to differentiate it from progressive muscular atrophy and amyotrophic lateral sclerosis, but this can be usually done by the sensory symptoms.

Clinical Course and Complications.—The disease is of long duration and the patient may live for many years. The pathologic process is progressive, and if the cavity extends into the medulla and pons there may be death from bulbar involvement, but, as a rule, in this disease the patient dies of some intercurrent cause.

POSTEROLATERAL SCLEROSIS

Under this heading will be discussed all of the different spinal cord diseases in which the posterior and lateral columns are affected. In this are included *ataxic paraplegia*, *subacute combined sclerosis*, *diffuse sclerosis*, and the *degenerations which occur in wasting diseases* and *pernicious anemia*.

In all the pathology is the same. There is involvement always of the posterior columns, especially of the columns of Goll, of the lateral or motor columns, and to a less extent of the direct cerebellar tracts. The degeneration seems to be greater in the thoracic than in the cervical or lumbar

segments. The difference in the clinical symptoms depends upon the rapidity of the onset, the preponderant involvement of either the lateral or the posterior columns, and the extension of the disease into the direct cerebellar or the anterior tracts.

In *ataxic paraplegia* the degeneration seems to involve principally the columns of Goll and Burdach and the motor columns, with very little involvement of the direct cerebellar tracts.

In *subacute combined sclerosis* and *diffuse sclerosis* there is, besides the involvement of the posterior and motor columns, a degeneration of the direct cerebellar and the tracts anterior to the pyramidal. Besides there may be isolated areas of degeneration in the gray matter.

In the spinal cord changes occurring in *pernicious anemia* the degeneration may involve the posterior and lateral columns equally or may be greater in either. It may also involve the surrounding white matter.

Symptoms.—Ataxic Paraplegia.—This disease nearly always begins in the latter end of life, about the fortieth year, without any apparent cause. The patient experiences a gradual weakness in the lower limbs, with increasing spasticity and exaggeration of the patellar and Achilles jerks. The Babinski phenomenon is present. Besides there is ataxia of both lower limbs. Only rarely are sensory symptoms present, but when this is the case there is only slight disturbance of touch and pain sensation, especially in the soles of the feet and anterior part of the leg. Girdle sense is uncommon and there is hardly ever any disturbance of bladder and rectal functions, although these may appear late. Because of the ataxic weakness, the gait becomes slow, stiff, and slightly incoördinate, this increasing when the eyes are closed. The disease is of long duration and of gradual progress, and may after many years involve the upper limbs and produce increased reflexes and ataxia.

The etiology of the disease is not known, but it is probable that it is the result of a lack of vital endurance or early death of the fibers. In some cases there is an antecedent history of syphilis.

Subacute Combined Sclerosis and Diffuse Sclerosis.—The symptoms in this disease are similar to those of ataxic paraplegia, with the exception that they are much more rapid and there is greater involvement. The specific symptoms will depend upon the preponderant involvement of the posterior or lateral columns. If the posterior columns are preponderantly diseased, there is considerable ataxia, with numbness in the lower limbs, occasionally pains and girdle sense and disturbance of the bladder and rectum, loss of reflexes, and the only expression of degeneration of the lateral columns may be the Babinski reflex. If the lateral columns are preponderantly involved, there is considerable weakness with spasticity, increased reflexes with the Babinski phenomenon and ataxia of the limbs, rarely some numbness, pain and girdle sense, and occasionally involvement of the bladder and rectum. In the course of a few months there rapidly develops complete paralysis of both lower limbs, flaccid in type, with loss of reflexes but retained Babinski phenomenon, and considerable disturbance of sensation with involvement of the bladder and rectum, giving the appearance of a diffuse myelitis, which the disease really is. The progress of the affection is rapid and rarely lasts more than one year.

Sclerosis Occurring in Pernicious Anemia.—The symptoms of the spinal degeneration may occur coincident with the anemic changes, but, as a rule, alterations in the blood are demonstrated first. Occasionally it is possible to diagnose anemia from the spinal cord symptoms. These consist, besides headache, weaknss of the limbs, paleness of the skin and mucous membranes, and changes in the blood, of extreme numbness and a

tingling feeling in the lower and upper limbs. Sometimes these may be the first indication of the disease and this is especially significant when associated with loss of vibratory sense, in the lower extremities, as tested with the tuning fork. There may be also pains of an indefinite character, or there may be sharp shooting pains in the lower or upper limbs and occasionally girdle sense. If the posterior columns are preponderantly diseased, there is considerable ataxia, with loss of the tendon reflexes in the lower and upper limbs, and there may or may not be some disturbance of sensation. As a rule, besides the ataxia and pains the tendon reflexes are increased and the Babinski phenomenon may be demonstrated. The spinal cord degenerations progress according to the rapidity of the blood changes, and it is possible for the symptoms to ameliorate provided the blood condition improves.

Sometimes in simple anemia, such as results from acute gastric or other hemorrhages or in wasting diseases, as carcinoma and phthisis, there may develop a diffuse sclerosis of the posterolateral columns. The symptoms consist in weakness, increased reflexes, Babinski phenomenon, ataxia, and occasionally numbness with disturbance of sensation.

Summary of Diagnosis.—In all the different diseases above described under posterolateral sclerosis the preponderant symptoms are present in the lower limbs, and consist in weakness, increased reflexes, spasticity, the Babinski phenomenon, ataxia, occasional numbness and pain in the lower limbs, and more rarely disturbance of sensation and of bladder and rectal functions.

Differential Diagnosis.—With the symptoms above enumerated there should be no difficulty in diagnosing the type of posterolateral sclerosis. Occasionally, however, there may be such symptoms in myelitis or in multiple sclerosis. In the former there is nearly always a history of an acute onset, with paralysis of the lower limbs, which gradually lessens, leaving the symptoms of a posterolateral sclerosis, while in disseminated sclerosis there is, besides, intention tremor, nystagmus, and scanning speech.

FRIEDREICH'S ATAXIA

Definition.—A hereditary or family disease characterized by progressive ataxia of the limbs and body, diminution of power, especially of the lower limbs, and loss of reflexes, but no disturbance of sensation or of bladder and rectal functions.

Pathologically there is degeneration or sclerosis of the posterior columns, especially of the columns of Goll and of the lateral or motor and direct cerebellar tracts of both sides. Occasionally there is, in addition, degeneration in the cells of the columns of Clarke and some atrophy of the cerebellum.

Contributing and Exciting Factors.—The disease is hereditary, and occurs, as a rule, in several members of the same family. Occasionally sporadic cases are observed. It is probable that the disease is congenital and is due to a maldevelopment of certain tracts of the spinal cord.

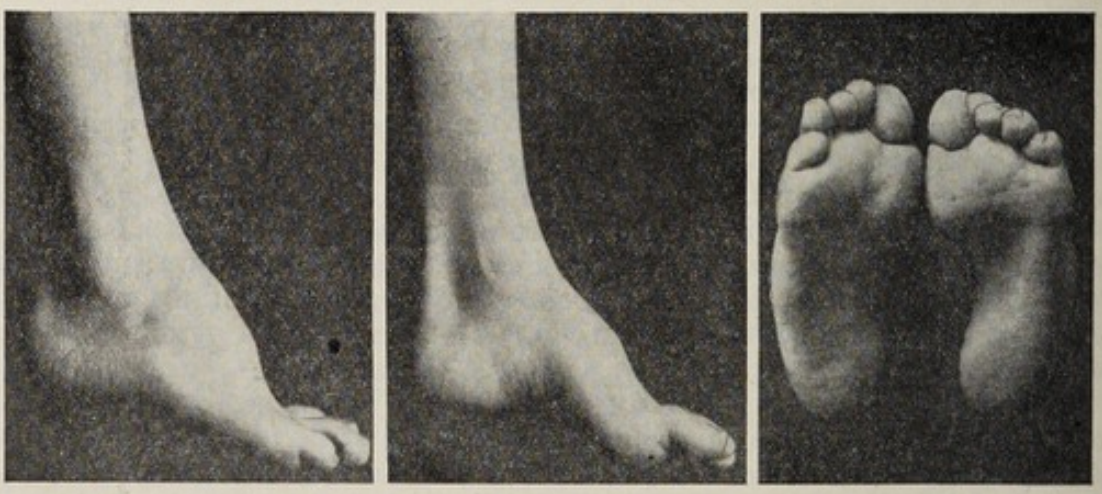
Symptoms.—As in every hereditary and congenital disease, the symptoms begin early in life, about the age of puberty. The early development of the child is usually slow, and in most cases it has taken more than the usual time for the child to learn to walk. As a rule, it is noticed very early that the lower limbs are not normally developed and that there is present a peculiar deformity of the foot and toes of both sides which is characteristic of Friedreich's ataxia. It consists in a diminution in the length of the foot, the dorsum is prominent, the arch of the sole is

deeper than it should be, the large toe is hyperextended at the metatarsophalangeal and flexed at the phalangeal joint. The position of the foot is that of a talipes equinovarus. There is usually also a deformity of the spine—either a scoliosis or kyphoscoliosis (Fig. 474).

The above developmental symptoms may or may not be prominent. It is then noticed that about the age of puberty the child begins to stagger



FIG. 474.—FRIEDREICH'S ATAXIA—BROTHER AND SISTER.



FIGS. 475, 476, AND 477.—TYPICAL DEFORMITY OF FOOT IN FRIEDREICH'S ATAXIA

in walking, the incoördination involving especially both lower limbs and the trunk, resembling that seen in cerebellar disease, and soon walking becomes impossible. Ataxia of the upper limbs does not, as a rule, become prominent until late in the disease.

Coincident with the ataxia there is an increasing weakness of the lower limbs, and the patellar and Achilles jerks become lost, although the Bab-

inski phenomenon may be present on both sides. The reflexes later on also become lost in the upper limbs. There is never any spasticity. Sensation is only rarely disturbed and there is hardly ever numbness or pain. Bladder and rectal disturbances are never present.

There is often present a peculiar nodding or to-and-fro movement of the head, and sometimes of the whole body, which resembles to some degree the movements of multiple sclerosis, but these differ in the fact that they do not become very much worse on excitement. There is nearly always also some nystagmus, this consisting in to-and-fro or oscillatory movements of the eyeballs, or there may be only few jerkings on lateral deviation.

Speech is somewhat disturbed and becomes slow, the voice dry, thin, and high-pitched and each word is syllablized. There is absence of the muffling of the words and difficulty in enunciation that is so common in multiple sclerosis.

Summary of Diagnosis.—Several members of the same family may have lateral curvature and a peculiar deformity of the foot and toe, consisting in a prominence of the dorsum and in an extension of the large toe at the metatarso-phalangeal and flexion of the phalangeal joint. The disease begins early in life, about the age of puberty, with ataxia of both lower limbs and the body, resembling the incoördination of cerebellar disease, weakness of both lower limbs, loss of the tendon reflexes with occasional presence of the Babinski phenomenon, no involvement of the bladder and rectum or of sensation, a peculiar hesitating speech, nystagmus, and tremor of the head.

Differential Diagnosis.—The disease may be confounded with juvenile tabes dorsalis, but can be differentiated from it by the absence of numbness, the characteristic lightning pains or girdle sense, and no involvement of the bladder and rectum. Besides, pupillary symptoms and the Argyll Robertson pupil are uncommon. The spinal fluid should be studied including Wassermann Test, pp. 1268, 1287.

Hereditary Cerebellar Ataxia.—In this disease there is a congenital atrophy of the cerebellum, and the symptoms consist in a gradual ataxia of all the limbs, disturbances of speech, nystagmus, and some tremor of the head, all these resembling the symptoms of Friedreich's ataxia, but the disease differs in the fact that there is hardly ever any deformity of the foot or of the spine, and that there are, in addition, increased reflexes, optic atrophy, and occasionally the Argyll Robertson pupil.

Clinical Course and Complications.—The disease is progressive and the ataxia and weakness increase, the patient becoming chair- or bed-ridden, but may live for a long time. There may be in the latter end of the disease bladder, rectal, and sensory disturbances, but this is uncommon. The mind, as a rule, is not affected, but there may be some diminution of intelligence.

TABES DORSALIS (Locomotor Ataxia)

Definition.—A chronic progressive disease, characterized first by numbness in the lower limbs, then by pains of a sharp, shooting character, girdle sensation, difficulty in walking and in execution of any movement, this being especially made worse with eyes shut, absence of reflexes, disturbance in the functions of the bladder and rectum, irregular pupils, with failure of the reaction to light, and later optic atrophy and disturbance of sensation in various portions of the body.

Tabes is more frequent in males, and it does not occur in negroes except where there has been an intermingling of white blood. Its dis-

tribution is also interesting when one considers that in certain nations, as among Asiatics, and especially the Chinese, although syphilis is very common, tabes is frequent, while paresis is rare.

Contributing and Exciting Factors.—It is the belief of many neurologists that every case of tabes dorsalis is due to syphilis. The statistics of Erb show that in men in about 97 per cent. of cases there is either a specific history or that there have been present symptoms indicating such disease. In only from 1 to 5 per cent. of the large number of syphilitics does tabes dorsalis occur. There must be, therefore, other contributory causes or exciting factors. These may be either a special syphilitic infection or a predisposition to this disease by the infected person, the latter probably being the more potent cause. What this may be has not as yet been determined, but it is probable that exhaustion contributes to it largely. It has been shown in animals that fatigue will produce the characteristic pathologic changes of early tabes dorsalis. While it is probable that the exhaustion itself will not produce this disease in man, occasional cases are seen in which the symptoms follow injuries to the back or are consequent to severe falls. This, however, is of rare occurrence.

Given a person who has been specifically infected, and even one who has been treated by the proper anti-specific remedies, the symptoms of the disease may appear anywhere from five to twenty years after the infection, as a rule, before the tenth year. It is a curious fact that so far as the patient is concerned no symptoms are apparent for some years. It is probable, however, that were the patient carefully examined, some symptoms would be found, for it is difficult to believe that a toxin will be dormant for a number of years and that its effects will not manifest themselves upon any portion of the economy. However that may be, it has been recently proved that examination of the cerebrospinal fluid will also show an increased number of lymphocytes in all cases in which there has been a syphilitic history. Besides, a positive Wassermann reaction is obtained in nearly all tabetic cases. It can be assumed, therefore, that the toxin of syphilis is present in the blood and cerebrospinal fluid.

Pathology.—Method of Infection.—It has only recently been shown that in the peripheral nerves, spinal roots, and cranial nerves there is a constant stream of lymph ascending toward the central nervous system whose main current lies in the inner meshes or lymph-spaces of the fibrous perineural sheath. Any toxins such as would follow a specific infection would reach the spinal cord and brain by this channel; and although they spread to some extent in the lymph-spaces of the pia-arachnoid, and so affect structures at a distance from their point of entry, for the most part they pass in the main current of the lymph along the nerve-roots into the substance of the central nervous system. Here they apparently follow the nerve-paths of the affected roots, and show little tendency to diffuse among the neighboring fibers. It has been shown that just as long as these nerves are protected from the influence of the toxins by the vital action of their neurilemma sheath, the nerve itself will not degenerate, but will on losing this. This is a very important fact. Just before the posterior roots enter the spinal cord they lose their neurilemma sheaths. Should there be any toxins circulating in the cerebrospinal fluid or in the nerve, here would be a point of least resistance. Just why the posterior roots are taken for this selected action is difficult to explain, but not more so than that other portions of the nervous system are selected by the same poison and that the posterior roots escape.

Microscopically in the early stages of tabes there is found a mild meningitis, especially in the posterior part of the cord, and a beginning degenera-

tion of the posterior roots. As the disease progresses there will be a consequent ascending degeneration in the posterior columns or the columns of Goll and Burdach, the cells of the columns of Clark and of the fibers coming from them, or the direct cerebellar tracts. The degeneration finally involves all the posterior roots, although it is probable that those of the lumbar and sacral are first involved. The degeneration of the cells in the posterior ganglia is probably secondary to the posterior root degeneration. Late in the disease it is common to find a slight degeneration of the peripheral nerves.

Early Symptoms.—Numbness and Pain.—As the lumbar roots are the first to be diseased, the primary symptoms of which the patient complains will be referred to their distribution, that is, the lower limbs. As a rule, the patient will complain of a feeling of numbness in his feet, sometimes of a sensation as of walking on leather or of a dead feeling. This at first will only appear for a short time and then will become chronic. Very soon these paresthetic phenomena are succeeded or are accompanied by pains of a sharp, shooting, jagging character. At first they will come on only at intervals, and will appear in various portions of the lower limbs, lasting from a few minutes to at least a half hour and leaving the muscles very tender. Gradually, however, they will become more frequent, more lasting, and of much sharper intensity, acquiring the lancinating character typical of this disease. The pains are not limited to any one nerve distribution, but appear at irregular places, and as the disease progresses, they are to be found in the upper limbs and other portions of the body. Very rarely the patient will complain of pain in the face, in the distribution of the fifth nerve, resembling very much the pains of tic douloureux, and more rarely still pains will appear in the cervical and occipital distribution. The pains seem to be influenced by the weather, the patient first likening them to rheumatism.

Gastroradiculitis and *enteroradiculitis* are believed by Bouchut and Lamy to explain how inflammation of the posterior roots may irritate sensory fibers in the digestive tract. The gastric crises of tabes characterize the extreme type of sensory disturbance dependent upon radiculitis. These pains may simulate the pains of gastric ulcer, cancer, and gall-bladder disease, angina pectoris, abdominal angina, coronary thrombosis, and acute pancreatitis. There may also be pain in the limbs, and abnormal secretion of gastric and intestinal fluids. Clinical polymorphism is the chief feature in gastroradiculitis. Rectal crises are rarely present but in selected cases this rectal pain may be of diagnostic value.

Girdle Sense.—One of the earliest symptoms the patient complains of is girdle sense, or a feeling of constriction around the waist. The patient very often likens this feeling to that of a band tied around the waist or of a drawing sensation. This symptom after it appears is very liable to become permanent, although its intensity varies. Often these feelings of constriction appear in other places, as around the thighs, knees, ankle, and sometimes around the chest or parts of the upper limbs.

Lannois has called special attention to spasm, and to paralysis of the larynx. (See Rectal Crises.)

Disturbance of Reflexes.—Necessarily, as the degeneration of the posterior roots progresses there must be some interference with the reflexes, as these roots are integral parts of the reflex arcs. There is, therefore, very early in the disease a diminution of the patellar or knee jerks and the Achilles jerks. As the degeneration progresses in the posterior roots and in the corresponding portions of the posterior columns, these reflexes later become totally lost, and cannot be obtained even

under reinforcement. The reflexes in the upper limbs—that is, the biceps and triceps—will in the same way be first diminished and then lost.

Bladder, Rectal, and Sexual Symptoms.—As these roots also transmit the fibers which are in relation with bladder, rectal, and sexual functions, these are necessarily first diminished and then lost. Constipation is a very early symptom, while difficulty in the starting of the urine may not make its appearance until later. Sexual functions may be retained until late in the disease, but, as a rule, are lost early.

Alterations of Sensation.—It is to be expected that from the very beginning there should be alterations in sensation, and that the very earliest symptom of tabes would be a disturbance in touch, pain, temperature, and the sensations in the muscles, ligaments, tendons, joints, and bones. As a matter of fact, this is the case, but these symptoms are not demonstrated, principally because they are not looked for. The patient himself will not call attention to his disease or will not be aware that anything is the matter with him until he finds either that he has pains or that he has some difficulty in coördination.

Diminution in the sensation for touch is first to be found in the soles of the feet and over the anterior portion of the legs just in front of the tibia. Another very common location is in the front part of the chest and along its side. Here careful testing will denote a diminution of the sensation for touch and pain sense. Heat and cold, as a rule, are properly interpreted at first, but later in the disease one may be taken for the other, or there may be either diminution or inability to recognize these sensations. As the disease progresses the areas of hypesthesia for touch and pain become a little more general and there appears what seems to be a very characteristic symptom of tabes, that is, that sensations are not as quickly appreciated as they should be, and sometimes it will take a number of seconds for a pin-prick to be recognized. Again, sensations are misinterpreted, and a pin-prick will feel as a touch or it will be described as being in the other limb. In the very last stages of the disease touch, pain, and temperature sensations may be lost over most of the body.

Very early in the disease and among the first symptoms it will be found that the sense of pressure is diminished over the calves and feet. This symptom is of value only in the early stages, for it will only then be possible to compare with the pressure sense of the upper limbs. The sense of position and movement will also be diminished in the early stages. If, for instance, with the eyes closed and the patient's body totally relaxed, a toe is moved the patient will be unaware of the position in which it is. As the disease progresses it will be possible to demonstrate these symptoms in the joints and limbs. It is to be remembered that total relaxation must be obtained, or otherwise these tests will be unsatisfactory.

We see, then, that because of the pathologic process present in this disease there is a gradual diminution and finally a destruction of all forms of sensation in the muscles, ligaments, tendons, and joints, and apparently less so of the skin. Because of this, the normal relation that these structures bear to each other or their tone is disturbed, and in the performance of any movement the peripheral sensory impressions cannot be normally transmitted, interpreted, or performed, and because of this we have the symptoms of ataxia or incoördination of motion.

Hypotonia.—This disturbance of normal relations between the structures that make up the joint produces the symptoms called hypotonia, and is one of the earliest found in the disease. Because of the fact that the muscles do not check one another, and that there is not the normal play between the antagonists, and that normal resistance is not offered

PLATE XV



Moving Picture of Gait in Locomotor Ataxia. (Courtesy of Mr. Sigmund Lubin of Philadelphia, Pa.)

in the joints, there is a tendency for any movement to continue beyond the previously fixed maximum. The knee- and ankle-joints are among the first to become involved, and because of this, these joints can be moved in abnormal directions. Clinically this is demonstrated by the backward giving of the knees, and in the ankles by the abnormal tendency of this joint to give way.

As hypotonia is present in the muscles surrounding the spinal column, and also later on in the other joints of the body, it can be readily understood what an influence this will have upon the attitude and gait of the patient. This symptom in itself will not cause ataxia, but it undoubtedly contributes to it. Space does not allow us to take up separately the methods for detecting hypotonia of the different joints. It can be easily demonstrated, for it will be found that it is possible to bend more than usual the leg on the thigh and the thigh on the abdomen. In fact, sometimes it is possible with the whole leg extended to flex it and place it in apposition with the trunk. Again, in testing for abduction and adduction of the thighs, it is sometimes possible to completely stretch the limbs in a straight line, while the flabbiness of the muscles of the back will enable the patient to bend in any direction.

Ataxia.—Principally, then, because of the slow alteration of sensation in the peripheral parts, the patient will begin to have difficulty in performing fine movements, and these will become more apparent either when the eyes are closed or when the patient is in the dark. This is because ocular impressions have a great influence upon whatever movement is performed. It may become apparent when the patient attempts to walk in the dark, or when he tries to balance himself with eyes covered, as in washing the face; or very frequently the patients are not aware that anything ails them until, when attempting to dance, their lower limbs suddenly give way. Unconsciously the patient will begin to walk with his feet a little wider apart, and he will walk more slowly or carefully, and in the performance of any movement it will be found that either the muscles concerned in the movement are contracted abnormally, or the contraction is too long or the movement too rapid. This difficulty in walking will gradually become more manifest, and the patient will not only walk with his feet wide apart, so as to give himself more base, but he will bend his knees a little higher than he should, and in replacing them, because of the ataxia and hypotonia, the leg will be thrown in what seems to be an aimless way. With this the patient will gradually acquire a tendency to stoop over, the head bent down and the eyes to the ground, because he is uncertain of the position of his feet, and of his desire to bring to his aid the sense of sight (Plate XV).

Methods of Testing for Ataxia.—While no difficulty will be experienced in demonstrating ataxia in the later stages, considerable skill is required in developing the symptom very early in the disease. Each limb should be tested separately, for it will be found that the degree of ataxia will vary in the different extremities. The patient should be made to stand on one leg with the eyes opened and closed, and then with the knee bent. Romberg's sign, which is obtained by placing the heels and toes in apposition with closed eyes, the patient swaying, can usually be demonstrated. In testing for ataxia of either lower limb, the patient should be placed on his back and asked to place his heel on the opposing knee with eyes open or shut, and it will be found that a greater degree of ataxia will be developed as the patient places his heel away from the knee to the distal parts. In testing for ataxia of the knee-joint, the patient should be placed upon his abdomen and the leg bent on the thigh. The usual finger to nose or

the finger to finger tests are employed in testing for incoördination of the upper limbs. Ataxia is often present in the muscles concerned in respiration and in the abdominal muscles, but this is not easily demonstrated. The facts to be remembered are that when a movement becomes incoördinate it will be either executed too rapidly, or there will be exaggerated muscular exertion, or an unduly prolonged state of muscular contraction, which continues long after the maximum of excursion has been reached.

Pupillary Phenomena.—Pupillary signs are among the earliest and the most constant phenomena of tabes dorsalis. Very early in the disease the pupils will have a tendency to become smaller than normal, the so-called miotic pupils, the margins to be irregular, and at the same time the reaction to light will be unequal and diminished. As the disease progresses the pupils will become still smaller, the margins more irregular, and the light reaction will be lost, although reactions to movement will be retained. This is the Argyll-Robertson pupil, and is one of the most valuable symptoms present in this disease.

Paralysis of Cranial Nerves.—One of the commonest and sometimes one of the earliest symptoms of tabes is double vision due to paralysis of one external rectus. This diplopia is not continuous and will last only for a short time, that is, from a few hours to several days, and will reappear at intervals. Just why this involvement of the motor nerve should occur is difficult to explain. Another occasional early symptom is paralysis of a vocal cord, causing the hoarse, stridulent tones sometimes found in tabetics. The involvement of these two nerves in a sensory disease may be explained by the theory that weakness may occur in those parts which are constantly used, or by the less satisfactory one of *locus minoris resistentiæ*.

Crises.—So far we have attempted to trace the symptoms and signs step by step as they occur in analogy with the pathologic findings. As this progresses all the symptoms above enumerated will grow in intensity and new ones appear. The numbness and pain will become more persistent and of a sharper intensity, and may appear in almost any portion of the body. Pains may be localized in various viscera of the body, and are then called crises; and of these, the gastric crises are the most common. They may appear at any time, and the pains in the stomach may become very severe, and, as a rule, are associated with nausea and vomiting. They may, however, appear without these symptoms, or with one of them, and may last from a few minutes to several hours or longer. Vomiting, as a rule, does not relieve the pains. Crises next most frequently occur in the larynx, where they are associated with difficulty in breathing and stridulous respiration. Intestinal crises are next most frequent, and are accompanied by violent pains and evacuations of the bowel. Almost any organ may be the seat of these phenomena, and there may be renal, bladder, rectal, genital, ocular, and oral crises. No satisfactory explanation has ever been given for their occurrence, but it is presumed that there is a disturbance of function of the organ brought about by derangement of the sympathetic plexus. These crises are not as frequent as is usually inferred.

Involvement of the Trigeminus Nerve.—A not unusual symptom is paresthesia of the face, the patient complaining of objects crawling over his eyebrows, or that there is a mask drawn over his face. These phenomena may be succeeded by pain in the same distribution, and are probably the result of degeneration of the sensory or descending root of the fifth nerve, which is found as low down as the third cervical segment, its

involvement being an excellent indication of the upward progress of the disease. Associated with this, there necessarily will be a diminution of sensation in the distribution of one or both fifth nerves, one of the early manifestations of this being a tendency to looseness of the teeth, it being possible to pull out a tooth without the slightest pain. Later there may be complete loss of sensation in the distribution of the fifth nerves.

Optic Nerve Atrophy.—Atrophy of the optic nerve is one of the most serious complications to be found in this disease, and is present, according to Gowers, in about one-tenth of the cases. It is usually a late manifestation, but if it appears early it seems to have a beneficial tendency upon the other symptoms, for these, as a rule, will diminish. Among the other ocular complications is paralysis of part or the whole of the oculomotor nerve and of the sixth nerve.

Ocular crises were first described by Pel.* These paroxysmal attacks and the ocular phenomena consists of irritation of the sensory, secretory, motor and vasomotor nerves. It is somewhat like the gastric crises of ataxia. The attack develops with sudden severe burning or stabbing pain in one or both eyes—the pain is interrupted by brief intermissions. Increased lacrimation, photophobia and spasm of the orbicularis palpebrarum muscles are present.

W. G. Spiller† summarizes the literature and reports an interesting case where the ocular crises lasted from a few minutes to one half hour.

The patient described the pain as intense jerking, stabbing, stinging and burning, and the eyeballs felt as though they were bursting from the orbits.

Deafness.—Deafness is a very frequent symptom in late tabes, and some diminution of hearing would be found in every case of early tabes, were it carefully searched for. Very rarely the vestibular branch is involved, causing vertigo, tinnitus, and cerebellar gait. Among the other cranial nerves which may be involved are to be mentioned the facial nerve, and those which supply the organs of the voice.

Vasomotor and Trophic Phenomena.—Vasomotor and trophic disturbances are not unusual, and when it is considered that the sympathetic plexus takes part in the degeneration found in tabes, and that some of these fibers enter the spinal cord by means of the posterior roots, it is not difficult to explain their occurrence. Local sweating in the palms or soles or in the hands, and alterations in the pigment of the skin, are not uncommon. Occasionally there may be herpetic eruptions, accompanied by pain, or there may be alteration in growth of hair following pains. Because of the hypotonic condition of the joints and of the altered amount of sensibility, there occurs what is called the tabetic joint and the tabetic foot. This is nothing more than a giving way of the parts concerned.

As has been previously shown, alteration in the sensation of the structures beneath the skin is one of the earliest symptoms of the disease. Necessarily, then, the bones enter in this, and microscopic examination has shown alteration in their structures. Because of this fractures are very common, and must be guarded against. Should there be any laceration of the tissues, as by stepping on a nail, because of the lessened resistance of the tissues infection will be easy and extensive wounds may result, the healing of which is very difficult, an example of this being the perforating ulcer which is found on the soles of the feet of tabetics.

Charcot Joints.—Considering, then, the lessened amount of resistance in the tissues and the alterations in the bones, should there be any injury of a joint, there may result what was first described by Charcot and

* Berlin klin. Wchnschr., Jan. 10, 1898, p. 25.
† Phila. General Hospital, 1916–1922, Vol. 10, p. 25.

named after him. These Charcot joints are, as a rule, found in the knee, but may be located in the ankle, elbow, shoulder, or, in fact, even in the joints of the vertebra, and are characterized by looseness of the parts and ability to move them in any direction, this not being painful. Pathologically, an erosion of the parts of the joints is found (Fig. 478). *X*-ray findings are positive in connection with these joint deformities.

Unusual Varieties.—Juvenile or Hereditary Tabes; Optic or Cervical Tabes; Sacral Tabes.—In the juvenile or hereditary form the disease begins very early in life, and there are always present other signs of congenital syphilis. This type is very rare. In the usual form of tabes the symptoms, as a rule, come on anywhere from five to ten years after infection with syphilis, but may not appear until twenty years after. In the optic form the symptoms come on in the usual chronologic order, but optic atrophy is early manifested and the principal symptoms are confined to the upper limbs, the disease being mostly localized to the cervical cord. After the optic atrophy has become complete the ataxia nearly always diminishes, leaving only the general symptoms of the disease with pains. In the sacral form the pathologic process is first limited to the lowest portion of the spinal cord, giving as early symptoms disturbances of bladder and rectal functions, and also of sensation and locomotion for a long time only in the lower limbs.

Cell Counts of Cerebrospinal Fluid.—This is of considerable assistance in differentiating certain cerebrospinal maladies. The count is made by using an ordinary hæmocytometer. In normal spinal fluid we find one or two cells per cmm., but in tabes and in general paresis (luetic infections) the number reaches from 50 to 100 cells and is greatest at the onset of the disease. The cell count should always be made immediately after the fluid is collected. Fluid containing blood is unsatisfactory for this test. The Wassermann reaction is positive.

(*a*) An increase in the number of lymphocytes supports the diagnosis of tuberculosis or poliomyelitis. Lymphocytosis is also a feature in syphilis.

(*b*) An increase in the proportionate number of polymorphonuclear and eosinophilic leukocytes is to be expected in infection with streptococci, influenza, pneumococci or meningococci.

(*c*) In conditions usually considered under the head of meningism, few cells are present in the spinal fluid. It was originally thought that a cell count containing 90 per cent. of lymphocytes suggested poliomyelitis.

(*d*) Infection with the trypanosome is accompanied by cellular increase simulating that seen in syphilis. The accompanying table serves to set forth in graphic form the clinical significance attached to differential cell count of the spinal fluid in disease:

AVERAGE INCIDENCE OF LYMPHOCYTOSIS IN THE SPINAL FLUID
(Plaut, Rehm and Schottmüller)

Clinical Diagnosis	Frequency	Remarks
Cerebrospinal lues	85–90%	Counts often over 100—may reach 1000 per c.mm.
Tabes dorsalis	90%	Counts usually under 100.
General paresis	98%	Counts average 30–60 cells per c.mm.
Secondary lues	30–40%	Moderate increase as a rule.
Multiple sclerosis	25%	Border-line counts.
Cerebral hemorrhage Cerebral tumors Sinus thrombosis		Cellular increase is apt to be a very moderate one.

Summary of Diagnosis.—Early Tabes.—Numbness in the lower limbs, followed by sharp, shooting pains; beginning girdle sense; diminution and later loss of patellar and Achilles jerks; beginning hypotonia and looseness of the knee-, ankle-, and hip-joints, with some diminution in the sense of movement, position, and pressure in the lower limbs some difficulty in walking, which is increased with the eyes shut; a tendency to constipation and possible loss of sexual functions; irregularity of the pupils with miosis and a slow reaction of the pupil to light, but prompt contraction to movement of the eyeballs.

Late Tabes.—Constant numbness in the feet; sharp, shooting, lancinating pains all over the body; girdle sense, crises; an ataxic gait which is increased with the eyes shut; considerable hypotonia, loss of sense of position, of pressure, and of movement; diminution or loss of touch or pain sense and bone sensation; absence of all reflexes; failure of the reaction of the pupil to light, with optic atrophy and possibly oculomotor and abducens nerve palsy; perforating ulcer (mal perforant), Charcot joints.

Differential Diagnosis.—The only disease with which tabes is liable to be confounded is the so-called ataxic form of multiple neuritis or

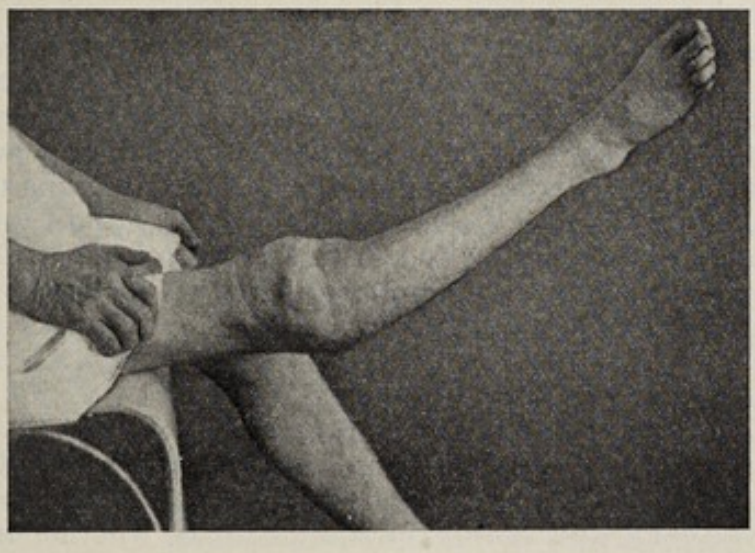


Fig. 478.—Charcot Joint in Tabes.

pseudo-tabes. The following symptoms are common in both: Numbness in the limbs; sharp, shooting, lancinating pains; absence of reflexes and ataxia. In multiple neuritis, however, we have a history of either alcoholism or arsenical poisoning, plumbism, etc., and their symptoms, the rapid onset following the intoxication, wrist-drop and toe-drop, pain on pressure over the nerve-trunks, reactions of degeneration, and marked disturbances of sensation over the limbs different from the type found in tabes. The following symptoms of tabes are also never present: irregularity of the pupil or the Argyll Robertson pupil and disturbances of the bladder and rectum. Again, in multiple neuritis the patient will in most instances fully recover.

Occasionally it will be difficult to diagnose this disease from general paresis. In both there is a history of syphilis, and there may be the same pupillary, sensory, and reflex phenomena; but there are, in addition, in general paresis mental symptoms, such as change in disposition and ideas of grandeur, tremor of the facial muscles and sometimes of the limbs, and difficulty or tremulousness in speech. As a rule, there is not in paresis

the regularity of symptoms which is so characteristic of tabes, and not much difficulty should be experienced in differential diagnosis.

Clinical Course and Complications.—The prognosis in any given case must depend upon the character of the onset, whether the patient has been given anti-specific treatment, and the severity with which the symptoms appear. As a rule, if the patient has been thoroughly treated for syphilis the disease will be longer in its appearance. There are, however, exceptions to this. The earlier the symptoms appear, the more severe is the disease likely to be. While, as a rule, the symptoms of tabes appear in regular order, sometimes there may develop an undue amount or an early hypotonia and ataxia. If this be the case, the probabilities are that the patient will be so incoördinate that it will be difficult to educate him to walk. Again, in the so-called form of optic tabes blindness will appear early, but the ataxic symptoms will almost subside.

It must be remembered that the disease is chronic and progressive in most instances, but occasionally cases are met with in which there has been an undoubted arrest of symptoms. It is not unusual for the symptoms to subside in from five to twenty years. The prognosis in large part is influenced by the treatment, for should this be carefully instituted, a subsidence of symptoms is more likely to occur.

The complications which may arise in the course of this disease are those which are liable to occur as a result of any syphilitic infection. There may be added to the tabetic process, a wide degeneration of the whole cerebrospinal axis, thus producing the disease, general paresis. Again, there may be a diffuse syphilis or a spinal meningitis. In rare instances a hemorrhage may occur, causing hemiplegia, and still more rarely there may be a cavity formation in the central portion of the spinal cord, adding the symptoms of syringomyelia. There may also rarely be an inflammation of the peripheral nerves.

MYELITIS

Definition.—By this is meant inflammation of the substance of the spinal cord. It may be produced by a great variety of causes, such as direct injury the result of bullet or stab wounds, pressure from a dislocated or diseased vertebra, and tumors of the meninges whether intradural or extradural. Inasmuch as in these instances the myelitis is secondary, its symptoms will be discussed under separate headings, and under myelitis will be discussed only those forms which are the result of causes not already mentioned.

Pathologically there are many different forms of myelitis. The inflammation may involve the whole transverse section of the cord (transverse myelitis), it may affect only the central gray matter (central myelitis), or irregular areas in the white or gray matter (disseminated myelitis). Histologically the inflammation may be confined principally to the parenchymatous structures or blood-vessels, or it may assume the characteristics of both. Myelitis also occurs as the result of a thrombosis or embolism of the vessels, and will produce a necrosis or death of the parts from which the blood-supply has been cut off. Such a condition is known as myelomalacia.

If the meninges of the spinal cord are involved, the disease is known as meningomyelitis. As a rule, such a condition is the result of a syphilitic inflammation or an extension of the pathologic process from the vertebra, as vertebral carcinomatosis. It is possible for the pia alone to be diseased or there may be inflammation also of the dura. In the wards of the Philadelphia General Hospital one of us has recently studied two cases

of transverse myelitis, due to vascular thrombotic lesions of syphilitic origin. These cases were seen by Wm. G. Spiller (in consultation).

Myelitis may also be divided, according to the onset of the symptoms, into acute, subacute, and chronic.

Contributing and Exciting Factors.—There are many causes for acute myelitis. It may result from the transmission of the purulent process from small abscesses in the periphery, from gonorrheal inflammations, general septic processes, exposure to cold and wet, or may occur in the course of or follow many infectious diseases, such as typhoid fever, scarlet fever, influenza, grippe, etc. It sometimes occurs without any apparent cause.

Symptoms.—Acute Transverse Myelitis; Thoracic Cord.—The onset is usually rapid, and there may be a rise in temperature with headache and a general feeling of malaise. There is usually first a feeling of numbness or tingling in the lower limbs, which is followed by weakness, which may proceed in a few days to total paralysis. As most cases of acute myelitis occur in the dorsal area and are completely transverse, there will be, besides paralysis of both lower limbs and of the lower abdominal and gluteal muscles, at first retention, followed by dribbling and later complete loss of urinary function, with incontinence of feces and total anesthesia for all forms of sensation in both lower limbs and lower part of the abdomen, the skin area corresponding to the acute transverse lesion. There may also be a band-like area of hyperesthesia corresponding to the segment of the spinal cord which is diseased. In most cases the acute loss of motion and sensation is followed by improvement, and very soon there will be return of sensation over the lower limbs and abdomen, and later return of power, and instead of complete flaccidity with loss of reflexes, which first occurs, there develops spasticity with a gradual increase of tendon reflexes, patellar and ankle clonus, and the Babinski phenomenon. The bladder and rectal functions also improve. The further course of the disease is chronic, but the patient may recover sufficient power to be able to walk; as a rule, atrophy and contractures develop, and there may sometimes be electric reactions of degeneration. If the patient is bedridden, bedsores may develop and skin eruptions may occur because of the general impairment of nutrition and of trophic functions.

If the acute transverse myelitis occurs in the *cervical cord*, there will be, besides the symptoms above enumerated, paralysis of motion and loss of sensation in the upper limbs; and if the lesion is high enough, paralysis of some of the muscles of the neck and diaphragm.

If the lesion occurs in the *lumbar cord*, the symptoms will be similar to those in the dorsal region, with the exception that there will not be any weakness or anesthesia in the abdominal muscles. The subsequent course is the same.

If the meninges are involved, as in meningomyelitis, there will be, in addition to the symptoms above enumerated, pains of a sharp, shooting character, and especially girdle sense. As a rule, however, a meningomyelitis is nearly always of syphilitic origin, and will be discussed under that head (Fig. 479).

Disseminated Myelitis.—Because of the fact that in this form the areas of inflammation are diffuse, and may occur in any portion of the spinal cord, there can be no regularity of symptoms, and these necessarily depend upon the parts of the cord diseased. As a rule, disseminated myelitis follows some infectious disease, pyemic process, or abscess of the periphery. The onset is nearly always gradual, and there may or may

not be promonitory or febrile symptoms. Because of the fact that nearly always there is a predominant involvement of the motor columns, and that motor symptoms are promptly appreciated, the first symptoms may be those of weakness of motion of one or both lower limbs. The weakness increases, and is nearly always accompanied by exaggeration of the tendon reflexes, sometimes with ankle and patellar clonus and the Babinski phenomenon. Rarely the reflexes may be absent, provided the areas of inflammation are located so as to interfere with their arcs. As a rule, there will be disturbance of sensation, irregularly distributed over the lower limbs, abdomen, and chest, and sometimes the upper limbs, and there may be numbness and pain, sometimes shooting in character, and girdle sense. Vesical and rectal disturbances are nearly always early in their onset. Gradually the weakness, spasticity, and increased reflexes are followed by atrophy and contractures. The upper limbs may be similarly involved in time.

As in disseminated sclerosis, there is nearly always involvement of different portions of the brain, the relative symptoms depending upon the

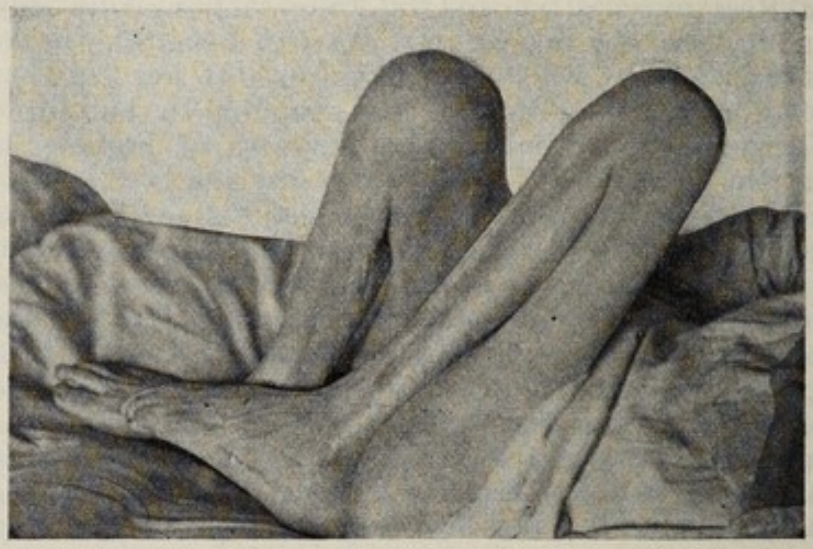


Fig. 479.—Contracture with Inability to Move the Limbs in Myelitis.

extent and location of the pathologic process. The duration of the disease varies, but, as a rule, it is fairly rapid; that is, it may extend over a number of months, but hardly ever longer than a year. As a rule, disseminated myelitis terminates in death, but sometimes the pathologic process may subside and leave multiple areas of sclerosis.

Subacute and Chronic Myelitis.—Under the former is understood a form of myelitis which develops in a number of months, while under chronic myelitis is understood inflammation of the spinal cord which comes on over a longer period—a year or more. As a matter of fact, these classifications are arbitrary, and it is better to class myelitis, not according to the length of the onset, but according to the pathology or the extent of the involvement of the spinal cord. There is, however, a form of myelitis in the aged known as senile myelitis which comes on slowly and will be discussed under that head.

Senile Myelitis.—Sometimes in the latter end of life, especially in persons who are arteriosclerotic, there occurs a gradual diminution of power in the lower limbs, with numbness, pin or needle-like sensations, or a dead feeling, and some disturbance of bladder function. These may be accompanied by increase of reflexes, and only rarely by the Babinski

phenomenon. It is characteristic of this form of myelitis that the symptoms grow better and worse, and extend over a long period of years, terminating in more or less complete weakness of both lower limbs, with increase of reflexes, some disturbance of sensation, and pains of varying character.

The symptoms here described are similar to those which occur under the symptom-complex known as *intermittent claudication*, and are dependent upon a gradual lessening of the blood-supply of the spinal cord because of the closing up of the lumen of the vessels due to a gradual developing arteriosclerosis. The intermittent symptoms depend upon the occasional shutting off of the blood-supply. When the arteries are finally closed up, there develops myelomalacia or death or softening of the part, because of abolition of the blood-supply. (See Thrombo-angiitis Obliterans, p. 340.)

Caisson Disease or Diver's Palsy.—By this is understood a form of paralysis affecting those persons who work under a heightened atmospheric pressure, as divers, and who suddenly return to the normal pressure. It usually affects those persons who are old or alcoholic or who return too suddenly to normal conditions. There may be headache, dizziness, flashes of light with pains in the limbs or abdomen, or difficulty in breathing, or there may be complete coma and unconsciousness. In the course of an hour or more there may develop weakness of one or both lower limbs, which may at first be flaccid in character with loss of reflexes, and later become spastic with increase of reflexes. There may also be involvement of the bladder and rectal functions and disturbance of sensation. Sometimes the paralysis only lasts for a short time, and there may only result little disturbance of motion, but rarely the paralysis is permanent. Pathologically are found diffuse areas of inflammation and softening in various parts of the spinal cord and sometimes in the brain and air-bubbles in the myelin.

Serous Myelitis.—Sometimes all of the above symptoms of myelitis may be caused by pressure due to an increase in the cerebrospinal fluid, the result of a serous meningitis. It is, however, impossible to recognize this, for the symptoms are identical. Lumbar puncture, however, will demonstrate a great increase in the quantity of fluid and a heightened tension in the spinal canal.

Summary of Diagnosis.—The symptoms will depend upon the form of the myelitis, whether transverse or disseminated, and upon the location of the lesion, whether in the cervical, thoracic, or lumbar cords. If acute, transverse, and in the cervical region, there will be complete paralysis of movement of all four limbs, of the thoracic and abdominal muscles, and of the diaphragm, and loss of sensation in an area corresponding to the cervical segment involved, with incontinence of urine and feces.

If in the thoracic region, the paralysis will involve only the lower limbs abdominal and part of the thoracic muscles, and the sensory disturbance will only extend up to the thorax.

If the lesion is in the lumbar region, the paralysis of motion and sensation will only involve the lower limbs.

If the myelitis is disseminated, the symptoms will be gradual in onset, disturbance of motion and sensation may involve first one limb and then the other, or both at the same time, this gradually increasing and lasting over a number of months, either terminating in death or persisting with the symptoms of spastic ataxia of the lower limbs and sometimes of the upper.

The diagnosis of senile myelitis can be made upon the gradual onset of weakness and disturbance of sensation with numbness in the lower limbs coming on in an old man.

Differential Diagnosis.—There should be no difficulty in diagnosing acute transverse myelitis. It is sometimes necessary, however, to diagnose this from a similar involvement resulting from pressure backward of the vertebra, or a myelitis resulting from tumor. In disease of the vertebra, however, there will always be a history of an injury or previous disease, whereas in tumor there will be the gradual onset of the symptoms with pains suddenly terminating in acute myelitis. *X*-ray studies are of service in this connection and disclose bone disease.

Disseminated myelitis is sometimes difficult to diagnose from a similar pathologic process occurring in syphilis. In the latter, however, there may be a history of the disease, and there are nearly always irregularities of the pupil with disturbance in their reactions, and sometimes early and transient ocular palsies.

TUMORS OF THE SPINAL CORD

In comparison with tumors of the brain they are rare. They may be extradural, intradural, or involve the spinal cord, but are mostly intradural, tumors of the cord being most rare. Pathologically they may be sarcoma, fibroma, glioma, carcinoma, or cystic. Tubercular and such other tumors as psammoma, myxoma, endothelioma, and lipoma rarely occur.

Sarcoma.—Sarcoma of the cord itself is rare, and is secondary to that of the vertebra when it involves the anterior and especially the posterior roots or may infiltrate in the pia. Generally the lower portion of the spinal cord, and especially the cauda equina, is the seat of multiple sarcomata. Their characteristics have already been discussed, and it must only be remembered that sarcomata may be soft and infiltrating, and because of this may give only few symptoms.

Fibroma.—These tumors are mostly intradural and grow in the pia or about the roots. As a rule, they are not multiple, and are favorable for operative removal.

Cysts.—These may be limited to the meninges and be simple, or may be multiple, as occurs in cysticercus cellulosa and in echinococcus cysts.

Circumscribed Serous Meningitis.—Recently there has been observed a circumscribed serous collection of fluid within the pia-arachnoid which may at times be of large size. The differential diagnosis between such cases and tumor is very difficult, the only difference, perhaps, being in the variability of the symptoms, inasmuch as the pressure of the fluid upon the different roots may alter from day to day, this giving especially a variability of sensation and reflexes, whereas in tumor these changes are permanent.

Symptoms.—These will depend upon the location of the tumor and extent of the involvement, either of the meninges, root, or cord. As a rule, most tumors are located in the thoracic cord, and are generally situated about the lateral and posterior surfaces. It is impossible to state definitely what symptoms may occur in tumors, but they are due to involvement either of the roots or of the spinal cord itself.

Root Symptoms.—Numbness, pain, or girdle sensation, to be followed by pain, are usually among the first manifestations, these being referred to the parts in relation with the posterior root diseased. As a rule, the pains are sharp, shooting, and agonizing in character, and may be of such intensity as to prevent the patient from moving. If the growth involves

several posterior roots, and is large, there may be tenderness and pain on pressure over the involved part, and jarring may sometimes cause excruciating pains. Later there may be an accompanying disturbance of sensation; coughing, sneezing and straining at stool aggravate the pain.

Cord Symptoms.—As the spinal cord itself becomes involved, its accompanying symptoms will develop, such as disturbance of sensation if the posterior part of the cord is affected, and if the lateral columns are compressed there will be weakness, spasticity with increased reflexes, and the Babinski phenomenon in the parts below. Of course, if the tumor is around the anterior part of the cord the symptoms will be purely motor. A Brown-Sequard syndrome suggests tumor.

Diagnosis.—Wideroe's method consists in withdrawing 3 to 10 c.c. of spinal fluid and in turn injecting one-half this amount of air.

Following the entrance of air into the spinal canal there may or may not be definite symptoms: *e. g.*, headache, tinnitus and discomfort at the base of the skull. These symptoms are more pronounced in brain tumor cases. As the air ascends to the upper portion of the spine, there may be pain in the extremities, and in some instances the pain spreads downward. The latter symptom suggesting spinal syphilis. Tumor of the cord may not give symptoms early, but in a few hours paroxysmal pain develops along the course of the nerves that are given off on a level with the tumor. This pain radiates to the thorax or to the extremities and as the pain at the sight of the tumor vanishes, headache ordinarily develops.

Wideroe believes that pain existing in the nerves arising at the point of the spinal tumor suggests irritation, as the air passes this point.

Tumors of the Cauda Equina.—These are generally sarcomatous and multiple. The symptoms will depend upon what roots are involved. There will usually be pain, referred to the sciatic distribution of one or both sides, or possibly a localized pain in the lower part of the back; but the most distinguishing feature is the segmental disturbance of sensation around the buttock, perineum, and anus, and the anesthesia in the genital organs. There may also be involvement of bladder, rectal, and sexual functions. Paralysis is not very common, but if it occurs will usually be in the distal portions of the limbs.

Clinical Consideration and Diagnosis.—Tumors of the cauda equina, conus and epiconus medullaris have been clinically and pathologically described by Spiller in 1908 who reported eight cases. Steinke in his review of the literature in 1918 found thirty cases of the cauda equina, and last segment of the spinal cord, in his analysis of 330 cord tumors. Parker reported eight cases collected from the records of the Mayo Clinic, since 1916, and these were found among the reports of 33 other spinal cord tumors.

Principal Complaint.—A unilateral or bilateral sciatic pain may be the expression of a cauda equina lesion and diagnosed as sciatica and treated as such, the true nature of the condition being recognized only when vesical and sexual complaints appear. Numbness and various paresthesias are prominent in the clinical picture distributed about the genitals, anal and adjacent regions, inner and posterior portions of thighs, posterior aspect of legs and in the feet. Foot-drop, unilateral or bilateral, with loss of the ankle-jerks is common. Sphincter and sexual deficiencies are very important diagnostic marks. The distribution of the pain will depend upon the number of roots of the cauda equina affected. The character of the pain is that typical of root pains as exemplified in Tabes. The pains are very sharp and agonizing requiring oft times morphine

for their relief. The skin is often very sensitive to the slightest touch especially during paroxysms of pain. Atrophy of the feet, legs, posterior thighs and buttocks with vasomotor changes and decubitus are seen in severe cases. A severe burning or causalgia may be a most distressing complaint in the feet or buttocks.

Physical Examination.—Altered sensation is common and will be limited to areas of varying sizes over the buttocks, genitals, anal regions, legs, thighs and feet. Muscular twitching and fibrillations are detected over the perineal, anterior tibial and thigh muscles. Muscular atrophy usually accompanies progressive weakness.

The reflexes of the two sides may differ. One ankle jerk is usually lost before the other. The knee jerks are also affected but not as often as the ankle jerks because the 2nd, 3rd, 4th lumbar roots leave the spinal canal at higher levels than the 5th lumbar and 1st sacral roots which are concerned with the ankle jerks. These reflexes are always diminished or lost, and clonus and Babinski are never found.

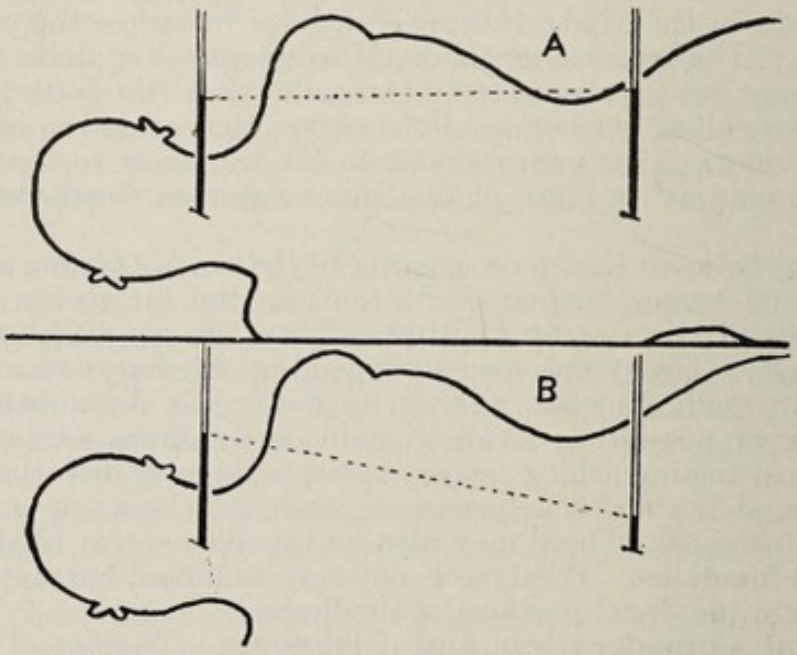


FIG. 479*a*.—*A*, COMBINED CISTERN AND LUMBAR PUNCTURE. *B*, COMBINED CISTERN AND LUMBAR PUNCTURE WITH DIFFERENCE IN PRESSURES DUE TO INTRASPINAL BLOCK (Ayer).

Roentgenographic Examination.—In some cases this method of diagnosis reveals only negative findings. It is with difficulty that tissue tumors are recognized by *x*-ray studies. Ayer has described at length the localization of the spinal subarachnoid block in connection with lumbar puncture, and with combined lumbar and cistern puncture (Fig. 479*a*). Iodipin has been employed to determine the localization of spinal tumors. The use of iodipin was first suggested by Sicard and Forestier.* This substance was introduced into the subarachnoid space and the epidural space. Iodipin is a poppy-seed oil, containing chemically combined iodine in the proportion of 0.54 gm. per cubic centimeter. It is claimed to be non-irritating to the subarachnoid space and is decidedly opaque to the Röntgen rays. It is customary to employ 2 c.c. for injection into the subarachoid area and 4 c.c. is necessary for epidural use.

The object of this procedure is to locate any intraspinal tumor or level of compression of the cord from any cause.

*Presse medicale. 31:493, 1923.

Sargent suggests that after cisternal puncture and the injection of iodipin, a short time is required for the fluid to gravitate to the level of the spinal obstruction.

Drs. McConnell, Dillard and Rodman have recently employed this method with favorable results in the Philadelphia General Hospital.

Localization of Spinal Tumors.—Frazier and Spiller in the report of fourteen cases localized the tumor in twelve of them and found surgical relief possible.

Pain.—Pain is the first and most prominent symptom in 90 per cent. of all cases. Late in the disease the pain may be widespread, but the original pain zone (a localized factor) remains, and is a most valuable symptom. Pain usually antedates motor impairment for a period of months or years. Pain depending upon the segment of the cord involved is often localized to the upper or to the lower abdomen, the thorax, upper chest, shoulders and arms. Continuous pain varying only in severity suggests cord tumor.

Cerebrospinal Pressure.—The Queckenstedt test consists in compression of both jugular veins, thus obstructing the return of blood from the cranial cavity. This causes a rapid transitory rise in the cerebro-spinal pressure, in event no obstruction exists between the lateral ventricles and the site of puncture of the spinal canal, at the lumbar region. The patient develops cyanosis and a sense of fullness and vertigo following compression of the jugular veins. A rapid return of the manometer reading to normal, when pressure is released, proves the absence of obstruction between the cranial and lumbar regions.

Queckenstedt's method is also of service where one has a dry tap in the lumbar region, raising the intraspinal pressure may facilitate the recovery of cerebro-spinal fluid for laboratory study. Whenever spinal block exists the initial intraspinal pressure is low; the rise following jugular compression is gradual or not at all, and the return to the original pressure is delayed after jugular compression is released.

Whenever water pressure is used in the spinal manometer reading, divide the reading by 13 to obtain the mercury equivalent.

Differential Diagnosis.—Pain when associated with movements of the neck must be distinguished from that due to Pott's disease, and when referred to the shoulders and arms from neuritis and arthritis.

Pericardial pain is not infrequently mistaken for angina pectoris and pain definitely localized to the upper abdomen calls for the consideration of gall-stones, gastric ulcer and pyloric spasm.

Pain when referred to the right lower abdominal quadrant demands the exclusion of appendicitis, dilatation of the colon (perityphlitis and kidney disease). It is rather common for the pain to extend to one or other leg or to the hip and thigh, but this pain is readily separated from that of sciatica and joint disease. *X*-ray films are of value.

PUNCTURE OF THE CISTERNA MAGNA

This procedure is frequently employed in treatment, and is of unquestionable value in connection with the diagnosis of spinal tumors. F. G. Ebaugh* has employed this method in the Philadelphia General Hospital, and punctured the cisterna magna over 1500 times without any deleterious effect. The following technique is compiled from an article by Dr. Ebaugh "*The Treatment of General Paresis by the Intracistern Route.*" Pathologists could advantageously use this method for obtaining fluid for cultivation and examination, and for fixation. The interspaces are

*Archives of Neurology and Psychiatry, March, 1922, p. 325.

approximately twice as wide as that between the third and fourth lumbar vertebræ. The sensation on piercing the dura is more definite than that of the lumbar space, and practice enables one to tell when the cistern is entered. Frequently, however, it is necessary to withdraw the stylet before completing the puncture. After one has succeeded in getting rid of the initial apprehension, the technic is easy. Bloody fluid is less frequently encountered than in lumbar puncture.

(1) The patient assumes a posture on his side, with the neck moderately flexed—facilitated by a pillow under the head.

(2) Great care is taken to secure careful alignment of the vertebral column.

(3) The skin is sterilized (iodin-alcohol) after careful shaving and cleansing.

(4) After the first ten punctures, no local anesthesia is employed.

(5) The spine of the axis is carefully located by the index finger.

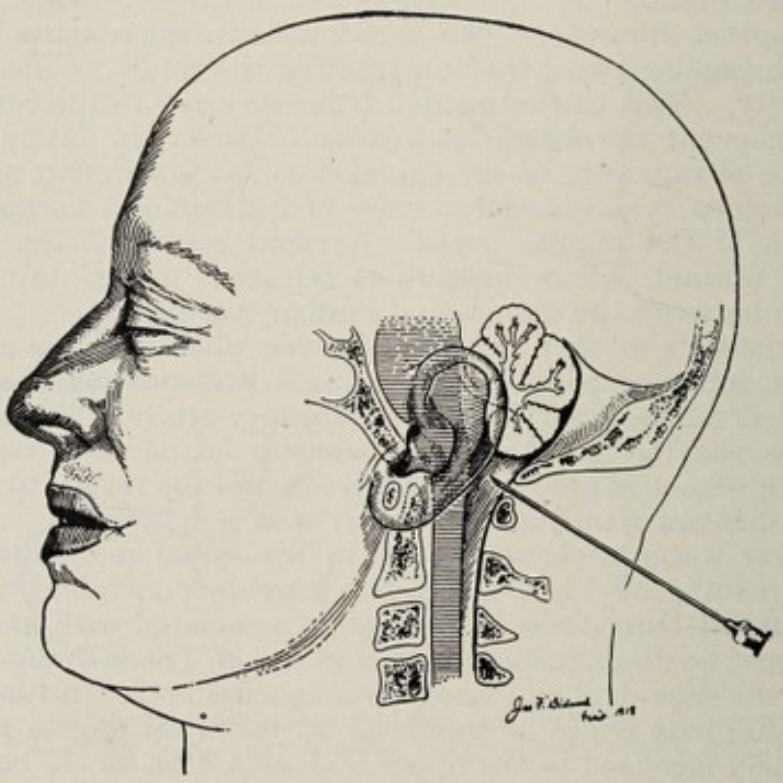


Fig. 479*b*.—Illustrating Landmarks for Cistern Puncture (Ayer).

(6) A standard 18 gage nickeloid lumbar puncture needle is used. After perforating the skin just above the axis, the needle is pushed upward and forward (anatomically) directly towards the glabella.

(7) The external auditory meatus is in the plane of this line, and is a handy landmark on determining the inclination of the needle.

(8) The dura is pierced at a depth of from 3 cm. to 5 cm.

"Following Ayer's method, a deadline consisting of a faint circular scratch is made 6 cm. from the tip of the needle. The greater the angle, or the nearer one comes to the posterior margin of the foramen magnum, the greater the margin of safety, since the cistern is of greatest depth at this point." (Ebaugh.) (Fig. 479*a*.)

Ayer finds that in tapping the cisterna of infants, the angle of entrance is slightly different, and he inserted the needle into the cadaver and then dissected it out; thus establishing the fact that best results were obtained in this way.

(1) Start the needle at the base of the neck, advancing upward and forward until the occipital bone is reached.

(2) Gradually work the needle forward until it slips into the foramen magnum.

The cisterna is reached at varying depths, depending upon the individual. In adults it is seldom less than 4 cm. from the skin; commonly, 5.5 cm., and rarely exceeds 6 cm. On account of the varying depths, all needles employed for this operation should be graduated.

DISEASES OF THE VERTEBRA

These may be divided into diseases of the vertebra itself and those the result of growths. Disease of the vertebra are generally tubercular, starting either in the spongiosa, periosteum, lamina, spinal processes, or ligaments. The process may grow from one or several locations at the same time, and many involve the spinal cord secondarily in three ways: first, by direct extension of the tuberculous process from the vertebra, the tuberculous masses involving the dura and then the spinal cord; second, by direct pressure the result of a backward displacement; and, lastly, by so-called toxic action. It is probable that in the last classification the spinal cord itself becomes diseased through the disturbance of the lymphatic and arterial circulation. The symptoms caused by tuberculous disease of the vertebra or Pott's disease are identical with those caused by growths, and will be discussed under that head. Syphilitic caries rarely occurs. Metastatic new growths, acromegaly and osteomalacia deserve consideration when disease of the vertebræ is present.

Tumors of the Vertebra.—These are generally sarcoma or carcinoma, or may be the result of a growth of the bone-marrow, when they are called myeloma. The earlier mentioned tumors are nearly always secondary to growths elsewhere, generally from the lungs, stomach, breast or uterus. Such beginning growths as osteoma or enchondroma may sometimes occur.

Symptoms.—These will be divided into, first, those which are the result of diseases of the vertebra itself; second, those resulting from involvement of the spinal roots and cord.

Symptoms Due to Affection of the Vertebra.—In nearly all cases, whether the tumor affects the vertebra, lamina, or processes, there should be some displacement and deformity of the vertebra, especially in caries. It must be remembered, however, that both in this condition and in tumors there may not be the slightest evidence of deformity, and the first symptoms will be those the result of pressure on the roots. In most cases besides this evidence of deformity there will be pain over the affected parts, this causing a stiffness and a rigidity of the back and neck with accompanying awkwardness in movement.

Root and Spinal Cord Symptoms.—As the disease progresses, pressure will be first exerted on the posterior roots, and the first symptoms will be those of numbness, to be followed by sharp, lancinating pains with girdle sense, referred to the distribution of the diseased roots. Any jarring of the back or pressure will bring on a fresh attack or exaggeration of pain. As the disease involves the dura and the cord there will be added disturbance of sensation and of bladder and rectal functions, weakness in the limbs with increased reflexes, spastic condition, and Babinski phenomenon. The extent of the paralysis will, of course, depend upon the amount of involvement, sometimes there resulting complete myelitis and total paralysis.

INJURIES OF THE SPINAL CORD

The result of any injury, no matter how trivial, cannot be foretold. There may be, first, a sprain or injury to the ligaments of the vertebral column, either with or without injury of the cord; second, fracture or dislocation of the vertebra or both, either with or without involvement of the spinal cord; third, injuries to the cord itself; and, lastly, the so-called traumatic neuroses, which may enter into all the above classifications, and also are independent of these. The symptoms will be discussed in order.

Sprain or Injury to the Ligaments of the Vertebral Column with or without Involvement of the Cord.—This generally results from overstretching of the vertebral column or from some severe muscular effort. A direct injury to the back may cause a contusion of the ligaments. As a rule, the cord itself will not be involved, and the symptoms will be those of pain localized to the affected parts with accompanying rigidity of the back and pain on movement. There should be no difficulty in making this diagnosis, were it not for the fact that in medico-legal cases there may be present the symptoms of a traumatic hysteria which may resemble injury of the cord, or there may be, what not infrequently occurs, multiple small hemorrhages or areas of softening in various portions of the cord, and sometimes hemorrhages into the substance.

Fracture or Dislocation of the Vertebra or Both, Either with or without Involvement of the Spinal Cord.—Fractures of the vertebral column are usually associated with dislocation and are the result of severe injuries. They generally occur either between the atlas and axis, the fifth and seventh cervical, or the first and second lumbar vertebræ. In nearly all cases the spinal cord is involved, the only exception being when the fracture is of mild nature and causes no deformity, or if there has been a fracture of limited degree involving the lamina or processes.

Symptoms.—There are usually present the surgical evidences of injury, for here, as elsewhere, the fracture may be simple or compound. Besides there will be evidences of deformity of the vertebral column with rigidity and pain in the back. The symptoms will depend largely upon the place of injury. If in the cervical cord, the principal symptoms will be in the upper limbs; if further down, as in the lumbar region, they will be limited only to the lower limbs.

Injuries to the Cord.—In nearly all cases where the injury has been severe enough to cause a fracture or dislocation of the vertebra, the cord itself will be severely damaged. This may be either because of a direct pressure exerted upon the cord, the result of backward displacement of the vertebra, or, as sometimes happens, there will be at the time of injury a sudden torsion or twisting of the spine, this causing momentary pressure upon the cord with destruction of its elements. Again, there may be severe injury to the cord, but no evidence of fracture or dislocation, or even sprain or contusion of the ligaments, with either multiple small hemorrhages or softening, or one large hemorrhage.

The symptoms of compression of the cord will not differ from those described under the head of myelitis. As a rule, the destruction will be intense, and transverse myelitis and sometimes complete severance of the cord may result, this causing complete loss of power and of sensation in the parts below, with the bladder, rectal, and trophic symptoms. It must also be remembered that, besides the direct destruction of the cord, the result of the injury, there will also be multiple small areas of hemorrhage above and below the point of injury. If there is only a partial destruction there will be, after the initial complete paralysis of motion

and sensation, return of sensation, and then of motion, with increased reflexes, spasticity, Babinski phenomenon, and disturbance of bladder and rectal functions.

Hemorrhages into the cord, or hematomyelia, may occur with contusion of the substance of the cord, or independently of this as a result of injuries, without an accompanying fracture or dislocation of the vertebra. As a rule, hemorrhages occur into the substance of the cord, mostly in the central gray matter, and only very rarely in the outer or inner surface of the dura. The gray matter of the cord seems to be easier to infiltrate than the white matter, and as a consequence any hemorrhage may involve considerable length of the cord. The symptoms will, of course, depend largely upon the location of the lesion, whether within the cervical, thoracic, or lumbar parts, and upon its extent. As the hemorrhage involves principally the middle portion of the cord, it will interrupt the fibers concerned with transmission of pain and temperature sensations, and there will result the so-called syringomyelic disturbance of sensation in the lower limbs; *i. e.*, loss of pain and temperature sensations with preservation of touch. Besides, there will be weakness with spasticity, increased reflexes, and the Babinski phenomenon, below the level of the lesion and if the hemorrhage involves the cells of the anterior horn, loss of power with atrophy and reactions of degeneration in the related parts.

If, however, there should be multiple microscopic areas of hemorrhage or softening, no definite symptoms will result, because there has not been sufficient injury to cause disturbance in function unless the injury occurs where marked arteriosclerosis is present, when severe hemorrhages or softening may be brought on any time through the weakening of the vessel walls.

The Prognosis of Injuries of the Spinal Cord.—This will, of course, depend upon the nature and extent of the injury. If the cord has been severely crushed for several segments, there can be no hope for return of function. If the injury has been partial, some return of power will always result. If a hemorrhage has occurred in the central gray matter, there should be some return of power; and if there are multiple microscopic areas of hemorrhage or softening, complete recovery may ensue. In all of these instances the prognosis depends entirely upon the possible regeneration of fibers in the spinal cord, and this has been the subject of controversy for a long time. It is probable that this cannot occur, and whatever improvement results is because the fibers which have been injured have recovered from whatever traumatism they have undergone. In every injury there is a certain amount of shock which will temporarily injure the cord, but unless a complete severance or myelitis ensues there should nearly always be some return of function.

UNILATERAL SPINAL CORD LESIONS, OR BROWN-SÉQUARD PARALYSIS

Sometimes tumors or injuries resulting from bullet or stab wounds will cause a unilateral lesion of one or two segments of the spinal cord. The symptoms will depend upon the part of the cord involved and the extent of the lesion. Should, for instance, there be a unilateral lesion in the eighth cervical and first thoracic segments of the right side of the cord, there will be the following symptoms: Because of the destruction of the nerve-cells in the anterior horns, inability to flex or extend the right wrist or move the fingers, besides atrophy and electric reactions of degeneration in these parts. Because of the involvement of the right motor or pyramidal column, weakness, spasticity, increased reflexes, and the Bab-

inski phenomenon in the right lower limb. Because of the destruction of the sensory roots, loss of all forms of sensation along the under surface of the whole right arm. As the posterior columns transmit the fibers for touch sensation and muscle sense, there will be disturbance of touch in the right lower limb and right abdomen and chest with impairment of muscle sense and ataxia in the right leg. In the left lower limb there will be disturbance of pain and temperature sensations only, because of the destruction of the right column of Gowers (Fig. 480).

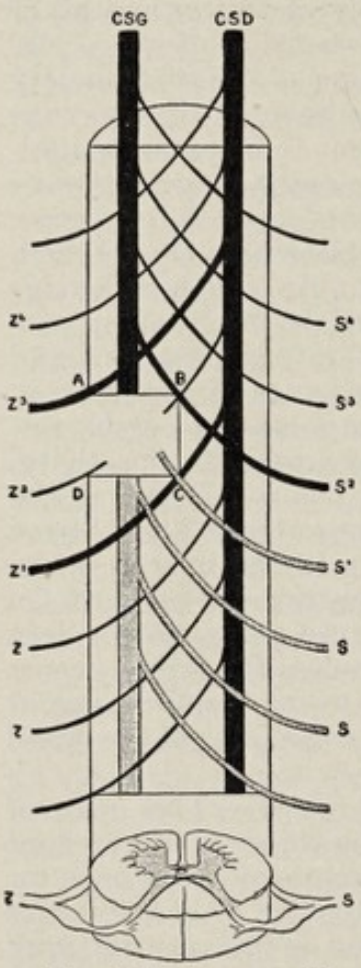


FIG. 480.—SCHEME REPRESENTING CORD-LESION AND EFFECTS IN BROWN-SÉQUARD PARALYSIS (after Brissaud).

CSG, Left sensitive tract; CSD, right sensitive tract; A, B, C, D, lesion involving the left half of the cord; S, S, S, sensory roots from right side of body; Z, Z, Z, sensory roots from left side of body; Z^1, Z^3, and S^2 are irritated only at the points A, B, C, and their peripheral area is hyperesthetic; Z^2 is divided and its skin area is anesthetic on the same side as the lesion. Corresponding to S^1 and all the roots below arising from the right side of the body, there is anesthesia.

SPINA BIFIDA

A defect in the closure of the posterior vertebral arches, especially in the lumbar and sacral region. It is of embryonal origin, and is usually detected at birth or very soon after, and rarely may interfere with it. The defect may consist only in a lack of union of the posterior vertebral arches, but, as a rule, there is a tumor-like projection in the lower spine, which may consist only in a protrusion of the dura, which may be from the size of a nut to that of an orange or larger and be filled with cerebrospinal fluid, or there may be, in connection with the dural protrusion, an involvement of the spinal cord itself, consisting either in an enlargement of the central canal, a hydromyelia or attachment of the lumbosacral cord or it roots to the walls of the sac.

Symptoms.—Most cases of spina bifida die either at birth or soon after. When there is only a dural involvement, there may be no symptoms besides the physical evidences of protrusion. Pressure, however, upon the sac will cause bulging of the fontanels with the symptoms of cerebral compression. If, however, the cord itself be involved, there will be paralysis of both lower limbs and disturbance of bladder and rectal functions and of sensation. The disease is of long duration, the symptoms having a tendency to increase, and the prognosis is not very good. There are usually in association embryonal defect elsewhere, such as cleft palate or harelip.

DISSEMINATED OR MULTIPLE SCLEROSIS

Definition.—A disease of the brain and spinal cord characterized by progressive weakness, spasticity, increased reflexes and ataxia of the limbs and trunk, with tremors which become worse on effort, scanning speech, and nystagmus.

Pathologically there are multiple areas of sclerosis throughout the whole brain and spinal cord. The sclerotic patches involve equally the gray and white matter and the cranial nerves. The sclerosis in this disease differs from that of any other in the fact that there is no resulting secondary degeneration. The myelin sheaths only are involved and the axis-cylinders escape. It is

PLATE XVI



Moving Picture Illustrating Tremor of Head, Body and Limbs in Multiple Sclerosis.
(Courtesy of Mr. Sigmund Lubin of Philadelphia, Pa.)

because of this that there may be little alteration of function although the sclerosis is extensive.

Predisposing and Exciting Factors.—There are many theories as to the origin of the multiple areas of sclerosis, but it is probable that they are due to faulty development of the nervous system. Sometimes the disease appears in several members of a family, and in rare instances in father and son. The exciting causes are not known, but in not a few cases the symptoms seemed to have developed after exposure to cold and wet. Rarely the symptoms are due to multiple syphilitic lesions. The disease is rather rare in this country, but on the Continent it is as common as tabes.

Spirochetes quite similar to the spirochæta pallida although smaller, and narrower have been found in the central nervous system Speer,* has confirmed this finding in multiple sclerosis. Cases of multiple sclerosis are also found where it is possible to show definite connection between this and malaria.

Symptoms.—Inasmuch as the multiple areas of sclerosis may occur in any portion of the nervous system, and that in no two cases is the pathologic process alike, the symptoms must necessarily vary in each case. There are, however, certain general symptoms which are present in nearly all, and these are a tremor which is intention in type, scanning speech, nystagmus, spastic ataxia of the lower and upper limbs, and less commonly optic atrophy.

The disease nearly always begins in early adult life or around the twentieth year, with weakness or spasticity of one or both lower limbs, which gradually increases. Coincident with this or soon after there may develop ataxia of one or both lower limbs, and the gait, which at first may have been spastic, will become somewhat ataxic, the patient staggering from one side to the other much like a drunken man. The tendon reflexes of the lower limbs become progressively exaggerated, and the Babinski reflex is common. Often patellar and ankle clonus is present. It is not at all unusual for the spastic symptoms to be greater in one lower limb, and these symptoms may also be found in the upper limbs.

Sometimes numbness and pains are present in one or both lower limbs, and rarely girdle sense and disturbance of sensation.

Coincident with the spastic ataxia of the limbs there develops a tremor which is intention in type, that is, it becomes worse on effort. This tremor may, in mild cases or at first, involve only the upper limbs, but later all the limbs may be affected. In fact, in severe cases the tremor involves the head, neck, and the whole body, interfering with locomotion, eating, and talking. When the patient is quiet, there may be no tremor present, but the slightest excitement or movement brings it out (Plate XVI).

Disturbance of speech is an early symptom, and is usually described as scanning. The words are uttered, slowly, sometimes explosively, the patient having a manifest difficulty in getting a start, although after beginning there is not so much hesitancy. The speech becomes slower and more difficult as the tremor progresses. Often it resembles the speech of a person shivering with cold.

Nystagmus is common and may consist of only a few to-and-fro movements, and sometimes may not be apparent except on deviation. It is less constant than the scanning speech or the intention tremor.

Disturbances of vision are very common. These may consist in a central scotoma for colors or a contraction of the visual fields, and optic

* Münch med. Wehnscher., 68: 425, Apr. 8, 1921.

atrophy frequently results. Pallor of the optic discs, especially on the temporal side, is characteristic of this disease, and is found in probably one-half the cases.

If the areas of sclerosis are limited to the spinal cord, there may not be present the intention tremor of the head, nystagmus, ocular symptoms, or the scanning speech. If the sclerosis involves the gray matter of the lumbar and sacral cord, there may be loss of the knee and Achilles jerks and interference with bladder and rectal functions, but this is unusual.

In not a few instances the first symptoms may be those of hysteria, and it is difficult to establish a diagnosis. Gradually with the hysterical symptoms there develops spasticity of the lower limbs with increased reflexes and the Babinski phenomenon, and later the intention tremor, scanning speech, and nystagmus.

Summary of Diagnosis.—Weakness, spasticity, increased reflexes, and the Babinski phenomenon in both lower limbs, spastic ataxic gait, intention tremor of one or all the limbs and of the head and neck or of the whole body, scanning speech, nystagmus, optic atrophy, and pallor of the temporal side of the discs. The symptoms differ in each individual case, but the cardinal symptoms are spastic ataxia of the limbs, intention tremor, scanning speech, nystagmus, and optic atrophy.

Differential Diagnosis.—In the onset of the disease it is difficult to differentiate the spastic symptoms from those occurring in lateral or amyotrophic lateral sclerosis or from myelitis, but as the disease develops the intention tremor and scanning speech establish the differential diagnosis. The hysterical symptoms may for a long time mask the disease, but later the cardinal symptoms develop.

Clinical Course and Complications.—The course of the disease is usually slow. Usually the spastic symptoms increase slowly, but the intention tremor and the scanning speech grow progressively more and more marked, and the tremor in some cases may become extreme. Remissions in the disease are very common, and it is because of this that it is sometimes difficult to establish a diagnosis. Later in the disease the patient becomes bedridden, and the paralysis of the limbs will become extreme. Death usually occurs from some intercurrent cause.

Syphilis of the Nervous System

There is no part of the nervous system that may not be attacked. Certain symptoms are present, however, in nearly all cases, and it is principally by the recognition of these that we are able to make a diagnosis. To better understand what symptoms are possible in syphilis, an effort will be made to trace the course and nature of the disease and the method of involvement of the nervous system. The Wassermann test is of inestimable value when made with both the blood and spinal fluid. Other special reactions and tests are also of help. See Colloidal Gold Test, p. 1287 and Cell Count of the Spinal Fluid, p. 1268.

Method of Infection of Nervous System.—In only a few of the large number of persons affected does the nervous system become secondarily diseased. The important question, then, is, Why should one person have his nervous system affected and not the other, and what influence, if any, does treatment have upon the prevention of such involvement?

Repeated instances have been recorded in which a number of persons, not at all related, have become infected from the same source, and subsequently developed general syphilis, and, later, specific disease of the nervous system.

Frequency of Disease.—It is important to know in what percentage of cases of syphilis the nervous system becomes diseased. This can never be determined with accuracy, and we must rely principally upon the statistics to be obtained from institutions. Erb, for instance, collected some years ago a history of many cases of specific infection, and of these, in about 1 to 5 per cent. tabes followed. In how many, however, there were other involvements of the nervous system is not recorded, but judging from the fact that tabes is no more frequent than other cerebrospinal diseases, it is probable that a fair percentage would be about from 5 to 10 cases in 100. This, of course, is only conjecture.

It is also a question whether or not early treatment of the disease will prevent such future involvement. That it does so in the majority of instances there is no doubt, but in many it is of no avail. It is, however, in the more chronic cases, or in those in which the symptoms of cerebrospinal involvement appear many years after the infection, that this question arises. In many, anti-specific treatment had been instituted and carried out vigorously, and the patient pronounced well, only to have some part of the nervous system become diseased years afterward. The conclusion is forced upon us that in some forms of syphilis the cerebrospinal system will become diseased whether or not treatment is instituted, and no matter how vigorously.

After an infection, the nervous system may be involved almost immediately, in the midst of treatment, or may not for some years, sometimes as many as twenty. It is generally supposed that the earlier the cerebrospinal symptoms appear, the more severe the infection. Considering, however, that the symptoms produced years after the infection are about of the same severity and character as they are in the early periods, there is probably little difference.

Pathology.—Pathologically, in the early forms, no matter where the nervous system is involved, there is always a round-cell infiltration about the blood-vessels and in the pia, this being especially true of the base of the brain and the posterior part of the spinal cord; and there is also a secondary endarteritis and permanent thickening of the meninges. Rarely, small gummas will be found, but these are not as frequent in the nervous system as is commonly supposed. More rarely, there is also an involvement of the substance of the cord or brain. When such is the case, in the former there is very often an extensive inflammation, this resulting in a myelitis; if in the brain, the cortex and subcortex are diseased, this causing the symptoms of diffuse encephalitis. It is characteristic of these acute inflammations, such as myelitis and encephalitis, that the symptoms appear suddenly.

When the disease comes on many years after the infection, the usual pathologic findings consist in a sclerosis of the vessels and thickening of the meninges, and sometimes in gummas, but it is principally to the results of the endarteritis that the symptoms are due. There are, however, other forms of disease resulting from specific infection which are caused, not by inflammation, but by gradual changes in the nervous structures. These changes mostly occur in structures which have more or less functional relation, and are called systemic, the best example of this being locomotor ataxia or tabes dorsalis.

Symptoms.—It can be readily understood, then, that, so far as the symptoms of specific disease of the nervous system are concerned, the majority of cases will show an involvement of both the brain and spinal cord, and that the focal symptoms will depend upon what particular portions of these structures are most diseased. No matter what the

extent of the affection, there is in every case an infiltration of the meninges, and this in itself will nearly always give certain symptoms. There is a tendency, however, for certain forms of involvement in those cases in which the symptoms manifest themselves within a few years after the infection, and these will be discussed first.

Early Symptoms.—*Myelitis.*—Among the earliest is a myelitis, this usually coming on suddenly, and in most instances affecting the lower thoracic or thoracic-lumbar region, and often giving the symptoms of a complete transverse myelitis, there being loss of power in both lower limbs, of the bladder and rectal functions, and of sensation. In the majority of cases some return of power can be hoped for, especially if vigorous treatment is promptly instituted. Added to the symptoms of the myelitis there will be those of meningeal involvement, such as girdle sense and pain.

Cerebrospinal Involvement.—Other common early manifestations, sometimes appearing in the midst of treatment, are those the result of multiple lesions of the brain and spinal cord, giving diffuse symptoms depending upon the location of the lesions. There will nearly always be motor and sensory involvement of irregular character, with the addition of meningeal symptoms of the base of the brain and of the cord.

Hemiplegia.—Hemiplegia is also common in early syphilis, this resulting from early endarteritis. In fact, hemiplegia occurring in young adults below forty years of age is nearly always syphilitic in origin; but the most common manifestations of syphilis are those the result of meningeal involvement of the base of the brain or of the spinal cord.

Meningitis.—Meningitis of the base of the brain is nearly always greatest around the chiasm, and it is because of this that the optic, oculomotor, and sixth nerves are commonly diseased in syphilis. Whether it is because of this involvement of the optic nerves, or because the S. pallidum has a special predilection for the iridic muscles, disturbances in the reactions of the pupils with irregularities in their margins are the most common and constant symptoms of syphilis. In most instances there will be found irregularities in the margins, with a loss of the reaction of the pupils both to light and to movement of the eyeballs, and sometimes, in the later stages, a failure of response of the pupils to light, with preservation to movement of the eyeballs, or the Argyll Robertson pupil. There is no disease which will so constantly give these symptoms, and there are no symptoms which are so constant or which can be so much depended upon.

Oculomotor palsy, unilateral in type, occurs most frequently in syphilis. In fact, it has been termed its *sign manual.* Of the cranial nerves, however, the sixth nerve is probably the most frequently diseased, it causing double vision. This, as a rule, lasts only a very short time, appearing and reappearing, until finally it will be permanent. Paralysis of any of the other cranial nerves is a rare manifestation. Meningeal involvement in the spinal cord is nearly always greatest in its posterior portion. Because of this, girdle sense and pains referred to various parts of the limbs are common.

Late Symptoms.—Of the diseases which have a tendency to become manifest many years after the infection, that is, after the fifth year, while there is in every case an affection of both the brain and spinal cord, there is nearly always a preponderance of the disease in one of these structures. When the brain is mostly involved, there will be, besides the irregularity of the pupils and the slowness of reactions to light and movement, other symptoms depending upon the location of the lesion. These

may consist in a gummatous deposit in most any portion of the brain, or of a basal infiltration, besides those diseases resulting from the early endarteritis.

It is characteristic of brain symptoms, just as it is of those the result of basal lesions, that they may appear for a time and then disappear, only to reappear again and remain more or less permanently. In those instances in which the spinal cord is mostly involved there may be diffuse symptoms, but in nearly all there is some meningitis, this causing girdle sense and pains.

Disturbances in bladder and rectal functions, especially the former, are very common in spinal infections, and sometimes may be the only symptoms indicating such disease.

Cases are observed in which there seems to be an equal involvement of the brain and the spinal cord, but even here one of these structures may be more diseased. The symptoms will, as a rule, be multiple, and there will be, besides the specific pupillary phenomena, disturbance of mentality, irregular motor and sensory symptom, and involvement of the bladder and rectum.

So far, only those cerebrospinal syphilitic diseases have been discussed which are the result of the direct pathologic processes produced by such infection, while other diseases, as general paresis, tabes dorsalis, and postero-lateral sclerosis, are supposedly produced by lues. Their symptoms, as a rule, come on many years after the infection, at least so far as their appreciation is concerned. It is curious that a person may be infected with syphilis and have no symptoms for a number of years, and then may develop posterior sclerosis.

Syphilis of the eighth nerve may develop during the secondary stage, when the onset is so sudden that the patient may become deaf within a few days. It is accompanied by tinnitus and is usually bilateral. Cranial polyneuritis of the seventh and fifth nerves may accompany the deafness. Headache and the features of spinal syphilis may be present. Lloyd claims that two divisions of the eighth nerve may be unequally affected (the cochlear in one instance, and the vestibular in the other, bearing the brunt of the disease).

Serum Tests for Syphilis.—Wassermann Reaction.—Wassermann in 1905 described a reaction, known by his name, which is of the greatest help in the establishment of diseases of syphilitic taint. The technic is constantly changing, and it has been deemed by the writer inadvisable to give a description of such tests, but only to discuss its significance and applicability to therapeutic and diagnostic measures.

These tests can be applied both to the blood and to the cerebrospinal fluid, and while it is possible to give an opinion in reactions applied to either, it is important, if possible, to give consideration to the cellular elements in the cerebrospinal fluid, the globulin content, and the specific reaction of blood and the spinal fluid.

It must be understood that there is not always parallelism between the conditions found in the blood and spinal fluid or between the Wassermann reaction and the lymphocytosis of the cerebrospinal fluid.

In brief, it is the present opinion that a positive Wassermann reaction means not only tabes, general paresis, or any of the so-called metasyphilitic diseases, but it also indicates active syphilis.

Colloidal Gold Test.—A positive reaction of the spinal fluid is regarded as a strongly diagnostic feature in cases of general paresis. The color changes in this reaction are so decided that the term "paretic curve" is often applied to this finding. In cerebrospinal lues less diag-

nostic value is to be attached to this reaction. In other forms of meningitis (not luetic) color changes may be marked in the tubes containing high dilutions of spinal fluid 1–300 to 1–2,000.

SHOWING THE FOUR COMMON TYPES OF COLLOIDAL REACTIONS

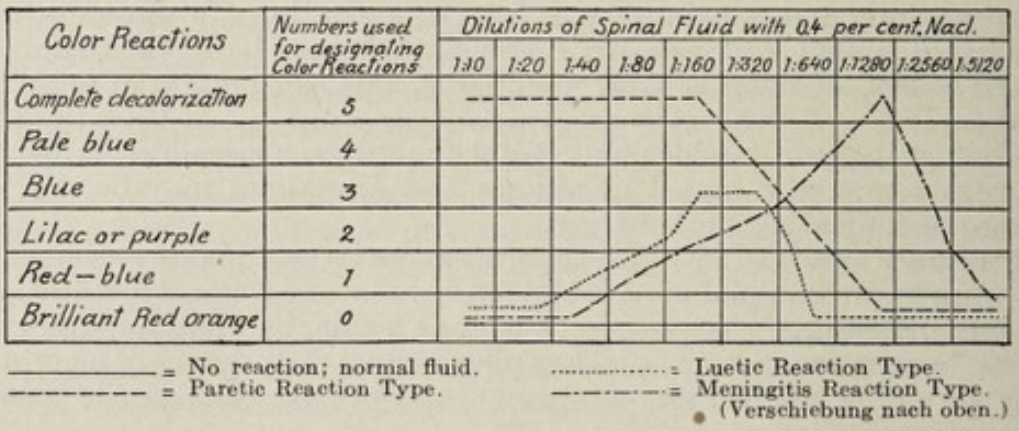


TABLE SETTING FORTH THE LABORATORY FINDINGS IN SYPHILIS OF THE NERVOUS SYSTEM

	Paresis, Per Cent.	Tabes Dorsalis, Per Cent.	Cerebrospinal Syphilis, Per Cent.
Blood Wassermann	98–100	70	70–80
Spinal fluid Wassermann	97	60–80	85–90
Pleocytosis (lymphocytosis)	98	85–90	85–90
Positive globulin test	100	90–95	90–95
Colloidal gold test	98–100	85–90	75–80
	Paretic curves	Luetic type of curve	Luetic curve

DISEASES OF THE MENINGES

The meninges, which envelope both the brain and spinal cord, are divided into the outer coat, or the dura, and the inner, or the pia and the arachnoid. Inflammation of the dura is called pachymeningitis, and of the inner coats leptomeningitis. With the exception of localized inflammations and those following injury, inflammation of the meninges nearly always involves the coverings of both the brain and spinal cord.

CEREBRAL PACHYMENINGITIS

This may affect either the outer or the inner coat, when it is called external or internal pachymeningitis. *External pachymeningitis* nearly always results from injury to the skull, and is not as common as is usually thought. It may be secondary to a growth of the overlying bone, especially in syphilitic, tuberculous, and carcinomatous conditions.

Internal pachymeningitis is rare. It sometimes is hemorrhagic in nature, there being accumulations of blood between the dura and pia, and usually occurs in old persons, especially in those who are either arteriosclerotic or alcoholic. It is rarely found in some forms of insanity. It may be present in conjunction with external pachymeningitis, especially in purulent, syphilitic, and tubercular inflammations.

Symptoms.—The symptoms of pachymeningitis, whether external or internal, are definite, and depend on the pressure exerted on the brain. Generally the patient complains of headache, and rarely of tenderness localized to the inflammatory area, the specific symptoms depending upon the part of the brain involved. If in the motor area, there will be irritative symptoms such as Jacksonian convulsions, which may be followed by more or less paralysis; if over Broca's convolution, motor aphasia; if over the parietal areas, where the pachymeningitis is most common, there may be irritative pains or paresthesia on the other side of the body, accompanied sometimes by disturbance of sensation; if over the temporal lobes, aphasia; if over the occipital convolutions, disturbance of vision on the other side. There may sometimes be loss of consciousness, delirium, or stupor, or there may be no symptoms at all.

Summary of Diagnosis.—History of a preceding injury to the head or of alcoholism, or syphilis, or the presence of symptoms indicative of tumor of the bones of the skull. The symptoms may come on rapidly or slowly, and consist of diffuse headache, possibly unconsciousness, coma or delirium, with irritative phenomena, such as convulsions on the other side, paralysis of various kinds, either partial or complete motor or sensory aphasia; or, what is important, there may be no symptoms at all. It is evident that the diagnosis of a pachymeningitis is very difficult and depends upon the location and character of the inflammation.

SPINAL PACHYMENINGITIS

Isolated inflammation of the spinal dura without involvement of the membranes underneath is very unusual and its occurrence is doubtful. In some instances, however, the dura is preponderantly involved. As a rule, inflammations of the dura are secondary to disease of the vertebra, as in tubercular, syphilitic, carcinomatous, or sarcomatous inflammations. It is possible to have a syphilitic pachymeningitis without involvement of the vertebra, but in most of these cases the pia and spinal cord are also diseased. The symptoms of spinal pachymeningitis secondary to vertebral inflammations have already been discussed under the latter heading.

HYPERTROPHIC CERVICAL PACHYMENINGITIS

Definition.—An inflammation of the dura of the upper portion of the spinal cord, localized principally to the cervical region, and characterized by thickening of the membranes with pressure upon the inclosed roots and spinal cord.

Pathologically there is a thickening of the dura, which comes on without any apparent cause, and is not secondary to vertebral disease. The dura is thickened throughout its whole circumference and gradually causes a pressure myelitis. An antecedent history of syphilis is sometimes present.

Symptoms.—The disease is progressive, and the symptoms appear gradually. Because of the fact that both the posterior and the anterior roots are involved, and that the spinal cord is ultimately pressed upon, the symptoms will be both sensory and motor. There will be at first pain and paresthetic phenomena referred to the back of the neck, shoulder, and upper limbs, the pains sometimes becoming sharp and shooting. Any sudden jarring in the back of the neck or vertebra will increase the pain, and there will also be tenderness on pressure over the cervical area. The pains and paresthesia increase, and examination may demonstrate segmental disturbance of sensation in the neck, shoulder, and upper limbs. In

conjunction with these sensory symptoms, or soon after, there will be fibrillary tremors in various portions of the upper limbs, to be followed by wasting and loss of power. Because of the fact that the ulnar and median portions are principally involved, there will develop a contracture of one or both upper limbs, which is characteristic of this disease, consisting of an acute extension of the hand upon the wrist, flexion of the metacarpal, and extension of the terminal phalanges. Gradually as the spinal cord is pressed upon, there will develop weakness, spasticity, increased tendon reflexes in one or both lower limbs, and ultimately the Babinski phenomenon will be demonstrated. Because of pressure on the posterior and lateral columns there may develop sensory symptoms in both lower limbs, trunk, and abdomen, and ultimately disturbance of bladder and rectal functions. As the pressure upon the spinal cord increases, the tremors, atrophy, and weakness involve all of the upper limbs and the patient becomes helpless.

Summary of Diagnosis.—A gradually progressive disease characterized by numbness or pain in the neck, shoulder, and upper limbs, with segmental disturbance of sensation, to be followed by fibrillary tremors, atrophy, and weakness in the upper limbs, with typical contracture consisting in an acute extension of the hand upon the wrist and flexion of the fingers. This is followed by spastic paresis of the lower limbs, with increased reflexes and the Babinski phenomenon. Later, disturbance of sensation and of bladder and rectal functions.

Differential Diagnosis.—It is somewhat difficult to diagnose this disease, because any inflammation of the dura which ultimately involves the spinal cord will cause the same symptoms. Its principal characteristic is the typical contracture in the hands menitoned. In those cases in which the pachymeningitis follows disease of the vertebra, as in tubercular, syphilitic, and malignant growths, there may be a spinal deformity, and in tuberculous and carcinomatous conditions there may also be a history of similar growths elsewhere; and in syphilis. involvement of the brain and some pupillary and ocular phenomena.

INFLAMMATION OF THE PIA-ARACHNOID

Cerebrospinal Meningitis.—In most cases the pia of the brain and spinal cord are involved at the same time, and it is only rarely that either is involved alone. Inflammations may be of various kinds. The epidemic form has already been discussed on page 896. The other varieties are purulent, tuberculous, and serous. Syphilitic meningitis has been discussed under the head of syphilis.

PURULENT MENINGITIS

In most instances purulent inflammation of the meninges is secondary to septic processes elsewhere, such as infected wounds of the scalp or cranium, middle-ear disease, localized abscess of the brain or pia, and general pyemic processes or abscesses in the various parts of the periphery, or secondary to a septic endocarditis or one of the infectious diseases, as pneumonia or typhoid. As a rule, the process involves equally the membranes of the convexity, base of the brain, and spinal cord.

Symptoms.—If the meningitis occurs in the course of an infectious disease, as typhoid, pneumonia, septic endocarditis, or is secondary to pyemic processes, injuries to the head, or middle-ear disease, their accompanying symptoms will be present, and very often the early symptoms of meningitis are masked. As a rule, they come on rapidly, with headache which at times is excessive, and a rise of temperature, the patient becom-

ing delirious, stuporous, and then unconscious. The pulse generally at first is rapid, and then slow and somewhat irregular, and respiration becomes more or less embarrassed. The head is retracted, the back held rigidly, and often the patient assumes a position of opisthotonos. The arms are retracted, the legs are flexed on the abdomen, and any attempt to extend the limbs is met with resistance (Kernig's sign). About this time the irritative phenomena become prominent, and there may be general convulsions, or the spasms may be limited to one or more limbs, which may be followed by partial paralysis or hemiplegia. The reflexes may be exaggerated, diminished, or lost. Because of basilar involvement the pupils become irregular, their reactions impaired, and there may often be swelling of the optic nerve-heads or choked disc. Cranial nerve palsies are common, especially of the sixth, causing diplopia; the third, resulting in ptosis of the upper lid and inability to move the eyeballs; the seventh, paralysis of the face; and of the vagus, interference with the action of the cardiac and respiratory functions and ultimately death. Vasomotor phenomena may be present, consisting in a flushing up of the skin after stroking, described as tache cerebrale.

Summary of Diagnosis.—Headache with gradually developing stupor and unconsciousness, rise of temperature, retraction and rigidity of the head and back with opisthotonos, rigidity, and retraction of the lower and upper limbs, pains and tenderness in various portions of the body, with convulsions which may be general or local, followed by paralysis of various kinds or increased or lost reflexes, pupillary irregularities, choked disc, dropping of one or both upper lids, ocular and facial paralysis, and disturbance of cardiac and respiratory functions. Lumbar puncture will demonstrate pus-cells and increase of lymphocytes and sometimes the specific bacillus.

Differential Diagnosis.—There should be no difficulty in diagnosing cerbrospinal meningitis. It is sometimes impossible, however, to demonstrate the type of inflammation. This, however, can be readily demonstrated by lumbar puncture. In the tuberculous form of meningitis the inflammation is nearly always limited to the base of the brain. In serous meningitis there is not, as a rule, unconsciousness, and the irritative and paralytic phenomena are mild. In the epidemic form the symptoms are like those of the purulent type, but, in addition, there are skin eruptions and the history of an epidemic, although occasionally sporadic cases are found, and the specific bacillus may be isolated by lumbar puncture.

TUBERCULOUS MENINGITIS

In this type the inflammation is nearly always confined to the membranes of the base of the brain, although there is some involvement of the convexity and of the spinal cord. In nearly all cases the tuberculous meningitis is secondary to similar processes elsewhere, especially of the lung, pleura, intestines, or glands. It may occur in adults, but in most instances it affects children below the fifth year.

Pathologically there is found tuberculous inflammation with small miliary nodules. Besides, there is nearly always some serous effusion.

Symptoms.—When occurring in an adult, there are always the accompanying symptoms of a tuberculous inflammation elsewhere, either in the lung, pleura, or glands. There gradually develop headache, irritability, vomiting and nausea, rigidity of the head and neck, some disturbance of consciousness, and then the symptoms of involvement of the cranial nerves at the base of the brain. These are choked disc or

optic neuritis, irregular pupils with disturbance of their reactions, ocular palsies, drooping of the upper lid, facial paralysis, disturbance of hearing and of cardiac and respiratory functions. Sometimes there may be convulsions or paralysis of the limbs of one or both sides. In most instances the disease is fatal.

Tuberculous Meningitis in Infants.—When it occurs in infants, there is usually a slow onset with general restlessness, loss of weight, rise of tem-

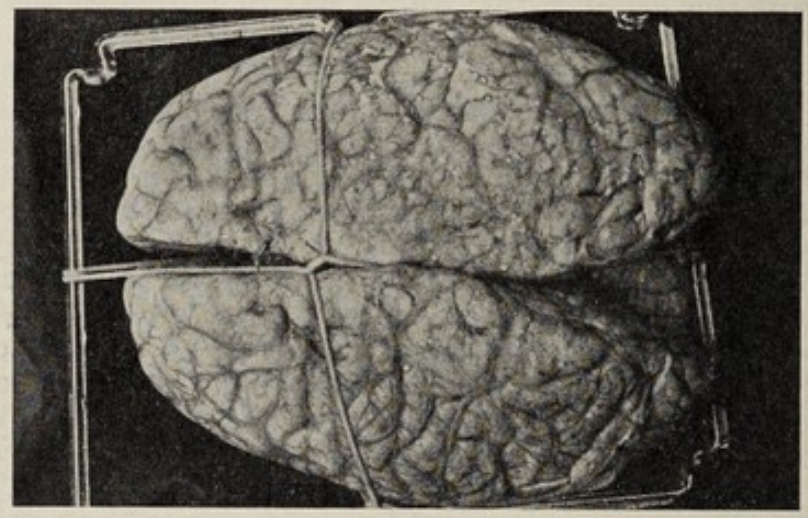


FIG. 481.—BRAIN OF A PATIENT WITH TUBERCULOUS MENINGITIS SHOWING NODULES WITHIN THE PIA.

perature, and gastro-intestinal disturbances with delirium, unconsciousness, and retraction and rigidity of the head, neck, and back, retraction of the upper and lower limbs, and the symptoms of basal involvement which have been described above. Usually the disease terminates in death, but if the patient lives there will be closure of some of the ventricular connections with a consequent internal hydrocephalus. Because of this there

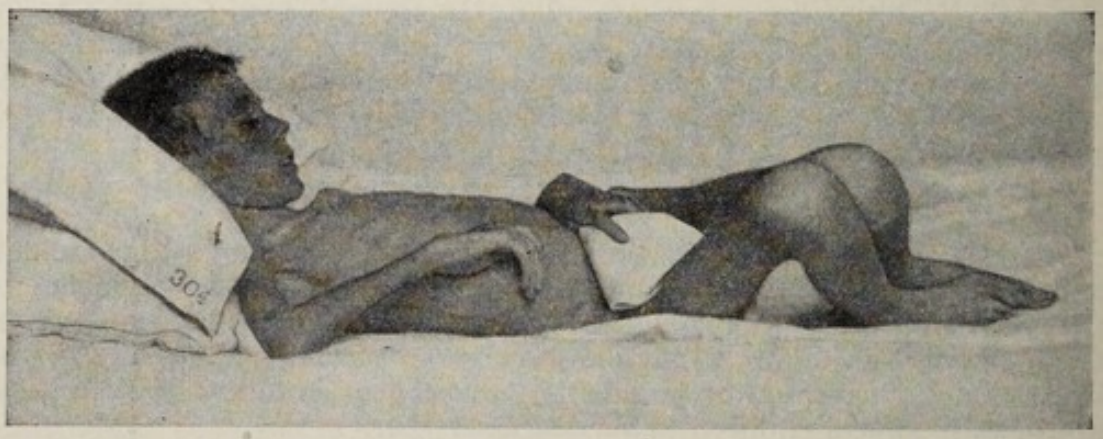


FIG. 482.—CASE OF TUBERCULOUS MENINGITIS, SHOWING MARKED EMACIATION.

there will be an increase in the size of the head, bulging of the fontanels, paralysis of one or both sides of the body, diminution of intellect, and a general rachitic condition of the body, with its accompanying symptoms of maldevelopment.

The spinal fluid is ordinarily clear or faintly opalescent. The cellular elements are chiefly mononuclear, with a few red blood cells. Tubercle

Bacilli are seldom found through staining methods, but the inoculation of laboratory animals which such fluid is often positive. A high protein-content of the fluid is suggestive of tuberculosis. Hypertension of the spinal fluid is the rule.

Summary of Diagnosis.—The symptoms of meningitis occurring in the course of a tuberculous condition in an adult, such as retraction of the head with cranial nerve palsies, with increase in temperature, cardiac and respiratory abnormalities. In the infant, generally before the fifth year, with the typical symptoms of meningitis with special involvement of the cranial nerves, and, if the patient lives, the symptoms of internal hydrocephalus. Lumbar puncture will nearly always demonstrate the tubercle bacillus, although sometimes cultures may be sterile. The fluid will always be increased and turbid and the lymphocytes, especially of the mononuclear variety, are increased in number.

The **atropin test,** which is applicable to both meningeal and certain cerebral conditions, may be found of value: Inject subcutaneously 2 mgms. of atropin, noting first the frequency of the radial pulse or of the heart-

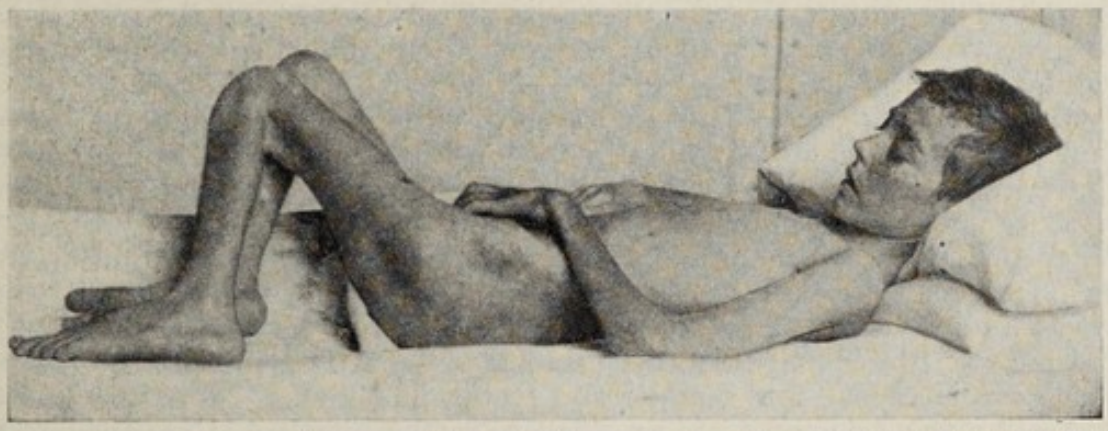


FIG. 483.—DIFFERENT VIEW OF CASE OF TUBERCULOUS MENINGITIS IN A CHILD TEN YEARS OF AGE.

beats. In event of meningitis being present, the number of heart-beats per minute is appreciably and often decidedly increased. The acceleration of the pulse is observed within twenty minutes after administration of the atropin, and continues becoming most marked at the expiration of one hour.

SEROUS MENINGITIS—MENINGISM

This is a form of meningitis only recently described in which there is an effusion into the meninges, but in which there is no exudation such as occurs in the purulent variety.

Under the term *meningism, meningismus,* or *pseudomeningitis* has been described that clinical variety in which the symptoms of meningitis are present, but in which pathologically and by lumbar puncture nothing is found perhaps beyond a congestion and edema of the vessels. It is probable that it is nothing more than the primary stage of a serous meningitis. If the disease goes further, into the second stage or stage of effusion, there will be what is commonly termed serous meningitis.

Meningeal process, whether of an irritative or of an effusive nature, can be likened to similar pathologic conditions occurring in the internal organs, as in the various stages of pleurisy or pericarditis.

Pathologically, in meningism there will be found a congestion of the blood-vessels with either little or no edema, and rarely the bacillus of the disease may be found in the meninges. In serous meningitis a similar condition is present, with the addition that there will be a serous effusion with an increase of the lymphocytic elements, and only rarely will a specific organism be found.

Symptoms.—Meningism.—This may occur in the course of or follow any infectious disease, such as pneumonia, typhoid, rheumatism, scarlet fever, measles, or grippe. It is not difficult to recognize, for there will be present those symptoms which are commonly termed meningeal, such as pain along the back or limbs, which may be of a numb character, or may be described as sharp and shooting, but the principal complaint is headache, especially in the back of the head. Besides there will be rigidity of the head and back, and unwillingness to move the limbs because of fear of increasing the pain. Sometimes there will also be hyperesthetic areas in different parts of the body. There may rarely be muscular twitchings in the limbs and a general increase of the reflexes. Lumbar puncture is negative. The onset is generally acute. The temperature may or may not be increased, and the pulse and respiration are not much altered. The duration of the disease is usually short, and the prognosis always favorable. Sometimes, however, there may be a complicating serous effusion.

Serous Meningitis.—This may involve either the brain or spinal cord alone, or both. There will be, in addition to the symptoms enumerated above, which may occur first, pressure symptoms resulting from the presence of fluid, their intensity depending upon the degree of the pressure. When the spinal cord is principally involved, there will be, in addition to the meningeal symptoms, pains in the limbs, girdle sense around the waist, and, because of pressure upon the anterior and posterior roots, and later on the spinal cord, disturbance of sensation, increased reflexes which are later lost, and bladder and rectal phenomena. Lumbar puncture will always demonstrate an increase in the intraspinal pressure and there will be considerable exudation of fluid. In most cases the disease only lasts a few weeks, the patient getting well.

In the cerebrospinal forms, besides the symptoms enumerated, there will be, in addition, some disturbance of consciousness and greater rigidity of the head and neck and of the limbs, and sometimes a swelling of the optic nerveheads. More rarely there may be temporary diplopia and disturbances in the temperature pulse, and respiration. Lumbar puncture will, of course, demonstrate increased intraspinal pressure with increase of fluid. In most instances the symptoms will subside in a few weeks, the patient getting well. If, however, they persist, there will develop a serous effusion in the cerebral ventricles, with its accompanying symptoms of intracranial pressure.

Circumscribed serous meningitis may occur in the spinal cord, and generally involves the lower portions, although it may be found in almost any part. It has already been discussed.

Cerebral Serous Meningitis.—A serous effusion into the ventricles may be the beginning of a general serous meningitis, or may be confined only to them. The same causes which are active in the production of a serous meningitis may produce an internal hydrocephalus.

Pathologically there will always be found an internal and sometimes also an external hydrocephalus, or an increase of fluid in the cortical meninges. Histologically there may be cloudy swelling and proliferation of the ependyma, accumulation of cells under the ependyma, and cellular

infiltration in the brain and spinal cord substance, and in its meninges, especially along the blood-vessels. The choroid plexus is nearly always diseased, as its over-action is supposed to be the cause of increase in fluid.

Circumscribed serous meningitis may occur in the pia-arachnoid of the cortex. Its symptoms will in no way differ from those of tumor of that part.

Internal hydrocephalus resulting from serous effusion, as a rule, comes on in early childhood, and is not difficult to recognize if the process is active. Very often, however, there may be only mild symptoms such as have been described under meningism, only to have later in life either an acute or a chronic serous meningitis or internal hydrocephalus. In fact, many writers consider that serous meningitis or serous effusion in the ventricles in the adult is only an acute exacerbation of an old process which had its origin in childhood. However that may be, there is no question that in the adult a serous effusion may develop either acutely or gradually in the ventricles and cause symptoms which are usually recognized as occurring in brain tumor, and from which it is sometimes almost impossible to make a differential diagnosis.

If internal hydrocephalus develops acutely, there will be, as a rule, an accompanying high fever, and the course of the disease will be rapid, it resulting either in cure or death. Headache, nausea, vomiting, vertigo, and disturbance in vision and choked disc, sometimes of high caliber, are prominent symptoms. Besides there may be paralysis of some of the cranial nerves, especially of the sixth, either on one or both sides, and there may also develop cerebellar ataxia. Consciousness is nearly always clouded. The disease may last a week or two, terminating in quick recovery, leaving behind slight atrophy of the optic nerves, but no other symptoms. Sometimes there may be a recurrence of the disease, this terminating also either in recovery or death. The diagnosis from a brain tumor can usually be made by the rapid onset, the high fever, and the quick recovery or termination in death.

If, however, the symptoms of internal hydrocephalus come on gradually, the differential diagnosis from brain tumor will be very difficult. There will be present all the pressure symptoms, such as headache, nausea, vomiting, vertigo, and choked disc, and because of the pressure exerted upon the motor fibers in the internal capsule, there will result weakness and spasticity of the limbs, with increased reflexes and sometimes the Babinski reflex. There may also be paralysis of the external rectus, either on one or both sides. Because of pressure on the cerebellum there will result incoördination in walking and sometimes incoördination of the eyeballs or nystagmus. The differential diagnosis from cerebellar lesions is sometimes very difficult, but can be made principally upon the fact that in cerebellar tumors there is hardly ever involvement of the limbs on both sides and the ataxia is more acute and much more marked.

It must also be remembered that internal hydrocephalus may also accompany tumors of either the cerebrum or the cerebellum, and in such case there will be, in addition to the symptoms resulting from the tumor, spastic paresis of the limbs with increased reflexes and the Babinski phenomenon. The prognosis in most cases of uncomplicated internal hydrocephalus is not very good, but sometimes complete recovery ensues, either as a result of operative interference, anti-luetic treatment, or sometimes spontaneously, leaving behind nothing but a slight atrophy of the optic nerves.

MUSCULAR DYSTROPHY

Definition.—A progressive hereditary and family disease, usually beginning in childhood, characterized by gradual weakness and atrophy of the muscles. Under the general term of muscular dystrophies have been described many clinical types, but while in the beginning there is a difference in the method and the seat of the involvement, the terminal stages are alike in all.

Until very recently it has been thought that in the muscular dystrophies the nervous system itself is never diseased, and that the cause is entirely in the muscles. Recently, however, there has been found in a number of cases a chronic degeneration of some of the peripheral nerves and atrophy of some of the motor nerve-cells in the spinal cord. The usual findings in the muscles consist in a gradual atrophy of the fibers with an increase of their nuclei and of interstitial connective tissue. In the pseudo-hypertrophic type there is swelling of the muscle-fibers with a large accumulation of fat-cells. The hypertrophy and fatty infiltration is succeeded by gradual atrophy, and there may be found both an increase of fatty tissue and atrophy of the muscle-fibers.

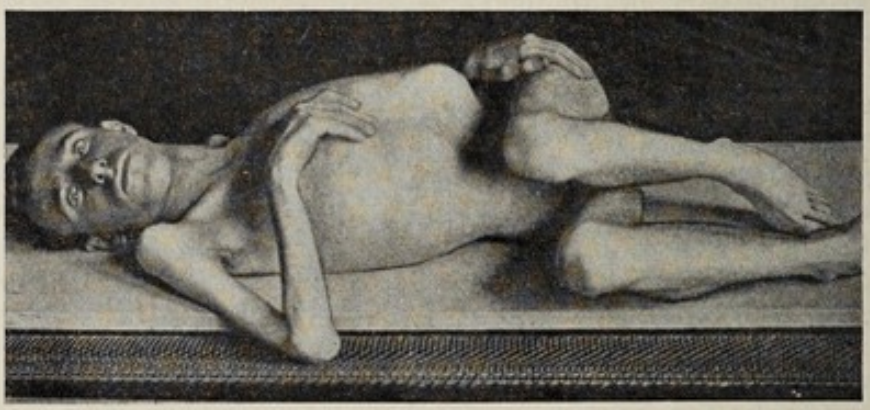


FIG. 484.—MUSCULAR DYSTROPHY, LAST STAGE, SHOWING CONTRACTURES AND ATROPHY.

It is found difficult to separate many cases of muscular distrophy from cases of endocrine disbalance. It is practically impossible to attain a diagnosis of endocrine involvement in such cases, unless therapeutic tests are employed. The infantile form of the disease may display features also common to congenital myotonia.

Symptoms Common to All Dystrophies.—It is probable that the disease is due to a maldevelopment of the muscular structures. Sometimes a number of members of the same family may be affected, and it is usually hereditary. In all types the symptoms begin before the twentieth year, and mostly between the ages of five and puberty. There is usually a history of slow muscular development, the child taking a longer period than normal to learn to walk. The weakness and atrophy progress at the same time. There are never fibrillary tremors, the reflexes become gradually diminished, and in the last stages are absent, and there are no electric reactions of degeneration. Sensory and bladder and rectal symptoms are never present. In the terminal stages there can be no differentiation made between the various clinical types.

Pseudo-hypertrophic Form.—In this type males are more frequently diseased and the symptoms usually begin between the fifth and tenth year. It is first noticed that the muscles, especially of the calves, thighs, buttocks, and shoulders, are disproportionately large, but gradually there

develops difficulty in running, the child tiring easily, especially in going up- and down-stairs; the gait becomes slow, with a tendency to lift the hips from side to side; and later characteristically waddling. At the same time the shoulders are retracted, the abdomen protruded because of the weakness of the gluteal, lumbar, and abdominal muscles, and there is

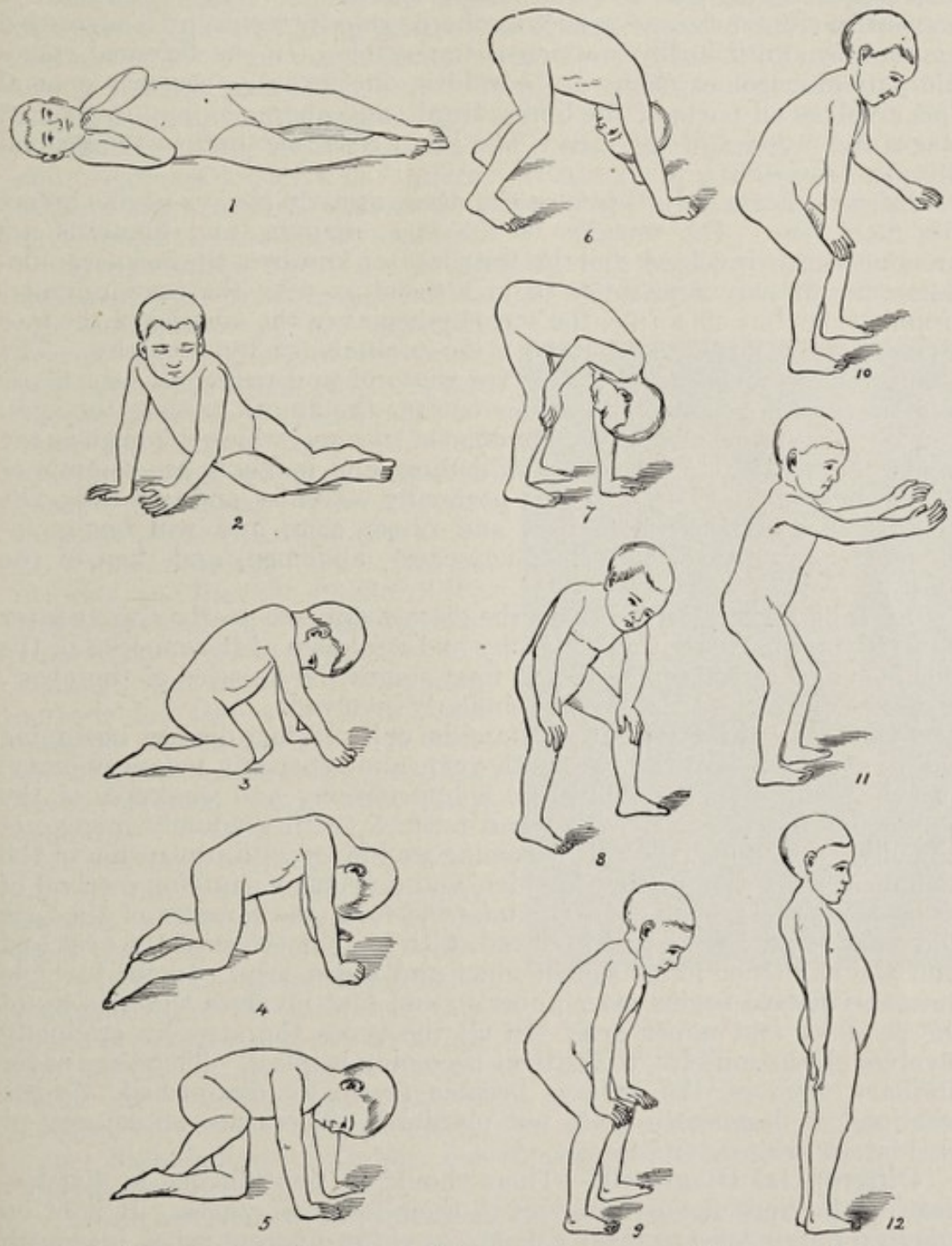


FIG. 485.—MANNER OF ARISING IN PSEUDO-HYPERTROPHIC MUSCULAR DYSTROPHY.

present a deep spinal frontal curve. Gradually the weakness increases and the gait becomes progressivley more difficult, and when the child is placed upon the ground there is usually a characteristic method of rising. The child first turns on his face, extending one and then the other leg, bracing his toe against a stationary object, supporting the weight of

his body and legs by both hands. When the legs are firmly extended and braced, the hands are brought nearer and nearer to the legs until finally the hands are braced against the ankle, then the leg, knee, thigh, and then with a supreme effort the shoulders and body are finally elevated and held erect. The diagnosis can be usually made upon the characteristic waddling gait and climbing-up method of rising. The muscles are soft to the touch, and gradually this pseudo-hypertrophy is succeeded by atrophy, until finally walking is impossible. In the terminal stages the patient becomes chair- or bedridden, the atrophy becomes general and involves all parts of the limbs, trunk, and abdomen, and in the last stages the muscles of the face. The bones also take part in the general atrophy (Fig. 485).

Infantile Form.—In this type the disease nearly always begins before the fifth year. The muscles of the face, scapula, and humerus are preponderantly involved, and this form is often known as the facio-scapulo-humeral. It may sometimes be in association with the pseudo-hypertrophic type, but, as a rule, the atrophy begins in the muscles of the face and shoulder girdle, and there is no preliminary hypertrophy. The atrophy of the face usually involves the oral and palpebral orbicularis muscles, and it becomes impossible to shut the mouth or close the eyes, and there is a peculiar drawn expression of the face, which is known as the myopathic facies. Articulation, whistling, and laughing are sometimes interferred with. The atrophy gradually extends and involves the muscles of the neck, shoulders, and upper arm, and will finally involve the muscles of the shoulder, chest, abdomen, and then of the limbs.

Juvenile Form.—In this type the disease appears nearly always after puberty, and begins with an atrophy and weakness of the muscles of the shoulder and upper arm. In the final stages the muscles of the chest, abdomen, limbs, and face become similarly involved.

Summary of Diagnosis.—A familial or hereditary disease, beginning nearly always before the twentieth year, and especially before puberty. In the pseudo-hypertrophic form, a hypertrophy and weakness of the muscles of the thigh, shoulder, and buttock, with gradually increasing difficulty in walking, the gait becoming waddling, with protrusion of the abdomen, retraction of the shoulder, and a peculiar climbing method of rising from the ground. In the infantile form the muscles of the face and shoulder girdle are first involved, with inability to close the eyes and shut the mouth or move the shoulder and upper arm. In the juvenile form the disease begins after puberty, and first involves the muscles of the shoulder and upper arm. In all the types the atrophy gradually involves all the muscles, the patient becoming helpless. There are never fibrillary tremors, the reflexes become gradually diminished, electric reactions of degeneration are not obtained. There are no sensory or bladder and rectal symptoms.

Differential Diagnosis.—There should be no difficulty in diagnosticating the muscular dystrophies in their terminal stages. It is of no practical importance to make a diagnosis of the different types, inasmuch as they all terminate alike.

Clinical Course and Complications.—The course of the disease is progressive, and the patient may live for many years. Usually death results from intercurrent disease. Sometimes muscular dystrophy may complicate other spinal cord diseases, such as chronic degeneration of the cells of the anterior horn.

PERONEAL OR DISTAL MUSCULAR ATROPHY

(Charcot-Marie-Tooth-Hoffman-Sachs Type)

Definition.—A progressive disease characterized by gradual atrophy and weakness beginning in the distal portions of the lower and upper limbs, with tremors, loss of reflexes, and some sensory disturbances.

Pathologically, besides the degeneration of the muscle-fibers, which consists in a gradual atrophy, increase of muscle nuclei and of interstitial tissue, there is some degeneration of the nerve-cells of the anterior horns and of the column of Goll, and more rarely a diffuse degeneration of the lateral columns and peripheral nerves.

Contributing and Exciting Factors.—The disease is hereditary, and occasionally occurs in families. It usually appears in young adults without any exciting cause. It is probably a manifestation of maldevelopment of the parts involved.

Symptoms.—The onset is gradual, and begins with atrophy and weakness of the small muscles of the foot and toes, it involving especially the distribution of the peroneal nerves, the tendons of the small toes becoming prominent. As the disease progresses there may develop deformity of both feet, such as equinovarus, or the patient may become flat-footed. Gradually the muscles of the peroneal and anterior and posterior tibial groups atrophy, and then the muscles of the thigh, especially the vastus internus. Locomotion becomes difficult, and usually the patient in walking spreads his feet wide apart, and because of the footdrop the toes are dragged on the ground, and the knees elevated more than they should be.

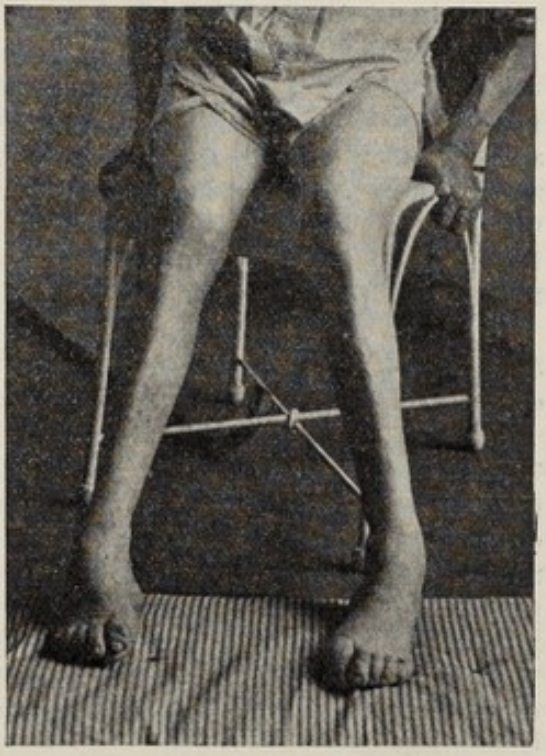


Fig. 486.—Primary Neurotic Atrophy, Showing Wasting and Contracture of the Lower Limbs.

Coincident with the distal atrophy of the lower limbs there may develop a similar atrophy in the small muscles of the hand, especially in the thenar and hypothenar eminences and the interossei, this gradually progressing and involving the muscles of the forearm, especially the extensors, and then the muscles of the arm and shoulder. As a rule, the involvement of the upper limb follows the lower, but sometimes the atrophy in the upper limb appears first (Fig. 486).

Fibrillary tremors are common in the involved limbs, the reflexes become gradually diminished and finally lost, and there may rarely be pain on pressure over the nerve-trunks. Disturbances of touch, pain, and temperature are sometimes found in the limbs. The disease is slowly progressive, and may ultimately involve the muscles of the trunk, buttocks, and face, but usually the patient dies before this occurs.

Summary of Diagnosis.—A familial or hereditary disease occurring in young adults, atrophy and weakness beginning in the distal portions of the leg or arm, gradually increasing and extending upward, with

fibrillary tremors, gradual loss of reflexes, and some disturbance of sensation.

Differential Diagnosis.—It should not be difficult to diagnose this disease if the nature and progress of the atrophy and weakness are clear. Sometimes, however, it is necessary to diagnosticate from multiple neuritis and progressive spinal muscular atrophy. In the former there is always pain on pressure over the nerve-trunks, with considerable disturbance of sensation and a history either of alcoholism, lead, or some similar cause, and the prognosis is good, the patient usually getting well. From progressive spinal muscular atrophy the disease is sometimes difficult to differentiate, especially when the distal form of atrophy begins in the upper limb, for there is present in both tremors, atrophy, weakness, and gradual loss of reflexes, but in the distal type there will be found occasionally pain on pressure over the nerve-trunks with some sensory disturbance, and the progress of the disease is different, inasmuch as the lower limbs become diseased early, this first involving the distal portions.

Diseases of the Peripheral Nerves

Every peripheral nerve-fiber consists of an axis-cylinder, of an enveloping substance called the myelin, and of a surrounding membrane—the neurolemma sheath. The nerve-fibers in the brain, spinal cord, and sympathetic system do not have this sheath, and some of those of the sympathetic system have no myelin. The individual fibers are bound together by interstitial tissue called the endoneurium. Every nerve-trunk consists of a number of these bundles held together by interstitial tissue, the perineurium, the whole being surrounded by the epineurium.

Pathology.—Inflammation of a peripheral nerve may be limited to a part or the whole extent of a nerve, when it is called a simple neuritis, or may involve several or most of the peripheral nerve-trunks in the body—a multiple neuritis. Inflammations may be limited to the interstitial tissue—an interstitial neuritis, or to the myelin substance and the axis-cylinders, when it is called a parenchymatous neuritis. The disease, of course, may affect both the interstitial tissue and the parenchymatous substance. Inflammations are further divided into acute and chronic, depending upon the onset. Most acute inflammations involve both the parenchymatous and interstitial substance, while chronic inflammations will have a tendency to be interstitial in character, with a secondary degeneration of the parenchymatous tissue, and are commonly called degenerative.

Microscopically, acute interstitial neuritis is characterized by swelling of the connective-tissue fibers and congestion of its vessels, with edema, round-cell infiltration, and swelling and breaking up of the myelin substance and of the axis-cylinders. Most cases of acute interstitial neuritis subside. If the disease becomes chronic, the acute inflammatory symptoms disappear, the interstitial substance will increase, and the myelin substance and axis-cylinders atrophy slowly. In the parenchymatous form both the myelin substance and axis-cylinders swell and break up into nodules, and there is a congestion of the vessels, with some round-cell infiltration, and, unless regeneration occurs, the fibers will be replaced by scar tissue. Degeneration of the peripheral muscles in which the nerves end results. Besides, there is often found, especially in multiple neuritis, a degeneration of the nerve-cells in the anterior horns of the spinal cord, and sometimes even in the cranial nuclei.

Functions.—The peripheral nerves have a threefold function: (1) Motor, transmitting impulses from the anterior horns of the spinal cord to

certain muscles; so if a nerve is cut, there will be loss of motion in its distribution; (2) they transmit sensation from the periphery as touch, pain, heat and cold, vibratory sensations, and what is known as muscle sense, this including the sense of pressure, localization, position, and movement; and, lastly (3), they conduct vasomotor and trophic fibers which concern nutrition of the hair, nails, skin, deeper structures, and joints, and control sweat secretions.

A nerve may be either purely motor or sensory, but in most cases combines both functions. In a mixed nerve it is impossible to tell what fibers transmit motion, sensation, or vasomotor functions; but the recent work of Head, which has revolutionized our ideas of peripheral sensation, has demonstrated the important point that deep sensibility, such as is capable of answering to pressure, and even producing pain when this is excessive, is transmitted mostly in the deep muscular nerves, and is not destroyed by division of the sensory nerves to the skin. This deep sensibility is also concerned with movement of the muscles and the extent and direction of passive movements of the joints. It is important to remember this, for these sensations are always preserved when only the superficial nerves are cut.

In Head's second division of sensation, or what he calls protopathic sensibility, there is capability of responding to painful cutaneous stimuli and to extremes of heat.

His third classification, or epicritic sensibility, is concerned with the power of cutaneous localization, of the appreciation of light touch, and the discrimination of two points (compass test), and of the finer grades of temperature (particularly from 25° to 40° C., that is, those called cold or warm).

"The above-mentioned sensibilities are often dissociated in an area affected by the disease or operative procedure. According to the completeness of the lesion, the kind of nerves affected, and the state of repair, all forms of sensibility (superficial and deep) may be absent or more or less partially present. Thus an area may present protopathic sensibility and not epicritic sensibility, or even the epicritic and not the protopathic form. Moreover, the nerves subserving these two forms of sensibility do not coincide in their areas of distribution. For, provided the peripheral nerves are divided into certain groups, it may be said that, as regards light touch, and other forms of epicritic sensation, very little overlapping occurs, whereas in the case of protopathic sensibility enormous overlapping is found, and it becomes evident that while the unit of supply for epicritic sensibility, looked at broadly, lies in the peripheral nerves, the unit of protopathic supply lies in the posterior roots.

"Further, the two systems regenerate with unequal facility; for, during the process of regeneration in a divided peripheral nerve in man, protopathic sensibility may begin to return in the subserved area in about seven weeks (average eighty-nine days), and be complete in twenty-nine weeks (average one hundred and seventy-eight days). At this stage of the more primitive form (protopathic sensibility) there is the power to appreciate in the affected parts pin-pricks, extremes of heat and cold (above 40° C. and below 20° C.), but no power to appreciate or respond to light touches, small differences of temperature, and no accurate localization is possible; in fact, fine discriminating power is absent. The return of protopathic sensibility brings a cessation of all those destructive nutritive changes that occur in parts where the skin is insensitive, such as ulcers, etc., which form as the consequence of burns or cuts, and do not heal so readily as on normal skin. Such trophic changes are confined

to parts deprived of protopathic sensibility. With the return of the latter, ulcers and sores heal as readily as on the normal skin. Moreover, when a peripheral nerve to the hand is divided, it is noticeable that the palm begins to sweat at a time after union which coincides approximately with that of the return of protopathic sensibility. This sweating is innervated and controlled by the motor fibers of the sympathetic (the autonomic fibers of Langley and Anderson) that supply the skin (Fig. 487).

"As the regeneration proceeds the higher and more discriminating form, viz., epicritic sensibility, begins to return in about three hundred

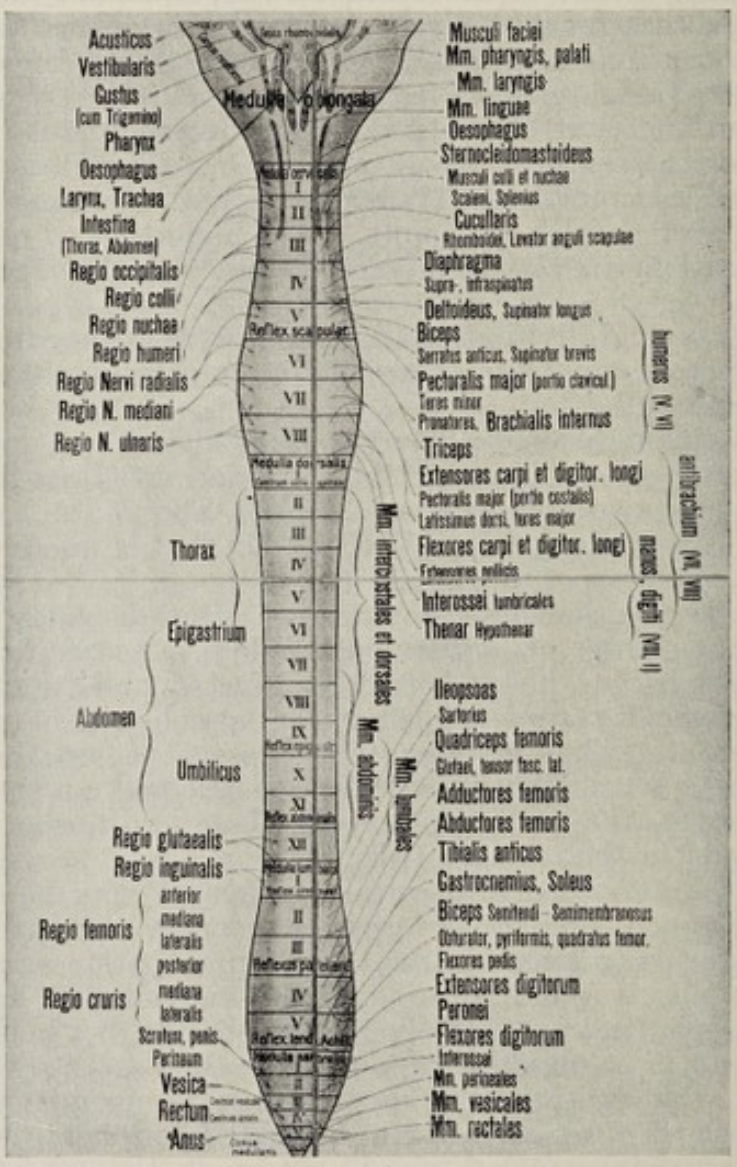


FIG. 487.—THE SPINAL NERVES AND REGIONS SUPPLIED. (From "Icones Neurologicæ," Strümpell and Jakob.)

and twenty-one days after the lesion, and, though it varies somewhat, may be complete in about three hundred and sixty-four days. Its return brings a power to respond to light touches, to localize accurately the sites of application of stimuli, and to appreciate correctly small grades and differences of temperature."

It is only necessary further to add that after a peripheral nerve is cut or diseased, regeneration is possible provided the conditions are favorable, and there is no continuation of the pathologic process. After a nerve is cut there is degeneration or physiologic death of the parts peripheral to

the cut, while only a small portion of the central stump degenerates. This is because the central part still has its trophic supply from the nerve-cell from which it originates, while in the peripheral part this is absent.

Diseases or Injuries of the Spinal Nerves

There are thirty-one pairs of spinal nerves, corresponding to their respective spinal segments—eight cervical, twelve thoracic, five lumbar, five sacral, and one coccygeal. Because some of these nerves innervate

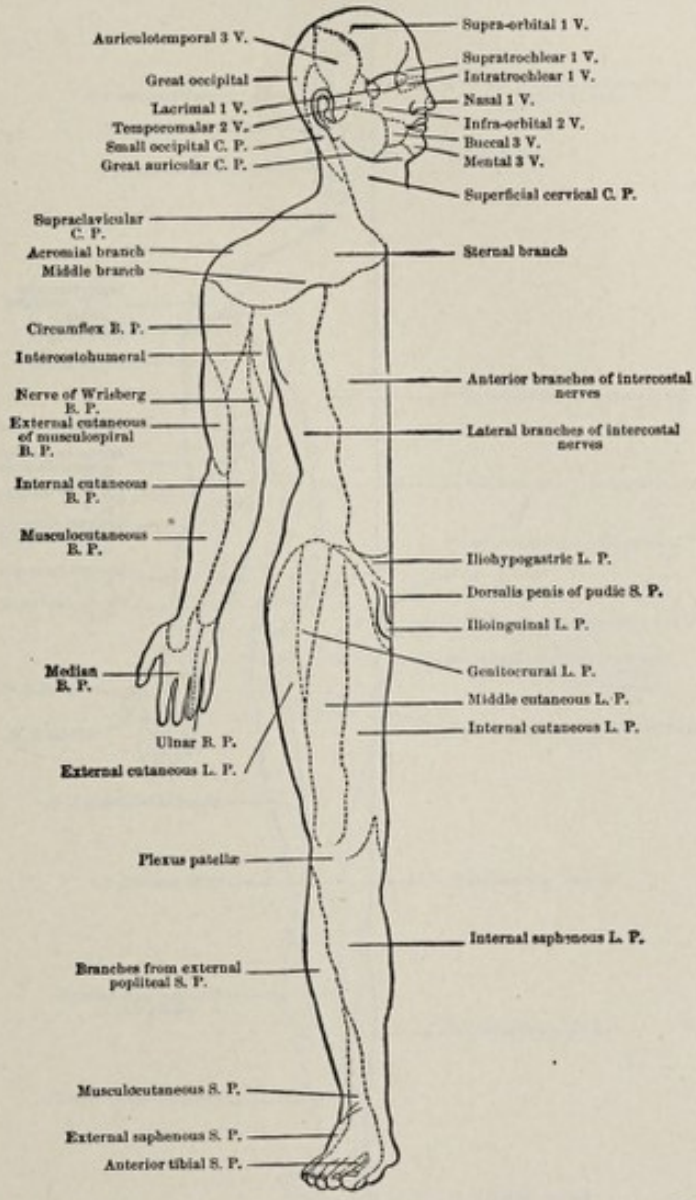


Fig. 488.—Cutaneous Distribution of Nerves (after Flower).

the upper and lower limbs, two principal plexuses have been formed, the brachial and lumbo-sacral. The individual distribution of the peripheral nerves, in so far as the skin areas are concerned, is shown in Figs. 488 and 489. Only the common inflammations or injuries of the peripheral nerves will be discussed. The general pathology, regeneration of function, and peculiar sensory disturbance resulting from neuritis or injury have already been discussed.

Symptoms.—These will depend upon the extent and degree of the neuritis, and whether the nerve is motor, sensory or mixed.

Motor Symptoms.—If a nerve is totally diseased or severed, there will be paralysis in its distribution, and within a week or two electric reactions of degeneration, which become complete in three weeks. As regeneration appears the reactions gradually improve, until finally normal responses are obtained. Atrophy appears about the same time as the reactions of degeneration, and has about the same course. The reflexes are, of course, lost in the distribution of the nerve.

Sensory Symptoms.—The disturbances of sensation will, of course, depend upon the particular distribution of the nerve. Its extent and

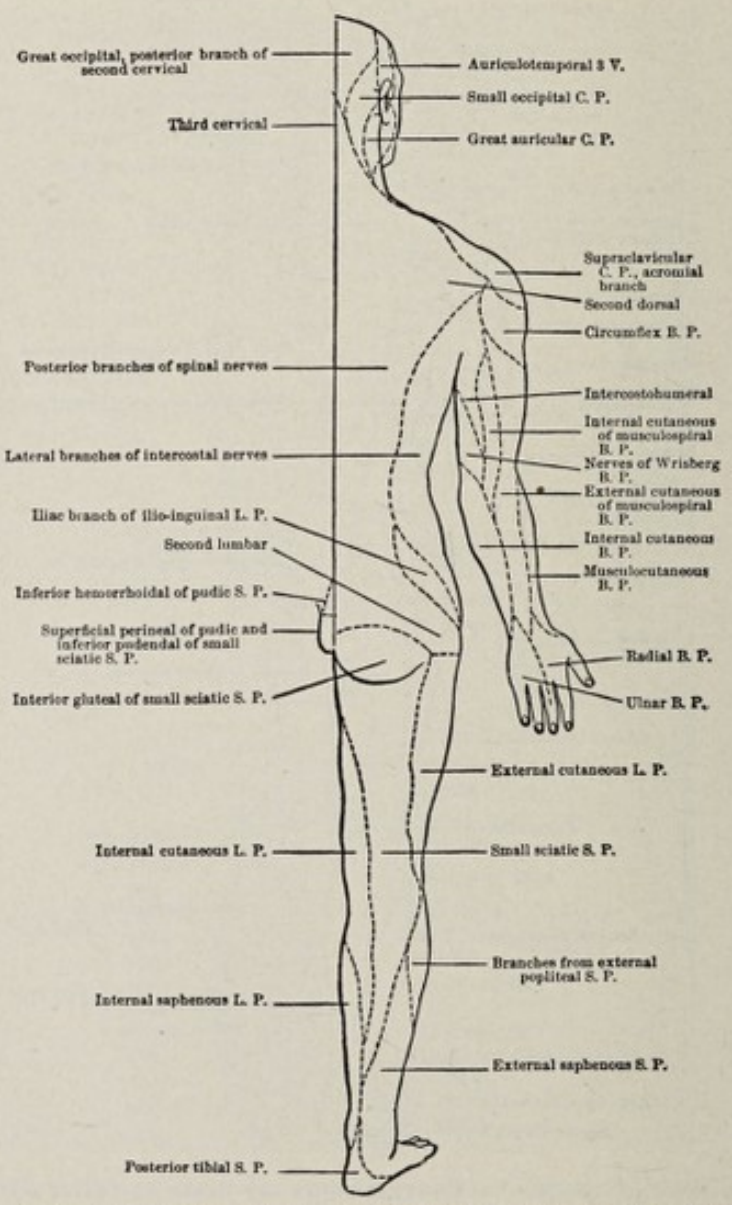


FIG. 489.—CUTANEOUS DISTRIBUTION OF NERVES (after Flower).

character have already been discussed. It is important to remember that sensation returns before motion.

Vasomotor Symptoms.—These include disturbances in nutrition of the skin, hair, nails, and joints, and deeper structures, their degree depending upon the nerve involved and the extent of the paralysis.

Duration.—An ordinary neuritis may last from four to six weeks, and then will gradually subside. If it involves a number of nerves, as a plexus, the duration is longer. In most cases the prognosis is good, this

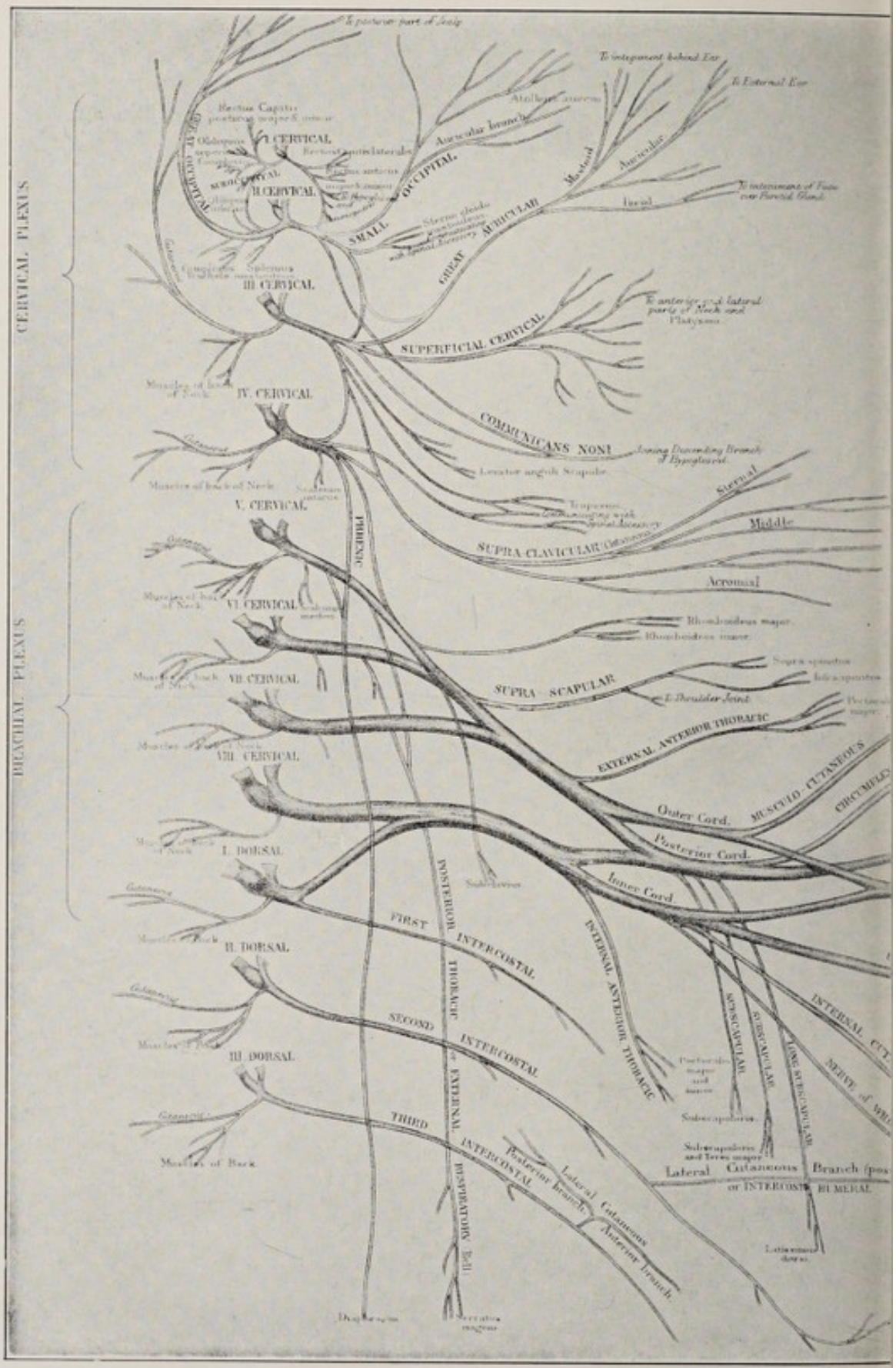
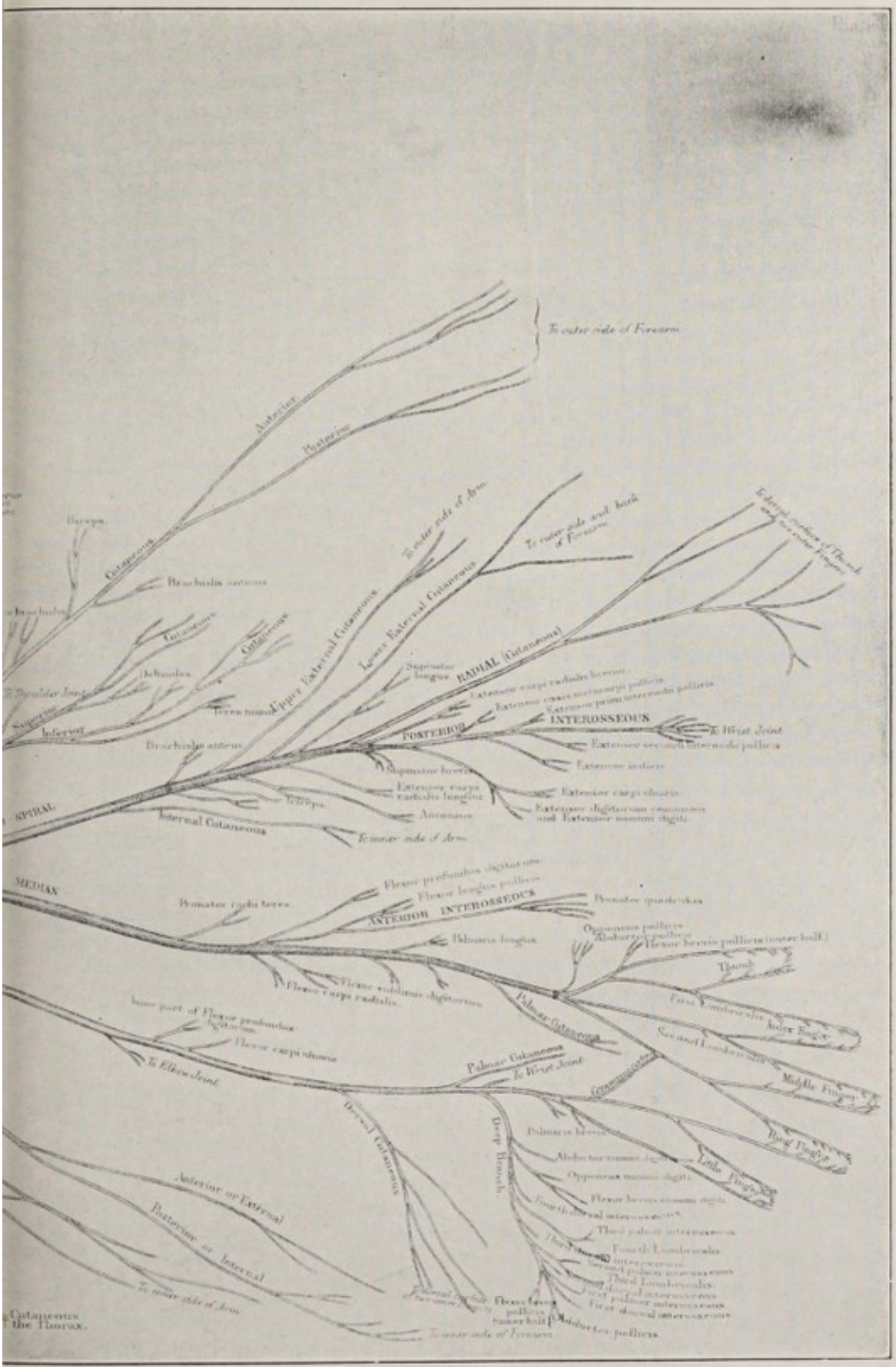


Diagram Showing Relations and Distrib



of Cervical and Brachial Nerves (Flower).

depending largely upon the extent of the paralysis, the removal of the cause, and the effects of treatment.

BRACHIAL NEURITIS

The brachial plexus is composed of the fifth, sixth, seventh, and eighth cervical and first thoracic roots, and supplies motion and sensation to the upper limbs. A neuritis may involve all the branches of the plexus, or be limited to its upper part, this including the fifth and sixth cervical, or the lower, involving the seventh and eighth cervical and first thoracic roots, or their continuations. If in association with the brachial neuritis there is disease of the first four cervical nerves, it is called a cervico-brachial neuritis.

Most cases of brachial neuritis appear in adults without any apparent cause, although it is probable that such general diseases as gout, rheumatism, and anemia are often the causal factors. Direct injuries to the shoulder or plexus, dislocations, caries of the vertebra, birth palsies, cervical rib, and aneurisms are frequent causes.

Symptoms.—Whether the neuritis involves all or only part of the brachial plexus, the most important symptom is pain. This may appear gradually or acutely, and is usually sharp and shooting in character, it being aggravated by movement of the arm. If the whole plexus is diseased, the pain involves all parts equally; if the upper cords, it will be limited to the neck, shoulder, and arm as far as the elbow; if the lower, to the arm, forearm, and hand. The nerve-trunks and muscles are tender and painful to pressure, and vasomotor and trophic disturbances are common. Associated with the neuritis there will always be some paralysis, with consequent atrophy of the muscles and loss of reflexes. The specific symptoms depend upon whether all or part of the plexus is diseased. In the upper form the paralysis will be limited to the deltoid, biceps, coracobrachialis, and supinator muscles; if the lower, to the muscles of the forearm, and especially of the hand. In association with the lower type of neuritis there may be certain pupillary phenomena, which will be discussed under the lower arm type of paralysis.

The duration of the neuritis will depend largely upon its etiology. If due to causes which can be removed, the prognosis is excellent. If idiopathic or due to constitutional diseases, the neuritis is of long duration and difficult of cure.

The diagnosis of brachial neuritis should not offer much difficulty. It is important to determine the etiology and remember that in the beginning of a rheumatoid arthritis the pains may be referred to the shoulder and upper arm.

BRACHIAL PALSY

Paralysis of the brachial plexus may be total or partial, unilateral or bilateral. If *total*, the arms hang limply by the side, no movements being possible, the muscles soon atrophy, the reflexes become lost, and electric reactions of degeneration are early obtained. Partial brachial paralysis may be either of the upper plexus type, the so-called Duchenne-Erb form, in which the fifth or sixth cervical roots or their continuations in the plexus are involved; or the lower plexus or Klumpke's type, in which the eighth cervical and first thoracic roots or their continuations are diseased.

Upper Arm Type of Brachial Palsy; Birth or Obstetrical Palsy.—This form of paralysis is mostly traumatic in origin, and occurs most frequently at birth when abnormal traction is made upon the head or arm or pressure exerted upon the brachial plexus either by forceps

or in breach presentation. Sometimes it may result from abnormal stretching of the arm in the course of etherization. The paralysis may be noticed immediately after birth, and involves the deltoid, triceps, brachialis anticus, supinator longus and brevis, and infraspinatus muscles. It will be impossible to adduct the arm, and the forearm is extended and pronated. The muscles soon become atrophic, the reflexes are lost, and electric reactions of degeneration are obtained. Sensation, as a rule, is not destroyed.

Lower Arm Type of Brachial Palsy.—This is sometimes called Klumpke paralysis, and involves the eighth cervical and first thoracic roots or their continuations. It is a very rare form, and usually results from injury. There will be paralysis of the small muscles of the hand and forearm, especially of the flexors, resulting in inability to move the fingers or hand. Atrophy and reactions of degeneration follow, as well as sensory disturbances, especially in the ulnar distribution (Fig 490).



FIG. 490.—SKIN MANIFESTATIONS DUE TO LESIONS OF THE PERIPHERAL NERVES (Athanassio-Bénisty).

Involvement of the Sympathetic System.—Our knowledge of the sympathetic system is by no means exact. We know, however, that in the lower part of the cervical and upper part of the dorsal cord (in the eighth cervical and first thoracic segments) there is a so-called ciliospinal center, and that the rami communicantes of the anterior roots of the first dorsal segment contain the so-called oculopupillary or sympathetic fibers.

The classic symptoms of irritation of the cervical sympathetic—by this being meant either the ciliospinal center in the spinal cord, the anterior root-fibers of the first dorsal segment, or the cervical sympathetic plexus—are enlargement of the pupil, widening of the palpebral fissure, a slight exophthalmos, delayed descent of the lid in looking downward, paleness of the face, and increase in the sweat secretion. Paralysis of the cervical sympathetic produces a small pupil, narrowing of the palpebral angle, a slight enophthalmos, warmness or coldness of the face, and disturbance of sweat secretion. It is only rarely, however, that all of these symptoms are present, the most consistent being disturbance in the size of the pupil, and either protrusion or retraction of the eyeball with alteration in the width of the palpebral fissure.

It can be readily understood, then, that sympathetic symptoms occur from injuries either of the cervical portion of the spinal cord, the cervical sympathetic plexuses, or in brachial neuritis or palsy in which the rami communicantes of the first dorsal root are involved. Therefore, in the lower arm type of paralysis, in which the eighth cervical and the first

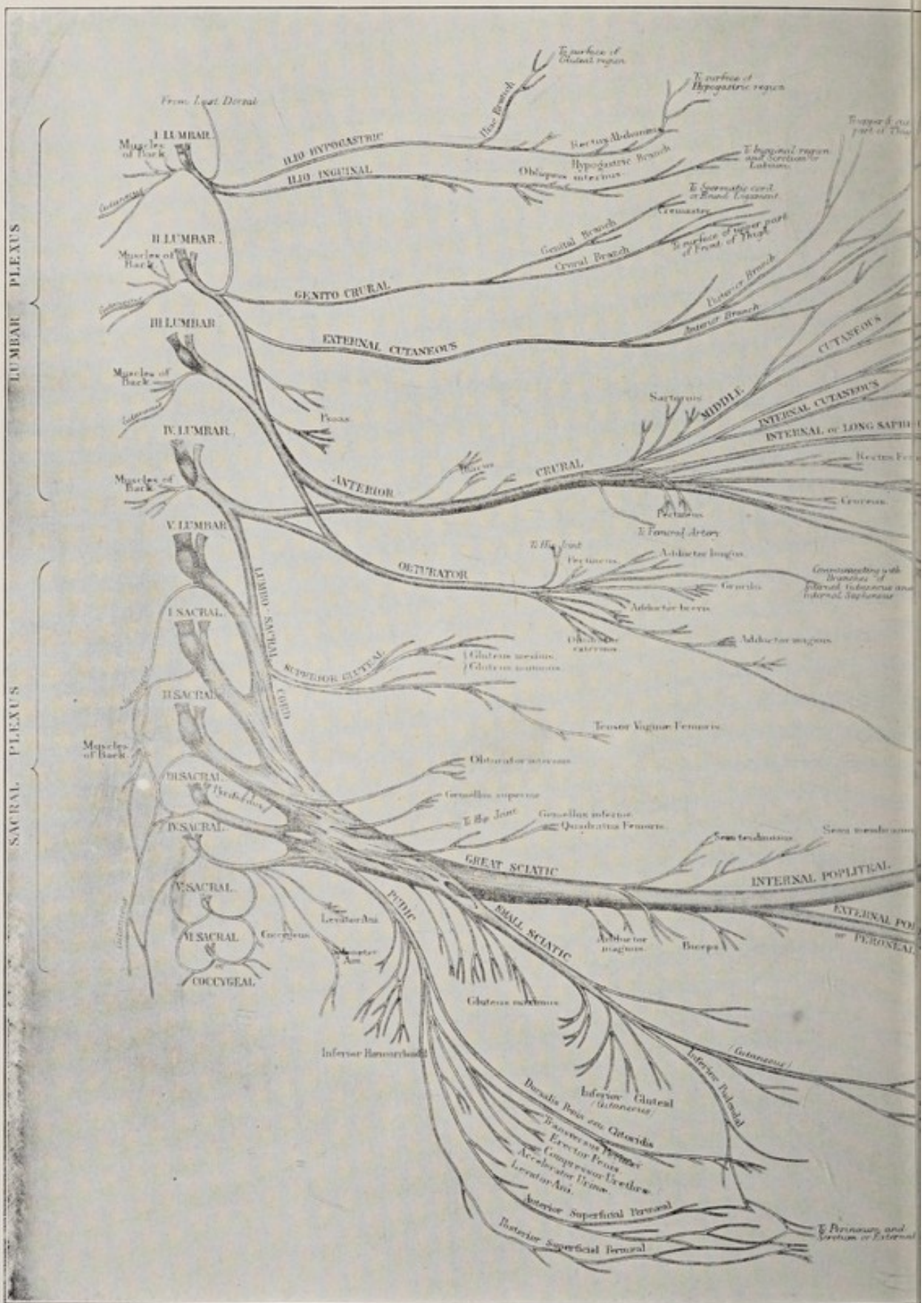
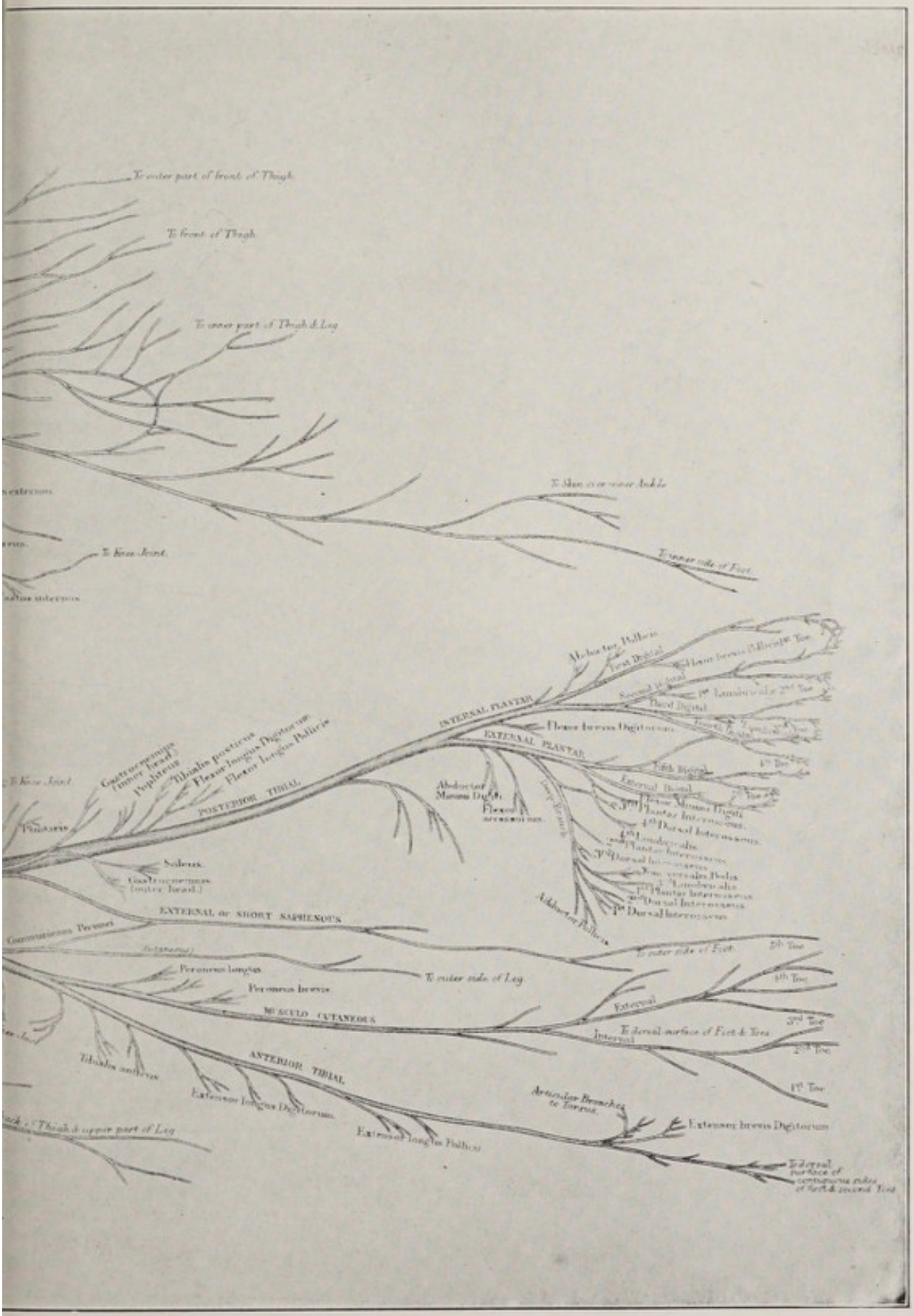


Diagram Showing Relations and Distribu



Lumbar and Sacral Nerves (Flower).

dorsal roots are diseased, there are always oculopupillary symptoms. It is possible, however, to have this type of paralysis without sympathetic involvement, if the fibers coming from these roots in the brachial plexus, and not the roots themselves, are diseased. It is difficult, however, to make such a clinical differential diagnosis, because the symptoms are identical, but it can always be assumed that, if the oculopupillary symptoms are present, the first dorsal root is diseased.

In the Duchenne-Erb or upper type of paralysis, due to a birth palsy, or the paralysis occurring in the course of etherization, the traction upon the arms may cause an abnormal stretching and tearing of the rami communicantes of the first dorsal root, this causing sympathetic paralysis without the first root itself being diseased.

If all the roots or the brachial plexus are diseased, there may be oculopupillary symptoms. As a result of gunshot or stab wounds there may be forms of paralysis which do not conform to any of the regular types with sympathetic symptoms. In these cases either the first dorsal roots are involved, or the oculopupillary fibers in the cervical sympathetic are injured.

Paralysis of the Circumflex Nerve; Deltoid Paralysis.—This usually results from dislocation or direct injury to the shoulder, and produces paralysis of the deltoid muscle, there being inability to raise the upper arm from a hanging position. When the anterior part of the muscle only is affected, it will be impossible to adduct the upper arm or place the hand to the opposing shoulder. When the posterior part is involved, the patient will be unable to put his hands in his pockets. Following the weakness there will be atrophy, reactions of degeneration, and triangular disturbances of sensation.

Paralysis of the Long or Posterior Thoracic; Serratus Magnus Paralysis.—This results sometimes from lifting heavy weights or injuries or dislocation of the shoulder, and causes paralysis of the serratus magnus muscle. The edge of the scapula, to which the serratus is attached, will be winged or prominent, and there will be inability to lift the arm more than to a horizontal position. Disturbances of sensation are sometimes present.

Paralysis of the Musculocutaneous Nerves; Biceps and Brachialis Anticus Paralysis.—Isolated paralysis of this nerve is rare. The forearm when in supination cannot be flexed, and the supinator action of the biceps, which is exerted when the biceps is contracted, is also absent.

Musculospiral Palsy.—This nerve is very frequently injured or diseased because of its exposed position around the humerus. Paralysis generally comes on after a debauch, the patient while intoxicated lying on his arm, this causing pressure. It is sometimes called Saturday night palsy. The musculospiral nerve supplies the triceps, anconeus, supinator longus, the extensor carpi radialis longior, and all of the extensor muscles of the hand. There is wrist-drop with inability to extend the fingers or the hand upon the wrist, and because of the paralysis of the extensor muscles flexion of the fingers will be imperfect. There will also be inability to pronate the forearm, and sometimes failure to extend the forearm on the arm. Sensory disturbances are not the rule, but they are sometimes found, especially over the radial side of the forearm and hand. Musculospiral palsy often occurs as a result of lead-poisoning, the supinator longus always escaping.

Median Nerve Palsy.—Median nerve paralysis is generally due to injury. It supplies all the flexors of the fingers, the flexor carpi radialis, and the pronator radii teres. The disturbances in motion will consist in

inability to pronate the forearm, to flex the hand to the radial side, the fingers cannot be flexed, and adduction of the thumb is lost. Sensory disturbances are uncommon, but when present are limited to the radial side, as shown in Fig. 491.

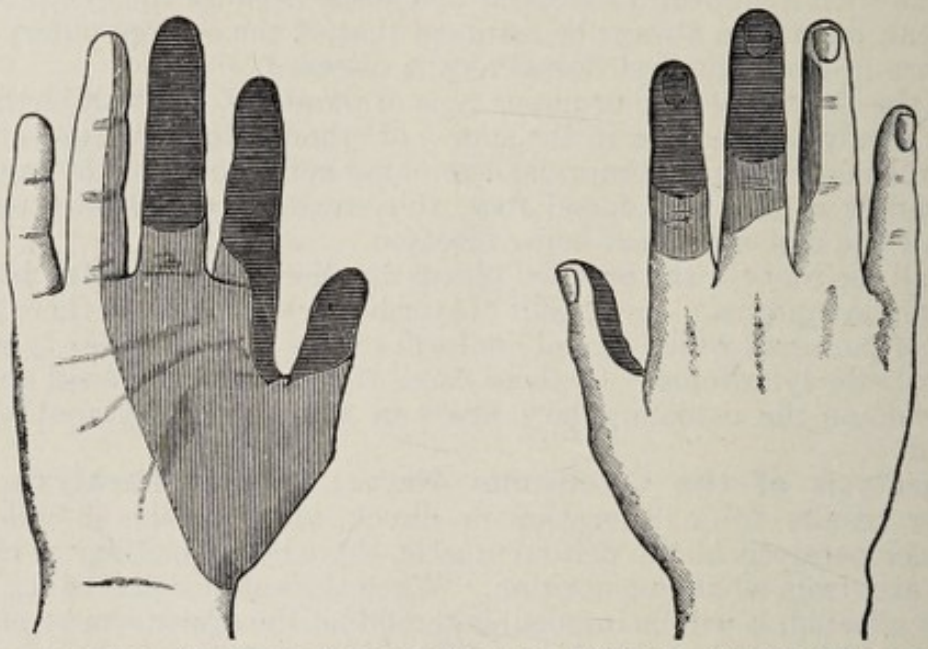


Fig. 491.—Showing Areas of Sensory Loss in Injuries of the Median Nerve (Bowlby).

Ulnar Palsy.—This is usually produced by direct injury to the nerve. It supplies the flexor carpi ulnaris, the unlar half of the flexor profundus digitorum, and the muscles of the hypothenar eminence, the interossei, the inner three lumbricales, the adductor transverse pollicis, and the flexor

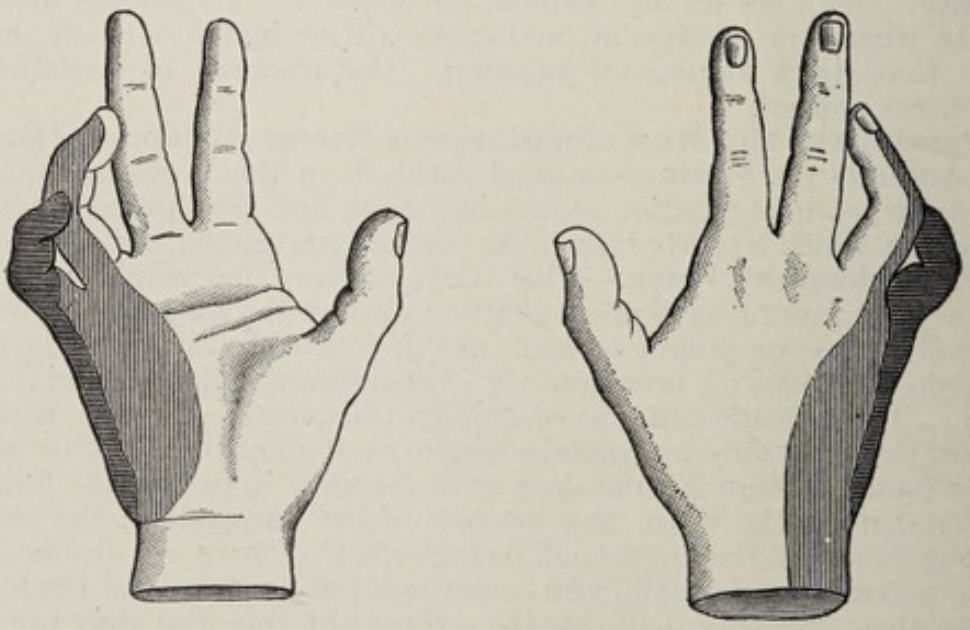


Fig. 492.—Showing Sensory Loss and Ordinary Position in Injuries of the Ulnar Nerve (Bowlby).

brevis pollicis. In ulnar paralysis there is disturbance of flexion of the hand and of the last three fingers, and inability to flex the proximal and extend the terminal phalanges of the fingers. This is especially marked in the last two fingers, and there is also some weakness in adduc-

tion of the thumb, this disturbance causing the so-called "claw hand," it being more marked late, when there is atrophy in the involved muscles. Sensory disturbances are not frequent, and when present are limited to the flexor and extensor surfaces of the last two or three fingers (Fig. 492).

Paralysis of the Diaphragm.—Isolated paralysis is very rare. It is supplied by the phrenic nerve, which is derived from the third, fourth, and fifth cervical segments, and usually results from lesions of the vertebra or direct injury. Unilateral lesions of the phrenic nerve may not cause paralysis, but a total paralysis of the diaphragm can be detected by the inaction of the upper part of the abdomen during respiration.

DISEASES OF THE LUMBAR AND SACRAL PLEXUSES

Isolated paralyses of the nerves of the lower limbs are rare, and are usually the result of traumatism. In such paralyses it is always necessary to exclude muscular dystrophies, anterior poliomyelitis, multiple neuritis, pelvic tumors and abscesses, and also lesions of the lowest portion of the spinal cord or of the cauda equina.

Paralysis of the anterior crural nerve occurs mostly after injuries. It innervates the iliopsoas and the extensor quadriceps. There will be inability to flex the thigh on the trunk, and if the thigh is raised passively, the leg cannot be extended. The patellar jerk will be absent, walking and standing on the leg will become almost impossible, and raising of the trunk on the thigh from a recumbent position will be impaired. Disturbances of sensation are uncommon, but are sometimes found in the inner part of the thigh and leg.

Paralysis of the obturator nerve sometimes occurs, and interferes with adduction of the thigh, it being impossible to cross one leg over the other. Rotation of the thigh outward is also interfered with.

Isolated *paralyses of the gluteal nerves* are uncommon, and usually occur in conjunction with muscular dystrophies. These nerves supply the gluteal muscles, and paralysis of them causes an inability to extend the thigh on the pelvis, interfering with going up-stairs or with rising from a sitting posture.

Sciatic Paralysis.—This may come on at the end of a sciatic neuritis or sciatica, or may result from tumors of the pelvis, causing pressure on the nerve, or from direct injuries. The sciatic nerve supplies the muscles of the back of the thigh, a lesion of this part causing inability to flex the leg backward on the thigh, due to paralysis of the semimembranosus and semitendinosus. Walking, however, will be possible because of the action of the quadriceps. Besides, the sciatic nerve supplies the muscles of the leg below the knee, it dividing into the external and internal popliteal nerves.

Paralysis of the external popliteal nerve is common because of its exposed position, it winding around the head of the fibula, where it is liable to direct injury. It divides into the peroneal and anterior tibial branches, which supply the extensors of the toes, paralysis causing foot-drop and inability to abduct the foot. When walking, the patient will lift his knees high from the ground, causing the so-called steppage gait. Disturbances of sensation sometimes occurs in the outer border of the leg and foot.

Paralysis of the internal popliteal nerve is uncommon. It supplies the muscles of the back of the leg, and there will be inability to flex or stand on the toes, the plantar reflex will be absent, as will also the Achilles jerk.

Meralgia Paresthetica.—(Roth's disease; Bernhardt's disease.) Neuritis of the external cutaneous nerve of the thigh is not a rare clinical picture. The peculiar relations of this nerve—its passage through the fascia of the thigh—appear to predispose it to destructive lesions. As exciting causes, occupational pressure, infectious diseases, overexertion, abnormal static relations (flat-foot), diabetes, arteriosclerosis and nicotinism, have been mentioned. The disease is usually unilateral.

Clinical Features.—The patients complain of the most varied paresthesias and spontaneous pains in the region of distribution of the external cutaneous nerve, with tender spots to pressure in this region. The hyperesthesia of the skin can cause the friction of the clothing to be painful. Ofttimes the antero-lateral regions of the thigh feel as though frozen. Objectively, hyperesthesia or anesthesia in a more or less extensive portion of the territory in question is found. Neuralgia is in general persistent and shows a tendency to relapses. Cutting of the nerve is at times necessary.

TUMORS OF THE NERVES

These are of rare occurrence and are generally fibromata, but they may be sarcoma, angioma, or any of the other usual forms. The tumor may develop within or upon a nerve-sheath. The amputation neuroma is the best example of a true nerve tumor, and it is possible that pure neuromata do not exist.

Fibroma may grow upon one nerve, or may rarely involve all the nerves of the body, even the cranial. This is called Recklinghausen's disease.

The symptoms will, of course, depend upon the particular nerve involved, and will be those of a neuritis. Besides, there will be present the physical evidences of the growth.

MULTIPLE NEURITIS

Definition.—An inflammation of many peripheral nerves.

It must be understood that there are various grades of the disease, and that in the mild forms the pathologic changes are not marked. If the disease is severe, especially in the alcoholoic form, there are, in addition, alterations in the cells of the anterior horns and medulla and pons. The changes in the nerve-cells consist of a displacement of the nucleus to the periphery and an alteration in the chromatin substance. Diffuse and degenerate inflammations with hemorrhages, especially in the region of the gray matter of the third ventricle and the aqueduct of Sylvius, are sometimes found. Degeneration is often found in the anterior and posterior roots, the cranial nerves, and the anterior and posterior horns.

Predisposing and Exciting Factors.—Multiple neuritis is produced by a variety of causes focal infection being among these. Toxic disturbances, such as are produced by the various infectious diseases and the different metallic poisons, chronic diseases, as tuberculosis, malaria, beriberi, leprosy, and senility, may produce polyneuritis. It may come on without any apparent cause, or follow a cold, probably being in these instances, infectious in origin.

Symptoms.—Certain general symptoms are common to all forms of multiple neuritis, and these may be divided into sensory, motor, vasomotor, and trophic, their severity depending upon the extent of the pathologic process.

Sensory Symptoms.—These nearly always come on first, the patient complaining of a sense of numbness, pin- and needle-like sensation, or a crawling or dead feeling in the lower or the upper limbs. These increase until finally the pains become sharp and shooting, accompanied by an increasing tenderness of the muscles and nerves, with pain on pressure, sometimes becoming so acute that the slightest irritation or jar of the body will cause excruciating pain, and it is necessary to protect the patient from the surrounding bedclothes. Ordinarily these acute hyperesthetic symptoms last for a number of weeks, and they gradually subside, leaving for some time considerable tenderness to pressure over the nerve-trunks and muscles. Disturbances of sensation are common, but can only be demonstrated after the hyperesthetic stage, when it will be found that the areas of anesthesia involve part or all of a limb, their extent being often stocking- or glove-like. As the disease subsides the sensory symptoms become less and less, and finally disappear, although in the chronic forms of neuritis pain on pressure over the nerve-trunks with some sensory disturbances can always be found.

Motor Symptoms.—The weakness may come on slowly, the patient experiencing a gradual diminution of power in the lower or upper limbs, or, what is not at all infrequent, there is sudden inability to walk or to use the upper limbs. The motor symptoms usually come on coincidentally with the sensory or may precede them. The paralysis nearly always affects predominantly certain nerves—in the upper limb the musculospiral, and to a less extent the ulnar and radial; and in the lower, the peroneal and anterior tibial, this causing wrist- and foot-drop respectively. The muscles are flaccid and both the skin and tendon reflexes are rapidly lost. In the acute stage it is inadvisable to take the electric reactions, but as soon as it subsides reactions of degeneration can easily be demonstrated. Atrophy of the muscles comes on rapidly, and contractures may develop. The gait is typically steppage, the patient lifting his knees high from the ground because of the foot-drop, the toes coming down first.

Vasomotor and trophic functions are very commonly affected, the skin becoming dry and glossy, the hair may drop out, the nails become shiny and brittle, and in the chronic stages the limbs are cold. Bladder and rectal disturbances hardly ever occur.

In the so-called idiopathic or toxic form, which appears without any apparent cause, there may be a rise of temperature with febrile symptoms and a general feeling of malaise.

The prognosis and duration in most cases of multiple neuritis depend largely upon their etiology. Most idiopathic and infectious forms get well, the duration of the disease being from one to three months.

ALCOHOLIC MULTIPLE NEURITIS

The symptoms may come on during an alcoholic debauch, but in most cases they appear after prolonged alcoholism.

The symptoms are similar to those described above, and consist in a rapid sensory and motor involvement with acute pains, wrist- and toe-drop, and loss of reflexes. Disturbances in the cranial nerves are not at all uncommon, for we have in alcoholic neuritis not only involvement of the peripheral, but a general toxic change in the whole nervous system. Disturbances in sight sometimes occur and there may be a central scotoma, especially for colors. Differences in the size of the pupils and slowness in their reactions sometimes occur. Of the cranial nerves, the external rectus and the facial are most commonly paralyzed, and there may sometimes also be involvement of the oculomotor and trigeminus.

The cranial palsies nearly always occur in the height of the disease, and as a rule only last for a short time, and are always indicative of serious degenerative changes in their respective nuclei.

Sometimes mental symptoms occur, these coming on at the height of the disease, and consist of loss or confusion of memory, especially for recent events, and, in addition, peculiar illusions and hallucinations. This is sometimes called Korsakoff's psychosis.

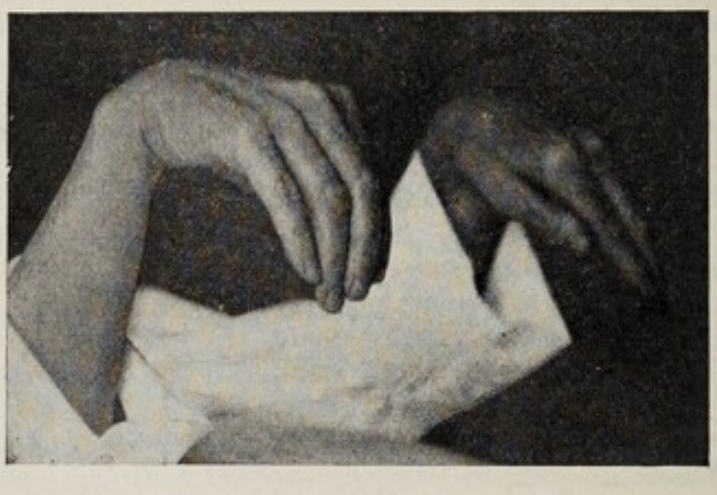


Fig. 493.—Bilateral Wrist-drop in Acute Multiple Neuritis.

The course of the disease is rapid, and within a week or ten days the symptoms are at their height, where they may remain for two or three weeks and then gradually subside, leaving the patient with pain and tenderness over the nerve-trunks and muscles, and wrist- and toe-drop. The sensory symptoms are the first to leave, the palsies remaining. In

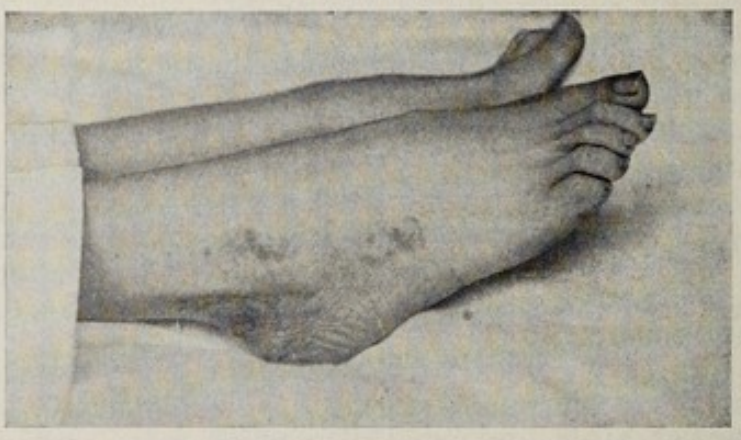


Fig. 494.—Bilateral Toe-drop in Acute Multiple Neuritis.

most uncomplicated cases, that is, in which there is no involvement of the cranial nerves, the prognosis is good.

PSEUDO-TABES OR ATAXIC MULTIPLE NEURITIS

In addition to the symptoms described above, there may develop ataxia of the upper and lower limbs, which may persist even after the acute symptoms have subsided, and it is somewhat difficult to differentiate the disease from locomotor ataxia. We have, however, in the latter,

pupillary irregularities, the Argyll Robertson pupil, girdle sense, bladder and rectal phenomena, and, most important of all, in multiple neuritis atrophy and weakness are prominent and the symptoms have a tendency to become less, the prognosis in most cases being excellent.

LEAD MULTIPLE NEURITIS

It is well known that lead acts upon the central nervous system, but accurate knowledge of its pathology is lacking. There is no doubt that in lead intoxications the peripheral nerves may be preponderantly diseased and the symptoms of multiple neuritis demonstrated, but it is probable that a careful microscopic examination will show alterations throughout the brain and cord. Workers in lead, type-setters, and others who come in contact with this metal may suffer, although it is possible for nervous symptoms to develop only after mild exposure.

Symptoms.—These are usually preceded by lead colic. The poison seems to have a peculiar affinity for the posterior interosseus, causing paralysis of the extensors of the hand and fingers, while the supinator longus and triceps muscles are usually spared. The nerves of the lower extremity are not, as a rule, involved, but if they are, the peroneal nerve is usually diseased, the tibialis anticus nearly always escaping. Sensation is not often disturbed. Ataxia hardly ever occurs. The muscles are atrophic and reactions of degeneration are soon obtained. A blue line on the gums is an aid to the diagnosis.

The duration of the disease is long and the symptoms are of slow onset. The prognosis in uncomplicated cases is fairly good, provided the patient does not return to the cause of the intoxication.

Lead Encephalopathy.—Sometimes in the course of lead intoxications, accompanying the symptoms of multiple neuritis or without them, there may occur grave cerebral symptoms, such as delirium, coma, convulsions, epileptic seizures, hemorrhages, and transient hemiplegia. There may also be paralysis of the cranial nerves, especially of the third, fourth, and sixth, either alone or in combination. Optic neuritis or atrophy may occur as well as involvement of the vocal cords and the laryngeal muscles.

Pathologically in these cases there are found diffuse areas of inflammation in different portions of the brain and spinal cord. The prognosis is almost always grave.

ARSENICAL NEURITIS

Arsenic is a frequent cause of polyneuritis, and this fact should be remembered when, as is often the case, arsenic is given in increasing drop doses. The symptoms are similar to those described under the general form. They come on, as a rule, very slowly, and are mild, hardly ever proceeding past the inflammatory stage with tenderness, pains, and wrist- and toe-drop. There are, in addition, the gastro-intestinal symptoms poison. The prognosis is good, especially if the cause is recognized early.

POLYNEURITIS DUE TO OTHER METALLIC POISONS

Mercury, *copper*, *phosphorus*, and *carbon disulphid* and *monoxid* or illuminating gas have also been known to produce multiple neuritis, but these instances are rare.

Neuritis has recently been ascribed to prolonged infection which results from well advanced pyorrhea alveolaris and focal infection.

The form of polyneuritis due to *carbon disulphid* is extremely uncommon, and little is known of its pathology, as observations are lacking.

Workers in vulcanized rubber are especially prone to this disease. Mental excitation or depression with hysterical manifestations precede the neuritic phenomena, which are, as a rule, of the ataxic form, and resemble greatly the alcoholic form of neuritis. Hysterical symptoms are so common that some authors, as Marie, insist that the hysterical manifestations are among the most prominent symptoms. Ocular phenomena are common, and consist, as a rule, of alterations in the visual fields, especially for colors. Amblyopia is fairly constant. Scotoma, either large or small, is found in some cases. Pupillary rigidity and even nystagmus have been recorded.

It is probable that there is here not a pure multiple neuritis, but a toxic process which so influences the central nervous system as to produce the various mental, ocular, and neuritic symptoms. It must be acknowledged that most of the various manifestations shown in this disease are hysterical in nature; but why should a previously healthy individual who is poisoned by carbon disulphid be hysterical only so long as the influence of the poison lasts?

The action of toxins, whether generated within or without the body, upon the brain and spinal cord is becoming better recognized. It is more than probable that their influence is not selective but general, and that we have alterations not only in the peripheral nerves, but also in the central nervous system. Such is the case, for instance in lead or alcoholic poisons and in uremia.

DIPHTHERITIC PARALYSIS

Approximately about one-quarter of the total number of cases of diphtheria are followed by paralysis. It is more liable to follow a severe attack, although paralysis has been known to follow a simple sore throat or diphtheritic inflammation elsewhere in the body. The older the person, the greater the tendency.

As a rule, the paralysis does not appear until the diphtheria has entirely disappeared, in the third or fourth week and sometimes later, although in rare cases it may occur in its height. The symptoms of the polyneuritis are generally mild, and consist only in some pain on pressure over the nerve-trunks, rarely sensory disturbances, and the paralytic symptoms, as a rule, are not very marked.

Paralysis of the palate is the most frequent and early symptom. It can be recognized by the nasal voice and difficulty in eating, regurgitation of food through the nose being common. Coincident with this or soon after, paralysis of the ciliary muscles appears, with consequent loss of accommodation and impairment of vision for near objects. The palatal and ciliary symptoms, as a rule, do not last more than a few weeks, and then gradually disappear. Occasionally there is temporary impairment of some of the ocular nerves, and more rarely there may be interference with the functions of the vagi, hypoglossus, and facial nerves.

BERIBERI OR KAKKÉ NEURITIS

This disease is rare in this country, although it is prevalent in the seacoast cities of our southern States. It is quite common in tropical countries. The etiology of beriberi is still in doubt, but it is probably caused by soil infection, and not by a rice diet, although this may be a contributory cause. There are three principal forms—the trophic, dropsical, and mixed, these probably being different stages of the disease. Besides the ordinary symptoms of multiple neuritis, there is great disability. Ataxia is almost always present. Dropsical effusions in nearly all of the serous cavities may be present.

MULTIPLE NEURITIS DUE TO OTHER CAUSES

Infectious diseases such as erysipelas, typhoid fever, pneumonia, measles, scarlet fever, gonorrhea, influenza, rheumatism, malaria, and more rarely leprosy, tuberculosis, syphilis, carcinomatous and diabetic toxins, may produce multiple neuritis, but in most of these instances the neuritic symptoms are very mild and slow in onset. Sometimes in old age there is a form of senile polyneuritis which is characterized by a slow onset, absence of sensory disturbances and of any apparent cause. As a rule, there are severe arterial changes, and the neuritis is probably due to the lessened blood-supply.

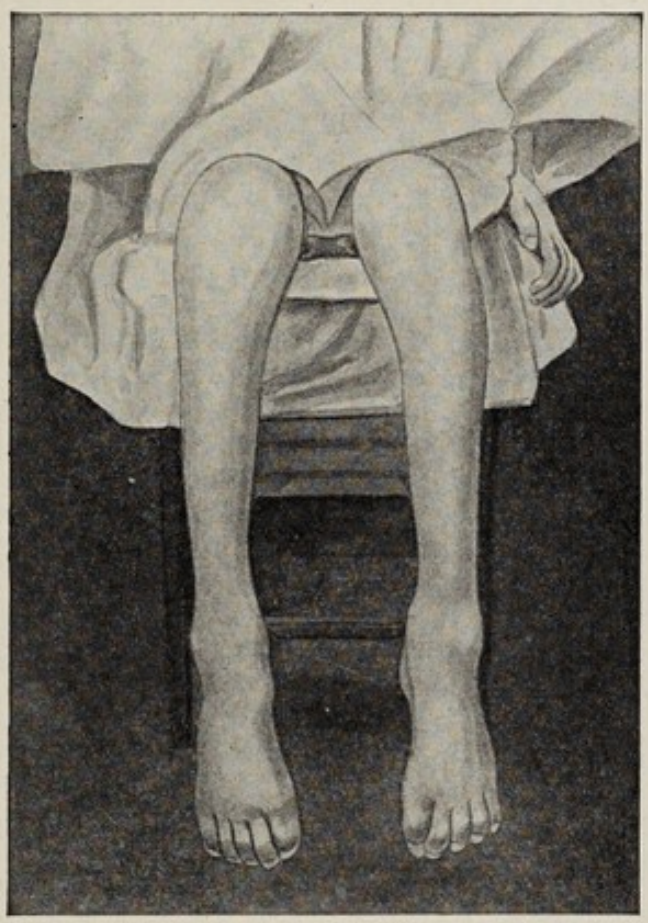


FIG. 495.—BERIBERI (Herzog, in "Philippine Journal of Science").

NEURALGIA

Definition.—A sensory disturbance characterized by pain of a sharp, shooting character, coming on spasmodically and always in the same distribution. Symptomatically it differs from a neuritis in the fact that there are present only sensory symptoms, the pain is not continuous, and there is no pain on pressure over the nerve-trunks between the attacks.

Pathologically, degenerations have been found in the peripheral nerves, sometimes changes in the sensory ganglia of the posterior roots, and, as in trigeminal neuralgia, in the Gasserian ganglia. Again, no changes have been found at all. Neuralgia is really a symptom of sensory irritation, and in some cases, as in sciatica, it is difficult to differentiate between it and a true neuritis, but because of the characteristics of the pain this term is generally applied to the functional condition.

Predisposing and Exciting Factors.—Neuralgia may appear without any apparent cause, when it is called idiopathic. It may be due to such general constitutional diseases as malaria, rheumatism, gout, anemia, to local irritations of a nerve resulting from pressure, as from a growth, or it may follow grippe and various metallic intoxications. It occurs mostly in adults and rarely in old age.

Symptoms.—Neuralgia, no matter of what part, nearly always comes on slowly, and there may be at first only mild feelings of paresthesia, to be soon followed by pains, which become more intense, until finally they are typically sharp and shooting and come on spasmodically. They may last from a moment to a few seconds or longer. Between the attacks there may be a sensation of fullness or a dull ache. It is characteristic of neuralgia that the pains come on intermittently, and that they are nearly always in the same distribution, although in the very beginning they may only involve a part of a nerve, as in tic douloureux. Attacks of pain are brought about without any apparent cause.

During the attack the skin distribution is hypersensitive, and the exit points of the nerve are painful to pressure. Sometimes they are also painful during the intermission. Disturbances of sensation are not common. There are, as a rule, no accompanying motor phenomena except those which are superimposed by the pain and are of reflex character.

Disturbances of vasomotor and trophic functions are common, and there may be disturbances of sweat secretion, dropping out of the hair and sometimes even a change of color, the hair becoming grayish after an attack. The skin may also become glossy, and ulcers rarely form, especially in trigeminal neuralgia, in which when the ophthalmic division is diseased, a trophic corneal ulcer sometimes occurs. Herpetic eruptions are common, especially in the intercostal form, and are usually in the distribution of the involved nerve.

The course of the disease is frequently chronic, and unless it is promptly treated and the causes eliminated, may last for years. The special forms of neuralgia will now be discussed.

Occipital Neuralgia.—In this type the upper or the first four nerves of the cervical plexus are involved, and the pain is distributed to the back of the head and neck as far as the occiput, and at times as far as the parietal region. The pains are usually bilateral, and the points of tenderness are generally in the base of the occipital bones posterior to the mastoid process. Besides the usual causes, caries or tumor of the vertebra should be considered. It sometimes occurs in association with disease of the fifth nerve and torticollis.

Brachial Neuralgia.—This usually appears in men without any apparent cause, and the pain may involve the whole brachial plexus, or be limited to any one of its subdivisions, especially the ulnar and radial. Sometimes in association there may be pain on the side of the neck. Because of the pains the arm is not used, and there may develop some atrophy.

Intercostal Neuralgia.—This usually involves the thoracic nerves between the fifth and ninth inclusive. Both sides may be attacked, but the disease is usually unilateral. The pains are very severe, and are so sharp and agonizing that the patient fixes his trunk, will not move, and coughing, sneezing, and even respiratory movements will be inhibited. Herpetic eruptions are especially common in this form (herpes zoster), and may come on with the pains or independently of them. Besides the usual causes, disease of the vertebra pressing upon the posterior ganglia or roots should always be suspected.

Sciatica.—Etiology.—Lindstedt* in a careful study of 100 unquestionable cases, found extensive disease of the knee in 14, rheumatoid arthritis in 12, hip-joint disease in 11, and affections of the spine with deformities in 8. Five of the cases gave a history of trauma, and 7 followed syphilitic infection. The foregoing analyses suggest strongly that sciatica may have depended upon focal infection in 57 of the 100 cases. (See Focal Infection, p. 985.) This form more nearly approaches neuritis than the other types of neuralgia. The onset is usually slow, and consists of numbness or pains in the back of the thigh and calf, which gradually increase until finally there are present typical sharp, shooting pains which start in the buttock and gluteal region and extend along the back of the thigh to the hollow of the knee, and then to the outer part of the leg and foot or to the back part of the calf and leg to the ankle. Besides the exacerbations, pain of a constant, dull aching character is nearly always present, and is increased by movement of the leg. There is also pain on pressure over the whole nerve-trunk, along the back of the thigh, calf, and especially over the sciatic notch. If the leg is extended on the thigh and the thigh flexed on the abdomen, causing stretching of the sciatic nerve, there will be pain over the sciatic notch (Lasèque's Sign). Disturbances of sensation are rarely present, but falling out of the hair and a glossy condition of the skin are common. The knee jerks are not altered, but the Achilles jerk is nearly always either diminished or lost. Sometimes because of the effort of the patient to save his leg there results a characteristic deviation of the trunk to the other side, with a lumbolateral scoliosis. The course of the disease is nearly always prolonged, and if improvement is not obtained within a few weeks, it has a tendency to become chronic. Paralysis of movement does not occur, but there may result, especially late in the disease, some atrophy of the muscles of the back of the thigh and leg. Bilateral sciatica is nearly always indicative of a tumor in the pelvis (Fig. 496).

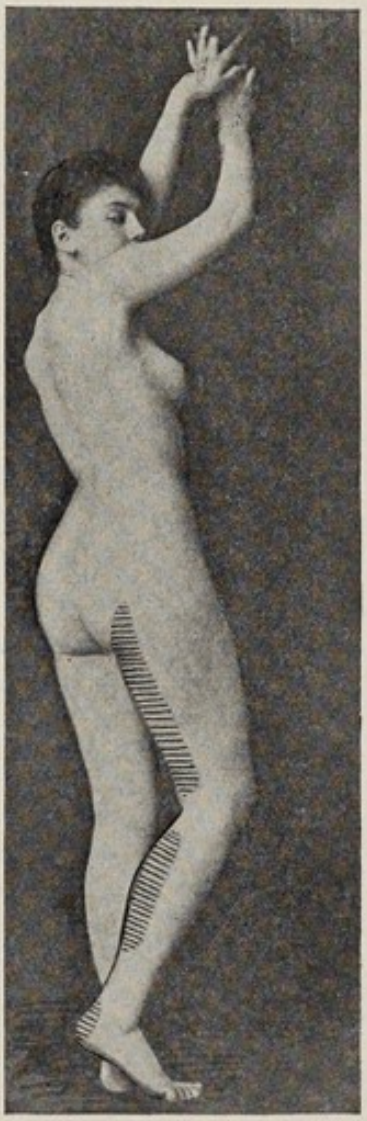


Fig. 496.—Area of Tenderness and Pain in Sciatica and Typical Position of Lower Limb.

Unusual Forms of Neuralgia.—*Mastodynia*, neuralgia of the mammary gland, nearly always occurs in adult women, and is a form of intercostal neuralgia limited to the breasts, which are generally sensitive to touch.

Neuralgia in the region of the *lumbar* and *sacral plexuses* occurs, this causing typical pains in the buttocks, genital organs, rectal region, and a peculiar form which is called *coccygodynia*, which occurs in women, and in which the pain is localized to the coccygeal region, it being increased by walking, sitting, or defecation. Sometimes the neuralgia is limited to the

* Acta Med. Scan., 1921.

insertion of the Achilles tendon, *achillodynia*, to the heel, *tarsalgia*, or to the metatarsal bones, *metatarsalgia*.

Vasomotor and Trophic Diseases

Our knowledge of the vasomotor system is vague. There are supposed to be vasoconstrictor and vasodilator fibers, which no doubt are transmitted by the peripheral and sympathetic nerves to the spinal cord, and then to the brain, this presumption being based upon the fact that lesions in any of these parts cause what are called vasomotor and trophic phenomena. Again, there are diseases which have purely so-called vasomotor or trophic symptoms, or both. These have been described by many authors, and have been given various names, being called after either their leading symptoms or the men who described them, and because of this, confusion exists as to their classification. As a matter of fact, nearly all of these diseases have a common basis, their symptomatology depending upon the method of onset and preponderance of certain symptoms.

By *vasomotor phenomena* are understood an increase, decrease, or loss of the blood-supply, this causing either redness, paleness, or gangrene, and disturbance in glandular secretions, which may be increased, decreased, or perverted. Associated with the above there may be disturbance of sensation, this consisting in either irritative or destructive phenomena, such as paresthesia, described as crawling, pin-and-needle, numb, or a dead feeling, or of severe pain and a loss of sensation which may be partial or total.

Under *trophic disturbances* are understood alterations in the nutrition, structure, or growth of the hair, nails, skin, and the underlying soft and deeper tissues and bones.

In this classification of vasomotor and trophic diseases it must, of course, be understood that the phenomena described under these headings may appear alone or in combination, and that the symptoms of one or both may be associated with disease of the brain, spinal cord, and peripheral nerves.

Etiology and Pathology.—In a word, the causes which lead to vasomotor and trophic disease are not known. There is nearly always a neuropathic disposition. Pathologically there may be found, in such diseases as erythromelalgia and Raynaud's syndrome, an alteration in the peripheral nerves and vessels and changes in the blood. In the so-called trophic disease, as progressive facial hemiatrophy.

VASOMOTOR DISEASES

Under this heading can be described many diseases, but it is probable that they all have an interrelation, and that their differences consist in the onset, character, and preponderance of certain symptoms. The first classification can be made of those in which the principal symptoms are those of paresthesia, with or without trophic changes.

Acroparesthesia.—By this is understood a diffuse sensation of numbness or of a dead feeling in any or all of the upper and lower limbs, especially in the hands and feet. At first it is associated with vasomotor changes, and it is probable that, when occurring alone, it is the early manifestation of a subsequent vasomotor disease, such as chilblain, acrocyanosis, erythromelalgia, angioneurotic edema, or Raynaud's disease.

Climenko and Bogan* call attention to the fact that the disease is more common in woman, and that in some instances the tip of the nose, tongue, and back are also involved. Schultze reported his observation

* N. Y. Med. Jour., July 28, 1917.

of 3,000 cases in 1893. In selected cases the paresthesias are so severe that there may be actual pain, although Schultze believes such cases should not be regarded as purely that of acroparesthesia. There are no objective motor disturbances, although many patients cannot execute fine movements during their seizures; but most writers believe that this clumsiness is dependent upon sensory rather than a motor origin. Important in the diagnosis is the fact that the areas involved do not follow the distribution of a single nerve, but rather affect the distal parts of the extremities. The syndrome is not constant; and it may occur at regular or at irregular intervals.

Chilblain.—This usually comes on after warming of the feet when they have first been either chilled or frozen. There is usually a sensation of pins and needles, associated with a sense of numbness, and the feet feel cold and are so to touch. Often associated with this the skin is pale or red, and there may be ulcerations. It may be the beginning of an acrocyanosis or Raynaud's disease, but, as a rule, occurs independently.

Acrocyanosis.—The leading characteristic of this is a blueness of the extremities, associated with numbness or a pin-and-needle-like sensation. These symptoms may be the only manifestations of the disease, or may be the beginning of Raynaud's syndrome, or, as sometimes happens, after the blueness or numbness disappears the skin becomes profusely red and then white. Rarely there are disturbances of sensation in the cyanotic parts.

Erythromelalgia.—By this is meant pain and redness of the terminal parts of the upper or lower limbs, the feet being more frequently affected. The redness, as a rule, comes on gradually or in paroxysms, and is associated with more or less numbness and pain, and when well marked the limb is generally swollen, red, and painful to pressure. The disease is chronic and may terminate in gangrene of the toes, terminal part of the foot, or fingers.

Raynaud's Disease; Symmetrical Gangrene.—The disease, as a rule, is slow in onset, and is characterized at first by a sense of crawling or numbness in the fingers, toes, or both, with periodic paleness and coldness which may last from a few minutes to an hour or longer. Very soon there will be in association a bluish condition, which may be succeeded by redness, the fingers and toes feeling numb or painful. As this continues there will gradually develop gangrene of the toes or fingers, usually in symmetrical parts. Gangrene may sometimes occur in the ears, nose, and lips, or in different portions of the upper and lower extremities.

Pathology of the pituitary gland has been found. The cella turcica is often abnormal and the pineal gland has shown calcification. An etiologic relation between the endocrines and this condition is suggested.

The following changes in the color of the skin are observed, white, blue, red and black. The skin may be white with a certain amount of greenish tone, or with a bluish appearance, or in other instances there may be a localized area of redness and in cases that go on to gangrene the skin covering the effected parts becomes black, or gray in color.

Cases are recorded where the symptoms are absent during pregnancy and in other cases during both pregnancy and lactation.*

X-ray Findings.—Changes in the bones are also associated with Raynaud's phenomena and there is an apparent increase in the marrow space and sharpening of the outline of the cannilicular system. At times the bones appear to be almost entirely absorbed without the development of necrotic areas or sinuses.

* Buchman, Amer. Jour. Med. Sci., July, 1922.

ANGIONEUROTIC DISEASES

In this group are included those symptom-complexes in which there is a sudden swelling of a part, the result of serous or hemorrhagic effusion from the blood-vessels. (See Buerger's Disease, p. 340.)

Achard and Flandin found that in this class of cases whenever anaphylaxis is evident the serum acquires what they term cryptotoxic properties. The injecting of 0.5 c.c. of this autoserum, and following in 12 hours by 1 c.c., and then gradually increasing the dose daily, decided improvement of all symptoms are to be seen in angioneurotic edema, hayfever, and urticaria. This therapeutic measure, when necessary, may be used for diagnostic purposes.

Angioneurotic Edema.—This is characterized by a sudden swelling, coming on either acutely or in a few hours, in the forehead, face, lips, tongue, larynx, or genital organs—in fact, in any portion of the body. The swelling is round, circumscribed, does not pit on pressure, and is not painful. The superimposed skin is white, pinkish, and irritable, and there may sometimes be in association urticarious eruptions. It usually subsides in the course of a few hours. The attacks, as a rule, are not dangerous, except when they occur in the pharynx and larynx, when they may cause interference with breathing. Sometimes it occurs in the intestines or stomach, when there will be in association colicky pains with either diarrhea or vomiting and tenderness to pressure.

FOOD ALLERGY

Food allergy is often the cause of abdominal pain. Duke has found that susceptive subjects react to such foods whenever they are brought in contact with alien bodies, to which they are sensitive. Abdominal pain when severe is associated with nausea and vomiting.

Selected cases show only the abdominal symptoms of anaphylaxis while many display the associated cutaneous evidences.

Buie,* contends the allergy is not to be confused with anaphylaxis, and that it depends upon the presence of an allergin in the animal organism. Allergin may be either an antigenic or non-antigenic agent. (An antigen is a substance which when injected into an animal produces antibodies and is often a protein animal substance.) Allergin when chemical gives symptoms from the use of some drugs in which case it is referred to as idiosyncracy.

We also have serum allergy following the administration of antitoxins and vaccines. There is a distinction between allergy and anaphylaxis, but for general clinical use the average physician regards them in the same way. Quinin, emetin, salvarsan are among the drugs that cause chemical allergy.

It is important in this connection that in the treatment of allergy one does not lose sight of the fact that the proteins of some plants, and other substances are capable of inducing such conditions as hay fever, asthma, psoriasis and urticaria.

Tests of Skin.—Methods of Specific Skin Tests.—Our experience has been limited to the cutaneous method, and we believe it sufficiently sensitive, simple, and without danger.

(1) Cleanse the skin surface of the forearm, by using a 40 per cent. solution of alcohol.

(2) Make abrasions approximately $\frac{1}{8}$ inch in length by using a sharp scalpel. Make two lines of these abrasions on the forearm the lines to

* Texas State Med. Jour., May, 1920.

be separated about 1½ inch, and the abrasion extended from above downward should be 1½ to 2 inches apart.

(3) Make a diagram of the field of abrasions inflicted on the forearm, and after you have used the protein on each particular lesion, write clearly on the map the form of protein added. The protein of food, may be animal, bacteria, or plant.

(4) Add a small portion of the protein solution to the abrased area, recording on diagram.

(5) The solutions to be used are made by adding a drop of one-tenth sodium hydrate solution to a small portion of the powder which has been dusted on the abrasion. (This solution may be made in a watch-glass and a drop of it transferred to the cut.)

(6) Add sodium hydrate solution only to one of the abrasions—control abrasion.

Reaction.—Watch closely the entire scarified and terrated areas, for one-half hour. Should a small wheal-like elevation develop at the sight of an abrasion the reaction is positive. (There may or may not be present erythema and swelling.)

Caution.—One of the abrasions made in the general study is not treated with any protein solution, but to it is added the sodium solution and this is the control.

Significance.—Wheals less than 0.5 cm. in diameter are not to be regarded as a positive reaction. (Occasionally a patient's skin is sensitive and wheals more than 0.5 c.c. appear at all treated abrasions.) The control is our true guide. The degree of reaction to any protein employed is designated by the use of the plus mark. *E. g.:* The abrasion area to which a solution of wheat protein has been added may give a feeble reaction one plus or a decided reaction five plus thus five plus designates the most extreme reaction, one plus the minimum and the negative as minus(−).

Urticaria and Purpura.—Very often the two conditions may be present in the same person. Purpural eruptions may be of various intensity, and sometimes are associated with grave constitutional symptoms. They may consist only in a curious pinkish or purplish mottling of the skin of both lower and upper limbs, this being increased when the limbs are held downward and decreased when held up.

Disturbance of Sweat Secretions.—This may consist in excessive sweating, such as occurs sometimes in the palms of one or both hands or of both feet. In association with this there may be a curious overgrowth of the nails with an exfoliation, and sometimes even disturbance in the nutrition of the hands and feet. Disturbances in sweating sometimes occur on one side of the body, or may be referred to one limb or the face, and are generally associated with hysteria. At times there may be a curious odor of the sweat secretion; it may be bloody or of different colors. This, of course, is rare. Sweating may be entirely absent.

TROPHIC DISEASES

Under this heading will be discussed those diseases in which there occurs an alteration in the nutrition, structure, or growth of part or all of the body.

Scleroderma.—This is a peculiar disease characterized by either a general or local disturbance of the skin and some of the underlying tissues. It may be limited to the face, neck, upper limbs, genital organs, or to certain other limited portions of the skin, when it is called *morphea*. It is characterized by a peculiar hardening and contraction of the skin, which

sometimes becomes discolored, and there may rarely be eruptions over the involved parts. The skin is hard to the touch, cannot be pinched, and does not pit to pressure. It produces deformities, and when over the face it will cause a mask-like condition; when in the fingers, a peculiar deformity and contraction; and if limited to the chest, may inhibit respiration. Atrophy of the parts may follow. Its cause is unknown. It is chronic and recovery very rarely ensues. Endocrine dysfunction is claimed to be concerned in the production of scleroderma.

PROGRESSIVE FACIAL HEMIATROPHY

This is a rare disease, coming on, as a rule, in early adult life and characterized by progressive atrophy of one-half of the face. It involves equally the skin, underlying tissues, and bones, and sometimes one-half of the palate and tongue. It is of slow onset, the skin generally puckers, becomes dry, and, as the face becomes smaller, there will develop a groove or ridge in the middle of the brow. Disturbances in the growth of the hair and of sweat secretions are common. It is supposed to be a disease of the fifth nerve, but it probably involves more, inasmuch as its distribution is greater. Rarely there may be an involvement of the muscles of the neck and shoulder. Progressive facial hemihypertrophy is rarely seen.

ARTHRITIS DEFORMANS (RHEUMATOID ARTHRITIS)

Definition.—A disease of the joints characterized by alterations in the structure of the cartilage, synovial membranes, and the articular ends of the bones, with bony deposits causing stiffening and deformity of most of the joints of the body.

Billings refers to this condition as one of progressive polyarthritis, periarthritis associated with myositis and spondylitis.*

It is rather characteristic of infection through the blood-streams to find destruction of the vessels. There are also hemorrhages and the other changes accompanying retrograde metabolism.

The pathologic processes in this disease have become better recognized since the discovery of the *x*-ray. There are usually at first changes in the cartilage and synovial membranes, with proliferation of tissue, the changes in the cartilage being most marked, sometimes disappearing entirely. Gradually there appear bony or osteophytic deposits in the membranes, articular surface of bones, and especially in the ligaments, and the joint becomes enlarged and motion limited. Sometimes there is great atrophy and erosion in the ends of the long bones and they become very friable. This occurs especially in old persons. The pathologic process is slow and may involve one joint, a number of joints, or every joint in the body.

Predisposing and Exciting Factors.—Autointoxication and chronic infections, as gonorrhea, have been thought to be potent factors.

Bassler,† in the study of 97 cases, selected 45 that were typical of the disease, and gives the following: focal infection was evident in 35 of them; the site of such infection being—tonsillar 13; tooth and pyorrhea 10; urinary tract 3; appendix 3; gall-bladder 2; prostate gland 2; head sinuses 1, and pelvic 1. Fourteen of the cases were males, 31 females. Nine of the focal infection cases gave a positive Wassermann reaction, which suggests that syphilis plays little, or no part, in this condition. The colon is often diseased, and may be dilated in polyarthritis, therefore, chronic intestinal toxemia, and an intolerance to sugar are common.

* N. Y. Med. Jour. and Record, June 23, 1917.
† Amer. Jour. Med. Sci., Sept., 1920.

Dilatation of the colon is usually dependent upon disease of the endocrine system (adrenals), which are doubtless affected by focal infection.* In an analysis of 400 patients, 293 of them were found to display surgical foci.

Symptoms.—These will necessarily depend upon the number and particular joints diseased and mode of onset. In the usual adult type the

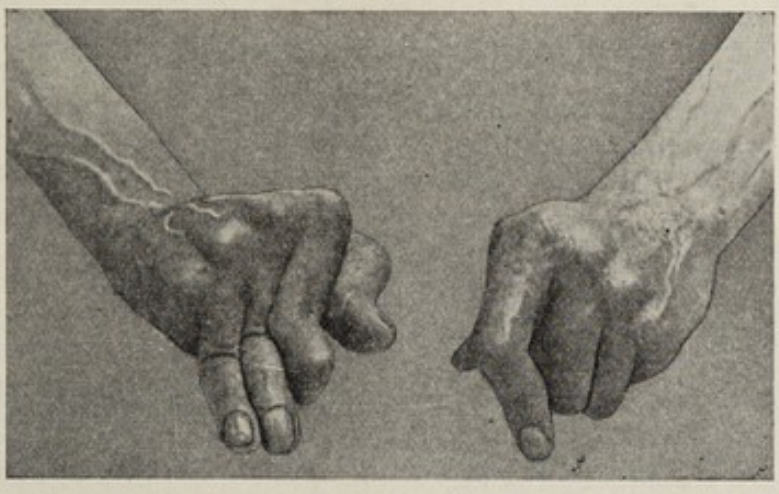


FIG. 497.—DORSAL VIEW OF HANDS IN A CASE OF ARTHRITIS DEFORMANS.

involvement of the joints, as a rule, is very slow, although occasionally there may be a rapid onset, with some fever and enlargement of the joints, which are often tender and very painful, as in rheumatism. After the acute symptoms have subsided, the further progress of the disease is slow. In the usual chronic type the metacarpo-phalangeal joints are nearly always the first to be involved, becoming gradually painful and stiff, the pains very often resembling those of a neuritis. This is followed



FIG. 498.—PALMAR SURFACE OF HANDS IN A CASE OF ARTHRITIS DEFORMANS.

by a gradual symmetrical involvement of the wrist-, elbow-, and then the shoulder-joints. In the lower limbs the knee- and hip-joints are preponderantly diseased, the ankles and joints of the feet and toes usually escaping for some time, although occasionally every joint in the body may be affected. It can readily be understood, then, that the symptoms will vary greatly, for it often happens that only one or two joints may be

* Robertson, Arch. Int. Med., March, 1920.

diseased, or the process is so slow that the diagnosis is for a long time made difficult unless *x*-ray examination is made, when the characteristic joint changes are found. This most frequently occurs when the shoulder- or hip-joints are alone diseased, or in those cases in which these joints are first involved, the pains very often being of such intensity that a false diagnosis of neuritis is made (Figs. 497, 498, 499).

Soon after the onset of the stiffness and pains the joints become enlarged and tender, and characteristic deformities develop. In the metacarpophalangeal articulations these are characteristic, and consist in a nodosity of the joints with a deviation of the fingers toward the ulnar side, the forearms, as a rule, being pronated and the elbows flexed. When the shoulder and spine become involved, the head is bent forward, no movement being possible, and in the lower limbs the legs are flexed on the thigh and the thigh on the abdomen. Because of the deformity and contractures there is great muscular wasting, the skin may be glossy and the hair brittle. Crepitation in the joints is early detected. The reflexes may be increased at first, but soon are lost.

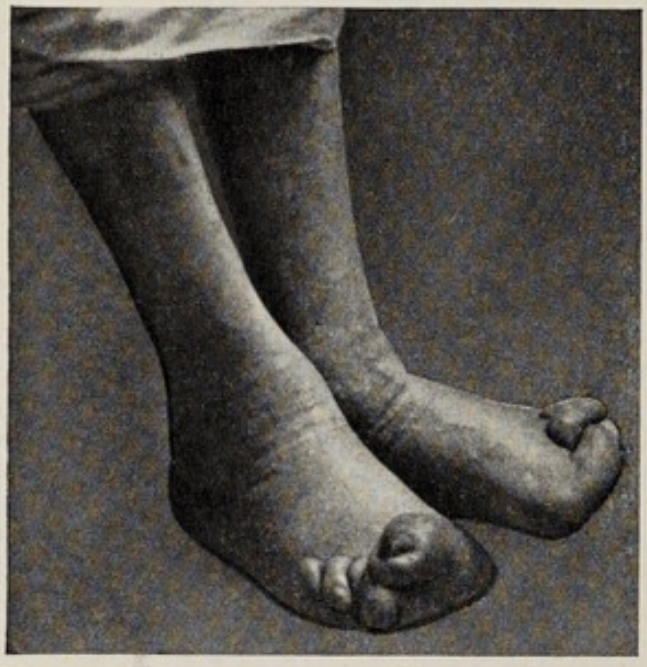


FIG. 499.—DISTORTION OF THE TOES WITH DEFORMITY OF THE FOOT IN ARTHRITIS DEFORMANS.

Herberden's Nodes.—Very often the disease limits itself to enlargement of the sides of the terminal phalanges of the fingers, consisting only in round, knob-like deposits. They are often swollen, tender, and painful, especially in the early stages, and more rarely after dietary indiscretion. The disease is chronic, of long duration, and the other joints escape. It is more common in women.

Senile Form (Morbus Coxæ Senilis).—Very often in old persons, especially in men, there may be an involvement only of one joint, usually of the hip, and more rarely of the hip and shoulder, the bones becoming atrophic and brittle. There is nearly always considerable deformity, inability to walk, and great atrophy.

Gonorrheal arthritis may not show definite radiologic appearances while the condition is limited to the joint, even when a purulent effusion is present. Should the bone or cartilage be involved definite changes are shown. Acute osteoporosis gives a uniform gray appearance to the joint.

Vertebral Form (Spondylose Rhizomelique).—A disease characterized by progressive stiffness and ankylosis of the spinal column, shoulders, hips and more rarely of the spinoclavicular, knee, and other joints of the extremities. The cause is unknown. The pathology consists in a rarefaction of the osseous tissue and an ossification of the ligamentous structures of the joints. It is of slow onset, occurs in adults, and is usually preceded by considerable pain, of a sharp, shooting, or numb character, which is followed by gradual stiffening of the back, shoulder, neck, and upper and lower limbs, and finally no movements are possible in any part of the body, those of the hands and feet being retained the longest.

Sometimes there may be a preponderance of the stiffness in the upper spine, shoulder, neck, and arms (von Bechterew type), or of the lower spine, hip, and lower limbs (Strümpell-Marie type) (Fig. 500).

Laboratory Diagnosis.—There is an appreciable reduction in the hydrochloric acid of the gastric fluid.

The creatinin content of the blood was slightly elevated in 13 of 31 cases studied by Bassler; while others of his cases gave a reading below normal. Negative findings were observed in the estimation of uric acid, and non-protein nitrogen. Secondary anemia is present in cases of long standing. The urine is frequently rich in indican, and may show an excess of conjugate sulphates, oxalic and uric acid, and the total solids may be increased. Albumin and casts are detected in certain cases.

A low sugar tolerance is a constant finding in cases of arthritis early during its course, and low basal metabolism is likewise present.

Feces.—Bassler in his study of 45 cases, found 44 of them to be suffering from chronic intestinal toxemia. Thirty-four were saccharo-butyric in type, 2 indolic, and 8 were of mixed form.

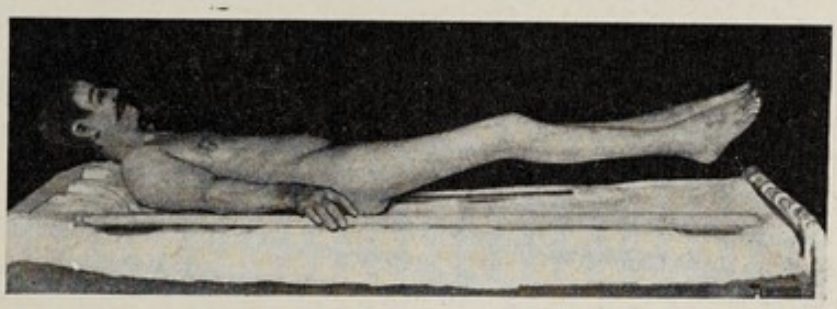


FIG. 500.—SPONDYLOSE RHIZOMÉLIQUE.
Complete rigidity of all joints with the exception of the elbow, wrist, and fingers.

OSTEOMALACIA

Definition.—A bone disease characterized by gradual softening or decalcification of its structure, due to disappearance of its earthy salts. It usually comes on in adult life, especially in women, and has a direct relation with the child-bearing period, usually coming on during or after pregnancy. Abnormality in the parathyroids has been suggested as a factor in the production of osteomalacia, and it has been further observed that certain of these cases display many of the clinical features common to tetany, see p. 1112. The shafts of the long bones are principally diseased, becoming soft, friable, and decalcified, and because of this the Haversian canals become larger than normal. The bones gradually become pliable, and it is possible when the disease is marked to twist and bend the bones at will. The bones of the head nearly always escape, although the teeth may be carious. There is usually an excess of excretion of calcium salts in the urine.

Pain of a deep-seated character is first complained of, this becoming accentuated by pressure over the bones or by movement. With the gradual softening and pliability of the bones certain deformities occur which are characteristic of the disease. The stature becomes smaller, often the height diminishing a number of inches; the sternum becomes prominent because of the giving way of the bones of the sides of the chest, and there may develop a deformity of the spine, the head being held forward somewhat stiffly; but, most characteristic of all, the pelvis becomes deformed, the symphysis becoming very prominent and the

sides of the pelvis approximated. This deformity can be easily detected by pelvic examination, and has an important bearing upon future maternity. Because of the pelvic deformity there will develop a gradual and characteristic hopping or waddling gait, which is further accentuated by the deformities of the long bones of the limbs. Sensory disturbances are not the rule, but very often because of spinal deformity there may be involvement of the posterior roots, and rarely of the spinal cord, with consequent characteristic root pains and disturbance of sensation. More rarely the anterior roots are involved, causing fibrillary tremors and atrophy. The reflexes may at first be increased, but, as a rule, become

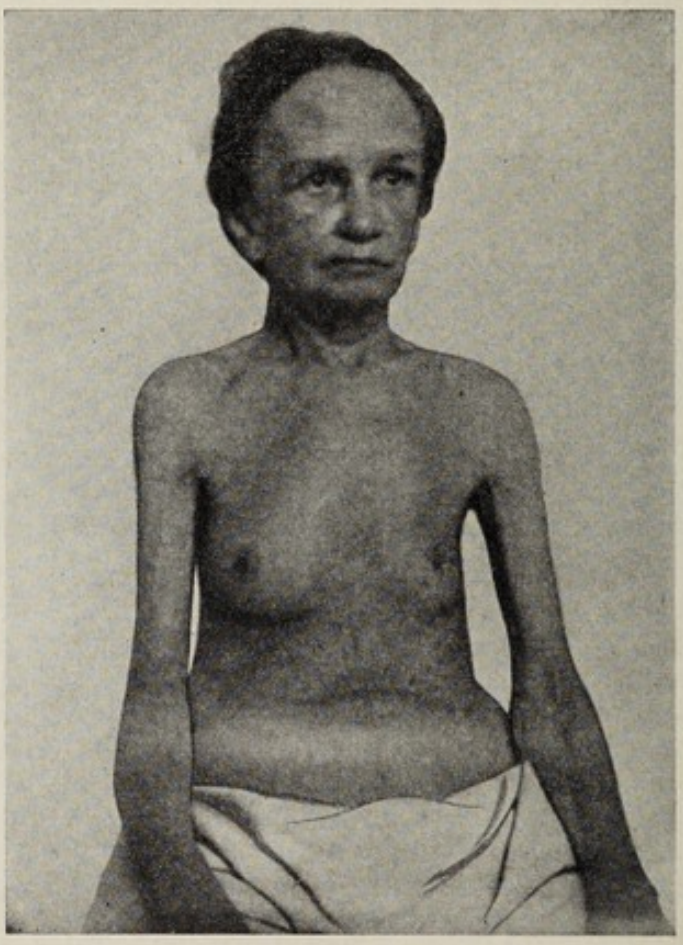


FIG. 501.—CASE OF OSTEITIS DEFORMANS (PAGET'S DISEASE) SEEN IN 1910 AT THE PHILADELPHIA GENERAL HOSPITAL (SERVICE OF DR. B. FRANKLIN STAHL). (Proc. College of Physicians of Philadelphia, 1911.)

gradually lost. The disease is of long duration, death usually resulting from some other cause.

OSTEITIS DEFORMANS (PAGET'S DISEASE)

A rare disease, usually occurring in males in the latter end of life, and characterized by a gradual irregular thickening of the bones of the head with a softening of the long bones, especially of the lower limbs. Very little is known of its etiology, as few cases have been studied. The changes in the bones are those of a rarefying osteitis with some formation of new tissue. It usually comes on in adults past the fiftieth year, causing enlargement of the bones of the head with characteristic triangular deformity, the base being upward. This may be the only manifestation



FIG. 502.—CASE OF PAGET'S DISEASE SHOWING UNUSUAL SIZE OF HEAD, AND PROMINENCE OF BLOOD VESSELS. (From service of one of us (Boston) Philadelphia General Hospital, 1922.)



FIG. 503.—SAME AS (FIG. 502). NOTE DISTANCE FROM POINT OF CHIN TO CROWN. There is a marked depression of both temporal regions.



FIG. 504.—CASE OF OSTEITIS DEFORMANS (PAGET'S DISEASE) SEEN IN 1910 AT THE PHILADELPHIA GENERAL HOSPITAL (SERVICE OF DR. B. FRANKLIN STAHL). (Proc. College of Physicians of Philadelphia, 1911.)

of the disease, when it is called *hyperostosis cranii*, but, as a rule, there is in association a softening and pliability of the shafts of the long bones. Associated with this there is great muscular weakness.* The disease is of long duration, death generally being caused by some intercurrent disease.

TETANUS (Lockjaw; Trismus)

Definition.—An infectious disease characterized by stiffness and tonic spasms, usually beginning in the muscles of the jaw, and finally involving all parts of the body, generally terminating in death. The specific bacillus has been isolated and is definitely known. The infection is carried by the soil, and is usually transmitted by wounds to the hands and feet, and sometimes after injury by rusty nails or firecrackers. The point of entrance may be not at all apparent, or may take some time to heal.

Symptoms.—The period of incubation varies. As a rule, the first symptoms appear within a week or ten days, and are usually manifested by a gradual feeling of weakness, malaise, headache, chilliness, and sometimes rise of temperature. Gradually there develops a stiffness of the muscles of the jaw and neck, with an increased difficulty in movement and interference with eating and talking. The muscles of the zygomatic arch usually become involved early, their stiffness and retraction producing the characteristic "sardonic grin."

The progress of the disease from the appearance of the stiffness of the jaw is rapid, and there will gradually develop rigidity of the head and limbs. The back will be arched in the position of opisthotonos or rarely laterally. The lower limbs are usually first involved, and are extended, and the upper limbs flexed. The jaw becomes so rigid that it is impossible for the patient to protrude the tongue or to eat. Spasms of a tonic character make their appearance early, and as the disease progresses involve the whole body, and may be brought on by the slightest cause, as jarring of the bed or noises. They are sometimes so violent that the patient will be shaken from the bed to the floor. Later the spasms may be continuous. The mind is not involved, and is clear to the end.

In those cases in which the symptoms appear within six or seven days the prognosis is invariably fatal, and it is a rule that the longer the onset, the better the prognosis; and in those cases in which the symptoms do not appear until after the twelfth day the prognosis is fairly favorable. There should be no difficulty in diagnosticating this disease.

Cephalic or Head Tetanus.—In this form the infection is usually in the head or face and the onset is rapid. Besides the stiffness and rigidity of the head and neck and retraction of the zygomatic muscles, there is nearly always a paralysis of both facial nerves, and more rarely of some of the ocular muscles. Difficulty in talking and swallowing appears early. Sometimes there is also retraction of the limbs and rigidity of the back. The prognosis is nearly always fatal.

TETANY

Definition.—A peculiar form of rigidity and spasm of the terminal portions of the upper and lower limbs, characterized by irritability of the nerve-trunks. (See Parathyroid Diseases, p. 1107.)

Spasmus Nutans.—This condition is readily recognized when the clinician confines himself to the two cardinal features—nodding and nystagmus. These when present, in the absence of all other signs and

* Goldstein.—New York Med. Times, Nov., 1922.

symptoms, constitute spasmus nutans. Among the conditions which spasm nutans comprised are (1) Congenital nystagmus, which may be ruled out by careful neurologic and ophthalmoscopic examinations. (2) Reflex nystagmus, usually associated with intestinal disturbances or acute infectious diseases, and disappearing after proper treatment of these conditions. (3) Voluntary head rolling, easily differentiated as a coarser movement (deep bowing). (4) Infantile epilepsy, which is associated with spasms of the trunk as well, and these movements are present only during attacks.

Spasms, Tics, and Motor Neuroses

Until recently no differentiation was made between spasm and tic. Chiefly under the influence of the French schools, attempts have been made to distinguish between these, and by tic is meant a movement or movements which are more or less under the control of the will, and result from some emotional or functional basis duplicating or resembling voluntary movements. In whatever part the tic takes place the muscular action is complete, as, for instance, in facial tic the contraction is in the whole facial distribution, its occurrence not interfering with the use of the same musculature for other purposes, as eating and talking. On the contrary, by spasm is meant a movement which is not at all under the control of the will and which cannot be voluntarily duplicated. The contraction may involve part or all of a functionally acting group of muscles, and interferes with other functional uses; as, for instance, in a facial spasm the contraction may be limited to a part or involve all of the facial distribution, the movement does not resemble a voluntary action, and its occurrence interferes with eating and talking. As a matter of fact, while such a theoretic and clinical distinction can be made between facial spasm and tic, it cannot be made in so far as most of the other so-called spasms and tics are concerned. Again, it is of no practical importance to differentiate between them, for in neither has there been established a definite etiology, in both the causes are mainly functional, the course of the disease is identical and the prognosis the same.

Under the general heading of spasms and tics will be discussed all of the different forms of spasms, contractions, or movements which occur in any portion of the body, although it is customary to treat most of these separately, as if they were distinct entities.

Predisposing and Exciting Factors.—The causes of most spasms, tics, and motor neuroses are not known, and therefore a functional basis is ascribed. As a matter of fact, with the exception of those rare instances due to an organic basis, such as facial spasm resulting from a growth on the seventh nerve, or torticollis from direct irritation of the spinal accessory, there are nearly always two principal causes which enter into the etiology. Given a perfectly normal individual, one whose heredity is good and in whom all bodily functions are normal, there is no reason to expect the development of any form of spasm, tic, or in fact any so-called functional disease, even if he be placed under severe mental strain, shock, or any cause which produces general malnutrition. If, on the other hand, an individual has a neurotic heredity and has inherited a weakened nervous system, or one which has lessened resistance, under the same conditions there would probably develop some form of neurosis, the particular type depending upon the previous history of the patient and the lessened resistance or vulnerability of certain functional activities. In such a person if there should happen to be a diminution of tone in the functional activities of the seventh nerve, there might develop facial tic

or spasm; if in the distribution of the spinal accessory, torticollis; if in the functional movements concerning the upper limbs, writer's or any other form of spasm; if in the lower limbs, cramps, etc. It is also probable that in the development of a particular form of neurosis mental impressions play an important part, as, for instance, in a child in whom imitation of certain facial movements will be succeeded by so-called habit spasm, or, because of fright, religious or other emotional causes, there may develop a certain form of jumping or other movements.

Symptoms.—There are certain symptoms which are common to all spasms, tics, and motor neuroses. In all, excluding the cases in which there is an organic basis, there is a functional mental element, manifested in many ways. It may be in the impressionability or so-called neurotic tendency, which will be discussed under the general neuroses. So far as the character of the movements is concerned, they resemble each other in the fact that they are influenced by the emotional condition of the patient, or by any form of excitation. Most of the movements are quick, intermittent, have a tendency to become chronic, and cease during sleep. Besides the specific symptoms of the spasm there may be increase of reflexes and the symptoms of a neurosis, such as pains and tenderness in the back, headache in the back of the head, occasionally dizziness, insomnia, loss of appetite, and sometimes disturbances of sensation, such as hemihypesthesia or monohypesthesia.

Spasms, Tics, and Motor Neuroses in the Distribution of the Fifth Nerve.—These are rare, and, as a rule, are the result of organic involvement of the fifth nerve, or may be a part of tetanus, epilepsy, or tetany. Occasionally, however, there may be, in hysteria, unilateral or bilateral spasms of the masseters, causing trismus or lockjaw. When both pterygoids are involved, the jaw is opened in the median line; or if only one, to the opposite side. In so-called motor neuroses in the distribution of the fifth nerve there may be either spasmodic or continuous movements of the jaw resembling chewing. It is generally in association with movement of the tongue and face, interfering with talking and swallowing, and often there is dribbling of saliva. There may be in association a weakness or laxness of the ligaments of the jaw.

Spasms Tics, and Motor Neuroses in the Face.—These may involve the whole or part of the distribution of the facial nerve, and may be in association with movements of the eyelids on one or both sides, and often of the eyeballs. Sometimes there are also movements of the tongue and masseter muscles, as already described.

In so-called facial spasm the movements may start in part of the facial distribution, as, for instance, in the upper, and in the course of time involve all, or they may start in the whole at once. The movements resemble the contraction obtained by means of faradic electric excitation of the nerve, and cannot be controlled by the will or duplicated. They may be momentary, or last several minutes, and during the spasm talking will be impossible. After it is over there are generally fibrillary tremors in the facial distribution.

In so-called *facial tic* the movements can, in most instances, be partially controlled by the will. They resemble volitional movements and do not interfere with talking. Very often there may be in old facial paralysis tic of the whole, but especially of the lower part, of the face.

Sometimes in association with facial tic, or independently, there are movements of one, but generally of both eyelids and orbicularis muscles. This is called *blepharospasm*. As a rule, they occur in children, come on gradually, and consist in a tonic or clonic spasm of one or both lids and eye-

brows. In exaggerated cases there may be, in association, movement of the eyeballs, elevation of the nasolabial folds, or sniffing or sucking-like movements. This is sometimes called *habit spasm*, or *habit chorea*.

Spasms in the Muscles of the Tongue, Palate, Pharynx, and Larynx. All of these conditions are rare, but occasionally there may occur in hysteria isolated spasm of the tongue. Rarely in association with lingual spasm there is involvement of the pharyngeal muscles, producing swallowing movements, and, as a rule, movements of the jaw. Spasm in the laryngeal distribution sometimes occurs, but is generally hysterical or part of chorea or tetany, or it may be in association with spasm of the diaphragm.

Spasm in the Respiratory Muscles.—This involves the diaphragm, and may be tonic or clonic. When tonic, the lower part of the chest and epigastrium become prominent, there is pain over the region of the diaphragm, and breathing is painful, rapid, and performed entirely by the upper respiratory muscles. If continued, it may cause death. When intermittent or clonic, it causes so-called *hiccough* or *singultus*. This is sometimes due to an irritation of the phrenic nerve, or may result from many different causes, such as gastro-intestinal or general constitutional disturbances, but in many cases it is purely hysterical. The course and prognosis depend upon the cause. In most instances it subsides in the course of a few hours, but may last days, especially when functional in character, or due to epidemic encephalitis.

Spasm in the Distribution of the Muscles of the Neck; Torticollis; Wry-neck.—Inasmuch as the spinal accessory nerve supplies the sternomastoid and trapezius muscles, an irritation of it, such as results from pressure, will cause spasm in its distribution, or torticollis. In most instances, however, the cause is not known. It may come on suddenly as the result of a fright, but usually the onset is gradual, the spasm growing more and more severe, the particular kind depending upon the muscles affected. If the sternomastoid alone is involved, the head is turned to the opposite side, the chin pointing a little upward; if the trapezius, the head is retracted on the same side to the shoulder, the chin pointing upward; if both the sternomastoid and the trapezius, the head is turned to the opposite side, backward, and the chin higher than when either are alone diseased. Very often in association with the sternomastoid and trapezius muscles the rotators of the neck, muscles of the shoulder, the erector capitis and splenius muscles of one or both sides take part in the spasm, and the movements are very complicated. When the rotators alone are involved, the head is turned toward the same side, the chin being on a straight line; when the splenius, the head is retracted, the chin upward, differing from the action of the trapezius in the fact that in the latter the head is retracted toward the shoulder. When both sternomastoids are affected, the head will be drawn forward, and if the movements are clonic, there will result so-called nodding or salutatory spasms, which are especially common in children. The spasms may be either tonic, when it is difficult to return the head to its original position, or clonic, the movements being intermittent. Ordinary stiff-neck or rheumatic torticollis hardly enters into the discussion. The course of the disease, as a rule, is long and the prognosis not very good. It is best in those cases in which treatment is instituted early, and in which absolute control of the patient can be obtained.

Spasm in the Distribution of the Upper Limbs.—These are rare, and may partake of many different forms, and, as a rule, are of functional origin. The spasms may be limited to the fingers, or may involve the

whole upper limb, and may sometimes be in association with spasm of the leg and face of the same side. They must be distinguished from hemiathetosis or hemichoreic movements following hemiplegia. The movements of the fingers may be irregular, but, as a rule, are rotatory, and rarely quick and lightning-like.

Occupation Neurosis; Writer's Cramp.—This generally occurs in those persons who are occupied constantly in the performance of certain rhythmic movements, as writing, typewriting, playing of an instrument, like a piano or violin, or, in fact, in any movement in which there are in association many muscular contractions. It comes on, as a rule, slowly, and is first manifested by a tired or aching feeling, and occasionally tenderness over the nerve-trunks. This fatigue may last for some time, and then it is noticed that writing is not as free as before, and gradually there develops a tremor which interferes with writing, or a spasm of the muscles, which may be either tonic or intermittent. In writing the pen may suddenly be dug into the paper or fly forward, and may be in a tonic spasm until writing becomes absolutely impossible. Occasionally there is weakness in the muscles, but this is unusual. The spasms come on only when the muscles are used for the particular movements concerned, and can be used for any other purpose. The prognosis, as a rule, is unfavorable.

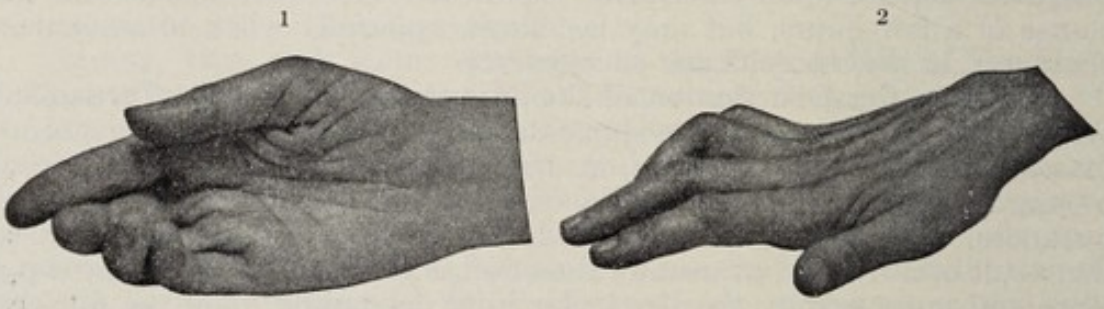


FIG. 505.—WASTING OF MUSCLES IN A SEVERE CASE OF SEAMSTRESS' CRAMP (Church and Peterson).

Spasm in the Distribution of the Lower Limbs.—These are generally of an organic basis, but occasionally there may develop irregular movements of the lower limbs similar to those described in the upper. Rarely there may be an irregular, symmetrical, spasmodic contraction of the muscles of the thighs and toes, causing sudden jumping or lifting movements. These occur especially under the influence of religious emotions, are common in Oriental countries, and the people presenting this condition are known as "jumpers." Occasionally the spasm may be limited to the muscles of the calves, *cramps*, and may occur after exertion or independently.

Spasm in the Distribution of the Muscles of the Shoulder, Chest, and Abdomen.—These do not occur very often, but occasionally there are present spasms in the muscles of the shoulder in association with contraction of the pectoralis muscles, and rarely there may be unilateral or bilateral spasms of the muscles of the abdomen, causing an approximation of the shoulders and thighs, or bending movements.

Tic Convulsif, or Maladie des Tics.—So far we have discussed those spasms, tics, and motor neuroses which involve a part or all of a limb or body. Under the above headings, however, are understood those spasms which involve most of the movements of the body. It is rather difficult to describe this form, because the movements vary so greatly. As a rule, there are grimacing spasms in the face, associated with sniffing of the nose, sucking or blowing movements of the mouth, with sudden ejaculation,

or repetition of certain words, often obscene, known as *coprolalia* and *echolalia* respectively. Associated with this there may be movements of the upper and lower limbs, such as sudden lifting of the shoulder or arm or the taking of a few steps, the retraction, or there may be, in association, hysterical contractures in the lower limbs. There are always found many hysterical stigmata.

Paramyoclonus Multiplex.—Under the term paramyoclonus multiplex is understood a form of bilateral, regular, more or less rhythmic clonic contractions of groups of muscles, generally of the trunk and proximal parts of the limbs, and rarely involving most of the body. The cause of the disease is unknown, but it is probably functional in nature. The movements resemble to some extent those of generalized spasm or tic, but differ in their regularity, being bilateral and clonic.

It generally occurs in adults and the onset is slow. A well-marked case consists in a clonic spasm of symmetrical groups of muscles, for instance, of the quadriceps or shoulder and upper arm groups, the muscles standing out prominently as if held, the spasm lasting several minutes or longer. The spasm consists in a series of clonic contractions coming on one after another, sometimes the number of contractions being from fifty to one hundred and fifty to the minute. Sometimes they are of such severity and extent that they involve the muscles of the chest, abdomen, and limbs, and cause irregular movements of the body and extremities. This is exceptional. There are, as a rule, no associated symptoms of motor palsy or sensory disturbance, but the reflexes are generally increased. The course of the disease is chronic, of long duration, but occasionally cure is obtained.

Sometimes in association with this there may be epileptic convulsions. This has been called the *Unverricht's type of myoclonus, or myoclonus epilepsy.*

If the myoclonus is limited to one-half of the body, the movements resembling those produced by the stimulation of an electric current, they are sometimes called *electric chorea, Henoch's chorea, or Dubini's disease.* These, however, are bad terms.

Myoclonia.—Three outstanding forms are recognized: (*a*) Arising from organic disease of the nervous systems (*b*) toxic (*c*) neurasthenic.

Four clinical types of essential myoclonia are ordinarily accepted: The multiple myoclonus of Friebach-:—electric chorea, of Henoch-Bergeron; fibrillating chorea, of Morvan; and the myoclonia of Kay-Schultze. Myoclonic nystagmus, chronic chorea, and myoclonic epilepsy are conceded by some as subdivisions. The numerous clinical varieties of myoclonia suggest it as a sign and not a disease.

Myokymia.—By this is understood a well-defined, irregular, fibrillating muscular contraction, involving most of the muscles of the body. The contractions are wave-like and more or less constant. They differ from paramyoclonus multiplex in the fact that they are not symmetrical or clonic, and are constant.

Course and Prognosis.—Most spasms, tics, and motor neuroses are difficult to cure, and the prognosis should always be guarded. So much depends upon the kind of spasm, the elimination of the cause, and the control of the individual.

ACUTE INFECTIOUS MYOCLONUS MULTIPLEX (EPIDEMIC MYOCLONUS MULTIPLEX)

An acute infectious condition characterized by a sudden onset, and rather frequently seen at times when encephalitis epidemica is common. No definite pathologic changes are found.

General Complaint.—The onset is characterized by sharp, shooting pain in the trunk and extremities. The pains may at first be local, but later become generalized, and frequently severe. Spinal pain is rather uncommon. Within the course of a few hours, or days, the patient develops the pathognomic sign, which is characterized by muscular jerking, waves, and twitching (myoclonus and myokymia multiplex). Muscular jerking appears in those parts of the body where pain has been experienced. The muscular twitchings are bilateral, and often multiple. Muscular contractions are of a quick character, and will also be found to involve individual muscles, or portions of muscles, consequently, locomotor effects are slight or absent.

Delirium may appear with the onset, and varies in intensity during the more severe types of the disease; while in mild types there is only irritability, restlessness, insomnia, and anxiety. The delirium resembles a toxic delirium, and is frequently characterized by hallucinations, illusions, all of which features are more conspicuous at night. Tendon reflexes are not affected; although late during the disease the knee jerks and Achilles jerks are diminished.

Blood.—Hunt,* reports instances where a mild leucocytosis existed. Certain of his cases displayed a systolic blood pressure above the normal —one case reaching 180. A slight degree of fever is the rule, but in selected cases the temperature may reach 102 or more. Dermographia was present in two cases treated in the Philadelphia General Hospital in 1919. Hyperhidrosis is ordinarily present, and the degree of sweating bears a direct relation to the activity of the muscular phenomena.

The group of symptoms upon which the diagnosis is based are, (1) sudden onset (2) muscular pains (3) sweating, (4) muscular twitching (including the muscles of the abdomen) with mental depression.

This condition usually continues for a period of weeks, months, and in some cases more than a year. Permanent recovery may follow.

Differential Diagnosis.—The disease is to be distinguished from acute poliomyelitis, multiple neuritis, influenza, lethargic encephalitis, epilepsy. A separation of myoclonus from these conditions is difficult, if not impossible until the development of muscular twitching. This syndrome is now conceded to be a form of epidemic encephalitis.

MYOIDEMA (A SIGN)

This describes the myotatic irritability of a muscle, or of muscles, and is increased during certain diseases. This exaggeration of the normal muscular response may be regarded in many instances at least as pathognomonic of rapid emaciation.

This sign is illicited by striking over the muscles of the chest, following which stroke there is an almost immediate wave outlining the muscle. Repeated strokes on different portions of the muscles gives a definite fibrillary wave-like condition. Myoidema was considered by the earlier writers to be pathognomonic of advanced pulmonary tuberculosis.

CHOREA

(ST. VITUS' DANCE; CHOREA MINOR; SYDENHAM'S CHOREA)

Definition.—A disease occurring principally in childhood, characterized by irregular, unpurposeful movements of any portion of the body, and in which the prognosis is almost invariably good.

* Jour. Am. Med. Assoc., Sept. 11, 1920.

The disease is supposed to be of infectious origin, although the specific bacillus has not been isolated. Pathologically, so-called choreic amyloid corpuscles have been found in the nervous system, but are not constant. In about 20 per cent. of the cases it is in association with rheumatism. Abt* in an analysis of 226 cases found a rheumatic relation in only 5¼ per cent. of them. It generally comes on in children, (between five and fourteen years of age) and especially in the spring of the year, is less frequent in the winter months, and is more common in girls in a ratio of two females to one male. There is nearly always some malnutrition and a general anemia, manifested by blood-changes, and sometimes a hemic murmur, which is best heard at systole, although there may be an organic murmur, caused by endocarditis. It is probable that the disease is the result of a general lowering of tone, associated with a certain inherited or acquired neurotic disposition, for it generally occurs in school-children, who are more or less overworked in the spring of the year, and only in those in whom there is a neurotic tendency.

Symptoms.—These are first manifested by a growing restlessness, and a peevish, irritable condition of the child associated with more or less gastro-intestinal disturbance, loss of appetite, and insomnia. Gradually there will be noticed irregular, unpurposeful movements, generally of the hands or face. The child begins to make grimaces, pucker the lips, elevate the brow, move the head or arms, extend the legs, twitch the shoulder, and is generally restless. The movements are increased by attention and excitement, cannot be controlled by the will, and generally cease during sleep, although in grave cases they may be present even then. In mild cases the irregular movements may be limited only to the face and arms, but when more severe there may be interference with the respiratory movements, and even with talking and sometimes eating because of the involvement of the muscular apparatus concerned. The course of an ordinary case is from two to three months, the movements gradually ceasing, but in the more severe cases it may last for a long time. One attack nearly always predisposes toward another, and it is not at all uncommon for a child to have successive attacks for three or four years.

As a rule, there is no motor weakness, but sometimes the movements may not only be limited to one-half of the body, but there may be distinct weakness of the arm and leg. This is known as the hemiparalytic form of chorea. Sometimes the limbs may be weak on both sides. The reflexes are not altered, but occasionally on tapping, for instance, the patellar tendon, there may be an irregular jerking propulsion of the leg instead of the usual response. Sensation is hardly ever altered, and there is never involvement of the bladder and rectum, although it is not at all uncommon for children to have an enuresis during the course of the disease.

Sometimes chorea occurs in adults, but the form does not differ from that in the child. In rare cases the choreic movements are present from childhood, but in these instances it is probable that there is a cortical condition rather than one of pure chorea.

Sometimes choreiform movements may complicate pregnancy, especially in primipara, *chorea gravidarum*. It comes on in the first half of pregnancy, as a rule, and in nearly all cases there has been a previous history of such disease. The prognosis in these cases is not so good, and sometimes it is necessary to produce abortion.

Summary of Diagnosis.—A school-child, especially in spring, becomes peevish, irritable, cannot sleep, is constipated, and begins to have irregular movements of the arms or face, which consist in a purpose-

* Jour. Am. Med. Assoc., Nov. 4, 1916.

less grimacing and twitching of the shoulder or any portion of the limbs, this being increased by excitement and not controlled by the will. It usually stops during sleep. Associated with this there is nearly always malnutrition, with some anemia. There should be no difficulty in diagnosticating choreiform movements from any other.

Clinical Course and Complications.—The course of the disease is usually regular, ordinary cases not lasting longer than two or three months. Treatments, of course, has a direct relation to the length of the disease. In the more complicated cases, and especially in *chorea gravidarum* or chorea of pregnancy, the prognosis is not so good, and occasionally death results. Occasionally in this type there may arise grave mental symptoms, which occasionally are permanent.

HUNTINGTON'S CHOREA

A hereditary family disease, characterized by irregular choreic movements, generally beginning between the thirty-fourth and fiftieth year, terminating nearly always in mental impairment. The disease was first described by Dr. Huntington, of Long Island. It usually runs in families, and it is characteristic that it seldom skips a generation, and if it does, the disease ends in that particular family. There may be no symptoms in the early life of the individual, but there may be general indications of an inherited neurotic disposition. About the age of thirty-five the choreic movements begin, and resemble very much those of chorea minor, generally involving the face and upper limbs, and interfering considerably with walking. These persist and become worse. Soon after the appearance of the movements there develops a gradual mental deterioration, which in a few years terminates in total impairment. The prognosis is invariably bad.

PARALYSIS AGITANS (PARKINSON'S DISEASE)

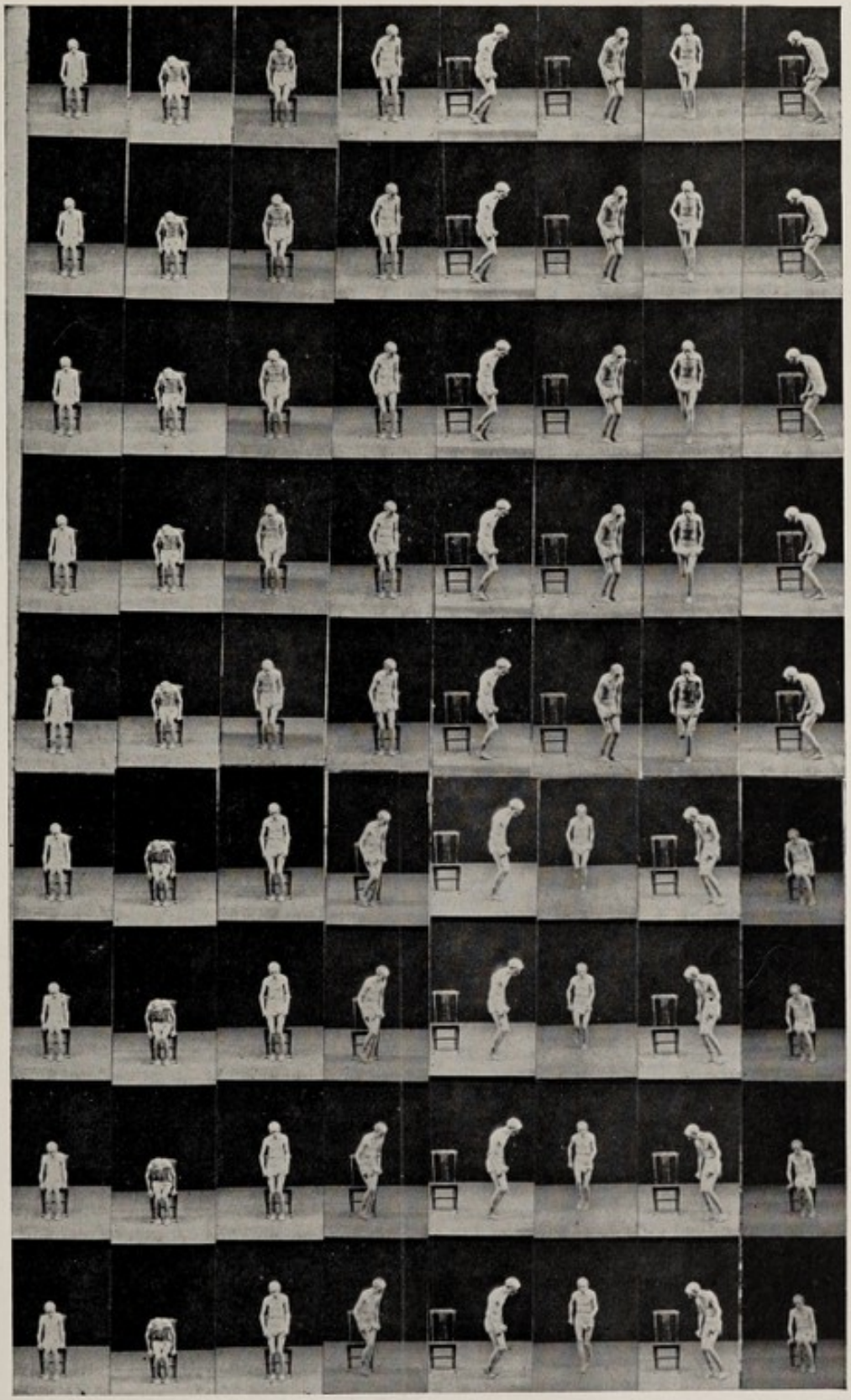
Definition.—A disease characterized by rigidity in the muscles of the whole body, with slowness of all voluntary movements and a characteristic rotatory tremor which nearly always improves by effort.

It occurs mostly in men, usually about the age of forty, although rarely it may occur in young persons. Its pathology is not definitely known. Microscopic examinations of the brain and cord show the usual changes of senility, the muscles show atrophy, and occasionally disease of the parathyroids has been found. The disease is sometimes hereditary and may occur in families. Rare instances are reported in which sudden fright has been followed by paralysis agitans. There is progressive lenticular degeneration. Many features of this condition are seen both during and after acute encephalitis. Substantia nigra pathology is to be found.*

Symptoms.—The disease, as a rule, comes on slowly, and is usually first manifested by an increasing rigidity and tremor in one limb, which finally involves the whole body. It usually starts in the right upper limb, to be followed in the course of time by the right lower, and then the left limbs. Occasionally it may be limited to the limbs on one side for a long time. In a well-marked case the attitude is typical, and the diagnosis can be made from it alone. The patient stands with his knees bent, feet close together, the body bent forward, head flexed on the neck, the back is held rigidly, the arms held by the side, the elbows touching the chest, the hands in pronation and the fingers in a typical pill-rolling attitude. The face gradually loses its expression, the wrinkles are smoothed out, and laughing and crying are rarely observed. In fact,

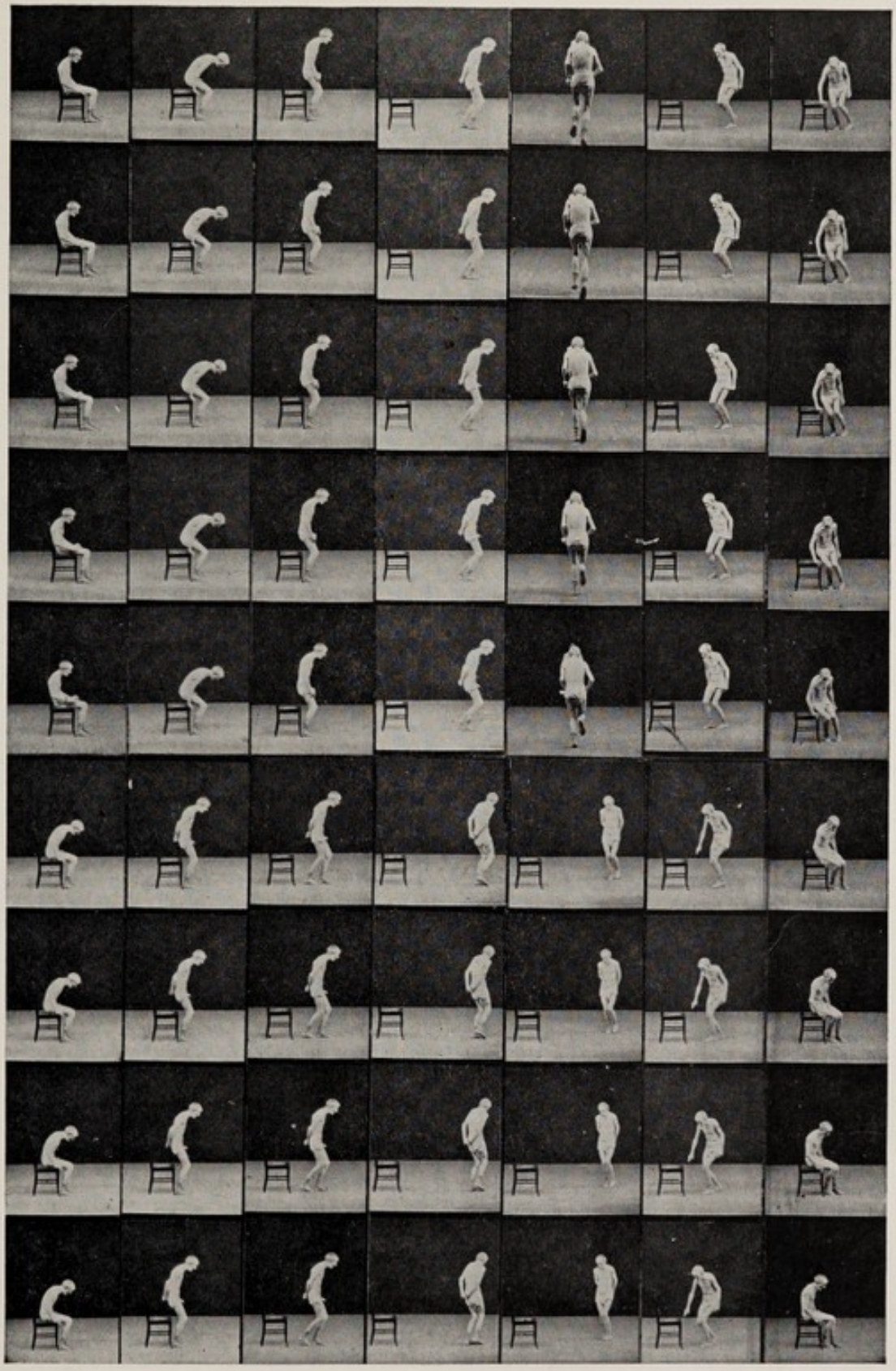
* Freeman, Annals of Clinical Medicine, August, 1925, p. 106.

PLATE XIX



Moving Picture of Attitude and Gait in Paralysis Agitans. (Courtesy of Mr. Sigmund Lubin of Philadelphia, Pa.)

PLATE XX



Moving Picture of Attitude and Gait in Paralysis Agitans. (Courtesy of Mr. Sigmund Lubin of Philadelphia, Pa.)

all the emotions are subdued. Talking is slow and the voice becomes low and monotonous. Occasionally there is dribbling of saliva. All movements become slow, as is shown by the slowness in rising or in movement of any of the limbs. It is, of course, to be understood that the rigidity develops gradually, and it may take years before the typical attitude described is obtained. Sometimes the rigidity becomes so extreme that there is great resemblance to rheumatoid arthritis.

Coincident with the rigidity and slowness in movement there develops the typical tremor of the disease. In spite of the apparent resemblance between postencephalitic Parkinsonism and typical paralysis agitans, it is difficult to ascertain at present whether the encephalitic syndrome is apt to pass gradually into slowly progressive paralysis agitans. As regards the clinical picture, the two conditions present a certain similarity, but closer analysis reveals differences. In encephalitis, hypertonia is the predominant feature; in the latter, tremor. In a well-marked case the attitude and movements of the fingers are those of pill-rolling, the tremor involving every portion of the body. It is characteristic of this tremor that it becomes momentarily better on effort, differing from the intention type of multiple sclerosis. It also becomes less when the patient is quiet or when his attention is attracted, although occasionally it may be intention in type. It usually stops during sleep. It is to be remembered that paralysis agitans may occur without any tremor, and that the diagnosis may be made upon the characteristic attitude and rigidity.

With the rigidity, attitude, and tremor, there develop late in the disease a certain peculiar form of gait. Because of the attitude the patient's center of gravity is brought forward, and in attempting to walk, to regain his center of gravity, which is always in front, the patient will have a tendency to gradually bend over, causing his steps to become shorter and more rapid, until he either falls on his face or with an effort straightens himself up, the falling gait being again repeated. This is called festination, and when not present can sometimes be brought out by giving the patient a sudden push forward. Very often instead of this festinating gait there may be a tendency to walk backward or to one side (retropulsion and lateropulsion) (Plates XIX and XX).

The course of the disease is chronic and the rigidity and tremor increase until finally the patient becomes bedridden. The reflexes are at first increased, but later may become lost or diminished on account of the rigidity. There may develop muscular wasting, and the electric excitability of the muscles may become diminished.

One of the most distressing features of the disease is the excessive flashes of heat, warmth, or chilliness, these coming on either periodically or constantly, the patient sometimes complaining more of this than anything else.

Laboratory Studies.—Study of cerebrospinal fluid in paralysis agitans reveals nothing constant or characteristic.

Summary of Diagnosis.—An adult, generally after the fortieth year, develops an increasing muscular rigidity of the whole body, with slowness in movement, lack of expression in the face, tremor of a rotatory type, and festinating gait. This picture is characteristic, and there should be no difficulty in making a diagnosis. Occasionally, however, the disease may be unilateral for a long time, or there may not be present tremors, when the disease should be diagnosticated from the rigidity and attitude.

Post-encephalitic Sequelæ.—Epidemic encephalitis (see p. 908) has come to be looked upon as one of the most disabling diseases of the central

nervous system. Its late-effects or sequelæ are especially distressing because of their chronic, progressive and intractable nature resulting from organic changes in the brain and spinal cord. The literature is becoming very extensive and each day new syndromes are being described. However, it is possible to group them under a few typical symptom-complex pictures.

(1) Parkinsonism or paralysis agitans (see p. 1336) is one of the most serious and common sequela. It resembles the true form of the disease in many respects but it can be said that the tremor is less constant and the increase of the plastic tone is usually much greater. Very often it is unilateral or monoplegic in distribution for a long time before the involvement becomes more general. Following J. Ramsay Hunts's studies on juvenile paralysis agitans* earlier reports on post-encephalitic parkinson states spoke of degeneration of the globus pallidus as the chief pathologic finding, but as more necropsy material was studied, later reports bring to light the fact that the most constant changes are found in the substantia nigra.†

(2) Hyperkinetic states such as tic-movements, choreiform and athetoid, and epileptiform states, localized spasms, torsion-spasms and myoclonia are quite frequently encountered. But of greater interest are those involving the respiratory mechanism seen especially in children.‡ This variety has only laterally received special attention and was regarded at first as rare and frequently labelled "hysterical" in nature. These disturbances may be classified as follows: (*a*) disorders of the respiratory rate (tachypnœa and bradypnœa): (*b*) dysrythmias, or disorders of the respiratory rythm (Cheyne-Stokes breathing, breath-holding spells, sighs, forced or noisy expiration, inversion of the inspiration-expiration ratio); (*c*) respiratory "tics" (yawning, hiccough, spasmodic cough, sniffing).§ Associated with these respiratory disturbances are exaggerated movements of the accessory muscles of respiration, face, limbs and entire body producing the most bizzare pictures (hence the frequent labelling of "hysterical"). Lesions are reported as being found in the upper portion of the medulla oblongata.

(3) Hyperalgesia sequelæ consisting of pains and dysesthesias in all parts of the body accompanied by marked emotional overreaction.

(4) Disturbance of the sleep mechanism as insomnia, diurnal somnolence, and inversion of the day-night cycle.

(5) Dyspituitarism usually hypofunction in character, and often of the Froelich's syndrome.

(6) Neurasthenic states and hysterical reactions.

(7) Psychotic trends suggestive of dementia precox; behavioristic and personality changes‖ especially in children.¶

(8) Various vegetative phenomena such as salivation, polyuria, diarrhea, vasomotor symptoms, tachycardia, asthenia, syncopal attacks, etc.

No attack of acute epidemic encephalitis is too slight to be free from late-effects, and the interval or the period of apparent complete recovery is often as long as three years, and on the other hand there may be no interval, the acute picture merging into the chronic state imperceptively.

* Hunt, N. Amer. Neurol. Assoc., 1917.
† McKinley, Arch. Neurol. and Psychiat., 1923, p. 47.
‡ Parker, Arch. Neurol. and Psychiat., 1922, p. 630.
§ Turner and Critchley, Brain, Vol. XLVIII, Part 1, 1925.
‖ Meyer, Klin. Wchnschr., Jan. 22, 1924.
¶ Ebaugh, Am. Jour. Dis. of Children, Feb., 1923.

SENILE TREMOR

Occasionally there develops a tremor in the head or limbs, which in nearly all cases is fine and is to-and-fro in character. It generally comes on in old persons, is sometimes hereditary, and is distinguished from paralysis agitans by absence of rigidity and characteristic attitude.

MYOTONIA CONGENITA (THOMSEN'S DISEASE)

A family disease, generally occurring in the male, coming on at infancy and characterized by a tetanic like contraction of the voluntary muscles when they are first put to use. Toomey has reported the instance of a family displaying an intermittent form of the disease.

The disease is rare and its cause unknown. Microscopic examinations of the nervous system have been negative, although there have been found changes in the muscles, consisting in an increase in the size of the fibers and nuclei.

The literature contains many reports where myotonia has been found associated with muscular distrophia, consisting chiefly of atrophy of the masseters, sternocleidomastoids, muscles of the forearms, head and face. Certain of these cases have also displayed loss of the hair, testicular atrophy and cataract. Our present knowledge of the function of the various endocrines in relation to muscular tension and snaps, suggests endocrine involvement. (See Parathyroid, Testis, and Ovary, pp. 1107, 1158, 1162.)

Symptoms.—The symptoms are present from birth, and because of the contraction of the voluntary muscles there will be an overdevelopment, which, at first, especially in young adults, may resemble a muscular hypertrophy. The tetanic like spasms or contractions are apparent when the patient arises or attempts to walk after resting, the movements being stiff, slow, and only made with difficulty. Gradually, however, the spasm diminishes, until finally the patient walks with comparative ease, only to have the spasm reappear on the next effort, after another rest. There are no other motor and no sensory symptoms, the reflexes may be exaggerated, but there is nearly always an increased and heightened contraction to a constant galvanic or a rapidly interrupted faradic current—the so-called myotonic reaction. The lower limbs are preponderantly involved, but in a well-marked case the upper also take part in the spasm. The disease is of long duration, the symptoms continuing until the death of the patient.

AMYOTONIA CONGENITA (OPPENHEIM'S DISEASE)

"A condition of extreme flaccidity of the muscles, associated with an entire loss of deep reflexes, most marked at the time of birth, and always showing a tendency to slow and progressing amelioration. There is great weakness, but no absolute paralysis of any muscle. The limbs are most affected, the face is almost always exempt. The muscles are small and soft, but there is no local muscular wasting. Contractures are prone to occur in the course of time. The faradic excitability in the muscles is lowered, and strong faradic stimuli are borne without complaint. No other symptoms indicative of lesions of the nervous system occur." (Oppenheim.)

There have been so few autopsies that the etiology has not been made very clear. It is probably the result of congenital changes in the muscular system, the condition being prenatal. The symptoms are noticed

either directly or soon after birth. The affection is strictly symmetrical, and may involve all the muscles, but, as a rule, the muscles of mastication and deglutition escape. The lower extremities are most often involved, next the upper, and then the trunk and face. The muscles are completely toneless, small and soft to touch, and a striking peculiarity is the impossibility of distinguishing by touch between the skin and underlying structures. There is no wasting. The loss of power is rarely complete. Contractures sometimes develop in the latter end of the disease. It is necessary to have an increased faradic current to obtain a reaction, and while this condition is present in most of the muscles, it is best demonstrated in those which are most affected. The deep reflexes are lost, but the superficial are normal. The sphincters are never involved.

The course of the disease is slow and there is a tendency to spontaneous improvement. This is shown by the increasing tonicity of the muscles and the fact that the reflexes return.

NEURASTHENIA

Definition.—A term given to a combination of nervous and physical symptoms in which the general characteristics are irritability, abnormal sensitiveness, mental depression, and physical weakness.

Predisposing and Exciting Factors.—A neuropathic heredity, whether it be some form of nervous or mental disease in the parents, or any disease of the individual which would have a tendency to cause a diminished resistance in the nervous system, are important factors in the production of neurasthenia; for it is well known that in a number of persons under the same mental and physical strain, only a certain few will develop so-called neurasthenia. While it is probable that a congenital weakness or lessened resistance are the prime causal factors, it is possible for the disease to develop in one in whom these conditions are not present. It is probable that the various symptoms which are described under the term neurasthenia result primarily from a lack of proper mental appreciation and ideation, for in the development of a neurasthenic, while it is probable that there may have to be a fertile soil, the mental symptoms always predominate and the physical are the result of these. It is a well-known fact that neurasthenia is much more common in well educated persons, especially among professional men and society women, and although this symptom-complex is present in persons not well educated, the symptoms are necessarily few and not so well defined.

It has been estimated that neurasthenia is much more common in men than in women, although this is doubtful. It may develop at any age, but is a disease essentially of adults. The exciting causes are many, but worry, especially financial, is the predominating cause. Prolonged mental work with lessened bodily activities; injuries, especially those produced in railroad accidents; and then the countless causes which may be referred to almost any part of the body, such as eye-strain, disturbance of the nose, throat, ear, the various internal organs, and sexual functions are frequent factors. In fact, neurasthenia has been described as resulting from any and every cause. Even in perfectly normal individuals who develop, for instance, such a disease as pneumonia or typhoid, or possibly a slight surgical contusion, there may develop for the time being so-called neurasthenia.

Symptoms.—These are rather difficult to describe, because they vary so greatly in different persons, for while there may be a general resemblance, no one case has the exact symptoms of another, and the preponder-

ance of certain symptoms will depend upon the education, station in life, occupation, previous health, resistance, and the immediate exciting cause. It is possible for a neurasthenic to have very few symptoms which he himself recognizes. Then, again, there may be many. Perhaps the most important are the mental, for the other symptoms are dependent upon them.

Mental Symptoms.—Their development will depend largely upon the immediate cause of the disease. If resulting from injury, they will be manifested promptly. If resulting from the usual cause of worry and overwork, they will be gradual in their development, and will be generally first manifested by an increased worry over whatever is occupying the patient's mind at the time, and inability to clearly comprehend and appreciate external conditions. Such a person will become depressed, will be unable to see any method of getting out of the trouble he is in, will assume a pessimistic attitude, everything will go wrong, and nothing of a cheerful nature will appear in his horizon. He will become easily annoyed, ordinary things which would not have bothered him before will irritate him, the slightest noise or whatever may occur will distract his attention, he will be unable to concentrate, and because of this will usually complain of loss of memory. Generally such a person, if he is addicted to smoking or drinking, will increase his habits in this direction, and if in women they will drink more tea and coffee to brace themselves up. Very soon they will be unable to sleep, and the harder they try, the less they succeed, and will rise-in the morning more tired, irritable, fretful, and discontented with themselves.

If this continues such a patient will constantly think of his own troubles, until finally these will be the only source of his thoughts, to the exclusion of everything else. If he should happen to have some malady, this will be exaggerated. If a physician, he will probably develop what occupies him most, and will have a special dread for locomotor ataxia and general paresis; if a medical student, generally heart disease; if a nurse, tuberculosis; if in a layman, they are not so marked and are generally of a diffuse character; but the specific mental symptoms are nearly always dependent upon some form of mental suggestion, based upon a preconceived knowledge or the suggestion of others. If, for instance, a patient should have a history of carcinoma in the family, he will have a dread of that; if of insanity, may fear that he will become insane. Again, patients may develop a curious form of predominating ideas or obsessions; for instance, some will not walk under a ladder, or when going to a theater or church will have a dread of fainting or having a spasm; others will have a fear that the chandelier will fall down or the house will catch afire. Again, other persons may have a dread of walking on certain sides of the street or riding backward, or perchance when going to sleep, if they do not think they say their prayers with the proper amount of devotion, may repeat a number of times until satisfied.

If the condition continues, there will develop in the patient the so-called neurasthenic habit, which, after it becomes well established, is difficult to lose. In a well-marked case the patient may cease the occupation previously engaged in and do nothing besides sit all day, and if given an opportunity will constantly talk of herself; and very often when consulting a physician, for fear that she will not remember all of her symptoms, will have long written descriptions of them. Under proper treatment the neurasthenic mental condition may become largely alleviated, but nearly always there will remain a neurasthenic tendency. Of course, it is to be understood that the above symptoms are those of the

gravest sort of case, and that in the mild form there may only be few manifestations.

Physical Symptoms.—These will develop in conjunction with the mental, and are manifested in many forms. They may be divided into general, motor, sensory, and special.

General.—There is nearly always a diminution of the different bodily functions. The patient will nearly always become constipated. The urine may become scanty and concentrated, principally because the neurasthenic very rarely drinks water. Indigestion is commonly complained of and there is a well-known nervous type. Appetite is generally poor, although sometimes the patient may eat voraciously and unusual things, this being especially so in women. There is usually a bad taste in the mouth and there may be flatulence. Often there may be serous and copious evacuations immediately after eating or before the performance of certain mental work, like giving a lecture. Coughing sometimes develops without a respiratory cause and may become distressing. Pulsation of the vessels, especially palpitation, is very common, and often patients will be prevented from sleeping on the left side because of the beating of the heart or of the pulsation of the vessels of the head or limbs. Insomnia develops in most cases very early, and the patient usually complains of not being able to sleep at all and of feeling much more tired in the morning than on retiring. Often such patients may drop asleep after meals or without any apparent cause. Urine examination may sometimes demonstrate an increased amount of urates and indican; and blood examination a diminished amount of hemoglobin and of red and white cells.

Motor.—These develop gradually, and in a well-marked case any muscular effort will be followed by great exhaustion, so that some patients are confined to bed. The predominating motor symptom is fatigue. The grip of the hands, as a rule, will be poor, as well as the resistance against movement. Fasicular and sometimes fibrillary tremors in the limbs and muscles of the body, but especially the face, are very common, and when shutting the eyes there is nearly always fluttering of the lids. The reflexes, as a rule, are increased, and rarely, when ankle clonus is attempted, there may be one or two abortive movements.

Sensory Symptoms.—These are very common, and, as a rule, are manifested early. The patient usually complains of headache, this being nearly always "at the base of the brain," the occipital region, top or front of the head, and is nearly always described as a pressure sensation or as if a weight were pressing down. Sometimes it is described as a tight band or a "rush of blood to the head." Dizziness is often complained of, and is usually described as a swimming sensation, and is especially present when suddenly rising from a sitting posture. Pain along the spine is very common, and it is only rarely that it is not possible to demonstrate a point of tenderness somewhere along the back, generally in the mid or lower spine, this being described nearly always as a pressing or drawing sensation. Sometimes a drawing or pressure sensation is described in the front of the neck or in the throat. Pain on pressure can also sometimes be demonstrated over the ovarian and inframammary regions in women and inguinal areas in men. Instead of pains it is very common for the patient to complain of burning, itching, numb, or pin-and-needle-like sensations, in various portions of the body, as, for instance, in the limbs, face, and most commonly in the genital region.

Special Symptoms.—These depend entirely upon the particular organ involved. Ocular disturbances are perhaps present more frequently than any other, and may be diversely manifested. A patient when reading

may have the letters swim together, or have the lines blur, and because of this may be forced to limit his reading. Often dark spots or curious linear and various shaped specks or lines may appear in the visual fields, but it is a fact that they appear only when the patient thinks of them or when something worries him. There may also be a contraction of the visual fields, but this, as a rule, is for white and not for colors; and often there may be a curious rapid alteration in the size of the pupils—so-called hippus. Sometimes there may be photophobia or dread of light.

In association with the ocular phenomena, or independently of them, there may be disturbance of taste, smell, or hearing. The patients may complain of peculiar taste or odors or of a hissing, buzzing noise in one or both ears. This, however, is not very common.

Sexual Neurasthenia.—This generally occurs in young boys or adults, but is sometimes present in girls. It generally occurs in those who are or have been addicted to self-abuse, but may come on independently. As a rule, the symptoms develop in early adult life. If, for instance, a neurasthenic condition should develop through extraneous causes, such as mental or other worry, and if there should have been in the previous history of such an individual a sexual factor, this will usually be ascribed as the cause. This is unfortunately furthered by the many advertisements of the so-called specialists who gain a livelihood by the furtherance of such doctrines. The symptoms are various. They may be manifested by impotence, lessened desire, premature ejaculation, frequent nocturnal emissions, or constant seminal discharge. Very often in conjunction with these symptoms or without them there may be itching sensations in the genital organs.

Summary of Diagnosis.—A gradually developing functional nervous exhaustion whose chief characteristic is an abnormal tendency to mental and physical fatigue, to worry, an exaggeration of symptoms to the detriment of the person concerned, with headache, numbness, pain, insomnia, loss of appetite, indigestion, intestinal difficulty, circulatory disturbance, ocular weakness as shown by the early fatigue in reading, occasionally specks before the eyes, and sexual symptoms.

Differential Diagnosis.—There should be no difficulty in diagnosing this disease by the many symptoms given. It must be remembered, however, that in general paresis the early manifestations may be those of neurasthenia, but in the former there are always pupillary irregularities with diminution in their reactions, disturbance of reflexes, and a general happy, expansive, optimistic mental attitude, which is so different from the selfish depressed mentality of the neurasthenic.

Clinical Course and Complications.—The course of a neurasthenic condition varies according to the severity of the attack, the predisposition of the individual, and the promptness with which treatment is instituted. Mild cases nearly always get well, provided conditions are favorable, but after a neurasthenic habit is once established for a number of years, it is probable that it will become chronic, and although the patient may get well, the slightest untoward influence may bring on a renewal of some of the symptoms. Sometimes there may develop a hypochondriacal condition, but this is not the rule.

HYSTERIA

Definition.—It is almost impossible to give a brief and accurate definition of hysteria because so many symptoms are included under it. It is, however, an altered mental condition resulting from inhibition of

mental processes in which the normal relation and appreciation of thoughts, ideas, ordinary occurrences of daily life and of the bodily functions are distorted and falsely appreciated.

It is a distinct disease and a grave one, and should not be spoken of and considered lightly—a habit which is only too prevalent, not only among the laity, but among medical men. The reason for this is because its principal symptom is suggestibility, and that many of the symptoms can be alleviated by persuasion.

Selected cases show decided improvement and recovery after glandular therapy, therefore these cases are in part if not entirely of endocrinlogic origin, and the condition is referred to as endocrine asthenia.

Predisposing and Exciting Factors.—Posterior pituitary disease is commonly associated with anxiety, fear, phobias, suspicion, etc. (See also Hyperthyroidism.) As in all neuroses, especially is it true in hysteria, that a neuropathic tendency dependent upon such heredity is an important predisposing factor. In the majority of cases there is a history of "nervousness" in early life, and of such diseases as chorea, tic, or of a more or less unstable physical and mental childhood. Again, in others there is no appreciable cause. Sudden fright is perhaps the most frequent exciting cause, and this is especially true of railroad and other accidents, in which it is not so much the physical injury as the mental impression that is the important exciting factor. It is also noticeable that the character of the symptoms is largely dependent upon the exciting cause; for in a person, for instance, who has been injured in the back, the symptoms will be preponderantly present in that area; while in a fright, in which one sees another hurt in the knee, there may develop hysterical contracture in that part. Emotional disturbances of any form, sexual errors, and religious excitement are frequent causes. Imitation plays an important rôle, for often whole communities may become hysterical. It must also be remembered that functional symptoms often accompany or complicate organic diseases, as in early multiple sclerosis, and as complications of various infectious diseases they are not infrequent. Not every patient, however, will develop hysteria due to fright or other causes, and it may be necessary to have a tendency to the disease which may consist in an altered physical and mental condition or an unstable nervous system.

It is much more common in women than in men, although serious cases are seen in the male. It usually occurs in young adults, generally about the twentieth year, but is not at all infrequent in children. It is peculiarly prevalent among the Slavs and the Jewish race, who have a tendency to so-called functional disorders.

Symptoms.—It is difficult to describe the symptoms of hysteria, because they vary greatly, for one case hardly ever has the identical symptoms of another. Again, we hardly ever see in this country the grave forms which are so common in Europe, and especially in France. All hysterical symptoms, however, have a certain general resemblance: first, they are dependent upon a "functional" basis, because they appear and disappear and leave no trace; second, their suggestibility, in the sense that most of the symptoms can be suggested; third, they may be made to disappear by persuasion; fourth, there are certain symptoms known as "stigmata" which are present in nearly all cases, these being principally of a sensory nature; and lastly, in all cases, whether the symptoms are mild or severe, there may occur convulsions or spasms, which, while they differ greatly in their form, have a certain general resemblance to each other. For the purpose of facility in description, and not because

the symptoms appear in this manner, division will be made into mental, physical sensory, motor, and special.

Mental.—Hysterical patients generally describe themselves as "nervous," and are highly impressionable, emotional, irritable, sometimes irrational, and are given to extremes of passion. In a well-marked case the patient's own condition is the principal burden of thought, and all occurrences will be made to apply to themselves. They generally complain of loss of memory and inability to concentrate, although it is possible sometimes for them to do highly creditable mental work. The more severe mental symptoms, such as those which occur in hysterical spasms, will be described under that head.

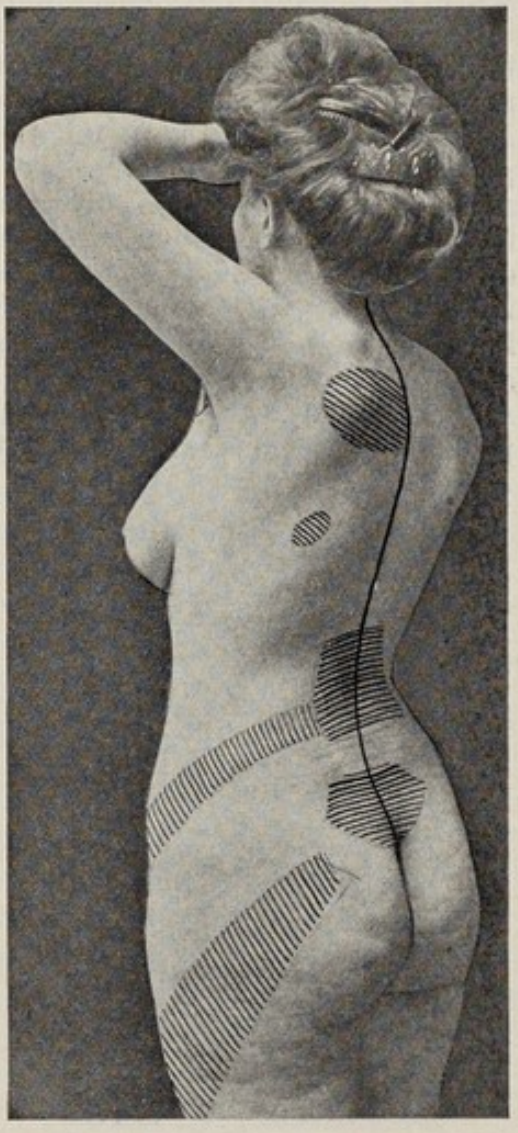


Fig. 506.—Areas of Pain, Tenderness, and Anesthesia in Hysteria.

Physical and Visceral Symptoms.—There is, as a rule, lessening of the bodily activities, but sometimes the patient may apparently be in perfect physical health and still have the gravest form of hysteria. There may be diminution in the amount of hemoglobin, and the quantity of urine may be increased or diminished and there may be frequent urination. Loss of appetite and indigestion are very common, and constipation is a constant fault. Not infrequently there may be involuntary evacuations from the bowel, and sometimes there may be excreted casts of the intestinal wall. Borborygmi ,or rumbling of the bowels, and sometimes so-called phantom tumors of the abdomen, resulting from localized gaseous swelling of the intestines may be present. Flatulence and gaseous eructations are complained of, and there may sometimes be excessive vomiting, with or without nausea. The heart action, as a rule, is not disturbed, but palpitation is not uncommon, and is usually associated with pain over the precordial area, and often there may be pseudo-angina pectoris. The pulse-rate may be altered and rapid, but, as a rule, its rate is not disturbed. Hysterical cough is quite common, and hiccough is frequent and may last for days. The respiratory rate is, as a rule, not disturbed, but there may be all sorts of alterations, consisting in repeated sighing, sobbing, sneezing, laughing, or crying. Aphonia or loss of voice is frequent, and may come on suddenly, the patient not being able to talk at all or only in a whisper. The temperature, as a rule, is not altered, but elevation, even as far as 105° F., has been reported, but its occurrence is doubtful. Vasomotor and trophic disturbances may occur, and consist in flushing of the skin, excessive or perverted sweating, and, rarely, skin eruptions of various sorts.

Sensory Symptoms.—Headache is common, especially in the back or top of the head, and is usually described as a boring, aching pain, and sometimes as if a nail were driven into the skull, or as a tight band or a drawing sensation. There is nearly always pain and some point of tenderness in the spine, especially in the middle and lower portions (Fig. 506). Pain on pressure is almost constant over both ovarian and inframammary regions in women and the inguinal areas in men. Because of the frequency of these hypersensitive areas over the back, ovarian, inguinal, and inframammary areas, they are commonly known as the sensory *stigmata of hysteria* (Fig. 507). Often pressure over one of these so-called hysterogenic areas will produce or stop a hysterical spasm. Pains of a diffuse character may be present anywhere,—in the eye, ear, nose, etc.,—and are especially common in the throat, where they are described as drawing or band-like, and sometimes as a ball—so-called "globus hystericus." In fact, there is hardly a place in the body where pains may not be present. Numbness, tingling, pin-and-needle, or dead-like sensations

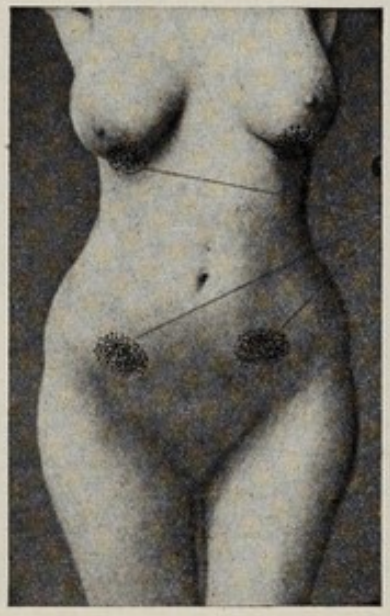


Fig. 507.—Hysterogenic Zone in Hysteria.

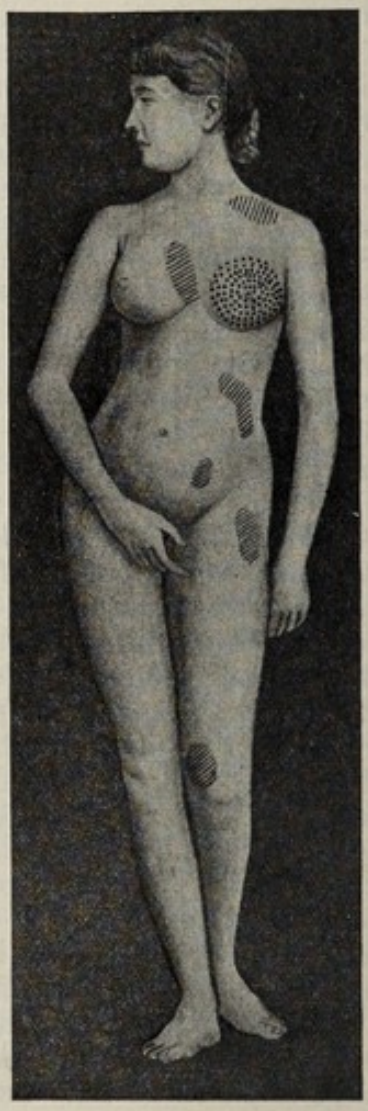


Fig. 508.—Location of Pain and Tenderness in Hysteria.

are often complained of in the limbs, body, and frequently in the rectal and genital organs.

Diminution or loss of sensation is present in nearly all cases of hysteria. It is characteristic of these and all other sensory symptoms that they may vary from day to day or in successive examinations, either because of suggestion or other cause, and that the patient may be not at all aware of their presence until an examination is made. Because of this it is thought by some neurologists that sensory symptoms are nearly always the result of suggestion by the examiner. Hemianesthesia is quite common and its

form is characteristic. It is limited entirely to one-half the body, and the moment parts past the median line are approached recognition is prompt. It nearly always involves all forms of sensation, that is, touch, pain, temperature, and often vibratory and electric stimulation, and is sometimes associated with loss of half-vision on the same side. It can be differentiated from organic hemianesthesia by the fact that the latter is never limited by the median line, but nearly always projects over; that it is rarely complete for touch, pain, and temperature, and the loss of sensation is always more marked in the peripheral than in the central parts of the limb (Fig. 509). Again, it is nearly always in association with some motor symptom, and, most important of all, it is permanent and cannot be modified by suggestion. Hysterical anesthesia nearly always involves all forms,

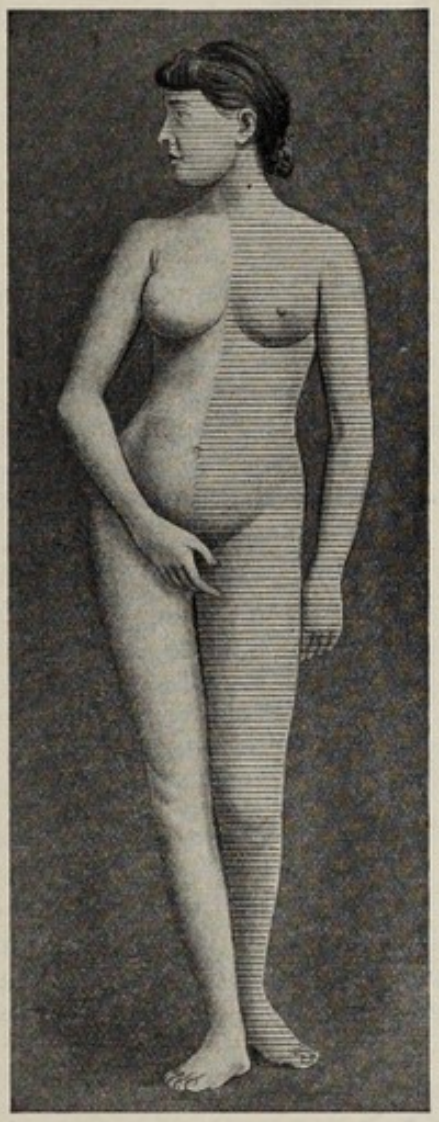


Fig. 509.—Hysterical Hemianesthesia, Showing the Absolute Limitation to the Median Line.

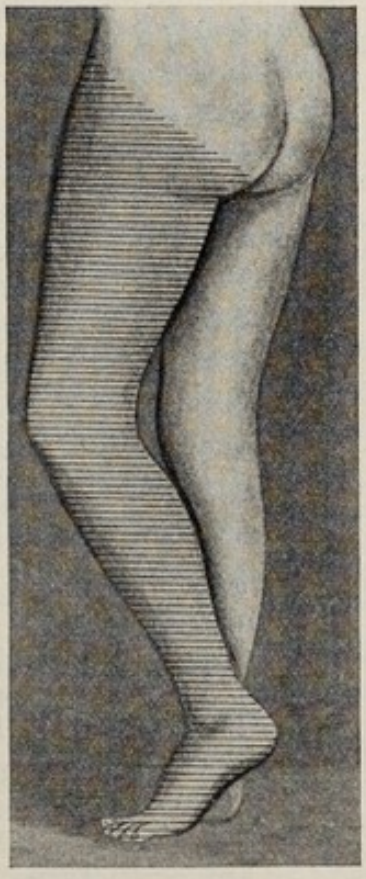


Fig. 510.—Hysterical Anesthesia of Lower Limbs.

sometimes only pain and temperature sensations, and hardly ever touch alone. Over the anesthetic areas there may be vasomotor disturbance, demonstrated by the fact that pricking by a pin will not cause immediate flow of blood. In conjunction with loss of sensation there may be loss or disturbance of muscle sense or of some of the special senses, as sight, hearing, taste, and smell.

Motor Symptoms.—These vary greatly, and may be of either an irritative or a paralytic nature. *Tremors* are common, and may consist only of a fluttering of the eyelids, of twitching or fasicular movements of the

muscles of the face, or of violent movements of a limb. They may be present for years, and usually cease during sleep. It is characteristic that their rate and character may alter as the result of suggestion, and when the patient's attention is attracted elsewhere, may cease for a time.



FIG. 511.—TONIC PHASE, THE TONGUE ROLLING FROM ONE ANGLE OF THE MOUTH TO THE OTHER (Richer).

The tendon and superficial *reflexes*, as a rule, are exaggerated. It has been a mooted question as to whether ankle clonus can occur in hysteria, but its presence in rare cases is undoubted. It has a distinct character which renders its recognition easy. As a rule, when obtaining ankle



FIG. 512.—SCHEMATIC REPRESENTATION OF THE WIDE TONIC MOVEMENTS (Richer).

clonus in an organic disease it is best to bend the leg on the thigh, and sometimes a true ankle clonus can be obtained only when this is done. On the other hand, hysterical ankle clonus can be obtained when the leg is fully extended on the thigh and the foot is suddenly bent forward.



FIG. 513.—TONIC PHASE, CIRCUMDUCTION MOVEMENTS OF UPPER MEMBERS (Richer).

In organic cases the movements are rhythmic, the rate never varying; its intensity gradually becomes exhausted, while in hysteria the movements may be irregularly rapid or slow, and can be kept up sometimes indefinitely, and depend entirely upon the mental condition of the individual. (Personally I have observed this in a number of cases,

and have at one time obtained ankle clonus in a hysterical patient for over ten minutes. I have also obtained patellar clonus in hysteria, its character being similar to the hysterical ankle clonus.)

There are certain reflexes which are very often absent in hysteria, which are of diagnostic value. Among these is the pharyngeal reflex, in which it is possible to irritate the pharynx without producing gagging. Again, when irritating the nasal mucous membrane there is, as a rule, a flow of tears, while in hysteria this may be absent. Sometimes, also, irritation of the cornea does not produce winking. This is nearly always associated with anesthesia of the cornea. It is also sometimes possible to pass a stomach-tube in hysterical patients without the slightest resistance, due to the anesthesia of the parts concerned.

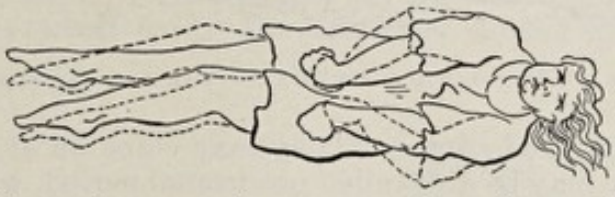


FIG. 514.—CLONIC PHASE, SCHEMATIC REPRESENTATION OF CLONIC MOVEMENTS (Richer).

Hysterical paralysis is quite common, and, like anesthesia, varies greatly. It usually comes on suddenly, and may involve one-half of the body, so-called hysterical hemiplegia. It can be distinguished from an organic lesion by the fact that the lower part of the face is hardly ever involved, and that there is either complete flaccidity or exaggerated tonicity in the paralyzed limbs, and, most important of all, the Babinski reflex can never be demonstrated. Again, in walking there is not the typical hemiplegic gait, the leg being dragged instead of swung around, as in organic hemiplegia. Hysterical hemiplegia is hardly as common, however, as paraplegia, which occurs especially after railroad injuries. There may be paralysis of both upper and lower limbs or of one limb. Weakness of the lower limbs, with giving way of the limbs when walking, is sometimes called *astasia abasia*. Hysterical paralysis may be recog-



FIG. 515.—PHASE OF RESOLUTION (Richer).

nized by the suddenness of the onset, the extreme exaggeration or flaccidity of tone, the absence of the Babinski reflex, and in association there are nearly always hysterical sensory stigmata, and, most important of all, the paralyses may be altered or relieved by suggestion. Paralysis of an eyelid, so-called spastic lid paralysis, is rarely seen, and ocular paralyses are very uncommon. Involvement of the vocal cords has already been mentioned.

Hysterical contractures are common and may develop with or without paralysis. The form of the contracture differs from the organic variety and may assume any shape. For instance, in organic hemiplegia the contracture in the upper limbs is greater in the flexor, and in the lower in the extensor, distribution. In hysteria this may be reversed. Again,

in the functional condition the contracture may come on without paralysis, and the distortion may be extreme. It may cease during sleep and is usually absent during ether narcosis.

Convulsions may appear in any hysterical patient, but they are not as common in this country as in continental Europe. The attacks usually



Fig. 516.—Phase of Resolution, Retaining Partial Contractures (Richer).

have certain recognized stages. They may come on at any time, either suddenly or there may be a so-called prodromal period, which may last for a day or longer, in which the patient becomes irritable, depressed, emotional, or somnolent, and sometimes maniacal. There is usually a



Fig. 517.—Posterior Arc de Cercle (Richer).

so-called hysterical aura, which consists of a sensation of a ball rising from the stomach to the throat, and is known as globus hystericus. This is succeeded by the epileptoid stage, which hardly ever lasts more than a few minutes. The movements are characteristic, the patient usually



Fig. 518.—Anterior Arc de Cercle (Knobloch).

throwing the limbs in a wild, irregular manner, the back is usually rigid and arched, and while there may be at first a tonic movement, which is succeeded by a clonic, this is not constant. It is then succeeded by the third or so-called emotional or passionate stage, in which the patient

assumes different attitudes, depending upon whatever hallucinations may happen to possess him, and may consist either in expression of wild



FIG. 519.—LATERAL ARC DE CERCLE (Richer).

exhilaration, joy, anger, or passion. This may last for several hours or longer, and then is succeeded by the last stage, during which the patient



FIG. 520.—PASSIONAL ATTITUDE OF STRUGGLING WITH AN ASSAILANT (Richer).



FIG. 521.—PASSIONAL ATTITUDE OF SOLICITATION (Richer).

generally quiets down and passes into a deep sleep or may have various hallucinations or deliriums. These attacks can be differentiated from



FIG. 522.—ZOÖPSIA (Richer).



FIG. 523.—DELIRIUM OF THE FOURTH PERIOD (Richer).

epilepsy by the fact that there is no epileptic cry, there is hardly ever frothing at the mouth or passing of urine, and while there may be clouding of consciousness, there never is absolute loss of memory and there is

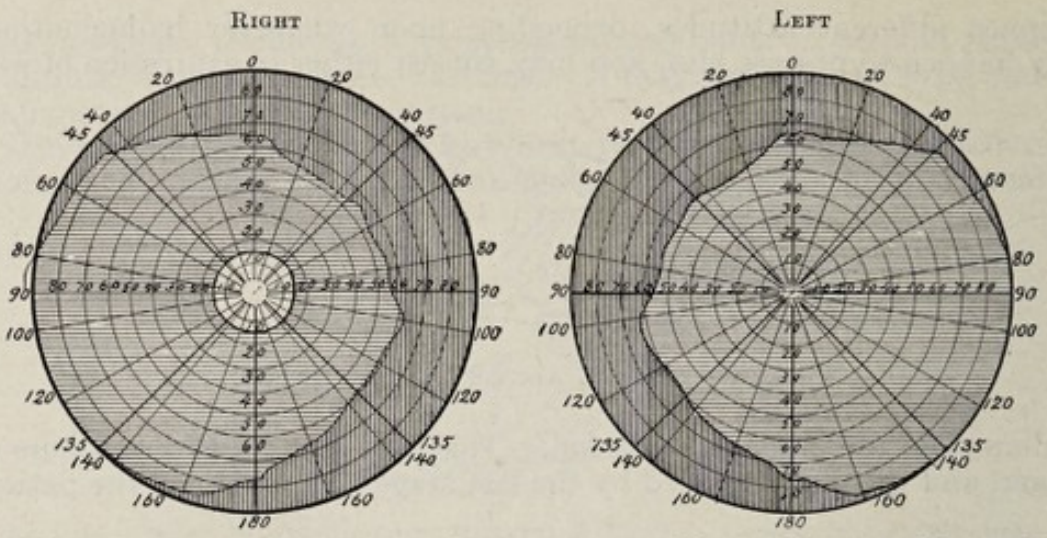


Fig. 524.—Hysterical Concentric Contraction of Visual Field of Right Eye Amaurosis of Left Eye (Tourette).

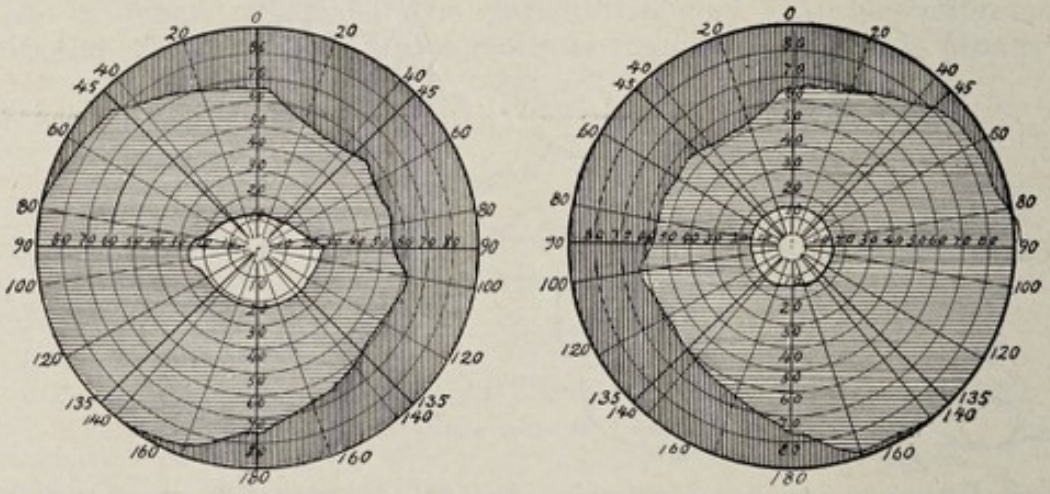


Fig. 525.—Hysterical Bilateral Concentric Contraction of Visual Fields (Tourette).

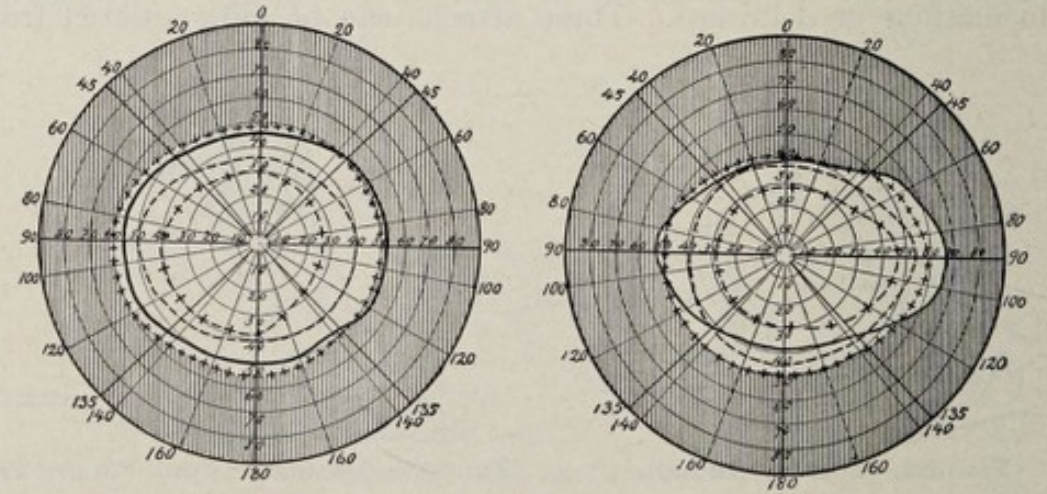


Fig. 526.—Concentric Retraction of Visual Fields for Colors Usually Found in Hysteria (Souques).

Red field inclosed thus: + + +; white field,——; blue field, — — — — —; green field, + − + − +.

not the typical tonic and clonic succession of movements which is so characteristic of the organic disease. This is *hysteria major* (see p. 1172).

Instead of the typical succession described above there may be only a so-called mild attack, or *hysteria minor*, in which the patient is suddenly launched into any of the stages described or may become cataleptic, in which there is both physical and mental inertia, and in which it is possible to bend the limbs in any direction, they remaining in the position in which they are placed; or he may pass into a deeper mental stupor, lethargy, or trance. Rarely there may be so-called automatic ambulatory automatism, in which the patient wanders for days at a time, performs apparently normal acts, and has only a faint recollection of what has happened in the interim, or there may be disturbance of sleep or somnambulism.

The usual hysterical spasm, however, seen in this country is different from the described. It usually comes on quite suddenly, with an emotional outburst, or may be brought about by pressure on any of the hysterogenic areas and may be stopped in a similar manner, the patient falling to the ground but never hurting herself, and nearly always in the presence of others whose sympathy she desires to arouse. Usually the patient assumes a rigid attitude, the back is arched and rigid, and the limbs are thrown about in a wild, irregular manner, the whole lasting from a few minutes to an hour or longer. There is hardly ever loss of consciousness, the patient being nearly always able to describe what has happened during the spasm.

Special Symptoms.—Under this head will be discussed those phenomena which are concerned principally with the special senses, for many of the so-called special symptoms have been described under the physical.

Ocular Symptoms.—These are quite common and vary greatly. They may consist only in a photophobia or pain in the eye, flashes of light in the visual fields, and total loss of vision in one or both eyes. Amblyopia, however, is not very common, and its occurrence is somewhat doubtful. Hemianopsia has also been reported in hysteria, but it is probable that its occurrence is also somewhat doubtful. The most common ocular manifestation of hysteria, however, is the concentric, regular, or irregular contraction of the visual fields. This is usually for form and color, but either may be present alone. Quite commonly there is reversion of the color fields, or there may be a loss of vision for certain colors or a distortion to one color only. There may be loss of the central field of vision, the peripheral being intact, or a so-called tubular field in which the patient is able to see only in a certain limited area for both near and far points. Still more rarely there may be enlargement of the visual fields (Figs. 524–526).

Loss of *smell* or *taste* or perversion of these functions is quite common. It may be present only on one side, but it is generally bilateral. There may also be buzzing, hissing noises in the ear or loss of hearing, but nerve tests will always demonstrate an intact auditory nerve.

The pupil is of value in distinguishing between hysteria and organic disease. In true coma the pupils are always contracted; while in hysteria they are normal, or slightly dilated, and respond to the several pupillary reactions.

Hemiplegia is frequently accompanied by inequality of the pupils. In hysterical paralysis and localized weaknesses, pupillary reactions approximate the normal.

Summary of Diagnosis.—A peculiar mental and physical condition, characterized by suggestibility of symptoms which may be of any character. The patient is usually a young adult who is emotional, irritable,

and one who constantly complains and thinks of herself, and perverts everything which may occur as having something to do with her own condition. There may be headache, backache, pains in various portions of the limbs, numbness or pin-and-needle-like sensations, hemianesthesia or anesthesia anywhere, points of tenderness in the back, ovarian, and mammary region, increase of reflexes, paralyses of various sorts, contractures, tremors, disturbance of vision, smell, and taste, and convulsive attacks which may assume almost any character. The most important point of all is the suggestibility of all the symptoms, their variance from day to day, and the fact that any or all may be removed by persuasion.

Clinical Course and Complications.—The course of the disease varies greatly, and depends upon its intensity. In most cases the symptoms can be alleviated to a large degree, but in a well-marked case, after the symptoms have been well established, it is rather difficult to effect a permanent cure. Sometimes the symptoms progress to such an extent that the patient becomes bedridden.

Traumatic Neuroses

Under this head will be discussed those functional nervous disorders which result from injury. Most patients present the symptoms of both neurasthenia and hysteria, and therefore it is inadvisable to discuss them under a separate classification. The degree of the injury in many cases is no criterion of the symptoms that may develop, for very often the slightest trauma may produce the severest neurosis. In some cases it is not so much the injury as the accompanying mental fright which produces the symptoms, and often fright alone is the sole causal factor. It is a matter of common knowledge that not every person who is hurt develops a neurosis, and its occurrence is somewhat dependent upon the health of the individual at the time of the injury and the presence of a neuropathic tendency.

Another factor which enters into the promulgation of the symptoms is the fact that most of these cases become sources of litigation. Corporations or those who are responsible for the injury nearly always assume the attitude that there is not much the matter with the patient, and create in the mind of the litigant a resentful attitude—a factor which does not tend to alleviate the symptoms. On the other hand, very often for, the sake of money, the patient will consciously or unconsciously exaggerate the symptoms, seeing in each a possible source of income. This is furthered by the constant examination of different physicians and lawyers. It is therefore best for the patient, from the medical standpoint, to settle the case promptly. It must be remembered, however, that while it is the rule that most neurotic symptoms are increased during the course of litigation and tend to diminish after its disposition, there are exceptions, and there may be present the severest form of neuroses when there is no question whatever of litigation.

Symptoms.—These vary largely, and depend upon the previous history of the patient and the nature and severity of the accident. As has already been mentioned, the severest form of neuroses may develop from the mildest form of injury. Again, it must be remembered that so-called neuroses are associated nearly always with actual injuries to the brain, the spinal cord, or the muscular structures, and that it is necessary in forming an opinion to carefully exclude an organic basis. In most instances the symptoms are those of both hysteria and neurasthenia, and do not differ from those which have been described under the separate headings. It is only necessary to add that the symptoms come on

promptly, and that their specific nature will depend somewhat upon the form of the injury. For instance, a patient who is hurt in the back may develop so-called traumatic lumbago, in which the pain may become so excessive that movement of the trunk and limbs will be almost impossible. This may last for years, and is sometimes dependent upon an actual change in some of the ligamentous and muscular structures about the vertebra. Tremor is common and may be violent. Often in association with tremor of the lower limbs there is produced a pseudo-patellar and ankle clonus, especially when there is an accompanying hysterical paralysis. Paralysis of both lower limbs is probably more common than any other form, especially when there has been an injury to the lower part of the back, and there should be no difficulty in recognizing its hysterical character.

In the ordinary cases of injury, however, in which the patient is only jarred up slightly, there will usually be excessive nervousness, irritability, emotionalism, loss of sleep, anorexia, loss of memory, inability to concentrate or do work, and muscular fatigue. Examination will nearly always demonstrate a hemihypesthesia or anesthesia with increase of reflexes, and the usual hysterogenic zones of hysteria with tremor; and if there happens to be contusion or injury of a certian part, great tenderness of this area.

Clinical Course and Complications.—This, of course, depends upon the nature and severity of the injury and the influence of litigation. While, as has already been emphasized, most patients improve after their case is settled, there are very frequent exceptions to this rule.

General Paresis

Definition.—A clinical manifestation of cerebral-syphilis known under various terms, such as general paralysis of the insane, paresis, paralytic dementia, and "softening of the brain." It is a disease of the brain characterized by progressive diminution of the mental faculties terminating in total dementia and accompanied by progressive paralysis of different portions of the body.

Pathologically there is found a diminution in the size of the brain, with lessening of its weight, and atrophy or shrinking of the convolutions, especially in the frontal and to a less extent in the motor and sensory portions, with a widening of the intermediate fissures and thickening of the pia-arachnoid, often with adhesions to the underlying cortex. Microscopically there is a marked degeneration of the cortical cells, with infiltration of round cells, destruction of the nerve tissue, and thickening of the vessels, which is present in nearly all parts of the brain. Similar changes are often found in the spinal cord. Sometimes in the so-called tabetic form of paresis the disease involves equally the brain and cord, and for a long time the spinal cord symptoms predominate, but pathologically the process attacks equally both structures. Study of the spinal fluid is of clinical value in paresis, see pp. 1268 and 1287. Characteristic and constant of paretic neurosyphilis are perivascular plasmocytosis and lymphocytosis; granular ependymitis and parenchymatous atrophy and sclerosis.

Predisposing and Exciting Factors.—Previous infection by Spirochæa pallida is an essential etiologic factor. It is now generally conceded that the S. pallida itself—and not the virus of syphilis—is the exciting cause. A previous history of insanity or paresis in the parents or some neuropathic disease is found in about one-third of the cases. No better evidence of the importance of heredity in the production of this disease can be had than the fact that there is a type of paresis appearing in infants

known as the juvenile form. There is obtained in about 60 per cent. of the cases a previous history of syphilis, and it is the opinion of many that almost every case is due to that disease. However that may be, it is a fact that in certain countries in which syphilis is common, as in China, paresis is rare; so, besides the occurrence of syphilis, which is all-important, there must be some predisposition for the disease. Overwork, mental worry, alcoholic and other excesses are often given as causes.

Symptoms.—The disease occurs more often in men, and usually manifests itself about the thirty-fifth year. The symptoms are generally slow in onset, although rarely they may be ushered in with an epileptoid or hemiplegic attack. In the ordinary case there are present for many years such symptoms, which are usually recognized as neurasthenic, and it is important, therefore, to examine every neurasthenic for the physical symptoms of paresis. There is in most cases a slow change in disposition, and a person who had previously been living a moral life may now begin to live loosely and indulge in sexual, alcoholic, and other excesses. His habits gradually change, and he becomes more or less irritable, forgetful, and somewhat emotional. He may complain of headache, dizziness, and may have an indefinite sensation that there is something the matter with him, and may often have fits of depression; but, as a rule, most paretics, in contra-distinction to neurasthenics, do not dwell very much upon their own symptoms. This preliminary stage may last for a year or longer, constantly increases, and the patient becomes more or less irresponsible, does not attend to his business, and begins now to have certain physical symptoms.

These generally consist in a tremor in the hands, producing tremulous writing. Tremor is especially manifest in the muscles of the face, and can be demonstrated when closing the eyes or showing the teeth, being at first fine and becoming more marked as the muscular action is continued. The tremor not only involves the facial muscles, but also those which are concerned with speech, and gradually it is noticed that the patient has difficulty in pronunciation, and such test words as "truly rural," "fibrillary," "February," and "perspicacity" are slurred over and pronounced with difficulty. The pupils become irregular and their reactions to light and movement become gradually diminished and finally are lost, and there may be the so-called Argyll Robertson pupil. Temporary ocular palsies are not at all uncommon, the patient complaining of seeing double for two or three days or longer at a time, this disappearing and reappearing and sometimes becoming permanent. The reflexes generally become increased and irregular, and it is not at all infrequent to find one knee jerk more prompt than the other or lost. Ataxia sometimes is present in both the upper and lower limbs, and hearing is often interfered with, and there may occasionally be dizziness.

Coincident with these physical stigmata, the mental symptoms develop. These generally consist in a growing irresponsibility of the patient, who now has well-marked loss of memory for current and past events, may have no idea of time or space, and the whole mental attitude is one of general good nature, cheerfulness, and irresponsibility, the patient on questioning always saying that he is well, is not sick, and there is not much the matter with him. Delusions may develop very early, and are expansive in type, the patient in a well marked case claiming that he or she may be the richest person in the world, may possess untold strength, may be a deity, or may have any other idea of grandeur. These patients become very extravagant, buy things without any need for them, and will give away anything they possess and many things they do not.

As the disease progresses dementia gradually supervenes, until finally the patient is a hopeless dement. Coincidently the physical symptoms increase, the tremor becomes very marked, and the patient will become bedridden. They usually die from an apoplectic attack or uremia.

Blood Chemistry in the Insane.—Dide, Fages and Blauduin, in the study of 60 insane patients, found the following: Case of acquired cortical lesions show but slight departure from the normal sugar in both the blood and spinal fluid. At times there was an increase of blood sugar in presenile cases. In cyclic insanity the blood and spinal fluid sugar are normal during the quiet periods. During recovery there is a parallel rise in both the blood and spinal sugar. In the period preceding an attack there is apt to be a reduction of the blood sugar, which is co-incident with a rise in the spinal fluid sugar. The increase of sugar in the spinal fluid during an attack is but moderate. *Dementia præcox* often displays a reduction of the blood sugar, but at times, during the course of the disease, there is to be found hyperglycemia. The spinal sugar is usually increased, but does not bear any relation to the degree of blood sugar.

Differential Diagnosis.—This disease is considered here principally because in its early forms it may resemble neurasthenia. There is this difference, however, that while in paresis the patient will complain of indefinite headache, pains, insomnia, and all sorts of trouble, he will not, as a rule, discuss these as does the neurasthenic, and generally assumes an optimistic attitude. There may be in both a tremor of the facial muscles. In fact, in neurasthenia this is quite common, but in paresis the tremor may interfere with speech, which is not the rule in neurasthenia. In paresis there gradually develops such physical symptoms as irregularity of the pupil with diminution of the light reflexes, and either increased or diminished tendon reflexes. In neurasthenia these are not present. Lastly, in paresis there will gradually develop extensive delusions, which are never present in neurasthenia, and lumbar puncture will demonstrate the usual changes found in syphilitic disease, and the Wassermann reaction is positive.

General paralysis, epilepsy with dementia, and maniacal depressive types of insanity respond rather promptly to brain tissue, and less frequently to testicular and ovarian material when applied after the plan of Abderhalden. A positive reaction is to be expected with testicular and ovarian tissue in cases of dementia præcox. (See Testis, p. 1158.)

Abderhalden's Test.—Abderhalden's Biologic Test when introduced was applied strictly to the recognition of pregnancy. It is based upon the fact that foreign protein when injected into the system results in the production of definite biologic products in the serum of injected animals, and among these properties are to be found precipitins, agglutinins, and anaphylactogens. Adberhalden gave these injections subcutaneously, intraperitoneally, and intravenously. Following the injection there appears in the serum evidences that the animal system is protecting itself against the toxic effects of the non-hydrolyzed material. Substances which are negative to the animal system, but foreign to the blood may result from physiologic or pathologic changes in the system itself, and after the absorption into the blood produces a rather definite response. There is an optic method or reaction which has to do with the effect of certain substances upon polarized light; and while its application has not been applied in general to diagnosis, we believe the time is near when the principles of this method will be far-reaching, and probably of inestimable value.

MIGRAINE (SICK HEADACHE; HEMICRANIA)

Definition.—A disease characterized by paroxysmal attacks of headache, usually preceded by sensory irritation, especially ocular. and followed by nausea and vomiting.

Pathologically no cause has been found. There are two theories: one, that it is the result of intoxication, especially gastro-intestinal; the other, and the more probable, that it is a cortical disease similar in type to epilepsy.

Heredity plays an important rôle in the development of the disease, and most persons who suffer from it have a history of some organic or functional nervous disease in the parents. The symptoms nearly always develop either before the tenth year or at the time of puberty, and very rarely after the twenty-fifth year, and are such as would be obtained from cortical irritation. Taking these facts into consideration, it is probable that the disease is not an autointoxication in the sense that it is not an acquired disease, but that those who are migrainous have a congenital tendency for it, and that extraneous causes, such as gastro-intestinal or other forms of intoxication or irritation,bring on the attacks.

Some cases present many features which suggest strongly tnat they are dependent upon alimentary anaphylaxis (see p. 1107). Barlow has recently described a type of headache due to disease of the sphenopalatine ganglion.

Headaches located behind the ears, down the neck, spine, and even to the legs is believed, according to Bandler, to depend upon pituitary over-activity.

Symptoms.—The disease is slightly more common in the female sex. The development of the attacks is, as a rule, gradual. In the history of most patients they come on either before or at the time of puberty, and are characterized as sick headaches, and, as a rule, are not at first of great intensity. Gradually the attacks attain the typical characteristics of the disease. They may come on periodically, especially in women at the time of the monthly period, or may be brought about by different forms of irritation, such as mental worry, eye-strain, gastro-intestinal disturbances, or, in fact, any cause may bring on an attack.

The character and frequency of the attacks of course varies. As a rule, patients are aware of the onset, and there may be either a sense of exhilaration and well-being from a few hours to a day, or the patient may feel depressed, irritable, and sleepy. Occasionally there are no prodromal symptoms, the patient waking up in the morning with headache. In about one-third of the attacks there is a preliminary sense of irritation, which is nearly always ocular. This may vary from a sense of pain in the eye, photophobia, occasional flashes of light in the whole or part of the field to the zig-zag, round, or various shaped bright colored lights which are so characteristic of the attacks. These ocular irritative symptoms may be manifested in the whole or part of the visual fields, corresponding to a hemianopic distribution, and are sometimes followed by a typical homonymous hemianopsia which may last for several hours. Shutting the eyes does not stop them. They may last from a few to ten or fifteen minutes, and are succeeded by the headache.

Pain in the head may be first localized to one spot, generally the temple, and then rapidly spreads over one side of the head, and rarely to both. The headache is nearly always localized to the temporal area, but may be in the frontal or occipital regions. The scalp is generally tender to pressure, although there is no pain over the exit points of the fifth nerve. The headache may last from one to twenty-four or more

hours, but the ordinary pain lasts only for two or three hours. During its height the patient feels weak, exhausted, and prefers to be in a darkened room, because irritation or movement of any sort will increase the pain, although sometimes pressure over the head will cause a sense of relief.

Generally at the height of the headache nausea develops, the patient feeling sick in the stomach, with a tendency to vomit at first the contents of the stomach and then bile, the retching sometimes being distressing. Generally after the nausea and vomiting the headache is relieved, and the patient, after sleeping for some time, generally wakes up in a fairly good condition.

Sometimes instead of the usual ocular irritative phenomena there may be a tingling or numbness on one side of the face, neck, or upper or lower limb; in fact, it may resemble closely the so-called sensory central pains occurring as a result of parietal or other sensory lesions. More rarely there may be motor symptoms, such as drooping of one upper lid with diplopia and diminution of vision, sometimes called *ophthalmoplegic migraine*, or temporary weakness of an upper or lower limb, and, more rarely still, a temporary sensory or motor aphasia, all these symptoms indicating a possible cortical origin.

Rarely mental symptoms complicate the attacks. Because of the chronicity of the disease these patients acquire a so-called migrainous habit in which they learn to do or not to do certain things which have an influence upon the frequency of their attacks. Again, there may sometimes be, preceding or during an attack or following it, confusion, loss of memory, and a mental irritability, this varying greatly in different cases.

In a fair percentage of patients vasomotor symptoms may precede the headache or may accompany the sensory irritative phenomena. This may consist in either a unilateral or bilateral pallor of the skin, especially of the face and rarely of the extremities, followed by profuse sweating, or there is a flushing of the skin with marked throbbing of the vessels and rarely dilatation of the pupil. These vasomotor symptoms may last from a few minutes to an hour or longer.

Summary of Diagnosis.—Paroxysmal headache, usually preceded by sensory irritative phenomena, such as flashes of light, tingling of one side of the face or limbs, lasting from ten to twenty minutes, succeeded by headache generally starting in the temporal area and involving one or both sides of the head, which may last from one to twenty-four hours. At the height of the headache nausea, and vomiting, this usually relieving the headache. This is followed by sleep, the patient generally waking up in fairly good condition.

Clinical Course and Complications.—Most patients with an established migrainous habit have a tendency to recurring attacks, although in women after the menopause and in men after the fiftieth year there is a tendency to cessation. The occurrence of the disease has no influence upon the length of life. Treatment, of course, has a direct bearing upon the length and course of the disease.

BOTULISM

Definition.—A malady excited by the ingestion of vegetable and animal foods that have become contaminated by the B. Botulinus. Botulin (Botulismotoxin), is the toxin present in such foods.

Historic Note.—According to McCaskey, B. botulinus is of widespread distribution, and on account of the unusual symptomatology, and of the

absence of such discussion from ordinary text books, it is our judgment that many of the more mild forms of this condition escape recognition.

Jennings and Haas have described an outbreak in Detroit following the ingestion of ripe olives that had been preserved in jars, and these writers contend that among 40 outbreaks in the U. S. 150 cases have been reported with 97 deaths. Bitter records 3 outbreaks in Kiel University between June, 1918 and June, 1919, where eight of the persons affected died. Two of these cases resulted from eating pickled herring, and the others from the use of both pickled ham and herring. Between 1897 and 1913 there were 70 outbreaks in Germany with 302 cases and 51 deaths. In Prussia there were 41 outbreaks consisting of 198 cases and 17 deaths, prior to 1913. Among the cases developing in central Europe sausages, smoked meats, herring, and other fish were regarded as the variety of contaminated foods taken. The highest mortality record for any one outbreak in Continental Europe was 52 per cent.; the mortality rate varying between 10 and 50 per cent. in the total number of outbreaks.

Food Infection.—It is generally conceded that the majority of cases of food infection are due to the bacillus of Gärtner (B. enteritidis) which is taken as the type for a group of closely allied organs. Cases of true food infection have been uncommon in the United States, but are more frequently observed in Continental Europe and still less often in the British Islands. Dickson* has contributed to the subject of bacterial food infections.

Gärtner bacillus (B. enteritidis) is the type of organism lying midway between the colon bacillus and the typhoid bacillus. Gärtner bacillus is commonly referred to as the intermediate group, hog cholera group, paratyphoid group, and the Salmonella group.

Gärtner in 1888 brought forth the first definite evidence of food poisoning as a result of this group of organisms, and while there appears to be no question as to the causal power of these bacteria in food infection, there remains some difference of opinion regarding the various intermediate organisms by bacteriologists.

Gärtner's first report at Frankenhausen considered the study of fifty-seven individuals who became infected after eating the flesh of a cow that had been slaughtered as the result of enteritis. In this report Gärtner recovered the bacilli from the flesh of the cow and from the spleen of one victim.

SUMMARY OF DIAGNOSIS

It is commonly possible to trace this condition to the taking of infected foods (meats), but such foods need not of necessity, be decomposed. The onset in ordinary cases is mild, often brief and followed by recovery.

The symptoms of food infection are essentially those of acute gastro-intestinal irritation: *e. g.*, nausea, vomiting, abdominal pain and diarrhea. The symptoms appear abruptly in severe cases and are ushered in by a chill, intense headache and abdominal discomfort. Pain may be present without other symptoms.

Muscular weakness is always present, as are also thirst, and a temperature ranging between 100 and 103 degrees. The nervous symptoms are muscular twitching, nervous headache, restlessness, vertigo, and at times mental dullness. Oliguria is frequently present.

Isolation of the infecting organisms from the suspected foods and also recovery of the same organisms from the blood, urine and feces of patients

* Billings-Forchheimer's Therapeusis of Int. Dis., Vol. II, pp. 408–420.

ill of the disease serve as positive clinical factors. Agglutination simulating the Widal reaction in typhoid fever has been found in from six to ten days after the first symptoms.

Microscopic examination of tainted foods, *e. g.*, canned olives, beets, asparagus, meats, sausages, etc., will reveal the presence of the B. botulinus.

Cultures of the organism are killed when heated at 15 pounds pressure for 15 minutes. It is of clinical importance to know the foods and organism subjected to 68° C. for 30 minutes are rendered appreciably less harmful, and the toxin is destroyed at a point between 70 and 73° C. when heat is continued for 10 minutes. Light does not materially interfere with the activity of the virus. Nicholson and Cowdry* have described the histology of the nervous system, and Coleman† the action of leukocytes and brain tissues in botulism.

Differential Diagnosis.—The history serves as an important differential point in many cases; although among persons whose custom it is to eat at different restaurants and hotels it is often difficult, and practically impossible, to ascertain the source from which contaminated foods were taken. Botulism is to be distinguished from epidemic encephalitis (sleeping sickness) where double vision is also an early symptom. The table on p. 1362 will serve to distinguish botulism from encephalitis. The placing of foods in a low temperature does not diminish the danger of such foods should the B. botulinus be present.

In view of the above statements the proper canning of foods depends entirely upon the rejection of all decomposed and dirt bearing particles, and adequate heat. Fruit that has become spoiled should never be used for human consumption.

Clinical Consideration.—The clinical picture varies according to the severity of the case in question, consequently severe cases may terminate fatally within a few hours from apparent strangling; while more mild forms live for several days, and may go on through a protracted convalescence to recovery. There is paralysis of the muscles of deglutition early, with suffusion of the face, ptosis, dilatation of pupils, which do not react to light or to accommodation, and double vision. Later there is paralysis of the throat muscles, and interference with speech. The mental state is usually undisturbed. Mucus accumulates in the throat.

There is slight headache, and a feeling of pressure in the epigastrium. Nausea and vomiting may be present and are apt to be aggravated by exercise, and accompanied by some pain. The gait is staggering, and there is an unusual anxious expression. The pulse is at first slow, strong, and full, becoming weak late in the disease. The respiratory rate is slow early. Cyanosis and respiratory failure develop late and their onset is sudden, and seldom antedated by rapid respirations. Paralysis of the sphincter ani occurs late. The temperature may be normal or sub-normal. Restlessness is an early feature, and the patients will be found throwing themselves from side to side. Randell has called attention to early hysterical outbreaks. A barking cough is rarely present.

The voluntary muscles of the body become weakened and partially paralyzed before a fatal termination. During the last 24 hours the cervical muscles show weakening and may become paralyzed. Randell‡ sites three instances where children ate only a small portion of the contaminated food, and in these prostration persisted for at least 10 days.

* Jour. Expm. Med., 39; 827, June, 1924.
† Jour. Infec. Dis., 34; 614, June, 1924.
‡ Jour. Am. Med. Assoc., July 3, 1920.

Botulism	Acute Epidemic Encephalitis
1. Suffusion of the face at onset.	1. Face glared and covered by perspiration.
2. Double vision an early complaint.	2. Diplopia the rule.
3. Symptoms develop rather suddenly with vertigo.	3. Prodromals common.
4. Tainted foods, and receptacles positive for B. botulinus. Many who ate such food are affected.	4. Negative.
5. Difficulty in swallowing, and throat discomfort without definite pain.	5. Only in bulbar type.
6. Dryness of the mucous membrane of the mouth, pharynx, and larynx, early.	6. Absent unless bulbar paralysis is present.
7. Palpation beneath the jaw detects relaxation of muscles.	7. Absent.
8. Extreme dilatation of the pupils which do not react to light or accommodation.	8. All clinical types of pupils are found.
9. Spinal fluid findings not characteristic; but increase of cells and globulin sometimes found. Sugar is not increased.	9. Pleocytosis, increase of globulin, hyperglycorrhachia, colloidal curve often changed in higher and medium dilutions.
10. Ptosis develops early.	10. Same.
11. Paralysis persists over a period of from four to eight months.	11. Paralysis of shorter duration. (Several weeks.)
12. Congestion of the optic nerve, and narrowing of the field of vision late during convalescence.	12. Congestion of optic nerve found early, choke disc occasionally present.*
13. Temperature normal or subnormal as a rule.	13. Temperature 100 to 103° F.

Pellagra

Definition.—A disease characterized by gastro-intestinal and cerebro-spinal irritation, with skin eruptions on the exposed parts of the body, especially over the extensor surfaces of the hands, accompanied by prostration.

Contributing and Exciting Factors.—A number of theories have been advanced advocating the infectious character of pellagra, but thus far food deficiency appears to be a necessary factor. Probizer reports that during the World war there were no cases of pellagra in Trentino, and he attributes this to the fact that they were totally unable to procure maize for food during this period.

The accompanying table taken from McNeil's article,† sets forth the mortality rate as shown at different decades.

Decade	20–29	30–29	40–49	50–59	60–69	70–79	80–89	Total
White women	4.6	9.8	14.9	31.8	47.6	33.3	.....	11.9
White men	16.7	20.0	15.9	24.5	21.7	37.5	100.0*	21.2
Negro women	31.0	43.3	63.3	40.0	66.7	....	0.0*	40.2
Negro men	33.3	50.0	0.0	50.0	71.4	....	100.0*	50.2

* Only one case in each instance.

* Wm. G. Spiller, High Grade Choked Discs in Epidemic Encephalitis. Jour. Am. Med. Assoc., 80; 1843–44, June, 23, 1923.

† Amer. Jour. Med. Sci., April, 1921.

Symptoms.—The onset varies considerably, but in a well established case there are present gastro-intestinal, skin, and cerebrospinal symptoms

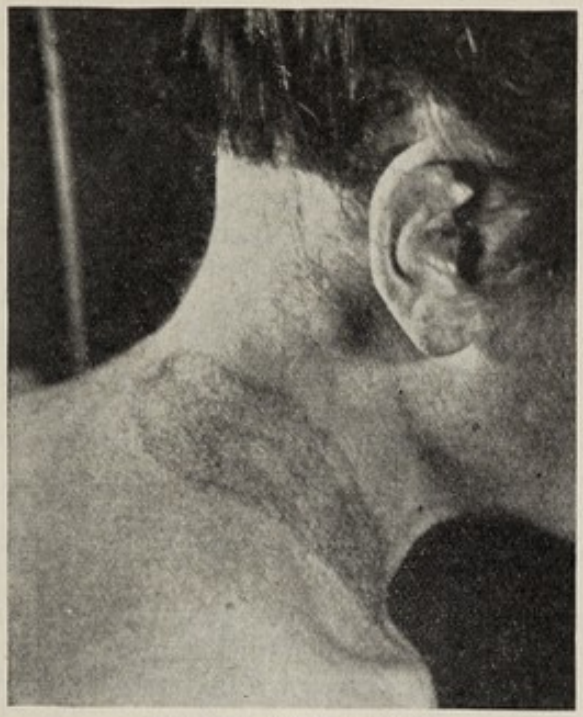


FIG. 527.—PELLAGRA.

Same as Fig. 528, the view showing extent of necklace—of pigmentation beneath the ear and back of the neck (Boston and Ching*).

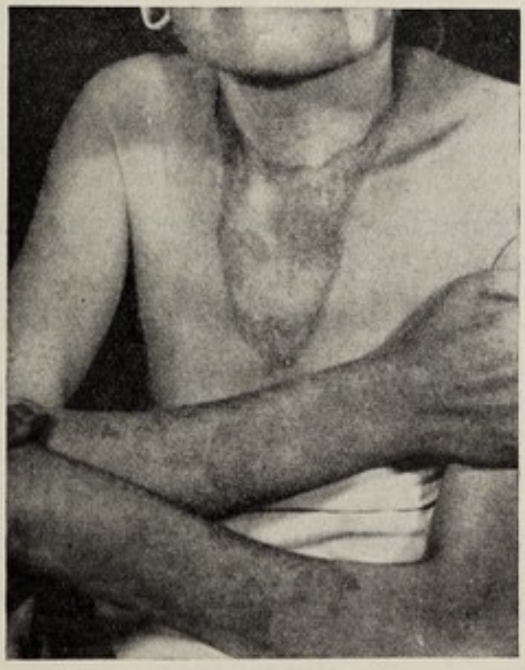


FIG. 528.—CASE OF PELLAGRA.

Treated by one of us (Boston) during 1922, female age thirty years, note the necklace like distribution of pigmentation; also pigmentation of the hands and forearms, both of which stand out in striking contrast with the adjacent skin (Boston and Ching).

("three D's, diarrhea, dematitis and dementia"), these will be described separately, although it is to be understood that they may appear at the same time.

* Medical Times, New York, Sept., 1923, Vol. 51, p. 214.

Gastro-intestinal Symptoms.—These usually consist in stomatitis, gastric distress and pain, vomiting, and especially diarrhea. Colitis appears early in the disease and be intense. The stools may contain mucous or blood. Ulcers in the mouth are very common.

The sulfocyanates contained in the saliva is diminished during the active stage. It returns to the normal when the patient is improving or restoring to health.

Natural Immunity.—Pregnant women display a moderate grade of immunity, and when such subjects contract pellegra it runs a mild course. Following childbirth women are liable to contract the disease.

Dermatitis.—Skin symptoms, as a rule, come on in the early spring, and are generally manifest over the exposed parts of the body, especially over the extensor surface of the hands and forearm as far as the elbow. They are less common over the face, and rarely present over the dorsum of the feet and chest. They are usually ushered in by blebs containing gelatinous fluid, which burst and form a crust, underneath which a raw surface appears. The eruption may be dry or wet and has a tendency to fade gradually and disappear and, as a rule, reappear the following spring. Instead of the eruptions there may be only an erythematous condition of the skin of varying intensity.

Nervous Symptoms.—These vary. It is not at all uncommon for pellagra to be ushered in with general neurasthenic symptoms. There may be fibrillary and coarse tremors in various parts of the body, weakness of the limbs, and generally increase of reflexes. The mental symptoms vary; the patient may be depressed, refusing to eat and drink, and again may be noisy and maniacal. As a rule, there is present a dull apathetic condition. Chronic delirium or pellagrous mania has been described. In Italian countries pellagrous insanity is quite common, and may be of different clinical types.

General Symptoms.—Fever is uncommon. Examination of the blood has shown a diminished amount of hemoglobin, and often changes which are common in pernicious anemia. Serum diagnosis so far has been negative.

Summary of Diagnosis.—A disease occurring mostly in damp or tropical countries and among people who eat corn, the symptoms consisting of eruptions and pigmentation on the extensor surface of the hand and exposed parts of the body, accompanied by gastro-intestinal irritation and cerebrospinal symptoms.

Differential Diagnosis.—There should be no difficulty in diagnosing this disease, the presence of the skin eruption over the extensor surface of the hands and exposed parts of the body being the most important diagnostic symptom.

Clinical Course and Complications.—The disease has a tendency to become chronic, and recurrences are frequent. The mortality is variously estimated in different countries, and may be as high as 50 per cent.

ACRODYNIA

A condition described clinically by increased sensitiveness of the hands and feet, followed by an erythematous eruption, and later pigmentation. The view quite generally accepted is that this condition results from food deficiency.

This condition should probably be regarded as a symptom, or chain of symptoms, which may be associated with various acute infections. Weston* reports eight cases, all of which began by malaise, restlessness,

* Arch. Ped., Sept., 1920.

and loss of appetite. Some of the cases display acute symptoms referable to the upper respiratory system; while others have catarrah of the gastro-intestinal tract. Gradual loss in weight and diminished reflexes are the rule. Among the cutaneous symptoms profuse perspiration, paroxysmal attacks of itching, sensitiveness of the soles and palms, with slight lesions of the skin are common features. In all instances the hands and feet are cold, clammy, tender, and even painful to the touch. They may be a bluish-red, or cyanotic in color. Conjunctivitis and photophobia are occasional symptoms. Stomatitis is present, and in children there are small areas of necrosis about the erupting teeth. Weston reports two cases where extensive necrosis of the gums and alveolar processes involved both the superior and inferior jaws.

Thermic Features.—The temperature seldom exceeds 102° in uncomplicated cases.

Serum Sickness

A condition arising from the use of serum, independent of whether the serum is administered subcutaneously, intramuscularly, intravenously, or into the spinal canal. The frequency with which serum sickness follows the use of serum depends upon the variety and quantity of serum given, and the individual idiosyncrasy of the patient. It has been claimed that the American Indian is less susceptible to serum disease than is the white man. Immune ox serum caused a less profound reaction than horse serum. In diphtheria from twenty-five to fifty per cent. of all cases show evidences of serum sickness after diphtheria antitoxin.

Clinical Features.—A cutaneous eruption commonly follows the administration of diphtheria antitoxin, and other sera, and is—as a rule—in the form of all urticaria. The eruption appears within seven to eight days following the administration of antitoxin, and persists from two to five days. A second rash may appear, and is often of the erythematous type. The eruption may be accompanied by joint pains, and after the administration of pneumococcic serum, there may be an exudate, and actual inflammation of the joints. Cervical adenitis is by no means uncommon. The mucous membrane of the throat may become sore, independent of what type of serum has been injected. Laryngeal symptoms are occasionally present.

Among the intestinal phenomena should be mentioned diarrhea, and abdomen pains. Cardiovascular disturbance, arrhythmia, tachycardia and hypotension, may follow the use of serum. Polyneuritis occasionally follows the use of large doses of serum, and serum neuritis has been reported from practically every country. Eosinophilia develops after serum treatment.

Radiation Sickness

A condition following treatment by means of the *x*-ray, or after the use of radium. The patient complains of one or more of the following symptoms:

(1) Gustatory and olfactory disturbances may be experienced while the patient is receiving the treatment; such as taste or odor of gasoline, oils, etc., and this may persist for a period of hours—or even days. The olfactory disturbance is especially annoying when the patient inhales pungent or unpleasant odors.

(2) The patient experiences a series of chilly sensations, or a pronounced rigor.

(3) Within two to six hours (ordinarily three hours) after treatment, nausea and gastric disturbances are experienced, and often progresses to violent vomiting. (The nausea is apparently prevented where the water intake is large.) Exercise increases the gastro-intestinal annoyances, and all forms of food are repulsive.

(4) There is an intense aching through the head, and in the region of the eyes. The abdominal muscles become sore to the touch, while the muscles about the chest, and other portions of the body, are tender upon firm pressure.

(5) Immediately after treatment, selected cases notice an increase in the flow of saliva, and the desire to expectorate continuously. Later there is—as a rule—obstinate constipation.

(6) Cardio-vascular symptoms appear to depend upon the degree of sickness. In some cases the pulse becomes slow, while in others, it is weak, rapid and compressible. Vertigo is an initial symptom, suggesting cardio-vascular disturbance.

(7) In two of our cases a false membrane appeared in the throat, following treatment of the thyroid. In both of these cases, the temperature fluctuated between 99 and 101 degrees.

It is the rule for all evidences of radiation sickness to abate gradually after the third day, and for the patient to return to normal by the end of the fifth day.

INDEX

Abderhalden's biologic test, 1357
ferment test for goiter, 1097
sero diagnosis reaction, 393
Abdomen, contraction method in examination, 481
depressed, 479
diseases of, history taking, 475
distention of, 477
enlargement of, 481
in rickets, 1074
examination of, 472
hernial protrusion of, 478
in peritonitis, 615, 616
inspection, 477
landmarks of, 474
movable mass in, 496
movements of, 479
pain in, 475. See also *Pain, abdominal.*
prominence of, 481
quadrants of, 472
regions of, 472
viscera in, 475
scaphoid, 479
size of, 480
skin of, 479
spasms of, 1332
topography of, 472
veins of, diagnostic value, 481
wall of, atrophy of, 478
increased resistance of, 497
thickness, 478, 479
Abdominal aorta, aneurism of, 351
contraction method in diagnosis, 481
pain, localized, 476
reflex, 1172
rheumatism, 996
wounds, blood-pressure in, 221
Abducens nerve, 1196
Abortive coma, 1069
pneumonias, 830
Abscess, amebic, 139
of liver, 1050
of lung, 1056
hepatic, 651
after scalp wounds, 652
carcinoma and, differentiation, 654
complicating amebic dysentery, 1033
chills in, 652
cirrhosis and, differentiation, 645
climate in etiology of, 652
colic and, differentiation, 654
echinococcus cyst and, differentiation, 654
fever in, 654
focal infection in, 652
from dysentery, 652
from gall-bladder diseases, 652
from gastric ulcer, 652
Abscess, hepatic, gastro-intestinal tract in, 652
hepatic carcinoma and, differentiation, 649
in cholelithiasis, 678
malaria and, differentiation, 654
pain in, 652
pre-existing foci of infection in, 652
pulmonary symptoms in, 653
pulse in, 653
hepatopulmonary, complicating amebic dysentery, 1033
in endocarditis, 285
intermittent fever and, differentiation, 1017
localized, heart disease and, 178
of brain, 1234
of lung, 129. See also *Pulmonary abscess.*
of mediastinum, 352
perinephritic, 755
appendicitis and, differentiation, 604
course, 760
differential diagnosis, 760
laboratory diagnosis, 759
pain in, 757
palpation in, 759
physical signs, 758
pyelitis and, differentiation, 747
secondary, 757
suprarenal growths and, differentiation, 747
typhlitis with colonic impaction and, differentiation, 747
peritonsillar, 780
pulmonary, sputum in, 88
retropharyngeal, 457
aneurism and, differentiation, 457
subdiaphragmatic, 619. See also *Peritonitis, subphrenic.*
Acclimation fever, 824
Acetic acid and potassium ferrocyanid test for albuminuria, 702
concentration method in detection of leprosy, 896
in estivo-autumnal fever, 1019
in filariasis, 1027
test for, 520
Acetone in gastric contents, 521
in urine, 712
Acetonuria, 712
diabetic, 713
febrile, 713
Achilles jerk, 1171
tendon, neuralgia of, 1318
Achillodynia, 1318
Achlorhydria, 517
Achylia, 517

Acid, uric, in blood, 372
Acidity of gastric contents, 513
Acidosis, diabetic, 1071
Acids, fatty, in sputum, 90
Acrocyanosis, 1319
Acrodynia, 1364
Acromegaly, 1124
  eunuchoid, 1162
Acroparesthesia, 1318
Actinomyces bovis, 976
  in lungs, 138
Actinomycosis, 975
  of thorax, bronchiectasis and, differentiation, 107
  pulmonary, 138
    carcinoma and, differentiation, 978
    echinococcus cyst and, differentiation, 978
    sputum in diagnosis, 977
    syphilis and, differentiation, 978
    tuberculosis and, differentiation, 875, 977, 978
  sputum in diagnosis, 85
Acute infectious diseases, 773
Addison's disease, 1155
    differential diagnosis, 1157
Adenitis, cervical, tuberculous, 879
      pseudoleukemia and, differentiation, 880
Adenoid diphtheria, 929
Adenoma of brain, 1220
Adherent pericarditis with ascites, 668
Adhesions, pleural, *x*-ray diagnosis, 77
  pleuritic, limiting movements of diaphragm, 79
Adhesive pleurisy, 164
Adiposis dolorosa, 1093, 1116
  tuberosa simplex, 1115
Adiposity, endocrine, 1136
  localized, 1116
Adrenal cortex, tumor of, 1159
Adrenals in diabetes mellitus, 1065
Adults, scorbutus of, 439
Agglutination, 376
  reactions, 381
Agglutinins, 376
Agglutiniphore group, 377
Air bubble clotting test, 359
  in pericardium, 279
  passages, foreign bodies in, 116
Alastrim, 962
  variola and, differentiation, 962
Albumin in urine, 699. See also *Albuminuria.*
  soluble, in gastric contents, Wolff-Junghans test for, 520
Albuminous sputum, 80, 83
Albuminuria, 699
  acetic acid and potassium ferrocyanid test for, 702
  alimentary, 700, 701
  Boston's pipet test for, 702
  cyclic, 700
  Esbach's quantitative test, 703
  extrarenal causes, 701
  frequency, 703
  heat and nitric acid test for, 702
Albuminuria, Heller's test for, 702
  in diphtheria, 934
  in pyelitis, 746
  intermittent, 700
  in variola, 960
  of Bence-Jones, blood-pressure in, 214
  orthostatic, 700
    blood-pressure in, 214
  parasitic, 701
  pipet test for, 702
  postural, 700
  prostatic, 701
  remittent, 700
  renal, 699
  tests for, 702
  toxic, 700
  traumatic, 701
Albumosuria, Bence-Jones, 1075
Alcohol in etiology of atrophic cirrhosis, 664
Alcoholic multiple neuritis, 1311
Alcoholics, aortic regurgitation in, 292
Aleukemic leukemia, 429
Alexander's method of percussion, 61
Alimentary albuminuria, 701
  anaphylaxis, 100
    in dysentery, 791
  glycosuria, 709, 1062
Alkalinity of peripheral blood, 370
Allergic reactions, 378
    in tuberculosis, 378
Allergin, 1320
Allergy, 378
  food, 1320
  serum, 1320
Allochiria, 1181
Allotriophagia, 484
Aloin-turpentine test for blood in feces, 566
Alternating pulse, 201
Altitude, blood-pressure and, 213
Amaurotic family idiocy, 1093
Ambard quotient in estimation of renal function, 728
Amboceptor, 376
Amebic abscess of lung, 139, 1056
  dysentery, 1031. See also *Dysentery, amebic.*
Amenorrhea in pituitary disease, 1138
American standard hemocytometer, 368
Ammonia in blood, 374
Amœba coli in sputum, 85
Amphoric resonance, 63
  tinkle, 75
Amylase, 1143
Amyloid disease, 737
    leukemia and, differentiation, 420
    of intestine, 598
    of kidney, blood-pressure in, 215
    of liver, 657
      fatty infiltration and, differentiation, 657
  kidney, nephritis and, differentiation, 729
Amylopsin, qualitative tests for, 578
Amyotonia congenita, 1339
Amyotrophic lateral sclerosis, 1252

Anæmia infantum, 430
lymphatic leukemia and, differentiation, 431
myeloid leukemia and, differentiation, 431
sarcoma of kidney and, differentiation, 431
Anaphylactic bronchitis, 93
Anaphylactoid purpura, 438
Anaphylaxis, 378, 1320
alimentary, 100
in dysentery, 791
Ander's disease, 1115
Anemia, 400
addisonian, 424
aplastic, 425
hemolytic, 415
idiopathic, 411. See also *Anemia, progressive pernicious.*
in diphtheria, 934
in rickets, 1074
normoblastic shower in, 401
of malnutrition, lymphatic leukemia and, differentiation, 422
parasitic, 405
progressive pernicious anemia and, differentiation, 415
pernicious, 424
ankylostomiasis and, differentiation, 1047
splenic and, differentiation, 433
primary, 400
progressive pernicious, 411
bowel contents in, 414
differential diagnosis, 415
gastric atrophy and, differentiation, 415
carcinoma and, differentiation, 415
mineral poisoning and, differentiation, 415
parasitic anemia and, differentiation, 415
pyorrhea in, 412
varieties, 411
secondary, 400, 414, 424
albumin elimination in, 405
erythrocytes in, 406
hemoglobin in, 406
hemorrhage in, 405
idiopathic and, differentiation, 408
inanition in, 405
in peritoneal tuberculosis, 624
leukocytes in, 407, 408
pyorrhea in, 404
stained blood in, 407
toxic agents causing, 405
sickle cell, 431
splenic, 432, 689
Banti's disease and, differentiation, 433
leukemia and, differentiation, 420
malaria and, differentiation, 433
myeloid leukemia and, differentiation, 433
pernicious anemia and, differentiation, 433
Anemia, splenic, pseudoleukemia and, differentiation, 429, 433
with splenomegaly, leukemia and, differentiation, 420
Anesthesia, blood-pressure and, 220, 221
polycythemia from, 403
Aneurism, 342
arteriovenous, 342, 352
cardiac, 332
circumscribed saccular, 342
cirsoid, 342
cylindroid, 342
dilatation, 342
dissecting, 342
empyema and, differentiation, 168
erosion, 342
false, 342
from arteriosclerosis, 343
from sudden strain, 343
fusiform, 342
heart position in, 263
multiple, 347
mycotic, 343
of abdominal aorta, 352
of ascending portion of arch, 346
of descending portion of arch, 344
of innominate artery, 346
of pulmonary artery, 352
of transverse portion of aorta, 344, 347
pain due to, 178
parasitic, 342
pupillary reactions in, 343
retropharyngeal abscess and, differentiation, 457
spontaneum, 342
syphilis in, 343
thoracic, 50, 343, 344. See also *Thoracic aneurism.*
traction, 342
true, 342
varicose, 342
verum, 342
Wassermann reaction in, 350
with physical signs, 342
with symptoms, 342
x-ray diagnosis, 264
Aneurisma aortæ, 344
Aneurismal varix, 342
Angeborene idiot, 1091
Angina abdominalis, 635
dolore, 334
gangrenous, complicating scarlet fever, 922
ludovici, 457
maligna, 925
mesenteric, 635
pectoris, 333
blood-pressure in, 215
gastralgia and, differentiation, 335
locomotor ataxia and, differentiation, 335
pain due to, 179
pseudo, 334
pseudo-angina and, differentiation, 335
true, 333
pseudomembranous, complicating scarlet fever, 922

Angina, streptococcus, diphtheria and, differentiation, 931
ulcerative stomatitis with, 450
vasomotoria, 334
Vincent's, 450
without intense pain, 334
Angioneurotic diseases, 1320
edema, 1320
Angiosclerosis, 338
Angle, epigastric, 43
Anidrosis, 695
Animal parasites, intestinal, 1031
of liver, 1048
of muscles, 1051
parasitic diseases, 1013
Aniscoria, 1176
Anisocytosis, 401
Ankle clonus, 1171
Ankylostoma duodenale, 1045
Ankylostomiasis, 1045
leukemia and, differentiation, 1047
pernicious anemia and, differentiation, 1047
plumbism and, differentiation, 1047
Anorexia, 483
Anosmia, 1193
Anthracosis, 122, 123
sputum in, 89
x-ray diagnosis, 78
Anthrax, 970
internal, 971
Antigen, 375, 1320
Aorta, abdominal, aneurism of, 351
arch of, dilatation of, blood-pressure in, 216
thoracic, aneurism of, 344
tortuosity of, *x*-ray diagnosis of, 265
Aortic disease, pain due to, 178
incompetency, 291
insufficiency, 291
blood-pressure in, 215
regurgitation, 291
arm and leg pressure in, 295, 298
auscultation in, 296
auscultatory percussion in, 296
blood-pressure in, 215
cor bovinum in, 291
Corrigan pulse in, 295
cutaneous manifestations in, 294
differential diagnosis, 298
flint murmur in, 297
from aneurism, 292
from chemic irritants, 292
from endarteritis, 292
from endocarditis, 292
from increased arterial tension, 292
from infectious processes, 292
hypertrophy in, 291
in alcoholics, 292
in lead workers, 292
inspection in, 293
mechanic influence of lesion, 291
murmurs in, 296
ophthalmoscopic examination in, 294
palpation in, 294
percussion in, 295
pistol-shot murmur in, 296
pulse in, 294
Aortic regurgitation, Quincke's pulse in, 294
sphygmographic tracing in, 297
stenosis and, differentiation, 298, 302, 313
thoracic aneurism and, differentiation, 350
Traube's sign in, 296
water-hammer pulse in, 295
stenosis, 298
Bright's disease and, differentiation, 302
calcareous deposits and, differentiation, 301
from rheumatic endocarditis, 299
from sclerosis, 299
mechanic influence of lesions, 299
murmurs, hemic murmurs and, differentiation, 302
murmurs in, 300, 301, 302
pulmonary and, differentiation, 319
pulse in, 300
regurgitation and, differentiation, 298, 302
sphygmographic tracing in, 301
Aortitis, acute, 337
syphilis in, 337
chronic, 337
Apex impulse, rhythm of,192
Apex-beat, 191
displacement, 191
double, 192
forcible, 192
in disease, 191
in infancy, 191
systolic recession, 192
Aphasia, 1185
motor, 1186
in apoplexy, 1212
sensory, 1186
Aphthæ, thrush and, differentiation, 982
Aphthous fever, 1004
stomatitis, 448
Aplastic anemia, 425
Apoplexy, 1149, 1209
aphasia in, 1210
contractures in, 1211
encephalitis in, 1210
motor aphasia in, 1212
pseudo-bulbar paralysis in, 1212
pulmonary, 124
vomiting of, 490
Appendicitis, 598
acute, 599, 600
cholecystitis and, differentiation, 604
diarrhea in, 601
Dietl's crises and, differentiation, 604
indigestion and, 603
intestinal obstruction and, differentiation, 605
leukocytosis in, 602
McBurney's point in, 600, 602
neurasthenia and, differentiation, 605
ovaritis and, differentiation, 604
pain in, 600
pancreatitis and, differentiation, 604
perinephritic abscess and, differentiation, 604

Appendicitis, acute, peritonitis and, differentiation, 604
pyosalpinx and, differentiation, 604
tenderness in, 602
tongue in, 601
tuberculous peritonitis and, differentiation, 604
catarrhal, 599
cholelithiasis and, differentiation, 678
chronic, 599, 605
carcinoma of cecum and, differentiation, 605
tuberculosis of cecum and, differentiation, 605
extra-uterine pregnancy and, differentiation, 603
focal infection in, 599
hepatic colic and, differentiation, 603
interstitial, 599
obliterative, 599
parietal, 599
perforating, 599
recurrent, 599, 606
renal colic and, differentiation, 603
serofibrinous pleurisy and, differentiation, 160
ulcerative, 599
Appetite in gastric diseases, 484
perverted, 484
Arachidic bronchitis, 119
Arborization block, 251
Argyll-Robertson pupil, 1173
in tabes dorsalis, 1266
Arrhythmia, 180
cardiac, and electrocardiography, 227
juvenile, 234
Arrhythmic dyspnea in heart disease, 181
Arsenical neuritis, 1313
Arterial disease, symptoms referable to, in heart disease, 183
pulsation, abnormal, 180
sclerosis, 338
aneurism from, 343
cerebral, 338
peripheral, 339
pulmonary, 339
renal, 338
x-ray diagnosis, 340
tonus, blood-pressure and, 203
Arteries, coronary thrombosis of, 332
diseases of, 337
syphilis of, 893
Arteriocapillary fibrosis, 338
Arteriosclerosis, 338
blood-pressure in, 215
x-ray in diagnosis, 265
Arteriovenous aneurism, 342, 352
Artery, pulmonary, aneurism of, 352
Arthritic purpura, 435
Arthritis, acute articular rheumatism and, differentiation, 992
chronic, blood-pressure in, 215
deformans, 1322
dysentery in, 1325
Heberden's nodes in, 1324
low sugar tolerance in, 1322
myositis in, 1322
periarthritis in, 1322
Arthritis deformans, pyorrhea as cause, 1322
senile form, 1324
spondylitis in, 1322
Strümpell-Marie type, 1325
vertebral form, 1324
von Bechterew type, 1325
glycosuria of, 710
gonorrheal, 993, 1324
acute articular rheumatism and, differentiation, 993
blood-picture in, 994
polyarthritis in, 994
transitory, 994
tuberculous and, differentiation, 995
in meningitis, 899
intermittent glycosuria of, 1063
rheumatoid, 1322
tuberculous, 878
gonorrheal and, differentiation, 995
Ascarides in sputum, 85
Ascaris in bladder, 1054
infection by rodents, 1042
lumbricoides, 1042
Ascites, 627
caput medusæ in, 629
causes, 627
chylous, 628, 630
flatness in, 629
gastric dilatation and, differentiation, 558
intestinal obstruction and, differentiation, 590
ovarian cyst and, differentiation, 631
overdistended bladder and, differentiation, 631
polyhydramnios and, differentiation, 631
purulent, 628
sanguineous, 628
serous, 628
true, 628
tympanites and, differentiation, 631
with adherent pericarditis, 668
Asiatic cholera, 792. See also *Cholera, Asiatic.*
Aspergillosis of lungs, 138, 982
sputum in diagnosis, 85
Aspergillus fumigatus in urine, 762
Associated ocular movement, paralysis of, 1190
Association fibers of brain, 1166
Asthenia, endocrine, 1344
hypophyseal, 1134
Asthenic bulbar palsy, 1241
Asthma, 100
bronchial, 100
sputum in, 88
bronchitis and, 100
chronic, *x*-ray diagnosis, 76
emphysema and, differentiation, 104
gastric, 100
hay, 1006
irritants as cause, 100
laryngeal affections and, differentiation, 104
miner's, 123
reflex, 100

Asthma, secondary, 100
thymic, 1104
uremic, 733
Asthmatic wheeze in foreign bodies in bronchi, 120
Ataxia, 1180
Friedreich's, 1259
gastric crises of, gastralgia and, differentiation, 532
hereditary cerebellar, 1261
in tabes dorsalis, 1265
Ataxic multiple neuritis, 1312
paraplegia, 1258
Atelectasis, pulmonary, 128
Ateliosis, 1132
Atheroma, 338
Athetosis, 1202
Atomic dyspepsia, 529
gastrectasis, 506
Atony, gastric, 529. See also *Dilatation, gastric.*
Atrophy, muscular, distal, 1299
peroneal, 1299
optic, 1194
progressive muscular, 1250
spinal muscular, 1250
yellow, hepatic, 668
hypertrophic cirrhosis and, differentiation, 669
phosphorus-poisoning and, differentiation, 662
Atropin test in meningitis, 1293
in typhoid fever, 806
Auditory nerve, 1199
Auricular extrasystoles, 240
fibrillation, 234
and flutter, physiological mechanism of, 238
blood-pressure in, 215
quinidin in, 239
flutter, 237
and fibrillation, physiological mechanism of, 238
hypertrophy, 323
electrocardiogram in, 230
paroxysmal tachycardia, 242
Auricular-ventricular heart block, 248
causes, 250
node, rhythms arising in, 245
Auscultation, stethoscopic, 66
transdigital, 67
Auscultatory percussion, 60
Autumnal catarrh, 1006
bronchitis in, 93
foreign protein reaction in, 1007
tests for, 1007
Axillary pulsation, 194

Babinski reflex, 1172, 1245
Bacillus edematis maligni, 797
Friedlander's, 838
of Shiga in feces, 569
of Vincent, 451
perfringens in typhoid fever, 796
satillitis in typhoid fever, 796
sporogenes, 797
tuberculosis, 851
typhi-exanthematici, 814
Bacillus typhosus, 796
Bacteria in blood, detection of, 443
in feces, 569
in sputum, 86
microscopic study of, 86
Bacteriolytic reactions, 386
Bacterium tularense, 1001
whitmori, 842
Bacteriuria, 762
Balantidium coli, 1034
in sputum, 85
Banti's disease, 684
pseudoleukemia and, differentiation 429
splenic anemia and, differentiation, 433
Bäräny tests for vestibular reactions, 1223
Basal metabolism, endocrines influencing, 1085
in disease, 1080
preparation of patient for obtaining, 1082
Basedow's disease, 1093. See also *Goiter.*
Basophilic degeneration, 401
Bedside observations, 30
Beef tapeworm, 1035
Bell tympany, 63
in pneumothorax, 172
Bell's palsy, 1198
Bence-Jones albuminuria, blood-pressure in, 214
albumosuria, 1075
Berberi, 1314
Bernhardt's disease, 1310
Biceps clonus, 1171
paralysis, 1307
reflex, 1170
Big-jaw, 975
Bile acids in urine, 712
in vomit, 523
Bile-ducts, carcinoma of, 679
pain of, 492
catarrh of, chronic, 673
suppurative, 672
obstruction of, 679
rupture of, with cholelithiasis, 678
stenosis of, 679
Bile-pigments in blood, Fouchet's test for, 638
in urine, 712
Bilharzia hæmatobia, 1029
in sputum, 85
Biliary calculi, 674. See also *Cholelithiasis.*
colic, 676
Bilious pneumonia, 830
remittent fever, 1018
stools, 567, 644
typhoid, 821
Biliousness, 484
Binasal hemianopsia, 1193
Birth palsy, 1305
Bitemporal hemianopsia, 1193
Black death, 843
villous tongue, 447
vomit in yellow fever, 824, 826

Bladder, 762
calculi in, *x*-ray for, 693
diseases of, 762
x-ray diagnosis, 691
distention hydronephrosis and, differentiation, 742
irritability of, cystitis and, differentiation, 769
nerve center of, 1248
neuroses of, 768
cystitis and, differentiation, 769
overdistended, ascites and, differentiation, 631
parasites of, 1054
tuberculosis of, 878
Blastomycosis, pulmonary, 138, 978
Blepharitis in measles, 940
Blepharospasm, 1330
Blindness, figure, 1187
letter, 1187
monolateral, 1175
of both eyes, pupils in, 1175
word, 1187
Blood, 356
ammonia in, 374
bacteria in, detection, 443
bile pigment in, Fouchet's test for, 638
chemistry, 371
chlorides in, 374
cholesterol in, 374
clotting time, 359
coagulation of, 358
cell movements, 359
collection of, 356
cover-glasses for, 356
cryoscopy of, 370
Daland's lancet for collecting, 356
diseases of, 400
examination, 356
fixed, study of, 399
freezing-point of, 370
fresh, study of, 357
glucose in, 374
hematin, 361
hemoglobin, 360
human, grouping for transfusion, 394
in atrophic cirrhosis, 666
in chronic interstitial nephritis, 735
in feces, 565
tests for, 566
in meningitis, 901
in pericardium, 279
in plumbism, 596
in urine, 697
in vomit, 523
laboratory examination, 356
lipoids in diabetes, 1071
matching for transfusion, 393
microscopic study, 356
non-protein nitrogen in, 372
parasitology of, 443
peripheral, alkalinity of, 370
serum diagnosis, 374
slides for, 356
smears, 357
specific gravity of, 359
Hammerschlag's method, 359
spectroscopic study, 361
Blood, stained, study of, 399, 400
staining, 399
transfusion determination of group to which individual belongs, 395
grouping of human blood, 394
technic for testing blood, 394
trichinella spiralis in, 1052
uric acid in, 372
vomiting of, 488
Blood-corpuscles, counting, 364
Thoma-Zeiss method, 364
solution for preserving, 365
Blood-fluke, 1029
Blood-lancet, Daland's, 356
Blood-pressure, 203
altitude and, 213
anesthesia and, 220
arterial tonus and, 203
bilateral variation, 213
causes, 214
diastolic, 204
digestion and, 212
effect of operative procedures on, 220
examination, 29
excitement and, 213
exercise and, 213
factors influencing at time of operation, 220
modifying, 211
heart action and, 203
high, before operation, 220
hypotension and, differentiation, 214
in anesthesia, 221
indicator for, 204. See also *Sphygmomanometer.*
maintenance of, 203
mean, 204
normal, 210
obesity and, 214
pathologic variations in, 214
pulse, 204
routine tests in surgery, 219
sphygmomanometer for, 204. See also *Sphygmomanometer.*
standard for, 210
systolic, 204
vasomotor activity and, 203
Blood-test, Justus's, in syphilis, 887
Blood-vessels, diseases of, 176, 337
x-ray in diagnosis, 258
pulsation of, 180
Bloody sputum, 81
Boas-Oppler bacillus in gastric contents, 522
Boggs coagulometer, 358
modification of coagulometer of Russell and Brodie, 358
Bones, changes in, in rickets, 1074
tuberculosis of, 876
Boston's pipet test for albuminuria, 702
sign, 1095
Botulin, 1359
Botulism, 1359
diphtheria and, differentiation, 1362
pupils in, 1175
Botulismotoxin, 1359
Bouveret ulcer, 801
Bovine tuberculosis, 853

Bowels and stomach, examination, 29
consumption of, 781
Bowles' stethoscope, 253
B-oxybutyric acid in urine, 713
Brachial neuralgia, 1316
neuritis, 1305
palsy, 1035. See also *Paralysis, brachial.*
Brachialis anticus paralysis, 1307
Bradycardia, 197
sinus, 233
Brain, abscess of, 1234
adenoma of, 1220
anatomy, 1166
carcinoma of, 1220
centers, 1167, 1185, 1186
crying, 1187
eating, 1187
for bilateral acting functions, 1187
laughing, 1187
motor, 1184
psychic, 1187
sensory, 1185
speech, 1186
subcortical, 1187
swallowing, 1187
visual, 1187
cholesteatoma of, 1120
compression of, 1235
contusion of, 1239
cortex of, 1166
cysticerci in, 1060
cysts of, 1220
diseases, 1200
symptoms, 1200–1217
endothelioma of, 1218
fibroma of, 1219
glioma of, 1217
gumma of, 1219
hemispheres, 1166
injuries, 1234
from skull fracture, 1235, 1236
insanity from, 1239
terminal effects, 1239
lipoma of, 1220
localization in, 1184
meninges, injuries, 1238
osteosarcoma of, 1218
parasitic disease of, 1060
pia of, 1166
plasmodium of malaria in, 1060
psammoma of, 1220
sarcoma of, 1217
sensory centers of, 1185
softening of, 1355
substance, injuries, 1238
syphilitic growths, 1219
tuberculoma of, 1218
tumors, 1217
convulsions in, 1232
cortical, 1222
influence on surrounding structures, 1220
of cerebellopontile angle, 1225
of cerebellum, 1229
of cerebral peduncles, 1229
of cerebrum, 1220
of crus, 1229
Brain tumors, of fourth ventricle, 1227
of frontal lobe, 1222
of lateral ventricles, 1227
of medulla oblongata, 1229
of motor area, 1225
of occipital area, 1227
of pons, 1229
of sensory area, 1226
of subcortex, 1227
of temporal lobes, 1227
of third ventricle, 1227
of visual area, 1227
paralysis from, 1210
puncture of ventricles in, 1228
subcortical, 1222
ventricles of, 1166
Break-bone fever, 947
Breast-pang, 333
Breasts, neuralgia of, 1317
Breath sounds, increased, regions where heard, 71
normal, 67
Breathing, abdominal, 479
bronchial, 67
bronchovesicular, 68
diaphragmatic type, 50
vesicular, 69
systolic, 71
Bright's disease, 718. See also *Nephritis.*
Brinton's bile test in typhoid fever, 808
disease, 564
Broadbent's sign, 192
Brodie and Russell's coagulometer, Boggs' modification, 358
Bromidrosis, 694
Bronchi, diseases of, 38, 90
x-ray evidence of, 76
foreign bodies in, 118
opaque solutions in, in diagnosis, 130
Bronchial asthma, 100
sputum in, 88
breathing, 67
glands, enlarged, *x*-ray diagnosis, 78
percussion, 62
stenosis, 107
Bronchiectasis, 104
actinomycosis of thorax and, differentiation, 107
bronchitis and, differentiation, 98
coughing in, 105
empyema and, differentiation, 107
pulmonary cavity and, differentiation, 106
tuberculosis and, differentiation, 875
thoracic aneurism and, differentiation, 106
x-ray diagnosis, 78
Bronchitis, 90
acute, 90
bronchopneumonia and, differentiation, 92
in asthma, 100
incipient tuberculosis and, differentiation, 93
miliary tuberculosis and, differentiation, 93
pleurisy with effusion and, differentiation, 92

Bronchitis, acute, sputum in, 87
anaphylactic, 93
arachidic, 119
capillary, 111
chronic, 95
and fetid, differentiation, 98
bronchiectasis and, differentiation, 98
gangrene and, differentiation, 98
in men past middle age, 95
of young females, 96
pulmonary tuberculosis and, differentiation, 97
sputum in, 87
varieties, 95
croupous, 98
fetid, 96
and chronic, differentiation, 98
pulmonary gangrene and, differentiation, 128
fibrinous, 98
in hay-fever, 93
in influenza, 94
in measles, 94, 940
in rubella, 943
in typhoid fever, 800
in whooping-cough, 94
infectious, 93
mucous, 98
plastic, 98
putrid, sputum in, 88
Bronchopneumonia, 111
acute bronchitis and, differentiation, 92
cerebral type, 112
complicating influenza, 850
in diphtheria, 934
in measles, 940
in rubella, 943
leukocytosis in, 115
lobar pneumonia and, differentiation, 115
ordinary type, 112
primary, 113
of adults, 111
of children, 111
pulmonary tuberculosis and, differentiation, 860
secondary, 113
sputum in, 88
suffocative, 111
with remittent fever, 112
x-ray diagnosis, 77
Bronchorrhea, 96
Bronchospirochetosis, 94
Bronchotetany, 1112
Bronchovesicular breathing, 68
Browning's spectroscope, 361
Brown-Séquard paralysis, 1281
Bruce's sign in tuberculosis, 869
Brudzinski's sign in meningitis, 901
Bruit de Rogers, 319
Bubonic plague, 843
Buerger's disease, 340
Buhl's disease, 1010
Bulbar paralysis, acute chronic bulbar palsy and, differentiation, 1241
asthenic, chronic bulbar palsy and, differentiation, 1241
Bulbar paralysis, chronic, 1239
acute bulbar palsy and, differentiation, 1241
myasthenia gravis and, differentiation, 1241
Bulimia, 484
Bundle branch block, 250
Burdach's tract, 1178
Butyric acid, test for, 519

Cachexia, malarial, 1021
Caisson disease, 1273
Calcareous deposits, aortic stenosis and, differentiation, 301
Calcium oxalate in urine, 714
Calculous cholecystitis, 674. See also *Cholelithiasis.*
pyelitis, 744
Calculus, biliary, 674. See also *Cholelithiasis.*
hepatic, nephrolithiasis and, differentiation, 753
pancreatic, 1152
renal, 749. See also *Nephrolithiasis.*
ureteral, *x*-ray diagnosis, 691, 692
uric-acid, 749
vesical, nephrolithiasis and, differentiation, 753
x-ray for, 693
Calmette's tuberculin reaction, 380
Caloric test in brain tumors, 1224
Cammidge reaction in pancreatic disease, 1144
Camp fever, 814
Canter murmur, 327
Capillary bronchitis, 111
pulse, Quincke's, 194
Capsule, internal, localization of fibers in, 1188
Capsules, adrenal, 1153
Caput medusæ, 479, 665
in ascites, 629
Carbohydrates, digestion of, 519
in urine, 709
Carbonic-oxid hemoglobin, 361
spectrum of, 363
Carcinoma cells, 622
gastric, 506, 548
coffee-ground vomit in, 550
complications, 553
gastritis and, differentiation, 552
pain in, 549, 550
pain of, 492
progressive pernicious anemia and, differentiation, 415
secondary, 549
secondary anemia in, 552
splenitis and, differentiation, 687
ulcer and, differentiation, 545, 552
ulcer in etiology, 549
vertigo in, 550
vomiting in, 488, 550
x-ray diagnosis, 507, 550
green, leukemia and, differentiation, 420
hepatic, 645
abscess and, differentiation, 649, 654
cases, 647

Carcinoma, hepatic, colonic carcinoma and, differentiation, 649
from cholelithiasis, 645
omental carcinoma and, differentiation, 649
pain in, 492, 646
pyloric carcinoma and, differentiation, 649
sarcoma and, differentiation, 650
suprarenal carcinoma and, differentiation, 649
intestinal, 609
bloody mucus in, 609
carcinoma of gall-bladder and, differentiation, 610
of head of pancreas and, differentiation, 610, 1151, 1152
diarrhea in, 609
dysentery and, differentiation, 610
fecal impaction and, differentiation, 610
floating kidney and, differentiation, 611
hydronephrosis and, differentiation, 611
intussusception and, differentiation, 610
pain in, 609
Löbstein's, 589, 626
of bile-duct, 679
pain of, 492
of brain, 1220
of cecum, appendicitis and, differentiation, 605
of colon, hepatic carcinoma and, differentiation, 649
of duodenum, pain in, 493
of esophagus, 471
x-ray diagnosis, 462
of gall-bladder, intestinal carcinoma and, differentiation, 610
of head of pancreas, intestinal carcinoma and, differentiation, 610
of kidneys, 760
of mediastinum, 353
of pancreas, 1150
colonic carcinoma and, differentiation, 1151, 1152
pain in, 493
pyloric carcinoma and, differentiation, 1151, 1152
splenitis and, differentiation, 687
of peritoneum, 622
of pylorus, pancreatic cancer and, differentiation, 1151, 1152
omental, hepatic carcinoma and, differentiation, 649
pulmonary, 131
actinomycosis and, differentiation, 978
pyloric, hepatic carcinoma and, differentiation, 649
suprarenal, hepatic carcinoma and, differentiation, 649
Carcinomatous pleurisy, 161
Cardiac arrhythmias, 233. See also *Heart disease.*
cycle, 253
Cardiac dilatation, subacute pericarditis and, differentiation, 272
disease, pain due to, 178
dyspnea, 53
impulses, disturbances in site of, origin of, 234
palpitation, pain in, 493
thrombosis, 320
vesicular breathing, 71
Cardialgia, 491, 531
Cardiograph, 227
Cardiopulmonay murmur, 256
Cardiopulmonic râles, 256
Cardiospasm, 530
Carotid pulsation, 194
Carphologia, 806
Carriers, typhoid, 798
Castration, 1160
Cataract, 1175
Catarrh, apical, pulmonary tuberculosis and, differentiation, 875
autumnal, 1006
bronchial, pulmonary tuberculosis and, differentiation, 875
dry, 95, 97
gastric, acute, 533. See also *Gastritis, acute.*
gastroduodenal, pancreatitis and, differentiation, 1147
gastro-intestinal, acute, 783
in measles, 940
in rubella, 943
nasal, chronic, 34
of bile-ducts, chronic, 673
suppurative, 672
of middle ear in measles, 940
of stomach, chronic, 539
Catarrhal dyspepsia, chronic, 539
gastritis in heart disease, 183
jaundice, 671
laryngitis, acute, 35
pneumonia, 111
pyelitis, 744
stomatitis, acute, 447
Cauda equina, 1244
tumors of, 1275
Caudate nucleus, lesions in, 1188
Cavernous sinus thrombosis, 1196
Cecum, carcinoma of, appendicitis and, differentiation, 605
tuberculosis of, appendicitis and, differentiation, 605
Cell, sickle, anemia, 431
Centers, brain, 1167, 1185, 1186
motor, 1184
psychic, 1187
sensory, 1185
subcortical, 1187
visual, 1187
Central pains, 1181
Cephalic tetanus, 1328
Cephalodynia, 996
Cerebellar ataxia, hereditary, 1261
Cerebello-pontile angle, tumors of, 1233
Cerebellum, 1167, 1191
anatomy, 1191
functions, 1191

Cerebral cortex, transmission of sensation to, 1179
glycosuria, 1063
localization, 1184
pachymeningitis, 1288
peduncles, lesions in, 1189
tumors of, 1229
pneumonia, 833
vomiting, 489
Cerebrospinal fever, 896. See also *Meningitis, cerebrospinal.*
fluid in tabes dorsalis, 1268
meningitis, 896, 1290. See also *Meningitis, cerebrospinal.*
Cerebrum, tumors of, 1220
Cestodes, 1035
Chair test in brain tumors, 1224
Chalicosis, 122, 123
sputum in, 89
Chalk-plugs in tonsillitis, 778
Chancre, hard, 884
Charcot's intermittent fever, 1017
joints in tabes, 1267
Charcot-Leyden crystals in sputum, 88
Charcot-Marie-Tooth-Hoffman-Sachs atrophy, 1299
Cheilitis glandularis, 444
Chemistry, blood, 371
Cheney-Stokes respiration, 52
in heart disease, 181
Chest, auscultation, 66
back of, landmarks of, 42
barrel-shaped, 49
bilateral abnormalities, 49
deformity in thoracic aneurism, 346
diagnostic signficance of special signs, 62
emphysematous, 49
flat type, 49
fluctuations over, 56
inspection of, 47
landmarks of, 41
local abnormalities of movement of, 53
mensuration of, in heart disease, 251
movements of, 50
in disease, 51
local abnormalities of, 53
of two halves, 139
new-growths of, 50
palpation of, 53
percussion, 56
Alexander's method, 61
analysis of results, 57
auscultatory, 60
bronchial, 62
coin, 63
deep, 60
dullness in, 59
interpretation, 58
methods, 56
palpatory, 61
respiratory, 60
superficial, 60
tympany in, 59
physical examination of, 41
regional anatomy, 43
shape, 49
spasms of, 1332
unilateral enlargement of, 50
Chest-wall, inspection of, 48
Chicken-breast in rachitis, 1074
Chicken-pox, 963
Chilblain, 1319
Children, chronic nephritis of, 736
diarrhea of, 783. See also *Enteritis, catarrhal.*
polyneuritic syndrome in, 442
uremia of, 721
Chlorids in blood, 374
in nephritis, 722
in urine, 704
Chlorin in urine, 705
Chloroform anesthesia, blood-pressure in, 221
Chloroma, 690
leukemia and, differentiation, 420
Chlorosis, 422, 424
laboratory diagnosis, 423
Choked disc, 1193
in tumors of cerebellum, 1230
Cholecystitis, acute appendicitis and, differentiation, 604
calculous, 674. See also *Cholelithiasis.*
in typhoid fever, 811
Cholelithiasis, 674
appendicitis and, differentiation, 678
chills in, 676
colic in, renal colic and, differentiation, 678
duodenal ulcer as cause, 674
focal infection in, 674
gastralgia and, differentiation, 677
hepatic abscess in, 678
intestinal colic and, differentiation, 678
obstruction in, 678
lead-workers colic and, differentiation, 677
Lyon's test in, 677
pain in, 492, 676
peritonitis in, 678
rupture of bile-duct with, 678
sweating in, 676
uterine colic and, differentiation, 677
with colic, 674
without colic, 674
Cholera, Asiatic, 792
algid stage, 794
asphyxic type, 792
cholera morbus and, differentiation, 612, 795
cutaneous complications, 794
first stage, 793
foudroyant type, 792
mild type, 792
ordinary type, 794
premonitory, 792
reaction stage, 794
rice-water stools in, 794
stools in, 794
usual type, 792
vomitus in, 795
infantum, 607, 783
morbus, 611
Asiatic cholera and, differentiation, 612, 795
intestinal cramps in, 611
nostras, 611

Cholera, sicca, 792
Cholerine, 792
Cholesteatoma of brain, 1220
Cholesterin in urine, 716
Cholesterinuria, 716
Cholestorol in blood, 374
Choluria, 712
Chorea, 1334
  electric, 1333
  gravidarum, 1335
  habit, 1331
  Henoch's, 1333
  Huntington's, 1336
  minor, 1334
  Sydenham's, 1334
Chromidrosis, 694
Chvostek's sign, 1112
Chylothorax, 145
Chylous ascites, 630
  effusion, pseudochylous and, differentiation, 634
Chyluria, 697
  filariasis and, differentiation, 1029
  traumatic, 697
Circulatory diseases, 176
Circumflex nerve, paralysis of, 1307
Circumscribed saccular aneurism, 342
  serous meningitis, 1274
Circus movement, 238
Cirrhosis, alcoholic, 663
  atrophic, 663
    alcohol in etiology, 664
    blood in, 666
    caput medusæ in, 665
    hemorrhages in, 665
    nausea in, 665
    renal disease and, differentiation, 666
    skin in, 665
    valvular disease and, differentiation, 666
  biliary, 641
  Glissonian, 667
  hypertrophic, 640
    abscess and, differentiation, 645
    Hanot's, 641
    hepatic carcinoma and, differentiation, 649
    yellow jaundice and, differentiation. 669
  Laënnec's, 664
  lenticular nuclei in, 667
  of lung, 121
  Wilson's type, 667
  with splenomegaly, 684
Cirsoid aneurism, 342
Cisterna magna, puncture of, 1277
Clapôtement in gastroptosis, 563
Clarke's column, 1177
Claw hand, 896, 1251, 1309
Click mucous, 73
Clonus, ankle, 1171
  biceps, 1171
  patellar, 1171
  triceps, 1171
Coagulo reaction, in syphilis, 392
Coagulometer, Boggs', 358
Cobra venom reaction in syphilis, 391, 887
Coccygodynia, 1317
Cochexia, malarial, chronic, 1014
Coffee-ground stools, 566
  vomitus, 489
    in gastric carcinoma, 550
      ulcer, 545
Cog-wheel respiration, 71
    in incipient phthisis, 863
Coin percussion, 63
  test in pneumothorax, 172
Cold in head, 34
Colic, biliary, 676
  epidemic, 613
  hepatic, appendicitis and, differentiation, 603
    gastralgia and, differentiation, 532
    pain of, 492
  in plumbism, 594
  intestinal, cholelithiasis and, differentiation, 678
    gastralgia and, differentiation, 532
    nephrolithiasis and, differentiation, 753
  lead, 592
  lead-workers, cholelithiasis and, differentiation, 677
  pancreatic pain in, 492
  renal, appendicitis and, differentiation, 603
    in nephrolithiasis, 751
  uterine, cholelithiasis and, differentiation, 677
Colitis, mucous, 591
Collapse of lung, 128
Colles' law, 884
Colloidal gold test for syphilis, 1287
Colloids in urine, 703
Colon bacillus infection, 973
  carcinoma of, hepatic carcinoma and, differentiation, 649
  dilatation of, 582. See also *Dilatation of colon.*
  ectasia of, 582
Colonic tetany, 1111
Coloptosis, *x*-ray diagnosis, 507
Coma, abortive, 1069
  diabetic, 1069
  in brain injuries, 1235
  pupils in, 1174
Coma-vigil, 806
Compensatory emphysema, 75, 133
Complement, 376
  deviation test in goiter, 1098
  fixation reaction, 385
    for gonorrhea, 391
    for syphilis, 387
    for tuberculosis, 391, 858, 864
Complementophile, 376
Compression of brain, 1235
  of cord, 1280
  of lung, 128
Compsomyia macellaria, 1060
Congenital hypertonia, 1214
    of lungs, 108
  spastic rigidity of limbs, 1214
Congo-red test for hydrochloric acid, 517
Conjugal tuberculosis, 856
Conjunctivitis in measles, 940

Consensual light reflex, 1173
Constipation, 493
habitual, 597
in peritonitis, 615
significance, 565
x-ray diagnosis, 507
Constitutional diseases, 1061
Consumption of bowel, 781
Conus medullaris, 1244
Convulsions, focal, 1202
in brain diseases, 1202
tumors, 1232
Jacksonian, 1202
Copper test for glycosuria, 711
Copralalia, 1333
Corectopia, 1172
Cornea, ulceration of, in measles, 940
Coronary arteries, thrombosis of, 332
thrombosis, blood-pressure in, 216
Corpora quadrigemina, lesions of, 1190
Corrigan pulse, 200, 202
in aortic regurgitation, 295
Cortical reflex of Haab, 1173
Coryza, erysipelas in, 951
Costal respiration, 51
Costiveness, 597
Costo-abdominal respiration, 50
Cough, 39
causes, 40
ear, 40
in aneurism, 40
in bronchiectasis, 105
in heart disease, 181
of diphtheria, pharyngitis and esophagitis, 41
purpura after, 435
reflex, 40
stomach, 40
tooth, 40
Coupled beats, 241
Coupling, 241
Cover-glasses, 356
preparation of, 356
Cowpox, 962
Cracked-pot sound, 64
in pleurisy, 153
in pneumothorax, 172
in pulmonary tuberculosis, 868
Cragia hominis, 1034
Craigiasis, 1034
Craig's disease, 1034
Cramp, writer's, 1332
Cramps, 1332
Cranial nerves, diseases, 1193
involvement in acute epidemic encephalitis, 909
paralysis of, in tabes dorsalis, 1266
symptoms in brain tumors, 1232
Cremasteric reflex, 1172
Crepitant râles, 73
Cretinism, 1092
in America, 1090
Cretinoid cachexia, 1091
Croup, false, 35
Croupous bronchitis, 98
pneumonia, 120
Crural nerve, anterior, paralysis of, 1309
Crus, lesions in, 1189
tumors of, 1229
Crying center, 1187
Cryoscopy of blood, 370
Current-jelly sputum, 81
Curschmann's spirals in sputum, 88
Cutaneous parasites, 1057
tests for allergy, 1320
for hay-fever, 1007
tuberculin reaction, 864
Cyanosis in heart disease, 181, 190
Cyclic vomiting, 490
Cylindroid aneurism, 342
Cylindroids in urine, 714
Cylindruria, 714
Cyst, echinococcus, of kidney, 1054
hydatid, 1048. See also *Hydatid cyst.*
of brain, 1220
of liver, 1050
serofibrinous pleurisy and, differentiation, 160
of pancreas, 1152
of spinal cord, 1274
ovarian, ascites and, differentiation, 631
protozoal, staining of, 1032
Cysticercus, 1054
in brain, 1060
of eye, 1059
Cystin in urine, 715
Cystinuria, 715
Cystitis, acute, aspergillus in urine in, 762
bacteriuria in, 763
pain in, 765
chronic, 763, 766
irritability and, differentiation, 769
neuroses and, differentiation, 769
of pregnancy and, differentiation, 769
phlegmonous, 764
Cytophile, 376

Daland's blood-lancet, 356
Dalrymple's sign, 1095
Deafness in endocrine disease, 1083
Death, black, 843
Decinormal hydrochloric acid solution, 364
Deep percussion, 60
Deer-fly fever, 1000, 1001
Degeneration, electric reactions of, 1245
of liver, fatty, with enlargement, 656
Deglutition gurgle, 501
Deiters' nucleus, lesions in, 1191
Delirium cordis, 235
in brain injuries, 1235
in heart disease, 182
maniacal, in cirrhosis, 641
types of, 806
Deltoid paralysis, 1307
Dengue, 947
yellow fever and, differentiation, 949
Dercum's disease, 1116
Dermacentor occidentalis, 998, 999
Dermatobia noxialis, 1060
Dermatomyositis, muscular rheumatism and, differentiation, 997
D'Espine's sign in tuberculosis, 879
Devil's grip, 850

Diabetes insipidus, 1139
mellitus, 1061
acute, 1064
adrenals in, 1064
anemia in, 1070
aural symptoms, 1067
blood changes, 1067
blood in, 1070
lipoids in,
chronic, 1065
circulatory symptoms, 1068
coma in, 1068, 1069
cutaneous manifestations, 1066
digestive symptoms, 1066
during pregnancy, 1072
endocrine imbalance in, 1064
focal infection in, 1064
following shocks, 1065
gastric crises in, 1068
hair in, 1067
infantile, 1062
muscular cramps in, 1068
nails in, 1067
nervous symptoms, 1068
ocular symptoms, 1067
oral symptoms, 1066
pancreas in, 1064
pancreatic, 1062
parathyroid in, 1064
phosphatic, 1062
pituitary gland in, 1063, 1064, 1139
respiratory symptoms, 1067
saliva in, 1064
sexual weakness in, 1068
temperament in, 1068
thirst in, 1066
thyroid in, 1064
urine in, 1069
nephritis and, high threshold in, 372
pancreas in, 1142
phosphatic, 706
Diabetic acetonuria, 713
acidosis, 1071
coma, 1068
Diacetic acid in urine, 713
Diagnosis, bacteriolysis in, 24
chemical, 21
cultural, 20
definition, 17
equipment for, 17
hasty, 19
laboratory as aid in, 22
morbid anatomy and, 18
opsonic index in, 22
röntgen-ray, 19. See also *Röntgen-ray diagnosis.*
serum, 20
Dianephroid bodies, 1083, 1087
Diaphragm, diseases of, *x*-ray evidence of, 76, 78
movement of, abscess and. 79
hernia and, 79
hydatid cyst and, 79
normal, 78
pleuritic adhesions and, 79
tuberculosis and, 79
orthodiagraphic measurement of, 78
paralysis of, 1309
Diaphragm, paralysis of, movements of abdomen in, 479
Diaphragmatic hernia, movements of diaphragm and, 79
pneumothorax and, differentiation, 174
pain, 79
peritonitis, heart disease and, 178
pleurisy, 164
pleurodynia, epidemic, 850
type of breathing, 50
Diarrhea, 493, 565
dyspeptic, acute, 611
eliminative, 783
from dietetic errors, 783
from drugs, 784
in intestinal carcinoma, 609
mycotic, 783. See also *Enteritis, catarrhal.*
nervous, 608, 783
of children, 783. See also *Enteritis, catarrhal.*
premonitory, 792
summer, 783. See also *Enteritis, catarrhal.*
toxic, 783
uremic, 783
Diastase, 1143
Diastolic blood-pressure, 204
Diathesis, spasmophilic, 1105
Diazo-reaction, 717
in diphtheria, 931
in pyemia, 975
in scarlet fever, 920
Dibothriocephalus in bladder, 1054
latus, 1037
Dick's test in scarlet fever, 381, 913
Dicrotic pulse, 202
regurgitant pulse, 203
Diet and scorbutus, 439
Dietl's crises, appendicitis and, differentiation, 604
Digestion and blood-pressure, 212
Digestive curve, significance of, 511
system, diseases of, 444
Dilatation aneurism, 342
gastric, 554
acute, 554, 555
ascites and, differentiation, 558
gastroptosis and, differentiation, 558
gastroscopy in, 557
laboratory diagnosis, 557
megalogastria and, differentiation, 558
thirst in, 555
vomiting of, 489
x-ray diagnosis, 557
of arch of aorta, blood-pressure in, 216
of colon, 582
differential diagnosis, 584
endocrine imbalance in, 582
intestinal obstruction and, differentiation, 590
tympanites in, 583
with hypertrophy, 584
x-ray diagnosis, 584
of duodenum, 579
of esophagus, 470

Dilation of esophagus, *x*-ray diagnosis, 462
of heart, 329
acute primary, 330
hypertrophy, differentiation, 323
hypertrophy with, 329
pleurisy with effusion and, differentiation, 160
with slight alteration in wall, 329
with thinning of wall, 329
Diphtheria, 925
adenoid, 929
albuminuria in, 934
anemia in, 934
bacilli in sputum, 87
botulism and, differentiation, 1362
bronchopneumonia complicating, 934
conjunctival, 925
diazo reaction in, 931
differential diagnosis, 931
dysphagia in, 934
follicular tonsillitis and, differentiation, 778, 932
heart muscle in, 934
in domestic animals, 928
laboratory diagnosis, 931
laryngeal, 925, 930
foreign bodies in air passages and differentiation, 117
malignant, 925
mild, 925, 929
mode of infection, 927
myocarditis in, 934
nasal, 925, 934
neuritis in, 934
ocular complications, 934
otitis media in, 934
pharyngeal, 925, 929
pupils in, 1175
scarlet fever and, differentiation, 932
strabismus in, 934
streptococcus angina and, differentiation, 931
tonsillar, 925, 929
toxin reaction of Schick, 380
tracheal, 930
transmission, 927
wound, 925, 931
Diphtheritic paralysis, 1314
stomatitis, 451
Diphtheritis, 925
Diplegia, 1213
from birth injuries, 1214
from lesions in first few years of life, 1215
in later end of life, 1217
which are congenital or occur before birth, 1214
infantile, 1208
Dipylidium caninum, 1038
Discharges from nose and throat, examination of, 33
Disease, basal metabolism in, 1080
Displacements of esophagus, *x*-ray diagnosis, 462
Dissecting aneurism, 342
Distention of stomach, pneumothorax and, differentiation, 174
Diver's palsy, 1273
Diverticulum of esophagus, 466
x-ray diagnosis, 462
Dizziness from brain lesions, 1201
Dog tapeworm, 1038, 1039
Döhle's inclusion bodies in scarlet fever, 918
Doremus-Hinds ureometer, 708
Dorsodynia, 996
Dracontiasis, 1057
Dracunculus medinensis, 1057
Dropped beats, 249
Dropsy, epidemic, 845
in heart disease, 181
of pericardium, 278
of pleuræ, 148
prison, 738
Drowsiness, 494
Drug eruptions of mouth and gums, 455
purpura, 435
rashes scarlet fever and, differentiation, 920
Drugs and pupils, 1176
Dry catarrh, 95, 97
fibrinous pleurisy, 146
râles, 72
Dubini's disease, 1333
Duchenne-Erb paralysis, 1307
Dudgeon sphygmograph, 222
Dull tympany, 63
Dullness, 59
relative, 60
Duodenal carcinoma, pain in, 495
dilatation, 579
fluid, 577
pancreatic ferments in, qualitative tests for, 578
obstruction, 578
pump, Einhorn's, 574
tetany, 1110
tube, 573
Gross', 574
in diagnosis, 576
Rohn's, 573
ulcer, 570
as cause of gall-stones, 674
focal infection in, 570
gastric ulcer and, differentiation, 578
pylorospasm in, 571
x-ray in diagnosis, 573
Duodenum, fixation of, 579
Dysentery, 785
alimentary anaphylaxis in, 791
amebic, 1031
chronic dysentery and, differentiation, 1033
craigia hominis in, 1034
feeding experiments, 1031
hepatic abscess complicating, 1033
hepatopulmonary abscess complicating, 1033
bacillary, acute, 786
catarrhal, acute, 786
chronic, 790
amebic dysentery and, differentiation, 1033
tuberculous enteritis and, differentiation, 791

Dysentery, intestinal carcinoma and, differentiation, 610
pseudomembranous, 788
secondary, 790
tuberculous, 781
typhoid fever and, differentiation, 810
Dyspepsia, atonic, 529
catarrhal, chronic, 539
nervous, 531
Dyspeptic diarrhea, acute, 611
Dysphagia in diphtheria, 934
Dyspnea, 51, 493
cardiac, 53
in heart disease, 181
varieties, 51
Dystrophy, muscular, 1296
infantile form, 1298
juvenile form, 1298
pseudo-hypertrophic, 1296

Ear cough, 40
examination of, 28
middle, catarrh of, in measles, 940
Eating center, 1187
Eccentric hypertrophy, of heart, 320
Echinococcus cyst, hepatic abscess and, differentiation, 654
of kidney, 1054
pulmonary actinomycosis and, differentiation, 978
disease, 1048
hepatic. See *Hydatid Cyst.*
of kidney, 1054
of lungs, 139, 1054
Echolalia, 1333
Ectasia of colon, 582
Eczema, erysipelas and, differentiation, 954
labial, 444
Edema, angioneurotic, 1320
famine, 738
in erysipelas, 953
inanition, 738
nutritional, 738
of lungs, 109
pulmonary, 109
war, 738
Edematous laryngitis, 37
Effort syndrome and pulse, 202
in heart disease, 197
Effusion, pericardial, serofibrinous pleurisy and, differentiation, 160
pleural, *x*-ray diagnosis, 80
with pleurisy, 148
Egophony, 75
Ehrlich's side-chain theory, 374
Einhorn's duodenal pump, 574
Elective localization, Rosenows' principals, 986
Electric chorea, 1333
reactions of degeneration, 1245
Electrocardiogram in arrhythmia, 233
in auricular fibrillation, 234
flutter, 237
in auricular-ventricular node impulses, 245
in bundle branch block, 250
in extrasystoles, 239
Electrocardiogram in heart block, 238, 247
in nodal extrasystoles, 241
in nodal rhythm, 247
in paroxysmal tachycardia, 243
in sinus irregularity, 233
in Stokes-Adams syndrome, 249
in ventricular extrasystoles, 241
normal, 228
Electrocardiograph in heart disease, 196
Electrocardiography, 227, 228
and cardiac arhythmias, 227
auricular deflection, 229
composition of Q. R. S. complex, 230
dextrocardiograms, 231
final deflection or T wave, 233
levocardiograms, 231
principle, 228
ventricular complex in, 230
preponderance, 232
Elephantiasis, 1026
Emaciation, fever and, 775
Embolism, heart disease and, 181
mesentery, 634
of lungs, 124
pulmonary, 124
Emphysema, asthma and, differentiation, 104
compensatory, 75, 133
heart shadow and, 262
hypertrophic, 133
interlobular, 133
pulmonary, 133
subcutaneous, 137
vesicular, 133
x-ray diagnosis, 76
Empyema, 166
aneurism and, differentiation, 168
bronchiectasis and, differentiation, 107
in lobar pneumonia, 841
localized, *x*-ray diagnosis, 77
necessitatis, 166
of pericardium, 274
pleural effusion and, differentiation, 168
pulsating, 166
thoracic aneurism and, differentiation, 350
traumatic, 166
Encapsulated pleurisy, 163
Encephalitis, acute, 1215
epidemic, 908
cranial nerve involvement in, 910
hyperglycorachia in, 910
mask-like face in, 909
post-encephalitic sequelæ, 1338
spinal fluid in, 911
in apoplexy, 1210
in influenza, 850
lethargica, 908
Encephalopathy, lead, 594, 1313
Endarteritis chronica deformans, 338
obliterating, 893
Endemic hemoptysis, 139, 1056
Endocardial murmurs, 256
Endocarditis, 280
acute, aortic regurgitation from, 292
old endocarditis and, differentiation, 283

Endocarditis, bacteria in, 280
chronic, 289
in acute articular rheumatism, 990, 992, 993
in pneumonia, 842
in typhoid fever, 812
infectious, 283
malignant, 283
miliary tuberculosis and, differentiation, 858
old, acute and, differentiation, 283
pericarditis and, differentiation, 282
recurrent, 281, 287
malignant, 289
simple acute, 280
woolly heart sound in, 282
ulcerative, 283
abscesses in, 285
acute, typhoid fever and, differentiation, 287
cerebral type, 289
cutaneous hemorrhages in, 285
extra precordial distress in, 284
feces in, 287
fever in, 285
gastro-intestinal symptoms, 285
miliary tuberculosis and, differentiation, 287
nervous symptoms in, 285
ocular symptoms in, 285
sputum in, 287
urine in, 286
Endocardium, diseases of, 280
Endocrine adiposity, 1136
asthma, 1344
disorders, 1080
deafness in, 1083
focal infection in, 1064
intra-ocular pressure in,
pancreas in, 1142
teeth in, 1162
glands, 1083
classification, 1086
in diabetes, 1064
in dilatation of colon, 582
in puerperal glycosuria, 1063
hyperfunction, 1084
hypofunction, 1084
unbalance in diabetes, 1064
Endolaryngitis, acute, 35
Endothelioma of brain, 1218
Entamœba histolytica in lungs, 139
in sputum, 85
Enteralgia, 608
Enteritis, catarrhal, 783
in heart disease, 183
phlegmonous, 782
tuberculous, 781
dysentery and, differentiation, 791
Enteroptosis, 580
x-ray diagnosis, 581
Enteroradiculitis, 1263
Enterospasm, 592
Enuresis, nocturnal, 771
paralytic, 771
Eosinophilia, 410
Eosinophilic leukemia, 421
Epiconus, 1244
Epidemic catarrhal fever, 845
jaundice, 1005
colic, 613
diaphragmatic pleurodynia, 850
dropsy, 845
encephalitis, acute, 908. See also *Encephalitis, epidemic, acute.*
hemoglobinuria, 1009
hiccough, 486
myoclonus multiplex, 1333
parotitis, 943. See also *Mumps.*
stomatitis, 1004
Epigastric angle, 43
neuralgia, 609
pain, 491
not connected with stomach, 492
pulsation, 194
in diseases of stomach, 496
Epilepsy, 1203
after acute fevers, 1206
ambulatory automatism in, 1205
and pituitary body, 1118, 1122
catatonic state in, 1205
cry of, 1204, 1205
delusions in, 1205
dreamy state in, 1205
fossa tumors causing, 1203
heredity in, 1203
in hemorrhage, 1206
in pregnancy, 1206
in surgical operations, 1206
laughing in, 1205
major, 1204
maniacal, 1205
minor, 1204, 1205
myoclonus, 1333
narcolepsy in, 1205
nocturnal, 1206
pituitary, 1206
disorders in, 1203, 1204
psychic, 1204, 1205
sleeping in, 1205
status epilepticus, 1206
Epileptic equivalents, 1203, 1205
insanity, chronic, 1207
Epiloia, 1255
Epinephrin mydriasis in goiter, 1097
Epistaxis, familial, 439
in typhoid fever, 806
in whooping-cough, 947
Epithelial desquamation of tongue, 445
Epithelioma, pseudoleukemia and, differentiation, 429
syphilis and, differentiation, 888
Erb's sign, 1112
Erosion aneurism, 342
Eruption, drug, 455
Erysipelas, 950
after chronic maladies, 952
after injuries, 952
cellulocutaneous, 950
differential diagnosis, 954
eczema and, differentiation, 954
edema in, 953
erythema and, differentiation, 954
in coryza, 951
in puerperium, 952
leukocytosis in, 953

Erysipelas, line of demarcation in, 953
migratory, 950
neonatorum, 950
nepho-, 950
phlegmonous, 950
pneumo-, 950
relapsing, 950
urine in, 953
urticaria and, differentiation, 954
Erythema, erysipelas and, differentiation, 954
rubella and, differentiation, 943
Erythrocytes, counting of, 367
in secondary anemia, 406
pipet for counting, 365
solution for preserving, 365
Erythromelalgia, 1319
Esbach's quantitative test for albuminuria, 703
Esophageal hemorrhage, 463
Esophagismus, 470
Esophagitis, 462
acute, 465
chronic, 466
cough of, 463
Esophagoscope, counterindications, 461
parsing of, 461
Esophagoscopy, 458
anesthesia for, 460
in carcinoma, 471
in diverticulum, 467
in esophagitis, 466
in spasm, 470
in stricture, 468
caution, 470
in ulcer, 466
retrograde, 458
technic, 460
Esophagus, 458
anatomic consideration of, 458
carcinoma of, 471
x-ray diagnosis, 462
diameters of, at constrictions, 459
dilatation of, 470
x-ray diagnosis, 462
diseases, 461, 462
esophagoscopy in, 458
x-ray diagnosis, 461
displacements of, *x*-ray diagnosis, 462
diverticulum of, 466
x-ray diagnosis, 462
examination, 458
foreign bodies in, 524
hemorrhage from, 463
inflammation of, 462. See also *Esophagitis.*
length of, at different ages, 458
movements of, *x*-ray and, 462
normal appearances, 459
obstruction of, vomitus of, 489
position, 459
sarcoma of, 471
spasm of, 470
stricture and, differentiation, 470
x-ray diagnosis, 462
stenosis of, 467. See also *Esophagus, stricture of.*
stricture of, 467
Esophagus, stricture of, auscultation in, 469
esophagoscopy in, 468
pressure from without and, differentiation, 470
spasm and, differentiation, 469
x-ray diagnosis, 462, 468
swallowing time in, 465
ulcer of, 466
Estivo-autumnal fever, 1014, 1017
algid form, 1018
bilious form, 1018
cardialgic form, 1018
choleraic form, 1018
comatose form, 1018
dysenteric form, 1018
hemorrhagic form, 1018
pneumonic form, 1018
Rivas acetic acid concentration method in, 1019
Ether anesthesia, blood-pressure in, 221
pneumonia, 830
Euchlorhydria, 516
Eunuchoid acromegaly, 1162
Eunuchoidism, 1160
Eustrongylus gigas in bladder, 1054
Ewald-Boas test-breakfast, 508
Excitation wave, 229
Excitement, blood-pressure and, 213
Exercise, blood-pressure and, 213
Exophthalmic goiter, blood-pressure in, 216
in tuberculosis, 862
Exophthalmos in heart disease, 190
External hydrocephalus, 1215
Extracardial murmurs, 256
Extraneous pyelitis, 744
Extrasystoles, auricular, 240
electrocardiogram in, 239
interpolated, 241
nodal, 241
ventricular, 241
Extra-uterine pregnancy, appendicitis and, differentiation, 603
Exudates, examination of, 32
Exudative pericarditis, *x*-ray diagnosis, 258
Eye, cysticercus of, 1059
examination of, 28
filaria in, 1060
parasites of, 1059

Face, physical examination of, 28
spasm of, 1330
tics of, 1330
Facial hemiatrophy, progressive, 1322
nerve, 1198
neuralgia, 1196
paralysis, central, 1198
peripheral, 1199
tic, 1330
False croup, 35
Fallopian tubes, tuberbulosis of, 878
Familial epistaxis, 439
Family history, 25
Famine edema, 738
Farcy, 969
Fasciola hepatica, 1042, 1050

Fasciolopsis Buski, 1042
Fasting stomach, 514
Fatty acids in sputum, 90
in stools, 567
degeneration of liver with enlargement, 656
of newborn, acute, 1010
heart, 328
infiltration of liver, leukemia and, differentiation, 420
stools. See *Feces, fatty.*
Faught's mercury apparatus, 206
pocket indicator, 206
sphygmomanometer, 205
Febrile acetonuria, 713
jaundice, acute, 1005
Febris recurrens, 820
wolthynica, 820
Fecal impaction, carcinoma and, differentiation, 610
of splenic flexure, 688
Feces, bacteria in, 569
blood in, 565
microscopic, 568
tests for, 566
bilious, 567, 644
casts of, 568
clay-colored, 567
coffee-ground, 566
collection, 565
color, 565
examination of, 31
fatty, 569
acids in, 567
clinical significance, 569
in pancreatic disease, 1143
green, 567
intestinal parasites in, 568
sand in, 569
macroscopic study, 568
microscopic study, 568
mucoid, 568
odor, 565
pus in, 569
reaction of, 567
red, 567
rice-water, in Asiatic cholera, 794
starch in, 568
Fehling's test for glycosuria, 710
Felix-Weil test in typhus fever, 817
Fermentation, gastric, pain of, 492
Ferments, in gastric juice, 518
in sputum, 90
Festination, 1337
Fetid bronchitis, 96
pulmonary gangrene and, differentiation, 128
Fever, 773
acme of, 776
aphthous, 1004
atypical, 775
continued, 775
deer-fly, 1000, 1001
defervescence stage, 776
fastigium of, 776
glandular, 1005
intermittent, 775, 1015
invasion stage, 775
Fever, inverse type, 775
lung, 120
miliary, 1003
rat-bite, 1001
remittent, 775
rose, 1007
spotted, 896
swine, 1000
trench, 820
type of, 775
typhoid, 796. See also *Typhoid fever.*
Fibrillary tremors, 1202
Fibrillation, auricular, 234
blood-pressure in, 215
ventricular, 239
Fibrinous bronchitis, 98
pleurisy, dry, 146
pneumonia, 120
Fibroid induration, 121
Fibroma of brain, 1219
of spinal cord, 1274
Fibrosis, arteriocapillary, 338
Fiedler's disease, 1005
Figure blindness, 1187
Filaria bronchialis, 85
in sputum, 85
of eye, 1060
Filarial fever, 1026
Filariasis, 1026
Rivas acetic acid method in, 1027
Filatoff's sign in scarlet fever, 915
Filterable virus, 846
Filter-passing organisms, 846
Fingers in heart disease, 190
Fish-worm, 1037
Five-day fever, 820
Flagellata, 1034
Flatulence, 491, 580
in heart disease, 183
Fliess's disease, 1134
Flint murmur in aortic regurgitation, 297
Floating kidney, intestinal carcinoma and, differentiation, 611
spleen, hydronephrosis and, differentiation, 742
Fluids, nephritic, cardiac, and pleural, 722
Flukes, 1042
liver, 1050
Fluoroscopy, gastro-intestinal, 505
Focal infection, 985, 988, 1061
and pyorrhea, 985–988
in acute articular rheumatism, 988, 989
non-suppurative infection, 723
in articular rheumatism, 997
in cholelithiasis, 674
in chronic interstitial nephritis, 732
in diabetes mellitus, 1064
in duodenal ulcer, 570
in endocarditis, 280
in endocrine disorders, 1064
in facial neuralgia, 1197
in gallbladder disease, 674
in gallstones, 674
in gastric ulcer, 542
in goiter, 1093
in gout, 1077

Focal infection in heart disease, 280
in hepatic abscess, 652
in nephritis, 719
in nephritis of children, 736
in plumbism, 597
in rheumatoid arthritis, 1323
in sclerosis, 1253
in splenitis, 686
in splenomegaly, 689
Follicular stomatitis, 448
tonsillitis, diphtheria and, differentiation, 934
Food allergy, 1320
Foot-and-mouth disease, 1004
Foot-drop in plumbism, 594
Forceps, Sajous', 460
Fordyce's disease, 444
Foreign bodies in air-passages, 116
laryngeal diphtheria and, differentiation, 117
whooping-cough and, differentiation, 117
in bronchi, 118
in esophagus, 524
in larynx, 117
in pharynx, 524
in stomach, 524
in trachea, 118
Fouchet's test for bile pigment in blood, 638
Fractional gastric analysis, 509
Fracture of base of skull, brain injury, 1236
of vault of skull, brain injury, 1235
of vertebra, 1280
Freezing-point of blood, 370
Fremitus, tactile, 54
diminished or absent, 56
increased, 55
French measles, 940
Frenum, ulcers of, 447
Friction murmurs, 73
Friction-sounds, 74
Friedländer's bacillus, 838
in sputum, 88
pneumonia, 838
Friedreich's ataxia, 1259
sign, 65
in pericarditis, 277
Fröhlich's syndrome, 1136
Fungi in sputum, 85
Fungoid disease of lung, 138
Fungous stomatitis, 980
Fusiform aneurism, 342

Gait, hemiplegic, 1211
in tumors of cerebellum, 1230
scissors, 1254
steppage, 1309
Gall-bladder and liver examination, 29
carcinoma of, intestinal carcinoma and, differentiation, 610
disease, focal infection in, 674
hormone absence in, 516
distention of, 654
hydatid cyst and, differentiation, 1041, 1049
hydronephrosis and, differentiation, 742, 1041, 1042
Gallop rhythm, 327
Galloping phthisis, 860
Gall-stone disease, 674. See also *Cholelithiasis.*
Gangrene of lung, 125. See also *Pulmonary gangrene.*
of young, 341
symmetrical, 1319
Gangrenous angina complicating scarlet fever, 922
pancreatitis, 1148
stomatitis, 452
Gas in pericardium, 279
Gastralgia, 491, 531
angina pectoris and, differentiation, 335
ataxic crises and, differentiation, 532
cholelithiasis and, differentiation, 677
gastric ulcer and, differentiation, 546
hepatic colic and, differentiation, 532
intestinal colic and, differentiation, 532
Gastrectasis, 506
atonic, 506
Gastric asthma, 100
atrophy, progressive pernicious anemia and, differentiation, 415
carcinoma, 506, 548. See also *Carcinoma, gastric.*
catarrh, acute, 533. See also *Gastritis, acute.*
contents, 507
acetic acid in, 520
acetone in, 521
acidity of, 513
total, 513
analysis, 509
Boas-Oppler bacillus in, 522
butyric acid in, 519
carbohydrate digestion, 519
chemistry of, 513
ferments in, 518
fractional analysis, 509
hydrochloric acid in, 516
clinical significance, 518
tests for, 517
hyperacidity of, 515
hypoacidity of, 516
in fasting stomach, 514
interpretation of findings, 511
lactic acid in, 520. See also *Lactic acid in gastric contents.*
microscopic study, 509, 521
normal, 514
obtaining, 509
technic, 510
physical properties, 513
proferments in, 518
significance of digestive curve in, 511
crises, 490
diseases, duodenal tube in diagnosis, 576
disturbances, heart disease and, 178
fermentation, pain of, 492
fluid, examination of, 31
hemorrhage, pulmonary hemorrhage and, differentiation, 89
peristalsis, diminished, 529

Gastric peristalsis, estimation of, 528
tetany, 1111
ulcer 541. See also *Ulcer, gastric.*
Gastritis, acute, 533
bacteriology, 533
complications, 537
differential diagnosis, 535
laboratory diagnosis, 535
scarlet fever and, differentiation, 535
smallpox and, differentiation, 535
catarrhal, in heart disease, 183
chronic, 539
atrophic, 539
laboratory diagnosis, 541
mucous, 539
pyorrhea in, 539
vomiting of, 488
gastric carcinoma and, differentiation, 552
pain of, 492
phlegmonous, 539
pseudomembranous, 538
pyorrhea as cause, 539
simple, 539
chronic, 539
suppurative, acute, 539
toxic, 537
Gastrodiaphany of stomach wall, 505
Gastroduodenal balance, abnormalities in, 515
Gastrodynia, 491, 531
Gastro-intestinal catarrh, acute, 783
in measles, 940
in rubella, 943
disease and tetany, 1110
irritation, scarlet fever and, differentiation, 920
phenomena in heart disease, 183
syndrome, 861
tract diseases, *x*-ray evidence, 502
examination of, preparation of patient for, 504
fluoroscopy of, 504
Gastroptosis, 505, 559
auscultation in, 563
from chest deformities, 561
from muscular strain, 561
from spinal deformities, 561
gastric dilatation and, differentiation, 558
hepatic dislocation in etiology, 561
inspection in, 563
palpation in, 563
percussion in, 563
relaxation of abdominal wall in etiology, 561
x-ray diagnosis, 563
Gastroradiculitis, 1263
Gastroscopy in gastric ulcer, 544
Gastro-succorrhea, hyperchlorhydria and, differentiation, 528
Gaucher cells, 690
Gaucher's disease, 689
General considerations, 17
examination in history taking, 27
Genital glands, functions, 1083
Geographic tongue, 445
Gerhardt's sign, 65
German measles, 940. See also *Rubella.*
Gigantism, 1124
Gin-drinker's liver, 664
Glanders, 969
Glandular fever, 1005
Glioma of brain, 1217
Glissonian cirrhosis, 667
Glomerulonephritis, acute, 718
chronic, 724. See also *Nephritis, chronic.*
Glossina palpalis, in transmission of trypanosomiasis, 1025
Glossitis, acute, 445
chronic, 446
Glosso-labio-laryngeal paralysis, 1239. See also *Bulbar paralysis, chronic.*
Glossopharyngeal nerve, 1199
Glucose in blood, 1070
in urine, 709, 1069. See also *Glycosuria.*
Gluteal nerves, paralysis of, 1309
Glycemia, 709
Glycosuria, 1062, 1065
alimentary, 709, 1062
cerebral, 1063
collecting urine in test for, 710
copper test for, 711
digestive, 1062
Fehling's test for, 710
functional, 1062
intermittent, 710
of arthritis, 1063
nervous, 710
of arthritis, 710
puerperal, 710, 1063
renal, 1065
test for, 710
topic, 709, 1062
transitory, 1062
traumatic, 710, 1063
Goetsch test for hyperthyroidism, 1096
Goiter, 1093
Abderhalden's test, 1097
basal metabolism in, 1081
complement deviation test in, 1098
epinephrin mydriasis in, 1097
exophthalmic, blood-pressure in, 216
focal infection in, 1093
iodin in, 1099
Kottman reaction in, 1098
myxedema and, differentiation, 1099
pituitary test for, 1097
simple, 1099
special tests for, 1097
therapeutic test, 1097
vocal cords in, 1100
x-ray diagnosis, 1097
Goldscheider's ortho percussion in heart disease, 262
Goll's tract, 1178
Gonads, 1158
Gonococcal meningitis, 898
Gonorrhea, complement fixation reaction for, 391
Gonorrheal arthritis, 993. See also *Arthritis, gonorrheal.*
stomatitis, 451
Gout, 1077
acute, 1077

Gout, chronic, 1077, 1078
deformity in, 1078
focal infection in, 1077
irregular, 1077
retrocedent, 1077, 1078
rheumatism and, differentiation, 1079
suppressive, 1078
Gouty kidney, 731
Gowers's sign, 901.
tract, 1178
Graham Steell murmur, 318
Grand mal, 1204
Granular degeneration, 401
Granuloma inguinale, 985
Grave's disease, 1093. See also *Goiter.*
Green cancer, leukemia and, differentiation, 420
Gross' duodenal tube, 574
Ground itch, 1046
Growth, table of, 1087
Grunt, 75
Guaiac-hydrogen-dioxid test for blood in feces, 566
Guinea-worm disease, 1057
Gull's disease, 1088
Gumma of brain, 1219
Gummatous periarterites, 893
Günzberg test for hydrochloric acid, 518
Gurgle, deglutition, 501
Gurgles, 73

Haab, cortical reflexes of, 1173
Habit chorea, 1331
spasm, 1330, 1331
Habitual constipation, 597
Halitosis, 485
Hammerschlag's method for specific gravity of blood, 359
Hand, claw, 896, 1251
monkey, 1251
skeleton, 1251
Hanot's cirrhosis, 645
Haptines, 375
Haptophore group, 375
Harris' bands, 579
Hay asthma, 1006
Hay-fever, 93, 1006. See also *Autumnal catarrh.*
Head, cold in, 34
examination of, 28
injuries, blood-pressure in, 220
tetanus, 1328
Headache from brain lesions, 1200
in typhoid fever, 799
sick, 1358
Health, voice sounds in, 75
Heart action, blood-pressure and, 203
intermittency of, 180
irregularity of, 180
adhesions to, *x*-ray diagnosis, 262
aneurism of, 332
arrhythmias and electrocardiography, 227
block, arborization, 251
auricular-ventricular, 248
causes, 250
bundle branch, 250
complete, 249
Heart block, electrocardiogram, 238, 247
partial, 249
sino-auricular, 247
congenital affections of, 335
and acquired lesions of, differentiation, 336
dilatation of, 329. See also *Dilatation of heart.*
diseases, 176
arhythmias in, 233
attitude in, 195
auricular fibrillation, 234
flutter, 237
auscultation in, 252
catarrhal gastritis in, 183
Cheyne-Stokes respiration in, 181
circumscribed pleurisy and, 178
combined forms, 319
cough in, 181
cyanosis in, 181, 190
delirium in, 182
diaphragmatic peritonitis and, 178
dropsy in, 181
dyspnea in, 181
effort syndrome in, 197
electrocardiograph in, 196
electrocardiography in, 227
embolism and, 181
enteritis in, 183
examination in, 176
exophthalmos in, 190
extrasystoles, 239
fingers in, 190
flatulency in, 183
focal infection in, 280
gastric disturbances and, 178
gastro-intestinal phenomena in, 183
Goldscheider's ortho percussion in, 262
Graham Steell murmur in, 318
hemorrhagic infarct in, 181
localized abscess and, 178
mensuration of chest in, 251
myalgia and, 177
nervous phenomena in, 182
orthopnea in, 181
pain in, 177
scapular and submammary, 324
palpation in, 195
paroxysmal tachycardia, 242
percussion in, 252
threshold, 262
periostitis and, 178
pleurodynia and, 178
premature contractions, 239
psychoses in, 326
pulmonary phenomena in, 180
renal symptoms in, 182
sinus arhythmia, 234
irregularity, 233
sputum in, 89
Stokes-Adams syndrome in, 182, 249
symptoms referable to arterial disease, 183
suggestive of, 180
threshold of audibility, 262
throat symptoms in, 183
thrombosis and, 180

Heart diseases, voice in, 183
x-ray in diagnosis, 258, 259
displacements, *x*-ray diagnosis, 262
disturbances of conduction, 247
fatty, 328
form of, abnormal, 263
hypertrophy of, 320
dilatation and, differentiation, 323
thoracic aneurysm and, differentiation, 323
with dilatation, 329
inspection, 189
landmarks, 186
mobility of, abnormal, 263
normal curves of, 262
palpitation of, 179
pathologic, 262
pulsations, abnormal, 263
relation to lungs, 186
rupture of, 333
shape of, *x*-ray diagnosis, 262
size of, abnormal, 263
x-ray diagnosis, 261
strength, formulas and factors for determining, 221
syphilis of, 892
topography of, 185
tumors of, 323
valves, areas for auscultating, 254
position of, 188
Heart-beat, dropped, 249
pupils and, 1175
Heart-sounds, areas of maximum intensity, 254
cycle of, 253
diastolic, 252, 253
first, 252
doubling of, 256
in infants, 252
in typhoid fever, 800
normal, 252
pathologic, 256. See also *Murmurs*.
physiologic variations, 255
pistol-shot, 258
second, 252, 253
doubling of, 256
systolic, 252
Heat-exhaustion, 1011
Heat-stroke, 1011
Heberden's nodes in arthritis deformans, 1324
Heel, neuralgia of, 1318
Heller's test for albuminuria, 702
Helmenthiasis, tetany in, 1111
Hematin, 361
Hematoidin, 361
Hematomyelia, 1281
Hematuria, 697
detection of, 698
in malaria, 1023
in variola, 960
Hemianopsia, binasal, 1193
bitemporal, 1193
lateral homonymous, 1193
Hemiatrophy, progressive facial, 1322
Hemic murmurs, aortic stenosis murmurs and, differentiation, 302
Hemicrania, 1358
Hemidrosis, 694
Hemihypertrophy, progressive facial, 1322
Hemihypesthesia, 1330
Hemiplegia, 1208
after fortieth year, 1209
after twentieth year, 1209
contractures in, 1211
from apoplexy, 1209
from birth injuries, 1208
from brain tumor, 1210
from embolism, 1210
from head injury, 1210
from second year to maturity, 1209
from syphilis, 1210
from thrombosis, 1210
hysterical, 1349
in first two years of life, 1208
in infectious diseases, 1210
in uremic conditions, 1210
Hemiplegic gait, 1211
Hemochromatosis, 665
Hemocytolysis, 360
Hemocytometer, American Standard, 368
Thoma-Levy, 369
Thoma-Zeiss, 365
Hemoglobin, 360
blotting-paper test for, 364
carbonic-oxid, 361
in secondary anemia, 406
in urine, 698
reduced, 360
scale, Tallquist's, 364
spectrum of, 362
Hemoglobinemia, 360, 405
Hemoglobinometer, von Fleischl's, 363
Hemoglobinuria, 697
detection of, 698
epidemic, 1009
in malaria, 1023
Hemolysis, 376
Hemolytic anemia, 415
jaundice, 673
streptococci in measles, 935
test in trypanosomiasis, 1026
Hemometer, Sahli, 363
Hemopericardium, 278
Hemophilia, 433
Hemoptysis, endemic, 139, 1056
in whooping-cough, 947
Hemorrhage, epilepsy in, 1206
esophageal, 463
from stomach, pulmonary and throat hemorrhages and, differentiation, 547
in secondary anemia, 405
intestinal, in typhoid fever, 811
into mediastinum, 356
into pancreas, 1149
into spinal cord, 1281
meningeal, 1238
of newborn, hemophilia and, differentiation, 434
pulmonary, gastric hemorrhage and, differentiation, 89, 547
Hemorrhagic disease of newborn, 1009
infarct in heart disease, 181
infarction, 124
pancreatitis, acute, 1146

Hemorrhagic pericarditis, 276
pleurisy, 161
purpura, 435, 436
sputum, 81
Hemosiderin, 361
Hemothorax, 161
Henoch's chorea, 1333
purpura, 436
Hepatic calculus, nephrolithiasis and, differentiation, 753
colic, abscess and, differentiation, 654
appendicitis and, differentiation, 603
gastralgia and, differentiation, 532
intermittent fever and, differentiation, 1017
pain of, 492
pyemia, 651
sarcoma, 650
Hepatitis, non-suppurative, acute, 663
suppurative, 651
Hepatopulmonary abscess complicating amebic dysentery, 1033
Hereditary cerebellar ataxia, 1261
hemophilia, 438
purpura, 438
Heredity in diseases of bronchi, lungs and pleura, 38
Herman-Perutz reaction, 392
Hernia, diaphragmatic, movements of diaphragm and, 79
pneumothorax and, differentiation, 174
Herpes labialis, 444
Herpetic stomatitis, 448
Herrick's syndrome, 332
Hess viscosimeter, 359
Hiccough, 486, 615, 1331
Hinds' modification of Doremus ureometer, 708
Hippocratic succession splash in pneumothorax, 172
Hippus, 1175
Hirschsprung's disease, 584
Hirsutism, 1153
Histoplasmosis, 1010
History taking, 23
scheme for, 25
Hob-nailed liver, 664
Hodgkin's disease, 426. See also *Pseudoleukemia.*
Hook-worm disease, 1045. See also *Ankylostomiasis.*
Hormone absence in gall-bladder disease, 516
in production of hydrochloric acid, 516
Horner's syndrome, 1174
Hour-glass stomach, 548
x-ray diagnosis, 506
Huntington's chorea, 1336
Hutchinson's teeth, 890
Hydatid cyst, 1048
gall-bladder distention and, differentiation, 1041, 1049
hydronephrosis and, differentiation, 1042, 1049
movements of diaphragm and, 79
pleural effusion and, differentiation, 1050
Hydatid thrill, 1049
Hydrocephalus, external, 1215
internal, 1215
from serous effusion, 1295
Hydrochloric acid, free, Congo-red test for, 517
Günzberg test for, 518
tests for, 517
hormone in production of, 516
in gastric contents, 516
inhibitation of, 516
solution, decinormal, 364
Hydronephrosis, 739
bladder distention and, differentiation, 742
floating spleen and, differentiation, 742
gall-bladder distention and, differentiation, 742, 1041, 1042
hydatid cyst and, differentiation, 1042, 1049
intestinal carcinoma and, differentiation, 611
ovarian cyst and, differentiation, 742
Hydropericardium, 278
Hydrophobia, 964
in dogs, 964
pseudo-, 965
tetanus and, differentiation, 969
transmitted by dogs, 964
Hydrothorax, 143
pulmonary edema and, differentiation, 111
Hymenolepis diminuta, 1038
nana, 1037
Hyperacidity of gastric contents, 515
pain in, 492
Hyperadrenalism, 1157
Hyperchlorhydria, 516, 527
continuous, 527
gastric ulcer and, differentiation, 528
gastrosuccorrhea and, differentiation, 528
intermittent, 527
pain of, 528
Hyperemia, hepatic, 650
of lungs, 108
Hyperesthesia, 533
Hyperglycemia, 1157
Hyperidrosis, 695
Hypermotility of stomach, 513
Hyperorexia, 484
Hyperostosis cranii, 1328
Hyperpituitarism, 1118
Hypertension, high blood-pressure and, differentiation, 214
Hyperthyroidism, 1080, 1093
basal metabolism in, 1080
in tuberculosis, 862
Hypertrophic cirrhosis of liver, 640
emphysema, 133
Hypertrophy, auricular, 323
electrocardiogram in, 230
of heart, 320
dilatation and, differentiation, 323
thoracic aneurysm and, differentiation, 323
with dilatation, 329
of left ventricle, 321

Hypertrophy of right ventricle, 322
Hypoacidity, hormone absence in, 516
of gastric contents, 516
Hypoadrenia, 1157
Hypobromite test for urea in urine, 708
Hypochlorhydria, 517
Hypoeosinophilia, 410
Hypogastric neuralgia, 609
Hypoglossus nerve, 1200
Hypoleukocytosis, 409
Hypomotility of stomach, 513
Hypophyseal asthenia, 1134
Hypopituitarism, 1117, 1120
Hypotension, high blood-pressure and, differentiation, 214
relative, 214
true, 214
Hypothyroidism, 1080
tests for, 1090
Hypotonia in tabes dorsalis, 1264
Hysteria, 1343
ankle clonus in, 1349
arc de cercle in, 1350
astasia abasia in, 1349
aura in, 1350
contractures in, 1349
convulsions in, 1350
globus hystericus in, 1346
hemianesthesia in, 1347
loss of sensation in, 1346
major, 1353
minor, 1353
ocular symptoms, 1353
pain in, 1346
paralysis in, 1349
pituitary disease and, 1344
pupils in, 1174, 1353
reflexes in, 1348, 1349
smell sense in, 1353
stigmata of, 1344, 1346
taste sense in, 1353
tonic movements in, 1348
tremors in, 1347
visual field in, 1352
Hysterical hemiplegia, 1349

Icterus neonatorum, 681
Idiopathic anemia, 411
neuralgia, 1317
Idiosyncrasy, 1320
Idiot, amaurotic family, 1093
angeborene, 1091
Ileocecal spasm, 606
valve, patulous, 607
Impaction, fecal, carcinoma and, differentiation, 610
of splenic flexure, 688
Impetigo contagiosa, variola and, differentiation, 961
Inanition edema, 738
in secondary anemia, 405
of malnutrition, pseudoleukemia and, differentiation, 429
Incipient phthisis, sputum in, 88
Inclusion bodies of Döhle in scarlet fever, 918
Incompetency. See *Regurgitation.*
Incontinence of urine, 770
of retention, 770
Incoördination in tumors of cerebellum, 1230, 1231
Indeterminate râles, 74
Indican in urine, 716
Indicanuria, 716
Indigestion, acute appendicitis and, differentiation, 603
intestinal, acute, 783
Indigo in urine, 717
Indoxyl-potassium sulphate in urine, 716
Indoxyl-sodium sulphate in urine, 716
Induration, fibroid, 121
Infantile diplegia, 1208
scorbutus, 441
spinal palsy, 903
testicle, 890
Infants, scorbutus of, 439
Infarct, hemorrhagic, in heart disease, 181
Infarction, hemorrhagic, 124
Infection, colon bacillus, 973
Infections, acute, blood-pressure in, 216
vomiting in, 489
Infectious diseases, acute, 773
probable, 995
jaundice, 640, 1005
Infiltration of liver, fatty, with enlargement, 656
Influenza, 845
ambulatory type, 847
apyretic form, 847
bacilli in sputum, 87
bacteriology, 846
blood-pressure, low in, 847
bronchitis in, 94
bronchopneumonia in, 850
cardiac type, 847
complications, 850
emulsion of sputum, 849
encephalitis in, 850
filtrate of blood in, 849
of sputum in, 849
gastric dilatation in, 848
gastro-intestinal type, 847
nervous type, 847
paralysis of palate in, 850
pneumonia with, 830
respiratory type, 846
rheumatoid type, 847
sequelæ, 850
suprarenal involvement, 847
tympanites in, 848
typhoid type, 847
Inhalation tuberculin test in incipient phthisis, 866
Insanity and brain injuries, 1239
Inspiration pneumonia, 112
Insufficiency. See *Regurgitation.*
Intention tremor, 1202
Intercostal neuralgia, 1316
Interlobar pleurisy, 163
Interlobular emphysema, 133
Intermediate cell, 401
Intermittent claudication, 340, 1273
fever, 1015
abscess and, differentiation, 1017
Charcot's, 1017
hepatic colic and, differentiation, 1017

Intermittent fever, renal calculi and, differentiation, 1017
pulse, 200
Internal anthrax, 971
hydrocephalus, 1215
Interpolated extrasystoles, 241
Interrupted Wintrich's phenomenon, 65
Interstitial pneumonia, chronic, 121
diffuse, 121
local, 121
Intestinal animal parasites, 1031
colic, cholelithiasis and, differentiation, 678
gastralgia and, differentiation, 532
nephrolithiasis and, differentiation, 753
hemorrhage in typhoid fever, 811
indigestion, acute, 783
mycosis, 971, 972
nematodes, 1042
neuralgia, 608
obstruction, 587
acute, 587
appendicitis and, differentiation, 605
ascites and, differentiation, 590
chronic, 587, 588, 589
dilatation of colon and, differentiation, 590
from congenital structure, 588
from intussusception, 588
from new-growths, 589
from strangulation, 588
hemorrhagic pancreatitis and, differentiation, 1147
in cholelithiasis, 678
peristalsis in, 589
peritonitis and, differentiation, 591
Intestines, 472, 565
amyloid disease of, 598
carcinoma of, 609. See also *Carcinoma, intestinal.*
diseases of, 570
examination in, 565
x-ray diagnosis, 507
sarcoma of, 597
small, caliber of, 481
tuberculosis of, 781
Intradermal test for hay-fever, 1007
Intra-ocular pressure, 1087
in pregnancy, 1163
Intrapleural moist râles, 73
Intussusception, carcinoma and, differentiation, 610
Iodine in goiter, 1099
Iodin-phosphoric acid reaction, in syphilis, 887
Irregular pulse, 200
Itch, ground, 1046

Jacksonian convulsion, 1202
Jactitation, 806
Jail fever, 814
Jansky's grouping of human blood for transfusion, 394
Jaquet sphygmocardiograph, 225, 226
Jaundice, 670
catarrhal, 671
cutaneous manifestations in, 670
Jaundice, epidemic catarrhal, 1005
febrile, acute, 1005
from blood-cell degeneration, 670
hematogenous, 670
hemolytic, 673
hepatogenous, 670
in paratyphoid fever, 813
infectious, 640, 1005
itching in, 670
malignant, 668
milk secretion in, 671
paratyphoid bacillus causing, 813
pruritus in, 670
sweating in, 670
urticaria in, 670
xanthelasma in, 671
xanthopsia, 671
Jaw, lumpy-, 975. See also *Actinomycosis.*
Jerky respiration, 71
Jumpers, 1332
Justus's blood-test in syphilis, 887
Juvenile arhythmia, 234

Kahn precipitation test, 392
Kakké neuritis, 1314
Kala-azar, 1024
Karczynski-Jaworski test for blood in feces, 566
Kelling's test for lactic acid, 521
Keratosis follicularis, 1059
Kernig's sign, 1291
in meningitis, 901
Kidney, amyloid degeneration of, 737
disease of, blood-pressure in, 215
nephritis and, differentiation, 729
carcinoma of, 760
cirrhotic, 731. See also *Nephritis, interstitial chronic.*
contracted, 731. See also *Nephritis, interstitial chronic.*
disease, 718
cirrhosis and, differentiation, 666
x-ray diagnosis, 691
echinococcus cyst of, 1054
examination, 30
floating, intestinal carcinoma and, differentiation, 611
function in nephritis, 728
gouty, 731
large white, 724. See also *Nephritis, chronic.*
mobility of, *x*-ray in determining, 692
parasites in, 701, 1054
pelvis of, outline of, *x*-ray for, 693
position, 691
x-ray in determining, 692
red granular, 731
sarcoma of, 760
anæmia infantum and, differentiation, 431
secondary or fatty and contracted, 724. See also *Nephritis, chronic.*
shape, *x*-ray in determining, 692
size, *x*-ray in determining, 692
surgical, 744
syphilis of, 892
topography, 691

Kidney, *x*-ray of, 691
Kilduffe's iodin-phosphoric acid reaction in, 887
Klumpke paralysis, 1306
Knee-jerk, 1171
Kocher's sign, 1095
Koch's tuberculin reaction, 379
Kohn's duodenal tubes, in diagnosis, 575
Kolmer's quantitative method in syphilis, 891
Koplik's spots in measles, 937
Korsakoff's psychosis, 1312
  syndrome in plumbism, 594
Kottman reaction for thyroid activity, 1098

Labial eczema, 444
Laboratory examinations in diseases of nasopharynx, 33
  studies in diagnosis, 30
Lactic acid in gastric contents, 520
    tests for, 520
Lactose in urine, 711
Lactosuria, 710, 711
  physiologic, 712
Laënnec's cirrhosis, 664
La grippe, 845
La perleche, 445
Landon spinal manometer, 902
Landry's paralysis, 1248
    acute anterior poliomyelitis and, differentiation, 907
Larva migrans, 1058
Laryngeal affections, asthma and, differentiation, 104
  diphtheria, 930
    foreign bodies in air passages and, differentiation, 117
  typhoid, 811
Laryngismus stridulus, 35
Laryngitis, catarrhal, acute, 35
  chronic, 37
  edematous, 37
  in variola, 957
  spasmodic, 35
    nervous type, 36
  syphilitic, 37
  tuberculous, 36
Larynx, diseases of, 35
  foreign bodies in, 117
  spasm of, 36, 1331
    stridor in, 36
  tumors of, 38
Lasèque's sign, 1317
Latent malaria, 1023
Lateral sclerosis, 1253
Laughing center, 1187
Lead colic, 592
  encephalopathy, 594, 1313
  multiple neuritis, 1313
  poisoning, chronic, 592
  workers, aortic regurgitation in, 292
    colic, cholelithiasis and, differentiation, 677
Lenticular nucleus in cirrhosis of liver, 667
    lesions in, 1188
Lepra alba, 895
Leprosy, 893
  anesthetic, 893, 895
  Rivas method in detection, 896
  tubercular, 893, 895
Leptospira icteroides in yellow fever, 824, 826
Letter blindness, 1187
Leucin in urine, 714
Leucinuria, 714
Leukemia, 415, 424
  acute, 418
  aleukemic, 429
  amyloid disease and, differentiation, 420
  anemia of spleen and, differentiation, 420
    with splenomegaly and, differentiation, 420
  ankylostomiasis and, differentiation, 1047
  blood in, 418
  chloroma and, differentiation, 420
  chronic, 416
  clinical forms, 416
  enlargement of liver in, 657
  eosinophilic, 421
  fatty infiltration of liver and, differentiation, 420
  fresh blood in, 418
  green cancer and, differentiation, 420
  hemoglobin in, 418
  laboratory findings, 418
  leukocytes in, 419
  leukocytosis and, differentiation, 420
  leukopenic, 429
  lymphatic, 416, 421
    anæmia infantum and, differentiation, 431
    anemia of malnutrition and, differentiation, 422
    Hodgkin's disease and, differentiation, 422
    pseudoleukemia and, differentiation, 422
    scorbutus and, differentiation, 442
  malaria and, differentiation, 420
  malignant disease of lymphatics and, differentiation, 420
  mineral poisoning and, differentiation, 420
  murmurs in, 418
  myeloid, 416
    anæmia infantum and, differentiation, 431
    splenic anemia and, differentiation, 433
  nephritis and, differentiation, 420
  spleen in, 683
  splenic congestion and, differentiation, 420
  true, pseudoleukemia and, differentiation, 428
Leukocytes, counting, 368
  differential, 408
  in disease, 409
  in secondary anemia, 407, 408
  in urine, 698
  pipet for counting, 365

Leukocytes, solution for preserving, 365
Leukocytosis, 409
drug, 409
in erysipelas, 953
leukemia and, differentiation, 420
pathologic, 409
physiologic, 409
toxic, 409
Leukocyturia, 698
Leukopenia, 402, 409
Leukopenic leukemia, 429
Levy counting chamber, 369
Linitis plastica, 564
Lipemia, 370
Lipodystrophia progressiva superior, 1163
Lipoids in blood in diabetes, 1071
Lipoma of brain, 1220
Lipomatosis universalis, 1114
Lips, diseases of, 444
parasitic disease of, 445
Little's disease, 1214
Liver, 635
abscess of, 651. See also *Abscess, hepatic.*
age and posture, 636
alcohol, 664. See also *Cirrhosis, atrophic.*
amebic abscess of, 1033, 1050
amyloid disease of, 657
and gall-bladder examination, 29
animal parasites of, 1048
carcinoma of, 645. See also *Carcinoma, hepatic.*
cirrhosis of, atrophic, 663. See also *Cirrhosis, atrophic.*
hypertrophic, 640. See also *Cirrhosis.*
cysts of, 1050
pleurisy with effusion and, differentiation, 160
diseases, 638
Lyon's test in, 677
distention of, 654
echinococcus disease of, 1048
enlargement of, movements of abdomen in, 479
examination of, 635
fatty degeneration of, with enlargement, 656
infiltration of, leukemia and, differentiation, 420
flukes, 1050
function, estimation of, 636
gin-drinker's, 664. See also *Cirrhosis, atrophic.*
hob-nailed, 664
hyperemia of, 650
in phosphorus-poisoning, 661
in syphilis, 889
nutmeg, 668
outline of, in amyloid disease, 658
outlining, 643
position, 635
anomalies, 638
pulsating, of tricuspid regurgitation, 313, 315
sarcoma of, 650
shape, 635
Liver, size of, diminished, 663
sugar-iced, 668
syphilis of, 659, 890
topographic anatomy, 635
tuberculosis of, 661, 877
yellow atrophy of, phosphorus-poisoning and, differentiation, 662
Lobar pneumonia, 120, 827. See also *Pneumonia, lobar.*
Löbstein's cancer, 589, 626
Local examination in history taking, 28
Localization, cerebral, 1184
Localized adiposity, 1116
Lockjaw, 965, 1328. See also *Tetanus.*
Locomotor ataxia, 1261. See also *Tabes dorsalis.*
Lorain's disease, 1132
Louse containing bacillus typi-exanthematici, 814
Lucilia cæsar, 1060
serricata, 1060
Ludwig's angina, 457
Luetin reaction of Noguchi, 380
in syphilis, 888, 891
Lumbago, 995
Lumbar plexus, diseases of, 1309
Lumpy-jaw, 975
Lung. See also *Pulmonary.*
abscess of, *x*-ray diagnosis, 77
cavities, *x*-ray diagnosis, 78
cirrhosis of, 121
congestion of, 108
diseases of, 38, 108
x-ray evidence of, 76
embolism of, 124
fever, 827. See also *Pneumonia, lobar.*
gangrene of, *x*-ray diagnosis, 77
neoplasms of, *x*-ray diagnosis, 78
parasitic disease of, 1054
stonemason's, sputum in, 90
syphilis of, *x*-ray diagnosis, 78
transparency of, diseases which decrease, 77
which increase, 76
vital capacity of, in heart disease, 182
in myocarditis, 327
Luschka tonsils, 1158
Lymphadenoma, general, 426. See also *Pseudoleukemia.*
Lymphangitis in glanders, 970
Lymphatic leukemia, 421. See also *Leukemia, lymphatic.*
obstruction, filariasis and, differentiation, 1029
Lymphatics, malignant disease of, leukemia and, differentiation, 420
tuberculosis of, 878
tuberculous, aneurism and, differentiation, 879
Lymph-nodes, tracheobronchial, tuberculosis of, 878
Lymphocytosis, 410
Lyon's test in gall-bladder disease, 677
Lyssophobia, 965

MacEwen's sign in meningitis, 901
Macrocyte, 401
Madura foot, 984

Magnesium solution in liver test, 677
Malacia, 484
Maladie des tics, 1332
Malaise with fever, 774
Malaria, 1013
estivo-autumnal, 1014. See also *Estivo-autumnal fever.*
hematuria in, 1023
hemoglobinuria in, 1023
hepatic abscess, differentiation, 654
herpes labialis in, 444
intermittent type, 1015. See also *Intermittent fever.*
latent, 1023
leukemia and, differentiation, 420
nervous symptoms in, 1018
paludal, 1014
plasmodium of, in brain, 1060
quartan, 1014
quotidian, 1014
recurrent, 1021
remittent, 1019. See also *Remittent fever.*
spleen in, 684
splenic anemia and, differentiation, 433
tertian, 1014
typhoid fever and, differentiation, 809
Malarial cachexia, 1021
chronic, 1014
fever, 1017. See also *Estivo-autumnal fever.*
pneumonia, 830
Malignant jaundice, 668
pustule, 970
Malnutrition, anemia of, lymphatic leukemia and, differentiation, 422
inanition of, pseudoleukemia and, differentiation, 429
Malta fever, 818
Mammary glands, neuralgia of, 1317
Maniacal delirium in cirrhosis, 641
Manometer, spinal, 902
Marie's syndrome, 1125
Mask-like face in acute epidemic encephalitis, 909
Mastitis in mumps, 945
Mastodynia, 1317
Matching blood for transfusion, 393
Maternity tetany, 1110, 1111
Mazamorra, 1046
McBurney's point, 600, 602, 614
Measles, 934
bacteriology, 935
blepharitis in, 940
bronchitis in, 94, 940
bronchopneumonia in, 940
catarrh of middle ear in, 940
catarrhal stage, 936
conjunctivitis in, 940
French, 940. See also *Rubella.*
gastro-intestinal catarrh in, 940
German, 940. See also *Rubella.*
hemolytic streptococci in, 939
immunity in, 935
Koplik's spots in, 937
nephritis in, 940
otitis media in, 940
parasitology, 935
Measles, pneumonia in, 940
rubella and, differentiation, 940, 941
scarlet fever and, differentiation, 921, 939, 940
sputum in, 939
typhus fever and, differentiation, 818
ulceration of cornea in, 940
varicella and, differentiation, 940
variola and, differentiation, 940, 960
Median nerve palsy, 1307
Mediastinal new-growths, effect on heart, 263
Mediastinopericarditis, 269
Mediastinum, abscess of, 352
carcinoma of, 353
diseases of, 337, 352
hemorrhage into, 356
inflammations, 352
new-growths of, thoracic aneurism and, differentiation, 350
sarcoma of, 353
tumors of, 353
carcinoma of esophagus and, 471
x-ray diagnosis, 264, 355
Mediterranean fever, 818
Medulla oblongata, lesions of, 1190
tumors of, 1229
Megaloblast, 401
Megalogastria, 506
gastric dilatation, differentiation, 558
Meigs' disease, 739
Melæna neonatorum, 1010
Melanin, 361
Meloidosis, 842
Ménière's disease, 1201, 1225
Meninges, diseases of, 1288
of brain, hemorrhages of, 1238
injuries to, 1238
Meningism, 1293
Meningismus, 1293
Meningitis, acute tuberculous, 858
and typhoid fever, 812
cerebrospinal, 896, 1290
abortive, 898
apoplectic, 897
arthritis in, 899
aspiration in, 902
blood in, 901
Brudzinski's sign in, 901
eruption in, 900
gonococcal, 898
Gowers's sign in, 901
herpes labialis in, 444
intermittent, 897
Kernig's sign in, 901
MacEwen's sign in, 901
malignant, 897
mild, 897
nasal secretion in, 903
occipital pain in, 898
opisthotonos in, 900
ordinary type, 898
paralyses in, 900
photophobia in, 899
spinal puncture in, 902
tongue in, 900
Trousseau's sign in, 900
typhoid state in, 900

Meningitis, cerebrospinal, typhus fever and, differentiation, 817
variola and, differentiation, 961
vomiting in, 899
circumscribed serous, 1274
lobar pneumonia and, differentiation, 840
paludal, 1014
purulent, 1290
serous, 1293
cerebral, 1294
tuberculous, 877, 1291
in infants, 1292
typhoid fever and, differentiation, 810
Meningomyelitis, 1270
Menopause, blood-pressure in, 216
Mensuration of chest in heart disease, 251
Mental diseases, atrophy of testes in, 1161
Meralgia paresthetica, 1310
Mercurial stomatitis, 455
Mesenteric angina, 635
glands, tuberculosis of, 878
Mesentery embolism, 634
thrombosis, 634
Metabolic rate, estimation of, 32
Metabolism, basal. See *Basal Metabolism.*
Metallic tinkle, 75
Metatarsal bones, neuralgia of, 1318
Methemoglobin, 360
spectrum of, 362
Microcyte, 401
Migraine, 1358
ophthalmic, 1359
pituitary body in, 1120
Mikulicz's syndrome, 881
Miliary fever, 1003
tuberculosis, 857. See also *Tuberculosis, miliary.*
Milk secretion in jaundice, 671
Milk-sickness, 1003
Milroy's disease, 739
Mineral poisoning, leukemia and, differentiation, 420
progressive pernicious anemia and, differentiation, 415
stomatitis, 455
Miner's asthma, 123
Minot's technic for testing blood for transfusion, 394
Miosis, 1172
Miotic pupils in tabes dorsalis, 1266
Mitral incompetency, 302
insufficiency, 302
regurgitation, 302
aspiration in, 308
auscultation in, 307
clubbing of fingers and toes in, 304
expectoration in, 304, 307
functional murmurs and, differentiation, 309
gastro-intestinal catarrh in, 304
hemorrhoids from, 304
mechanic influence of lesion, 303
pain in, 304
pulse in, 306
stenosis and, differentiation, 308
Mitral stenosis, 309
arm and leg pressure in, 313
auscultation in, 312
murmur in, 312
paralyses in, 310
regurgitation and, differentiation, 308, 313
Mœbius sign, 1095
Moist râles, 72
Monkey hand, 1251
Monohypesthesia, 1330
Monolateral blindness, 1175
Morbus coxæ senilis, 1324
maculosus neonatorum, 436, 1010
Moro's tuberculin reaction, 379
Morphea, 1100, 1321
Morris' atropin test in typhoid fever, 806
Mors thymicus, 1105
Motility disturbances in brain diseases, 1201
Motor aphasia, 1186
in apoplexy, 1212
area, tumors of, 1225
centers, 1168, 1184
end point, 513
neurons, upper and lower, 1168
neuroses, 1329
symptoms, 1167
systems, 1168
Mountain fever, 999
Rocky, 999
sickness, 999
Mouth, diseases of, 444
dryness of, in mumps, 943
Movement, sense of, 1180
Movements, forced or associated, in brain diseases, 1202
of esophagus, *x*-ray and, 462
Mucocrepitant râles, 73
Mucoid stools, 568
Mucopurulent sputum, 82
Mucor corymbifer in sputum, 86
Mucous bronchitis, 98
click, 73
colitis, 591
râles, 72
sputum, 82
Multiple neuritis, 1310. See also *Neuritis, multiple.*
serositis, 668
Mumps, 943
dryness of mouth in, 943
mastitis in, 945
nephritis in, 945
orchitis in, 944
otitis media in, 944
ovaritis in, 945
salivation in, 943
vulvitis in, 945
Murmurs, 256
canter, 327
cardiopulmonary, 256
deglutition, 501
endocardial, 256
extracardial, 256
friction, 73
functional, and of acute endocarditis, differentiation, 282

Murmurs, functional, mitral regurgitation and, differentiation, 309
Graham Steell, 318
hemic, aortic stenosis murmurs and, differentiation, 302
n aortic stenosis, 300, 301, 302
in insufficiency, 256
in leukemia, 418
in mitral stenosis, 312
in pseudoleukemia, 428
localization, 257
of obstruction, 257
of regurgitation, 257
of tricuspid regurgitation, 315
organic endocardial, 256
point of maximum intensity, 257
rhythm, 257
Roger's, 319
significance of, 256
time of, 257
vascular, 256
venous, 256
whiff, 256
Muscle, animal parasites of, 1051
sense, 1180
weakness, parathyroid secretion in, 1089
Muscular atrophy, progressive, 1250
spinal, 1250
dystrophy, 1296. See also *Dystrophy, muscular.*
rheumatism, 995. See also *Rheumatism, muscular.*
Musculocutaneous nerves, paralysis of, 1307
Musculospiral palsy, 1307
Myalgia, 995
and heart disease, 177
cervicalis, 995
lumbalis, 995
Myasthenia gravis, 1106
chronic bulbar paralysis and, differentiation, 1241
prostatitis, 1107
Myasthenic reaction, 1242
Mycetoma, 983
Mycosis, intestinal, 971, 972
Mycotic aneurism, 343
diarrhea, 783. See also *Enteritis, catarrhal.*
stomatitis, 980
Mydriasis, 1172
epinephrin, in goiter, 1097
Myelitis, 1270
acute, 1271
acute anterior poliomyelitis and, differentiation, 907
transverse, 1271
central, 1270
chronic, 1271, 1272
disseminated, 1270, 1271
of cervical cord, 1271
of lumbar cord, 1271
of thoracic cord, 1271
senile, 1272
serous, 1273
subacute, 1271, 1272
transverse, 1270
Myeloid leukemia, 416
anæmia infantum and, differentiation, 431
splenic anemia and, differentiation, 433
Myelomalacia, 1270
Myelomata, 1075
Myiasis, 1060
Myocarditis, 324
acute, 324
chronic, 325
in diphtheria, 934
in typhoid fever, 812
pain in, 324
psychoses in, 326
vital capacity of lungs in, 328
Wassermann reaction with spinal fluid in, 327
Myocardium, diseases of, 320
Myoclonia, 1333
Myoclonus epilepsy, 1333
multiplex, acute infectious, 1333
Unverricht's type, 1333
Myoidema, 1334
Myokymia, 1333
Myositis, rheumatic, 996
Myotonia, 996
congenita, 1339
Myotonic reaction, 1173
Myxedema, 1088
goiter and, differentiation, 1099
in childhood, 1091
thyroid dystrophy in, 1089
thyroid gland in, 1088

Nasal catarrh, chronic, 34
diphtheria, 930
Nasopharynx, diseases of, laboratory examinations in, 33
Natiform skull in syphilis, 890
Nausea, 486
from brain lesions, 1201
in atrophic cirrhosis, 665
Necator americanus, 1045
Neck, spasms of, 1331
Negri bodies, 964
Nematodes, 1026, 1050
intestinal, 1042
rats in infection, 1042, 1044
Neoplasms of lung, *x*-ray diagnosis, 78
Nephritis, acute, 718
blood-pressure in, 216
epidemic, 723
filter-passing virus in, 718
unilateral hematogenous, 718, 720
and high threshold in diabetes, 372
aortic stenosis and, differentiation, 302
chlorid in blood in, 722
chronic, 724
Ambard quotient in estimation of renal function, 728
amyloid kidney and, differentiation, 729
blood-pressure in, 217
exudative, 724
heart in, 263
interstitial nephritis and, differentiation, 729

Nephritis, chronic, kidney function in, 728
of children, 736
productive, without exudation, 731
desquamative, chronic, 724. See also *Nephritis, chronic.*
diffuse chronic with exudation, 724. See also *Nephritis, chronic.*
epidemic, acute, 723
focal infection in, 719
hemorrhagic, acute, 718
in measles, 940
in mumps, 945
in pregnancy, 719
in typhoid fever, 812
interstitial chronic, 731
amyloid kidney and, differentiation, 729
blood in, 735
parathyroids in, 731
urine in, 734
non-suppurative, acute, 723
leukemia and, differentiation, 420
lipoids in blood in, 722
nitrogen retention in, 738
parathyroids in, 725
parenchymatous, acute, 718
chronic, 724. See also *Nephritis, chronic.*
pupils in, 1175
tubal, chronic, 724. See also *Nephritis, chronic.*
typhus fever and, differentiation, 817
unilateral hematogenous, acute, 718, 720
Nephro-erysipelas, 950
Nephrolithiasis, 749
colic in, 751
collapse in, 751
hepatic calculus and, differentiation, 753
intermittent fever and, differentiation, 1017
intestinal colic and, differentiation, 753
micturition in, 750
pain in, 750
pelvic, 749
renal, 749
uremic manifestations in, 750
vesical calculus and, differentiation, 753
x-ray diagnosis, 691, 752
Nephrotyphoid, 812
Nerves, abducens, 1196
auditory, 1199
circumflex, paralysis of, 1307
cranial, 1193. See also *Cranial nerves.*
facial, 1198
glossopharyngeal, 1199
hypoglossus, 1200
oculomotor, 1195
olfactory, 1193
optic, 1193
pneumogastric, 1199
spinal accessory, 1199
trigeminus, 1196
trochlear, 1196
tumors of, 1310
Nervous diarrhea, 608, 783
dyspepsia, 531
phenomena in heart disease, 182
symptoms, fever and, 774
system, diseases, 1166
sensory, 1176, 1179
syphilis of, 890, 1284. See also *Syphilis of nervous system.*
vomiting, 531
Neubauer ruling, 369
Neuralgia, 1315
brachial, 1316
epigastric, 609
facial, 1196
hypogastric, 609
idiopathic, 1317
intercostal, 1316
intestinal, 608
lumbar, 1317
metatarsal, 1318
muscular rheumatism and, differentiation, 997
occipital, 1316
of Achilles tendon, 1318
of breasts, 1317
of heel, 1318
of mammary glands, 1317
of stomach, 491
sacral, 1317
unusual forms, 1317
Neurasthenia, 1340
appendicitis and, differentiation, 605
sexual, 1343
Neuritis, brachial, 1305
in diphtheria, 934
Kakké, 1314
multiple, 1310
acute anterior poliomyelitis and, differentiation, 907
alcoholic, 1311
arsenical, 1313
ataxic, 1312
carbon disulphid, 1313
monoxid, 1313
copper, 1313
from infectious diseases, 1315
illuminating gas, 1313
lead, 1313
mercuric, 1313
phosphoric, 1313
optic, 1193
Neuro-circulatory-asthenia, 197
Neuroses, motor, 528, 1329
occupation, 1332
of bladder, 768
cystitis and, differentiation, 769
irritability and, differentiation, 769
neurosis of pregnancy and, differentiation, 769
of pregnancy, cystitis and, differentiation, 769
irritability of bladder and, differentiation, 769
neuroses of bladder and, differentiation, 769
of sensation, 531
of stomach, 525
of motility, 528

Neuroses, of stomach, secretory, 527
secretory, 527
traumatic, 1354
Neurotic tachycardias, 197
Neurotonic reaction, 1173
New growths of lungs, 131
Newborn, acute fatty degeneration of, 1010
hemorrhage of, hemophilia and, differentiation, 434
hemorrhagic disease of, 1009
purpura of, 436
Nitric acid test for albuminuria, 702
Nitrogen, non-protein in blood, 372
retention in nephritis, 738
Nitrous oxide anesthesia, blood-pressure in, 221
Nocturnal enuresis, 771
epilepsy, 1206
Nodal extrasystoles, 241
paroxysmal tachycardia, 245
rhythm, 246
Noguchi's luetin reaction, 380
Noma, 452
Non-protein nitrogen in blood, 372
Normal breath sounds, 67
respiration, types of, 50
Normoblast, 401
Nose, discharges from, bacteria in, 33
diseases of, 33, 34
examination of, 28
Nucleated red cells, 401
Nucleus, caudate, lesions in, 1188
Deiters', lesions in, 1191
lenticular, lesions in, 1188
magnocellularis substantia reticularis, lesions in, 1191
paracerebellar, lesions in, 1191
test in pancreatic disease, 1144
vestibularis, lesions in, 1191
Nummular sputum, 83
in pulmonary tuberculosis, 869
Nutmeg liver, 668
Nutritional edema, 738

Obesity, 1114
blood-pressure and, 214
Obliterating endarteritis, 893
Obliterative pericarditis, *x*-ray diagnosis, 258
Obstetrical palsy, 1305
Obstruction, murmurs of, 257
of bile-duct, 679
of esophagus, vomiting of, 489
Obstructive pyelitis, 744
Obturator nerve, paralysis of, 1309
Occipital area, tumors of, 1227
neuralgia, 1316
Occupation neurosis, 1332
Ocular movement, associated, paralysis of, 1190
phenomena of pregnancy, 1163
Oculo-cardiac reflex, 1176
Oculomotor nerve, 1195
Olfactory nerve, 1193
Oligochromemia, 400
Oligocythemia, 400
Omentum, carcinoma of, hepatic carcinoma and, differentiation, 649
Omodynia, 996
Opaque solutions in bronchi and lungs in diagnosis, 130
Ophthalmic migraine, 1359
Ophthalmoplegia, 1195, 1196
interna, 1175
Ophthalmotuberculin reaction in incipient phthisis, 865
Opisthorchis sinensis, 1042
Opisthotonos in meningitis, 900
Oppenheim's disease, 1339
Opsonic index, 377, 378
in diagnosis, 22
Opsonins, 377
Optic atrophy, 1194
nerve, 1193
neuritis, 1193
thalamus, 1188
Orchitis in mumps, 944
tuberculous, 878
Orthopnea in heart disease, 181
Orthostatic albuminuria, blood-pressure in, 214
Osteitis deformans, 1326
Osteomalacia, 1325
parathyroids in, 1325
Osteosarcoma of brain, 1218
Otitis media in diphtheria, 934
in measles, 940
in mumps, 944
in scarlet fever, 924
in typhoid fever, 812
Ovarian cyst, ascites and, differentiation, 631
hydronephrosis and, differentiation, 742
Ovaries, tuberculosis of, 878
Ovaritis, appendicitis and, differentiation, 604
in mumps, 945
Ovary, 1162
Oxalic acid in urine, 713
Oxaluria, 713, 714
Oxyhemoglobin, 360
spectrum of, 361
Oxyuris in bladder, 1054
vermicularis, 1044

Pacemakers, wandering, 230
Pachymeningitis, cerebral, 1288
hypertrophic cervical, 1289
spinal, 1289
Paget's disease, 1326
Pain, abdominal, 476
in children, 477
central, 1181
diaphragmatic, 79
due to aneurism, 178
due to angina pectoris, 179
due to aortic disease, 178
due to cardiac disease, 178
due to pericardial disease, 178
epigastric, 491
not connected with stomach, 492
gastric, 491
in acute general peritonitis, 614

Pain in carcinoma of duodenum, 493
of pancreas, 493
in cardiac palpitation, 493
in cholelithiasis, 676
in gastric ulcer, 543
in heart disease, 177
in hepatic abscess, 562
in hyperacidity, 492
in pancreatic disease, 492
in thoracic aneurism, 493
in tuberculosis of vertebra, 493
of gall-stones, 492
of gastric carcinoma, 492
fermentation, 492
ulcer, 492
of gastritis, 492
of hepatic colic, 492
referred, 1181
scapular, 324
sense of, 1180
submammary, 324
types, 491
Palate, paralysis of, in influenza, 850
spasms of, 1331
Palpatory percussion, 61
Palpitation, 179
cardiac, pain in, 493
Palsy, pseudo-bulbar, 1217
Paludal meningitis, 1014
Pancreas, apoplexy of, 1149
calculi in, 1152
carcinoma of, 1150
carcinoma of pylorus and, differentiation, 1151, 1152
colonic carcinoma and, differentiation, 1151, 1152
of head, intestinal carcinoma and, differentiation, 610
pain in, 493
cyst of, 1152
disease of, Cammidge reaction in, 1144
fatty stools in, 1143
laboratory diagnosis, 1145
nucleus test in, 1144
pain in, 492
hemorrhage into, 1149
in diabetes, 1142
in endocrine disturbances, 1142
Pancreatic disfunction in diabetes, 1164
ferments, qualitative tests for, 578
Pancreatitis, appendicitis and, differentiation, 604
chronic, 1148
gangrenous, 1148
hemorrhagic, acute, 1146
gastroduodenal catarrh and, differentiation, 1147
intestinal obstruction and differentiation, 1147
suppurative, 1148
Paracerebellar nuclei, lesions in, 1191
Paradoxical light reflex, 1173
Paradysentery, 790
Paraganglia, 1083, 1086
Paragonimiasis, 1056
Paragonimus Westermanii, 1042
in lungs, 139
in sputum, 84
Paralysis, 1207
agitans, 1202, 1336
ascending, 1248
Bell's, 1198
biceps, 1307
birth, 1305
brachial, 1305
brachialis anticus, 1307
Brown-Séquard, 1281
bulbar, 1239. See also *Bulbar paralysis.*
deltoid, 1307
diphtheritic, 1314
diver's, 1273
Duchenne-Erb, 1307
facial, central, 1198
peripheral, 1199
family spastic, 1254
from brain tumor, 1208, 1210
from head injury, 1210
from wood-tick bite, 998
hereditary, 1254
hysterical, 1349
in acute anterior poliomyelitis, 904, 905
Klumpke, 1306
Landry's, 1248
acute anterior poliomyelitis and, differentiation, 907, 1249
median nerve, 1307
musculospiral, 1307
obstetrical, 1305
oculomotor, syphilitic, 1195
of abducens nerve, 1196
of anterior crural nerve, 1309
of associated ocular movement, 1190
of auditory nerve, 1199
of circumflex nerve, 1307
of cranial nerves in tabes dorsalis, 1266
of diaphragm, 1309
movements of abdomen in, 479
of external popliteal nerve, 1309
of facial nerve, 1198
of glossopharyngeal nerve, 1199
of gluteal nerves, 1309
of hypoglossus nerve, 1200
of internal popliteal nerve, 1309
of long thoracic, 1307
of motor fifth nerve, 1196
of musculocutaneous nerves, 1307
of obturator nerve, 1309
of oculomotor nerve, 1195
of olfactory nerve, 1193
of optic nerve, 1193
of palate in influenza, 850
of pneumogastric nerve, 1199
of posterior thoracic, 1307
of serratus magnus, 1307
of spinal accessory nerve, 1199
of trigeminus nerve, 1196
of trochlear nerve, 1196
of uremia, plumbism and, differentiation, 596
of vocal cords in thoracic aneurism, 345
post-diphtheric, 931
plumbism and, differentiation, 596
pseudo-bulbar, 1212
rachitic, 1074
Saturday night, 1307

Paralysis, sciatic, 1309
shifting, of Bright's disease, 721
ulnar, 1308
uveoparotetic, 945
Paralytic enuresis, 771
Paramyoclonus multiplex, 996, 1333
Paranephroids, 1083, 1086
Paraplegia, ataxic, 1258
Parasites, animal, of liver, 1048
of muscles, 1051
cutaneous, 1057
in kidney, 701
intestinal animal, 1031
of bladder, 1054
of eye, 1059
of kidney, 1054
vegetable, in urine, 762
Parasitic albuminuria, 701
anemia, 405
progressive pernicious anemia and, differentiation, 415
aneurism, 342
diseases of brain, 1060
of lips, 445
of lungs, 139, 1054
pyelitis, 745
Parasitology of blood, 443
Parathyroids, 1107
in chronic interstitial nephritis, 731
in diabetes mellitus, 1064
in nephritis, 725
in osteomalacia, 1325
in rachitis, 1072
in tetany, 1110
pathology of, 1108
Paratyphoid fever, 813
jaundice in, 813
Widal test in, 381
Paresis, general, 1355
Paretic curve, 1287
Parkinson's disease, 1336
syndrome, 909
Parkinsonism, 1338
Parorexia, 484
Parosmia, 1193
Parotid glands, 1165
Parotitis, epidemic, 943. See also *Mumps.*
Paroxysmal dyspnea in heart disease, 181
tachycardia, 242
auricular, 242
of nodal origin, 245
ventricular, 243
Past medical history, 26
Past pointing in brain tumors, 1223, 1224
Pastia's sign in scarlet fever, 925
Patellar clonus, 1171
reflex, 1171
Patulous ileocecal valve, 607
Peduncles, cerebral, lesions in, 1189
Peliosis rheumatica, 435, 436, 991, 993
hemophilia and, differentiation, 434
Pellagra, 1362
Pentose in urine, 712
Pentosuria, 712
Pepsinogen, 518
Percussion, threshold, 262
trans-digital, 262
Perforation in typhoid fever, 811
Periarteritis, gummatous, 893
Pericardial disease, pain due to, 178
effusion, serofibrinous pleurisy and, differentiation, 160
Pericarditis, 265
acute plastic, 266
adherent, with ascites, 668
adhesive, 277
blood-pressure in, 218
callosa, 277
chronic, 277
dry, *x*-ray diagnosis, 258
encysted pleurisy and, differentiation, 273
endocarditis and, differentiation, 282
external mediastinal, *x*-ray diagnosis, 258
exudative, *x*-ray diagnosis, 258
hemorrhagic, 276
in pneumonia, 842
in typhoid fever, 812
obliterative, *x*-ray diagnosis, 258
purulent, 274
serofibrinous, 269. See also *Pericarditis, subacute.*
subacute, 269
cardiac dilatation and, differentiation, 272
pleurisy and, differentiation, 272
serum diagnosis, 272
x-ray diagnosis, 268
Pericardium, 258
air in, 279
aspirating, 274
blood in, 279
diseases of, 176
x-ray diagnosis, 258, 265
dropsy of, 278
empyema of, 274
gas in, 279
pus in, 279
Pericystitis, 618
Perihepatitis, acute, 660
syphilitic, acute, 660
Perimetritis, 618
Perinephritic abscess, 755. See also *Abscess, perinephritic.*
Periostitis, heart disease and, 178
Peri-ovaritis, 618
Peripheral blood, alkalinity of, 370
facial palsy, 1199
nerves, diseases of, 1300
function, 1300
structure, 1300
Peristalsis, diminished, 592
gastric, estimation of, 528
in stomach, 495
Peristaltic unrest, 529
Peritoneum, carcinoma of, 622
diseases of, 613
tuberculosis of, 623. See also *Tuberculosis, peritoneal.*
Peritonitis, abdomen in, 615, 616
acute, general, 613
pain in, 614
localized, 618
appendicitis and, differentiation, 604

Peritonitis, carcinomatous, peritoneal tuberculosis and, differentiation, 625
chronic diffuse, 622
diaphragmatic, heart disease and, 178
in cholelithiasis, 678
intestinal obstruction and, differentiation, 591
peritoneal tuberculosis and, differentiation, 625
subphrenic, 619
movements of diaphragm and, 79
pleurisy with effusion and, differentiation, 160
pneumothorax and, differentiation, 174
pyopneumothorax and, differentiation, 621
thirst in, 615
tuberculous, 877
vomiting in, 490, 615
Peritonsillar abscess, 780
Perityphlitis, 599
Pernicious anemia, sclerosis in, 1258
Pertussis, 945. See also *Whooping-cough*.
Perverted appetite, 484
Pestis ambulans, 844
Petit mal, 1204, 1205
Petruschky's sign in tuberculosis, 879
Phagocytosis, 377
Pharyngeal diphtheria, 929
Pharyngitis acuta simplex, 455
acute, 455
scarlet fever and, differentiation, 921
chronic, 456
cough of, 457
dry, 457
in variola, 957
sicca, 457
Pharyngocele, 466
Pharynx, foreign bodies in, 524
spasms of, 1331
Phlebitis, purulent, 680
Phlegmonous enteritis, 782
gastritis, 539
Phosphates in urine, 706
Phosphatic diabetes, 706
Phosphorus-poisoning, liver in, 661
yellow atrophy and, differentiation, 662, 669
Photophobia in yellow fever, 825
Phthisis. See *Pulmonary tuberculosis*.
Physical examination, 27
Physiologic reflex arc, 1245
Pia-arachnoid, inflammation of, 1290
Pica, 484
Pick's disease, 668
Pineal gland, 1113
Pipet test for albuminuria, 702
Pistol-shot sounds, 258
Pituitary disease in hysteria, 1344
epilepsy, 1206
gland, 1117
disturbances in function, 1123
during pregnancy, 1134
epilepsy and, 1118, 1122
extracts, 1121
functions, 1120
in diabetes, 1063, 1064, 1139
Pituitary gland, in epilepsy, 1203, 1204
in migraine, 1120
pars intermedia, 1122
sarcoma of, 1218
tumor of, 1118
test for goiter, 1097
Plague, 843
abortive cases, 844
bedbugs in transmitting, 843
bubonic form, 844
flea-bites in, 843
pneumonic form, 844
septicemic form, 844
Plantar reflex, 1172
Plasmodium falciparum, 1014
malariæ, 1014
of malaria in train, 1060
vivax, 1014
Plastic bronchitis, 98
pleurisy, acute, 146
primary, 146
secondary, 146, 147
Pleura, adherent, *x*-ray diagnosis, 80
diseases of, 38, 139
x-ray evidence of, 76
dropsy of, 143. See also *Hydrothorax*.
new growth of, *x*-ray diagnosis, 79
thickened, 164
x-ray diagnosis, 165
Pleural adhesions, *x*-ray diagnosis, 77
effusions and pneumothorax, blood-pressure in, 218
effect on heart, 263
hydatid cyst and, differentiation, 1050
x-ray diagnosis, 80
exudate, malignant, 162
fluid, 162
Pleurisy, 145
acute plastic, 146
adhesive, 164
carcinomatous, 161
chronic, 164
serofibrinous and, differentiation, 165
x-ray diagnosis, 165
circumscribed, heart disease and, 178
clinical forms, 161
diaphragmatic, 164
dry chronic, 164
fibrinous, 146
encapsulated, 163
encysted, pericarditis and, differentiation, 273
hemorrhagic, 161
interlobar, 163
intra-pleural pressure in, 155
in typhoid fever, 811
plastic, 146
acute, 146
primary, 146
secondary, 146, 147
pneumococcic, 157
serofibrinous, 148
appendicitis and, differentiation, 160
bacterial infection in, 149
cardiac symptoms in, 150

Pleurisy, serofibrinous, chronic adhesive and, differentiation, 165
cough in, 149
cracked-pot sound in, 153
cysts of liver and, differentiation, 160
dilatation of heart and, differentiation, 160
dyspnea in, 149
egophony in, 155
empyema and, differentiation, 168
hydrothorax and, 160
lobar pneumonia and, differentiation, 159
new-growths of pleura and, differentiation, 158
pain in, 149
paracentesis in, 155
pericardial effusion and, differentiation, 160
rheumatism and, 149
S-line of flatness in, 153
stage of effusion, 151
of resorption, 156
subdiaphragmatic abscess and, differentiation, 160
tuberculous infiltration of lung and, differentiation, 158
vocal resonance in, 155
x-ray diagnosis in, 155, 157
streptococcic, 157
subacute, 148
pericarditis and, differentiation, 272
serum diagnosis, 272
thoracocentesis in, 155
tuberculous, 162, 877
typhoid, 158
with displacement of heart, thoracic aneurism and, differentiation, 350
with effusion, 148
acute bronchitis and, differentiation, 92
lobar pneumonia and, differentiation, 840, 841
Pleuritic adhesions limiting movements of diaphragm, 79
Pleuritis, 145
purulent, 166. See also *Empyema*.
Pleurodynia, 996
and heart disease, 178
epidemic diaphragmatic, 850
Plumbism, 592
ankylostomiasis and, differentiation, 1047
blood in, 596
colic in, 594
cramp in, 595
encephalopathy in, 594
eyes in, 596
focal infection in, 597
foot-drop in, 594
headaches in, 595
heart in, 596
Korsakoff's syndrome in, 594
lead line in, 595
nervous phenomena in, 594
neuritis in, 594
paralysis of uremia and, differentiation, 596
Plumbism, postdiphtheritic paralysis and, differentiation, 596
scaphoid abdomen in, 595
urine in, 596
vomitus in, 596
wrist-drop in, 594
Pneumatosis, 530
Pneumococci in sputum, 87
Pneumococcic pleurisy, 157
Pneumo-erysipelas, 950
Pneumogastric nerve, 1199
Pneumomycosis, 138
Pneumonia, abortive, 830
bilious, 830
blood-pressure in, 218
catarrhal, 111
cerebral, 833
croupous, 120, 827. See also *Pneumonia, lobar*.
epidemic, 830
ether, 830
fibrinous, 120, 827. See also *Pneumonia, lobar*.
Friedländer's, 838
in measles, 940
inspiration, 112
interstitial, chronic, 121
diffuse, 121
local, 121
latent, 829
lobar, 120, 827
abscess with, 842
auscultation of abdomen in, 834
bacteriology, 831
blood in, 838
breath sounds over abdomen in, 834
bronchopneumonia and, differentiation, 115, 841
cardiovascular symptoms in, 835
complicating other maladies, 832
congestion stage, 827, 836
consolidation stage, 836
cough in, 832, 833
delirium in, 833
edema with, 842
empyema in, 841
endocarditis in, 842
epidemics of, 831
expectoration in, 833
feces in, 839
gangrene with, 842
gastro-intestinal symptoms, 833
gray hepatization in, 828, 837
headache in, 833
herpes labialis in, 444
hyperpyrexia in, 835
immunity to, 832
invasion stage, 832
mahogany flush in, 836
meningitis and, differentiation, 840
nephritis with, 842
pain in, 832, 833, 835
pericarditis in, 842
pleurisy with effusion and, 159, 840, 841
plugging of bronchus in, 837
pneumonic phthisis and, differentiation, 840

Pneumonia, lobar, râles in, 836, 837, 838
red hepatization stage, 827
sputum in, 833, 838
suppurative, 129
tympany in, 834
typhoid pneumonia and, differentiation, 840
typhoid state in, 840
urine in, 839
vaccination against, 832
Weil's sign in, 836
malarial, 830
massive, 837
migratory, 829
of children, 830
relapsing, 831
senile, 830
serous, 830
sputum in, 87
streptococcus, 830
terminal, 830, 832
typhoid, 829
lobar pneumonia and, differentiation, 840
walking, 833
with influenza, 830
x-ray diagnosis, 77
Pneumonic phthisis, acute, 859
lobar pneumonia and, differentiation, 840
Pneumonitis, 120, 827. See also *Pneumonia, lobar.*
Pneumonokoniosis, 122
sputum in, 89
Pneumopericardium, 279
pyopneumothorax and, differentiation, 279
Pneumorrhagia, 124
Pneumothorax, 169. See also *Pyopneumothorax.*
and pleural effusion, blood-pressure in, 218
bell tympany in, 172
coin test in, 172
cracked-pot sound in, 172
diaphragmatic hernia and, differentiation, 174
dilated stomach and, differentiation, 174
effect on heart, 263
from bacillus aërogenes capsulatus, 169
coli communis, 169
from carcinoma of esophagus, 169
Gerhardt's sign in, 65
Hippocratic succussion splash in, 172
internal, 170
metallic tinkle in, 172
pulmonary cavity and, differentiation, 173
emphysema and, differentiation, 137
subdiaphragmatic, 169
subphrenic abscess and, differentiation, 174
succussion splash in, 172
traumatic, 169
Wintrich's sign in, 172
x-ray diagnosis, 80, 173
Poikilocyte, 401
Poikilocytosis, 401
Poisoning, lead, 592. See also *Plumbism.*
mineral, leukemia and, differentiation, 420
progressive pernicious anemia and, differentiation, 415
phosphorus-, liver in, 661
phosphorus-, yellow atrophy and, differentiation, 662, 669
Poisoning, strychnin-, tetanus and, differentiation, 969
Polioencephalitis, 1216
acute inferior, 1195
superior, 1195
Poliomyelitis, acute anterior, 903
acute myelitis and, differentiation, 907
bedbug in transmission of, 904
dog in transmission of, 904
filter passing organisms in, 904
fly in transmission of, 904
Landry's paralysis and, differentiation, 907, 1249
multiple neuritis and, differentiation, 907
residual palsy in, 904, 905
spinal fluid in, 906, 907
blood-pressure in, 218
chronic, 1250
subacute, 1250
anterior, 1250
Polyarthritis in gonorrheal arthritis, 944
Polychromatophilia, 401
altitude effects of, 402, 403
blood changes in, 402
nitrogen, content in, 402
drugs in, 402, 403
from anesthesia, 403
general, 402
in infants, 402
local, 402
pathologic, 402, 403
physiologic, 402
vera, 403
Polycythemia, 402
Polyesthesia, 1181
Polyhydramnios, ascites and, differentiation, 631
Polymyositis, rheumatism and, differentiation, 1053
trichiniasis and, differentiation, 1053
Polyneuritic syndrome in children, 442
Polyneuritis due to metallic poisons, 1313
Polyphagia, 484
Polysarcia adiposa, 1114
Pons, lesions in, 1189
tumors of, 1229
Popliteal nerve, external, paralysis of, 1309
internal, paralysis of, 1309
Pork tapeworm, 1036
Portal vein, diseases of, 680
thrombosis of, 680
Position, sense of, 1180
Post-diphtheritic paralysis, 931
Posterolateral sclerosis, 1257
Post-pyloric ulcer, 570

Potassium ferrocyanid and acetic acid test for albuminuria, 702
Precipitation, reaction, 382
anti-serum for, 383
solution of blood or stain for, 383
specificity of, 384
technic, 384
test, Kahn's, 392
Precociousness, table of, 1087
Precordium, 189
bulging of, age in, 190
depression, 190
examination of, 190
extracardiac conditions which cause prominence, 190
pulsation outside, 194
Pregnancy, Abderhalden's reaction in, 393
and advanced tuberculosis, 866
blood-pressure in, 217
chorea in, 1335
diabetes during, 1072
epilepsy in, 1206
extra-uterine, appendicitis and, differentiation, 603
intra-ocular tension in, 1163
nephritis in, 719
neuroses of, cystitis and, differentiation, 769
ocular phenomena of, 1163
pituitary body during, 1134
Present illness in history taking, 26
Pressure, sense of, 1179
Prison dropsy, 738
Proferments in gastric juice, 518
Profeta's law, 883
Progressive facial hemiatrophy, 1322
Projection fibers of brain, 1166
Propepsin, 518
Prostate, tuberculosis of, 878
Prostatic albuminuria, 701
Prostratio thermica, 1011
Proteids in sputum, 90
Protozoal cysts, staining of, 1032
Protozoan disease, 1013
Prune-juice sputum, 81
Psammoma of brain, 1220
Pseudo-angina pectoris, 179, 334
angina and, differentiation, 335
Pseudo-bulbar palsy, 1212, 1217
Pseudochylous effusion, chylous and, differentiation, 634
Pseudo-hydrophobia, 965
Pseudoleukemia, 426
bacteriology, 426
Banti's disease and differentiation, 429
epithelioma and, differentiation, 429
inanition of malnutrition and, differentiation, 429
leukemia and, differentiation, 428
lymphatic leukemia and, differentiation, 422
malignant disease and, differentiation, 429
murmurs in, 428
splenic anemia and, differentiation, 429, 433
suppuration and, differentiation, 429
Pseudoleukemia, syphilis and, differentiation, 428
tuberculosis and, differentiation, 428
tuberculous adenitis and, differentiation, 880
ulceration and, differentiation, 429
Pseudomembranous angina complicating scarlet fever, 922
dysentery, 788
secondary, 790
gastritis, 538
pyelitis, 744
Pseudomeningitis, 1293
Pseudo-tabes, 1312
Pseudotuberculosis, 138, 875
Pseudo-uremia, 738
Psilosis, 796
Psorospermiasis, 1059
Psychic centers, 1187
Psychoses in heart disease, 326
Psychosis, Korsakoff's, 1312
Ptyalism, 454, 455
Puberty, retarded, and testes, 1159
Puerperal glycosuria, 710, 1063
sepsis, remittent malarial fever and, differentiation, 1020
Puerperium, erysipelas in, 952
Pulmonary abscess, 129
amebic, 139, 1056
expectoration in, 130
in children, 129
sputum in, 88
x-ray diagnosis, 77, 130
actinomycosis, 138, 976. See also *Actinomycosis, pulmonary.*
apoplexy, 124
artery, aneurism of, 352
aspergillosis, 138, 982
atelectasis, 128
blastomycosis, 138, 978
carcinoma, 131
cavities, opaque solutions in diagnosis, 131
cavity, bronchiectasis and, differentiation, 106
pneumothorax and, differentiation, 173
collapse, 128
compression, 128
congestion, 108
consolidation, 138
diagnoses, opaque solutions in, 130
diseases, 108
echinococcus disease, 139, 1054
edema, 109
hydrothorax and, differentiation, 111
embolism, 124
emphysema, 133
atrophic, 133
compensatory, 133
hypertrophic, *x*-ray diagnosis, 136
interlobular, 133
pneumothorax and, differentiation, 137
senile, 137
small-lunged, 137
subcutaneous, 137

Pulmonary emphysema, thoracic aneurysm and, differentiation, 137
vesicular, 133
gangrene, 125
circumscribed, 126
diffuse, 125
fetid bronchitis and, differentiation, 128
sputum in, 88, 98, 128
x-ray diagnosis, 77, 127
hemorrhage, gastric hemorrhage and, differentiation, 89, 547
hyperemia, 108
incompetency, 317
new growths, 131
parasitic diseases, 139, 1054
phenomena in heart disease, 180
phthisis, chronic, 860
sarcoma, 132
stenosis, 319
aortic and, differentiation, 319
syphilis, 891
x-ray diagnosis, 892
tuberculosis, 124
acute, 859
bronchopneumonia and, differentiation, 860
bronchopneumonic type, 860
hemoptysis in, 860
lobar pneumonia and, differentiation, 860
pneumonic form, 859
typhoid fever and, differentiation, 860
advanced, 866
actinomycosis and, differentiation, 875
amenorrhea in, 866
apical catarrh and, differentiation, 875
blood in, 870
bronchial catarrh and, differentiation, 875
bronchiectasis and, differentiation, 875
Bruce's sign in, 869
complications, 875
cracked-pot sound in, 868
emaciation in, 866
feces in, 870
hectic fever in, 867
hemoptysis in, 869
menorrhagia in, 866
myoidema in, 868
pregnancy in, 866
rubber ball sound in, 869
sputum in, 869
streptothricosis and, differentiation, 875
urine in, 870
amyloid disease in, 875
bronchitis and, differentiation, 97
chronic, 860
endocarditis in, 875
enteritis in, 875
fibroid, 876
galloping, 860
hemorrage complicating, 875
Pulmonary tuberculosis, incipient, 860, 861
albuminous sputum in, 864
cog-wheel breathing in, 863
cutaneous tuberculin reaction in, 864
fremitus in, 862
gastro-intestinal syndrome in, 861
inhalation tuberculin test in, 866
murmur in, 863
ophthalmotuberculin reaction in, 865
sputum in, antimony to increase flow, 864
tuberculin test in, 865
Vargos' sign in, 863
initial, 860
laryngeal tuberculosis in, 875
lobar pneumonia and, differentiation, 840
miliary tuberculosis complicating, 875
neuritis in, 875
pleurisy complicating, 875
pulmonary actinomycosis and, differentiation, 977, 978
rupture of cavity in, 875
sputum in, 88
thoracic aneurism and, differentiation, 350
vomiting of, 490
x-ray in, 870
tuberculous infiltration, serofibrinous pleurisy and, differentiation, 158
tumors, 131
Pulsating empyema, thoracic aneurism and, differentiation, 350
liver of tricuspid regurgitation, 313, 315
Pulsation, 191
apex, 191. See also *Apex-beat.*
at base, 192
at left of sternum, 190
axillary, 194
capillary, Quincke's, 194
carotid, 194
double, 192, 194
epigastric, 194
in diseases of stomach, 496
of aorta, abnormal, thoracic aneurism and, differentiation, 350
of blood-vessels, 180
outside precordium, 194
over remote arteries, 194
scapular, 194
sternal, 193
supraclavicular, 194
Pulse, 195
abnormal, 263
alternating, 201
Corrigan, 200, 202
coupled beats, 241
coupling, 241
decreased frequency, 197
infrequency, 198
deficit, 236
definition, 195
dicrotic, 202
regurgitant, 203

Pulse, effort syndrome and, 202
evidence obtained from, 196
force of, 200
high-tension, 203
in aortic regurgitation, 294
increased frequency, 196
intermittent, 200
irregular, 200
large, 198
low-tension, 203
physical technic, 195
pressure, 204
quick, 200
Quincke's, in aortic regurgitation, 294
rhythm, 200
small, 199
tension, 202
thready, 199
vessel-walls in, 198
water-hammer, 200, 202
Pulse-rate, increased, fever and, 774
Pulse-wave, size of, 198
Pulsus alternans, 251
bigeminus, 241
paradoxus, 201, 270
parvus, 199
rarus, 197
Puncture of cisterna magna, 1277
Pupillary phenomena in diagnosis, 1172
Pupils, Argyll-Robertson, 1173
drugs and, 1176
in coma, 1174
in diagnosis, 1172
in hysteria, 1174
inequality of, 1176
miotic, in tabes dorsalis, 1266
reactions, 1194
Purpura, 435, 1321
anaphylactoid, 438
drug, 435
hæmorrhagica, 435, 436
hemophilia and, differentiation, 434
Henoch's, 436
in serum disease, 438
scorbutus and, differentiation, 442
simplex, 435, 438
Purulent phlebitis, 680
pleuritis, 166. See also *Empyema.*
Pus in feces, 569
in pericardium, 279
in urine, 698
Pus-producing organisms in feces, 569
Pyelitis, 743
albuminuria in, 746
ascending, 744
bacteriuria in, 763
blood in, 746
calculous, 744
x-ray diagnosis, 747
catarrhal, 744
catheterization in, 746
cystoscopy in, 746
extraneous, 744
mucus in urine in, 746
new-growths of suprarenals and, differentiation, 747
obstructive, 744
parasitic, 745
Pyelitis, perinephritic abscess and, differentiation, 747
pseudomembranous, 744
suppurative, 744
tuberculous, 744
typhlitis with colonic impaction and, differentiation, 747
urine in, 748
Pyelonephritis, 743. See also *Pyelitis.*
Pyemia, 973
acute articular rheumatism and, differentiation, 993
diazo reaction in, 975
hepatic, 651
Rocky mountain fever and, differentiation, 1000
Pyloric disease, duodenal tube in diagnosis, 576
stenosis, 548
congenital hypertrophic, 564
Pylorospasm, 491, 531
in duodenal ulcer, 571
Pylorus, carcinoma of, hepatic carcinoma and, differentiation, 649
pancreatic carcinoma and, differentiation, 1151, 1152
topography, 559
Pyonephrosis, 743. See also *Pyelitis.*
Pyopneumopericardium, 279
Pyopneumothorax, 169. See also *Pneumothorax.*
effect on heart, 263
pneumopericardium and, differentiation, 279
subphrenic peritonitis and, differentiation, 621
x-ray diagnosis, 80
Pyorrhea alveolaris, 453
and focal infection, 985–988
in chronic gastritis, 539
in progressive pernicious anemia, 412
in secondary anemia, 404
Pyosalpinx, appendicitis and, differentiation, 604
Pyrexia, 774
Pyrosis, 485
Pyuria, 698

Qualitative tests for pancreatic ferments, 578
Quartan malaria, 1014
Queckenstedt test for cerebrospinal pressure, 1277
Quincke's capillary pulse, 194
in aortic regurgitation, 294
Quinidine in auricular fibrillation, 239
Quotidian malaria, 1014

Rabies, 964
Rachitic paralysis, 1074
Rachitis, 1072
anemia in, 1074
bony changes in, 1074
chicken-breast in, 1074
enlargement of abdomen in, 1074
muscular changes in, 1073
nervous symptoms, 1074
ribs in, 1074

Rachitis, scorbutus and, differentiation, 442
sweats in, 1073
teeth in, 1074
tenderness in, 1073
x-ray diagnosis, 1074
Radiation sickness, 1365
Râles, 71
cardiopulmonic, 256
crepitant, 73
dry, 72
indeterminate, 74
moist, 72
intrapleural, 73
mucocrepitant, 73
mucous, 72
sibilant, 72
sonorous, 72
subcrepitant, 73
submucous, 73
Rat-bite fever, 1001
Rats in round-worm infection, 1042, 1044
Rattles, 71
Ray fungus, 976
Raynaud's disease, 1319
Receptors, 375
Recklinghausen's disease, 1310
syndrome, 890
Rectal nerve center, 1248
Rectum, syphilis of, 892
Recurrent malaria, 1021
Red blood-corpuscles. See *Erythrocytes*.
Referred pains, 1181
Reflex arc, physiologic, 1245
cough, 40
vomiting, 490
Reflexes, 1245
abdominal, 1172
achilles, 1171
Babinski, 1172
biceps, 1170, 1171
consensual light, 1173
contralateral, 901
cortical, of Haab, 1173
cremasteric, 1172
deep, 1170
knee, 1171
oculo-cardiac, 1176
paradoxical light, 1173
patellar, 1171
plantar, 1172
skin, 1170, 1172
superficial, 1170, 1172
tendon, 1169
triceps, 1170, 1171
umbilicus, 1172
Regurgitation, 485
aortic, 291. See *Aortic regurgitation*.
in gastric diseases, 529
mitral, 302. See also *Mitral regurgitation*.
murmurs of, 257
Relapsing fever, 820
nervous symptoms, 822
pneumonia, 831
Remittent fever, bilious, 1018
puerperal sepsis and, differentiation, 1020
Remittent fever, typhoid fever and, differentiation, 1020
Renal albuminuria, 699
calculi, *x*-ray diagnosis, 691
colic, appendicitis and, differentiation, 603
hepatic colic and, differentiation, 678
in nephrolithiasis, 751
glycosuria, 1065
gravel, 749
sand, 749
symptoms in heart disease, 182
Resonance, amphoric, 63
Respiration, Cheyne-Stokes, 52
in heart disease, 181
cog-wheel, 71
in incipient phthisis, 863
costal, 51
costo-abdominal, 50
increased, fever and, 774
jerky, 71
normal, types of, 50
unilateral changes in, 52
Respiratory muscles, spasms of, 1331
passages, foreign bodies in, 116
percussion, 60
system, diseases of, 33
Retention, incontinence of, 770
Retrograde esophagoscopy, 458
Retroperitoneal glands, sarcoma of, 626
Retropharyngeal abscess, 457
aneurism and, differentiation, 457
Rhabditis pellio, 1054
Rheumatic myocarditis, 324
myositis, 996
Rheumatism, abdominal, 996
acute articular, 988
endocarditis in, 990, 992, 993
fingers in, 991
focal infection in, 988, 989
gonorrheal arthritis and, differentiation, 993
leukocytosis in, 992
meningococcus as cause, 989, 990
pyemia and, differentiation, 993
saliva in, 992
scurvy and, differentiation, 993
secondary anemia in, 992
synovial fluid in, 988, 989, 992
tuberculous arthritis and, differentiation, 992
urine in, 992
articular, chronic, 997
focal infection in, 997
gout and, differentiation, 1079
muscular, dermatomyositis and, differentiation, 997
neuralgia and, differentiation, 997
varieties, 995
polymyositis and, differentiation, 1053
serofibrinous pleurisy and, 149
syphilis and, differentiation, 888
trichiniasis and, differentiation, 1053
Rheumatoid arthritis, 1322
Rhinitis, acute, 34
chronic, 34
syphilitic, 889
Rhonchi, 71

Rhythms arising in A-V node, 245
Ribs in rickets, 1074
Rice-water stools in Asiatic cholera, 794
Rickets, 1072. See also *Rachitis.*
Riegel's test-dinner, 508
Riggs' disease, 449, 453
Rivas acetic acid concentration method
in estivo-autumnal fever, 1019
in filariasis, 1027
in leprosy, 896
Rocky mountain fever, 999
Roger's murmur, 319
Romberg's sign, 1180
Röntgen-ray appearance of sella turcica, 1117
diagnosis, 19
in diseases of pericardium, 258, 265
in pleurisy, 155, 157
in pulmonary tuberculosis, 870
in rickets, 1074
of abnormal heart pulsations, 263
mobility of heart, 263
size of heart, 263
of adhesions of heart, 262
of aneurism, 264
of arteriosclerosis, 265, 340
of chronic pleurisy, 165
of diseases of bowel, 507
of bronchi, 76
of diaphragm, 76, 78
of lungs, 76
of pericardium, 258
of pleura, 76
of dry pericarditis, 258
of duodenal ulcer, 573
of enteroptosis, 581
of esophageal disease, 462
of exudative pericarditis, 258
of gastric carcinoma, 550
of gastro-intestinal diseases, 502
of gastroptosis, 563
of goiter, 1097
of heart disease, 259
displacements, 262
of hour-glass stomach, 506
of kidney disease, 691
of mediastinal diseases, 264
tumors, 264
of nephrolithiasis, 752
of pericarditis, 258, 268
of pleural effusions, 80
of pleurisy,s erofibrinous, 155, 157
of pulmonary abscess, 130
cavities, 78
emphysema, 136
gangrene, 127
neoplasms, 78
syphilis, 78
of renal calculi, 691
of size of heart, 261, 263
of stomach diseases, 502
of syphilis, 892
of thoracic aneurism, 350
of tortuosity of aorta, 265
of tumors of mediastinum, 355
diseases of lung which decrease transparency for, 77
Röntgen-ray, diseases of lung which increase transparency for, 76
measurement of heart, 259
outlining pelvis of kidney by, 693
to determine position of heart, 262
shape of heart, 262
size of heart, 261, 263
Rose fever, 1007
Rosenow's principles of elective localization, 986
Rötheln, 940
Roth's disease, 1310
Round-worms, 1042, 1050
Rubella, 940
acute infectious fevers in, 945
bronchitis in, 943
bronchopneumonia in, 943
eruption in, 941
erythema and, differentiation, 943
gastro-intestinal catarrh in, 943
measles and, differentiation, 940, 941
relapse in, 943
scarlet fever and, differentiation, 942
urticaria and, differentiation, 943
Rumination, 485
Rumpell-Leede phenomenon in scarlet fever, 916
Rupture of heart, 333
of spleen, 688
Russell and Brodie's coagulometer, Boggs modification, 358
Rusty sputum, 81

Sacral plexus, diseases of, 1309
Sahli hemometer, 363
Sajous' forceps, 460
Saliva, acidity of, 1066
in adrenalin disease, 1154
in diabetes, 1066
mellitus, 1064
Salivary glands, swelling of, non-tuberculous, 881
Salivation, 454, 455
in mumps, 943
Salzer test-meal, 508
Sand-fly fever, 950
Sarcoma of brain, 1217
of esophagus, 471
of intestine, 597
of kidney, 760
anæmia infantum and, differentiation, 431
of liver, 650
of mediastinum, 353
of retroperitoneal glands, 626
of spinal cord, 1274
of stomach, 554
pulmonary, 132
Sardonic grin in tetanus, 1328
Saturday night palsy, 1307
Saturnism, 592
Scanning speech, 1283
Scaphoid abdomen, 479
in plumbism, 595
Scapular pain, 324
pulsation, 194
Scarlet fever, 912
angina in, 914

Scarlet fever, average type, 912
bacteriology, 913
bronchitis in, 923
bronchopneumonia in, 923
cardiac complications, 923
cellulitis in, 923
cutaneous manifestations, 915
deafness in, 924
desquamation in, 917
diazo-reaction in, 918
Dick's test for, 381, 913
drug rashes and, differentiation, 920
edema of lungs in, 923
empyema in, 923
endocarditis in, 923
Filatoff's sign in, 915
gangrenous angina complicating, 922
gastro-intestinal complications, 925
irritation and, differentiation, 920
symptoms, 918
immunity, 913, 914
inclusion bodies of Döhle in, 918
incubation period, 914
malignant type, 912, 919
measles and, differentiation, 921, 939, 940
mild type, 912, 920
modes of infection, 914
nasal symptoms, 917
nephritis in, 920, 924
ordinary type, 914
otitis media in, 924
Pastia's sign in, 925
pericarditis in, 923
pharyngitis and, differentiation, 921
pseudomembranous angina complicating, 922
relapses in, 920
renal complications, 924
rubella and, differentiation, 942
Rumpell-Leede phenomenon in, 916
season in, 924
serous membranes in, 923
Sternkop's test, 918
strawberry tongue in, 917
tonsillitis and, differentiation, 920
toxin, 381
urinary phenomena, 918
variola and, differentiation, 960
Schick's diphtheria toxin reaction, 380
Schiotz tonometer, 1088
Schistosoma hæmatobium, 1029, 1042, 1054
Schmidt's test in pancreatic disease, 1144
Sciatic paralysis, 1309
Sciatica, 1317
Scissors gait, 1254
Sclerodactylia, 1100
Scleroderma, 1100, 1321
Sclerosis, amyotrophic lateral, 1252
arterial, 338. See also *Arterial sclerosis.*
diffuse, 1258
disseminated, 1282
in pernicious anemia, 1258
lateral, 1253
multiple, 1282
of motor columns, unilateral, 1254
posterolateral, 1257
Sclerosis, primary, 1253
subacute combined, 1258
Scorbutus, 439
diet and, 439
infantile, 441
leukemia and, differentiation, 442
of adults, 439
of infants, 439
purpura and, differentiation, 442
rickets and, differentiation, 442
Scurvy, 439. See also *Scorbutus.*
acute articular rheumatism and, differentiation, 993
hemophilia and, differentiation, 434
Secretions, normal, derangement of, fever and, 774
Sella turcica, *x*-ray appearance, 1117
Semilunar space, Traube's, 499
Senile myelitis, 1272
tremor, 1339
Sensation, transmission of, to cerebral cortex, 1179
Sense, muscle, 1180
of movement, 1180
of pain, 1180
of position, 1180
of pressure, 1179
of temperature, 1180
of touch, 1179
Sensitization disease, 1006
Sensory aphasia, 1186
area, tumors of, 1226
irritation, symptoms of, 1181
neurons, 1176
system, 1176, 1179
Sepsis intestinalis, 973
Septicemia, 972
bacteriology, 972
of typhoid, 812
true, 973
Sergent's white line, 1095, 1156
Sero diagnosis, Abderhalden's method, 393
Serofibrinous pleurisy, 148
Seropneumothorax, 169
Serositis, multiple, 668
Serous sputum, 83
Serratus magnus, paralysis of, 1307
Serum allergy, 1320
diagnosis of blood, 374
disease, purpura in, 438
sickness, 1365
tests for syphilis, 1287
Serum-albumin in sputum, 90
Sexual nerve center, 1248
neurasthenia, 1343
Shifting paralyses of Bright's disease, 721
Shiga bacillus in feces, 569
Ship fever, 814
Shock, blood-pressure in, 221
diabetes from, 1065
Shoulder, spasms of, 1332
Sibilant râles, 72
Sick headache, 1358
Sickle cell anemia, 431
Sickness, mountain, 999
radiation, 1365
serum, 1365
sleeping, 1024

Side-chain theory, Ehrlich's, 374
Siderosis, 122
sputum in, 89
Sight centers, 1187
Silicosis, 122
Simple tachycardia, 233
Singultus, 486, 1331
Sino-auricular heart block, 247
Sinus arrhythmia, 234
bradycardia, 197, 233
tachycardia, 233
Skeleton hand, 1251
Skin eruptions, syphilis and, differentiation, 888
reflexes, 1172
tests for allergy, 1320
tuberculosis of, 876
Skodaic tympany, 62
Skull, base of, fracture, brain injury, 1236
natiform, in syphilis, 890
vault of, fracture, brain injury, 1235
Sleeping sickness, 1024
Slides, preparation of, 356
Small-lunged emphysema, 137
Smallpox, 954. See also *Variola.*
Smell, nerve of, 1193
Smith's sign in tuberculosis, 879
Snuffles in syphilis, 889
Social history, 26
Softening of brain, 1355
Sonorous râles, 72
Sounds, breath, increased, regions where heard, 71
normal, 67
cracked-pot, 64
percussion, interpretation, 58
splashing, 74
voice, in health, 75
Spasmodic laryngitis, 35
nervous type, 36
Spasmophilia, 1105
Spasmophilic diathesis, 1105
electrical reactions in tetany, 1112
Spasms, 1329
habit, 1330, 1331
ileocecal, 606
in fifth nerve distribution, 1330
of abdomen, 1332
of chest, 1332
of esophagus, 470
x-ray diagnosis, 462
of face, 1330
of larynx, 1331
stridor in, 36
of lower limbs, 1332
of neck, 1331
of palate, 1331
of pharynx, 1331
of respiratory muscles, 1331
of shoulder, 1332
of tongue, 1331
of upper limbs, 1331
Spasmus nutans, 1328
Specific gravity of blood, 359.
Spectroscope, Browning's, 361
Spectroscopic study of blood, 361
Speech center, 1187
scanning, 1283
Sphygmocardiograph, 226
Jaquet, 225, 226
tracing, 226, 227
Sphygmograph, 222
clinical significance of record, 224
Dudgeon, 222
paper for, 223
preservation of record, 223
technic, 222
tracing of, 223, 224, 225, 226
interpretation, 223
Sphygmomanometer, 204
accuracy of, 204
auscultatory method, 207
tone phases, 208
duration of tone phases, 210
Faught's, 205
graduation (scale) of, 205
method of using, 205
palpatory method, 207
phase lengths, 209
points and phases, 209
Stanton's, 205
uniformity of technic, 205
variations in, 204
visual method, diastolic, 207
systolic, 206
Spina bifida, 1282
Spinal accessory nerves, 1199
column, sprain, of, 1280
cord, anatomy, 1242
cervical enlargement of, 1244
cysts of, 1274
degeneration, electric reactions of, 1245
diseases, 1242
fibroma of, 1274
functions, 1243
hemorrhages into, 1281
injuries, 1280
lumbar enlargement of, 1244
sarcoma of, 1274
secondary, 1248
tumors of, 1274
puncture of cisterna magna in diagnosis, 1277
Wideroe's method of diagnosis, 1275
x-ray diagnosis, 1276
unilateral lesions, 1281
fluid, in poliomyelitis, 906, 907
manometer, 902
muscular atrophy, progressive, 1250
nerves, diseases of, 1303
injuries of, 1303
pachymeningitis, 1289
roots, 1243
segments, 1243
motor functions of, 1244, 1245
reflex functions of, 1244, 1245
sensory functions, 1247
Spine, typhoid, 812
Spirillum of Vincent, 451
Spirochæta morsus muris, 1001
pallida, 881
recurrentis, 821
Spirochetosis icterohemorrhagica, 1005
Splanchnoptosis, 580

Splash, succussion, 74
Splashing sound, 74
Spleen, 682
amyloid degeneration of, 683
Banti's disease of, 684
diseases of, 682
displacement of, 682
enlargement of, 683
causes, 683
differential diagnosis, 786
movements of abdomen in, 479
examination, 29
floating, 682
hydronephrosis and, differentiation, 742
focal infection in, 686
in acute infections, 684, 685
in chloroma, 690
in cyanotic congestion from valvular heart disease, 684
in Gaucher's disease, 689
in leukemia, 683
in malaria, 684
in subacute suppuration, 685
in syphilis, 889
in typhoid fever, 799
new-growths of, 685
outline of, in amyloid disease, 658
position, 682, 687
relations of, 682
rupture of, 688
size, 682
topography, 682
tumors of, 685
Splenic anemia, 432, 689. See also *Anemia, splenic.*
congestion, leukemia and, differentiation, 420
fever, 970
flexure, fecal impaction of, 688
tumor, acute, 686
Splenitis, 685
acute hyperplastic, 686
focal infection in, 686
suppurative, 687
gastric carcinoma and, differentiation, 687
pancreatic carcinoma and, differention, 687
Splenomegaly, 689
anemia with, leukemia and, differentiation, 420
cirrhosis of liver with, 684
focal infection in, 689
Spondylose rhizomelique, 1324
Spotted fever, 896
Sprue, 796
Sputum, 80
actinomycosis evidence in, 85
albuminous, 80, 83
amœba coli in, 85
animal parasites of lung in, 84
ascarides in, 85
aspergillus in, 85
bacteria in, 86
microscopic study of, 86
balantidium coli in, 85
bilharzia in, 85
Sputum, black, 81
bloody, 81
bronchial spirals in, 83
characteristics, 80
chemic study, 90
collection, 80
color, 81
current-jelly, 81
density, 81
diphtheria bacilli in, 87
elastic tissue in, 83
entamœba histolytica in, 85
examination of, 31
fatty acids in, 90
ferments in, 90
fibrinous coagula in, 83
filaria in, 85
fluidity, 81
Friedländer's bacilli in, 88
fungi in, 85
hemorrhagic, 81
in anthracosis, 89
in bronchial asthma, 88
in bronchitis, acute, 87
chronic, 87
putrid, 88
in bronchopneumonia, 88
in chalicosis, 89
in diagnosis of actinomycosis, 85
of aspergillosis, 85
in gangrene of lung, 88
in heart disease, 89
in phthisis, incipient, 88
in pneumonia, 87
in pneumonokoniosis, 89
in pulmonary abscess, 88
gangrene, 98, 128
tuberculosis, 88
in siderosis, 89
in stonemason's lung, 90
in stycosis, 89
influenza bacilli in, 87
microscopic study, 83
mucopurulent, 82
mucor corymbifer in, 86
mucous, 82
nummular, 83
in pulmonary tuberculosis, 869
odor, 81
organic substances in, 90
organized constituents, 83
paragonimus Westermanii in, 84
pneumococci in, 87
proteids in, 90
prune-juice, 81
quantity, 80
reaction, 81
rusty, 81
serous, 83
serum-albumin in, 90
specific gravity, 81
sugar in, 90
tænia echinococcus in, 85
tenacity, 81
trichomonas in, 85
tubercle bacilli in, 86
Stalagmometry of urine, 703

St. Anthony's fire, 950. See also *Erysipelas.*
Stanton's sphygmomanometer, 205
Starch in feces, 568
Status anginosis, 332
  epilepticus, 1206
  lymphaticus, 1101
  thymicolymphaticus, 1103
  thymicus, 1101, 1104
Steapsin, qualitative tests for, 578
Stellwag's sign, 1095
Stenocardia, 333
Stenosis, aortic, 298. See also *Aortic stenosis.*
  bronchial, 107
  of bile-duct, 679
  of esophagus, *x*-ray diagnosis, 462
  of pylorus, 548
    congenital hypertrophic, 564
  pulmonary, 319
Steppage gait, 1309
Stercoraceous vomiting, 523
Sternal pulsation, 193
Sternkop's test in scarlet fever, 918
Sternum, pulsation at left of, 193
Stethoscope, Bowles', 253
Stethoscopic auscultation, 66
Stigmata of hysteria, 1344, 1346
Stokes-Adams syndrome in heart disease, 182, 249
Stomach, 472
  and bowels, examination, 29
  auscultation of, 500
  boundaries of, 499
  carcinoma of, 506, 548. See also *Carcinoma, gastric.*
  cardiac end, 559
  catarrh of, chronic, 539
  contents, 507. See also *Gastric contents.*
  cough, 40
  dilatation of, 554. See also *Dilatation, gastric.*
  diseases, 524
    age and, 483
    appetite in, 483
    disturbance in motility, 505
    epigastric pulsation in, 496
    exercise and, 482
    gastrodiaphany in, 505
    gastroscopy in, 502. See also *Gastroscopy.*
    history, 482
    local affections and, 483
    mental strain and, 483
    occupation and, 482
    overwork and, 483
    pain in, 491
    pathologic signs, 505
    pressure on sympathetic nerve-supply and, 483
    previous diseases and, 483
    relaxation of abdominal muscles and, 483
    restrictions in mobility, 505
    sex and, 483
    succussion splash in, 501, 502
    taste in, 484
    tenderness on palpation, 498
Stomach diseases, thirst in, 484
    x-ray evidence, 502
  distention of, pneumothorax and, differentiation, 174
  examination of, 482
  fasting, 514
  foreign bodies in, 524
  form of, abnormalities in, *x*-ray diagnosis, 506
  functions, 507
  hemorrhage from, pulmonary and throat hemorrhages and, differentiation, 547
  history taking, 482
  hour-glass, 506, 548
  inspection of, 494
  motor end point of, 512
  neuralgia of, 491
  neurosis of, 525. See also *Neurosis of stomach.*
  orifices of, relaxation, 530
  palpation and pain in, 498
  palpation of, 496
  percussion of, 498
  percussion-note of, 500
  peristalsis in, 495
  physical examination of, 494
  position of, in adults, 498
    normal, 503
  sarcoma of, 554
  succussion splash in, 501
  syphilis of, 564
  tumors of, 497
  tympany of, 63, 499, 500
    conditions that increase, 501
  vomiting in chronic conditions, 488
Stomach-tube, 508
  introduction of, 509
Stomatitis, aphthous, 448
  catarrhal, acute, 447
  diphtheritic, 451
  epidemic, 1004
  erythematosa, 447
  fetid, 449
  follicular, 448
  fungous, 980
  gangrenous, 452
  gonorrheal, 451
  herpetic, 448
  mercurial, 455
  mineral, 455
  mycotic, 980
  ulcerative, 449
    with angina, 450
  vesicular, 448
  with catarrhal tonsillitis, 778
Stonemason's lung, sputum in, 90
Stools. See *Feces.*
Strabismus in diphtheria, 934
Strawberry tongue in scarlet fever, 917
Streptococcus angina, diphtheria and, differentiation, 931
  bronchitis, 87
  pleurisy, 157
  pneumonia, 830
Streptothricosis, 139, 979
  pulmonary tuberculosis and, differentiation, 875

Stricture of esophagus, 467
Strongyloides intestinalis, 1048
Strychnin-poisoning, tetanus and, differentiation, 969
Stupor in brain injuries, 1235
St. Vitus' dance, 1334
Stycosis, sputum in, 89
Subacute pleurisy, 148
Subcortical centers, 1187
Subcrepitant râles, 73
Subcutaneous emphysema, 137
Subdiaphragmatic abscess. See *Peritonitis, subphrenic.*
pneumothorax, 169
Submammary pain, 324
Submucous râles, 73
Subphrenic abscess, pneumothorax and, differentiation, 174
peritonitis, 619
Subsultus tendinum, 806
Succussion splash, 74, 172, 501, 502
Sugar in sputum, 90
in urine, quantitative estimation, 711
Sugar-iced liver, 668
Sulphates in urine, 706
Sulphur in urine, 707
Summer diarrhea, 783. See also *Enteritis catarrhal.*
Sunstroke, 1011
Superficial percussion, 60
Suppuration, pseudoleukemia and, differentiation, 429
Suppurative pneumonitis, 129
Supraclavicular pulsation, 194
Suprarenal capsules, 1153
carcinoma of, hepatic carcinoma and, differentiation, 649
cortex, disease of, 1153
medulla, disease of, 1154
new growths of, pyelitis and, differentiation, 747
Surgery, routine tests of blood-pressure in, 219
Surgical convalescence, blood-pressure in, 221
kidney, 744
Swallowing center, 1187
time, 465
Sweat, blue, 694
brown, 694
cessation of, 695
coloration of, 694
green, 694
odor of, 694
red, 694
secretions, disturbance of, 1321
yellow, 694
Sweating, 693
disease, 1003
in jaundice, 670
of head and neck, 695
profuse, 695
Swine fever, 1000
Sydenham's chorea, 1334
Symmetrical gangrene, 1319
Syndrome, gastro-intestinal, 861
Mikulicz, 881
Parkinson, 909
Syndrome, Recklinghausen's, 890
Syphilis, 881
acquired, 884
cobra venom reaction in, 887
differential diagnosis, 888
epithelioma and, differentiation, 888
iodin-phosphoric acid reaction in, 887
Justus's blood-test in, 887
Kilduffe's iodin-phosphoric acid reaction in, 887
oyster-shell lesions in, 886
rheumatism and, differentiation, 888
skin eruptions and, differentiation, 888
smallpox and, differentiation, 888
tuberculosis and, differentiation, 888
Weil's cobra venom reaction in, 887
x-ray finding, 886
bacteriology, 882
blood-pressure in, 219
chancre redux in, 881
coagulo reaction in, 392
cobra venom test for, 391
complement fixation reaction in, 387
contagion of, 883
gumma in, 882
hereditary, 888
auditory manifestations, 890
coryza in, 889
cutaneous symptoms, 889
hemorrhage in, 889
Hutchinson's teeth in, 890
liver in, 889
natiform skull in, 890
ocular manifestations, 890
postnatal symptoms, 889
Recklinghausen's syndrome in, 890
spleen in, 889
transmission, 883
Herman-Perutz reaction for, 392
Hutchinson's teeth in, 890
immunity to, 884
in aneurism, 343
in aortitis, 337
in newborn, 889
inoculation with, 883
Kolmer's quantitative method in, 891
luetin reaction in, 380, 888, 891
malignant, 887
of arteries, 893
of brain, 1219
of heart, 892
of kidney, 892
of liver, 659, 890
of lung, 891
x-ray diagnosis, 78, 892
of nervous system, 890, 1284
cerebrospinal involvement, 1286
colloidal gold test in, 1287
hemiplegia in, 1286
meningitis in, 1286
myelitis in, 1286
oculomotor palsy in, 1286
serum tests for, 1287
Wassermann reaction in, 1287
of rectum, 892
of stomach, 564

Syphilis of testicles, 892
primary lesions, 881
Profeta's law in, 883
pseudoleukemia and, differentiation, 428
pulmonary actinomycosis and, differentiation, 978
secondary lesions, 881
tertiary lesions, 882
transmission of, 883
variola and, differentiation, 961
visceral, 890
Wassermann reaction in, 387, 888, 891
Syphilitic laryngitis, 37
perihepatitis, acute, 660
Syringomyelia, 1255
Systolic blood-pressure, 204
vesicular breathing, 71

Tabes dorsalis, 1261
angina pectoris and, differentiation, 335
Argyll-Robertson pupil in, 1266
ataxia in, 1265
bladder symptoms in, 1264
cell count of spinal fluid in, 1268
cervical, 1268
Charcot joints in, 1267
crises in, 1266
deafness in, 1267
early, 1269
enteroradiculitis in, 1263
gastric crises in, 1263
gastroradiculitis in, 1263
girdle sensation in, 1261, 1263
hereditary, 1268
hypotonia in, 1264
infection in, 1262
juvenile, 1268
late, 1269
miotic pupils in, 1266
numbness in, 1263
optic, 1268
atrophy in, 1267
pain in, 1263
paralysis of cranial nerves in, 1266
paresis and, differentiation, 1269
pathology, 1262
pupillary phenomena in, 1266
rectal symptoms in, 1264
reflex disturbances in, 1263
Romberg's sign in, 1265
sacral, 1268
sensation in, 1264
sexual symptoms, 1264
syphilis and, 1262
trigeminal involvement in, 1266
trophic phenomena in, 1267
vasomotor phenomena in, 1267
vomiting of, 490
Tabes, pseudo-, 1312
Tachycardia, neurotic, 197
paroxysmal, 242
auricular, 242
of nodal origin, 245
ventricular, 243
simple, 196, 233
sinus, 233

Tactile fremitus, 54
diminished or absent, 56
increased, 55
Tænia echinococcus, 1039
in lungs, 139
in sputum, 85
madagascariensis, 1039
marginata, 1038
saginata, 1035
solium, 1036
Tallqvist's hemoglobin scale, 364
Tapeworms, 1035
beef, 1035
dog, 1038, 1039
pork, 1036
Tarsalgia, 1318
Taste in gastric diseases, 484
Teeth, Hutchinson's, 890
in endocrine disorders, 1172
in rickets, 1074
Temperature, axilla, 773
Temperature determination, 773
mouth, 773
normal, 773
rectal, 773
sense of, 1180
vaginal, 773
Tendon reflexes, 1169
Tension of pulse, 202
Tertian malaria, 1014
Test-breakfast, Ewald-Boas, 508
Test-dinner, Riegel's, 508
Testes, 1158
and retarded puberty, 1159
atrophy of, in mental diseases, 1181
eunuchoidism and, 1160
infantile, 890
of syphilis, 892
tuberculosis of, 878
syphilis and, differentiation, 892
Test-meals, 508
Salzer, 508
water, 509
Tests for hay-fever, 1007
Tetania parathyropriva, 1110
Tetanus, 965, 1328
acute, 966, 968
bacteriology, 966
cephalic, 966, 969, 1328
chronic, 966, 968
facies, 968
head, 1328
hydrophobia and, differentiation, 969
immunity, 966
neonatorum, 966
sardonic grin in, 1328
strychnin poisoning and, differentiation, 969
tetany and, differentiation, 969
Tetany, 1110, 1328
and gastro-intestinal disease, 1110
colonic, 1111
duodenal, 1110
gastric, 1111
in acute and chronic affections, 1111
in helmenthiasis, 1111
maternity, 1110, 1111

Tetany, spasmophilic electrical reactions in, 1112
tetanus and, differentiation, 969
Therapeutic test for goiter, 1097
Thirst in gastric diseases, 484
in peritonitis, 615
Thoma-Lœvy hemocytometer, 369
Thoma-Zeiss counting chamber, 367
hemocytometer, 365
Thomsen's disease, 1339
Thoracic aneurism, 50, 343, 344
abnormal aortic pulsation and, differentiation, 350
adhesive pleurisy with displacement of heart, differentiation, 350
aortic regurgitation and, differentiation, 350
auscultation in, 349
auscultatory percussion in, 349
bronchiectasis and, differentiation, 106
chest deformity in, 346
cough in, 345
dysphagia in, 346
dyspnea in, 345
heart displacement in, 347
hemorrhage in, 346
hypertrophy of heart and, differentiation, 323
inequality of radial pulses in, 348
inspection in, 346
multiple, 347
murmurs in, 349
new-growths of mediastinum and, differentiation, 350
of innominate artery, 346
pain in, 344, 493
pain of, 493
palpation in, 347
paralysis of vocal cords in, 345
peripheral arteries in, 349
pressure on spinal sympathetic system, 346
pulmonary emphysema and, differentiation, 137
tuberculosis and, differentiation, 350
pulsating empyema and, differentiation, 350
pulsation in, 346, 348
pupils in, 344
ruptured, pneumorrhagia from, 124
sphygmographic tracing in, 349
tracheal tugging in, 348
with symptoms, 344
x-ray diagnosis, 350
aorta, aneurism of, 344
cord, myelitis of, 1271
Thorax, actinomycosis of, bronchiectasis and, differentiation, 107
examination of, 28
new-growths of, chest and, 50
Thread-worm, 1044
Thready pulse, 199
Throat, diseases of, 33
symptoms in heart disease, 183
Thrombo-arteritis, acute, 342
Thrombosis cavernous sinus, 1196
coronary, blood-pressure in, 216
heart disease and, 180
in typhoid fever, 812
mesentery, 634
of coronary arteries, 332
of portal vein, 680
Thrush, 980
aphthæ and, differentiation, 982
Thymic asthma, 1104
Thymus gland, 1100
hyperplasia of, 1101
Thyroid gland, 1088
in diabetes mellitus, 1064
in myxedema, 1088
Thyroxin, 1093
Tic, 1329
convulsif, 1332
douloureux, 1196
in fifth nerve distribution, 1330
of face, 1330
Tinkle, amphoric, 75
metallic, 75
Toisson's mixture, 365
Tongue, black villous, 447
diseases of, 444
epithelial desquamation of, 445
geographic, 445
spasms of, 1331
strawberry, in scarlet fever, 917
Tongue-swallowing, 446
Tonometer, Schiotz, 1088
Tonsillar diphtheria, 929
Tonsillitis, acute, 776
catarrhal, 777
follicular, scarlet fever and, differentiation, 920
parenchymatous, 779
catarrhal, stomatitis with, 778
chalk-plugs in, 778
chronic, 781
diazo-reaction in, 780
follicular, 778
diphtheria, differentiation, 778, 932
necrotic, 780
phlegmonous, 780
Tonsillotyphoid, 801
Tonsils, 1157
Tooth cough, 40
Tormina ventriculi, 529
Torticollis, 995, 1331
Tortuosity of aorta, *x*-ray diagnosis of, 265
Touch, sense of, 1179
Toxic albuminuria, 700
glycosuria, 1062
Toxoids, 375
Toxones, 375
Toxophore group, 375
Trachea, foreign bodies in, 118
Tracheal diphtheria, 930
Tracheobronchial lymph-nodes, tubercu-
Tracheobronchoscopy in stenosis, 107
losis of, 878
Traction aneurism, 342
Transdigital auscultation, 67
percussion in heart disease, 262

Transfusion, blood, determination of group to which individual belongs, 395
grouping of human blood, 394
matching blood for, 393
technic for testing blood, 394
Transitory glycosuria, 1062
Traube's semilunar space, 499
sign in aortic regurgitation, 296
Traumatic albuminuria, 701
neuroses, 1354
pneumothorax, 169
Trematodes, 1042
Trembles, 1003
Tremors, fibrillary, 1202
from brain diseases, 1202
intention, 1202
senile, 1339
Trench disease, 723
feet, blood-pressure in, 219
fever, 820
Treponema pallidum, 882
Triceps clonus, 1171
reflex, 1170
Trichinella spiralis in blood, 1052
Trichiniasis, 1051
polymyositis and, differentiation, 1053
rheumatism and, differentiation, 1053
Trichomonas in sputum, 85
Trichuris trichiuria, 1047
in bladder, 1054
Tricuspid regurgitation, 313
anorexia in, 314
ascites in, 314
cyanosis in, 314
dyspnea in, 314
hemorrhoids in, 314
mechanic influence of lesion, 313
murmur of, 315
nausea in, 314
pulsating liver of, 313, 315
sputum in, 316
vomiting in, 314
stenosis, 317
Trigeminus nerve, 1196
Trismus, 965, 1329. See also *Tetanus*.
Trochlear nerve, 1196
Trophedema, 739
Trophic diseases, 1318, 1321
Trousseau's sign, 900, 1112
Trypanosoma gambiense, 1024
Trypanosomiasis, 1024
hemolytic test in, 1026
Trypsin, qualitative tests for, 578
Tsetse fly in transmission of trypanosomiasis, 1025
Tubercle bacillus, 851, 852
biology, 853
in feces, 569
in sputum, 86
in urine, 763
development of, 852
diapedesis of, 852
elementary, 852
fully developed, 852
nodular, 852
proliferation of, 852
Tuberculin reaction, Calmette's, 380
cutaneous, 864
in incipient phthisis, 864, 865
Koch's, 379
Moro's 379
von Pirquet's, 379
test, 865
inhalation, 866
Tuberculoma of brain, 1218
Tuberculosis, 851
acute, 856
disseminated, 857
miliary, typhoid fever and, differentiation, 809
allergic reactions in, 378
bacteriology of, 852
bovine, 853
Bruce's sign in, 869
calcification in, 851
caseation in, 851
cavity in, 852
chronic, 854
catarrh of respiratory tract and, 855
heart in, 263
heredity and, 855
modes of infection, 856
occupation and, 855
x-ray diagnosis, 78
complement fixation test in, 391, 858, 864
conjugal, 856
D'Espine's sign in, 879
distribution of lesions, 852
droplet infection in, 856
early, limiting movements of diaphragm, 79
Eustace Smith's sign in, 879
gastric symptoms in, 861
gastro-intestinal syndrome in, 861
goiter in, 862
hyperthyroidism in, 862
incipient, acute bronchitis and, differentiation, 93
miliary, 851, 852, 857
acute bronchitis and, differentiation, 93
endocarditis and, differentiation, 287 858
general, 857
pulmonary, 858, 875
typhoid form, 857
x-ray diagnosis, 77
of bladder, 878
of bone, 876
of cecum, appendicitis and, differentiation, 605
of Fallopian tubes, 878
of intestine, 781
of liver, 661, 877
of mesenteric glands, 878
of ovaries, 878
of prostate, 878
of serous membranes, 877
of skin, 876
of testicles, 878
of tracheobronchial lymph-nodes, 878
of ureters, 878
of vertebræ, pain in, 493

Tuberculosis, peritoneal, 623
anemia in, 624
carcinomatous peritonitis and, differentiation, 625
miliary, 623
peritonitis and, differentiation, 625
typhoid state in, 624
Petruschky's sign in, 879
position of heart in, 262
pseudoleukemia and, differentiation, 428
pulmonary, 124, 859. See also *Pulmonary tuberculosis.*
renal, 877
rubber ball sound in, 869
sclerosis in, 851
sputum in, antimony to increase flow, 864
tubercle in, 852
Vargas' sign in, 863
x-ray diagnosis, 77
Tuberculous arthritis, 878
cervical adenitis, 879
pseudoleukemia and, differentiation, 880
dysentery, 781
enteritis, 781
dysentery and, differentiation, 791
infiltration of lung, serofibrinous pleurisy and, differentiation, 158
laryngitis, 36
meningitis, 877
orchitis, 878
peritonitis, 877
appendicitis and, differentiation, 604
pleurisy, 162, 877
pyelitis, 744
Tularemia, 1000, 1001
Tumors of adrenal cortex, 1159
of brain, 1217. See also *Brain tumors.*
of cauda equina, 1275
of cerebello-pontile angle, 1233
of cerebellum, 1229
of cerebral peduncles, 1229
of cerebrum, 1220
of crus, 1229
of dura covering occipital bones, 1233
of fourth ventricle, 1227
of frontal lobe, 1222
of heart, 323
of larynx, 38
of lateral ventricles, 1227
of lung, 131
of mediastinum, 353
simulating carcinoma of esophagus, 471
x-ray diagnosis, 264, 355
of medulla oblongata, 1229
of motor area, 1225
of nerves, 1310
of occipital area, 1227
of pons, 1229
of sensory area, 1226
of spinal cord, 1274
Wideroe's method of diagnosis, 1275
of spleen, 685
of subcortex, 1227
Tumors of third ventricle, 1227
of vermis, 1233
of vertebra, 1279
of visual area, 1227
spinal, puncture of cisterna magna in, 1277
splenic, acute, 686
Türk ruling, 369
Tympanites, ascites and, differentiation, 631
in dilatation of colon, 583
Tympany, 59
bell, 63
in pneumothorax, 172
dull, 63
in pneumonia, 834
of stomach, 63, 499, 500
skodaic, 62
wooden, 62
Typhlitis, 599
with colonic impaction, pyelitis and, differentiation, 747
Typhoid fever, 796
abdominal complications, 811
distention in, 802
acute ulcerative endocarditis and, differentiation, 287
atypical temperature in, 805
bacteriology of, 796
bed-sores in, 813
bilious, 821
blood-pressure in, 219
Brinton's bile test in, 808
bronchitis in, 800
carriers, 798
cerebral, 801
cholecystitis in, 811
circulatory complications, 812
symptoms, 806
constipation in, 799, 805
cutaneous complications, 812
defervescence stage, 796, 803
development stage, 802
diarrhea in, 805
dysentery and, differentiation, 810
ear complications, 812
endocarditis in, 812
epistaxis in, 806
eruption in, 800
eye complications in, 812
fastigium of, 796, 803
gastro-intestinal symptoms, 805, 811
headache in, 799
heart-sounds in, 800
in children, 802
incubation stage, 802
intestinal hemorrhage in, 811
invasion stage, 796
laryngeal, 801, 811
latent, 800
malaria and, differentiation, 809
meningeal symptoms in, 812
meningitis and, 812
differentiation, 810
mental dullness in, 799
mild form, 800
miliary tuberculosis and, differentiation, 809

Typhoid fever, Morris' atropin test in, 806
mortality rate in, 800
myocarditis in, 812
nephritis in, 812
nervous complications, 811
symptoms, 800, 806
of aged, 801
otitis media in, 812
perforation in, 805, 811
pericarditis in, 812
pleurisy in, 811
pulmonary tuberculosis and, differentiation, 860
pulse in, 800, 806
remittent malarial fever and, differentiation, 1020
renal complications in, 812
respiratory symptoms, 806, 811
season and, 798
septicemia of, 812
severe form, 800
spleen in, 799
temperature in, 800
throat ulcers in, 801
thrombosis in, 812
tongue in, 799, 806
typhus and, differentiation, 809, 818
ulceration of mouth in, 801
urine in, 800, 808
usual form, 799
walking, 800
Widal reaction in, 381, 800, 807
pleurisy, 158
pneumonia, 829
lobar pneumonia and, differentiation, 840
spine, 812
state in peritoneal tuberculosis, 624
Typhus fever, 814
bacilli in blood, 814
cerebrospinal meningitis and, differentiation, 817
eruptive stage, 815
lice containing bacilli of, 814
measles and, differentiation, 818
nephritis and, differentiation, 817
preëruptive stage, 815
typhoid fever and, differentiation, 809, 818
variola and, differentiation, 960
Weil-Felix test in, 817
Tyrosin in urine, 714
Tyrosinuria, 714

Uffelmann's test for lactic acid, 521
Ulcer, Bouveret, 801
duodenal, 570
focal infection in, 570
gastric ulcer and, differentiation, 578
pylorospasm in, 571
x-ray diagnosis, 573
gastric, 541
carcinoma and, differentiation, 545, 552
duodenal ulcer and, differentiation, 578
focal infection in, 542
Ulcer, gastric, gastralgia and, differentiation, 546
gastroscopy in, 544
hyperchlorhydria and, differentiation, 528
pain in, 492, 543
perforating, 542
simple, 542
vomiting of, 543, 545
vomitus of, 488
of esophagus, 466
of frenum, 447
post-pyloric, 570
Ulceration of cornea in measles, 940
pseudoleukemia and, differentiation, 429
Ulcerative endocarditis, 283. See also *Endocarditis, ulcerative.*
stomatitis, 449
Ulnar palsy, 1308
Umbilicus reflex, 1172
Uncinariasis, 1045
Unconscious states, pupils in, 1175
Undulant fever, 818
Unverricht's type of myoclonus, 1333
Urea, hypobromite test for, 708
in urine, 707
Uremia of children, 721
paralysis of, plumbism and, differentiation, 596
vomiting of, 491
Uremic asthma, 733
diarrhea, 783
Ureometer, Doremus-Hinds, 708
Ureteral calculi, *x*-ray diagnosis, 691, 692
Ureters, disease, *x*-ray diagnosis, 691
tuberculosis of, 878
Uric acid calculus, 749
in blood, 372
in urine, 708
Urinary system, diseases of, 691
Urine, acetone in, 712
acid, 704
albumin in, 699. See also *Albuminuria.*
amphoteric, 704
aspergillus fumigatus in, 762
bile acids in, 712
bile-pigments in, 712
blood in, 697
causes, 697
B-oxybutyric acid in, 713
calcium oxalate in, 714
carbohydrates in, 709
chlorids in, 704
chlorin in, 705
cholesterin in, 716
chylous, 697
collection of, 696, 710
colloids in, 703
cylindroids in, 714
cystin in, 715
decrease, conditions causing, 696
diacetic acid in, 713
diazo-reaction, 717
examination of, 30, 696
excessive, conditions causing, 696
glucose in, 709. See also *Glycosuria.*

Urine, hemoglobin in, 698
in erysipelas, 953
in interstitial nephritis, 734
incontinence of, 770
of retention, 770
spasmodic, 771
indican in, 716
indigo in, 717
indoxyl-potassium sulphate in, 716
indoxyl-sodium sulphate in, 716
lactose in, 711
leucin in, 714
leukocytes in, 698
milky, 697
neutral, 704
oxalic acid in, 713
pentose in, 712
phosphates in, 706
pus in, 698
reaction of, 704
specific gravity, 704
stalagmometry of, 703
sugar in, quantitative estimation, 711
sulphates in, 706
sulphur in, 707
suppression of, 696
tubercle bacilli in, 763
tyrosin in, 714
urea in, 707
uric acid in, 708
vegetable parasites in, 762
Urticaria, 1321
erysipelas and, differentiation, 954
rubella and, differentiation, 943
Uterine colic, cholelithiasis and, differentiation, 677
Uveoparotitic paralysis, 945

Vaccination against pneumonia, 832
Vaccinia, 962
Valve, ileocecal, patulous, 607
Valvular disease, 291
complications of, 320
Vaquez disease, 403
Vargas' sign in tuberculosis, 863
Varicella, 963
measles and, differentiation, 940
variola and, differentiation, 961
Varicose aneurism, 342
Variola, 954
acute gastritis and, differentiation, 535
alastrim and, differentiation, 962
albuminuria in, 960
bacteriology, 956
black, 955
cerebrospinal fever and, differentiation, 961
confluent, 954
constipation in, 960
cough in, 957
cutaneous features, 957, 958, 959
discrete, 954
eruption in, 958
hematuria in, 960
hemorrhagic, 955
immunity, 955
impetigo contagiosa and, differentiation, 961
Variola, joints in, 959
laryngitis in, 957
macule of, 958
measles and, differentiation, 940, 960
morbilliform erythema in, 958
nervous symptoms, 957
ocular phenomena in, 959
papule of, 958
parasitology, 956
pharyngitis in, 957
pulse in, 959
pustule of, 959
respiratory symptoms, 957
scarlatiniform erythema in, 958
scarlet fever and, differentiation, 960
secondary fever, 958
sputum in, 960
syphilis and, differentiation, 888, 961
typhus fever and, differentiation, 960
varicella and, differentiation, 961
vesicles of, 959
Varioloid, 955
Vascular murmur, 256
system, examination, 29
Vasomotor diseases, 1318
phenomena, 1318
Vault of skull, fracture, brain injury, 1235
Vegetable parasites in urine, 762
Veins of abdomen, diagnostic value of, 481
Venom, cobra, test for syphilis, 391
Venous hum, 256
murmur, 256
Ventricle, left, hypertrophy of, 321
right, hypertrophy of, 322
Ventricles of brain, puncture of, 1228
Ventricular extrasystoles, 241
fibrillation, 239
paroxysmal tachycardia, 243
Vermis of cerebellum, 1191
tumors of, 1233
Vertebra, diseases of, 1279
dislocation of, 1280
fracture of, 1280
tuberculosis of, pain in, 493
tumors of, 1279
Vertebral column. See *Spinal column*.
Vertigo from brain lesions, 1201
Vesical calculus, nephrolithiasis and, differentiation, 753
x-ray for, 693
Vesicular breathing, 69
systolic, 71
emphysema, 133
stomatitis, 448
Vestibular reactions, Bárány tests of, 1223
Vincent's angina, 450
bacillus, 451
spirillum, 451
Virilismus, 1153
Visceral syphilis, 890
Viscosimeter, Hess, 359
Vision, nerve of, 1193
Visual area, tumors of, 1227
centers, 1187
Vital capacity of lungs, in heart disease, 182

Vital capacity of lungs, in myocarditis, 327
Vocal cords in goiter, 1100
paralysis of, in thoracic aneurism, 345
Voice in heart disease, 183
sounds in health, 75
Vomit, bile in, 523
blood in, 523
black, in yellow fever, 824, 826
coffee-ground, 489
in gastric carcinoma, 550
ulcer, 545
in chronic gastritis, 488
in gastric carcinoma, 488
diseases, 522
ulcer, 488
in plumbism, 596
rice-water in Asiatic cholera, 795
Vomiting, 487
cerebral, 489
cyclic, 490
from brain lesions, 1201
gastric causes, 522
hepatic causes, 522
in acute infections, 489, 522
in chronic conditions of stomach, 488
in drug intoxications, 523
in gastric carcinoma, 550
ulcer, 543, 545
in peritonitis, 615
in shock, 523
intestinal causes, 522
nervous, 523, 531
of acute gastritis, 487
of apoplexy, 490
of blood, 488
of gastric dilatation, 489
of locomotor ataxia, 490
of obstruction of esophagus, 489
of peritonitis, 490
of pulmonary tuberculosis, 490
of uremia, 491
pancreatic causes, 523
physiologic, 523
reflex, 490
renal causes, 522
special sense, 523
stercoraceous, 523
types of, 487
von Fleischl's hemoglobinometer, 363
Von Graefe's sign, 1095
von Pirquet's tuberculin reaction, 379
Vulvitis in mumps, 945

Waldeyer's ring, 1158
Walking pneumonia, 833
Wandering pace-maker, 230
War edema, 738
Waskia intestinalis, 1035
Wassermann reaction in syphilis, 387, 888 891, 1287
with spinal fluid in aneurysm, 350
in heart disease, 297
in myocarditis, 327
Water meal, 509
Water-hammer pulse, 200, 202
in aortic regurgitation, 295
Weil-Felix test in typhus fever, 817
Weil's cobra venom reaction in syphilis, 391, 887
disease, 640, 1005
sign in lobar pneumonia, 836
Wernicke's hemiopic pupillary reaction, 1174
zone, 1186
Westphal-Pilc reaction, 1173
Wheeze, asthmatic, in foreign bodies in bronchi, 120
Whooping-cough, 40, 945
bronchitis in, 94
cardiac complications, 947
epistaxis in, 947
foreign bodies in air passages and, differentiation, 117
gastro-intestinal irritation in, 947
hemoptysis in, 947
nervous complications, 947
Widal serum-reaction, 381
in typhoid fever, 800, 807
Widerve's diagnosis of spinal cord tumors, 1275
William's sign, 79
Wilson's disease, 667
Winckel's disease, 1009
Wintrich's sign, 65
in pneumothorax, 172
interrupted, 65
Witzelsucht, 1223
Wolff-Junghans test, 520
Wooden tympany, 62
Wood-tick bite paralysis, 998
Woolly heart sound in endocarditis, 282
Wool-sorter's disease, 970
Word blindness, 1187
memory, loss of, 1187
Worms, fish-, 1037
guinea, 1057
hook-, 1045
round-, 1042, 1050
tape-1035
thread-, 1044
Wound diphtheria, 931
Wounds, abdominal, blood-pressure in, 221
Wright's staining of blood, 399
Wrist-drop in plumbism, 594
Writer's cramp, 1332
Wry-neck, 995, 1331

Xanthelasma in jaundice, 671
Xanthoma diabeticorum, 1066
Xanthopsia in jaundice, 671
Xiphocostal route for aspirating pericardium, 274
X-ray. See Röntgen-ray.

Yellow atrophy of liver, acute, 668
hypertrophic cirrhosis and, differentiation, 669
phosphorus-poisoning and, differentiation, 662
fever, 824
albuminuric, 824
dengue and, differentiation, 949
filterable virus in, 824

Yellow fever, leptospira icteroides in, 824, 826
melano-albuminuric, 824
mosquito transmission in, 825
non-albuminuric, 824
photophobia in, 825
Yellow fever, secondary, 826
vomiting in, 824, 826
sputum, 81

Zone, Wernicke's, 1186
Zymogen, 518
Zymophore group, 377

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