

I. In memoriam, Sir Rutherford Alcock, K.C.B., D.C.L. II. Sturges lecture for 1897 / by George Cowell.

Contributors

Cowell, George, 1836-1927.
Royal College of Surgeons of England

Publication/Creation

[London] : [publisher not identified], [1897]

Persistent URL

<https://wellcomecollection.org/works/fe8ez7cb>

Provider

Royal College of Surgeons

License and attribution

This material has been provided by This material has been provided by The Royal College of Surgeons of England. The original may be consulted at The Royal College of Surgeons of England. where the originals may be consulted. This work has been identified as being free of known restrictions under copyright law, including all related and neighbouring rights and is being made available under the Creative Commons, Public Domain Mark.

You can copy, modify, distribute and perform the work, even for commercial purposes, without asking permission.



Wellcome Collection
183 Euston Road
London NW1 2BE UK
T +44 (0)20 7611 8722
E library@wellcomecollection.org
<https://wellcomecollection.org>

6. 4
The Royal College of Surgeons
presented by the writer

I.

7.

In Memoriam:

SIR RUTHERFORD ALCOCK, K.C.B., D.C.L.

II.

STURGES LECTURE FOR 1897.

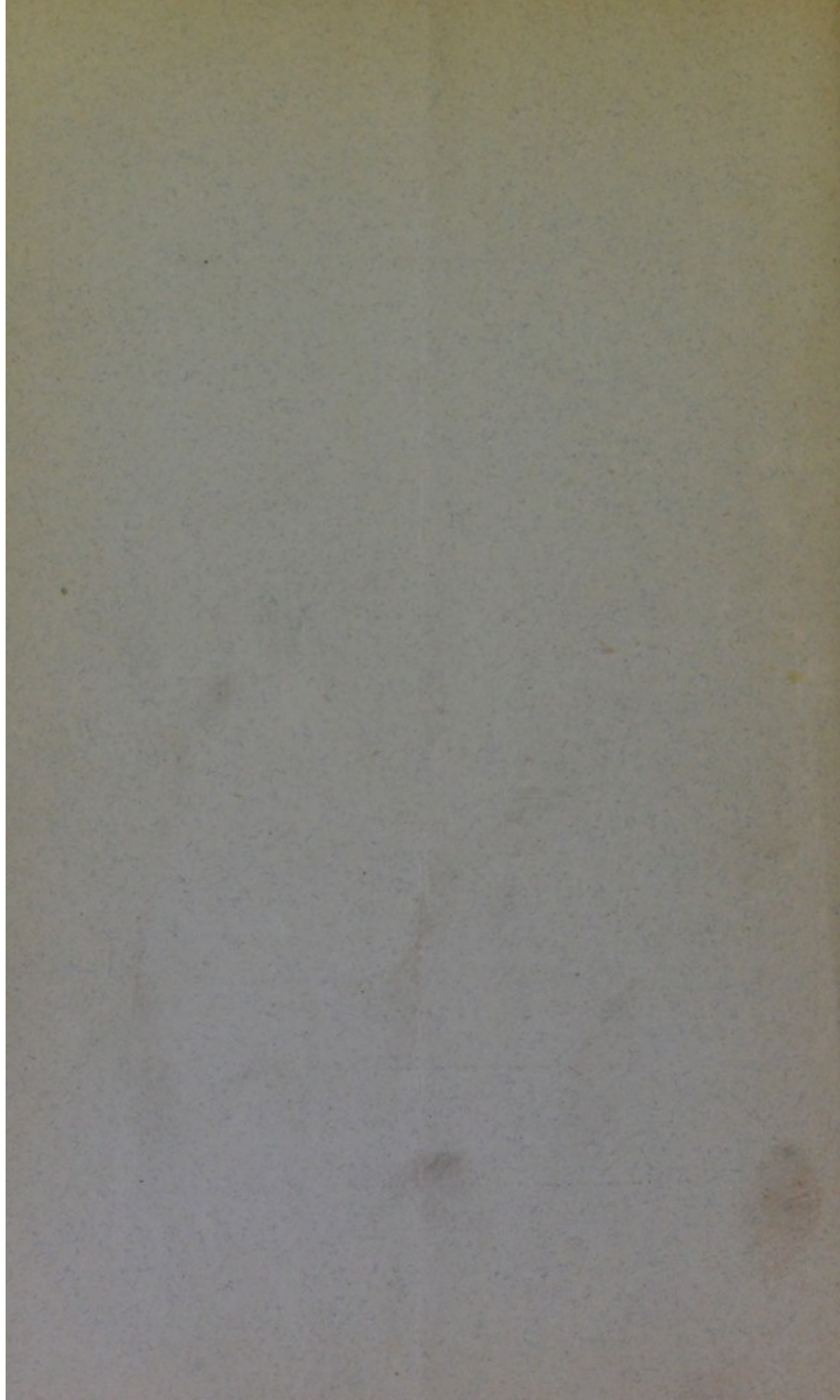
BY

GEORGE COWELL, F.R.C.S.,

Vice-President of the Hospital.



[Reprinted from the "Westminster Hospital Reports."]



In Memoriam.



SIR RUTHERFORD ALCOCK, K.C.B., D.C.L.
BORN 1809. DIED 1897.

BY GEORGE COWELL, F.R.C.S.,
Vice-President of the Hospital.

By the death of Sir Rutherford Alcock, who passed away in his 89th year on November 2nd, 1897, Westminster Hospital has lost a firm friend and its guiding spirit for many years. Since his retirement from the Diplomatic service in 1871, Sir Rutherford resided in London, and was a most regular attendant and a prominent figure in the Board Room of the Hospital, and in later years, as one of the vice-presidents, often occupied the chair. Since the date above mentioned, he has taken an active part in the many improvements that have been effected in the institution, and by his wise counsel and untiring exertions contributed in no small measure to their successful achievement. Most of the many valuable reports on such subjects as the nursing, admission of out-patients, structural alterations, and improved sanitation were written by him, and endorsed by the committees over which he so ably presided. The writer of this notice remembers the early controversies with reference to the nursing and the growing complaints which failed to receive attention until Sir Rutherford came on the scene. Hospital committees in those days were not so liberal as they are now, and all increase in the wages of the nurses was absolutely refused for many years. The result of this parsimony was that as the general rate of wages increased, the best nurses were enticed away by better pay elsewhere, and Westminster had gradually come to be nursed by a lower and lower class, and, indeed, 30 years ago it was not an unheard of thing to convict a nurse of herself consuming

brandy ordered for a patient. The medical staff were obliged to make a stand against this crying evil, and at last, with the assistance of Sir Rutherford, and in spite of the determined opposition of the then senior physician, Dr. Basham, a change was made, and the cost of the nursing was doubled at a bound. It is only fair to say that as soon as the success of the changes became evident, Dr. Basham, generous gentleman as he was, expressed at the Board his regret at his previous opposition, and his surprise at and recognition of the vast improvement that had taken place, both in the nurses and in the nursing.

Sir Rutherford Alcock was the son of an eminent medical practitioner in London. That he resembled his father is testified by the portrait of Thomas Alcock by Inskip, which has recently been presented by Lady Alcock to the Royal College of Surgeons, and which now adorns the College walls. He was born at Ealing on May 17th, 1809, and baptised the next day, as he was considered too delicate a baby to live. As he grew up he was, for the same reason, thought not to be strong enough for Westminster School, and was educated at a private school at Hexham, in Northumberland. At the age of 16 he went to Paris for two years, and obtained that intimate knowledge of the French language which was afterwards so invaluable to him. Here also he learned modelling, and subsequently executed an excellent series of anatomical models which still find, or did until quite lately, a place in the medical museum in Edinburgh.

Alcock's further medical education was obtained in London, and his hospital practice was attended at the Westminster Hospital, his first connection with that institution dating back to 70 years ago. Here he soon became an ally of Mr. Guthrie, and under his auspices also attended the practice of the Royal Westminster Ophthalmic Hospital.

The Secretary has kindly furnished me with the following abstract from the minutes of the weekly board of the Westminster Hospital of the 18th of February, 1829:—"Mr. Rutherford Alcock is introduced by Sir Anthony Carlisle to the Board as the House Surgeon, recommended by the surgeons for the ensuing year, and is approved by the Board. The list of surgical instruments signed by Mr. Smith as

delivered over by him is signed by Mr. Alcock as correct." On February 10th, 1830, there is a minute of the appointment of a Mr. Blakeney as Mr. Alcock's successor. These entries are interesting as showing that the house surgeoncy 68 years ago was held for twelve months, and that a legal qualification was not required, as is now the case. Mr. Alcock did not obtain the membership of the College of Surgeons until 1831. It is believed that subsequently to holding the house surgeoncy at Westminster he was appointed for six months to the house surgeoncy of the Royal Westminster Ophthalmic Hospital.

It was probably under the influence of Guthrie, who had himself been a distinguished army surgeon, that Alcock was led to seek employment and valuable experience in active service, and he obtained an appointment on the medical staff of the Marine Brigade of the British Auxiliary forces, which were enrolled in 1832 for service in the Peninsula to support Maria II. of Portugal against the Miguelists, and later to uphold Isabella II. in Spain against the Carlists, in accordance with the terms of the Quadruple Alliance of 1832-7. In this campaign Alcock gained considerable distinction, and for his courage and ability he was appointed aide-de-camp to General Sir de Lacy Evans, and subsequently received numerous decorations from the English, Spanish, and Portuguese Governments. He retired from the service in 1837 with the rank of Deputy Inspector-General of Hospitals, but was employed on the two mixed commissions which sat in London to settle the claims of the British naval and military auxiliary forces on the Spanish and Portuguese Governments.

Whilst at home after this campaign, Alcock worked at surgery. He twice obtained the Jacksonian Prize at the College of Surgeons—in 1839 for his dissertation on "The Nature, Symptoms, and Treatment of Concussion of the Brain, and the other forms of Cerebral Injury from External Violence," and in 1841 for a remarkable essay on "Injuries of the Thorax and Operations on its Parieties." In December, 1843, he was included in the list of London surgeons on whom the newly created Fellowship of the College of Surgeons was conferred. There is also in existence the letter

in which he offered himself for the post of Lecturer on Surgery in the Medical School that was being formed in connection with Westminster Hospital. Had he succeeded in this candidature Alcock's career might have been very different to what it was. There was, however, coming on a more potent cause for his early retirement from the active practice of surgery. From repeated exposure during the latter part of the Peninsular campaign, he was laid up for many months at San Sebastian with an acute attack of rheumatic fever. His hands suffered especially from the severe affection, and after his return home they gradually became more and more crippled, until at last it became evident that they ceased to be fitted for the precise manipulations of surgery.

This forced retirement from the profession he loved so well left Alcock free to accept in 1844, amongst the first batch of consuls appointed, the post of British Consul at Amoy, in China, one of the ports which the Treaty of Nanking of 1842 had thrown open to foreign commerce. This was a new field for his energies, and it has been well said that Alcock's medical training and educated powers of observation, as well as the experience in dealing with men which he had gained in the Peninsula, well fitted him, like that other great medical diplomatist, Sir John Kirk, to preside over and direct the opening up of new countries for the development of commerce. Amoy was soon exchanged for Foochow, and his success there led to his promotion to the post of Consul at Shanghai in 1846, and to the still more important post at Canton in 1858.

Alcock possessed a vigorous energy and a somewhat bellicose individuality, which served him in good stead in every post that he occupied, and well fitted him to deal with and overcome the turbulent elements which surrounded him. Whilst at Shanghai he was brought face to face with the Taeping Rebellion. This came to a head in 1853, and the European settlement was for some time in considerable danger. The energy and resource of Alcock was of great service in organising measures of defence, and though the Chinese city fell into the hands of the rebels, all attack on the European quarter ceased. During his residence at

Shanghai he originated the foreign inspectorship of Customs there, an institution which, hotly resisted at first by both natives and Europeans, subsequently exercised efficient control. After the termination of the rebellion he also reorganised the municipal government of the town, which had been originally put into form by his predecessor, Captain Balfour, and on account of which Shanghai had become known as the "Model Settlement."

Alcock's appointment to Canton in 1858 was speedily followed by his transfer to Japan in 1859. By the Treaty of Yedo, Lord Elgin secured for England important commercial privileges in that country, and Alcock was selected for the post of Consul-General. He was soon after transferred from the Consular to the Diplomatic service, and appointed Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary, being the first English minister appointed to Japan. Here his Chinese experience was the reverse of serviceable to him, and he soon found that the position of the members of the Legation at Yedo had become most precarious owing to the fanatical dislike of the natives to Europeans; and in 1862, in consequence of an armed attack, the Embassy was removed to Yokohama, where the Japanese had first attempted to place it. With reference to the *émeute* which brought about this removal, Mr. William Anderson, F.R.C.S., who was with Alcock in Japan, tells us that the Government of Japan was in a bad state. Yedo was the seat of the Shôgun, a Generalissimo who was the last of a long line of usurpers who had relegated the true sovereign to the position of a mere legal puppet, and continued to hold the great provincial barons in a state of strongly-resented subjection. It was no place for the foreigner, beset as it was by rival factions, and subject to the capricious violence of mutinous malcontents, who hated above all things the "red-haired barbarians" of whom the peace-loving Briton was a type. It was not long before that a party of free lances, detached from their employment as *Samurai*, or militiamen, in the service of one or other of the feudal barons, perpetrated a murderous attack on the British Legation, but fortunately without any important result. A year later a party of English, riding on the high-road between Yedo and Kioto, came in the way of the

cortège of the Daimio of Satsuma, the most powerful of the subject barons, and were attacked, one of them being done to death in cowardly fashion. It was such attacks as these that Alcock had to meet, and his energy and readiness were worthy of all praise. After the murder of one of his party, Alcock rose to the occasion, and by his advice an indemnity of £100,000 was demanded from the Government of the Shôgun, and £20,000 from the Daimio of Satsuma. The former sum was obtained, but the Daimio, proving recalcitrant, his chief town, Kagoshima, was bombarded by the British ships till he was brought to a due sense of his responsibility. This sturdy reprisal was supported by the Government at home, and Mr. Alcock was gazetted K.C.B. in 1862 immediately afterwards.

Two years later, in 1864, in consequence of the closing of the Straits of Shimonosaki, and the hostile demonstrations against European vessels, it became necessary for a united English, French, and American squadron to bombard the Japanese forts. This step, which again was taken at the instigation of Sir Rutherford Alcock, gave the deathblow to Japanese hostility, as it resulted in the deposition of the Shôgun and the re-establishment of the Emperor as the head of the State. It was gratifying to Alcock that when his mission in Japan came to an end relations of a more friendly character had been established.

Amid all these stormy times and fanatical attacks Alcock was making a study of the language and people of Japan, and not unmindful of the beauties of the country and of the form of art peculiar to the Japanese. He may be said to have been the pioneer in the modern exploration of Japan. It has been pointed out by Sir Clement Markham, the President of the Royal Geographical Society, that in its journals are to be found valuable records of journeys undertaken by him in the interior of the country. In the volume for 1861 the journey described included an ascent of the great mountain Fusiyama, so familiar to all admirers of Japanese productions, and a visit to the sulphur baths of Atania; and in the volume for 1862 there is an interesting account of a journey from Nagasaki to Yedo, and a description of the commercial city of Osaki. So impressed was Alcock by the

beauty and variety of their art, that he vigorously pointed out to the Japanese the great advantage it would be to them to exhibit specimens of it in the great International Exhibition in London in 1862, and so keen was he that this idea should be successfully carried into effect that he himself chose the specimens to be exhibited, and even paid the greater part of the expense out of his own pocket. This was the first real introduction of Japanese wares into England, and as a result the taste for this graceful oriental art rapidly spread over the West, and it was largely due to Alcock that Japan now reaps the benefit of the successful introduction of their art products as articles of commerce into every country in Europe.

In 1865 Sir Rutherford Alcock was transferred to Peking, and was succeeded in Japan by a former subordinate, Sir Harry Smith Parkes, whose name will also long be remembered in the East. As Minister Plenipotentiary in China Sir Rutherford became the chief superintendent of trade in that country, and had a wide but difficult field of administration. The most satisfactory part of his work was the fostering and developing the Customs department, which he himself had founded, as before mentioned, at Shanghai. This had grown into importance, and was soon sufficiently developed for transplantation to Peking, and now that the Customs had been made responsible for the indemnities that the treaties had secured, the British and French Governments combined in putting on a proper footing what has become the organised institution of "The Imperial Maritime Customs." In this work Sir Rutherford was entirely successful. He remained at his post for nearly six years, and in 1871 retired, on a well-earned pension, from foreign service.

Sir Rutherford Alcock was twice married—first to the daughter of Charles Bacon, of London, who died during his Consulate at Shanghai, and secondly, in 1862, to the widow of Mr. Lowder, formerly chaplain at Shanghai.

During his service in the Peninsula and his residence in the East, Sir Rutherford was, as always, active with his pen. In 1838 he was the author of "Notes on the Medical History of the British Legion in Spain." In 1861 he published the

"Elements of Japanese Grammar." In 1863 a more ambitious work, "The Capital of the Tycoon," appeared, and in 1868, "Familiar Dialogues in Japanese." "The Capital of the Tycoon" is a standard work, and contains much valuable information about the condition and customs of Japan before its transformation in a European direction. His facile pen did not desert him on his return to England, for in 1876 he wrote a concluding chapter to the "Journal of Augustus Margary," and in 1868 he further utilised the knowledge he had gained in Japan by writing "Art and Art Industries of Japan," in which he highly extolled the Japanese artistic methods.

On Sir Rutherford's return to this country his active habits led him at once to throw himself into many philanthropic pursuits, of which the improvement of the public health seemed to occupy the first place. He immediately joined the Boards of his old hospitals, and at once found a congenial field for his activity. At the Westminster Hospital, from 1871 to within eighteen months of his death, he served on the Board with the greatest regularity, and gave unstintingly his wonderful energy, his ripe experience, and untiring devotion to its affairs. There were few committees during those years on which Sir Rutherford did not find a place, and no member of the Board was more completely conversant with the hospital business. For his able and constant services he was, in 1877, elected a Vice-President, and in that capacity he most usually occupied the chair of the committees as well as of the Board.

Sir Rutherford also took much interest in, and was chairman of, the committee of the Nursing Home, which was founded by the late Lady Augusta Stanley, and subsequently enlarged into the "Westminster Training Home for Nurses" as a fitting memorial of that august lady. In his capacity as chairman of the Home he came into collision with most of his colleagues of the Hospital Board, when the nursing department, in common with those of most of the London hospitals, made an effort for independence. The unanimous declaration of the medical staff was the obvious one that the nursing was an important part of the medical treatment, and could not be independent. Fortunately, after six months'

warfare, a *modus vivendi* was discovered and a new matron appointed, and doctors and nurses have worked harmoniously since.

Sir Rutherford also joined the committee of the Royal Westminster Ophthalmic Hospital, King William Street, Strand, and his zeal soon led to his appointment, in 1876, as chairman, in succession to the late Lord Josceline Percy, a post which he held for sixteen years and a half, much to the advantage of the institution. Residing in Westminster, he took immense interest and an active part in the work of the Western Dispensary, and in the Westminster Board of Guardians. He was also chairman of the Hospital for Women in Soho Square, and a member of the council of the neighbouring House of Charity for assisting those who have once been better off, a most useful institution not known nearly as widely as it deserves.

In 1876 the University of Oxford conferred upon him the honorary degree of D.C.L., and in the same year he was elected President of the Royal Geographical Society, a post which he held for two years. He served on the council of the Society for the long period of 20 years, and the President, Sir Clement Markham, in speaking of him a few days after his death, said: "Judicious, patient, and courteous, he was esteemed by us all, and his able advice helped us out of many a difficulty. The period of his presidency will always be remembered for the energy with which he advocated African exploration, the result of his efforts being represented by the memorable expeditions of Joseph Thomson."

Not only as President of the Geographical Society, but as chairman of the African Exploration Fund, he took part in the labours which resulted in the despatch of Mr. Keith Johnstone and Mr. Joseph Thomson to East Africa, and by bringing the latter into notice brought about important results in the direction of opening up that part of the African Continent.

In 1878 Sir Rutherford served as British Commissioner at the Paris Exhibition. In 1881 he sat on the Royal Commission appointed in that year to investigate the London Small-pox and Fever Hospitals, and in 1882 he presided over the Health Department of the Social Science Congress.

Another important service rendered by him to British enterprise abroad was as the first chairman of the British North Borneo Company, in the formation of which he had taken much interest.

This long list of active work and merited honours shows at once the breadth and versatility of Sir Rutherford Alcock's benevolent usefulness, his wide sympathies, and the deserving regard in which he was held. That he was held in high estimation and by the highest in the land is well shown by the fact that when the Queen determined to decorate some chosen deserving nurses in commemoration of her jubilee, attaching them to the old Royal Foundation of St. Katherine's Hospital, Her Majesty applied to Sir Rutherford Alcock to draw up the regulations and rules to guide the selection. This service Sir Rutherford was proud to undertake, only requesting permission to associate with himself for this purpose Sir James Paget and the Duke of Westminster. It is according to the rules drawn up by these three distinguished men that "The Queen's Jubilee Nurses" are from year to year appointed.

There only remains in conclusion to sum up the qualities which conduced to this very remarkable and highly successful career. There cannot be a doubt that Sir Rutherford Alcock possessed, in a high degree, all those characteristics which are essential to success in a public man—ability and energy, perseverance and the faculty of taking pains, courage and determination, pugnacity and a conspicuous courtesy and generosity, and last, but not least, a readiness to accept responsibility. It is the men who are thus endowed that are the real benefactors of the human race, and who as makers of history most advantageously serve their country. The combination of all these qualities is rare, and we must the more regret the departure from amongst us of one who possessed them all. The Medical School of Westminster will do itself honour if it permanently attaches the name of the most distinguished pupil of the Westminster Hospital to one of its scholarships.

A visit to Moscow

STURGES LECTURE.

*Delivered before the Guthrie Society, Westminster Hospital,
November 11th, 1897.*

BY GEORGE COWELL, F.R.C.S.,
Vice-President and Consulting Surgeon of the Hospital.

My first duty, gentlemen, is to thank you for the honour that you have conferred upon me in inviting me this year to read the Sturges Lecture before the Guthrie Society. It is an honour and privilege that I thoroughly appreciate.

I have a lively recollection of the great interest that the late Dr. Sturges took in the founding of the Society. I remember, too, that he occupied the presidential chair during the first two years of its existence, and thus fostered its early infancy in a way that no other man could have done. He fixed upon the Society the impress of his great modesty of mind, his love of truth, his refinement of diction, his charity of judgment, his liberal-hearted toleration, and his deep devotion to scientific observation and research. All these qualities the Society inherits, as it were, from Sturges; and the Sturges Lecture, I take it, was founded as an expression of esteem and gratitude on the part of the members to keep alive the example he held up to us, to impress upon us again and again the motives and principles of action which he taught us, and to keep green the remembrance of the affection in which he was held by all who were proud to be his fellow-students in the art and science which he loved so well. His departure from amongst us is at present too recent for it to be necessary for me further to speak of him. In a few years' time the Sturges Lecturer will have the grateful task of using what eloquence he possesses to make Sturges known to succeeding members of this Society; men who have not had the advantage and happiness of his personal acquaintance, a possession which is a very real one to most of us who are present to-night.

Gentlemen, three years ago I had the honour of representing Westminster Hospital at the eleventh International Medical Congress at Rome, and this summer I again had the gratification of being appointed the delegate of Westminster Hospital at the twelfth International Medical Congress, which was held in Moscow in the month of August last. These International Medical Congresses are held triennially, and are always of great and varied interest. They permit of intercourse between physicians and surgeons of different nationalities, and so far curb our British insularity that they teach us to recognise that there are other and often better scientific methods than those that are familiar to us; and that in many of the hospitals abroad there are forms of construction and arrangement, and principles of government, which are in some respects better than our own, and from which we may obtain ideas which may often be applied with great advantage to the institutions at home in which we happen to be interested. It occurred to me, therefore, when I received your kind invitation to deliver the Sturges Lecture, that some account of my visit to the Moscow Congress would not fail to interest the Society, and I was glad to find that this subject was acceptable to the Committee.

A visit to the Russian cities and the Russian people adds a great charm of novelty to the dry details of the Congress itself. The hugeness of the country, the length and difficulties of the journey, the irritating passport and customs arrangements are all deterrents to the ordinary traveller; and when I tell you that I travelled over 4,000 miles of railways in the journey there and back, you will see that it is not a light expedition to undertake. It is true that those who enjoy the sea can go direct to St. Petersburg in excellent steamers, but my previous journeys by sea have not been in all respects satisfactory, and I regard them with mixed feelings. The route I adopted was that by rail *viâ* Berlin and Warsaw, leaving St. Petersburg to be visited on my return. The interest begins with the arrival of the train at the Russian frontier town of Alexandrowo at half-past one in the morning. No one was permitted to leave the train until the Government officials had collected the passports, which

it had been necessary for English people to have *viséed* by the Russian Consul in London before starting. The passports collected, we all left the train, carrying our small luggage with us. These packages we had to place on the platform side by side, and the passengers were so numerous that the line of packages extended the platform's length. The customs examination was radical and complete, and many travellers had some of their bags turned inside out upon the platform in the most unceremonious manner. Doubtless it was imagined that Congressists, as they were called, travelled with a choice selection of bombs concealed in their luggage. It had been rumoured that the luggage of the congressists would not be examined, so there was an element of surprise in the treatment we received. When our small packages were re-arranged, they were not allowed to be returned to the carriages, but we had still to wait the removal from the train of the registered luggage which was similarly examined in a room behind the platform. This also was done in a merciless manner. Ladies who showed the least reluctance to having the careful packing of their dresses disturbed had everything turned out upon the floor, and had to go down upon their knees, tired as they were, to entirely repack their boxes. Fortunately, two hours were allowed for the stoppage at this station, but the scene was a perfect pandemonium whilst it lasted. Besides these fiscal troubles, tickets had to be obtained, money changed, and luggage re-registered all without knowing one word of the Russian language. At last we successfully re-established ourselves in our carriages, and refreshed ourselves with Russian tea or "Tchai," served with a slice of lemon instead of milk. The crowded train was kept waiting long after the appointed time for starting, but at last we received back our passports from the hard-worked officials. Officialism is even more in evidence in Russia than it is in Germany, and soon after leaving the frontier we discovered, as indeed we expected, that the train had been taken over by Russian officers, one of whom soon made his rounds to inspect the tickets, accompanied by two armed attendants. We could hardly help wondering what would have happened had any of the passengers been without a ticket.

Warsaw was reached soon after 8 a.m., and we found our way to the only really good hotel in the town, and were fortunate enough, after long waiting, to secure a good room. The chief hotels in the large towns in Russia are very good. All others are according to English notions very bad. The best rooms are expensive, but food in Russia is cheap and wholesome; and as one is not obliged to take all one's meals in the hotels, and as payment for all meals is made at the time, there is every facility for visiting some of the best restaurants. This is in itself an opportunity which should not be neglected for studying the manners and customs of the people.

There is not much to interest one in Warsaw. Formerly the capital of the kingdom of Poland, it is now swallowed up in Russia, with a garrison of Russian soldiers and Russian police, and with the names of all its streets posted up in the Russian language as well as in Polish. The Vistula here is a fine broad river, and with a good iron bridge across it of considerable span. The best view of Warsaw is on the other side from the right bank of the river. On crossing the bridge for the sake of this view, on one of the two days that we spent at Warsaw, we passed a poor fellow with irons upon his wrists and ankles, and carrying his small bundle, a prisoner on his way to Siberia, with little chance of escape, for he was guarded by six police officers with drawn swords in their hands. I could not hear what his crimes had been, but he looked a determined fellow, and was taken probably for some political offence. The police appear to be always on the lookout for entertainment. We were told that they had seized upon two young congressists who were trying to find their way about Warsaw by means of a map. The official at the police station, however, understood their explanations, restored their map, apologised, and shook hands in the light and airy manner of one who has conferred a favour.

Two-thirds of the people in Warsaw are Jews, and it is curious to see them in crowds about the streets, the men in very long coats reaching to their heels, and many of the women in wigs. They inhabit the old parts of the town, and some of the streets in this old part are very picturesque and always visited. The Royal Castle near the bridge, some of

the churches, and the Jewish synagogues are well worth seeing.

The journey from Warsaw to Moscow was a very long one, and took 31 hours. We had two Warsaw doctors in our carriage, who could speak German and some Russian, and proved themselves agreeable as well as useful fellow-travellers. The journey was full of incident, but it would take too long to enter into details. Suffice it to say that Moscow was reached two hours and a half late, after a most tedious journey. We were, indeed, glad to find ourselves installed in a delightful room, which had been obtained for us by the British Consul in Moscow, in the Hotel Continental in a large open square in the very centre of the city. We congratulated ourselves that we had taken the precaution to time our arrival two days before the opening of the Congress, for we afterwards found that the train was later still the next day, and that many later arrivals found great difficulty in recovering their luggage and securing their rooms, and that even hours were spent by some in finding quarters, so great was the scramble in coping with the difficulties of language and the intricacies of the Russian railway system.

Early as we had arrived, we yet missed one function which was connected with the Congress, but not of it. It was the unveiling on the previous Sunday of a statue to Pirozoff, the great surgeon of the Russian army in the Crimea. It was originally intended that the statue should have been unveiled during the Congress and in the presence of its members, but the programme of the Congress was so filled up that a day could not be found, and it was unveiled in the presence only of the officials and doctors of Moscow. It is erected in front of one of the pavilions of the new Clinical Hospital, and is a noble presentment of almost the only great Russian surgeon with whose name we are familiar.

This will be a good place in my lecture in which to speak of this new Clinical Hospital, for it is now one of the features of Moscow. I confess that I went to Russia not at all expecting to find things up to date. I was agreeably surprised to find in Warsaw, Moscow, and St. Petersburg that in scientific matters the Russians are very much up to date. We found the hotels, streets, and shops lighted with electric light or

incandescent gas; we found trams, electric and otherwise, running with frequency and regularity in the principal thoroughfares; we found the crowded crossings capitally regulated by the police, often by mounted police, just as they are in our own metropolis; and last, but not least, and it is an improvement that we might well imitate, the butchers' shops, which are generally anything but sightly, removed from the crowded streets and relegated to their proper place—the markets. Hospitals, too, are not behind our own, and in this Clinical Hospital, which I desire to describe to you, the Russian Government puts this country to shame.

These cliniques are attached to the University of Moscow, and are built some three miles away from the centre but within the walls of the city, on an open, healthy space called the Plain of the Virgin (*Diévitchié Polé*). The buildings cover an area of some 50 acres, and almost form a village of themselves. They have been open some seven or eight years. There is a church, and the hospitals are built in separate blocks, some distance apart, each block containing a series of small wards constructed to contain 10, 8, 4, or 2 beds each, with a few isolation wards of one bed only. The total number of beds is nearly 700. The wards are heated by hot water coils arranged round the walls. There are plenty of windows for light and ventilation, and beds are arranged away from the walls in the centre, as it were, of the various sections of the room. Electric lighting is adopted throughout, and there is complete telephonic communication between the various buildings. In each of these hospitals, the smaller ones being set apart for different specialities, are every conceivable appliance, electrical, hygienic, analytical, and bacteriologic. The corridors are a great feature of these hospitals, and are broad and lofty with plenty of windows, and at once serve as promenades for both patients and nurses, and also as dining rooms, there being ingeniously arranged movable tables for this purpose. I saw one of the corridors set out for a meal in this way, not for patients, but for a few congressists, who had been put up in some of the rooms of the hospital and had just been breakfasting. I ought to say that these clinical hospitals are always closed to patients during the hot months of July and August.

In addition to these hospitals, there are, in separate blocks, museums, laboratories, and lecture theatres, in addition to the laboratories and perfect operation theatres of the various hospitals, in the situation and construction of all of which light has rightly been made an important consideration. The out-patient clinics also are most commodious, and fitted up in a very complete manner. I certainly did not expect to find in Moscow one of the most perfect clinics that exists, and I was curious to see how the University could have found the money to achieve so much. The elaborate description of these clinics which was distributed amongst the members of the Congress tells us, however, that private munificence provided the greater part of the money expended, but that the Government, recognising the paramount importance of making the training and education of doctors for the service of the community as perfect and efficient as possible, supplemented these private gifts, and the result is a most perfect series of clinics erected at the cost of upwards of £500,000. The Government also accentuated the enlightened view they take of this necessity by making an annual grant of £42,000 for the maintenance of these splendid buildings. All this munificence affords a great contrast to the niggardly way in which the Government and the public treat medical education in this country, where the medical schools are looked upon as private ventures, which must depend upon those who teach in them, and cannot possibly be of any interest or importance to the Government or to the community.

The opening of the Congress on Thursday afternoon, August 19th, in the Grand Imperial Theatre was a picturesque sight. The Grand Duke Sergius Alexandrovitch, the uncle of the Czar and Governor of Moscow, presided, and the 2,000 who gained admission out of the 7,000 members of the Congress had to attend in uniform or evening dress. There were speeches by the officials, and by one member from most of the countries represented, and therefore the proceedings were somewhat polyglot. After the formal business three very interesting addresses were given respectively by Professor Rudolf Virchow, of Berlin, on "The Part of the Blood Vessels in Inflammation"; by Dr. Lauder Brunton, of London, on "The Relation between Physiology, Pharmacology,

Pathology, and Practical Medicine"; and by Professor Lannelongue, of Paris, on "The Treatment of Surgical Tuberculoses in General."

All that was most interesting in the various sections of the Congress has already been published in the medical journals, but you will expect me to give you some idea of Moscow, which, next to Rome, is the most interesting city in Europe. The peasants call it "Our Holy Mother Moscow," for it possesses 9 cathedrals, 484 churches, and 22 monasteries, and is 24 miles in circumference. As nearly all these churches have domes or minarets or spires, overlaid with metal richly gilded or bronzed, or coloured with green or blue or red, the bright colours and the gold and bronze glisten in the sun. We had bright sun all the time that we were in Moscow, as it was intensely dry and hot, the temperature being every day 103° in the shade. These bright and coloured domes then, contrasting as they do with the white walls and buildings around them, give to the city a most eastern and picturesque appearance. Its walls and gates, and buildings and customs, are full of interest, and still bear the impress of the Tartar occupation of the city, notwithstanding the space of time that has elapsed and the great fire which destroyed so much of Moscow at the time of Napoleon's invasion of Russia in 1812. The central attraction of Moscow is its Kremlin or fortress, which is a city in itself, and is surrounded by high walls of brick, with numerous picturesque towers dating from the 14th and 15th centuries, many of them being the work of Italian architects. There are many gates to the Kremlin, all of which are more or less historically interesting or sacred. The principal entrance is called the Spasköi Vorsta, the Gate of the Redeemer, and was built at the end of the 15th century. It is of a red colour, with green spire and pinnacles. Over this gate is the famous picture or Icon of the Redeemer of Smolensk. It is one of the three holy pictures of Moscow, and it is visited by upwards of 10,000 persons every day. It has become famous from the legends that are told, and implicitly believed by the people, of the way in which it has always defended itself miraculously from foreign invaders. The Tartars thought its frame was of gold, and tried to remove it, but every ladder they used broke in the

middle. The French brought a cannon to destroy it, and the weapon burst in the attempt. At the time of the deliverance of Russia from the Poles, this picture of the Redeemer was carried before the victorious army. No one is allowed to pass through the gate and under the picture without removing his hat. An omission to uncover the head was anciently punishable with fifty compulsory prostrations. Strangers have been roughly handled if they ventured to break through this rule, and it is well to comply with it as the Czar himself does so. In fact, when the Czar and Czarina drive through this gate on their way to the Palace in the Kremlin, they alight from their carriage and kneel before the holy Icon. The only other gate that I will mention is the Nicholas Gate with the miraculous image of St. Nicholas of Mojaisk. Oaths were formerly administered to litigants before this image. This gate was partly destroyed by order of Napoleon, when, according to an inscription above it, it escaped with only a rent, which split the tower in the middle as far as the frame of the picture, but neither the glass of the picture nor even that of the lamp suspended before it, was injured. The Tower of Ivan the Great, the *Velika*, or Bell Tower, is the highest tower of the Kremlin, and from it a fine view of Moscow is obtained. It is said to have been built in the year 1600 by the Czar Boris Godunof. It is 325 feet in height, and contains 35 bells, the largest of which weighs 64 tons. All these bells are rung at Easter, followed by every bell in Moscow, producing, it is said, a wonderful effect. Russia is the country of bells, and the art of casting them was known in Russia in the 14th century. The largest bell in the world, the *Tsar Kolokol*, or Emperor of Bells, as it is called, lies on the ground near the foot of this tower with a large piece broken out of it. It is, including the ball and cross at the top of it, 26 feet high, its circumference is 67 feet, and its maximum thickness 2 feet. It was a happy thing for the inhabitants of Moscow that this bell could never be hung.

Amongst the churches in the Kremlin, there are three cathedrals, much smaller than we are accustomed to in the West, but teeming with interest. They are the Cathedral of the Assumption, where the Czars are crowned; the Cathedral

of the Annunciation, where they are baptised and married; and the Cathedral of St. Michael, where, in former times, they were buried, but since the time of Peter the Great they have been buried in the fortress church at St. Petersburg. There is much that is common to all these churches. They are of Italian architecture, a mixture of Byzantine and Lombard, much on the model of the cathedral at Vladimir. Each of them has five domes splendidly gilded, the central dome being the larger, and supported on four solid round pillars. Within the churches, the pillars and walls are covered with gold and frescoes. In the Church of the Assumption many of the Patriarchs of Moscow are buried. The screen or Iconastos, which is a blaze of gold and silver covering the sacred pictures, stretches across, separating the altar from the body of the church. This arrangement is peculiar to the Eastern Church. In this screen are three gates or entrances which are used by the clergy during the celebration of the Mass, but which are closed, and the veil drawn during the consecration of the elements. The music at Mass is entirely vocal and very beautiful. The epistle and gospel are curiously intoned by the Deacon, apparently chosen for the deep character of his voice, who begins on a very deep note and gradually rises chromatically at each clause, getting louder and louder until he finishes almost in a shriek. The effect is curious to Western ears. The liturgy in use is that of St. Chrysostom. There are no seats in a Russian church, and the people who crowd the churches remain standing for the whole service, which lasts generally for two or three hours, and indulge in numerous crossings and prostrations, some of them touching the ground with their foreheads. The sacred pictures on the Iconastos are much venerated, the faithful kissing them, and burning candles before them. Amongst these pictures in the Church of the Assumption are the four Evangelists and St. John the Baptist, and the still more sacred picture of the Holy Virgin of Vladimir, attributed to St. Luke. It came originally from Constantinople, and was brought to Moscow from Kief in 1155. In 1395 it is said to have exercised miraculous powers on the occasion of the flight of Tamerlane from Russia. In its gold covering and frame there are jewels that have been valued at £45,000, one

emerald alone being worth £10,000. In 1812, before Napoleon's invasion, it was carried by the Archbishop of Moscow to Vladimir with the other sacred pictures, and thus preserved. On the platform in the centre of the nave of this cathedral the Czars have been crowned from Ivan the Terrible to the present Czar, whose coronation was described in full in the papers less than two years ago. A grander sight could hardly be imagined than this ceremony. The Emperor is not a passive recipient as in Western countries, but is, as the late Dean Stanley tells us in his *History of the Eastern Church*, himself the principal figure in the whole scene; himself reciting aloud the confession of the Orthodox Faith; himself alone on his knees, amidst the assembled multitude, offering up the prayer of intercession for the Empire; himself placing his crown on his own head; himself entering through the sacred door of the innermost sanctuary, which, for this reason, receives the name of the Royal Gates, and taking from the altar the holy sacrament.

In the Cathedral of St. Michael, where the Czars are buried, the two most interesting tombs are those of the young Demetri, the son of Ivan the Terrible, who is supposed to have been murdered by Boris Godunof, who was subsequently elected Czar, and of Ivan the Terrible himself, who, in spite of his brutalities, lies buried next the altar. He it was who, in the 15th century, first took the title of Czar. He was noted for his cruelties, as well as for his pious zeal, and many of his most atrocious orders, Hare tells us, were given whilst he was on his knees in some act of devotion. Endless are the terrible stories told about him. It is said of him if, when walking out, he met any one whose appearance was displeasing, he would order his head to be struck off at once, and that he would let bears loose upon the crowds in the streets of Moscow for amusement. There is also a story told of an ambassador who had his hat nailed to his head because he did not remove it in his presence. He had seven wives, many of whom he poisoned, and it is said that he proposed to our Queen Elizabeth, who wisely declined the alliance. It is generally supposed that he died of grief for the death of his son Ivan, whom he had struck on the head with the same iron-pointed staff with which he is said

to have pinned to the ground the foot of the messenger who brought him the news of Prince Andrew Kowrbsky's having deserted to the Poles, leaning upon it whilst he read the letter.

In the Church of the Annunciation there is a beautiful pavement, given by a former Shah of Persia, of agate and jasper, upon which the marriage of the Czars are solemnized.

The Treasury contains precious relics which chronicle the history of the country. There are ancient armour and arms, Romanoff portraits, which include a picture of Catherine II. as a good-looking young man on horseback, in a blue coat, tight breeches, and a cocked hat. There are coronation chairs and coronation robes, the throne of Poland brought from Warsaw, and crowns and scepters innumerable. In other rooms there are superb collections of ancient gold and silver plate, including some handsome English plate presented to the Czars by our James I., Charles I., and James II.

Outside the Kremlin, not far from the Redeemer's Gate, there is a remarkable church, which is dedicated to St. Basil, and is a purely Tartar building. It has an octagon centre, mounted on a platform, with a spacious crypt beneath. It is surrounded by eight smaller octagons, all of them surmounted with cupolas of different colours and designs. The central octagon rises in a peculiar-shaped spire. It was built by Ivan the Terrible, who is said to have put out the eyes of the architect of this church when it was finished in order that he might not build another like it. Napoleon commanded that this church should be destroyed, but fortunately his orders were not carried out.

The largest church in Moscow is that of St. Saviour, which was erected to commemorate the deliverance of Russia from the French in 1812. The interior is well proportioned, and lined with the most costly marbles and modern frescoes. I was fortunate enough to see the Metropolitan of Moscow officiating in this church.

The fabulous sums spent by the Russians on their churches, and their reverence for their sacred pictures, impress one with the remarkable religious sentiment that pervades their life. Every railway station, every public

room, and even many a room in the hotels and houses, has its Icon, which receives a reverence from all who pass it. At frequented corners of the streets, and it must be remembered that the corner of a church or a room is the place of honour, there are small chapels erected containing a more or less ancient Icon, and here are always to be seen people, on their knees, in an attitude of devotion, and poor as many of them are, placing small alms in the boxes provided for that purpose. One of these small chapels is placed by the Sunday Gate, near the Kremlin, and contains one of the three most important sacred pictures of Moscow, that of the Iberian Mother. It was brought from Mount Athos in the time of the Czar Alexis. At all hours people are kneeling in this chapel, or on the steps in front of it, and no one passes by without doffing his hat in reverence. This picture has a carriage of its own, with four horses, and pays visits to weddings, to the sick, &c., for a gratuity of from 50 to 100 roubles (£6 to £11). The stipend of the Metropolitan of Moscow is mainly paid out of the alms presented to this picture.

Moscow is very rich in institutions for the care of the young, the deficient, and the infirm. Most of them are more or less on the lines of similar institutions in this country, but the Foundling Hospital in its questionable morality, its hugeness, and its principles of management, is peculiar to Russia. It was established 135 years ago, by Catherine II., and fostered by the Empress Marie. There have since been a long list of benefactors, whose portraits hang in the reception hall, and its income from State and other endowments amounts to nearly £100,000 annually, a large proportion of which sum is produced by the sale of playing cards, a Government monopoly. One wing contains a lying-in hospital, and it is said that nearly 2,000 women annually have recourse to its secret wards, and 200 to the few beds reserved for the very poor. The Foundling Hospital admits annually no less than 15,000 children, not secretly, but brought openly by their mothers or friends into a large hall, in which the only questions asked are whether the child has been baptised, and if so, by what name. The child is admitted and registered, and a number is attached round its neck and to

its cot, whilst a receipt, showing the same number, is given to the bearer of the child, who may claim it any time before it is 10 years old. The infant, after being washed and dressed in institution clothes, is handed to the woman who is first on the list of a number in waiting, and who becomes its foster-mother. These women are of the peasant class, and have not infrequently been the depositors of their own children at the hospital a few hours previously; but the majority, it is said, are mothers who have left their own children to be brought up by hand, tempted by the good fare and wages offered by the institution. Children who have not been baptised are christened the day after their admission, and receive the name of the saint presiding over the day in the Russian kalendar, and for a surname the name of the priest who officiates, with the addition of the "of" so familiar at the end of Russian names. At the end of four weeks, and having been vaccinated, the children, if strong and healthy, are sent, together with their nurses, to the villages to which the latter belong.

The nurses receive from 3s. 6d. to 7s. 6d. a month for the maintenance of the children, under the supervision of the doctor of the district. The mortality amongst these children is over 50 per cent. The parent establishment is well and regularly conducted, and the system is, medically speaking, perfect, there being distinct wards for almost every illness to which the children are liable, each fitted up in the newest and most approved manner. The rapidity with which the children are washed and dressed is remarkable. Particular attention is paid to the infants that have been prematurely born. They are placed in hollow copper bassinets, the sides and bottom of which are filled with hot water. Most of the boys are brought up to be soldiers or agricultural labourers. 150 of them are annually drafted to the Industrial School in Moscow, where they are taught various trades. Of the girls, some are received back at the hospital, and trained as nurses or midwives. Girls who marry before attaining their eighteenth year are provided with a wedding outfit. It appeared to me that the institution was open to much abuse, and that it was answerable for some of the immorality in Moscow and the surrounding

villages. There is a smaller but similar Foundling Hospital in St. Petersburg, so I suppose that these institutions meet a national want.

The principal monastery in Russia is the Troitsa. No visit to Russia would be complete without seeing it. It is about thirty miles from Moscow, and can now be reached by train. It was founded by St. Sergius in the 14th century, and is a fortress as well as a monastery, and successfully withstood for many months a determined siege by the Poles. Its walls are intact, and are more than two miles and a half in circumference, and they are twenty feet in thickness. Within the walls are two palaces, nine churches, an hospital, and a bazaar, besides, of course, the usual monastic buildings. The Troitsa Church, so called because it is dedicated to the Holy Trinity, contains the tomb of St. Sergius, composed of solid silver, weighing, we are told, 936 pounds. The pearls on the vestments and plate are said to be of more value than all the rest of the pearls in Europe. Not the least interesting items are the wooden chalice and paten, and the hair dress of the founder of the monastery. Another most interesting monastery that I visited was that of the New Jerusalem, about forty miles from Moscow. The chief object of interest is, of course, the principal church, which is an exact copy of the Church of the Holy Sepulchre at Jerusalem, just as it was, so far as the interior is concerned, in the time of Godfrey de Bouillon the Crusader.

At the end of our ten days in Moscow we attended a delightful garden party given to some of the members of the Congress by the Grand Duchess Serge. This lady is the daughter of the late Princess Alice, who married the Grand Duke of Hesse, and is therefore the grand-daughter of our Queen. She is, at the same time, the aunt by marriage of the Czar, and the elder sister of the Czarina. The Grand Duchess was most affable, and chatted in English, French, or German with her guests. We were received at a charming palace three miles out of Moscow, with a large garden extending to the banks of the River Moschra.

A night journey after this agreeable entertainment brought us to St. Petersburg, where we spent six days, and left it with regret to find our way home by Königsburg, Marienburg, Dantzic, and Berlin.

