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MEDICAL EDUCATION AND INSTITUTIONS.

An Account of the Origin, Progress, and Present State of the Medical School of Paris.

[Extracted from the American Journal of the Medical Sciences, for May, 1831.]

THE medical school of Paris is, without doubt, one of the most ancient in Europe. The precise date of its foundation is still, however, a matter of dispute among antiquaries; some affirming that it may be traced to a period anterior to the establishment of the university of that city, or of the different schools which subsequently received the form and charter of an university; whilst others maintain, that medicine was not taught as early at Paris as at Montpellier, and consequently not until long after the time assigned by the former writers. Although it does not comport with the plan of this article to enter very fully on this historical point, yet we may be allowed to remark, that from various documents at present before us, and from several old writers upon this subject, it appears, that Charlemagne, in an edict dated from Thionville, so early as 805, ordered that pupils should be sent to Paris from various parts of his kingdom to study medicine, and that this branch should be added to grammar, arithmetic, music, dialectics, rhetoric, geometry, and astronomy, which before constituted the only ones taught in the schools he had already established at Lyons, Metz, Fulde, Hirshau, Reichenau, and Osna-bruck. RIOLAN, in a singular little volume on the two schools of Paris and Montpellier, quotes in proof of the greater antiquity of the former, the writings of HEMERUS, (*De Academia Parisiensi*,) who says that at a very early period "physicians taught in a house situated in the square of Notre Dame, between the Hôtel Dieu and the Bishop's house." In addition to this, he remarks that RIGORDUS, first Physician to Philip II. in his history of that monarch, says that in his time the physicians of Paris, taught fully and perfectly all the branches of medicine. The following remarks deserve to be quoted in the original. So early as the year 1163, "les médecins enseignoient avec un tel ravissement et contentement des auditeurs, que les religieux sortoient de leurs convents pour venir entendre les leçons; ce qui obligea le Pape Alexandre III., en un Concile tenu à Tours, de commander aux religieux, sur peine d'excommunication, de se retirer dans leur monastères avec défense de ne plus aller aux leçons des physiens; ainsi appeloient ils les médecins."

In his historical sketch of the faculty of Paris, HAZON does not assign to this school so ancient an origin as others, as we have seen, have done; for, after remarking that it was naturally comprised in the association of savans, who, after their emigration from the monastic cloisters, and particularly from the episcopal one, assembled, each for his particular object or branch, under the name of study of Paris, he adds, "Before this fortunate revolution, which took place towards the middle of the twelfth century, medicine in France was nothing more than a blind empiricism. Under these circumstances the *physicians* who united in the study of Paris, and were there formed into companies, commenced teaching the various branches of their profession in that city."

Be the antiquity of the school of Paris, however, what it may, medicine, considered in its practical application, and as a branch of instruction, was before this period, in France, as in the rest of Europe, confined to the monasteries. The monks of the Abbey of St. Victor, practised we are told, the principles of the healing art, long before France had emerged from a state of barbarism. The commandery of the *Petit St. Antoine*, whose hospitable monks devoted themselves to the treatment of epidemical diseases, may also be cited as a nursery of medical instruction. But these monasteries in cultivating the medical science, only preserved the ancient apanage of all monasteries; the healing art being in all practised with success,* and considered an act of piety and charity, and as a duty attached to the religious profession. The school of Salerno, indeed, founded by the Benedictines, only revived the science of medicine, which had become lost amid the confusion of the dark ages. Before the establishment of this school the medical art was only the results of chance, and of the experiments of a blind empiricism. At that time no physician could bleed a female of noble birth, except in the presence of a relation, or of servants, under penalty of ten sous. The physician was obliged to give security before undertaking a cure, and if he did not succeed he was condemned to damages and interest. For a long while kings chose their physicians only from among the inmates of the cloisters. Even by the immediate predecessors of Charlemagne, education was much neglected. The princes of that period had, it is believed, schools established in their palaces for the instruction of the young nobility; but this plan was not sufficiently general and regular. The great monarch aforemen-

* Hodoaw. Chr. Rec. des Hist. de France, vol. 8, p. 229. Lebrœuf. Hist. de la ville et du Diocese de Paris, vol. 2.

tioned, established a system of education better calculated to diffuse instruction through the various classes of society; but the duties of teaching continued as formerly to be retained by the members of the clergy. The consequence was that a much greater importance was given to theology than to some of the more useful branches; a plan indeed which accorded well with the taste of Charlemagne, and was therefore encouraged by him. As physicians and philanthropists, however, we should not condemn the system he so zealously enforced; since the edict to which we have already alluded shows the importance he attached to professional knowledge, and the desire he felt of propagating the study of medicine. In the twelfth century the savans of Paris, formed the determination of constituting themselves into an association, and obtained permission that the schools incorporated in the manner above noticed, should assume the rank of, and be chartered as a regular university. The precise period of this reorganization is not known; but we are told by MATHIEU PARIS, that JEAN DE LA BELLE, who was elected abbe of St. Alban, in 1195, was educated at Paris, and had been associated to the body of Masters—*ad electorum consortium magistrorum*.

Soon after this epoch the university was placed under the charge of a chief, mention of whom is made in an ordinance issued by Philip Augustus in 1200. By the same ordinance the university was endowed with many privileges and prerogatives. The studies were now conducted on a more regular and systematic plan, and instead of theology and the arts being the sole objects of interest, medicine began to assume the form of a science, and to be taught by regular professors. It was about this time that the faculties, in the sense we apply to that term, were first established. They were three in number, theology, law, and medicine; the professors, as well as the whole body of teachers attached to the university remaining ecclesiastical; and the pupils being like those of all other branches, clerical. Before this period the only division that had been made of the mass of pupils attending to the various branches taught in the schools of art, was into nations—a division which still continued even after the formation of the faculties. These nations consisted of individuals of the same or neighbouring countries, including occasionally a few from more distant districts, who, whatever might be the nature of the studies for which they had resorted to Paris, united together into a body, and lived in separate buildings erected for that purpose and denominated colleges. Each of these nations framed its own laws and regulations, was governed by officers of its own choice, and did not necessarily keep up a communication with the other nations, except

When they assembled together to constitute the great council of the university, and to transact business of a common interest. At an early period of their formation, (the exact period is not known, some writers referring it the reign of Charlemagne, others to those of Louis the seventh and of Philip Augustus,) the number of these nations was very limited, consisting, as is affirmed by some, of only two, the French and the English. In the course of a few years they increased in number, so that at the close of the thirteenth century they amounted to four, those of France, Picardy, Normandy, and England. They ranked in the above order. The first, besides the French, included Italians, Spaniards, Greeks, and Orientals; the last the Scotch, Irish, Poles, Germans; and all other northern students. Each nation was divided into provinces; and each of these into dioceses. The provinces had each at their head a dean. These formed the ordinary council of the procurator or head of each nation. The procurators, in their turn, constituted the ordinary council of the rector, who was chief officer of the university. Besides the ordinary council just alluded to, there was a great council, consisting of the rector, procurators, and deans. Of the causes which led to the change in the division of the pupils, and to the formation of the faculties, we need not here occupy the attention of our readers, and must refer them, for all that can be desirable to know on that head, to Dr. DAVID JOHNSTON'S work on education in France. It will be sufficient to remark that the faculty of theology was the first formed, and that that of medicine was soon after modelled upon the former, since it is proved that so early as 1270 one of its members was punished for contravening one of the statutes. Shortly after this, the faculty of law, (canon,) was similarly organized. About the year 1281, the three faculties of theology, medicine, and canon law were confirmed in all their rights and privileges, and thus assumed equal rank with the four nations already mentioned, which had not ceased to exist, and now received the name of faculty of arts.*

* There was at that time a curious custom, which was continued for a long time; it consisted in giving to each nation and faculty an honorary title. This was not merely made use of in common parlance, but was retained in all acts and statutes. What these titles were may be seen by the annexed list of deans and procurators of the different faculties and nations.

J. Mullot, Decan. *Sacræ* facultatis Theologiæ; Ph. De Buisine, Decan. *Con-sultissimæ*, facul. jur. Canon; Guido Patin, Decan. *Saluberrimæ*, fac. med.; J. Doge, *Honorandæ* nationis Gallicæ, Procurator; G. De Lestoc, *Fidellissimæ* nat. Picard. Procurator; Th. Le Petit, *Venerandæ*, nat. Nor. Procurator; Mac Namara, *Constantissimæ*, nat. German Procurator.

The medical faculty of the university, which constitutes the principal object of this article, attained considerable reputation, even soon after its definite organization, and was regarded, for a long time as the best in Europe, with the exception of that of Montpellier. Students flocked to Paris to attend the lectures of the professors, and we have already seen the effect produced by them on the young literati of the times, who were no where to be found except among the inmates of cloisters and monasteries. The founders of this school were under the impression, that in order to establish a faculty capable of imparting solid instruction, and calculated to do honour to the great metropolis in which the school was located, it was necessary to have recourse to two measures. 1st. To insist on the necessity of following nature agreeably to the views expressed in the writings of HIPPOCRATES and GALEN, and 2dly, to profit by the labours of the two more ancient schools of Cordova and Salerno. To accomplish these objects they had recourse to the various translations then in circulation, of the writings of the two fathers of medicine—the original texts having been carried away from the continent to Arabia by St. Benedictus and others—as well as to the writings and commentaries of the professors of the celebrated schools we have just mentioned. It was not until about the middle of the fifteenth century, however, that these efforts to raise the reputation, and establish the preëminence of the school of Paris, were crowned with full success. In their laudable zeal to that effect, the professors were much aided by the discovery of printing, which took place about this period, and by the protection which the school of Paris, as well as every other in the kingdom, received from King Francis the first, who, by his munificence, induced savans from all parts of the world to collect in the capital of his kingdom. From this period to the beginning of the seventeenth century, the progress of the school was rapid. During that period translations from the original texts were made, and commentaries on these, as well as original works, written in accordance with the principles of the Hippocratic school, were published. As early as 1532, JOANNES CAMPEGIUS, in an epistle cited by his uncle SYMPHORIANUS CAMPEGIUS, physician to Charles the eighth and Louis the twelfth, speaks in terms of high praise of the learning of Parisian physicians in the Greek language and in medical science. Riolan, from whom we derive this information, states, that in 1551, CASARTUS, a learned Scotch physician, expressed a similarly favourable sentiment respecting the school of Paris. LORRY, in his preface to ASTRUC's history of the school of Montpellier, says of the beginning of the seventeenth century, "this era is that of the true

glory and lustre of the faculty of medicine of Paris; no body of physicians has produced such skilful interpreters, such illustrious commentators of our first masters as this faculty. The spirit of observation, according to the Hippocratic method, drew forth from its members works still precious at the present time." Were other testimony of the high and merited renown of the school of Paris necessary, it might be sought for in the first book of BAGLIVI'S work on the practice. It will be sufficient in order to show, that the praise contained in these quotations is not exaggerated, to remind the reader, that it was at the period in question, that BOUVARD, DEGORRHIS, BRESSOT, VASSE, FERNEL, COP, GONTHIER, D'ANDERNACK, HOLLIER, GOUPIL, D'ALLEMAND, the two DURETS, BALLOU, AKAKIA, &c. all names of the highest renown in the annals of our profession, flourished at Paris, and took an active part in promoting the progress of medical knowledge, and raising the reputation of the school to which most, if not all, of them were attached.

As regards the period at which the faculty of Paris began to cultivate with the greatest success the various branches of medical science, and the progress these made in that city, it would be a waste of time to say much in this place. A few words on the subject, however, may not be misplaced here, inasmuch as we shall thus be able to present a view of the state of the school previous to the French revolution, as well as to notice the origin and progress of the college or school of surgery, which grew out of that of medicine.

The first lessons given in anatomy were for the instruction of the barbers and surgeons. To the former they were delivered in French; to the latter in Latin. This occurred in the years 1498 and 1499, (PASQUIER, Rech. sur la France, Liv. 9, Chap. 31.) We need hardly state that previous to, and even at the period we have mentioned, this branch was in a state of infancy, and that these first attempts towards the delivery of a course of instruction in it must have met with but a slender success. This does not in the least detract, however, from the praise to which the school of Paris is entitled on that head, since the lectures delivered on the same subject in other universities of Europe, do not appear to have been superior, or even as good as those of the former. In the course of a few years, works were published on this branch, disputations were carried on, and many discoveries made. Nevertheless it was not until the commencement of the sixteenth century that anatomy was properly taught. The names of CHARLES ETIENNE, GONTHIER the master of VESALIUS, RIOLAN, FAGAULT, GOURMELIN, and particularly of SYLVIUS, who, although a graduate of Montpellier, may, in consequence of his long

residence in Paris, be classed among the former—most of whom flourished in this or the commencement of the succeeding century, will, owing to the zeal they displayed in their dissections, and to the degree of perfection to which they carried this important branch, ever live in the memory of anatomists, and reflect the highest honour on the city and faculty of Paris. To these anatomists successively followed LITTRE, DUVERNEY, WINSLOW, HUNAN, PETIT, LIEUTAUD, and VICQ D'AZYR, who carried the science to still greater perfection than had been done by their predecessors.

Anatomy having much improved, the functions of the different parts of the body were explained in a less conjectural and speculative manner than had hitherto been done. Yet physiology cannot be said to have considerably improved at Paris previous to the middle of the seventeenth century, when, the circulation of the blood having been discovered, and physical and mechanical science having made great progress, the former assumed a better direction, and new, though not always correct explanations of the phenomena of life were offered. The books containing these physiological speculations, although no longer read but by the erudite, may be regarded as productions of great interest. In the progress of time, however, physiology emerged from the obscurity in which the Gallenical doctrine had long held it enchained, and a BORDEU, a FABRE, a DE CAZE, a VICQ D'AZYR, and others, gave to the physiological school of Paris an impulse which has led to the most beneficial results, and ensured to it a reputation equal to, if not greater than that enjoyed by any other.

Nor was the success of the members of the Parisian school less conspicuous in surgery. In the origin, both medicine and surgery were taught under the name of physic. When universities were established, the same name for both was retained in Italy, while the term *médecine* was conferred upon them in France. In the twelfth century the church prohibited its members from performing operations, on the plea that a priest should entertain a horror for blood. Hence the physicians who wished to continue the practice of the art, were compelled to leave the faculty. In this century and the succeeding one, surgery was left almost entirely in the hands of the barbers. A floating banner over three pewter basins, formed the significant sign of the barber-surgeons. Even women performed surgical operations, provided they could obtain permission to that effect from the king's surgeon at the Chatelet. The surgeon-barbers were not members of the university, which would not even grant them the title of pupils. In truth, they were very ignorant, all their art consisting in setting broken bones, in bleeding, in cupping, and in shaving. In addition to this, they some-

times kept warm baths, for the accommodation of invalids and the public generally. They were often at open warfare with the regular physicians, who reproached them with selling medicines and recipes not approved of by the faculty.

As early as 1272, several surgeons, headed by PITARD, had, as we have already hinted, separated from the faculty, in order to institute a college, which though distinct from, yet remained under the jurisdiction of the faculty. The members of this college being considered as lay members, (those of the university were still regarded as clerical,) had permission to marry, enjoyed all the privileges possessed by the masters in surgery, and wore the same costume. Soon after, LANFRANC joined this college and became one of its most distinguished members. The college was placed under the patronage of the St. Come and St. Damiens. From their costume the members were denominated *surgeons of the long robe*, in order to distinguish them from another set of surgeons, who were called *chirurgiens de robe courte*, and were formed into a *community* under the direction of the head barber of the king, J. PRACONTAL. They were obliged to study medicine for two years, and to submit to strict examinations. According to Pasquier, (Rech. de la France, ch. 30, p. 817,) the confederation of surgeons was only instituted by an edict of Philip the Fair, in 1311, but there are not wanting some writers who prefer to this opinion, that of the author of the *Index Emericus Chirurg, Parisiensium*, who refers this establishment to St. Louis. Be this however as it may, the college of surgeons, from the order given by Philip, which enjoined on all the surgeons of France to present themselves for examination before it, and assimilated its members to those of the faculty, as well as in consequence of the practical success of its members, and the suffrages it obtained from the academy, had to sustain a war with the faculty. In this dispute the latter obtained some advantages over the college, and exacted a sworn promise from the bachelors, before giving them a license, that they would never practice surgery; yet the members of the college became more elevated in repute and standing than the barbers and *stuvists*, who, by an act of parliament dated 1425, were prohibited from performing operations. The faculty, however, who had obtained an edict from King John the Good, in 1352, prohibiting all who had not procured a license, such as apothecaries, students, and mendicant friars, from practising the healing art, took the defence of the barbers, from a spirit of revenge against the college, and taught them the practice of surgery. Complaints were made in 1491 and 2, but to little effect; for the faculty continued, as heretofore, to deliver lectures on anatomy for the

benefit of the barbers. The surgeons on their part reiterated their complaints, and obtained that the public dissections should be entrusted to them, and that each among them who would pay an annual sum of thirteen sous to the faculty, should be entitled to a pre-eminence over the barbers. But all their complaints were left unnoticed, and in 1505, the faculty still nourishing their inveterate hatred of the surgeons, declared the barbers *children* of the faculty. They were enregistered as such, engaged themselves on oath not to make use of internal remedies without calling in a member of the faculty, and submitted to examinations before obtaining the degrees of master. They were now no longer designated by the term *Barbitonsores*, but by the less dishonourable one, given them by the faculty, of *Chirurgici a tonstrina*, or of *tonsores chirurgici*.

In 1515, the college, while under the presidency of E. BARAT, applied directly to the university, and obtained the abrogation of most of the privileges possessed over its members by the faculty of medicine, and an edict of the university immediately followed, by which the surgeons of Paris were declared members of the faculty. About the same time, WILLIAM VAVASSEUR, first surgeon to Francis I. obtained the separation of the corporation of surgeons from that of the barbers, and also a decree by which every master in surgery was enjoined to present certificates of his knowledge in Latin and of his skill in the science of dialectics before he could obtain a license to practice. By these measures the college of surgery was raised to an equal rank with the learned schools. It finally obtained permission to confer degrees of master, bachelor, licenciate, and doctor in surgery, and obtained from Henry II. prerogatives equal to those enjoyed by the faculty. In 1557 the decree of 1515 was, however, annulled through the efforts of J. DUHAMEL, dean of the faculty, and the surgeons were once more forced to submit to the examinations of the latter. In 1577 the college again obtained a confirmation of their privileges and of the right of conferring academical honours. Two years after, the faculty endeavoured to divest the college of the independence thus granted to it; but failed, in consequence of the former receiving from Pope Gregory XIII. an *indulto* similar to that sent to the university. The college now prospered so rapidly, that in 1506 it felt powerful enough to compel the barbers to call in a regular surgeon for advice in all severe cases. All these privileges were confirmed in 1602 by Henry IV. and in 1614 by Louis XIII.

The eighteenth century is really remarkable for the number of brilliant discoveries and improvements that were made in surgery. The number of men of genius and talent who flourished in France

during that period is almost inconceivable, and it is no small praise to say, that it was at this time the weight of authority in matters of science gave way to that of reason and experience.

In the latter half of the century to which we here refer, two individuals equally distinguished by their talents and the rank they occupied in the profession, BIENAISE and ROBERDEAU conceived the praiseworthy design of promoting the cause of the surgical science. They established and maintained, at their own expense, in the schools of surgery, which, from a variety of causes were in great measure deserted, several chairs for the demonstrations of various branches. While this amelioration was effected in the regular surgical schools, Louis XIV. reorganized, by a declaration dated December, 1671, the royal school of surgery of the garden of plants, of which we shall speak by and by, and very wisely ordered that henceforward the teaching of that branch, which had been claimed as a privilege by the doctors of the faculties of Paris and Montpellier, should be entrusted to a surgeon. DIONIS was appointed to the chair of anatomy and operative surgery,* and gave éclat by his skill and reputation to the establishment.

At the solicitation of MARESCHAL and LAPEYRONIE, the king, by letters patent of the month of September, 1724, ordered the establishment in the college of St. Come of five chairs, the incumbents of which were charged with teaching all the branches of anatomy and surgery. To these chairs Lapeyronie added a sixth, which he himself endowed, and the professor of which was called upon to deliver two courses on midwifery; one for surgeons, and the other for midwives. At his instigation also a number of adjuncts equal to that of the demonstrators were appointed, the expenses of whom he offered, in the most liberal manner, to defray himself. The faculty did not limit itself at this time to protesting against the independence of the college, but even attempted to overcome it by force. We find in Quesnay a ludicrous account of the assault which was made by the doctors of the faculty, aided by their pupils, and headed by the dean; the doctors being all dressed in their robes and caps, the dean decorated with all the insignia of his high office, and a professor carrying a skeleton! When they reached the door of the anatomical room of the college, an officer or beadle struck with force against it, and cried out "*voici vos seigneurs et maîtres de la faculté qui viennent réclamer le droit de vous instruire*:"—here are your lords and masters of the faculty who are come to claim the right of instructing

* Dezeimeris, Journal Hebdomadaire, Vol. 8, p. 307.

you." They are come, adds the witty author, to seize upon the amphitheatre which you could build only for them, they carry to you all the knowledge contained in their books. But from this attack no other results were obtained, than exciting the laughter and hisses of the populace, who *serenaded* in this manner the infuriated professors all the way back to their homes.

In 1743, (23d of April,) the king, by a declaration drawn up by DAGUESSAU, and which is in every way worthy of that celebrated man, ordered that the society of surgeons should be finally cleared of the community of barbers, by an alliance with which it had been so long disgraced. Academical degrees were instituted among the surgeons, the pupils were required, before being allowed to graduate, to present testimonials of having received a liberal education, and to undergo several strict examinations in the different parts of that branch. Shortly after, by an arrêté of the council dated the 4th of July, 1750, the *Ecole Pratique de Chirurgie* was established. This school, which was intended, as its name imports, for the instruction of pupils at the bed-side of the sick, was remodelled in March, 1760, and afterwards established in a small and special hospital, known under the name of *Hospice de Perfectionement*, and which was founded by an edict of the king, dated December, 1776. It was in this school that DESAULT commenced his career as a clinical professor, and that CHOPART taught with such distinguished success.

But to return from this long digression to which we have been led by the circumstance, that the college of surgery at Paris, formed ultimately a distinct school, independent of the university, and as such merited more than a passing notice. Following at an early period the example set them at Montpellier, by GUY DE CHAULIAC, who had already published a treatise on surgery, Lanfranc, (a native of Milan, but long settled in Paris,) AMBROSE PARE, MARESCOT, CHARPENTIER, FAGAULT, GOURMELIN, not to speak of other individuals of less celebrity, published many valuable works,—the two last, treatises on this branch. After these came LAPEYRONIE, J. L. PETIT, MORAND, LEDRAN, GARENGEOT, LA FAYE, VERDIER, PIBRAC, HEVIN, FABRE, LE CAT, FOUHERT, BORDENAVE, SABATIER, PUZOS, HOUSTED, and LOUIS, all of whom were members of that celebrated academy of surgery, of which Paris has so much cause to be proud, and which was formed about this time.

Paris may also be cited for the success with which midwifery and its accessory branches were cultivated by some of the disciples of the school, and other individuals not connected with the latter, but residing and practising in that city. At first abandoned there, as in

every other part of the world to ignorant hands, this branch began about the sixteenth century, to be cultivated by well-informed surgeons. Without stopping to enumerate several early essays on this subject, published by authors long since forgotten, it will be sufficient for our present purpose to mention as deserving a high commendation—viewing the period at which they were written—a treatise by GUILLEMEAU, “*De la grossesse et Accouchement des femmes, du Gouvernement d’icelles, et moyens de subvenir aux accidens qui leur arrivent,*” as well as a dissertation on impotency added to that work, by CHARLES GUILLEMEAU, the son of the preceding author, and who for a time was dean of the medical faculty. At a subsequent period, the writings of MAURICEAU, PUZOS, VIARDEL, DE LAMOTTE, LEVRET, and particularly of PETIT and BAUDELOCQUE, attest sufficiently the early period at which midwifery began to be properly cultivated at Paris, and the improvements made in the philosophy of that branch, previous to the revolution, by the faculty and practitioners of that city. Let it not be forgotten, moreover, that about the middle of the seventeenth century the instruction of midwives was begun, at their own request, and became the source of an establishment which has proved of the highest utility to the city and provinces.

Pathological anatomy was later in being studied with success at Paris than the preceding branches; for, with the exception of BAILLOU, AMBROSE PARE, FERNEL and PINEAU, and notwithstanding the example set them by EUSTACHIUS and MORGAGNI in Italy, BONETUS in Switzerland, DODONEUS, DONATUS and KENTMAN in Germany, no writer had there published any thing of much value on that important subject, until the time of LITTRE, DUVERNEY, DIONIS, and L. PETIT. Soon after, however, LIEUTAUD, VICQ D’AZYR, and some others, published works of considerable interest on that branch, and were the honourable predecessors of PORTAL, BICHAT, BAYLE, LAENNEC, &c.

BELON, a physician of Paris, actuated by an unusual degree of zeal in the prosecution of botanical knowledge, undertook long and perilous voyages, with a view of enriching this department of science. He was protected by Fernel, who at that period enjoyed a great and merited favour, and was aided by the liberalities of Henry III. Independently of BELON; BARRELIER, FAGON, TOURNEFORT, JUSSIEU, VAILLANT, and other distinguished naturalists of Paris, procured in the four quarters of the world, innumerable specimens of natural history, and enriched the catalogue of the *materia medica* by the addition of many articles of more or less value. The establishment of the royal garden of plants by LA BROUSSE and FAGON, which was effected in the reigns of Louis XIII. and XIV., contributed in promoting

the progress of botanical knowledge and of the *materia medica*; since by its means all the treasures of the known world were collected in a small space; while learned professors, appointed with the approval and at the recommendation of the faculty of medicine, studied and explained to a numerous class, the uses and properties of the various objects which that garden contained.

Astrology early met with a decided opposition on the part of the faculty of medicine of Paris. The "*Dispensatorium Galinico-Chymicum*," of RENODEUS, a work more commendable for the erudition it displays, than for the judgment and taste with which it was composed, is sufficient to indicate that at an early period pharmacy and *materia medica* had attracted the attention of Parisian physicians.

Ipecacuanha was, as is well known, introduced in Paris as a therapeutical agent, by a pupil of the school of that city, HELVETIUS, and it was extended thence in 1686, to every part of Europe. Peruvian bark was used in the case of Louis XII. and soon after employed with success by many physicians and professors of Paris. The works of J. A. HELVETIUS, the son of the preceding physician of that name, and of MONGINOT, show the success with which this medicine was there employed and compounded. As regards mineral articles, it is known that the physicians of the Parisian school employed them with as much success as those of any other, and prepared them as well as the state of pharmaceutic chemistry would allow. The different preparations of antimony and mercury, met at their hands a cordial reception. The reverse of this is not to be argued from the fact, that the faculty of the University procured in the year 1566, a decree of parliament against the former of these articles—that BERNIER, one of its members, was expelled from this school in 1609, for continuing to resort to it in his practice, and that a few years anterior to this, the celebrated THEODORE TURQUET of Mayerne, was persecuted for a similar offence. For such a prohibition was founded on the abuse made of this remedy, and on the improper manner in which it was prepared and administered; and it is well known that many physicians of eminence continued to use it, and to take openly and fearlessly its defence. Be this as it may, at a later epoch many treatises on the *materia medica* were published, the most esteemed of which about the opening of the revolution, were those of LIEUTAUD, and DES BOIS DE ROCHEFORT.

In pathology and the treatment of disease, much had been written, but little of decided advantage had been effected by the professors of the medical school, and by the physicians of Paris, up to the moment of the reorganization of the faculty and school; yet the writings

on those subjects of Lieutaud, Bosquillon, Quesnay, Des Bois de Rochefort, Raulin, Portal, Lorry, &c. not to mention those of the older physicians we have already noticed, must, considering the state of science at the period at which they were composed, be regarded as productions of uncommon merit.

Clinical medicine was not taught at Paris until a short period prior to the revolution; the merit of first setting the example in France of delivering regular lectures on this branch, being indubitably due to Des Bois de Rochefort, chief physician of the hospital of La Charité, where he was succeeded in 1788, by the celebrated CORVISART. It is proper to remark, however, that although, as we have just stated, the necessity of teaching medicine at the bed-side of the sick, was not felt in France until the time of Des Bois de Rochefort, the surgeons who flourished in the preceding age, although unauthorized, or rather uncommissioned to that effect, had been in the habit of bringing along with them at their visits, or to their operations in the hospital, their private pupils, their friends, and strangers, whom the anatomical lectures of DUVERNEY, LITRE, MERY, and WINSLOW, attracted at Paris. Such was particularly the case with SAVIARD at the Hôtel Dieu; with MARESCHAL and the lithotomist TOLET at the Charité, and with MAURICEAU in the lying-in wards of the former of these hospitals.*

Whilst such were the advances made in the different branches of medical science by the members of the faculty and the physicians of Paris, chemistry remained in arrears, not so much in consequence of the indifference in which it was held by the faculty, as owing to the state of knowledge at the time, and to the prejudices existing against this branch. At the beginning of the seventeenth century, knowledge had advanced sufficiently to open the eyes of the public respecting the fallacy and absurdity of judiciary astrology and magic, a belief in which prevailed to a considerable extent in the preceding century; hence we find that the faculty of medicine opposed them with vigour. But there yet remained much to accomplish, for the purpose of enlightening the minds of the multitude to such a degree as to enable all to perceive the exact relation existing between different branches of inquiry. This was well exemplified by the single fact, that for a long time it was found impossible to persuade the generality of the people that there existed a vast difference between magic and chemistry, owing to the circumstance that by the latter, results that appeared to many extraordinary and even supernatural, were obtained.

* Dezeimeris.

From this strange prejudice arose the prohibition made by all the tribunals of Paris, of selecting chemical subjects as the theme of the dissertations of the graduates, and of delivering lectures, either public or private, on this science. This dislike to chemistry was much seconded by the esteem in which the Aristotelian philosophy continued to be held, as well as by the prejudices then prevailing against the principles of DESCARTES. Add to this, that the alchemists had greatly contributed to alienate the minds of many, perhaps involuntarily, against chemistry, by the obscurity in which they had affected to veil their art, and by the interested motives which almost invariably guided them in their public and private conduct.

With the progress of knowledge, however, such prejudices gradually disappeared, the prohibition against prosecuting the study and teaching of chemistry was withdrawn, and the faculty undertook its defence with zeal, neglecting no opportunity calculated to extend a knowledge of its principles and of its applications. It is strange that even at this period, the most violent opponents of chemistry, should have enumerated among their partisans, men of learning and talent, such as GUERCETAN, ANGELUS, SALA DELANNAY, and P PAULMIER. Such were the men the faculty thought it necessary to combat, being, as they were, more capable of producing an impression on the public mind, and of giving an unfavourable opinion of chemistry. The opposition of the faculty had not been directed to chemistry, and particularly to medical chemistry, but to the fatal application that was made of it during the whole of the sixteenth century, and a considerable portion of the seventeenth, by the alchemists, who imagining that every thing took place in the human body, exactly as they found them to occur in their crucibles, experimented accordingly, very much to the detriment of their patients. The medical faculty of Montpellier, situated as it was nearer than that of Paris to the Arabs of Spain, applied itself early to the study of medical chemistry, and contributed greatly to the diffusion, all over the kingdom, of a knowledge in this science. In that city there arose several chemists of great distinction, of whom we shall only mention VENEL and the two DES MALTES, because in their laboratories was trained LEMERY, who had before commenced the study of chemistry under GLAZER, at the garden of plants of Paris, and who having subsequently returned thither, taught that science with such success, that forty Scotchmen are said to have come all the way from their country to attend his lectures. Lémery published a work on antimony and an elementary treatise on chemistry, a universal pharmacopœia, and a dictionary of simple drugs, from which it will be

easy to form an idea of the extent to which he contributed in clearing chemistry of the obscurity in which it had heretofore remained enveloped. LOUIS LEMERY, the son of the preceding, studied chemistry under his father, became a member of the faculty, and was regarded at one time as one of the greatest chemists of the age. Towards the middle of the seventeenth century, chemistry began to form a part of the course of instruction afforded in the amphitheatre of the garden of plants by professors designated for that purpose by the faculty, and appointed by the king. In the performance of this honourable duty, ST. YON, GEOFFROY, LEMERY, BOURDELIN, and MACQUER succeeded to each other. These names indicate in a convincing manner the progress which chemistry had made in Paris. About the same time the faculty recommended strongly the study of this science and established annual courses of pharmacy, which were continued for a long time, and were numerous attended.* We need not continue this historical sketch of the progress of chemistry at Paris down to the period of the revolution, as the names and labours of LAVOISIER, GUYTON MORVEAU, BERTHOLLET, FOURCROY, CHAPTAL, &c. are sufficiently known and appreciated.

From the preceding account of the old medical school of Paris and the brief recapitulation we have offered of the individuals among its professors or alumni, who rendered themselves conspicuous in the various departments of the medical science, we are led to the conclusion, that the present school of that city need not be ashamed of its parent. Perhaps, indeed if we take into consideration the state of science, and compare the men who flourished at both periods, we might be tempted to think that the old school would, if it came once more upon the stage of the world, entertain a very different feeling towards her offspring, such at least as it was but a short time ago. But we must not anticipate here what we have to say on the subject of the present school. In the next number we shall complete our historical notice of this establishment, and offer a brief sketch of the plan of instruction adopted in it at the present time.

* See Hazon, Notice des hommes les plus célèbres de la faculté de médecine de Paris, p. 92, &c.



La Roche (R)

MEDICAL EDUCATION AND INSTITUTIONS.

No. II.

*An Account of the Origin, Progress, and Present State of the
Medical School of Paris.*

[Extracted from the American Journal of the Medical Sciences, for August, 1831.]

IN the last number of this Journal we presented to our readers a sketch of the rise and progress of the Medical School of Paris, and attempted to show by an enumeration of those individuals attached to that institution who had distinguished themselves as teachers and writers in the various departments of the science, that the old school of that city was in every way entitled to the high renown it had enjoyed throughout Europe to the period of the dissolution of the faculty, which took place soon after the commencement of the first revolution. We announced at the same time our intention of completing in this number our notice of the history of the establishment in question, and of offering an outline of its present organization. It is with the view to redeem this pledge that we lay before our readers the following pages, which will be found by them to form, in some measure, the continuation of those that have already appeared on the subject.

In conjunction with the medical school of Montpellier, that of Paris held for a long time the first rank among the medical institutions of France: for during the period that intervened between the foundation of these two schools and the end of the eighteenth century, several other faculties had been established in various parts of the kingdom. Each of these faculties constituted a branch of an university, which by virtue of powers granted to it by the kings, by parliaments, but more frequently in former days by the popes, possessed to a certain extent the right of framing its own laws and statutes. At the moment of the revolution, or before the decree which ordered the dissolution of all the schools, there existed in France eighteen of those faculties which alone had the power of conferring the honours of the medical doctorate. Of these faculties nine only were in activity or enjoyed more or less reputation. The others possessed merely the name of faculties, and were hardly ever, if at all, frequented by students. The former faculties, independently of those of Paris and Montpellier, were located at Toulouse, Besançon, Perpignan, Caën, Rheims, Strasburgh, and Nancy. The plan of in-



struction, the mode of reception, and the prerequisites for graduation, varied in these different faculties, and were fixed by their respective regulations. In all, however, the candidate was obliged to submit to examinations more or less strict, to furnish certificates of his having studied three or four years, and of having already obtained the degree of master of arts in one of the universities of the kingdom. During the period which was devoted to receptions, and which varied in the different faculties from six months to two years, the candidate was obliged to undergo four or five examinations of several hours duration each, and to present and defend several theses. The expenses of the examinations and theses varied from four to five hundred francs in the provinces, and amounted to more than six thousand at Paris. Besides these sums which were incurred at the period of the license, the pupils paid annual inscriptions during the time of their studies; the price of these varied in the different schools, but did not exceed one hundred to one hundred and fifty francs for the three or four years which preceded the period of examinations.

Besides these faculties, there were several colleges and communities of surgeons, and fifteen colleges of medicine situated at Amiens, Angers, Bordeaux, Chalons, Clérmont, Dijon, Lille, Lyons, Moulins, Orleans, Rennes, La Rochelle, Tours, and Troyes. The former were destined to furnish licenses to surgeons, while the latter were merely incorporate bodies, possessing neither the right to teach medicine nor to confer degrees, but in which physicians, after graduating in one of the nine faculties we have named, were obliged to enter before obtaining a license to practice in the cities in which these colleges were situated, or in the provinces of which those cities were the capitals.

M. BEULLAC, from whose "Code des Médecins" we have borrowed much of the information contained in the preceding pages respecting the old faculties of France, presents a sad picture of the irregularities and abuses which, in the progress of time, had crept into the mode of graduation. He remarks that every intelligent individual had pointed them out to the public, during more than thirty years. Among these irregularities he cites in a particular manner the two kinds of receptions of doctors *intra-muros*, *extra-muros*, and of *ibiquists*; the denominations of bachelors, licentiates, *aggrégés*, regent, and non-regent doctors, as well as the various prerogatives attached to these different degrees or varieties of grades.

"The internal regime of the medical faculties, which formerly were linked to the clerical order, was not free, in 1790 and 1792, of the character of monachism which had so long distinguished them. Under the pretext of enforce-

ing corporate discipline, (*discipline de corps*,) the members were called to account and even persecuted for their medical opinions, as well as for their private conduct. From this regime there resulted no doubt some advantages, but it often happened that passions and jealousies concealed themselves under the mask of the order and dignity of the medical profession, with a view to torment those who distinguished themselves above their colleagues by originality of views and brilliant success. Every one recollects the disputes occasioned by antimony and inoculation, by the fact of academies of medicine separating themselves from the faculties, by the physicians of the court, and by surgeons practising medicine. A magistral pedantry, was often united with brilliant talents, and infused into them a degree of ridicule which tended to retard the progress of the art. Besides, if the two faculties of Paris and Montpellier had preserved some severity and dignity in the examinations as well as in the mode of reception, the majority of the others had become so lenient towards candidates, that the title of doctor was sometimes conferred on absentees, and diplomas were occasionally forwarded by mail."

Nor were these abuses and irregularities to be met with only in the medical faculties of the kingdom: they had crept into the various colleges of surgeons, the mode of reception of which presented even greater abuses, and was more arbitrary and less strict than that of the former. The only exception to this was to be found at Paris and in two or three large cities, where examinations were conducted with due attention, and whence issued young surgeons of great merit, and well-informed in the various branches of their profession. A different result could hardly be expected in the provincial surgical schools, considering the number of *communities* that had been formed, and the privilege they had all obtained of conferring licenses. From this there naturally arose a rivalry between them—a desire on the part of the professors to obtain auditors and to see their names attached to diplomas, which occasioned them to be lenient towards the candidate, and to teach at lower prices than was done in the other colleges, with a view to induce young men to give them the preference.

These circumstances could not help throwing discredit at some period or other on these schools, and promoting a gradual extension of the irregularities we have noticed. It is a great error to suppose that cheap schools are beneficial to the progress of medical education, or that by selling instruction cheaper than its neighbour, a college gains, or preserves if it has ever gained, any reputation. Sooner or later other schools, in order to maintain their ground, think themselves compelled to reduce their prices; gradually, with a view to allure students, either to swell the class, and thus obtain pecuniary profit, or to diffuse their renown, examinations become less strict, and degrees are conferred on undeserving candidates;—to say nothing of the fact, that cheapness

attracts to a school many persons, who, from their rank in society, should never be allowed to study, and still less to practise, a profession so honourable as that of medicine. Is it to be supposed that all this can occur without attracting the notice of the intelligent members of the community and even of the pupils themselves, and that the degree obtained in such schools will be as highly valued as those conferred in other schools, where abuses of the kind are not met with? Many facts might here be cited to show that such is seldom the case, and that the more expensive schools are generally the best and are held in the greatest esteem. The very circumstance, that notwithstanding the high price of medical and surgical instruction at Paris and Montpellier, where examinations were conducted with severity and dignity, the schools of these cities retained always a pre-eminence over the cheaper ones of the provinces, is a sufficient proof of the correctness of the views we have here thrown out on this subject.

A few years after the commencement of the revolution, on the 18th of August, 1792, a decree was published and immediately enforced, by which all the universities, faculties, and scientific bodies of the country were suppressed. The ostensible reason of this extraordinary act was, that the system of instruction hitherto in operation was no longer in harmony with the new order of things. From this period, and for some time after, there was no regular reception of either physicians or surgeons, and the most complete anarchy in all branches of the profession, succeeded to the organization heretofore existing. Patents were required, but they were obtained with equal facility by the ignorant as by those who were qualified. In this confusion, the former were as successful as, sometimes even more successful than, the latter, in obtaining practice, and the regular educated physician who had obtained his degree by dint of hard study in the old faculties was placed on exactly the same footing with the empiric and vile pretender who had not studied at all. It is a fortunate thing for humanity, as well as for the progress of medical science and the dignity of the profession, that the necessity of procuring well-informed medical officers for the army to supply the place of a number who had died while on service, was felt by the National Convention. In consequence of this it was determined to establish schools for the instruction of these medical officers, and the celebrated FOURCROY was directed to present a report on the most appropriate plan to be adopted in the establishment of these schools.

Already a decree had been issued, directing the formation of three orders of schools, and thus supplying in some measure the deficiency

in establishments for public education, which was sensibly felt throughout the country. These schools were denominated primary, central, and special. In the latter of these medicine was to be taught together with many other branches, as astronomy, geometry and mathematics, natural history, the veterinary art, economy, antiquities, political science, painting, sculpture, architecture and music. This plan does not appear to have been tried a long time, if it was at all carried into execution.*

After hearing the report of Fourcroy, the convention decreed the law of the 14th Frimaire, an. III. (4th December, 1794,) by which the formation of three schools was ordered at Paris, Montpellier, and Strasburgh, for the reception of officers of health, intended for the service of hospitals generally, though particularly of military and naval ones. The plan of medical and surgical instruction proposed by this decree was complete. The instruction of the theoretical and practical branches was entrusted to eight professors at Montpellier, six at Strasburgh, and twelve at Paris. To each of the chairs was to be attached an adjunct in order to ensure regularity in the lectures. The professors were to be named by the committee of public instruction, on the presentation of the commission. From each district of France a citizen from seventeen to twenty-six years of age was to be selected from among those not comprised in the first requisition. Three hundred of these citizens were to be sent to the school of Paris, one hundred and fifty to that of Montpellier, and one hundred to that of Strasburgh. The committee of public instruction were to determine those of the pupils who were to be sent to one or the other of the schools, and the choice of these conscripts was left with two medical officers in each district. The travelling expenses of the pupils from their homes to the school was defrayed by government. During three years they received a fixed pay. They were divided into three classes, and received the different grades of instruction conformably to the pro-

* As regards the date of this decree, some uncertainty exists in our minds. All we know respecting it is derived from Dr. Johnston's work on Education in France, as it is not found in any of the manuals or codes in our possession. Dr. Johnston states it to have been published on the 2d of November, 1795. But this appears to be a mistake, as in December, 1794, regular medical schools were established, unless indeed the medicine to be taught in these special schools was to form only a branch of general education, as that taught now in the college of France, and was distinct from that for which the schools of 1794 had been established. As, however, Dr. J. had stated the date of the plan presented by Fourcroy to be 1796 instead of 1794, he may have made a mistake in the date of the other.

gress they had made in a knowledge of the art; and as soon as they were thought qualified to practice, (at whatever period of the three years this might occur, and however long they might have studied,) in the hospitals or in the army, notice to this effect was given by the professors to the commission of health, and the pupils were sent to their respective destination. By the decree in question it was further directed, that such of the professors of the suppressed schools as were capable of serving would be reinstated in their chairs, while provisions were made for recompensing those who in consequence of age or infirmities could no longer continue to fulfil their functions.

This law was undoubtedly good for the time at which it was enacted, and the plan of medical instruction it established, viewing the low state in which the science had then fallen, was in many respects entitled to considerable praise. It placed all the schools of medicine under the direction of one administration, thus preventing a recurrence of the many abuses which, as we have seen, had resulted, before the revolution, from the rivalship of the different faculties, and the introduction of persons unqualified to teach. Yet it was far from meeting all the exigencies of the case; and was even on many points exceedingly defective. Thus, it did not specify the manner in which the professorships that would become vacant by death or otherwise, were to be supplied. It did not provide measures calculated to suppress empiricism and quackery, which, since the suppression of all the laws relative to receptions and to the practice of medicine, had increased to a prodigious extent. Neither did it provide regular medical officers for the country and for cities, nor even compel those who were destined for civil or military hospitals, to undergo an examination or be qualified by preparatory studies, or bind them to a fixed period of instruction. Hence the country continued to be infested with quacks of all sorts, while some young men, by dint of intrigue, or by deceiving the professors, gained admission into public establishments, without having had time to obtain a sufficient degree of instruction, and to digest the information they had acquired in the schools. With a view to prevent as much as possible individuals from practising without proper qualifications, several of the Prefects established in their respective departments medical juries, for the purpose of examining every person who wished to practise within their limits. But these departmental institutions, besides having the unfavourable effect of giving rise to a diversity of administrative measures, favoured the introduction of new abuses, arising from the too great facility in the admission of candidates, and sometimes from a much more impure source. So glaring indeed were these abuses, that the minister of

the interior was sometimes compelled to refuse his sanction to some of the *arrêtés* of the Prefects relative to these kinds of receptions.

The necessity for new laws calculated to remedy the defects of the existing system, and to suppress the abuses we have noticed, in the practice of medicine, was soon felt. Accordingly a project was presented to the legislative body and passed into a law on the 11th Floréal, an. x. (1st May, 1802.) By this law it was ordered, that the schools of health should receive the title of schools of medicine, and that all vacancies occurring in the professorial chairs of each of the three schools should be filled by the head of the government, who would choose from among two candidates, one of whom was to be presented by the faculty of the school in which the vacancy occurred, the other by the first class of the National Institute. This intervention of the institute had a double advantage; it tranquillized the government in respect to the intrigues of the schools, which would inevitably have resulted from this mode of presentation, and could not but prove advantageous to the schools themselves, since the first learned body of the country, which by its position was necessarily free from all jealousy and from the influence of the government, could not help selecting candidates suitable in all respects to the duties of the chair, and acceptable to the rest of the faculty.

On the 19th of Ventose of the next year, (10th of March, 1803,) a decree relative to the exercise of medicine was issued. As we shall perhaps have occasion to allude to this decree in some future communication, when speaking of the practice of the medical profession in France, we must content ourselves with stating in this place, that it established two classes of physicians, doctors in medicine and surgery, and officers of health, (*officiers de santé*;) prohibited the practice of medicine to all but them, and compelled the former to submit, before obtaining a degree and a license to practice, to regular examinations at the schools, after a fixed number of years of study; and the latter to similar examinations before juries appointed for the purpose in various parts of France.

On the 10th of May, 1806, the imperial government issued a decree, by which the establishment of an university embracing all the branches of public instruction, was ordered. This decree was put in force by another, dated the 17th of March, 1808. In virtue of this law, the schools of medicine assumed the name of *faculties*, and retained the organization they had received by the decree of the 10th of March, 1803. Public instruction was confided exclusively to the university, in which were established five orders of faculties, 1, of theology; 2, of law; 3, of medicine; 4, of mathematical sciences,

5, of letters. No school or establishment of any kind for education was allowed to be formed unless connected with the university, and with the authorization of the chief of this institution. This chief was then denominated grand master. Besides him there was a council, a chancellor, and a treasurer. The imperial university was divided into as many academies as there were courts of appeal, at present denominated royal courts, and the faculties of medicine, (at that time five in number, for in 1803 the law of the year preceding authorizing the establishment of additional schools had been in part put in force, and a school at Turin and another at Mayence had been formed,) were constituted as branches of the academies existing in the cities in which these faculties were located. This decree specified the manner in which professors should be named, the prerequisites necessary in order to become a candidate for the degree of doctor of medicine, and many other points we shall have occasion to mention in detail, when treating of them in future communications.

The royal government which succeeded to the imperial, made but trifling alterations in the organization of the university or of the faculties of medicine, excepting, however, in the mode of supplying vacancies that occurred in the latter, and in the government of the institution itself.

It is not our intention to enter here with any degree of minuteness on the organization of the university, as this would lead into details quite incompatible with the precise object of this communication. We cannot omit remarking, however, that the University of France is admitted by almost every individual conversant with its organization, to present a system of instruction very complete in all its parts. Even the English, who, as we all know, are not always ready in doing justice to the French or any other foreign nation, have been forced to admit the correctness of this opinion, and to confess that "the progression followed in the distribution of the various branches of literature; the excellent arrangement of the inferior schools, which leaves little to desire on the head of elementary education; and the absolute necessity of completing a thorough course of philosophical and general study before entering the faculties, merit great and deserved admiration."^{*}

A word on the present government of this institution. The situation of the chief or head of the university, who, as we have seen, was at first denominated *grand master*, was abolished by the king soon after what has been called the second restoration, (15th of August, 1815,)

* Johnston on Education in France, p. 4.

and his duty, as well as that of the council, chancellor and treasurer, were entrusted to a commission of five members, which received the title of royal council of public instruction, and was placed under the authority of the ministry of the interior. By a subsequent ordonnance, all the suppressed offices were reëstablished, and shortly after the powers of the grand master were greatly extended, and the latter was promoted to the dignity of minister secretary of state for the department of public instruction. So much for the executive of the university. As regards the legislative part, or the council, it differs greatly now from what it was originally. Agreeably to the imperial decree by which it was created, the commission consisted of titular members who retained their situation for life, and ordinary councillors, who were occasionally changed. At first the members of this council were nominated by the emperor, afterwards the vacancies among the titular members were filled from among the rectors and inspectors—the members being obliged to have been attached to the university during ten years, and to have acted five years as rector or inspector. The ordinary councillors were likewise selected at the first formation of the university, and afterwards chosen by the Emperor from among the inspectors, and also from among the deans and professors of the faculties and the provisors of the lyceums. By another article of this decree it was said, “After the first formation of the Imperial University, the order of ranks will be observed in the nomination of the functionaries, and no one can be called upon to fill a situation, who has not filled the inferior ones.” By these regulations none but men well acquainted with the interests and wants of the university could be chosen a member of the council or of the executive, and a professor or other functionary could look with some certainty to a recompense for his zeal and distinguished services, when in the progress of time he would feel desirous of retiring from the fatigues incident to the duties of his office.

The royal government followed, however, a different course. The council was composed of only nine members comprising the director of public instruction and the secretary; and these, as well as the remainder, were nominated directly by the government, and often selected from among individuals, who, from the want of talents and former services to the university, had no claims to such preferences. Some of them, indeed, were only distinguished by their being passive and obedient tools in the hands of the ministry. Were we to present here a portrait of the character and standing of the members of this council, such as it existed in 1828, our readers would be astonished that such men could ever have been raised to responsible and ho-

nourable situations, did they not recollect at the same time that during the administration of M. De Villele, M. Freycinous, and M. Corbiere, talents were not so strong recommendations in the eyes of these ministers as perfect submission to their views. It is true that the ordonnance of the 27th of February, 1821, stated that the members of the council would be selected by the king from among candidates presented to him by the grand master with the advice of the council, and chosen by the latter from among persons most *recommendable* for their services in public instruction. But every one knew what meaning was attached to the word *recommendable*, by the ministry in question. With the exception of M. CUVIER and another gentleman, no member of the council was distinguished by his talents, and even those are not much deserving of praise for the independence of their political character, having both shown themselves ready to bow submissively to the will of the master, and lent their aid to the execution of certain acts which have met with almost universal reprobation, and to the promulgation of principles to which the French nation have lately shown a decided opposition.

The faculty of medicine of Paris forming, as we have seen, a part of the academy of that city, and as such being under the immediate direction of the council and of the minister of public instruction, could not but experience the baneful effects necessarily resulting from a chief such as M. FREYCINOUS; and from a council composed of submissive tools. Without mentioning several more trifling examples, of vexation which the school had to suffer on the part of the government, we will merely cite one act, which will serve admirably to show the spirit by which the latter was at the time influenced, and the extent to which it could carry arbitrary measures in order to attain its object. But our readers must first know, that at the period of the restoration, the professors had all been retained. They were, for the most part, men of first rate abilities, and had obtained their chairs after a public *concours*, or had been chosen at the organization of the schools, in consequence of their talents and wide-extended reputation. The government was well aware that bred up during the revolution, these professors were rather opposed to them in their political sentiments, and that many of them were distinguished for independence of character, as well as for undeviating moral integrity; yet they had not given open cause of offence, and without some reasonable excuse, the government felt ashamed to decide on their expulsion. An opportunity, however, presented itself, in the year 1822, for the execution of this long-contemplated project, and, as might have been anticipated, the government did not allow it to escape.

Seizing as a pretext, a disturbance which took place at the opening of the School of Medicine, in the autumn of that year, in consequence of sentiments expressed by Professor DESGENETTES, in an eulogium of the celebrated HALLE, who had died during the recess—a subject he had selected for the theme of the introductory lecture to the course—the government, notwithstanding the opposition it experienced on the part of one or two members of the council, (for the latter was not quite so corrupt at that period as it became subsequently, and enumerated among its members a man of rare talents and elevation of character, M. SILVESTRE DE SACY, who, on this occasion tendered his resignation,) suppressed altogether the faculty of medicine. The royal ordonnance, which announced this unexpected and extraordinary decision, bears the date of 21st of November, 1822, and commenced in these words, “considering that *scandalous* disorders have occurred at the public meeting, (*séance solennelle*,) of the medical faculty of Paris, on the 18th of November, 1822, and that it is not the first time the pupils of that school have been excited to disturbances that may prove dangerous to public order,” “we have ordered, &c.”

Here, as it will be perceived, the ostensible cause mentioned is disturbance among the pupils, unless by the word excited, (*entraîné*,) it was insinuated against we believe the true sense of the phrase, that the professors had instigated them to it, and for this offence committed by the pupils, the professors were unceremoniously expelled from the school. What this disturbance among the pupils had to do with the professors—how it could justify this rash and harsh measure on the part of the administration, no one could guess, and the latter did not volunteer to explain. Since that period, several disturbances have taken place among the pupils, one in particular among those of the College Royal, and yet the professors were not turned out, a circumstance which, taken in conjunction with several subsequent arbitrary acts on the part of the ministry, as for example, the suppression, without sufficient provocation, of Messrs. COUSIN and VILLEMMAIN’S lectures at the faculty of sciences, plainly indicate in our minds, that the disturbance in question served only as a pretext for turning out of office men who were obnoxious, and for filling the vacancies thus occasioned, by others whose political views, religious sentiments and flexibility of character were more agreeable to the ministry.

It was reported at the time, that the intention of the government was to establish the school—a plan for the organization of which the minister of the interior was, by the same ordonnance, directed to present, at St. Germain, or some other place, situated at a distance

from Paris. The cause assigned for this was, that the ministry feared the effects of a general insurrection among a class of individuals so numerous as that of the pupils of the faculty of medicine, who if united to those of the faculties of law, science, and letters, might become truly formidable. Be this as it may, the students no longer finding any opportunities of acquiring instruction at Paris, and learning that the inscription fees of the first quarter were returned; moreover, being allowed by the grand master, upon showing certificates of good conduct, to resume their studies in the other schools of the kingdom, either primary or secondary, on the same footing as they would have done at Paris, they immediately left that city and repaired to Strasburgh, Montpellier, &c.

The faculty of medicine of Paris being thus suppressed, as M. BEULLAC has observed, two laws became necessary; one to supply the place of the decrees of the 14th Frimaire and 10th of May, relative to the formation of the schools; and the other to supply that of the 19th Ventose, of the year 11, concerning the exercise of medicine. But the government did not wait for the enactment of laws, and assuming a power which it did not legally possess, contented itself with meeting the first of these exigencies by means of an ordonnance under date of the 2d of February, 1823. By this ordonnance a new school was directed to be forthwith established at Paris, on a plan somewhat different from that heretofore in operation.

A commission was formed, of which MM. LAENNEC and CAYOL were active members. It was very generally believed, that these gentlemen had the greatest share in the reorganization, or, as some have not unaptly called it, *disorganization* of the medical faculty, and, if some reports are founded, that they contributed powerfully by their manœuvres in causing the suppression of the old school.

By the aforementioned ordonnance, the faculty of medicine of the academy of Paris was constituted of twenty-three professors, and of thirty-six agrégés, of which we shall speak more fully hereafter. MM. CHAUSSIER, DE JUSSIEU, DESGENETTES, DEYEUX, DUBOIS, LALLEMAND, LEROUX, (ex-dean,) MOREAU DE LA SARTHE, PELLETAN, pere, PINEL, and VAUQUELIN—all of whom were of the old faculty—were appointed honorary professors;—while the teachers who retained their chairs, or were lately appointed, were MM. ALIBERT, BECLARD, BERTIN, BOUGON, BOYER, CAYOL, CLARION, DENEUX, DESORMEAUX, DUMERIL, DUPUYTREN, FIZEAU, FOUQUIER, GUILBERT, LAENNEC, LANDRE-BEAUVAIS, (Dean,) MARJOLIN, ORFILA, PELLETAN, fils, RECAMIER, RICHERAND, ROUX, ROYER COLLARD. The chairs were directed to be sixteen in number, divided as follows:—

1. Anatomie	-	-	-	-	-	Béclard.
2. Physiologie	-	-	-	-	-	Duméril.
3. Chimie Médicale	-	-	-	-	-	Orfila.
4. Physique Médicale	-	-	-	-	-	Pelletan, fils.
5. Histoire Naturelle Médicale	-	-	-	-	-	Clarion.
6. Pharmacologie	-	-	-	-	-	Guilbert.
7. Hygiène	-	-	-	-	-	Bertin.
8. Pathologie Chirurgicale	-	-	-	-	-	{ Roux. Marjolin.
9. Pathol. Médicale	-	-	-	-	-	{ Fizeau. Fouquier.
10. Operations & Appareils	-	-	-	-	-	Richerand.
11. Therapeutique & Mat. Medica	-	-	-	-	-	Alibert.
12. Médecine Légale	-	-	-	-	-	Royer Collard.
13. Accouchemens, malad. des femmes en couche et des enfans nouveau nés.	-	-	-	-	-	Desormeaux. { Landré-Beauvais. Récamier. Laënnec. Cayol.
14. Clinique Médicale	-	-	-	-	-	{ Dupuytren. Boyer. Bougon.
15. Clinique Chirurgicale	-	-	-	-	-	Deneux.
16. Clinique des Accouchemens	-	-	-	-	-	

To the medical clinic was attached, as this shows, four professors, to the surgical clinic three professors, while that of accouchemens was entrusted to one professor only.

For several years after this period, no change of any importance was made in the school. In 1825-6 the ministry consulted the chambers relatively to the propriety of effecting a reorganization of the schools of medicine generally, and to the most appropriate plan to be adopted. A report to that effect was presented by Count Chaptal, but nothing was done. In 1828, the faculties and academies were consulted, and the physicians held a meeting, although not asked to do so, and recommendations were made—but all to no effect, for no change in the organization of the schools was effected, with the exception that M. Dubois was reinstated in his chair of surgical clinic, on the first of May, 1829. Some new appointments were made, to fill vacancies occasioned by the death or resignation of several professors; M. CRUVEILLIER was called to the chair of anatomy, in the place of Béclard; M. ADELON succeeded to Royer-

Collard in that of medical jurisprudence; M. ANDRAL to Bertin, as professor of hygiene, and M. CHOMEL supplied the vacancy occasioned in the chair of clinical medicine by the death of Laënnec.

The ministry Villele, and with it the grand master of public instruction having fallen, and the successor of the latter having shown evidence of a better spirit, no further reform, no violent measures were anticipated, though the friends of the school and of the university generally, perceived with regret that the council was still composed of nearly the same members as under M. Freycinous.

The present communication has already been extended so much beyond our original intention, that we are compelled to postpone to a future opportunity, the account we proposed to offer here of the plan of medical instruction pursued in the school of Paris, and of the mode of electing professors. We must be allowed, however, to hazard a few general remarks on the subject of the University of France, and of the re-organization of the school of medicine, of which we have spoken. The plan adopted in France of placing the whole *corps enseignant* under a single administration, is we believe entitled to much commendation, inasmuch as it affords an opportunity of putting a complete barrier to the intrusion of unqualified pretenders to the duties of teachers, and of enforcing the adoption, in each of these establishments, of a plan of instruction, found by men capable of deciding on matters of the kind, and who have devoted their attention in a particular manner to this important subject, most appropriated to each class of society and to each profession. In no department of public instruction could such a system prove of more decided advantage than in medicine, since all the schools are thereby placed on the same footing—the plan of instruction, the qualifications for graduation, as well as all charges in them are fixed by competent judges, and cannot be deviated from in any way, except with the consent of the constituted authorities—the royal council and the minister of public instruction. By this means the public is assured, that the individuals to whom they entrust their lives, have received a proper medical education; and the schools are prevented from underselling each other, and rendering their plan of instruction less complicated, and the facility of graduation much greater, with a view to attract a large class of students. It is not to be supposed from this, however, that we approve of every law that has been enacted in France—of every decree or ordonnance that has been issued relatively to the organization of the schools, or the practice of medicine in that country. So far from this, we hold that the admission by law of two orders of schools—primary and secon-

dary, of two classes of physicians, doctors of medicine, and officers of health, the first of whom are thoroughly, while the other are only half educated, is open to severe censure. But even as regards these secondary schools, the plan of studies adopted in them is chalked out by the same authorities as direct that adopted in the higher schools, while the nature and extent of the professional services bestowed by the officers of health are in like manner prescribed with as much precision as the case will admit of. Nor would we wish to be considered as disposed to maintain, that this system of concentrating the power into the hands of a few individuals who themselves are placed under the immediate controul of government, is free from inconvenience or danger; for we are too well aware, that the views of a despotic government would be greatly furthered by a system of education which the latter would feel disposed to introduce into the schools of the country. Besides, the events of the last ten years, the suppression of the medical faculty of Paris, the clandestine introduction of the Jesuits into the schools, &c. might be cited as unanswerable arguments against the propriety of such a system. Nevertheless we believe that all these inconveniences do not prove that in many other respects the plan is not admirable, and not deserving of imitation in other countries, where, from the nature of the government, the inconveniences and dangers to which we have alluded could not be feared. We are disposed to think, for example, that advantages would be reaped in this country were such a plan adopted—were the direction of public education placed in proper hands. Is it unreasonable to suppose, that if each state appointed a commission whose duties would be similar, or nearly so, to those with which the minister and royal council of public instruction are entrusted in France, greater benefit would result to the cause of education in this country, than can be derived from the plan at present in operation. Were such a plan, which we believe could not interfere with a suitable degree of liberty, to be adopted, we would see all the charlatan teachers with which our country is fairly deluged—all those cheap schools which have nothing to recommend them, but the low price at which they sell their scanty instruction, and we must be allowed to say, all those petty medical schools where only a limited degree of professional knowledge can be obtained—we would see all these vanish and give way to schools established on a more extensive, rational, and useful plan. While entertaining these views on the subject, however, we are free to confess, that we would be sorry to see, in our own country, so complete a sway exercised by a coun-

cil, commission, &c. over medical institutions, as would lead to the exclusion of fair competition, and to the establishment of monopoly. Let there be perfect liberty in all individuals to establish schools, but while you allow this, let there be competent authorities to decide on the qualifications of those who undertake to teach, and on the plan of studies that must be adopted in the institutions they propose to establish. But we must return from this digression to the main subject of this article—the medical school of Paris.

It was often asked whether there was any necessity for a total re-organization of the faculty. Some having regard only to the state of the school answered in the affirmative; but by far the greater number in the negative. For our parts, judging from all we have been able to hear on the subject of the old, and all we have seen of the new faculty, we are induced to join in sentiments with the latter. The establishment of some additional chairs was doubtless required; but this could have been effected without unjustly turning out the eleven most distinguished professors of the faculty. Perhaps this unprecedented measure would have been excusable, had the choice of the successors of these celebrated men been a happy one, and had some very useful professorships been established. But so far from this being the case, no chair of pathological anatomy was created, although every sound-minded physician concurred in pointing out its utility. Men of eminence like Broussais and Majendie were kept away, while other individuals of the slenderest talents, and heretofore unheard of beyond the limits of a narrow circle, were honoured with a professorial cap and robe, and were thereby allowed to pester such students who had the courage to listen to their soporific nonsense.

But were the selection of new professors good or bad—the necessity of a change indubitable or not, the hour of retribution was destined to arrive. No sooner had the revolution of July, 1830, broken the fetters of despotism in which France had been bound, or at least with which she was threatened—no sooner were the political institutions of the country founded on liberal principles, and placed beyond the arbitrary controul of the king and his ministry, than the voice of the profession resounded from one extremity of the kingdom to the other, demanding justice in the case of the faculty, and insisting on a reform in the school of medicine, and particularly a repeal of the ordonnances of 1822 and 1823, which, it was satisfactorily shown, were the result of an assumption of a power on the part of the executive that had not been allowed to it by the charter—that of suppressing, by means of a simple ordonnance, a law of the state;

for the imperial decree ordering the establishment of the university generally, and of the medical schools in particular, should indubitably be held in that light.

The Duke of Broglie, who at that time acted as minister of public instruction, viewing the great number of petitions that were handed to him on the subject, and influenced no doubt by a sense of justice, appointed, on the 23d of August, 1830, a commission for the purpose of taking the matter into consideration. He charged this commission with making a preparatory investigation of all the questions relating to the organization of the faculty of medicine of Paris, and ordered it to report on or before the 15th of September of the same year. This commission consisted of the following gentlemen:—

Baron Cuvier, member of the Royal Council of Public Instruction, President.

Baron Dubois, Dean of the Medical Faculty.

MM. Dumeril, professor in the same school.

Landré-Beauvais, do. do.

Andral, do. do.

Jules Clocquet, Aggrégé to the Faculty.

Husson, Physician to the Hôtel Dieu, and

Guérin, M. D.

Within the appointed time a report, drawn up it is said by M Guérin, was handed in to the minister, and in conformity with the advice therein contained, the obnoxious ordonnances of the years 1822 and 1823 were, by an ordonnance of Louis Philip, dated the 5th of October, revoked; the school was placed on the same footing as it was prior to its reorganization; the professors who had been illegally expelled were reinstated; the vacancies occasioned by the death of some among them were ordered to be filled, as formerly, by a public *concours*; the professors who had been appointed at the reorganization of the school in 1823, were, of course, in their turn expelled, but those who belonged to the old faculty, and had been retained at the period in question, together with those who had come in since, and had fulfilled the formalities required for admission by the act of organization of the school, retained their respective chairs; the whole establishment of *aggrégés* was necessarily suppressed, and finally a new, legal, and complete reorganization of the school was promised.

By this arrangement, MM. Cayol, Landré-Beauvais, Pelletan, Fizeau, Guilbert, Bougon, Deneu, and Clarion have ceased to hold chairs in the faculty, while five of the old professors who were ex-

pelled in the year 1822, MM. De Jussieu, Desgenettes, Deyeux, Lallemand, and Leroux have been reinstated. Since that event, M. Récamier has resigned his professorship of clinical medicine. The vacancies to be filled, subtracting the number of professors who reëntered the school, from that of the individuals who retired, including M. Récamier, amounted to four. In consequence, four chairs were declared vacant; those of surgical pathology, (pathology externe;) 2, medical physics; 3, medical natural history; 4, physiology. These chairs have been successively filled, the first by M. Jules Cloquet, the second by M. Pelletan, the third by M. Richard, and the fourth by M.* Each of these gentlemen are distinguished in their respective branches, and their success in the several trials of the public *concours* has given general satisfaction. M. Pelletan, in particular is entitled to great credit; for alone of all the professors who lost their chairs in consequence of the repeal of the ordonnances of 1822 and 1823, he presented himself to the *concours* as a candidate for the chair of which he had been deprived, and proved by his success, that though he was indebted for his former elevation to an illegal and arbitrary nomination, he was fully entitled to it by his talents and learning.

* We believe the chair of physiology is now filled by M. Bérard, a distinguished physician and writer of Paris. But as we have not seen an official announcement of his success in the medical journals of that city, we have not thought it right to insert his name in the text.



La Roche (R) (Box 241)

MEDICAL EDUCATION AND INSTITUTIONS.

No. III.

*An Account of the Origin, Progress, and Present State of the
Medical School of Paris.*

[Extracted from the American Journal of the Medical Sciences, for February, 1832.]

IN our preceding communications we presented to the readers of this Journal an historical account of the medical school of Paris, as well as an outline of its present organization, and promised to offer in subsequent essays a sketch of the plan of instruction adopted there, and the mode of electing professors. It is with the view of redeeming this pledge that we have undertaken the present essay. But before entering on the subject more particularly before us, we must be allowed to say a few words on the building in which the lectures of the School of Medicine of that city are delivered.

This pile was originally built for and occupied by the school of surgery. It was commenced in the year 1769, on the designs of the architect Gondouin, and completed seventeen years after. The school of surgery having, in consequence of the law of the 18th of August, 1792, been abolished, the building was left unoccupied until 1794, when it was transferred to the school of health, or medicine, which, as we have seen, was reorganized on the 14th Frimaire of that year. It is a noble edifice of stone, built in a quadrangular form and inclosing a large court of about sixty feet in depth and one hundred in breadth. The front of the entire building, on the street, is nearly two hundred feet in extent. The wings or sides of the quadrangle are united to each other in front by means of a peristyle consisting of four rows of Ionic columns, supporting a long covered gallery, in which is located a part of the anatomical museum of the faculty. The front of the transverse building at the bottom of the court, access to which is obtained by means of a passage situated in the centre of the colonnade and closed by an iron-grated door, is handsomely ornamented with six fine Corinthian pillars, of rather large dimensions, and supporting a triangular pediment, on which Berruer has sculptured the allegory of the union of theoretical and practical surgery. In this transverse building, which constitutes the main portion of the edifice, is situated the large anatomical lecture room, or amphitheatre. On the walls of this room, which forms the segment of a

circle, and is disposed in a convenient manner, are found four medallions, containing portraits of J. PITARD, A. PARE, G. MARESCHAL, and J. DE LA PEYRONIE, all of whom, as is probably known to our readers, were surgeons of great celebrity. The room is moreover ornamented with fresco paintings by Gibelin, and with busts of LA-MARTINIÈRE and of LA PEYRONIE, by Lemoine. Upon the wall opposite the president's or professor's chair, is the following inscription:

“Ad cædes hominum prisca amphitheatra patebant;
Ut longum discant vivere, nostra patent.”

The room is sufficiently spacious to accommodate twelve hundred students. Extensive as this may appear to those unacquainted with the medical school of Paris, it will doubtless cease to be regarded so, when it is stated that the students in that city far exceed that number. Indeed, viewing the unprecedented size of the class, it may be affirmed with propriety that the room in question is too small; for though the students do not all attend the different lectures at the same time—though few of the lecturers generally attract a large audience, and though, in consequence, the benches are far from being always well filled, yet on some occasions the room is not only crowded to excess, but even a number of students are unable to gain admittance. In the council room, in which the faculty holds its meetings, and which is situated at the angle formed by the junction of the central building with one of the wings, there are many busts of the most celebrated French anatomists and surgeons. But the chief ornament of this room consists of the famous painting of Girodet, representing HIPPOCRATES in the act of rejecting the presents of the king of Persia. The rest of the lower floor is laid out in offices and lecture rooms.

On the upper floor of the left wing, as you enter, is placed the library of the faculty; while on the corresponding floor of the right wing, and in the covered gallery connecting the two side buildings, is located the museum. The former is composed of the books of the old faculty, of the Royal Society of Medicine, of the Royal Academy of Surgery, and of the old school of surgery. The collection thus formed was enlarged by purchases made by the faculty, from its restoration in 1794 to the moment of its suppression in 1823; and since that period by means of funds appropriated for that purpose by the university. The number of volumes at present amounts to about thirty thousand. The collection consists of works in the Greek, Latin, Arabic, French, German, English, Italian, Spanish, and Russian languages, principally on medicine and its accessory branches. They

are well arranged and classed in the following order: 1st. Medicine properly so called. 2d. Surgery. 3d. Obstetrics. 4th. Natural Philosophy. 5th. Chemistry. 6th. The different branches of natural history. Besides those on the preceding subjects, there are some works in the various departments of Greek, Latin, and French literature, books of travels and many other subjects having but an indirect relation with the science of medicine. The library likewise contains numerous manuscripts of ancient physicians of celebrity, commentaries in the hand writing of the Deans of the old faculty of medicine, from 1324 to 1786, the archives of the Royal Society of Medicine, of the Royal Academy, and of the old school of Surgery.

The library is opened three times a week during the hours of lectures—from 10 to 2. On these occasions, every one who wishes to read or consult any of the works contained there, is at liberty to apply; but the books must be returned as soon as no longer wanted, and are never allowed to be taken out without special leave from the librarian. On the other days of the week, Sundays excepted, those only who have obtained a ticket from the librarian, are allowed to enter and make use of the books only from 11 to 1 o'clock. They consist of the pupils of the Ecole Pratique and of candidates who have passed the fourth examination. On these days the library is thinly occupied, but on the public days the principal hall is usually filled with students and others. They observe the strictest silence and behave with great decorum. It is admitted that the hall in which the library is principally situated, though joined to several smaller rooms, one of which is made use of as the office of the chief librarian, is too small to accommodate the number of volumes already collected, together with those left to the establishment by M. BIDAULT DE VILLIERS, as well as the crowd of students who assemble there to make their respective researches. Hence it has been decided, within a few years, to appropriate for the use of the library, independently of the rooms it now occupies, those in which the museum is placed, as soon as the latter is translated into the apartments which are being prepared for it in the adjoining building. When this arrangement is effectuated, there will be sufficient space for displaying and classing in a desirable manner all the books; and it is to be hoped that suitable funds will be appropriated by the faculty, the university, or government, for the purpose of enlarging the collection, and of enriching it by the purchase of medical works in living foreign languages—a department in which it is very deficient. It is to be hoped also, that the learned societies in France will be forced to present their publications to this useful establishment, and that the professors of the

faculty, in order to set a good example, will no longer refuse, as they have but too often done, to enlarge the collection with copies of their own works. It remains to remark, in reference to the subject before us, that this establishment is confided to the care of a chief librarian and of one or two assistants. The former, Dr. MACMAHON, is the son of an Irish gentleman, but a Frenchman by birth. He speaks the English language very fluently, and is extremely well read in medicine. But these are not his only claims to our regard, for we could with difficulty point out an individual who combines in a higher degree all the qualities of the perfect gentleman. Dr. Macmahon's principal assistant is Dr. BAYLE, the author of several works of considerable merit. He is one of the *aggrégés* of the faculty, and a member of the board of editors of the *Revue Médicale*.

As regards the museum it will not be necessary to enter into many details, inasmuch as it is not in our power to say much in its favour. It occupies five rooms, one of which, situated in the covered gallery we have already alluded to, is very large. The preparations, which consist of specimens of healthy and morbid anatomy, instruments of surgery and natural philosophy, and objects of natural history, are arranged in the following order:—

The first or large hall contains all such preparations as are necessary for illustrating the composition and structure of the human body in every possible point of view—bones of all sizes and of all ages, healthy and diseased—injections of arteries, veins, and lymphatics—preparations of myology, splanchnology, and the nervous centres and cords, in health and disease—wax models of various parts of the body in health—specimens of comparative anatomy—monstrous foetuses—mummies, &c. In the second room is found a fine collection of surgical instruments, new and old. The third room contains a tolerably full collection of wax preparations, representing various pathological changes in the tissues and organs, and a few of healthy parts. They were made by PINSON, LAUMONIER, JULES CLOQUET, and DUPONT. In the same room are also found casts of the heads of the principal criminals executed within the precincts of the royal courts of Paris and Versailles; the skulls of several of these individuals are placed in the first room.

The fourth room contains a rich collection of articles of the *materia medica*. The number of these amounts to upwards of seven hundred, and the specimens are for the most part good. The fifth room contains the collection of instruments of natural philosophy used in the demonstrations of the professor of that branch. This cabinet, to which the public is not admitted, is said to be the best in Paris. On

the whole it may be said, that the anatomical museum of the faculty, though rich in many departments, is rather deficient in preparations of morbid parts, and is not arranged and kept with that degree of neatness and cleanliness so desirable in establishments of the kind. In both these respects it is vastly inferior to the Hunterian and other museums of London. It is open for the public on Mondays, Wednesdays, and Fridays, from 10 to 2 o'clock. On Tuesdays, Thursdays, and Saturdays, the pupils of the Ecole Pratique, as well as the candidates for the first and second examinations, are alone admitted from 10 to 1 o'clock.

Of the other establishments connected with the school of medicine, we shall speak in detail in some future communication; but to what has just been said relatively to the main edifice of the school, it will be proper to add, that in a contiguous building, the librarian, the dean, &c. have apartments, furnished to them free of expense by the faculty, and in which they reside.

From this digression we turn to the main object of the present article, commencing with the course of study, which the aspirant to the doctorate must go through. It is necessary to premise, that the following remarks apply equally well to all the medical faculties of France. In order to be entitled to a diploma, the candidate must furnish certificates, proving that he has complied, prior to his commencing the study of medicine, with certain prerequisites; for example, that he has obtained the degrees of bachelor of letters and of bachelor of sciences. To receive the former, he must have been examined, and have been found competent on, the following branches:—Greek literature, Latin eloquence, Latin poetry, French eloquence, French poetry, philosophy, history of philosophy, ancient and modern history, ancient and modern geography.

To obtain the second of these degrees—that of bachelor of sciences, the candidate must have answered in a satisfactory manner on mathematics, natural philosophy, chemistry, zoology, botany, and mineralogy. After obtaining those degrees, and presenting his certificate of birth, the written authorization of his father, or if he be a minor, of his tutor or guardian, to his engaging in the pursuits of the medical profession, a certificate of correct and moral behaviour; after presenting these, and furnishing a security, if his father or guardian do not reside in the place, any individual may present himself with a view of commencing the study of medicine, and is admitted to take his first inscription. These inscriptions consist in placing one's name on a register kept for that purpose, and receiving a certificate attesting the fact. This ceremony is gone through every three months; and in

order to be entitled to present himself as a candidate for the doctorate, the student must have received sixteen inscriptions; from which it follows, that the term required by law for the prosecution of professional studies, before the degree of doctor in medicine, or doctor in surgery is conferred, is four complete years; unless, however, these studies have been prosecuted in a secondary school. In such cases, the term required is six years, and it is in the same way obligatory upon the student, previously to have obtained the degrees already noticed—of bachelor of letters, and bachelor of sciences.

Inscriptions received in one medical faculty are of equal value in all the other faculties of the kingdom, provided, however, they are accompanied with a certificate of correct behaviour, from the dean of the faculty, or from the academical council, where they have been received. The first inscription can only be taken out at the commencement of the scholastic year. The royal council authorizes it sometimes to be taken out in the quarter, commencing in January, when satisfactory reasons for not doing otherwise have been alleged by the student; but under no pretext is he allowed to commence his studies in the third quarter. The inscriptions must be taken out in regular succession; unless the reasons assigned for not doing so, are held satisfactory by the faculty. A student who takes out an inscription for one of his comrades, loses all his own. The inscriptions received as aspirant to the title of officer of health, either in a primary or secondary school, are counted for the doctorate, provided the candidate presents, before the 13th, his diplomas of bachelor of sciences and bachelor of letters. But the diploma of officer of health is not admitted as a substitute for inscriptions in a faculty, if the studies required for obtaining said diploma have not been made in a primary or secondary school. The courses of lectures given by medical societies cannot supply the place, in order to obtain inscriptions, of those given by legally established schools. Military surgeons of the second and third classes, who have been employed in the armies, can avail themselves of their services for the purpose of dispensing with the inscriptions; or if they have attended the medical lectures delivered in the military and naval hospitals of instruction, (but in no other hospital,) each of these years of study are received as equivalent for one spent in attendance on a special school. If a young man, after taking out a certain number of inscriptions in a faculty, is called upon for his services in the army, he cannot, on his return, avail himself of the inscriptions allowed him gratuitously for those services, however numerous they may be, for any other purpose than to complete those he was in need of, prior

to his departure. Students residing in cities where faculties of medicine are established, cannot avail themselves of the studies they have made in hospitals, with private teachers, or even in the school, without having taken out the inscriptions corresponding to the period of those studies, unless they can prove, by means of certificates obtained from competent authorities, that it was impossible for them to comply with that regulation. Even under these circumstances, only four inscriptions are allowed them. Nevertheless, an exception is made in favour of those pupils who, though placed in this predicament, have gained premiums in the faculties.

In our last communication we stated, that the number of branches taught in the medical faculty of Paris amounted to sixteen. Unlike what occurs in the medical schools on this side of the Atlantic, and, we believe, in the English and Scotch Universities; but in conformity with the plan pursued in Italy and Germany, the student is not at liberty, in France, to choose himself, the lectures he is to attend in each year. A regular distribution of the courses, the number of these necessary for each student to attend, and the order in which they are to be attended during each session, is fixed by the faculty, and publicly announced at the commencement of the scholastic year. To ensure the observance of this arrangement, each pupil receives a card, by which he is enabled to gain admittance to the lectures he is required to attend. Yet, though this be the case, no student is actually forced to attend the lectures, and all that he is really required to do, is to take out his inscriptions at the regular periods, and to go through the examinations in a creditable manner. If he does that, he may abstain altogether from the lecture room, and seek his knowledge where he deems best. Some years ago an attempt was made to compel the class of each professor to attend him punctually, by calling over the roll not less than twice a month. But this plan was soon abandoned; for the students, unwilling to submit to it, and determined to prevent its being put into operation, answered in full chorus to each name that was called, coughed, sneezed, and scraped their feet, so as to cover the voice of the professor.

The duration of the scholastic year is fixed at a meeting of the faculty, held prior to the opening of the course. The faculty decides on the same occasion, on the days and hours at which the different professors will deliver their lectures. But whatever be the duration of the full session, the courses are divided into two sets—the winter and summer courses. The former commences usually in the early part of November; the latter in the beginning of April, and continues until the end of August. The following will afford an idea of the

distribution of the courses during the winter and summer sessions of the four years of the studies, drawn up by an arrêt  of the royal council, in 1820.

FIRST YEAR.—*Winter*.—Anatomy, Physiology, Chemistry.—*Summer*.—Medical Natural Philosophy, or Hygiene, Surgical Pathology, Botany.

SECOND YEAR.—*Winter*.—Anatomy, Physiology, Operative Surgery.—*Summer*.—Medical Natural Philosophy, or Hygiene, Pharmacy, Surgical Pathology, Surgical Clinic.

THIRD YEAR.—*Winter*.—Materia Medica, Medical Clinic.—*Summer*.—Operative Surgery, Surgical Clinic, Medical Pathology.

FOURTH YEAR.—*Winter*.—Medical Clinic, History of Medicine.—*Summer*.—Surgical Pathology, Legal Medicine, Clinic at the Hospice de Perfectionnement, Midwifery.

Since the period at which this arrangement was made, some changes, occasioned by the organization of the school, have been effected in the distribution of the courses. The following list, showing the courses delivered in the winter and in the summer sessions, though not quite satisfactory, since it does not indicate the lectures that must be attended in each year by the student, is copied from the Almanach G n ral de M decine, for 1830.

Winter Lectures.—1st, Anatomy; 2d, Physiology; 3d, Medical Chemistry; 4th, Surgical Pathology; 5th, Medical Pathology; 6th, Operative Surgery and Dressings; 7th, Surgical Clinic; 8th, Medical Clinic; 9th, Obstetric Clinic.

Summer Lectures.—1st, Medical Natural Philosophy; 2d, Hygiene; 3d, Medical Natural History; 4th, Midwifery; 5th, Surgical Pathology; 6th, Medical Pathology; 7th, Pharmacologia; 8th, Therapeutics; 9th, Medical Jurisprudence; 10th, Surgical Clinic; 11th, Medical Clinic; 12th, Obstetric Clinic.

From this it will be perceived that all the clinics, as well as medical and surgical pathology, are taught both in winter and summer. These double courses are not, however, obligatory in both seasons, but have been arranged in that way with a view to accommodate those students who feel disposed to attend them during summer instead of winter, and who have thereby more time to devote to anatomy and the other branches.

In old times three grades or titles were successively conferred on the candidate for the high honours of the profession; these grades were the baccalaureate, the license, and the doctorate. Each of them was conferred after a fixed period of studies, and after particular examinations and ceremonies; and before being raised to the doc-

torate, it was of indispensable necessity for every individual to have passed through the two first. These grades were not conferred by the same authorities; those of bachelor and licentiate in medicine being obtained from the chancellor of the university, and that of doctor from the faculty of the school where the individual had prosecuted his studies. In the progress of time, however, this arrangement was modified, and the faculties assumed the right of conferring all their honours; or more properly speaking, of recommending those candidates they thought entitled to either of the grades we have mentioned to the chancellor; for to him devolved the exclusive privilege, in all cases, of conferring degrees. When the downfall of all the establishments of public instruction was effected by the early revolutionary governments, the plan of which we have just spoken, was necessarily abandoned; for, as we shall have occasion to show in a more particular manner at some future period, all practitioners of medicine being placed on the same level, and neither knowledge nor graduation being any longer obligatory, the different grades in the profession became useless, and were of course no longer sought after. So soon, however, as some order had been reëstablished in the practice of medicine by the decrees of the convention, and the school had been reorganized, one grade, that of officer of health, was instituted, and it was only under the consular government of Napoleon, by the law of 10th March, 1803, that the doctorate, but the doctorate alone, was again conferred—the officers of health, created by the same law, being a different order of physicians. By the decree of 1808 relative to the formation of the University, the old plan of the three grades was revived in the five faculties of which that establishment was composed. These grades, or titles, were conferred exclusively by those faculties after public examinations and public acts. They did not confer the rank or title of member of the university, but were requisite before an individual could be entitled to that honour. Whether the plan was ever fairly put into execution or not, we have not the means of ascertaining; but we believe it may be confidently affirmed, that for many years past, perhaps ever since the restoration, only one grade, the doctorate, has been conferred. Such is the plan now pursued, though, as we shall see presently, this grade is obtained after several examinations, undergone at different, but fixed periods, in the course of the studies.

While on this subject we may be allowed to express the opinion, that the plan of conferring several degrees, at various periods of the studies, on those who aim at the high honours of the profession, was always found to be productive of the most advantageous conse-

quences; and it is impossible not to regret that it has been abandoned in France. By means of it the young man is brought frequently before the professors who are the most proper—the only judges of his capacity and acquirements. He is stimulated to study by the desire, not only of acquitting himself in a creditable manner in presence of his teachers, of the exercises required of him before he can obtain the desired degree, but also of possessing a diploma, and of being held in esteem by the mass of his fellow students. Had the plan been persevered in in France, these advantages could have been obtained without detriment to the profession, or to the sick in general; for the baccalaureate and license need not, under any circumstances, confer the privileges appertaining to the doctorate—that of practicing; and the student would have attached as much importance to the title—would have sought after it with as much ardour—would have felt as much mortified had he failed in obtaining it, as if it really conferred those privileges, particularly as he would have known that the honour to which, by obtaining it, he had been thus raised, was a stepping-stone to the highest in the profession. The inconveniences resulting from the abandonment of the plan in question, are, it is true, somewhat obviated by the multiplicity of examinations, and the period at which these are held. But a title and diploma go a great way with a young man, particularly in France, and the circumstance of passing through an examination will never excite much emulation unless success in that examination is to lead to some distinction.

Unlike what took place before the revolution, medical and surgical instruction is now obtained in the same school. There are two sets of doctors—those in medicine, and those in surgery. The studies required for these two varieties of the same grade are precisely the same, and the only difference in the mode of reception consists in some modifications in one or two of the examinations—the examiners being apprized, in due time, of the intention of the candidate to obtain the one or other of those degrees. But of this we shall speak more in detail presently.

We now pass to the subject of the examinations. Before presenting himself to these the pupil must of course have complied with every prerequisite for graduation, and must in particular present the diplomas of his degrees in letters and sciences. Nevertheless, officers of health, who have served in the capacity of military surgeons, as well as those who have taken out inscriptions in a secondary or in a military medical school prior to the 1st of January, 1823, are dispensed with presenting the diploma of bachelor of sciences. The degree of master of arts obtained in a foreign university, cannot supply the

place of that of bachelor of letters. Pupils who on the 1st of January, 1826, had more than one inscription, were allowed, until the 1st of January, 1827, the choice between two modes of examination. Agreeably to the old mode, the pupil who had taken out sixteen inscriptions was, at the expiration of the last quarter, allowed to offer himself as a candidate for the degree of doctor in medicine, on submitting to five examinations and defending a thesis. Anatomy and physiology constituted the subjects of the first examination; pathology and nosology of the second; materia medica, chemistry, and pharmacy of the third. At the fourth examination the candidate was tried on hygiene and medical jurisprudence; while the fifth examination was appropriated to the medical or surgical clinics, according as the candidate aspired to the degree of doctor of medicine or doctor of surgery.

Agreeably to the new mode, the subjects of the examinations are arranged in the following order:—

1st. *Examination three months after the eighth inscription.*—Medical Natural History, Medical Natural Philosophy, Medical Chemistry, and Pharmacologia.

2d. *Examination three months after the tenth inscription.*—Anatomy and Physiology.

3d. *Examination three months after the twelfth inscription.*—Medical and Surgical Pathology.

4th. *Examination three months after the fourteenth inscription.*—Hygiene, Legal Medicine, Materia Medica and Therapeutics.

5th. *Examination three months after the sixteenth inscription.*—Medical Clinic, Surgical Clinic, Midwifery.

Candidates who have undergone the examinations of the eighth, tenth, twelfth, fourteenth quarters, (trimestres,) are alone allowed to take out the tenth, twelfth, fourteenth, and sixteenth inscriptions.

From the 1st of November, 1829, every candidate without exception have been compelled to undergo their examinations agreeably to the preceding mode. These examinations are conducted by two professors and an agrégé. Each of them has an adjunct who supplies his place in case of his being absent. The examinations take place for four candidates at one time, their names being registered according to alphabetical order. They commence at one o'clock, and terminate at three; so that each candidate is examined during half an hour, or during ten minutes by each examiner. Whether the candidate be examined agreeably to the old or to the new mode, he is required to hand in, at the fifth examination, the details of six observations collected at the bed-side of the sick. Of these, four at least must have been collect-

ed in the clinics of the faculty, and their authenticity must be certified by the professor. Candidates for the degree of doctor in medicine present the histories of four cases of internal, and two of surgical diseases, while those who aspire to the degree of doctor in surgery, are required to furnish four of surgical, and two of internal diseases.

The candidates are classed, for their examinations, agreeably to the date of their inscriptions, and under no pretext is the name of the examiners communicated to them beforehand.

For the examination on anatomy and physiology, the candidate makes on the dead body an anatomical preparation previously designated to him. On a subsequent day he answers to several anatomical and physiological questions, having a bearing on the nature of the preparation he has made, and gives a demonstration on the skeleton of the different parts of osteology. At the examination on *materia medica*, chemistry, and pharmacy, the candidate answers demonstratively to the questions put to him on medicinal substances. The examination on internal and external pathology, (medical and surgical,) is conducted in Latin. It takes place at one sitting. The same holds in respect to the examination on hygiene and legal medicine, in which the candidate is required to write the formula of a report on a subject proposed at the moment.

At the examination on the clinics, questions proposed beforehand are drawn out by lots, (*tirées au sort.*) They have reference to fixed and well-known practical cases. To these questions the candidate must answer in Latin and in writing. With this view he repairs to the school, at least three hours prior to the examination, and there prepares his answer without the assistance of any one. In presence of the examiners he answers *viva voce*, in Latin, to all questions which his own written answer may elicit. When the candidate aspires to the degree of doctor of medicine, a greater number of medical than surgical questions are proposed to him at this examination. The reverse is the case when he wishes to obtain the degree of doctor of surgery. Under these circumstances he is moreover obliged to perform on the dead body all the operations required, in soft and hard parts, for the cure of the diseases which form the object of the examination.

It occasionally happens that a candidate is found incompetent on particular branches, and is required to attend to these for some time longer. In such case this extension of studies, and the examinations consequent upon it, must always, unless by special leave, take place in the same faculty.

When a candidate presents himself with the view of defend-

ing a thesis, after having undergone his examinations in another of the French faculties, the president and the examiners must be apprized of this circumstance.

After expressing, by inscribing his name on a register kept for the purpose, his intention of defending his thesis, the candidate deposits the manuscript at the office of the administration, and the dean designates a president who examines and signs it, and becomes responsible for the principles and opinions it contains, in relation to religion, public order, and morals. If he considers the thesis suitable for forming the subject of the sixth examination, the president makes a report to that effect. Should this not be the case, his decision is referred to the faculty. He superintends the printing, signs the proof sheets of the essay, which cannot be distributed unless he certifies that all the formalities have been complied with. Should a thesis, when distributed to the public, be found different from what it was in the manuscript submitted to the examination of the president, or should it have been printed before the manuscript had received the sanction and signature of the latter, it would, together with the sixth examination, if the latter had taken place, be annulled. The candidate would be refused his diploma, and obliged, before obtaining it, to defend a thesis on another subject, after a lapse of time fixed by the royal council; and that too, independently of other academic punishments that may be incurred in consequence of any objectionable principles contained in the printed thesis.

The title page of the thesis must express the object of the author; whether he aspires to the doctorate in medicine or in surgery. No unpublished medical observation can be inserted in a thesis without the written approbation of the physician who has attended the patient. The dedication of these essays, unless made to a parent, must be authorized by the person to whom it is addressed. In such cases also, the approbation of the faculty must be obtained. The candidate deposits a considerable number, (140,) of copies of his thesis, which are distributed as follows:—

To the University, 2—Rector, 1—General Inspectors, 2—Royal Academy of Medicine, 1—Faculties of Montpellier and Strasburgh, 2—Royal Library, 1—First Physician of the King, 1—Professors, 24—Aggrégés, 36—Argumentation, 6—Library of the School, 5—Treasurer, 1—Librarian, 1—Conservators of the Cabinets, 1—Chief of the Anatomical Works, 1—Chief of the Chemical Laboratory, 1—Assistant Librarian, 1—Assistant to the Conservator of the Cabinet, 1—Dissectors and Aids of Anatomy, 6—Chief of Clinics, 3—

Aid to the chemical department, 1—Aid to the botanical department, 1—Bureau, 5—Dresser, 1—Collection in Reserve, 35.

The same individual is engaged for the printing of all the theses; the form of these, the number of lines in each page, and the quality of the paper, are designated by the faculty, in order to ensure regularity in the execution of the rules just mentioned, and similarity in all the theses.

The thesis is defended before the president of the board, several of the professors, and two *aggrégés*. The act continues an hour. The president has no vote in the decision of the jury of examination, but may nevertheless take part in the deliberation. In case of an equal division of votes relative to the propriety of admitting the candidate, the opinion of those in his favour is adopted. Every certificate of capacity delivered by a faculty, must, before being converted into a diploma by the royal council, be approved by the rector, (whose office is filled at Paris by the dean,) and the certificate of approbation refers as much to the moral conduct as to the capacity of the candidate. The rector has consequently the right of refusing a diploma to one who does not merit it. The diploma is given by the grand master, who may suspend the delivery of it, referring this act to the council of state. He may also compel the candidate to go through his examinations a second time.

Doctors in medicine who wish to obtain the title of doctor in surgery, and vice versa, are required to sustain a fifth examination, and defend a thesis on a surgical or medical subject, according to the nature of the degree they wish to obtain. They are at the same time obliged to pay one hundred francs for the fifth examination, one hundred and twenty francs for the sixth, or thesis, and one hundred francs for the seal of the university, making a total of three hundred and twenty francs. But a doctor in medicine is not allowed to present himself to the fifth examination for the doctorate in surgery, before having defended his thesis in medicine, and the examiners must be apprized of his intention, of obtaining the one or other of these degrees, in their letter of convocation.

French physicians or surgeons who have graduated in foreign universities, or military officers of health, could formerly obtain with ease an exemption from the first four examinations. But since the 1st of January, 1815, this exemption is no longer allowed, except by means of a special ordonnance. By a decision of the faculty of Paris, dated 28th of February, 1822, studies made in foreign countries have been assimilated to those made in the secondary schools of France, provided, however, they have been made in well known Uni-

versities, or in places where it is ascertained, that a complete course of medical instruction can be obtained. Nevertheless, physicians who have graduated out of France, occasionally obtain the above exemption, and even one from the fifth examination. In that case they are merely required to defend a thesis, and to pay two hundred and twenty francs—one hundred and twenty for the examination and one hundred for the seal. They may also obtain the two titles of doctor of medicine and doctor of surgery, by defending two theses and paying four hundred and forty francs.

Pupils who have given proofs of capacity in the old schools, agreeably to the established rules, and who wish to exchange their certificates of provisional reception for a diploma, are obliged to declare whether they wish that of doctor in medicine or doctor in surgery. They may then obtain it by paying five hundred francs.

No one we presume will refuse to admit that the preceding regulations are wise and just; yet we cannot help thinking, that the professors at Paris have shown rather too exalted an opinion of their worth, by assimilating studies made in foreign countries to those made in the secondary schools of France. Were this compliment levelled at our schools, or even at the English and Scotch schools, it would not be a matter of astonishment, because the quantum of instruction that may be derived in them is exceedingly limited when compared with that afforded in France. But it cannot prove very agreeable to the schools of Austria and Italy, where the course of studies required for graduation, and placed within the reach of students, is, to say the least of it, as complete as at Paris itself.

In terminating this account of the requisites for graduation, and of the regulations of the schools of Paris, it remains to state, 1st, that every mark of disrespect towards the dean or any of the professors, is punished by the loss, on the part of the offender, of one or two inscriptions, or more severely if deemed necessary, and that, should the offence be repeated, it is punished by exclusion from the school during at least six months, or at most two years. 2d. That it is expressly forbidden to the students of a faculty, or of the various faculties of the same or of different orders, to form associations, without having obtained permission to that effect from the authorities of the place, and apprised the rector of the circumstance. 3d. That students are also prohibited from acting or writing collectively, as if forming a legally constituted corporation or association. 4th. That every student who is convicted of taking part, under any pretext whatsoever, in illegal assemblies, in revolts, fights, &c. is erased from the register of the faculty; his ticket of admission is at the same time withdrawn from him,

and he is prohibited from attending the lectures. 5th. That the price of medical education in France amounts to one thousand francs, independently of the expenses of publication of the thesis. Of this sum, thirty francs are paid for each examination, except the sixth, (that of thesis,) for which is paid sixty-five francs. The rest, or seven hundred and eighty-five francs, serve to defray the expenses of the sixteen inscriptions, for the first fifteen of which are paid fifty francs each, and for the sixteenth thirty-five francs. Besides these sums, one hundred francs are charged for the seal of the diploma, and three francs for the use of the gown worn at the time of examinations, &c.

Although the student may have paid for inscriptions at one of the secondary schools, he is obliged, if he wishes a diploma from one of the faculties, to pay the same sum demanded of other students who have not obtained such inscriptions.

We have thus presented in as small a compass as possible, an outline of the plan of medical instruction pursued in the three faculties of France, of the prerequisites for obtaining the title and rank of doctor of medicine and surgery, as well as the principal rules adopted for the proper government of the school. It will immediately be perceived, that many of the latter are of local interest, and only applicable to the state of society, to the character of the youths, and the nature of the government of France. Notwithstanding this, however, we do not know that some of them might not be adopted with advantage elsewhere, and even in this country. But, without insisting on the subject, we may be allowed to express the opinion, that the plan of instruction at present in operation in France, so far as regards the diversity of branches taught, the division of the studies in each year and each section of the full course, the number of the examinations, &c. is entitled to much commendation. We are not prepared at present to inquire whether some improvements might not be made in that plan—whether some branches of minor value are not taught, while others of greater importance are not attended to; for the necessity of reform is generally admitted, and occupies still the attention of the government and of the profession at large. Yet such as it is, the plan in question is so far superior to that in force in our schools—the effects of this superiority are so evident to every one who has been able to make the comparison between the graduates of both countries, and who is not biassed by prejudice, that were we called upon for advice by a young man about commencing the study of medicine, and were we able to select the place where he was to prosecute his studies, we would unhesitatingly give the preference to the schools of France over those of our own or of other countries, Germany excepted. We sincerely hope that the eyes of

our countrymen will, before many years have elapsed, be open on this important matter, and that the necessary reforms will be made in the plan of instruction actually in force among us. In making these remarks, it is far from our wish to disparage the merit, the learning, and the practical skill of American physicians. Indeed we are ourselves too much interested on this subject, to harbour such an intention. But let them be candid, and say whether the greater part of the knowledge, theoretical and more particularly practical, which the most distinguished among them possess, has not been acquired since they graduated, and often at the expense of human life? Whether they are not now sensible of the imperfection of their medical education? With industry on the part of the young physician, the effects of this deficiency may be, and has fortunately been, often remedied. But we are all aware that this industry is unfortunately seldom the lot of graduates, and painful as the confession may be, we are forced to admit, that the majority of our young physicians, after they have received the honours of the doctorate, do not study at all, or do so only in a desultory manner;—that they consequently remain very deficient in point of information, and hence very inferior to the graduates of the schools of the European continent.

As may have been perceived, medical education is only apparently cheap in France; for although lectures are delivered gratuitously, and the other expenses incident on the studies, as for dissection, &c. are but trifling, yet the inscriptions are expensive, and the amount paid for these, joined to the fees for examination and graduation, makes up a sum equal, or nearly so, to that which a medical diploma costs in this country. It is true that the sum, if divided by four—the number of years required for the studies, would make only about three hundred francs a year, (sixty dollars,) whereas the amount paid here for admission to the lectures, the expense of graduation, of dissection, of private instruction, without which a student can hardly get along with credit to himself, if divided by two—the number of years of attendance at the school required, would show a much larger annual disbursement. It is true also, that the expenses of living are much less in France, particularly at Montpellier and Strasburgh, than in our large cities. Yet, notwithstanding all this, as the difference of living four years instead of two, is to be taken into account, as the sum annually spent by the student there for his instruction and living, goes a great deal further than a much larger one with us; and as the whole amount is, therefore, (due regard being paid to this cause,) truly considerable, we are justifiable in saying, that medical education is only apparently cheap in France.

This dearness of medical education in France, joined to the impossibility of practising medicine or surgery lawfully without a diploma, and of getting admittance to the lectures without a ticket delivered only to regular students or to graduates, ensures in general, (for some improper subjects will creep in every where,) a bar against the admission in the profession, of individuals who are not of respectable parentage, and who are not likely to become useful to the community and an honour to the profession. Add to this, that in order to be entitled to take out an inscription, it is necessary, as we have seen, that the student should be a graduate in two other faculties. This of course cannot be done without some expense, and further ensures in a powerful manner, the effects to which we have already adverted. Nothing in our opinion is more injurious than *cheap* medical schools, allowing, as they do, particularly when unrestrained by the necessity of classical education and long periods of study, many chances to the introduction into the profession of individuals, who ought from their standing in society and deficient education, to be excluded from the honours of the doctorate. Those who contributed in framing the plan of studies adopted in France, were probably aware of these circumstances. Had they not fixed a high price on instruction, or rather on graduation, had they not required of the candidate degrees in other faculties, many would probably have been induced to study medicine—many would have obtained a diploma, and with it have been entitled to practice, who were fitter to cultivate the land or work at some trade. By adopting their present system, on the contrary, they have in a great measure secured admission to those only whose pecuniary means have enabled them to receive a good education, by which the faculties of the mind are early exercised and strengthened, and will not only prevent them from starving in the early part of their professional career, but also enable them to avoid the company of low and illiterate people, to mix with the more polished classes of society, and to govern themselves in their intercourse with the public generally, and with their fellow practitioners in particular, in accordance with the principles of sound morality and the feelings of amity and cordiality which are so strongly implanted in the bosom of every well-bred gentleman. Although we are willing to acknowledge that few men attain to eminence in the medical or in any other profession who have not their fortunes to make, we cannot help regarding pauper doctors—physicians belonging to the poorer and lower classes of the community, as a great nuisance, not only to the profession, but to the public at large; because, in consequence of their deficient education, they rarely acquire a sufficiently high standing, to obtain for them the advantages derived from professional intercourse

with their more polished and better instructed brethren, and because a man who on entering business is destitute of the means of support, or moves among the lower classes, is but too often induced, sometimes from sheer necessity and against his own inclination, at others, because he is undeterred by a sentiment of honour and a sense of the dignity of his calling, to make a trade of his profession—to endeavour to gain business by making low charges—to play the quack—and to caress and humour the whims of the public, in order to creep into notice. In our country we unfortunately see too many of these, not altogether on account of the cheapness of medical diplomas, for in some schools these are expensive; but owing to the facility of graduation in them all, though principally to the liberty which every one enjoys, in some states, of practising medicine without having received a license, to that effect, from competent authorities;—circumstances which induce many to tender their services as practitioners of medicine, though deprived of the desirable degree of preliminary education, and sometimes without any medical or surgical instruction. Of these, one out of a hundred may, by dint of industry, emerge through the crowd of nullities by whom he is surrounded, and acquire a merited reputation for learning and practical skill; he may also, by virtue of an innate sentiment of honour, correctness of deportment, and delicacy of feeling, gain the esteem and countenance of his brethren and of the respectable portion of the community; but the mass of such physicians will continue to grope in the dark, will never conduce to the improvement of their profession, but will become mere routine practitioners, and exercise their art, to the great detriment of the public and to the discredit of the profession.

We now pass to the subject of the professors of the medical faculties of France, and of the manner in which they are selected. Previous to the first revolution, there was, we believe, but one order of professors in the various medical schools of the kingdom. These professors were appointed after a concours or public trial, by the king, on the presentation of the judges, who consisted of the chancellor, when there was one, (as at Montpellier, where the school of medicine was held, though improperly, in the light of an university,) of the dean, and of a number of the professors. The chancellor, who was the chief of the school, was appointed directly by the king, without the formality of a presentation. In those faculties, where there were no chancellor, the duties of chief devolved on the dean, who was selected in the same way.

When, in 1794, the schools of Paris, Montpellier, and Strasburgh, which, like all the other establishments of the kind, had been abolished a few years before, were reorganized, a professor and an adjunct were

attached to each chair. In the progress of time, however, these adjuncts became assimilated to the titular professors. From this, it followed, that the number of these was doubled; and that, as the number of chairs was not increased, except at Paris, where a professorship of medical bibliography was created, there were, in fact, two professors for each chair. By the same law, (4th Dec. 1794,) the professors were directed to be appointed by the committee of public instruction, on the presentation of the commission of public instruction. By the general law on that subject, dated 11 Floreal, an x, (10th May, 1802,) it was directed that the professors should be nominated by government, from among three candidates; the first of whom was presented by one of the classes of the Institute, the second by the general inspectors of the studies, and the third by the professors of the school. This arrangement continued in force until the period of the organization of the university by Napoleon, on the 17th of March, 1808. By the decree of that date, it was ordered that, at the first formation of that gigantic establishment, the grand master should nominate to all the chairs in each of the faculties; but that at subsequent periods all vacancies occurring in them, should be filled by individuals selected after a public concours.

Shortly before the return of Napoleon from Elba, on the 17th of February, 1815, a royal ordonnance, based on the report of a commission appointed by government to inquire into the state of the instruction imparted in the medical schools of France, and to suggest the modifications required in those establishments, appeared in the *Moniteur* and *Bulletin des Loix*, by which the concours was abolished in the faculty of medicine of Paris. By this same ordonnance, it was ordered, that the professors should henceforward be selected from among four candidates, two of whom were presented for that purpose by the faculty, the other two by the academical council. But this arbitrary change was not effected without eliciting an expression of disapprobation on the part of the entire faculties of Montpellier and Strasburgh, which, in conjunction with the dean of the faculty of law, and several individual professors attached to the medical faculty of Paris, defended courageously the mode by concours. On the 30th of March of the same year, this ordonnance was annulled by an imperial decree, and the university was reëstablished on the same footing as prior to the restoration of the Bourbons. But this decree in its turn, was repealed, and the ordonnance of 17th of February, 1815, was reinforced in what relates to the subjects in question, by a royal decision, dated February, 1816.

By the ordonnances of November, 1822, and February, 1823, which effected the dissolution of the old faculty, and the reörganiza-

tion of the school of Paris; and by subsequent ordonnances, which occasioned similar changes in the schools of Montpellier and Strasburgh, a new arrangement was made in the board of teachers attached to these establishments, and in the mode of nominating them. This arrangement consisted in appointing two sets of teachers—professors properly so called, and *aggrégés*, or adjuncts.

The mode of election by *concours* was rejected for the former; but admitted for the latter. This occasioned at the time, and for a long period after, much discontent among the members of the profession, and the medical journals were clamorous in their demands for the reëdoption of the *concours* for the selection of the professors themselves.

While on this subject, we may be allowed to express the opinion, that the method of choosing a professor by *concours*, presents many advantages over the other, or that by presentation, but is not itself free from disadvantages. An individual, who is aware that he is to appear before a large and enlightened assembly, and that he must there answer to all questions put to him by judges appointed for that purpose; that this severe trial is to be repeated several times, and in various ways; and that the subjects on which he is to be examined are diversified in their nature; that independently of his examiners, a large concourse of individuals will judge of his capacity; such an individual, we say, will take very good care not to present himself, unless well qualified on all the branches on which he is to be examined. This proves a source of emulation to all those who aspire to the honour of the office to be filled, and the persons who make the final selection of the professor, are certain of choosing among men who are qualified, and have given public proofs of their capacity and learning. Add to this, that a bar is put to every thing like favouritism; since the government, if it retains the power of the final decision, can only chose among the most distinguished of the candidates, and must, unless it tramples on every principle of justice, be guided in its selection by the opinion of the judges. The method of selecting on simple presentation offers none of these advantages, inasmuch as the candidates may often have given no public proof of capacity, and the choice may be made merely to gratify private feelings, or reward private services, and not in consequence of a decided superiority on the part of the successful candidate.

Indeed, we shall not be easily induced to believe with Dr. JOHNSTON, that the voice of the public, and the wish of supporting character, will act sufficiently in preventing this abuse, (nomination of unqualified persons by interest and favour,) from being carried too far; “and that it is to be supposed that, in general, the council of instruction is too

enlightened, and too anxious to obtain the good opinion of the country, to allow, in many cases, power to triumph over merit." The appointments in 1823, of seven or eight professors, totally unqualified for fulfilling the duties of the responsible offices to which they were thus raised, is a sufficient proof of the disadvantage of the method by simple presentation. Nor is it to be supposed that such an occurrence, though happening at the time of the reorganization of the school, was not to be apprehended afterwards; for no effectual bar to a repetition of it was established, and there is little doubt that had the plan then adopted, continued in operation, the selection of improper individuals would have frequently happened—a circumstance which could not have resulted from the mode of selecting after a public concours.

Even in admitting that such effects were not to be feared from the method by presentation, and that those entrusted with the duty of presenting candidates, might always have been guided by principles of justice, it may be doubted whether they could always have had it in their power to discover among numerous competitors, such individuals as possessed all the qualifications requisite in a professor, or that they themselves would have been competent to decide on candidates to teach branches totally different in their nature from those entrusted to them. How, for example, could a professor of midwifery decide on the qualifications of a chemist, of a botanist, &c.?

The concours is certainly more efficacious than this method, because every candidate gives a public specimen of his qualifications, of his learning, eloquence, talents in imparting his knowledge, &c. and because a narrow field is offered for the operation of intrigue, coteries, personal antipathies, and partialities. "Il a l'avantage de mettre au jour des talens qui peut-être seraient demeurés inconnus; il fait distinguer surtout les qualités les plus nécessaires à un professeur; la netteté dans l'exposition, cette chaleur d'élocution qui s'empare des étudiants, qui les attache à la science." The concours is, for the same reasons, superior to the mode of nomination by the directors, or trustees of a school; for these are not generally members of the profession, and cannot, therefore, judge of the qualifications of individuals destined to teach one of the branches of that profession. They must rely on the opinion of the public, and we know that the public pronounce individuals to be great physicians, who are possessed of the slenderest talents and acquirements, and who would, therefore, make but poor professors; or they must rely on the opinion of the members of the faculty, or of physicians generally. But in the first case, the disadvantages and difficulties to which we have alluded when speaking of the mode by presentation, would inevitably result—in the second, men too advanced in age would be regarded as the fittest; for

few physicians would feel sufficiently free from jealousy and antipathy to recommend for so high a station, individuals younger than themselves, or even of their own standing—there being, in general, a disposition in the elderly members of the profession to look down with a sort of contempt on their younger brethren, without appearing to be aware of the fact, that all improvements in the science have been effected by physicians in the prime of life, and that the best professors are to be sought among the enthusiastic, zealous, active—in other words, never among the old.

But as we have said, the mode of electing by concours is not free from some disadvantages; the principal of which is, that individuals of slender talents, but who possess considerable firmness and composure, and a ready mode of answering questions—in a word, who are endowed by nature with a good share of impudence, will often show to much greater advantage in a public examination, than persons of ten times more talents, but who are timid and diffident of their own powers. Another disadvantage results from the natural unwillingness of persons who have already secured some reputation and fame, by their writings or intercourse with society, to enter into competition with younger, less learned, but more active and ready individuals, and thereby run the risk of losing both. Some disadvantage may also arise from the partiality of judges; but it is easy to guard against this by rendering the concours public, and composing the jury, which ought to be in part selected by the candidates themselves, not only of professors of the faculties, but of a certain number of physicians not attached to the latter. On the whole, however, neither this disadvantage, nor the others to which we have alluded, can be compared with those presented by the other methods.

But we return from this digression. If after the reorganization of the schools, the advantages of the concours were not enjoyed, the disadvantages of the mode by presentation, were in some measure obviated by the fact, that after the first nominations, in virtue of which so many unqualified individuals got admittance into the school of Paris, professors were chosen only from among the *aggrégés*, who, as we have seen, were appointed after a public concours.

Such being the case in regard to these *aggrégés*, and the organization of this body of subordinate professors being rather complicated, and without a parallel in any school with which we are acquainted, we shall doubtless be excused for dwelling a few moments on the subject. After doing this, we shall present an outline of the changes that have been effected in the mode of selecting professors since the

revolution of July, 1830, and terminate with some remarks on the body of professors, their pay, and the duties assigned to them.

At the period of the formation of the new school, at Paris, in 1823, twenty-four *aggrégés* were appointed by government. But the full number of these attached to the school amounted to thirty-six; the twelve additional ones, whose duties were to commence three years after, being directed by the ordonnance of the 2d of February, 1823, to be elected by *concours*, before the completion of the first scholastic year. In virtue of this decision they were chosen on the 19th of November, 1823, and definitively nominated in July of the next year. Those first appointed were divided into three sections, each section being subdivided, as we shall see presently, into several series. The whole body was divided into three classes: 1st. The *stagiaires*, comprising those lately elected, who during three years were not called upon to perform any duty. 2d. *Aggrégés en exercice*, or those who performed duty, or were liable to be called upon for that purpose—to supply the place of a professor—take part in the examinations, &c. Their period of duty extended to six years—one-half of their number being renewed every three years. The third class comprised an unlimited number of *aggrégés*—all those who had become *free*, after passing through the two first grades, denominated in French *le stage* and *l'exercice*. At the period of the first formation of the school, the twenty-four *aggrégés* who were then appointed were directed to enter forthwith on duty, *en exercice*, and it was directed that one-half of their number, whose names would be drawn by lot, should be renewed at the expiration of three years. It was further ordered, that the subsequent renewals should be effected in such a way, that at each of them twelve new *aggrégés* would be elected and enter the *stage*, twelve would be ready to perform duty, *passeraient en exercice*, and twelve would become *free*. The *aggrégés* of the three classes had equal and the exclusive right of becoming candidates for any vacant chair in the faculty. The *aggrégés en exercice* were divided into three sections—1st, medicine; 2d, surgery; 3d, accessory sciences. The first of these comprehended ten—namely, two for pathology, one for hygiene, one for therapeutics, four for the clinics, one for legal medicine, and one without any special branch. The section of surgery was composed of eight *aggrégés*—pathology two, operations and dressings one, clinics three, midwifery one, midwifery clinic one. The section of the accessory sciences consisted of six—of whom one was attached to anatomy, one to physiology, one to medical natural philosophy, one to chemistry, one to medical natural history, and one to pharmacologia. It results, therefore, that

every three years, five *aggrégés* for the first section, four for the second, and three for the third were elected, unless some promotion to a professor's chair took place from among the *aggrégés en exercice*, in which case the vacancy thus occasioned was filled by the election of an additional *aggrégé*.

The *aggrégés* were alone allowed to deliver private lectures. This privilege was enjoyed by the three classes, the *stagiaires*, those *en exercice*, and the *free*; and no authority could deprive them of it, except by virtue of a decision of the council of the university. We have said that after the first formation of the school, the situation of *aggrégé* could only be obtained after a concours; to this it is necessary to add, that the grand master of the university still retained the power of giving, with the approbation of the faculty, of the council of the academy, and of the royal council, the title of free *aggrégé* to doctors in medicine or surgery, who had attained the fortieth year of their age, and who had distinguished themselves by their writings or by their success in the profession. The number of those could not, however, exceed ten, and they only enjoyed the privilege of becoming candidates for the chairs of clinic. The *aggrégés* received no regular salary, but were paid whenever called upon to perform duty in the school. Those who were required to lecture for a professor, obtained from the latter a sum equivalent to one-half the regular salary received by him, during the time they performed duty; as well as half of examination fees, &c.

The following is an account of the regulations of the concours. Three months before the opening of the latter, which was announced in the public prints, the aspirant, who was required to be a Frenchman by birth, and to have attained the twenty-fifth year of his age, caused his name to be inscribed at the bureau of the faculty, depositing there at the same time, 1st, his diploma of doctor in medicine or surgery; 2d, his certificate of birth; 3d, a certificate of good conduct and good morals, signed by the mayor and confirmed by the prefect of the department; 4th, a certificate signed by three doctors and countersigned by the rector, attesting that he had not been instrumental in circulating addresses on the public roads, &c. and had not sold secret remedies.

A few candidates, (not more than three for each concours,) were dispensed, by the grand master with the advice of the faculty in which the concours was held, or of that in which they had obtained their degrees, with being of the age required. Two months before the opening of the concours, the list of candidates was temporarily closed at a meeting of the faculty, and forwarded to the grand master of the university. The royal council, after investigating the claims of each

candidate, closed the list definitively and forwarded it to the dean, who two weeks before the commencement of the examinations, gave notice to the candidates of their being admitted to take part in these. The board of examiners was composed of at least seven members and a president, who had the casting vote in case of an equal division. They were all named by the minister of public instruction. Some of the judges could be chosen from among physicians not attached to the faculty; but there was always required to be a majority of professors. Three judges were appointed to supply the place of the others in case of absence from sickness or other causes. Five judges, independently of the president, could pronounce in regard to the merits of an *aggrégé*, and to his claim to election, or the reverse. The names of the candidates were called over on the day and at the hour fixed upon for the concours; those who were absent at that time being excluded from the examinations. The candidates could reject any of the judges, but were obliged at the same time to state their reasons for doing so; the remainder of the judges being authorized in pronouncing whether or not the reasons assigned were of sufficient weight to justify the rejection. In case the decision of the board was unfavourable to the candidate, he could still appeal to the royal council. Two relatives of the candidate, uncles, brothers, or first cousins, could not sit as judges or supplementaries at the same concours. The rank among the candidates was determined by the priority of their admission to the honours of the doctorate.

The concours was divided into three parts. 1st. Medicine. 2d. Surgery. 3d. Accessory sciences. The principal exercises had reference to these three objects, and the candidates were accordingly divided into three series. When the interest of the school required it, the royal council, at the request of the faculty, established special exercises for each of the accessory sciences.

Each part of the concours was composed of three exercises. 1st. A written composition. 2d. An oral lesson. 3d. A thesis.

Of the written composition.—Three questions prepared by the judges were thrown into an urn, from which the oldest candidate drew out the one to be proposed. This being done, all the candidates were shut up in a room, under the superintendance of two of the judges, and were there required to compose a dissertation in Latin on the subject stated in the question proposed. After a period of from five to eight hours, during which they were not allowed to communicate with any one, or consult any books, they deposited their compositions, to which they previously affixed their signature, into a box, which the president sealed up. This first exercise was not public. Those

that followed took place in the lecture room and in presence of all who were willing to attend.

Of the Oral lesson.—The judges designated as many subjects as there were candidates. Each of these drew one of the subjects, and prepared upon it a lecture of three-quarters of an hour in duration, and for the composition of which he was allowed three full days. During the lecture only simple notes could be made use of. Several of these lectures occupied the attention of the judges during each sitting, which lasted three hours. After this exercise of the oral lesson, the written compositions were read out by their respective authors.

Of the thesis.—The judges designated as many subjects as there were candidates; each of whom drew one on which he was obliged to compose, and print at his own expense, a thesis in Latin. Of this thesis, ten copies were sent to the grand master, and one to each of the judges and candidates three days prior to its defence. This took place only after an interval of twelve days from the moment the subjects were distributed. The argumentation was conducted in Latin among the candidates. The three hours which this exercise occupied were divided in such a way, that each candidate discussed the subject during at least half an hour, and never more than one hour. If the candidates were numerous, only six were allowed at one time to take part in the discussion. If, on the contrary, there was not a sufficient number of them to occupy the three hours, the president designated some of the judges, or the dean, to argue with the candidates. When the argumentation took place among the latter, it always commenced with the one who was to defend his thesis immediately after. In this argumentation the disputants could attack the principles developed in the thesis—the solutions which the author had offered to the questions proposed. They could likewise propose other questions on the subject of the thesis, and combat the answers given by the defendant.

Within twenty-four hours subsequent to the last sitting of the concours, the judges assembled, and elected, by a secret ballot, and by a majority of the whole, those they considered entitled to preference. The minutes of the operations of the concours, after being signed by all the judges, were forwarded to the grand master. The nominations might be impugned by the unsuccessful candidates, but only on the ground of a violation of the prescribed forms. These appeals were addressed to the grand master, judged by the royal council, and could not be received after the tenth day following the termination of the concours; one day more being allowed for every twenty leagues, (ten myriametres,) from the place where the faculty was situated,

The final nomination of the candidate did not take place before the expiration of this term, or the rejection of the appeals, (réclamations.) Whenever the nomination was annulled, the concours was gone over once more, but only among the same candidates.

It is from among the agrégés, and from them alone, that the professors were selected by the grand master—the choice being made out of six candidates, three of whom were presented by the assembly of the faculty, and three by the academic council. In these presentations the professors and agrégés of the other medical faculties of the kingdom might be included.

It has already been remarked, that the disadvantages of the method of appointing professors on *presentation* was somewhat obviated by selecting them only from among the agrégés, who were obliged before obtaining this situation to pass through the ordeal of a concours. These disadvantages were not all obviated, however, for as only very young men, who are as ill-suited as old men to undertake the responsible office of public teachers, were likely to feel disposed to submit to these public trials, the selection of professors would almost invariably have been made from among the junior members of the profession unless vacancies had not occurred soon in the faculties, and the agrégés had thereby had time to advance in age. The other alternative would have been in case of a vacancy in a chair of clinic, to select one of the agrégés who had been elected without the formality of the concours, by virtue of the right vested to that effect in the grand master of the university. But in that case the advantages of the concours would have been annulled; for if some individual could be appointed to a professorship without undergoing the trials of a public concours, where was the necessity of requiring these trials of others? But as every three years an addition was made to the number of these subordinate professors, there would always have been a large number of young candidates for every vacancy that occurred in the faculties, and intrigue, influential protection, and a thousand other causes, might have induced the faculty in which such vacancy occurred, as well as the academic council, to present, and the government to select one of them in preference to an older, and more experienced, and more worthy competitor. It might also have happened, and did actually happen, on several occasions, as in the appointment of M. CRUVEILHIER, to supply the vacancy occasioned by the death of BECLARD, and of M. MOREAU as successor of DESORMEAUX, that with a view to please the government, the faculty or the academic council would place at the head of the list of presentation an individual agreeable to the former, and thus give an apparent sanc-

tion to the preference of him over more deserving candidates. This circumstance was particularly to be feared at an early period after the reorganization of the schools; since the majority of the members of the faculties were mere tools in the hands of government, and the greater number of *aggrégés* had been appointed directly by the latter, and were, with some exceptions, less distinguished for talents than for subserviency to the ruling power and to the priesthood.

Physicians who had attained a certain degree of eminence as practitioners, who had acquired considerable reputation by their writings, or as lecturers, could not feel disposed to enter in competition with young men at a minor concours, who, nevertheless, might have made excellent professors, and would willingly have gone through all the exercises of a concours opened for the purpose of supplying a vacancy in a faculty, and particularly if they had had to compete with men of equal standing with themselves. Indeed, the establishment of the *aggrégés*, with the privileges accorded to them, at the same time that it was unjust, led to great disadvantages, for it not only prevented the physicians to whom we here allude from delivering private courses of lectures—from acquiring the habit of teaching as well as obtaining renown and profit—and from being useful to students; but prevented them from ever becoming candidates to a chair in the faculties; while it accorded these privileges, at the first formation of the schools, to some individuals unknown as writers, lecturers, or even as practitioners. The monopoly, therefore, remained for some time, agreeably to the plan adopted, in the hands of a few who in the commencement had all been appointed by government; and the nominations to vacant chairs was sure to be made from among these, until no more of them remained to be promoted. On the whole then, we believe that the old plan of electing professors themselves by concours is the best that can be devised—far preferable to the one adopted in 1815, and even to the one substituted in 1823.

From the preceding account of the manner of conducting the concours—of the different exercises to which the candidates were obliged to submit, it will be perceived that it was not the easiest thing in the world to become an *aggrégé*—that it required much preparation, and was well calculated to excite emulation. The consequence of this was, that the greater number of these *aggrégés* were men of talents and information, and would one day have become competent to the task of assuming, with credit to themselves, and advantage to the school, the duties of a professorship. The exceptions to this were found principally among those who at the period of the organization of the schools were appointed without a *concours*, and had

obtained the situation through means of protection and intrigue. The result in question would have been greatly enhanced by the training they underwent during the period of the *exercice*. Nothing can we believe point out more forcibly the excellence of the plan and method of instruction pursued in the schools of France, than the fact that young men recently from the benches of the lecture rooms can place themselves on the list of candidates, and go through the whole of the exercises with considerable *aplomb*, and often with success. We fear that a similar result would not often be obtained in our medical schools, from which young graduates issue with a comparatively small stock of theoretical, and generally without the least practical knowledge. Clever as many of the members of the profession in America become as practitioners after a few years attendance on the sick, we are inclined to think that few among them would acquit themselves with honour of the arduous duties to which the *aggrégés* of France were subjected. The medical education obtained in this country is too superficial, and in general our habits of study are too desultory, to allow us to look forwards for any other results. We cannot help thinking that our schools, and even the science of medicine among us, would be much improved were a number of *aggrégés* or adjuncts to be appointed, and were the selection of professors to be made from among them. So far we have nothing of the sort, and if we mistake not, the few adjunct professorships in our schools give no additional claim to the chair when the latter becomes vacant. But as things now stand the arrangement is perhaps the most proper, as these situations are obtained, not after public trials, but through protection and favouritism. Some private associations of lecturers in our country are viewed by many as the legitimate nursery of professors. But we confidently hope, that those who have charge of nominations will never regard the subject in this light. It would be encouraging monopoly, since the vacancies occurring in these institutions are filled, not after a *concours*, where all physicians would be admitted as candidates, but by a simple appointment made by the existing members. The whole power is placed in the hands of a few individuals who are likely to be guided in the choice of their future colleague, more by friendly feelings and interest, than by the consideration of talents. Whenever the chance of admission is not equal for all, the pretensions of these institutions, of being the source whence professors are to be obtained, should be discountenanced, for if once admitted, it might establish claims, or confirm pretensions, that might hereafter be productive of incalculable mischief, and even transfer the right of appointment from its legitimate source to others, or at least render it a nullity.

Important, however, as we may regard the addition of those *aggrégés* to the regular members of the medical faculties of France, and their election after a public concours, viewing the mode in which professors themselves were elected, we do not wish to be understood as bestowing praise on every detail of the organization of that body. There was indeed a point in which it would ultimately have failed, and which would have tended to defeat the object for which they were instituted. It has already been stated, that twelve new *aggrégés* were added every three years to the number already existing. Besides this, all the vacancies occurring, either in consequence of death, resignation, &c. were immediately filled up at a new *concours*. It resulted as a natural consequence of this circumstance, that in the course of some years, the number of *aggrégés* would have been very considerable, and that, if some modification to the plan in force had not been adopted, the number would have embraced all the physicians of the cities where the faculties are located, or at least all those who felt disposed to aspire to either the honour of the *aggregation*, or of a professorship. Under these circumstances, the chance possessed by each, of being chosen to fill a vacancy in the faculty, would have been no greater than that enjoyed before by the members of the profession generally; since, instead of choosing among a privileged few, the faculties, the academic councils, and the government, would have had to make a choice from among the privileged *all*. This choice would then often have been just as much the result of intrigue and management, as if the candidate had been selected from the mass of the physicians within the precincts of the academy; and the other privileges attached to the situation would have ceased to be of any advantage, since they would have been enjoyed by all. In fine, things would have been just as if there had been no *aggrégés*; except, however, that to become a professor, it would have been necessary to pass through two ordeals—the *concours*, and the presentation, instead of one as formerly. We suspect also, that occasionally fewer applicants would have appeared than there were places to be filled, and that the severity of the exercises would have been necessarily relaxed, in order to ensure the admission of as many candidates as were required by law to fill the twelve places of the *stage*; for it would have proved an awkward position to have had a deficiency in the number of these. It would have destroyed the symmetry of the whole arrangement, and not permitted the possibility of affording substitutes for those whose term of duty had expired. This actually took place in one of the provincial faculties. Already, indeed, before the last revolution, the number of these *aggrégés* at

Paris, and in the other faculties, was too large, and the source whence candidates to vacancies in the schools were to be derived had been too much extended, so that, in the choice for a professor, the administration was left too large a field for the exercise of its partialities, which could not help falling often, as it occasionally did, on the less worthy individuals.

Such was the organization of the faculty and the mode of electing professors when the revolution of July, 1830, broke out. In our last communication we stated that by the ordonnance of Louis Philip, dated the 5th of October, which revoked the obnoxious ordonnances of 1822 and 1823, it was ordered that vacancies occasioned by the death of some of the old professors, who were reinstated in their chairs, should be filled, as formerly, by a public *concours*. It remains now to state, that the same formality was enjoined in all subsequent elections. This measure, which was demanded by a considerable majority of the profession, not only as a matter of right, because it had been established by law and abolished illegally by an ordonnance, but also as the most proper to ensure the admission into the faculty of men of talents, and the exclusion of ignorant pretenders, was, however, opposed by some who preferred the mode by presentation—by others again who advocated the method of simple nomination by the academic council, by general election among all the physicians of the place, &c. But the partisans of these methods were few in number in comparison with those who advocated that by *concours*, a circumstance which doubtless contributed in confirming the government in the idea of prescribing the latter in all vacancies that might subsequently occur in the faculties.

But before we proceed any farther we must be allowed to correct an error which crept into our last article. It is there stated, that in consequence of the changes effected in the faculty of Paris by the ordonnance of October, 1830, the body of the *aggrégés* was necessarily suppressed. We should merely have stated that the *privileges* conceded to these supplementary professors—of being alone allowed to deliver private lectures and the only class eligible to professorships, both of which were violently opposed as unjustifiable monopolies and as preventing emulation, were suppressed by that ordonnance.

The body itself, thus shorn of its obnoxious privileges, and reduced in its functions to supplying the place of absent professors, and to a participation in the examinations, was retained.

“Cette institution,” to use the language of the Duke of Broglie, in his report to the king, “offre de grands avantages sans aucun inconvenient: les concours par lesquels on y parvient mettent au jour les talens naissans; ils fournissent à

la faculté des sujets qui se forment sous la direction de professeurs expérimentés, deviendront d'excellens candidats pour les concours aux chaires, et n'excluront pas cependant ceux qui auraient pu se former par d'autres moyens; il n'est par indifférent non plus que ces jeunes agrégés assistent aux examens des docteurs, et que par le mode de rotation établi, ils changent successivement, tandis que le corps de professeurs demeure permanent; c'est une surveillance bonne à exercer sur la sévérité des examens et qui aura même indirectement de l'influence sur les cours, car les examens, les questions que l'on y fait, les réponses que l'on obtient, sont un excellent moyen de s'assurer que les leçons des professeurs suivent les progrès de la science, et que les cahiers une fois préparés, ne demeurent par la base des cours, lorsque des découvertes importantes ont changé les doctrines qui en faisaient le fond."

But while reëstablishing the concours for all the chairs in the faculties of medicine of France, (for the minister states, in his report to the king, from which we have made the preceding extract, that the principles on which the projected ordonnance, that of the 5th of October, is based, must be equally applicable to the schools of Montpellier and Strasburgh,) the government introduced some modifications in the mode of conducting it. The argumentation is omitted, on the plea, that in the heat of the debate, candidates are sometimes carried beyond the bounds of decorum. Among the elements on which the judges are to establish their decision, a discussion on the anterior services and writings of each candidate is introduced. The trials at a *concours* for the chairs of clinic are in great measure limited to the above discussion, and to a few other exercises of a very trifling character. The whole exercises are gone through in French, and government, in order to place things on the old footing, gives up the right of selection from among several candidates; a right which was held by the former government in the concours for the agrégés.

The following will present a full view of the regulations of the concours.

SECTION I.—Composition of the Jury of the Concours.

Article 1st. The jury of the concours is composed, 1st, of eight professors of the faculty of medicine of Paris; 2d, of four doctors in medicine or surgery, or academicians who are not professors of the faculty, and who are selected in a manner presently to be mentioned, in the Royal Academy of Medicine, in the Academy of Sciences, or among the physicians and surgeons of the hospitals.

Article 2d. The judges selected from among the professors, are, 1st, for the chairs of natural philosophy, chemistry, medical natural history, pharmacy, and materia medica; the professors attached to these chairs, and in addition to them the professors of anatomy, physiology, hygiene, and legal medicine.

2d. For the chairs of surgical clinic and surgical pathology, operations, obstetrics, of obstetric clinic, and of anatomy; the professors attached to these chairs, less one of surgical clinic, who will be excluded by lot.

3d. For the chairs of medical clinic and medical pathology; the professors attached to those chairs, and in addition, the professors of physiology, *materia medica*, and hygiene.

4th. For the chairs of physiology, hygiene, and legal medicine; the professors occupying those chairs, and the professors of anatomy, natural philosophy, chemistry, obstetrics, one of the six professors of surgical clinic and pathology drawn by lot, and one of the six professors of clinical medicine and medical pathology, also chosen in the same way.

If by rejection, (*récusation*), or any other cause, one or several professors of the four preceding series are prevented from performing duty, substitutes will be provided from among the professors of the three other series.

Article 3d. The judges selected out of the faculty are as follows:—

For chairs of anatomy, physiology, medical and surgical clinics and pathology, obstetrical clinic, surgical operations, obstetrics, hygiene, *materia medica*, legal medicine, and pharmacy, four doctors in medicine or surgery, chosen by the academy of medicine in the corresponding section or sections of that body. Two of them must be selected from among the physicians and surgeons of the hospitals.

2d. For the chairs of natural philosophy, chemistry, medical natural history; four members of the Academy of Sciences chosen by that body, to wit, for the chairs of natural philosophy and chemistry in the two sections of natural philosophy and chemistry; for the chair of natural history in the three sections of natural history.

Article 4th. To these twelve titular judges will be added three supplementary ones, (*suppléans*), two of whom will be selected from among the members of the faculty, and drawn by lot, and one chosen by the Royal Academy of Medicine.

These supplementary judges will attend at all the sittings of the concours, and will supply the place, the two first of the professors of the faculty, and the third the place of the judges not attached to that body, whenever these may be obliged to absent themselves during the continuance of the concours. Under no other circumstances are they allowed to take part in the deliberations of the jury.

Article 5th. The titular and supplementary judges elect by ballot the president and secretary of the jury.

SECTION II.—*Of the Conditions required of Candidates.*

Article 6th. In order to be entitled to present himself as a candidate to a chair in the faculty of medicine of Paris, every individual must be, 1st, a Frenchman by birth or by letters of naturalization; 2d, full twenty-five years of age at the moment of the inscription; 3d, and either a doctor in medicine or a doctor in surgery.

SECTION III.—*Of the Trials of the Concours.*

Article 7th. The concours is composed of four kinds of exercises or trials:—

1st. The appreciation of the anterior claims of each candidate, made at an assembly of the judges, and at which the merit of his writings and services is fully discussed.

2d. A printed dissertation handed in to the jury twenty days before the opening of the concours, and the subject of which consists in general views on the disputed chair, and on the plan and method that should be adopted in teaching the particular branch.

3d. A written answer to a question drawn by lot, and which is the same for all the candidates, made in a close room, (a huis clos,) and during a space of time which is the same for all. The candidates afterwards come in rotation, and read their compositions at an assembly of the jury.

4th. A lecture delivered after a day's preparation, on some subject connected with the object of the chair—each candidate drawing by lot the subject on which he is to lecture.

5th. A lecture delivered after three hours preparation, on a subject drawn by lot, and which is the same for all the candidates who can go through that trial on the same day.

Article 8th. The candidates for the chairs of clinic are exempted from these last mentioned trials, to which is substituted two clinical lectures delivered in the lecture room of one of the clinical hospitals of the faculty, after the visit of some patients selected by the jury.

Article 9th. The lectures are an hour in duration—they must be oral, and the candidates cannot make use of any other than simple notes.

SECTION IV.—*Of the Judgment of the Concours.*

Article 10th. Immediately after the last sitting of the concours, the judges assemble and elect by secret ballot, and by a majority of the whole, the successful candidate. Nine constitute a quorum. In case of equal division, the president has the casting vote. The judgment is immediately announced to the public.

Article 11th. The mode of balloting is the same as for the election of members of the academy of sciences.

Article 12th. The candidate elected at the concours receives the investiture of the office from the grand master of the university.

Each of the professors received, and we believe continues to receive, a fixed salary of three thousand francs, besides ten francs for every examination at which he is present. The president at the last examination, (thesis,) receives fifteen francs. Every professor who is designated to be present at any *act* of the faculty, and absents himself without leave of the dean, is fined. If he absents himself without leave, and does not perform his duties at the school, he loses his salary during the whole time of his absence. Professors who in their lectures, discourses, or in their social intercourse, disregard the respect due to religion, morality, or government, or in any scandalous way compromises his reputation or the honour of the faculty, is referred by the dean to the academic council, and the latter, according to the extent of the offence, pronounces either his suspension from duty or his final expulsion. The punishments to which the professors are amenable, are, 1st, arrests; 2d, reprimand in presence

of the academic council; 3d, censure in presence of the council of the university; 4th, transfer to an inferior office; 5th, suspension from their functions for a fixed period, with or without a total or partial privation of their emoluments; 6th, leave of retirement before the time of *emeritus*, with emoluments lower than the pension allowed under the latter circumstance; 7th, erasure from the list of members of the university. This is a most severe punishment, as it prevents the individual subjected to it from ever filling an office in any of the public departments.

Two weeks before the commencement of the scholastic year, each professor submits for the examination of the faculty the programme of his course. Each of the courses must be completed before the termination of the year, the faculty determining, before the commencement of the lectures, the duration of each course. The general programme is then published and posted up.

The dean of the faculty is chosen every five years by the grand master of the university from among the professors. His functions are revocable. He is the chief of the faculty; and is charged with the administration and police of that body. He superintends the expenditures; calls and presides over the meetings of the faculty; appoints all the committees; orders when necessary the suspension of a course; and has the casting vote in case of a division of sentiment respecting nominations, presentations, &c. Independently of his emoluments as professor, the dean receives a salary of three thousand francs per annum. The faculty appoints every year two of its members to aid him in fulfilling his functions, to supply his place in case of absence, &c.

To this account of the members of the faculty, it remains to add, that when on duty the professors were obliged to wear peculiar costumes. Those costumes were two in number, the one richer than the other. The first of these was only worn on grand occasions, and consisted in the following articles: 1st, a black, French fashioned coat; 2d, a crimson satin robe with black silk facings; 3d, a cambric cravat with long ends falling in front of the chest; 4th, crimson silk cap ornamented with a gold band; the dean's cap had two; 5th, crimson silk breeches trimmed with ermine. The second, or little costume, was worn only at the private meetings of the school. It differed from the other only in the robe, which is made of black *étamine*, with crimson silk facings; the rest of the dress was the same. When the members of the faculty assembled together to transact business, they had at their orders a beadle, dressed with a black coat and a cloak of same colour, and carrying a silver mace. In their lectures, how-

over, the professors did not adhere very strictly to the regulations respecting their costume; for they often appeared before the class in a common black suit, without robe or cap, and we never perceived that any of them wore crimson breeches.

We are now met with a question on which the ingenuity of writers on medical institutions has been exercised, and on which we believe opinions are diversified. Whether the plan of allowing regular salaries to the professors of medical faculties is a good or a bad one? Without enlarging much on this subject, we must be permitted to remark, that so far as we are prepared to decide, we believe that the plan pursued in France, is better than is generally admitted. Some we are aware will say, that if a professor receives a regular pecuniary remuneration for his services, he soon loses all the emulation and activity he displayed in the beginning; while on the contrary, a man who knows that his emoluments depend on the number of his pupils, strives to render his course better and more attractive every year. All this is, to a certain extent, very true; but it would be easy to point out instances in America where the very reverse of these results occur—where regularly paid teachers, (in other departments of knowledge,) perform their duty with praiseworthy zeal and talent, and where, on the other hand, teachers whose emoluments are derived from students attending their lectures, have from a knowledge that the purchase of their tickets is essential for graduation, or from other causes, become negligent in the extreme, and have finally performed their duty in a manner little creditable to themselves or profitable to their class.

The system of regular salaries ensures the power on the part of the administration, to enforce on the professors the performance of their duty and the observance of the rules of the school, a point on which much difficulty will often be experienced when the other system is adopted. Besides, in France the emoluments of the professors are not limited to a fixed salary, which we are willing to admit would be attended with some inconvenience. They have, as we have seen, an *eventual* pay, as it is called there, arising from graduation and examination fees, &c. The result of this is, that the teachers are as much interested in making their lectures attractive and instructive as those of our own schools, while the regular salaries they receive, place them as effectually under the *surveillance* and direction of the administration as if they had no other sources of emolument. Were this *surveillance*, and this subjection of the faculty productive of no other result than that of preventing *aggrégés* and professors from countenancing quackery, it would show the advantage that may accrue from it.

But other advantages of the plan of regular salaries can be pointed out. It ensures in small schools a sufficient compensation to the professors, without which they cannot be expected to devote that time and attention to their lectures which is absolutely necessary for success; and in large schools it ensures the latter a source of profit which may be applied to the improvement of the building, to the establishment of clinical wards, and in various other ways. If we examine what happens in our country, we shall find that in the small schools, the professors are obliged, in order to live, to go through all the drudgery of the profession, and have often no time to read and prepare their lectures; and 2d, that few men of talents will leave their practice in one city to join a school in another part of the country. We find that in large schools, on the contrary, the professors receive emoluments comparatively disproportionate to the services they render, and naturally enough oppose the introduction of any modification, which though likely to benefit considerably the cause of instruction, would curtail them of some portion of their receipts. In such cases the schools themselves are deprived of a source of revenue that might be applied more usefully than in enriching a few individuals, who often finally lose the zeal they might have at first displayed. In our opinion, the most effectual stimulus to emulation, among professors, wherever a system of remuneration similar to ours prevails, will be found in the existence of rival institutions, in different sections of the country. Where this incitement to exertion does not exist, on the contrary, apathy will soon succeed to zeal in the professors, and efforts at excellence will seldom be made by them.

While entertaining these views on the subject, however, we willingly admit, that in our country, so long as the present laws respecting the practice of medicine continue in force, the plan of having professors paid by schools, would, instead of proving beneficial, be attended with bad effect, especially if the lectures were gratuitous; because young men who at present cannot afford to study medicine at all, would be enabled to do so for a few months, free of expense, and would then practice without license, and with only a smattering of knowledge. Be this as it may, however, it is certain that the plan adopted in France, in relation to the mode of selecting professors, is better than the one pursued in Great Britain and America, and we terminate this article with the expression of the hope that some beneficial changes may take place before long on that point, in the medical colleges of both countries.

R. LA Roche]