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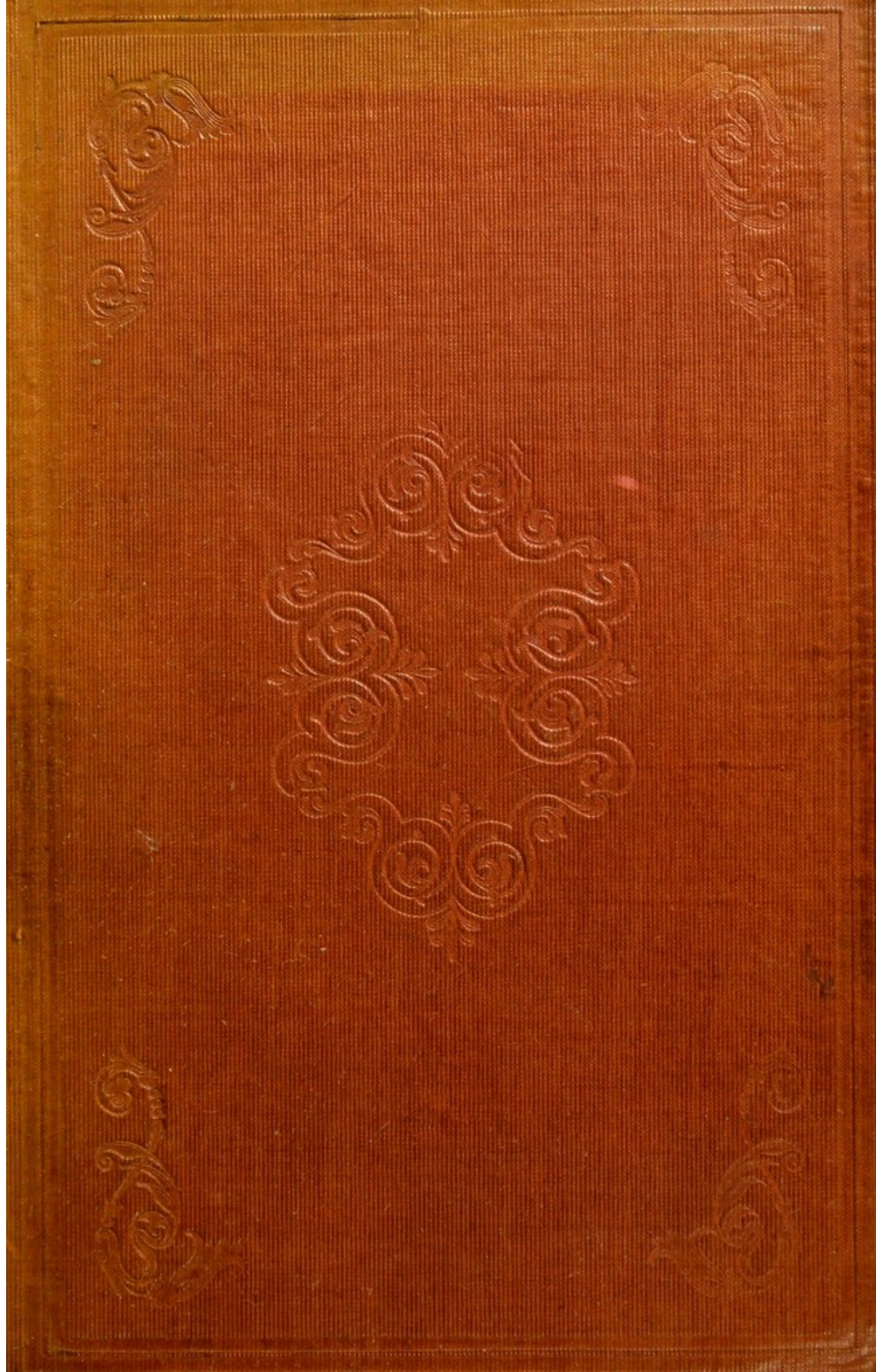
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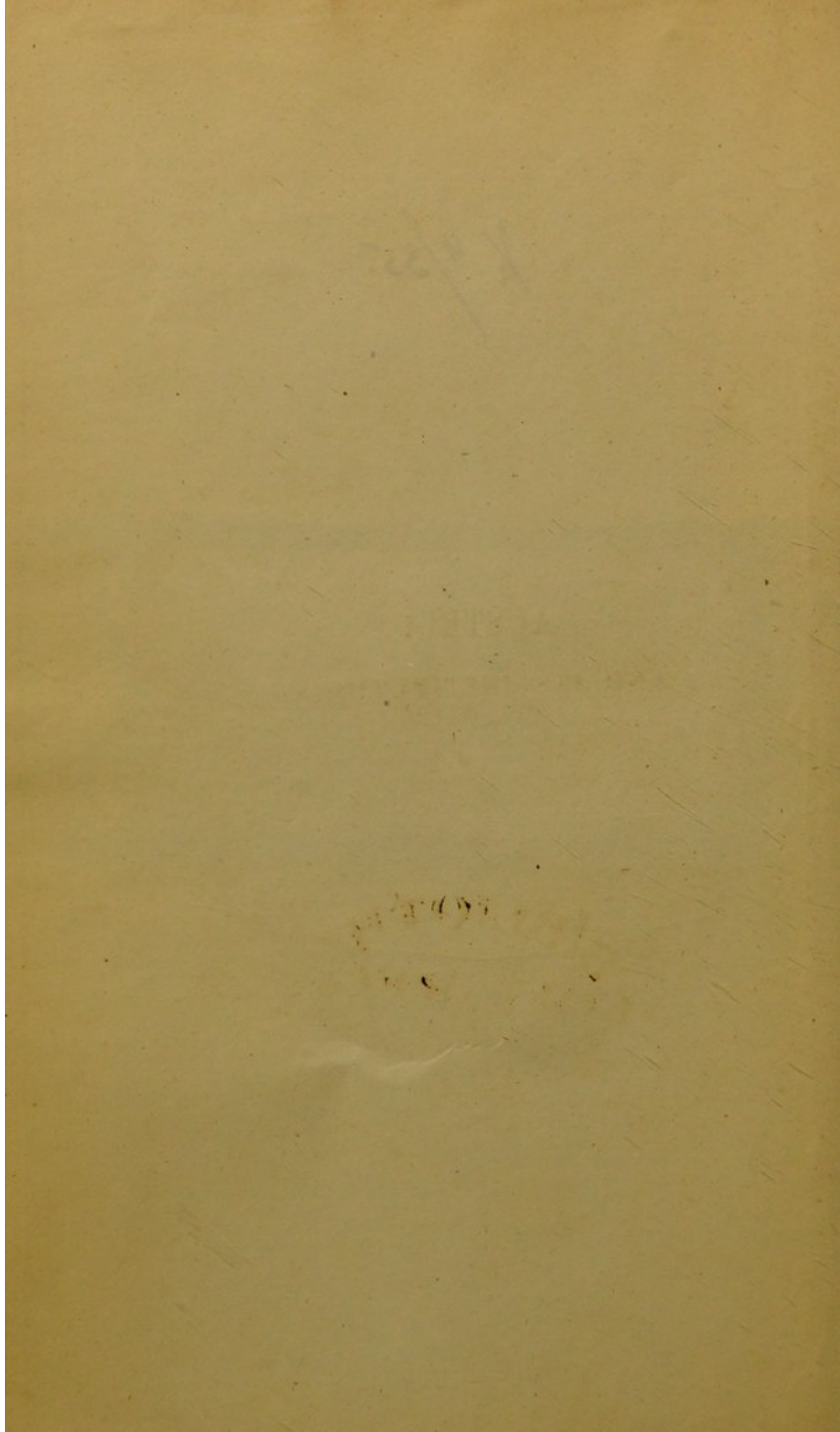
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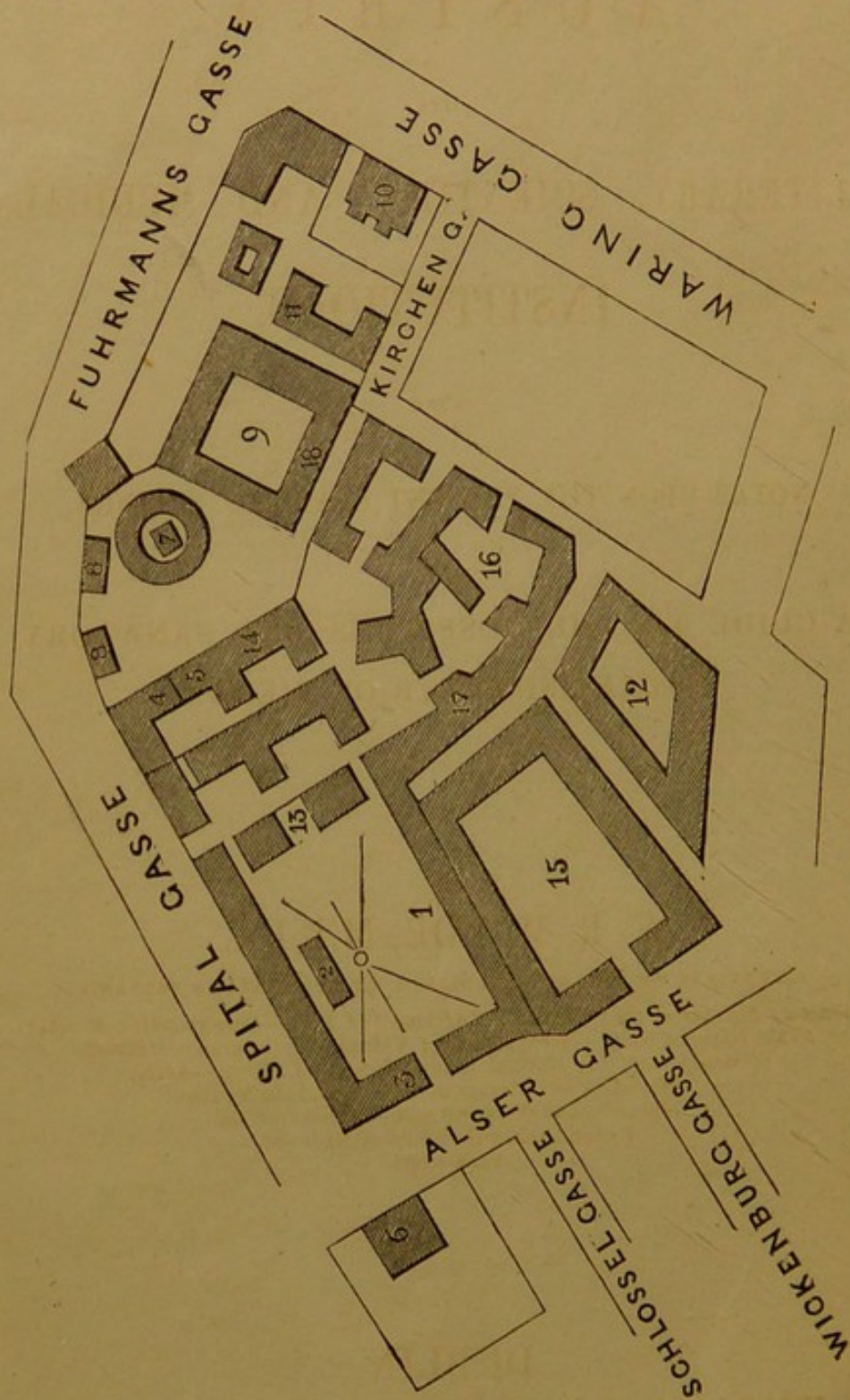
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PLAY OF THE GREAT KENNEDY HOSPITAL



- | | |
|-------------------------|-------------------------|
| 1. General Hospital | 1. General Hospital |
| 2. Medical Ward | 2. Medical Ward |
| 3. Surgical Ward | 3. Surgical Ward |
| 4. Obstetrical Ward | 4. Obstetrical Ward |
| 5. Paediatric Ward | 5. Paediatric Ward |
| 6. Mental Ward | 6. Mental Ward |
| 7. Dispensary | 7. Dispensary |
| 8. X-ray Department | 8. X-ray Department |
| 9. Pathology Department | 9. Pathology Department |
| 10. Laboratory | 10. Laboratory |
| 11. Pharmacy | 11. Pharmacy |
| 12. Radiology | 12. Radiology |
| 13. Histology | 13. Histology |
| 14. Microbiology | 14. Microbiology |
| 15. Immunology | 15. Immunology |
| 16. Biochemistry | 16. Biochemistry |
| 17. Nutrition | 17. Nutrition |
| 18. Endocrinology | 18. Endocrinology |
| 19. Hematology | 19. Hematology |
| 20. Oncology | 20. Oncology |

PLAN OF THE GREAT GENERAL HOSPITAL.



References.

- | | |
|-------------------------|-----------------------------|
| 1. General Hospital. | 10. Josephinum Academy. |
| 2. Medical Clinique. | 11. Surgical Academy. |
| 3. Surgical Do. | 12. Roth House. |
| 4. Ophthalmic Do. | 13. Church of the Hospital. |
| 5. Pathological Museum. | 14. Lazareth. |
| 6. Foundling Hospital. | 15. Infantry Barrack. |
| 7. Lunatic Asylum. | 16. Lying-in Hospital. |
| 8. Dead House. | 17. Skoda's Clinique. |
| 9. Military Hospital. | 18. Jäger's Clinique. |

A U S T R I A :

ITS

LITERARY, SCIENTIFIC, AND MEDICAL INSTITUTIONS.

WITH

NOTES UPON THE PRESENT STATE OF SCIENCE,

AND

A GUIDE TO THE HOSPITALS AND SANATORY
ESTABLISHMENTS OF VIENNA.

BY

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LITERARY, SCIENTIFIC, AND MEDICAL

INSTITUTION

NOTES FROM THE LITERARY, SCIENTIFIC, AND MEDICAL

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AND A LIST OF THE MEMBERS OF THE INSTITUTION

FOR THE YEAR 1841

BY J. S. FOLDS, SON, AND PATTON,

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1842

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1842

DUBLIN

PRINTED BY J. S. FOLDS, SON, AND PATTON,

5, Bachelor's-walk.

TO

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Field-Staff-Physician, and Professor of Ophthalmology in the Josephinum Academy
of Vienna; Knight of the Bavarian Order of St. Michael, &c. &c.

AND

ROBERT J. GRAVES, M.D.

Late Queen's Professor of the Institutes of Medicine to the School of Physic in
Ireland, &c. &c.

THIS LITTLE WORK

IS

GRATEFULLY INSCRIBED

BY

THEIR ADMIRING FRIEND AND PUPIL,

THE AUTHOR.

CONVICTS

FREDERICK J. LEECH, M.D.

ROBERT J. LEECH, M.D.

TWO VOLUMES

NEW YORK: J. B. LIPPINCOTT & CO.

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CONTENTS.

PAGES

CHAPTER I.

NATIONAL EDUCATION 1—17

Composition of the Austrian Empire—Public Instruction—Variety of Schools—Elementary Schools—Infant Schools—Superior Primary Schools—Repetition Schools—Effects of Austrian Instruction—Religious Education—Statistical Tables—Influence of race upon Education—Schools of Utility—Their Statistics—School of Mining at Schemnitz—Polytechnic Institutions.

CHAPTER II.

INTERMEDIATE INSTRUCTION 18—27

Gymnasiums—Character of their Education—Programme of the Course—Number of Gymnasiums in Austria—Lyceums—Theresianum Academy; its Instruction, Objects, and Effects—Military Education—Statistical Tables of General Education in Austria.

CHAPTER III.

SUPERIOR INSTRUCTION 28—58

Universities—University of Vienna; its origin, foundation, and early history—Van Swieten—Four Faculties—Philosophical Course—Lecturers and Professors—Theological Course—Law Studies—Faculty of Vienna; its early history—Division of Medical profession—Education of Doctors of Medicine and Surgery—Comparison with similar

instruction in this country—Character of Austrian Lectures and Lecturers—Physiology—Anatomy—Anatomical Museum—Botany—Dental Surgery—Public Museums, that for Mineralogy—Cabinet of Natural History—Examination of Students—Number of medical men in Vienna.

CHAPTER IV.

GENERAL PRACTITIONERS, PHARMACY, AND APOTHECARIES 59—75

Surgeon-barbers—Their education—Disabilities under which they labour—Present condition of Pharmacy in Austria—Price of medicines—The Pharmacy department—The Gremium laws—Regulations of Apothecaries—Pharmaceutical education—Master Apothecaries—Doctors of Chemistry—Regulations concerning the dispensing of medicines—Regulations between Apothecaries and Practitioners—Pharmacopœias—Comparison with Great Britain—Surgical Gremiums—Their privileges and organization.

CHAPTER V.

PRESENT STATE OF SCIENCE IN VIENNA 76—119

Character of the Austrian students—Amusement in Vienna—The Elysium—State of science in the capital—Want of an academy—Comparison between the labouring classes of Austria and Great Britain—The Danube Society—Leopold Academy—Efforts of Leibnitz to establish an Academy in Vienna—Klopstock—Hell—Von Hess—Petition of Viennese Literati in 1827—Its neglect—Efforts of Littrow—Gall and Mohs—Literary Societies—Present condition of Literature, and General Literary Statistics—State of the Arts—Mechanics' Institute.

CHAPTER VI.

THE GREAT GENERAL HOSPITAL 120—138

Introductory remarks—The situation of Vienna—The Allgemeine Krankenhaus—Its erection—Position—Objects—Division—Officers—Government—Support—Reception of patients—Diseases—Typhus—Its Pathology—Opinions of Rokitansky.

CHAPTER VII.

PUBLIC CLINICAL INSTRUCTION 139—166

Clinical instruction—Its advantages—The Medical Clinique for Surgeons—The Surgical Clinique—Operators' Institute—Its intention and statistics—The Ophthalmic School of Vienna—Its origin and celebrity—The men who flourished in it—Their writings and operations—Labours of Beer—The Ophthalmic Clinique—Its history—Advantages—Education of Oculists—Museum—Practice and operations of Rosas.

CHAPTER VIII.

THE YOUNG SCHOOL OF VIENNA, AUSCULTATION, AND
PATHOLOGICAL ANATOMY 167—184

Private Clinique of Skoda—Diseases of the Chest—Mode of instruction—Experiments and opinions of the Professor—Consonance—Stethoscopic phenomenon—School of Pathology—Pathological Museum—Its preparations—Professor Rokitansky—His private course and peculiar opinions.

CHAPTER IX.

ON SYPHILIS 185—194

The Syphilitic wards—Their statistics—Description of the disease in Austria—Its peculiarities—Condyloma—The female wards—Treatment—The non-mercurial plan—Scharlievo—Its history, and writers.

CHAPTER X.

THE LUNATIC ASYLUM 195—200

The Irrenthurm—Its situation—Wards—Improper treatment of the insane—Comparison with that at Prague—The Lazareth—Asylum at Ybbs—Statistics of Insane in Lower Austria.

CHAPTER XI.

MIDWIFERY AND THE LYING-IN HOSPITAL . . . 201—225

The Gebäranstalt—Its tendency—Origin and erection—Division—Receptions—Their classification—The secrecy of the establishment—Its arrangement—Terms of admission—Illegitimacy—Its causes, consequences, and rewards—Comparison with legitimacy—Statistical tables of illegitimacy—The Obstetric Clinique for Accoucheurs—That for midwives—Viennese midwifery—Puerperal fever—Its mortality—The Professors—Works of Boër—Obstetric education—Table of receptions—Statistics of deliveries—Births and operations—Monstrosities.

CHAPTER XII.

THE FOUNDLING HOSPITAL . . . 226—236

Its situation—Objects—Mortality—Statistics—Diseases—The Zuzel—Cost of reception—Income—The Vaccinating Institute—The wet-nursing establishment—General Statistics of the Allgemeine Krankenhaus.

CHAPTER XIII.

THE VETERINARY INSTITUTION, AND JOSEPHINUM
ACADEMY . . . 237—270

The Veterinary Institution—Its programme of study—Its education—different descriptions of—Variety of practitioners—Josephinum Military Academy—Description of the institution—Its erection—Character of its education—Hospital—Cliniques—Ophthalmic Clinique of Professor Jäger—Its recommendation—Statistics—Peculiarities of its treatment—The cure of Pannus—Egyptian Ophthalmia—Dr. Jäger's private course—His operations for cataract, Reclination, Depression, Distission, Dislaceration, and Extraction—Artificial pupil—Josephinum Anatomical Museum—Wax preparations—Austrian Army Surgeons.

CHAPTER XIV.

HOMŒOPATHY, POOR LAWS, AND MINOR HOSPITALS
OF VIENNA . . . 271—297

Present state of Homœopathy in Vienna—Trial of its powers in 1828—Hospital of the Sisters of Charity—Homœopathic treatment of Cholera

CONTENTS.

xiii

PAGES

—Statistical records of the system—Poor-law system—Society of Noble Ladies—Poor-houses and Poor-law Hospitals—Orphan House—Statistics of Poor-law Hospitals—The Burgher Hospital—Institution of the Merciful Brothers—Hospitals for Clergy, Jews, and Criminals—Commercial Hospital—Institution of the Sisters of Elizabeth—Deaf and Dumb Asylum—Blind Asylum—Hospital for Children—Orthopedic Institution—General table of Hospital Statistics.

CHAPTER XV.

GENERAL AND MEDICAL STATISTICS OF THE AUSTRIAN EMPIRE

298—323

Austrian Sanatory Institutions—Division of medical men—The office of Protomedicus—District Physicians and Surgeons—Distribution of the Austrian Practitioners—Their proportion to the population—General Poor-law system—Medical Police—General mortality in the Austrian States—Statistical Tables—Coroners' Inquests—Quarantine and Sanatory regulations—Inoculation—Syphilitic diseases—Regulations concerning Scharlievo—General Hospital statistics of Austria—Military Hospitals—Deaf and Dumb Institutions—Midwifery and Foundling Hospital statistics—Tables of Crime.

The first of the most important of the principles of the theory of the mind is the principle of the conservation of matter. This principle states that the amount of matter in the universe is constant, and that it can neither be created nor destroyed. This principle is the basis of the theory of the mind, and it is the foundation of the theory of the mind.

The second of the most important of the principles of the theory of the mind is the principle of the conservation of energy. This principle states that the amount of energy in the universe is constant, and that it can neither be created nor destroyed. This principle is the basis of the theory of the mind, and it is the foundation of the theory of the mind.

The third of the most important of the principles of the theory of the mind is the principle of the conservation of information. This principle states that the amount of information in the universe is constant, and that it can neither be created nor destroyed. This principle is the basis of the theory of the mind, and it is the foundation of the theory of the mind.

PREFACE.

I KNOW of no better reason for the presentation of the following little work to the public, than the simple relation of the circumstances under which it originated. In the years 1840 and 1841, I visited the most celebrated medical schools of the Continent, and particularly those of Germany, chiefly for the purpose of improving my knowledge of ophthalmic and aural surgery ; the high and ancient reputation of Vienna, with respect to the former subject, led me thither, and the advantages it offered upon this and many other details of medical science, were such as induced me to remain there during the greater portion of my foreign sojourn.

Previously to my departure from this country, I anxiously sought information upon the medical, literary, and general scientific institutions of Austria, and eagerly inquired after some guide book to the hospitals of Vienna, but I could find none ; and strange to say, nearly the same disappointment awaited me and several other foreigners

in the imperial city. Having become acquainted with many valuable facts connected with the government of the medical profession in this part of Germany, and witnessed many practically useful modes of instruction, and moreover observing the very many splendid institutions and asylums which exist there—the majority of which are comparatively unknown in Great Britain—I resolved upon collecting material for a “Hand Book,” to supply this defect in German as well as English literature. Other works on that country, and its capital in particular, of general literary interest, have not long since been brought before the public eye; some minute in the details of government, local and general; industry, statistics, and population, &c.; others, highly descriptive of life and manners among the various grades of society in this harlequin city; graphic in their pictures of amusement, the *cuisine*, or the *toilette*, but as such they are, as might be expected, devoid of information upon the majority of subjects treated in this volume.

The difficulty of obtaining accurate information on any matter connected with state policy, is greater in the Austrian empire than (Russia not excepted) any where else in Europe. The same caution observed by the state in prohibiting the introduction of foreign publications, exists also, to a certain degree, in preventing strangers (especially if their object is an openly avowed one) from

acquiring information in the usual manner in which it is to be had in other countries; and those native works that at all enter upon such topics, are either written under the awe of censorship, or the favour of government protection; I therefore briefly mention here some of the sources from which I have derived information. For much of the history, constitution, and expenses of the different hospitals of Vienna, I am indebted, as a matter of reference, to the work of Knolz, the Protomedicus of Lower Austria—“*Wiens Humanitäts und Heilanstalten*, 1840,” which appeared during my stay in Vienna. The critiques and observations on each hospital and institution I wrote on the spot, and generally they are the result of several visits: the special statistics of these establishments I either received from competent persons connected with the institutions, or from scattered notices in the Austrian medical periodicals; and the general statistics are abridged from “*Springer’s Statistik des Oesterreichischen Kaiserstaates*,” with occasional references to Bournolli, and other writers upon that subject. With regard to education, I have consulted the different manuals and curricula of the universities, as the “*Taschenbuch der Wiener K.K. Universität für das Jahr 1841*,” “*Vorlesungen welche sowohl ordentlich als ausserordentlich an der K.K. Universität zu Wien im Studienjahre, 1840 und 1841*,” &c.; and also “*De L’instruction Publique*

en Autriche, par un Diplomate étranger, qui a longtemps résidé dans ce pays, 1841," a work replete with the most valuable information; and "*Pharmaceutische Novellen von Mart. S. Ehrmann, 1838.*" Mr. James's book on the educational institutions of Germany, published in 1835, does not include the school system of Austria; and the same remark applies to Mr. Lee's "*Observations on the Medical Institutions of the Continent.*"

For the early history of the School of Medicine I have chiefly consulted the work of Hecker, "*Geschichte der neueren Heilkunde. — Zweites Buch. Die Wiener Schule, 1839;*" and also the writings of Professors Rosas and Beer. To inform myself upon the laws that regulate the medical constitution of Austria, I have carefully perused the "*Darstellung der Medicinal Verfassung in den K. K. Staaten Oesterreichs von J. J. Knolz,*" visiting, at the same time, those different grades and conditions of the profession, and becoming personally acquainted with those sanatory enactments to which he refers; and I have also examined the comparison between the French and German schools, lately published by Dr. C. A. Wunderlich, "*Wien und Paris. Ein Beitrag zur Geschichte und Beurtheilung der gegenwärtigen Heilkunde in Deutschland und Frankreich, 1841.*"

Several of the societies and institutions of Vienna, as the *Gewerb-Vereins*—and *Landwirth-*

schafts Gesellschaft, &c., kindly supplied me with copies of their statutes and proceedings; nothing is therefore set down in the usual travellers' note of "taking it for granted," or upon mere hearsay, but every subject treated of has been specially and minutely inquired into.

The only reference to the Viennese school that I am aware of in English print, appeared in two articles written by Dr. Mackenzie, of Glasgow, in 1818 and 1819, in "The Quarterly Journal of Foreign Medicine and Surgery," which existed at that time. In order to make my description more intelligible, as well as to serve as a guide to the visitor, I have added a ground-plan of the great General Hospital of Vienna. The object of this volume is therefore two-fold: to the medical and general scientific reader in this country, it will, I trust, afford much useful information on topics of considerable importance, not hitherto inquired into, with respect to the state of medicine, the arrangement of hospitals and sanatory institutions, and the admirable system of education and *clinique* in a large portion of Europe. At the present juncture of affairs, when medical reform has become a matter of serious legislative inquiry in this kingdom, an examination of the condition of our professional brethren, and the working of medical policy in so extensive a country as Austria, should be made with the hope of

gaining a useful lesson, or avoiding a dangerous error. Secondly, this work may be found useful as a hand-book, in its particular province, to a country with which we are daily becoming more and more connected and acquainted; and I trust that those notices of the present state of general literary and scientific knowledge in this great capital may interest all who travel for more than change of climate, and desire to know something of a country beyond its scenery and amusements. To the student or medical practitioner visiting Vienna, who may not have either time or inclination to examine the different hospitals and museums, or attend the numerous clinics, I would particularly direct attention to the following subjects, for which this school is in an especial manner remarkable.

Pathological Anatomy.—On this subject Vienna offers the greatest advantage of any school in Europe in the immense field for observation, in the rarity and extent of its museum, and in the teaching of its justly celebrated professor, Doctor Carl Rokitansky.

Ophthalmic Surgery.—This school has been the very focus of this branch of science for upwards of half a century. Every oculist who would attain perfection in his art should spend some months in attendance upon the clinics of Jäger and Rosas, and also avail himself of the opportunity of their private operating courses.

Diseases of the Chest.—Within the last year or two, this class of affections, so common in Austria, has received especial attention, and a celebrity has been acquired for their diagnosis and management, by the labour and talent of one individual, Doctor Skoda. Every physician should attend his private clinique.

Midwifery.—Although I cannot recommend the obstetric practice of Vienna, yet the field for observation being the greatest in Europe, it will afford the already educated accoucheur opportunities he cannot meet elsewhere.

Finally, with regard to the literary composition of this little work, I have but one remark to offer: the number of German names so frequently used throughout these pages may elicit the same critique as that passed upon my adoption of the literal orthography of oriental words in my former work, but I see no reason, except that we are as yet unaccustomed to it, for translating such terms, or rendering them more euphonious to English ears, than for our translating the local terms of Hotel Dieu, or La Charité, &c., when speaking or writing of Parisian hospitals and institutions.

With reference to the present state of science in Vienna, and the want of an academy in particular, two subjects have started into notice since this work was originally composed, both pregnant with events that must one day influence the welfare of

Austria. It is well known to those conversant with the present state of affairs in that part of Europe, that during the last two years Magyarism and Slavism have raised their heads from out of the literary darkness, and much of the political thralldom in which they have been sunk for upwards of half a century ; and one of the first efforts of this new spirit has evinced itself in various attacks upon true Germanism. Should not, therefore, sound policy grasp at every means of opposing to those growing influences such a powerful scientific organ as an Austrian academy. The urgency of this becomes the greater, as the Hungarians and Bohemians rejoice in such institutions, and from these bodies have issued many of the works to which I now allude. The Austrian monarchy, and the reigning house in particular, being truly German, it is more than Egyptian blindness in them to remain passive spectators of the overpowering efforts of the Slaves and Magyars, and not to strengthen and bind together, as they thus might, the German elements of the constitution. Is it not an unaccountable and unwarrantable neglect of the German race, whose scientific worth and capability is so much underrated in comparison with the Hungarians, Bohemians, and Italians, to whom academies are permitted, thus to prohibit one in the capital city of the empire, from the days of Leibnitz to the present ?

But if patriotism has no avail, the consideration of foreign policy should have its weight. All Germany, as we have lately had many instances to prove, is rallying its nationality against France. The *Zollverein* is the great bond of union which holds the various states and principalities of this vast dominion in connection; but from this Austria still stands aloof. Can we, therefore, while she neither leagues with the one, nor permits the other, consider her fully alive to her own and the common interests of Germany?

With the many political and diplomatic conquests achieved by the present great ruler of Austria, the thinking and observing mind of Europe is already acquainted; would that he might add to those honourable victories, while health and strength yet remain to him, the still greater conquest of his own private feelings and animosities, and call together the men of science and literature that now adorn the imperial city. We greatly fear that the pressing importunities for the formation of an academy by some individuals personally obnoxious to him, may have assisted in retarding the formation of that body so long and loudly called for.

While this work was passing through the press, a scientific friend in Vienna informed Prince Metternich of its purport and immediate publication, and requested to know in what state the petition

presented in the year 1837, and alluded to at pages 91 and 92, then was; not having received any answer to this inquiry, we may fairly presume that it remains in the same condition as I have described it in the text.

For further information upon this subject I would refer my readers to an article in the German Quarterly Review for November, 1841, entitled, "*Eine deutsche Vereinsacademie der Wissenschaften* — (*Phantasie*) — and also to a small work just published at Hamburgh — *Öesterreich und dessen Zukunft*.—Austria and its Future, 1843.

In conclusion, I have but to add, that I have endeavoured as far as in me lay, to become acquainted with all those subjects treated on in this volume, and that while I have left no stone unturned in seeking information, I have neither hesitated to censure abuses in men or institutions, nor withheld praise, full, and I trust sufficient, where it was justly due. The former, from the very great personal kindness I invariably experienced, has been a work of necessary self-denial.

Dublin, 15, Westland-row,
May 8, 1843.

A U S T R I A

AND ITS INSTITUTIONS.

CHAPTER I.

NATIONAL EDUCATION.

COMPOSITION OF THE AUSTRIAN EMPIRE—PUBLIC INSTRUCTION—VARIETY OF SCHOOLS—ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS—INFANT SCHOOLS—SUPERIOR PRIMARY SCHOOLS—REPETITION SCHOOLS—EFFECTS OF AUSTRIAN INSTRUCTION—RELIGIOUS EDUCATION—STATISTICAL TABLES—INFLUENCE OF RACE UPON EDUCATION—SCHOOLS OF UTILITY—THEIR STATISTICS—SCHOOL OF MINING AT SCHEMNITZ—POLYTECHNIC INSTITUTIONS.

BEFORE we commence the description of the different universities and the school of physic, the more immediate and legitimate subjects of this work, some observations upon the state of general literary and popular national education in the Austrian empire at large may not be unsuited to the subject on which we are now about to enter.

At the present moment, there is no topic of greater interest than that of public instruction; and though, with reference to it, Austria is somewhat inferior to her Prussian neighbour, yet the system pursued in the former country is well worthy of an attentive examination. How well this system is arranged, and with what skill it is conducted, is a source of natural wonder and admiration to the foreigner, who finds, upon in-

quiry, that among a population exceeding twenty-four millions and a half, (not including Hungary,) there are no less than 30,320 public national schools, with 2,338,985 pupils in actual attendance upon them : and this admiration is heightened, when he reflects not only upon the vast territorial extent of this immense country, but upon the apparently discordant elements of which it is composed, and the variety of nations and tongues—their different habits, peculiarities, customs, religions, and manners—that are all brought under the benign influence of one great system of national instruction. Here we have the great *Sclavonic* nation, composed of the once-powerful kingdom of Bohemia, a part of the ill-fated Poland, the great province of Moravia, the ancient territories of Styria and Illyria, the rude military frontier of Dalmatia, the southern countries of Carylthia and Carniola, and all Hungary ; the *Rheinish*, or true German nation, consisting of the two arch-duchies of Upper and Lower Austria, the Tyrol, and a small portion of nearly all the other states ; and lastly, the *Italian*, who inhabit the Lombardo-Venetian kingdom, and a part of the Tyrol ; besides some *Wallachian* people, half-Christian half-Mahommedan, resident in Transylvania and on the Turkish borders ;—all these, variable as the climes under which they are placed, from the hyperborean regions of Russia to the warm Liburnian villas and sunny cities of the Adriatic—Catholics and Calvinists, Lutherans, Greeks, Jews, and Unitarians—all receive the same description of popular instruction, merely varied to suit the language or the religious tenets of each particular nation or country. In Austria,

education is compulsory: it is not left to the option of the parent, as to whether he will or will not instruct his child, for he is compelled to send him, when of a certain age, to the national school of his parish; and the many disadvantages under which the uneducated labour are too many, and the laws against them too strictly enforced, to permit of general ignorance, even in the most distant country parts. All children, from five to thirteen, both males and females, come under what is called the "*school age*," and the description of education they are to receive is strictly defined, so that all, from the simple agricultural peasant to the highest university professor, must pursue the path of instruction in the manner marked out by the state. This, however, is not without its disadvantages; for, though the instruction is general, yet the plan is one so conducive to the caste-continuing system, after the manner of the Chinese and ancient Egyptians, that it is opposed not only to political reformation, but also to the steady progress of civilization itself, and the rapid development of the resources, both mental and commercial, that should have taken place in this empire during the present long peace with which it has been favoured.

The measures taken to enforce instruction among the lower orders are so much dependent upon the state of religion, and so mixed up with the local government of the country, that their details would occupy more space than would be necessary to the present introduction. Suffice it to say, that accurate registries of all the children who have arrived at the "*school age*" are kept by the curate and churchwarden of the parish,

who, with the local executive, take means to insure an attendance.

Public instruction in Austria is divided into the popular or national, the intermediate, and the superior. The popular consists of that afforded at the elementary national schools, *Trivialschulen*; the superior primary schools, *Hauptschulen*; and the *Wiederholungsschulen*, or repetition-schools, for persons above the age of twelve years, analogous to the *Ecoles de Perfectionnement* of France.

Between this last and the next class there are a number of very admirably-constructed seminaries for the purpose of teaching the useful arts, and giving special instruction in particular trades—the schools of utility, *Ecoles Usuelles*, denominated in Austria *Realschulen*.

The intermediate instruction is acquired in the gymnasiums, lyceums, and faculties or academies of different kinds; and the superior education is that attained in the universities.

The elementary schools are essentially parochial, and are generally situated in the villages. The pupils attending these schools are divided into two classes—the first class, which continues for two years, is instructed in the catechism of their church, and the first elements of writing and cyphering; the second class continues the religious instruction of the former year, the writing and cyphering, and add to it the elements of orthography, reading, and writing from dictation; the Lancasterian system being that adopted in all the national schools of Austria. The masters are generally the churchwardens of the parish: there is an assistant to each

school, who teaches the girls in a separate room, and also two supernumeraries, with a distinct chamber for the instruction of the very young children.* The curé of the parish superintends the religious instruction, and in general each division of the school contains about twenty-four children. In the larger towns and more populous districts, the male and female schools are distinct; in those where all are taught together, the younger children attend in the mornings in winter and the afternoons in summer. The school-hours are five in summer—that is to say, three hours before mid-day for the second class, and two hours after mid-day for the first; and in winter the first class attends for two hours before twelve o'clock, and the second for three hours after it.

* As yet there is no national system of infant schools in Austria. My esteemed friend, Mr. Werthheimer, has, after a long struggle with the prejudices of the clergy, who violently opposed his benevolent efforts, ostensibly on account of his Jewish faith, at last succeeded in establishing an infant school in Vienna. It is one well worth visiting, and is founded on the principle of those in Great Britain, where singing and amusement, &c., are made the instruments of instruction. The master of this school is one of the most benevolent, kind-hearted individuals I ever met; and by a system of culinary economy that an Austrian alone could pursue, manages to supply each child with a comfortable dinner for about a kreutzer (less than a half-penny) a day; but it is much to be regretted, that in so extensive a city as Vienna, no *general* plan of infant instruction has yet been adopted. There are at present six infant schools, containing eight hundred and fifty-six children, in the entire city and suburbs. The great advantage of such schools, not only to the children themselves, but to their mothers and guardians, is now too well known to require recommendation or praise.

In the chief towns there is, likewise, a better grade of distinct female schools, for the children of the middling classes (*für gebildete Stände*), where they are taught needlework and such other useful arts. All the elementary and primary schools are under the direction and control of the clergy. The great principle laid down in the code of public instruction in Austria is thus expressed in the French work from which I quote:—"Dans les écoles élémentaires des petites villes, il n'y a que la méthode d'enseigner les objets prescrits pour les écoles de village qui doit être plus appropriée aux besoins d'instruction de ces classes qui ont déjà plus de fortune, plus de contact avec les habitants des grandes villes, et plus d'affaires et de relations industrielles et commerciales."*

The superior Primary Schools, *Hauptschulen*, are, as their name implies, of a higher grade, and are distributed over a wider area or district. Children are received into these schools at eight years of age, and the course of instruction delivered there carries

* "*De L'instruction Publique en Autriche, par un Diplômé étranger qui a long-temps résidé dans ce pays.*" It has been stated, in a late number of the *British and Foreign Quarterly Review*, that "the schools are altogether the weakest side of Austria, and their present organization is the work of a man who long enjoyed the confidence, and cruelly abused the weakness of the late emperor." But although the works of Springer and Becher, to which this quotation refers, are not sufficiently explicit upon this portion of the internal arrangement of Austria, yet that to which I have just referred, and whose sources of information are of undoubted authenticity, is, perhaps, one of the most complete works upon the statistics of public instruction in any language or of any country in Europe.

them on from that acquired in the elementary schools into the third and fourth classes of general instruction.

The third class continues for two years, and is educated in the gospels and a repetition of the second class instruction delivered in the primary school, German grammar, and the elements of Latin, to fit the pupils (if necessary) for admission into the gymnasiums. The fourth class is composed of two divisions, a year being spent in each; in the first division the education consists of religious instruction, arithmetic, geometry, the elements of architecture, grammar, writing and dictation, and Austrian geography. In addition to the above, the second division of the fourth class receives instruction in the elements of mensuration and mechanics, the higher branches of calculation and arithmetic, foreign geography, and the principles of physics, and natural history.

Where the funds for public instruction permit, there is a *music school* attached to each of the last-mentioned institutions:—"Singing being a part of the elementary education imparted, and a most beneficial portion, because it harmonises the mind, affords an innocent amusement for unemployed hours, and is a bond of union in humble societies."*

There is one model or *normal school* in the capital of each province, for the purpose of educating the masters of all the national schools.

* "Germany; the Spirit of her Literature and Social Condition." By B. Hawkins, M.D. 8vo. Parker. London: 1839.

Those interested in the subject of national education, should visit the normal school of St. Anne, at 980 Anna Gasse in Vienna, which was established by the Empress Maria Theresa, as a model for all the other schools in her dominions.

The *Wiederholungsschulen* were established for persons above the school age, (those who have attained the thirteenth year,) and are intended both as a repetition school for such as have passed through the schools already described, as well as for those who have, from circumstances, been unable to attend them.

To ascend from an inferior to a superior school, it is necessary to produce a certificate of morality and literary proficiency, from the religious instructor and the school-master. Public semestral examinations are held in all the schools in the empire. On the whole, except Prussia, Austria possesses the best system of national education of any continental country ; and the number who can read and write, and are acquainted with the elements of arithmetic among the lower orders, far exceeds the same relative proportion of the peasantry in the most enlightened parts of Great Britain. General education is, moreover, progressing rapidly in Austria ; and although the law that precludes the right of marriage to the uneducated has, no doubt, produced much immorality, yet that law is daily becoming a dead letter, from the necessity for its execution no longer existing.

Whatever may be the disabilities under which the middle and higher classes labour in that country, and their name is Legion, the poor and the working classes have their wants well supplied ; they sigh not for a state

of political liberty, of which they know nothing; and the government, wisely preventing their minds from being inflamed by those blisters upon society, that have written and preached the same classes of our own countrymen into the fever of discontent and disaffection, the effects of which are now so visible in Great Britain, has beneath its extended rule some of the happiest and most contented peasantry in Europe.

Manufacturers and the principals of factories are, for the most part, forbidden to employ children under ten years of age, and if the work is of that nature which requires them to be under this age, then the employer is obliged to allow them a certain portion of each day for the purposes of instruction. Altogether, the moral and physical condition of the children employed in Austrian manufactories is, with some trifling exceptions too insignificant for notice in this general sketch, of a much higher caste than in those in England or France. The education acquired in the schools I have now described is entirely *gratuitous*.

The Roman Catholic, as the national religion, is that taught in the schools of Austria, but dissenters from this form of faith are neither excluded nor separated; nor are they required to engage in the religious services or peculiar ecclesiastical learning in these schools. In the Roman Catholic schools, the Jews as well as the Protestants, and other dissenters, arrive one hour after, and leave one hour before the other pupils; these two hours being occupied with religious services and instruction, such as was attempted in this country some years ago. There are other non-catholic schools, particularly in Transyl-

vania and the military frontier, Gallicia, Moravia and Silesia, Bohemia and Carylthia, amounting to 2037 primary schools, whose religious instruction is in accordance with the creed of these countries ; the oversight of which is committed to the clergy of each particular denomination. Jews are admitted to the Roman Catholic schools on the same terms as the Protestant Lutherans, Calvinists, Unitarians, or other dissenters ; they receive religious and moral instruction from an authorized work, the *Bene-zion*, which is principally taken from the Old Testament. Where a sufficiency of this people exists, schools have been specially established for their use.

The table upon the opposite page, which has been carefully drawn up from official documents, faithfully exhibits the state of education in Austria in 1838 and 1839, it shows us at a glance the proportion of schools and children at the school-age, to the entire population, with the number of children in actual attendance upon these schools, in each province of the empire ; it likewise details the description of school, the nation or race, the religion, and the number of persons employed in imparting religious or general instruction.

It will be seen by an examination of this interesting statistical return, that these primary schools are thus distributed among the different nations or tongues :—The German population of 5,950,000 have 6280 pure German, and 553 mixed German and Slavonian schools, or 1 to every 870 inhabitants. The Slavonian people amounting to 10,320,000 have 4750 Slavish and 543 mixed schools, 5293 in all, or 1 in every 1949 inhabitants. The Italians with a population of 4,580,000 have 5881

COUNTRIES.	Population in 1835.	Children from 5 to 12 years of age.	No. of Primary Schools.	No. of Children in actual attendance.	In 1800 Children of School-age at school.	No. of Repetition Schools.	No. of Children in actual attendance.	Total Children at School.	Religions of Primary Schools.			Nations and Languages in Primary Schools.						Instructors.			Cost of Schools in Florins.	No. of Substitutes to 1 School.	Sexes attending School.	
									Catholic Schools.	Non-Catholic Schools.	Jewish Schools.	German Schools.	Italian Schools.	Sclerish Schools.	Hungarian Schools.	Wallachian Schools.	Mixed Schools.	Religious.	Literary.	Total.			Boys.	Girls.
Lower Austria	1,400,000	157,105	1,101	154,179	984	1,019	58,200	212,379	1,096	5	"	1,092	"	3	"	"	6	1,127	2,212	3,339	341,007	660	113,891	98,488
Upper Austria	840,000	90,576	626	86,485	954	606	41,435	127,929	611	15	"	626	"	"	"	"	"	718	1,114	1,832	185,871	686	65,580	62,340
Bohemia	4,173,000	520,569	3,470	494,229	938	3,431	229,812	724,041	3,400	54	16	1,578	"	1,696	"	"	196	1,361	5,781	7,142	475,967	604	376,560	347,481
Moravia and Silesia . .	2,172,000	287,732	1,886	272,638	947	1,855	177,239	449,877	1,791	61	34	714	"	1,145	"	"	27	1,399	3,026	4,425	264,766	500	231,826	218,051
Gallicia	4,728,000	514,308	1,869	67,278	131	591	30,922	97,300	1,793	75	1	90	"	1,354	"	"	415	905	2,037	2,942	124,627	1,921	67,065	30,235
Tyrol*	830,000	106,439	1,618	107,507	1,010	1,191	46,673	154,180	1,617	"	1	946	672	"	"	"	"	1,539	2,185	3,724	101,436	298	80,697	73,483
Styria	976,000	101,990	624	76,869	753	567	35,106	111,975	620	4	"	478	"	"	"	"	146	647	967	1,614	89,626	819	61,463	50,512
Carynthia and Carniola .	764,000	85,533	365	27,817	325	404	10,805	44,622	334	31	"	229	"	"	"	"	136	358	518	876	110,545	993	24,435	20,187
Illyrian Coast	476,000	59,259	111	9,917	133	84	3,316	13,233	101	6	4	2	17	"	"	"	92	101	226	327	65,738	2,441	9,383	3,650
Lombardy and Venice . .	3,664,000	588,665	5,178	258,009	438	230	3,966	261,975	5,178	"	"	"	5,178	"	"	"	"	3,697	5,905	9,602	826,300	677	191,167	70,808
Transylvania	2,026,000	292,600	1,522	51,348	239	30	720	52,068	278	1,244	"	341	"	"	844	317	20	423	1,507	1,930	60,000	1,305	32,535	19,533
Military Frontier	1,198,000	126,974	1,113	64,550	569	776	20,903	85,453	569	542	2	190	"	542	145	203	33	862	1,266	2,128	130,598	634	56,303	29,150
Dalmatia	390,000	39,000	53	3,962	102	"	"	3,962	53	"	"	"	14	"	"	"	39	46	98	144	19,370	7,358	3,355	607
Total	23,652,000	2,880,441	19,536	1,674,788	580	10,784	664,197	2,338,985	17,441	2,037	68	6,286	5,881	4,750	989	520	1,110	13,183	26,842	40,025	2,795,791	856	1,314,469	1,024,525

Although the Austrian census of 1840 lies before me, I retain in this Table that taken in 1835, because the Statistics of the Schools were made from documents drawn up in the same year, and are therefore more applicable for comparison.

* In the Tyrol the number of children attending the primary schools exceeds those of the school-age by 1,968.

schools, or 1 in every 778 inhabitants. The Hungarians possess 986 national and 10 mixed schools for 800,000 inhabitants, or 1 in every 803.

The Wallachian people, who principally inhabit Transylvania, and number 970,000 souls, have 520 schools, or 1 to every 1865 inhabitants.

The following summary shows us how far the distinction of races affects national instruction in Austria:—

COUNTRIES AND RACES.	No. of children at school age.	No. in attendance.	Attending School, to 1000, at school-age.
Tyrol—peopled by Germans and Italians, the German race preponderating in the proportion of 53 Germans to 30 Italians.	117,460	107,507	915
Bohemia, Moravia, Silesia, Carinthia and Carniola—composed of Slaves and Germans, in the proportion of 15 Slaves to 4 Germans	994,560	794,684	799
Upper and Lower Austria—entirely peopled by Germans . .	315,840	240,664	762
Styria—German and Slavish, the German predominating in the proportion of from 9 to 8 .	136,600	76,869	563
Lombardo-Venetian Kingdom—exclusively Italian	652,960	258,009	395
Transylvania—inhabited by Germans, Hungarians, and Wallachians; the Hungarian and Wallachian races predominating over the Germans as 3 to 1.	283,640	51,348	181
Gallicia, Dalmatia, and the Illyrian Coast—entirely peopled by Slavonians	783,160	81,157	105

Some differences will be found in the system of national instruction adopted in Hungary, Dalmatia, and the Lombardo-Venetian kingdom, but of too insignificant a nature, and too local a character, to require either comment or detail in this place.

This concludes our summary of the system of popular or national elementary instruction.

When we examine these statistics in the foregoing general table, with reference to the effects of religion upon education, we find that there are 17,441 Catholic* schools for 21,000,000 inhabitants of that religion, or 1 school to every 1204 souls; there are 2037 non-catholic schools (principally Lutheran and Calvinistic) to 2,400,000 Protestant dissenters, or 1 to every 1178 inhabitants of that faith. The Jews amounting to 324,000 are provided with 58 schools, which result gives so low a proportion as 1 to 5586, but then it must be remarked, that numbers of Jewish children receive instruction in the two other classes of schools.

How far public national instruction is progressing in Austria, may be learned from the fact of the increase of schools from the year 1832 to 1838 being 979, with 3096 teachers, and 128,525 children.

We now come to examine the Schools of Utility, *Real-schulen*, institutions established for the purpose of increasing national industry, and instructing in particular professions and arts, as well as for commercial purposes. The pupils in these schools must have passed through

* This number includes the Greek as well as the Roman Catholic Church.

the fourth class of the superior primary schools, and have been likewise examined as to their proficiency in the different branches taught there. The instruction afforded in these schools of utility is of two sorts :— general literary education, continued on the plan of the higher classes in the inferior school, and embracing religion, declamation, and a knowledge of the mother-tongue, arithmetic, calculation, and physical geography ; and the *special*, which is subdivided into that applicable to merchants, including the science of commerce, exchange, and book-keeping ; that which fits pupils for the superintendence of woods and forests, and the management of agriculture, in which class the higher branches of physics and natural history are taught ; and finally, the school for artists, manufacturers, engineers, and architects, who receive instruction in the higher branches of mathematics, the history of art, practical chemistry, and a knowledge of foreign languages, particularly French, Italian, and English.

These institutions are some of the most valuable and worthy of imitation in the empire, and it becomes a matter of interesting debate, how far they are preferable to the classic form of the gymnasium, or even the university, for all persons, except those going into the learned professions. M. Saint-Marc Girardin, their great advocate, and with whose opinions on this subject I fully coincide, attributes the great decrease in the number of pupils attending the Viennese gymnasiums and university, from 660 in 1821 to 360 in 1831, to this cause. The same authority has published the following statistical return of these institutions throughout the empire :—

ESTABLISHMENTS.	No.	Professors.	Students.	Pensioners.	Pension money in Florins.	Total cost in Florins.
Polytechnic Institution at Vienna	1	30	1104	4	150	59,628
Technic Institution at Prague	1	21	599	...	...	15,934
Calculation School at Linz	1	1	50	...	...	300
School of Forestry at Marienbrunn	1	4	50	...	...	21,052
Schools of Utility at Trieste, Leopold, Brody, Rakonitz, and Reichenberg	5	44	235	2	253	30,419
Schools of Agriculture and Rural Economy at Olmütz, Brünn, and Kraumau	3	10	218	...	...	5,390
School of Practical Chemistry at Milan	1	3	19	...	...	2,260
Schools of Languages at Linz, and Salzburg	3	3	54	...	...	1,058
Schools of Mathematics on Military Frontier	8	34	386	...	...	2,200
TOTAL*	24	150	2715	6	403	138,241

* The celebrated School of Mining at Schemnitz, in Hungary, is not included in this table. We also find in that country a School of Rural Economy, established at Keszthely, by Count Festetics, and a similar institution at Altenburg. I am indebted to my talented and scientific friend, Count Breuner, for the following *resumé* of the magnificent mining establishment at Schemnitz, of which he is one of the Directors, in the Chamber of Mining at Vienna. It was established by Maria Theresa, and considerably increased by her son. The pupils are instructed in drawing, mathematics, book-keeping, mineralogy, geology, and mechanics, with a knowledge of the care and culture of woods and forests, during the first year—in the second, they learn the art of smelting and testing—and in the third, the theory of

A description of that *Realschule* with which I am best acquainted, the Polytechnic Institution in the *Wieden Vorstadt* of Vienna, will explain the principle and the system of education pursued in all the others, more particularly as it was erected as a model for institutions of a similar nature throughout the empire. This was established by Francis I., in 1816, to increase national industry, and to afford instruction in the principles of trade and commerce, useful arts, practical sciences, manufactures and machinery. Being one of the show places in the capital, it is hardly necessary to describe its appearance, museum, and different collections; the two latter being much inferior to those in Paris and other cities I have visited. The collections consist of those for che-

mining and subterranean surveying—the fourth and last is occupied in the practical working of the mines, and in acquiring a knowledge of mining machinery. The students are also employed practically in the mines in their first year. The pupils must be 18 years of age upon admission, and have acquired a previous general education in a Lyceum or Faculty of Sciences. They are divided into two classes—those who are submitted to an examination on their entrance, and those who, being educated in the higher branches of learning, are not submitted to this test. They are engaged in study four hours a day, two being occupied in book-keeping and the study of woods and forests, and two in the more immediate instruction given by the institution. The chief School Director is also the Mining Director of that district; there are 7 professors, 233 students, 55 of whom are pensioners or bursars. The total cost of this establishment exceeds 11,500 florins annually.

All Austrian mines are royalties, and the mining department forms a portion of the state administration, with one President, Prince Lobkowitz, and three Governors of Provinces. This Directory sits in Vienna, and is quite distinct from, and independent of, the Aulic Chamber of Hungary.

mical products ; mathematical instruments, balances, weights and measures ; apparatus for explaining the laws of physics ; models and machines employed in industry, with those that serve in the construction of roads and bridges ; samples of manufactures, principally Austrian ; and collections of merchandize belonging to the different departments of commerce. Each of those occupy a separate room, and are under the care and management of the professor attached to that particular branch of study.

The education is divided into the preparatory classes, which continue for two years, and wherein the students receive pretty much the same instruction as that given in the *Hauptschule*, in addition to that which forms the more immediate objects of the institution. The latter comes under two general divisions, viz., commercial and artistic ; the former is too obvious to require detail, and the latter is divided into the following number and description of schools :—

A school for working chemists, who are instructed in the regulation and admixture of paints and colours ; the theory of fermentation and distillation, and the manufacture of wines and beer, &c. ; the fabrication of soap, and the principles and practice of tanning, dyeing, and bleaching ; also the construction and management of founderies, forges, and smelting apparatus, as well as chemistry generally, as applied to the arts and manufactures.

A school of mechanics, where the pupils are taught the construction and management of machinery, hydraulic engines, mills, and every description of mining and mechanical engineering.

A school of rural economy and forestry, where the pupils are educated in these particular branches.

Schools of mining, land surveying, and architecture, numbering six in all. A certain period, varying from one to three years, is spent in each school; and the pupils who have completed three years in that of architecture, are received into the imperial academy of fine arts.

CHAPTER II.

INTERMEDIATE INSTRUCTION.

GYMNASIUMS—CHARACTER OF THEIR EDUCATION—PROGRAMME OF THE COURSE—NUMBER OF GYMNASIUMS IN AUSTRIA—LYCEUMS—THERESIANUM ACADEMY; ITS INSTRUCTION, OBJECTS, AND EFFECTS—MILITARY EDUCATION—STATISTICAL TABLES OF GENERAL EDUCATION IN AUSTRIA.

THE pupils having passed through the *Hauptschule* or the *Wiederholungsschule* in their different classes; or those who, by birth, fortune, or other circumstances, may have acquired an education equivalent to that given in these institutions, are admissible into the schools of intermediate instruction—the gymnasiums: both must, however, undergo an examination on entrance, denominated a *Vorprüfung*.

The gymnasiums are analogous to the great grammar schools of England, and are generally situated in the cities and capital towns of provinces; they contain from 100 to 250 scholars each, and are in general governed by a director or head master, four professors of grammar, two of humanity,* and one religious instructor, besides supplementary teachers, the whole being under the *Studium-Hof-Commission* of the province.

* The above term sounds somewhat strange to English ears. In the German universities it is applied to the study of the Greek and Latin classics and philosophy. Although obsolete in this sense of the word, in this country, it is thus defined by Johnson, "Philology; grammatical studies. In Scotland, *Humaniores Literæ*."

There are several government endowments in each gymnasium, lyceum, and university, by which a certain number of young men, denominated pensioners, or bursars, are not only educated gratuitously, but receive a certain salary from the state during the period of their education. No pupils are eligible to these offices (which are analogous to the sizarships of our own colleges) but those who have gained a first certificate in the highest class of the superior primary schools. No pupil is admissible into a gymnasium under sixteen years of age. Students do not reside in either the gymnasia or universities, and there are very few boarding-schools in any part of Germany.

The course of instruction delivered in a gymnasium is as follows:—

FIRST GRAMMAR CLASS.—Religious Instruction—Latin Grammar—Geography—Four First Rules of Arithmetic.

SECOND GRAMMAR CLASS.—Religious Instruction—Latin Grammar, and the Elements of Roman Antiquities—Geography and History—Arithmetic (in Fractions).

THIRD GRAMMAR CLASS.—Religious Instruction—Latin Grammar—Roman Antiquities, and explanation of Ancient Classics—Geography and History—Greek—Arithmetic, Simple and Compound.

FOURTH GRAMMAR CLASS.—Religious Instruction—Grammar, Prosody, and Style—Geography and History—Greek—Arithmetic, Decimal Fractions and Square Root.

FIRST HUMANITY CLASS.—Religious Instruction—Style—Latin and German, Rhetoric and Poetry—Geography and History—Greek—Algebra.

SECOND HUMANITY CLASS.—Religious Instruction—Style—Geography and History—Greek—Algebra.

Each class lasts six months, and the pupils undergo a public examination before they can remove to a higher one.

There are 117 Roman Catholic and 11 non-Catholic gymnasiums in Austria, which are thus distributed throughout the provinces:—

PROVINCES.	No.	Professors.	Students.	Pensioners.	Pension Money in Florins.	Total cost in Florins.
Lower Austria .	8	69	2,026	94	3,298	34,269
Upper Austria .	3	24	743	39	1,604	4,948
Bohemia .	22	174	5,128	—	—	90,362
Moravia & Silesia .	11	87	2,766	107	2,614	41,468
Gallicia .	13	107	3,774	25	1,284	88,918
Tyrol .	8	63	1,543	90	4,729	26,348
Styria .	4	28	807	44	1,558	20,407
Carinthia & Car- niola .	4	31	814	95	4,017	10,103
Illyrian Coast	3	20	327	39	3,827	14,628
Dalmatia .	3	22	323	—	—	19,658
Lombardy & Venice	27	223	6,914	—	—	138,708
Transylvania .	20	126	3,657	—	—	18,607
Military Frontier .	2	11	306	12	892	5,488
TOTAL .	128	985	29,128	545	23,823	513,912
Cost in English money . . . £51,391 4 0						

There are, besides, 80 gymnasiums in Hungary not included in this table, of which 67 are Roman Catholic, and 13 non-Catholic.

The intermediate and superior education is so mixed up together, that it is almost impossible completely to separate them, as degrees and licences to practise particular branches of professions—for instance, midwifery and the lower branches of surgery—are conferred by the

lyceums, institutes, academies, and faculties, (the *Philosophische Lehranstalten*,) as well as the universities.

The lyceums and faculties of science, form a description of minor colleges, through which it is necessary to pass, in many instances, before entering the universities, to which several of these institutions, as well as the gymnasiums, are attached. There are 5 lyceums in Austria, 25 faculties of sciences, and 7 faculties of theology, with 287 professors and 4826 students, of whom 138 are pensioners upon the state. The obligatory studies of the philosophical course, which it is necessary to make before commencing the immediate study of any of the learned professions, may be gone through in the *Philosophische Lehranstalten*. The lyceums are situate at Salzburg, Linz, Laybach, Klagenfurth, and Klausenburg—that at the latter gives also a course of science, law, and medicine; thus differing but in one item from a university.

Independently of the different seminaries and colleges described in the foregoing pages, there are others of a more special nature that might claim our notice, did the objects or extent of this little work permit it. As, however, it would be foreign to our purpose, as well as beyond our limits, to speak even cursorily of all the general, literary, and educating establishments in Austria, I have arranged a series of statistical tables at pages 26 and 27, drawn up from the best authorities, that exhibit the number and purpose of such institutions throughout the entire empire, except Hungary, whose statistical returns are not yet sufficiently known to allow such a *resumé* of its education.

There is, however, one institution in the Austrian capital so expressive of the character of its government, and so unique of its kind, that I cannot forbear selecting it from the general mass.

This is the *Theresianum*, or *Theresianische-Ritter-Akademie*, a college founded by the empress, whose name it bears, for the purpose of affording the youth of the Austrian aristocracy an education which fits them for the posts of *employés* and general government officers through the empire.

The effect of this is manifold:—all the scholars in this institution must be of the rank of *Von* or knight, at the least; and as the great majority of these pupils are pensioners on the government, who thus provide for a number of the children of the poorer nobility, it links the high-born with the state, and creates a bond of union, which it is the interest of both parties to preserve. By keeping these young men distinct and separate from the lyceums and universities, it assists to preserve that line of demarcation between the noble and the class below him, which it has ever been the interest of Austria to maintain. It affords these students that description of early diplomatic education, which furnishes the state with a sufficiency of men already versed in the theory of Austrian politics, to fill every office of emolument or trust under the crown, and likewise precludes the middle classes from rising to a share, ever so humble, in the administration of their country. When we reflect upon the effects of this system, it offers some clue to the means by which this vast empire has not only been preserved in tranquillity, but also preserved in civil and

political ignorance for so long a period, while the nations which surround her have been shaken to their foundations by overstrained or premature reforms, that have either threatened or ended in revolution.

Besides the instruction given in this institution, each noble pensioner receives 300 florins yearly ; those who are not pensioners pay 500. All the pupils, to the amount of 103, reside within the walls of the academy, which is one of the largest and most magnificent buildings in the suburbs of Vienna.

The programme of study is as follows :—The time spent by each pupil in the institute is twelve years, viz., six in the grammar and humanity classes, two in those for general science and philosophy, and four in the study of law, political economy, politics, and in acquiring a knowledge of administration. The pupils, who are only admissible from nine to twelve years of age, pass through the grammar and humanity classes, as in the gymnasiums, but learn in addition, modern languages, particularly French and Italian, and also mineralogy, botany, and zoology, with drawing, dancing, fencing, horsemanship, and other modern accomplishments ; and some are taught the Bohemian, Polonaise, and Hungarian tongues.

The higher studies are divided into the ordinary and extraordinary : the ordinary includes religion, moral philosophy, physics, universal history, and Greek and Latin literature ; statistics ; natural, criminal, Roman, and ecclesiastical law ; ethics ; the civil, *foedal*, and commercial laws of Austria, as well as those relating to servants, &c. the minor courts of justice ; the practice of the different

tribunals; the science of education; and the diplomatic and political history of the empire.

The extraordinary studies include the additional ones of botany, forestry, and agriculture, technical chemistry, practical geometry, machinery, the English language, and an acquaintance with Hungarian law.

These subjects are all taught by able professors,* well versed in Austrian diplomacy, and who are moreover obliged, as in the universities and lyceums, to lecture according to a special plan laid down by the superior of the institution, and in unison with the principles advocated and developed in some work upon the subject, which has been submitted to the scrutiny of the censor, and is authorized by the Austrian government.

A knowledge of this extended and accomplished course must at a glance convince the reader, that both the home and foreign diplomates, and *employés* of that country are, in their sphere, the best-educated portion of the community, and their tact and influence at foreign courts, is too well known to require farther comment or observation.

The *personnel* of the academy consists of a curator, director, vice-director, three sub-directors, two managers, sixteen inspectors, a chaplain, and twenty-six professors,—eight for the grammar and humanity classes, eight for the law and political economy courses, and ten for those of science and philosophy—besides teachers of languages,

* The name of Leopold Neumann, professor of politics, is one of too great worth and celebrity to be included in this general assertion without an especial mention.

and the other minor branches of learning and accomplishments—in all sixty-three persons.

Of the 170 pupils, 140 are pensioners on the state, at 141,056 florins cost, the total expense of the establishment being 174,305 florins, or £17,430 10s.* yearly. The remarkable disproportion of pupils to teachers in this establishment is very striking.

The visitor will, no doubt, be much pleased with the inspection of this vast establishment, which has attached to it a swimming and riding-school, a place for gymnastic exercises, and a handsome park and garden, divided into distinct sections for the different classes of students, who are kept strictly apart according to their age or proficiency, as well in their hours of recreation as in school. The dormitories, hospital, library, and all the departments of this great institution are most beautifully kept, and the pupils are provided with every healthful comfort that persons of their standing in society could possibly require.

In the premature reforms attempted by Joseph II. it was proposed to suppress this institution, and for some time it actually ceased to exist : it was afterwards re-founded by his successor, Leopold II., and was enlarged to its present magnitude, and its endowments considerably increased by the late emperor Francis.

Of much the same character is the Academy of

* The government of Austria grant but £1217 8s. more for the maintenance of 84 professors and the education of 5000 students in the university of Vienna!

Oriental Languages, with nine professors, and an endowment of 13,878 florins annually.

The military education of Austria has long been celebrated, and its details are too minute, and its establishments are too extensive, to require more notice than that given in the statistical table of general instruction. Those who would become better acquainted with this system, should visit the academy of engineers, and the military academy in the *Wienerisch Neustadt* at Vienna; both are on a scale of great magnificence, and afford their pupils a very superior class of instruction.

TABLE

Showing the Number of Establishments for the General and Special Education of Males and Females in the Austrian Dominions in 1838, not including those for Popular, Intermediate, and Superior Instruction,* already enumerated.

ESTABLISHMENTS	No.	Professors.	Students.			Pensioners.	Pension Money in Florins.	Total cost in Florins.
			In-terns.	Ex-terns.	Total.			
For Males.								
General . .	103	869	6,931	2,912	9,843	2,581	561,069	1,220,421
Ecclesiastical .	59	337	3,251	1,071	4,322	2,531	555,018	715,553
Military . .	40	557	3,421	—	3,421	2,685	444,104	613,517
Total . .	202	1763	13,603	3,983	17,586	7,797	1,560,191	2,549,491
For Females .	100	739	4,229	1,029	5,358	2,537	379,680	663,316
For both sexes	18	131	1,510	3,051	4,561	4,065	257,208	288,591
General Total .	320	2,633	19,342	8,063	27,505	14,399	2,197,079	3,501,398
Total cost in English money £350,139 16 0								

* For the Statistics of the Superior Education, see page 28.

GENERAL TABLE,

Showing the whole System of Education in Austria in 1838.

ESTABLISHMENTS.	No.	Professors and Teachers.	Students.	Pensioners.	Pension Money in Florins.	Total cost in Florins.
1. Popular Schools .	31,120	40,025	2,338,985	—	—	2,795,791
2. Gymnasiums .	128	985	29,128	545	23,823	513,912
3. Schools of Utility .	24	150	2,715	6	403	138,241
4. Establishments enumerated in foregoing Table .	310	2,633	27,505	14,399	2,197,079	3,501,498
5. Special Institutions .	20	88	2,235	171	18,820	140,113
6. Faculties and Academies .	32	186	3,652	87	6,257	153,169
7. Lyceums .	5	81	1,174	51	2,316	76,967
8. Universities .	8	362	14,344	556	43,379	575,396
Total, .	31,647	44,510	2,419,738	15,815	2,292,077	7,895,087
Total cost in English money,						£789,508 14 0

The general educational establishments enumerated in the first table, include the Theresianum, and the noble school at Innsbruck; the Academy of Oriental Languages; the institute for church-singing at Salzburg; the colleges for Rabbins at Padua, and Unitarians at Klausenburg, &c. &c.

The female establishments include the schools of the Ursulines and Sisters of Charity, those of the different convents, and those for the education of the daughters of officers and *employés*, &c. &c.

The mixed schools for both sexes embrace the deaf and dumb institutions, orphan houses, and the school of music at Milan, &c. ; among the special institutions in the second table are the Josephinum Academy for military surgeons; the schools of midwifery and veterinary surgery; and the Institute of Pious Ladies at Chioggia.

CHAPTER III.

SUPERIOR INSTRUCTION.

UNIVERSITIES—UNIVERSITY OF VIENNA, ITS ORIGIN, FOUNDATION, AND EARLY HISTORY—VAN SWEITEN—FOUR FACULTIES—PHILOSOPHICAL COURSE—LECTURERS AND PROFESSORS—THEOLOGICAL COURSE—LAW STUDIES—FACULTY OF VIENNA, ITS EARLY HISTORY—DIVISION OF MEDICAL PROFESSION—EDUCATION OF DOCTORS OF MEDICINE AND SURGERY—COMPARISON WITH SIMILAR INSTRUCTION IN THIS COUNTRY—CHARACTER OF AUSTRIAN LECTURES AND LECTURERS—PHYSIOLOGY—ANATOMY—ANATOMICAL MUSEUM—BOTANY—DENTAL SURGERY—PUBLIC MUSEUMS, THAT FOR MINERALOGY—CABINET OF NATURAL HISTORY—EXAMINATION OF STUDENTS—NUMBER OF MEDICAL MEN IN VIENNA.

THE superior class of education which we have now arrived at leads us at once to the description of the university of Vienna, which will likewise serve as a model for the other eight now in Austria, whose income, *personnel*, and the number of pupils in attendance in 1839 is exhibited in the following table :—

UNIVERSITIES.	Professors.	Students.	Pensioners.	Pension Money in Florins.	Total cost in Florins.
Vienna	84	4,991	233	21,706	186,479
Prague	63	3,479	36	1,988	72,355
Olmütz	26	526	104	6,811	28,171
Leopol	42	1,375	50	3,839	59,210
Innsbruck (no Faculty of Theology)	23	314	70	3,993	27,853
Gratz	28	864	46	2,067	26,866
Pavia	60	1,362	17	2,975	75,331
Padua	36	1,433	—	—	99,131
TOTAL	362	14,344	556	43,379	575,396
Total cost in English money,				£57,539 12 0	

There is one university in Hungary, that at Pesth, but I am not acquainted with its statistics.

The essential character of a German university, and that by which it differs from a lyceum or academy, is, that it consists of four faculties, and confers degrees in each of these, viz., theology, law, physic, and philosophy.

Each university is governed by a Rector-Magnificus, or provost, a chancellor, the four presidents, four deans, and four seniors of the different faculties, who constitute the *senatus academicus*; besides whom there are procurators of the different nations, the director, vice-director, and the professors of each particular faculty. The pupil of each class or faculty enters for a distinct course of study, remains attached to it during the entire period of his university career, and receives a diploma in it alone, either as a priest, lawyer, physician, or doctor of philosophy—the latter being equivalent to the degree of master of arts in the British colleges.

None of the students, and very few of the professors, reside in the university. The students are governed not only by the academic, but also by the civil or criminal laws of the university, which empower its senate to inflict fines, expulsion, and also imprisonment within their own precincts.*

The university of Vienna is one of the oldest, the richest, and most celebrated in all Germany: the build-

* When a student is confined in the prison of a university he is supplied with books of the study in which he is engaged, and is daily conducted to and from his class, by which arrangement his course proceeds uninterruptedly, but he is not permitted to hold communion with any of his fellow pupils.

ing itself, which is situated in the Stadt, or inner town, is massive and gloomy, and has little in its architectural appearance to arrest attention.

The principal hall is ornamented with some frescos, and a stuccoed roof—more curious than handsome; and the lecture rooms are small and ill-constructed. The museums will be spoken of in detail.

In 1237 the emperor Frederick II. granted permission to the senate of Vienna to establish a university.*

“This institution was considerably improved by Albert I. in 1286. Ottokar of Bohemia added to the number of teachers, and augmented their incomes. Under Albert II. the university of Vienna flourished still more; he too added to the number of professors, and granted them public *auditoria*, and free dwellings in the imperial castle. Duke Rudolf IV. in 1364, removed the

* “The emperor Frederick II., as appears from a work which he composed, and which bears for title ‘*De Arte Venandi cum Avibus*,’ had himself made numerous observations in comparative anatomy. He is quoted as an authority by Professor Blumenbach. Frederick is entitled to the everlasting gratitude of mankind for the exertions which he made in opposing the superstitions and prejudices which, during the thirteenth century, pressed down into the dust, knowledge of almost every kind, especially medical knowledge. He got Galen translated, gave orders that every year in Palermo a human body should be dissected, and commanded that no man should be permitted to practise surgery who had not studied the anatomy of the human subject.

“The best edition of the above-mentioned work is that of Professor Schneider, printed at Leipsic, in two volumes quarto.”—*Doctor Mackenzie, in Quarterly Journal of Foreign Medicine and Surgery, 1818.*

academical *auditoria* and the dwellings of the professors to the *Minoriten Kloster* and to the houses of the former Knights Templars, as these were more still and retired. In 1365 Pope Urban V. issued a bull of ratification for the juridical, medical, and philosophical faculties of the university.* On the solicitation of Duke Albert III. the theological faculty was added by Urban VI. In 1366 this university was arranged anew after the model of that at Paris, and students were now admitted from the Austrian, Rhenish, Saxon, and Bohemian nations. Under Albert III. in 1388, the number of professors rose to thirty, and considerable additions were made to the accommodations of the university. Ferdinand II. in 1622, gave over this institution into the hands of the Jesuits, who, though they themselves were shut out from the professorships, yet knew how to retain the whole government of the university till the year 1754, when the learned and enlightened commentator on Boerhaave, Gerard Baron van Swieten, succeeded, against much opposition, in introducing very important improvements.”†

To the care and direction of this truly great philosopher, scholar, and physician, the remodelling of the university, and the school of medicine in particular, was committed. From that period to the present, the

* This year, 1365, is the date generally assigned in works to the erection of this very ancient university—the oldest in Germany except Prague.

† Sketches of the Medical School at Vienna in 1818, already cited. It was in 1745, not 1754, that Van Swieten arrived in Vienna.—See Hecker's *Geschichte*.

university of Vienna has continued to increase in celebrity as a school of medico-chirurgical science and Catholic theology, in which character it now stands as one of the very highest on the Continent. It was not alone to the capital that the labours of Van Swieten were confined; the universities of Pesth, Prague, and Padua were included in his reform, and remodelled according to the plan of that in the imperial city: but of these when we come to speak of the medical faculty in detail.

All the students upon entering a university undergo an examination in Latin philology, Italian, and the living languages. With the exception of the lectures upon some of the higher branches of philosophy, medicine, and jurisprudence, students are educated gratuitously in each of the four faculties; sums varying from eighteen to thirty florins are paid for the former. This is not received by the professors, who are each paid sums equivalent to one hundred and fifty or two hundred pounds a year by the state, the money paid for the lectures being distributed among indigent and meritorious students.

As the philosophical course forms the basis and foundation of all the other studies, we shall first describe its subject and arrangement. Since the year 1824 the philosophical studies have been divided into the obligatory course, which it is necessary for every student who wishes to graduate in the university to attend for at least two years; and the course of special philosophy, embracing, philosophy so called, Belle Lettres, and particular and natural sciences—this is compulsory on

those only who intend to take out a doctor's degree in that particular faculty.

Each faculty is governed by a director and vice-director. The philosophical course is taught by fourteen professors, six teachers of languages, and five assistants.

The obligatory course is as follows :—

	SUBJECT.	Professor.	Hour.	Frequency in the week.
First Year.	Religion . . .	Herr C. Keppler.	8—9	3 times
	Theoretical Philosophy	Dr. J. Peithner. {	3—4	3 times.
			4—5	twice.
	Elements of Mathematics, according to <i>Appeltauer's Elementa Mathescos Puræ*</i> . . .	Herr. Jos. Jenko. {	9—10	daily.
			3—4	twice.
	Latin Philology .	Dr. Franz Ficker.	8—9	twice.

During the second year the lectures upon religion and Latin philology are repeated as in the first, the theoretical is exchanged for moral philosophy by the same professor; and instead of the elements of mathematics, the distinguished professor Dr. Andreas von Ettingshausen lectures upon physics from eight to nine in the morning daily, and from three to four in the afternoon, three times a week, according to "*Baumgartner's Naturlehre.*"

* Each professor, as I have already mentioned, is obliged to teach from a particular class-book authorized by the university and the state, and specified in the Studium Directory.

The special course of philosophy includes—

SUBJECT.	Professor.	Hour.	Frequency in the week.
History of Philosophy . . .	Dr. J. Peithner.	11 to 12	twice.
Pedagogy (supervision of education) . . .	Herr Prediger Urban } Loritz. }	5—6	3 times.
Mathematics(<i>Poisson's Traité de Mécanique</i>) . . .	Dr. Joseph Petzwal.	11—1	3 times.
Scientific Astronomy* . . .		11—1	twice.
Popular Astronomy (<i>Littrow's Lehrbuch</i>) . . .		12—1	twice.
Popular Mechanics . . .	Dr. A. Ettingshausen.	11—12	once.
Universal History . . .	Dr. Joseph Knoll.	4—5	daily.
Austrian History . . .	Do.	11—12	3 times.
Diplomacy and Heraldry . . .	Do.	11—12	twice.
Numismatics . . .	Herr Ant Edlen } Von Steinbüchel. }	11—12	twice.
Asthetik—History of the Fine Arts . . .	Dr. Franz Ficker.		
Classical Literature . . .	Do.	10—11	4 times.
Greek Philology . . .	Do.	11—12	twice.
Natural History . . .	Dr. Anton Braunhofer.	10—11	daily.
Agriculture . . .	Dr. Michael Stecker.	4—5	do.
Chemistry (<i>Cameralchemie</i>) . . .	Dr. P. Ritter v. Holger.	5—6	3 times.
Italian Language and <i>Style d'Affaires</i> . . .	Dr. Andreas Edlen } v. Fornasari-Verce. }	11—12	do.
Bohemian Language† . . .	Herr. J. N. Hromatko.	11—12	daily.
Hungarian Language and Literature . . .		12—1	4 times.
French do. . . .	Herr. George Legat.	12—1	do.
English do. (<i>The Vicar of Wakefield</i>) . . .	Mr. Char. G. Clairmont. }		do.
Modern Greek . . .	Herr Geo. Russiades.	12—1	do.
Spanish . . .	Herr Jos. Charanza.		3 times.
Calligraphy . . .	Herr Lorenz Raszner.	12—1	do.

The lectures upon each subject continue for a semester (six months), and the whole course is distributed over three years.

The theological faculty consists of a director, vice-director, seven professors, and two assistant teachers.

* The chair of astronomy was filled, till the year 1841, by the talented and lamented Littrow.

† This course is compulsory for physicians intending to practise in Bohemia.

The course of study lasts four years, and is as follows:—

	COURSE.	Subject.	Professor.	Hour.	Frequency in the week.
First Year.	First Semester.	Christian Church History, according to <i>Klein's Historia Ecclesiæ Christianæ</i>	Dr. Joh. Stark.	9-10 & 3-4	Daily,
		Hebrew and Biblical Archæology	Dr. Jos. Scheiner.	10-11 & 4-5	do.
	Second Semester.	Exposition of the Old Testament, and a repetition of the above; the works varied			
Second Year.	First Semester.	The Greek Language and Exposition of the New Testament	Dr. Wenzel Kozelka.	9-10	Daily.
		General Biblical Exposition	do.	4-5	do.
		Educational Instruction (Pedagogy)	do.	5-6	3 times.
	Second Semester.	Public and Private Church Law	Dr. Anton Edlen V. Gapp.	9-10 & 3-4	Daily.
		Exposition of New Testament	Dr. Wenzel Kozelka.	10-11 & 4-5	do.
		Pedagogy	do.	5-6	3 times.
3d Year.	1st & 2d Semesters	Dogmatic Theology	Dr. Thos. Christ.	10-11 & 3-4	Daily.
		Moral Theology	Dr. Thos. Fritz.	9-10 & 4-5	do.
4th Year.	1st & 2d Semesters	Pastoral Theology, according to <i>Reichenberg's</i> work	Supplementary Prof. Loritz.	10-11 & 3-4	Daily.
		Catechetics	Drs. Leonhard and Peitl.	11-12 & 4-5	do.
Extraordinary Lectures.		Hebrew Dialect; Arabic, Syrian, and Chaldaic	Dr. Joseph Kärle.	8-9 & 3-4	Daily and three times.
		Philosophic Exposition of the New Testament	Dr. W. Kozelka.	11-12	twice.

The Lutheran and other Protestant divines are educated at Goettingen, Wittenberg, Leipzig, and Jena.

The law and political studies are governed by a director and vice-director, sixteen professors, six sup-

plementary professors, and one assistant. They are as follows:—

	COURSE.	Subject.	Professor.	Hour.	Frequency in the week
First Year.	First Semester.	General Study of Law, Political Science, and Natural Law	Dr. Sebastian Jenull, and Sup. Prof. Dr. A. Hye	9-10 & 4-5	Daily.
		European Statistics, according to the works of <i>Zizius & Luca</i>	Dr. Springer.	8-9	do.
	Second Semester.	Natural, Public, and Criminal Law, according to <i>Martinis' Positiones de jure Civitates</i>	Dr. Jenull.	9-10 & 4-5	do.
		Austrian Statistics, according to <i>Bisinger's</i> work	Dr. Springer.	8-9	do.
Second Year.	First Semester.	Roman Civil Law	Dr. A. Edlin von Gapp.	9-10	do.
		Legislation, and the subject of Compulsory Taxation	Dr. Springer.	4-5	do.
	Second Semester.	Ecclesiastical Law & Roman Civil Law	Dr. A. Edlin von Gapp.	9-10	do.
		Legislation, &c., repeated	Dr. Springer.	9-10	do.
Third Year.	First Semester.	Austrian Civil Law	Dr. J. Winiwater.	10-11 & 3-4	do.
		Fædal Law	Dr. Joseph Leeb.	11-12	do.
	Second Semester.	Austrian Law	Dr. J. Winiwater.	10-11 & 3-4	do.
		Commercial and Patentee Law			
Fourth Year.	First Semester.	Political Science, Police, Commerce and Finance	Dr. Jos. Kudler.	9-10 & 3-4	do.
		Style and Mode of conducting Civil Affairs and Legal Proceedings	Dr. Joseph Leeb.	9-10	do.
		Political Law	Dr. Jos. Kudler.	9-10 & 3-4	do.
	Second Semester.	Judicial Procedure, (not in Law Suits)	Dr. Joseph Leeb.	8-9	do.
		Calculation — according to <i>Szarka's Lehrbuch Der Comptabilität's Wissenschaft</i>	Dr. Paul Ritter von Prosky.	11-12½	do.
		Hungarian Law, and Laws concerning the Property and Working of Mines	Suppl. Professor John Nap. v. Godinger.	4-5	do.
	Extraordinary Lectures.	Judiciary & Administrative Arithmetic.	Herr Jos. Beskiba.	11½-12½	3 times

FACULTY OF MEDICINE.--In 1742, Van Swieten published the first volume of his commentaries, and the second was nearly finished when the Empress Maria Theresa became acquainted with his merits and reputation, and called him from Leyden to Brussels to attend her sister, the Archduchess Maria Anna. Shortly afterwards she promoted him to the office of first court physician in Vienna, where he arrived the 7th of June, 1745.

Nicholas Garelli, the *Leibarzt* of Charles VI. was dead, and the school of Vienna possessed no attraction except for natural history, at a time when the science of medicine had received a new impulse from the labours of Sydenham in England, Boerhaave in Holland, and Stahl and Frederick Hoffmann in Northern Germany—men who rescued it from the ignorance and superstition of the sixteenth century.

Van Swieten established a botanic garden and professorships of botany and chemistry, and he himself delivered lectures upon medical science in the imperial library. He also invited the most celebrated physicians and surgeons in Europe to settle in the Austrian capital, an invitation that soon attracted around him the science and talent of the Continent. So early as 1636, Otto Heurnius, following the example of the university of Utrecht, established a clinique in the *Collegium Practicum Medicum* at Leyden; and De Haen, the pupil of Boerhaave, was invited to fill the office of clinical teacher in Vienna in 1754; Pallucci of Florence was elected to the professorship of surgery; the zealous and distinguished Jacquin to that of botany; Crantz filled

the newly-created chair of midwifery ; and Barth, of whom we shall have occasion to speak hereafter, that of anatomy—a science then receiving a new interest from the investigations of Ruysch, Lewenhoeck, Lieberkühn, and Albinus, several of whose unrivalled microscopic preparations Van Swieten caused to be purchased for the anatomical collection of Vienna, where some still remain, a challenge to the skill of our modern professors.*

Of Mohrenheim and the school of ophthalmology I shall speak in detail, when describing the present state of that branch of medicine. Jaus, the pupil of Winslow, in the civil hospital, and Brambilla in the newly-erected military academy, advanced the surgical department, ably assisted by their followers, Ferdinand Leiber, Steidele, and Hunczowsky. But to enumerate even the names of the many distinguished physicians and surgeons, and men of general scientific attainments in each department of the medico-chirurgical art and its collateral branches, would be to write the history of medicine in Southern Germany from the arrival of its master spirit, Van Swieten, to the period of his decease, in 1772.

He was succeeded in the directorship of medical studies by Störck, and since his death these studies have been frequently altered and improved : the whole course being re-organized and arranged upon a new plan in 1833.

* Some of those beautiful preparations still remain in the university museum. Those of Lieberkühn in particular, now in the keeping of Professor Berres, are, notwithstanding all our modern improvements, some of the finest injections in existence—they are only equalled by those of our esteemed friend, Professor Hyrtl of Prague.

As it now stands, the medical profession in Austria is divided into the first class physicians and first class surgeons (*Doctoren der Meditzin und Chirurgie*); the town and county surgeons (*Civil und Land Wundärzte*)—analogous to the general practitioners in Great Britain; those who practise specialities, as accoucheurs (*Geburtshilfer*), oculists (*Augenärzte*), dentists (*Zahnärzte*); the *Pharmaceurs*, who are divided into the apothecaries (*Apotheker*) and the doctors of chemistry (*Doctoren der Chemie*); and, lastly, the veterinary surgeons (*Thierärzte*)—a class very superior to any other of a similar calling in Europe, and a large portion of whom are at the same time physicians and surgeons of the first grade. The veterinary college and hospital now form a portion of the university direction, and comes under the general oversight of the medico-chirurgical faculty. In addition to the above, there are a certain number of educated licensed midwives (*Hebammen*), as shall be explained in describing the obstetric clinique of the general hospital. Each of these classes undergoes a certain fixed course of study.

The medical faculty is governed by a director, Dr. J. N. Ritter von Raimann, a dean, two vice-directors, a senior, and the *procurateurs* of the students of the four academic nations—the Austrian, the Slavonian and Rheinisch, the Hungarian, and the Italo-Illyrian, which also includes the Saxon. There are sixteen ordinary and nine extraordinary professors, besides the assistants of the different cliniques and museums, &c. The course is as follows :—

	COURSE.	Subject.	Professor.	Hour.	Frequency in the week.
First Year.	First Semester.	Introduction to the Medical Studies, & Mineralogy	Dr. C. Fischer.	10-11	5 times.
		Anatomy . . .	Dr. Joseph Berres.	9-10	do.
		Zoology . . .	Dr. C. Fischer.	10-11	do.
		Botany . . .	Dr. S. Endlicher.	7½-8½	do.
		Anatomy . . .	Dr. Joseph Berres.	9-10	do.
	Second Semester.	Anatomical Dissections . . .			
Second Year.	First Semester.	Anatomy and Physiology (in Latin)	Dr. J. Czermak.	10-11	do.
		General Chemistry .	Dr. Ad. Pleischi.	11-1	do.
		Anatomy and Physiology . . .	Dr. J. Czermak.	10-11	do.
	Second Semester.	Pharmacy . . .	Dr. Ad. Pleischl.	11-1	do.
Third Year.	First Semester.	General Pathology & Etiology (in Latin)	Dr. S. Töltenyi.	3-4	Daily.
		Materia Medica et Chirurgica, Therapea, Diatetic, and the Art of Prescribing (in Latin)	Dr. S. Töltenyi.	8-9 & 3-4	do.
		Theory of Midwifery (in the Krankenhaus)	Dr. John Klein.	12-1	5 times.
	Second Semester.	Contagious Diseases of Animals, — in Veterinary Institute . . .	Dr. Ant. Hayne.	5½-6½	3 times.
Fourth Year.	First Semester.	Medical Clinique (in the Krankenhaus)	Dr. Hildenbrand.	8-9	Daily.
		Special Therapea for Internal Diseases .	do.	9-10	5 times.
		Surgical Clinique .	Dr. Wattmann.	10-11	Daily.
		Surgical Operations	do.	11-12	5 times
	Second Semester.	Medical Clinique .	Dr. Hildenbrand.	11-12	do.
		Therapea, as above .	do.	9-10	do.
		Surgical Clinique .	Dr. Wattmann.	10-11	Daily.
		Special Surgical Pathology . . .	do.	11-12	5 times.
Fifth Year.	First Semester.	Medical Clinique .	Dr. Hildenbrand.	8-9	Daily.
		Special Therapea for Internal Diseases .	do.	9-10	5 times.
		Ophthalmic Clinique	Dr. Rosas.	10-11	daily.
		Ophthalmic Science .	do.	11-12	5 times.
		Legal Medicine .	Dr. Joseph Brent.	12-1	do.
		Exercise in Judiciary Dissections .	do.		
	Second Semester.	Medical Clinique .	Dr. Hildenbrand.	8-9	daily.
		Special Therapea for Internal Diseases .	do.	9-10	5 times.
		Ophthalmic Clinique	Dr. Rosas.	10-11	daily.
		Ophthalmic Surgery	do.	11-12	5 times.
		Medical Police .	Dr. Joseph Brent.	7-8	do.
		Judiciary Dissections	do.		

The education acquired in this—the higher branches of study (*Studium der Arzneikunde und höhern Wundarzneikunst*)—requires five years, and none are permitted to attend the lectures upon these subjects but those who have obtained at the final examinations of their philosophical studies a certificate of first class in all the obligatory course. They only are eligible to become doctors of medicine and surgery.

Students wishing to take out the degree of doctor of surgery are obliged, in addition to this course, to attend the surgical clinique, and the lectures upon the practice of surgery, during the fifth year; but as these lectures take place at the same hour as the ophthalmic clinique, those pupils are compelled to attend the latter in the next ensuing season, that is, the first semester of the sixth year. Those who wish to take out a special diploma, as *Augenarzt*, are obliged to repeat the second semester of the ophthalmic course;—and those who wish to become master-accoucheurs are required to attend for two additional months in the obstetric clinique, and also to undergo an especial examination.

Thus we find that according to this very extensive and well-arranged course, not only is the routine of subjects accurately defined, but the student is obliged strictly to adhere to them in the manner, and according to the order marked out by the board of medical directors. I cannot too strongly admire and recommend this practice, more especially as it is one whose adoption in Great Britain would be a vast improvement in the present system of medical education there. In England, with few exceptions, (and even in those exceptions the kind of

instruction is very meagre,) there is little or no preparatory education required by the different colleges and licensing bodies. The student is at perfect liberty to choose what lectures, and how many, he will first attend; the object not being how he can best prepare his mind, by initiatory degrees, for the more mature branches of study, but how he can soonest, easiest, and cheapest become possessed of the *certificates of attendance* upon these lectures, a large majority of which said lectures he has never heard, nay, may never have seen the lecturer till he comes to purchase from him the necessary certificate. There being no tests required, as to his knowledge of any of the subjects he is *supposed* to study, till the hour of his examination, (still some years distant,) a great number of them have never cost him an hour's thought or reading; and when this examination does arrive, the chances that he is never asked a question except upon anatomy and surgery, and a little physiology, are, in the chief licensing institutions in Great Britain, so slight as almost to amount to a certainty. Again, in the order (if the term can be so applied) of these studies, what difficulties do not hourly present themselves in the student's path. Hospitals and practical subjects are attended to long before their theory has ever been learned. Here the pupil really *walks* the hospital without acquiring a definite knowledge of any one thing; he witnesses operations of which he neither understands the rationale nor the cause, except by his grinder, during a few hard months' study prior to his examination, the result of which more frequently depends upon his memory than his practical knowledge; he is never once

called upon to test or exercise his acquirements until the hour before he receives a licence to practise, and too frequently he finds, at the conclusion of his studies, that he has begun at the wrong end. As matters now stand in this country, this is not the student's fault, but the fault of those who have, or ought to have, the direction of his studies and pursuits. The contrast with Austria, and the medical schools of the Continent generally, may be learned by an examination of the programme of the different lectures. Moreover, as in the cliniques, so also at the lectures, the students are examined by the professor at the end of each semester, twelve at a time, as to their proficiency in the subject of each course of lectures they have attended, before they are permitted to pass to a higher class. Private courses, particularly on operating in eye-surgery, and on pathology, are permitted to be given by the professors of these subjects, but no other lectures are recognised by the university or the medical faculty, except those specified in the foregoing and following programme of the courses :—

The professors can lecture from works published by themselves, or from some work of which they have made choice, and which meets with the approbation of the constituted authorities. It is an established rule, not only in the medical, but in all the other faculties, that each course of lectures is to be grounded upon some one text-book, not too voluminous, and within the students' reach and comprehension, instead of being, as in this country, a compilation from numerous ancient and modern authors, the majority of which are but refutations of the hypotheses of the foregoing ones, and of which the student remembers but the names.

As the subject of physiology naturally admits of a greater scope to the imagination, and a greater exercise of mental powers than is quite compatible with the present system of Austrian *regime*, I may mention that the work of Professor Lenhossik, which previously served as a text-book in several of the universities, having attracted the attention of the authorities by some equivocal passages and expressions which it is said to contain, produced the following imperial edict in the year 1835 :—

“As the work composed by Michael Lenhossik, entitled ‘*Institutiones Physiologiæ Organismi Humani*,’ is not altogether free of some untenable hypotheses, and some equivocal expressions, and is therefore dangerous, it is necessary to warn each of the professors of the establishments for superior instruction, by whom the work is used as a text, to limit themselves strictly in their verbal illustrations, to what the book may contain that is useful to the students in medicine, or the merely scientific parts, and to omit all the hypothetical ones which have no practical application. When they meet in any of those paragraphs expressions wanting justness or precision, and therefore liable to an interpretation contrary to morality or religion, they must explain them so as to prevent such interpretation. Where this work has not served as a text to the lecturers on physiology, it must not be introduced, and it is recommended to encourage the professors, who are interested in the matter, to publish some useful work on the subject which may replace it.”

This latter recommendation may well be given, for the science of physiology has never yet had more than a name in Austria, and I know not of any work upon that sub-

ject which has emanated from any of its universities. How far this defect is to be explained by the religion of that country, by the peculiar character of the censorship, or by enactments such as those I have just quoted, I shall not take upon myself to say. With respect to the present condition of this science in the Austrian capital, all I have to offer is, that there is a lecturer upon that subject who has published a tract of a few pages upon the spermatozoa of the salamander.

Independent of the ordinary course, there are several lectures by the extraordinary professors, attendance upon which is optional with the students ;—these are, upon the mode of recovering asphyxiated persons, or those meeting any sudden death, by Dr. Bernt, once a week ;—upon pathological anatomy, three times a week, in the museum of the Krankenhaus, by Dr. Carl Rokitansky ;—on dental surgery, by Dr. Carabelli ;—diseases of women and children, by Dr. Lobisch, both three times a week ;—lectures upon the instruction suited to nurses and the attendants upon the sick, by Dr. Florian Schmidt ;—public hygiene, by Dr. Bastler ;—the history of medicine, by Dr. R. Seligmann ;—upon bandaging and surgical instruments, by Dr. Graf ;—and upon the care and treatment of children in health and disease, by Dr. L. Mauthner, the philanthropic founder of the new hospital for the diseases of children.

Anatomy has not as much attention paid to it in Vienna as in the Parisian and other continental schools ; there are, however, abundant opportunities afforded for becoming practically acquainted with this branch of medical knowledge, in the great number of subjects offered

for dissection. Generally speaking, I have not found the Austrian students as well informed upon this subject as the advantages they enjoy would lead us to suppose; they are not by any means neat dissectors, and minute anatomy receives but little attention. The pupils dissect the muscles, the viscera, the vascular and the nervous systems, &c., &c., separately, and in distinct courses; but although this mode may be the simplest and easiest for the beginner, and least harassing to the minds of all, yet for this reason, regional and surgical anatomy is less studied or understood than it is with us:

The dissecting-room is situated to the left of the great entrance to the university; it is lofty and extensive, but not kept so clean as it might be. The professor of anatomy's assistant (the prosector) attends during certain hours to superintend the dissections, but his services are by no means sufficient for so numerous a class. The want of a few energetic demonstrators is much felt.

Professor Berres has already acquired a European celebrity, particularly as a microscopic anatomist, and as an improver on the Daguerreotype; several of his preparations upon the former subject* are certainly most beau-

a | * In all the German schools, anatomy is taught perfectly distinct from, and unconnected with physiology, the anatomical course being a mere demonstration, and confined to the description and relation of parts and organs, their structure and mechanism, and without any references to their uses and functions. I was not a little surprised, on going to hear the greatest modern physiologist, Johannes Müller, lecture in the university of Berlin, to find him clad in the garb of a dissector, demonstrating the bones and ligaments.

tiful, and these the professor frequently exhibits with the aid of a very powerful oxyhydrogen microscope, at his *soirees* during the winter season. The remains of the preparations of Ruysch and Lieberkühn, to which I have already referred, are in his keeping.*

The anatomical museum of the university is of little value; it, however, possesses some admirable specimens of injection from the hands of Berres. It likewise contains a good craniological collection: and the skulls of the different nations, though neither well arranged, nor accurately marked, will be found highly interesting to those versed in ethnographical science. It was upon this collection of heads that the talented and ill-treated Gall made some of his early observations. Among these crania will be found several remarkable Austrian heads, whose Mongolian or Turanian contour evince an Asiatic origin;† a second form of Austrian head, of which there are several specimens in this collection approaches the type of the ancient Peruvians.

Besides these there is little to interest the curious, except a cast of the head of Paracelsus, taken from the skull at Salzburg; there is also the skeleton of a man of gigantic stature, and two femora, with one side of a pelvis, that I have no hesitation in pronouncing to be the largest yet known. One of these femurs measures from the great trochanter to the end of the inner condyle,

* Professor Hyrtl, of Prague, now one of the most successful anatomical injectors in Europe, was a pupil of Berres.

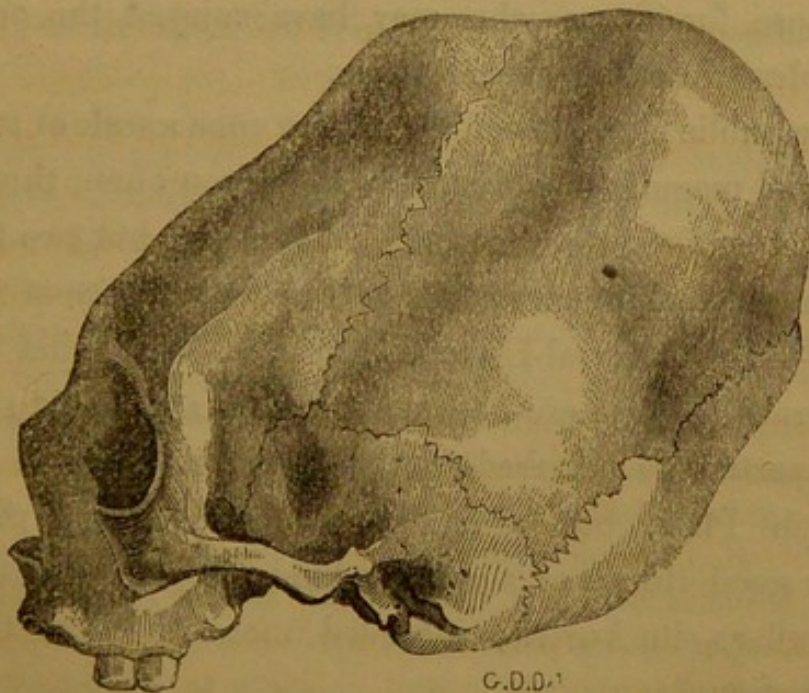
† In the fine collection of skulls in the museum at Heidelberg, the venerable Tiedemann has attached the label "Caput Turritum" to each head bearing a character similar to the above.

sixty-seven French centimes ; from the outer edge of the great trochanter to the most distant point of the head of the bone, fifteen ; and from the inner condyle to the head, sixty-nine. The pelvis measures, from the anterior to the posterior superior spinous processes, forty-one centimes ; and the long diameter of the acetabulum, is nine and a half. These curious relics, the undoubted remains, if not of a giant race, of at least a gigantic individual, were found in an ancient grave in the vicinity of Vienna, but I was unable to procure further information concerning them.* The collection of surgical instruments, both ancient and modern, is rare and curious.

Although botany is no longer studied any where with the same zeal and energy that it was in the days of our

* I am indebted to my learned friend, Professor R. Seligmann for a beautiful cast of one of the most extraordinary heads that has, I believe, ever been discovered in Europe. It is so exactly similar both in shape and proportions, that at a first glance it would be almost impossible to tell the difference between it and one of those ancient Peruvian skulls discovered by Mr. Pentland in the valley of Titecaca ; and it appears to have been either compressed by artificial process, like those of that people, or to have belonged to a race that at some former period used this method of altering their heads, and in whom it may be possible that the form became permanent. This skull, which is now in the possession of Count Breuner, was discovered along with some other human remains, in an ancient tumulus, or barrow, near Gräfenegg, in Lower Austria, about forty-seven miles west of Vienna, and four miles from the Danube. Several such mounds, some sepulchral, but the large majority evidently military, stretch in a circuitous direction from this point for many miles towards the Moravian frontier. The opinion prevailing among the Austrian antiquaries is, that they are the remains of an Avarian people of Asiatic origin. As no description has yet been pub-

forefathers, and receives about as little attention from the medical students in Vienna, as those in the other schools of Europe in the present day, yet the field for observation, and the opportunities afforded for the study of this delightful and useful branch of knowledge is greater there than in any other continental city I am acquainted with. There are several splendid collections of the rarest and most costly plants of our Flora in the private collections around the city, which are most liberally thrown open to the visitor ; and the botanic garden



lished of this interesting skull, I subjoin the accompanying wood-cut, from a cast in my collection, which may interest those learned in the physical history of man. The great length of this head in the antero-posterior diameter, and the remarkable and manifest depressions in the frontal bone and at the anterior fontanelle, as well as the examination of its base, all confirm the affinity which it bears to those altered by artificial pressure.

of the university, adjoining the Belvedere, is extensive, well arranged, and in good keeping. The chair of botany, so long filled with such ability and reputation by the two Jacquins, is now occupied not only by one of the first botanists in Europe, but one of the most scientific and literary men in Austria, Professor Stephen Endlicher, a man of sterling, but modest and unobtrusive talent, of most varied and extensive reading, and combining with all a gentleness of disposition, and a fulness of heart, that is duly appreciated by his pupils and colleagues, and will long live in the remembrance of those foreigners who may have enjoyed the profit and pleasure of his acquaintance.

The public museums of Vienna are upon a scale of truly imperial magnificence, but they have been often, though not yet sufficiently described. There are but two that in an especial manner come within the province of this work—the Natural-History Museum, and that for Minerals. These are both contained in a splendid suite of apartments attached to the Burg or palace in the Joseph Platz, but are, I regret to say, like many other good things of a similar kind, in other countries as well as in Austria, intended more for show than instruction.

The latter is one of the richest collections in Europe, both in foreign productions, and the native minerals of this extensive kingdom, so diversified in all its geological treasures. The collection of Aerolites, or meteoric stones, is, perhaps, the finest in existence, but this museum is very defective in fossil remains. The only specimens of this description worth noticing,

are some ox-heads, dug up in the vicinity of Vienna, and of which there are three kinds—the first bearing a strong affinity to the *Bos Primigenius* of Herman Von Meyer, of which there are some fine specimens at Frankfort-on-the-Maine; the second, those resembling the common ox still existing in that part of Europe, and especially in Hungary; and the third, that of the gigantic ox, *Bos Giganteus*, first figured by Cuvier, with enormous wide-spreading horns, of which there is so fine an example in the *Jardin des Plants*. The other fossil remains worthy of notice, consist of the heads of the so-called Irish Elk, *Cervus Megacerus*.*

* Next to our own country these remains are most plentiful in Hungary, Bohemia, Lower Austria, and generally along the banks of the Danube; but from the specimens I have had an opportunity of examining in the museums of these countries, it is evident that there the animal was a smaller, perhaps a degenerated race. They are generally found there, not in gravel beds as with us, but in alluvial, and evidently much more recent formations, as in deposits of mud on the banks of the Danube and its tributaries. Several have been discovered in the bed of the river itself; and there is one very remarkable pair of horns in the mineralogical cabinet at Vienna, which was lately removed from the bed of the Danube, near Pesth, which bears carved on it a rude inscription, of which an account has been published in the transactions of the fatherland museum of Bohemia, (*Verhandlungen des Gesellschaft des vaterlandeschen Museums in Böhmen, am 2 April, 1834,*) for which I am indebted to my esteemed friend, Count Albert Thun, of Prague. At first sight the inscription was supposed to be Byzantine, but it is now acknowledged to be Bulgarish, or Selavo-serbish, a language lost since the beginning of the fourteenth century. Written in the Latin character it would run thus, "U POTOPU POGUBISIA;" by the Bohemian naturalists translated thus, "*in diluvio interiit.*" Up

There is also a most interesting collection of rocks and minerals in process of formation at the bank of Vienna, under the able superintendence of Mr. Heiden-ger. It is intended as a school for the instruction of those who are being educated by the bank-direction, for conducting the smelting, testing, and coining departments of that establishment. This institution will be a most valuable addition to those *Realschulen* I have already described.

The Cabinet of Natural History is undoubtedly one of the finest on the Continent; it was founded at the private expense of the Emperor Francis I., and is now under the direction of the medical faculty. Among the mammalia there is little to attract notice, except a good specimen of the *Auroch*, or wild bull of the Lithuanian forest—*Bos Urus*; but a still finer specimen will be found in the museum of the veterinary college. The birds, fishes, and entozoa form the best arranged and most extensive portion of this museum. Except in the collection of Berlin, the birds are decidedly the finest in Europe. This latter portion of the collection is under the able superintendence of Dr. John Natterer, the celebrated Brazilian naturalist, who spent eighteen years

to this period then we may infer that the animal did not exist in Hungary. But in what collection was this bone originally, or by what naturalist was the inscription carved on it?

From the diminutive size of the specimens, and the consideration of the deposits and later formations in which they are found, I am inclined to think that the animal existed in those parts of Europe much later than with us, probably long after man's settlement in those countries.

in South America* collecting objects of natural history at the government expense; and forwarded to this museum upwards of thirty thousand specimens, chiefly birds, and a large collection of the intestinal worms found in birds, which, added to the magnificent collection of entozoa, arranged by Brümser, makes this portion of zoology unrivalled by any museum in the world. The collection of preserved fishes is very rich, particularly in the Salmonidæ. The student will not find upon the Continent a better opportunity of making himself acquainted with the species and variety of this extensive tribe than at Vienna. Here will be found good specimens of SALMO—*Salar*—*Hucho*—*Orientalis*—*Trutta*—*Lemanis*—*Lacustris*—*Autumnalis*—*Erytheris*—*Lucomænis*—*Levigatus*—*Japanensis*—*Umbla*—*Salvelinus*—*Operculatus*—*Ferox*—*Fario*—*Alpinus*—*Curilus*, and also *Thymellus Vulgaris*. The Sturgeon species are also numerous, and have received particular attention from the curator of this portion of the museum, Mr. Heckel. Among those taken in the Danube will be found STURIO *Stellatus*—*Glaber*—*Heckellii*—*Vulgaris*—*Ruthinus*—and *Huso*, which is one of the largest and commonest species found in the neighbourhood of Vienna; besides *Gülderstadlii* and *Schynæ*, which are both very rare. There is also an extensive collection of Brazilian fishes; but space will not admit of further enumeration. There are above fifteen hundred species in this department of

* It was Dr. Natterer who first introduced into this country a specimen of that extraordinary animal the *Lepidosiren Annectens*.

the cabinet, and the number of examples exceeds three thousand. The splendid collection of Brümzer's intestinal worms is also contained in this part of the museum.

Naturalists visiting Vienna will have an ample field for study and observation in its fish and game markets : in the former will be found the greatest variety of fresh-water fish of any city in Europe ; and the latter is constantly supplied with a large variety of the deer kind—red-deer (*Daumhirsch*), and the chamois, wild boars, wolves, badgers, and frequently beavers.

There is a small menagerie at Schönbrunn, containing some good specimens of polar bears, and it is said that a zoological garden is in contemplation.

The Austrian professors are virtually appointed by the government, though a *nominal concours* is had recourse to ; their salaries are from 1800 to 2000 florins yearly.

There is but one speciality more of which I have now to speak, that of dental surgery. No one is permitted to practise this art without a proper special education in the elements of medicine and surgery, and having attended Professor Carabelli's lectures in the university, and also his private practical course, which, as with the other private studies, is delivered at his house, where he has besides an extensive fabrique for the manufacture of teeth and other artificial work. Carabelli is said to be a man of considerable practical science in his profession, and is reputed to have been in the receipt of sixty thousand florins a year—a sum scarcely equalled by any of the general physicians even of the highest grade in Vienna. There are forty licensed dentists now practising in this city.

It is very much to be regretted that some description of education, either practical or scientific, is not required from persons professing this art in Great Britain.

The student of medicine having completed the foregoing course of study, is required to lay before each of his examiners a history of at least two cases that he has attended in a medical clinique during his fifth year. He then undergoes two separate examinations. On the occasion of his first (*erste prüfung*), he is examined at the house of the president, upon anatomy, botany, natural history, physiology, general and special pathology, *semiotik*, (the doctrine of morbid symptoms,) and general therapeutics, by the president, the dean, and professors Berres, Fischer, Töltenyi, Czermak, and Endlicker—each for a quarter of an hour. ik

Generally several weeks, and often three months, intervene between this and the second examination, which includes chemistry, legal and police medicine, ophthalmology, and the *materia medica*: the court being formed as before of the president and dean, together with the vice-director, and professors Bernt, Hildenbrand, Rosas, Pleischel, and Töltenyi. In this last examination, which is entirely of a practical nature, the professor enumerates the symptoms of the case, and requires the pupil to make a diagnosis and prescribe the treatment. The candidate, if successful, then writes a Latin thesis or dissertation upon some branch of medicine or its subsidiary sciences, and defends it publicly in the great hall of the university, in a syllogistic form, against four opponents, who must be doctors of medicine; and finally he makes a Latin oration, thanking the

professors, his fellow-students, and friends; and descanting upon the degree of success he expects in his professional career. If unsuccessful, the candidate is not again admissible for several months, and is required in the mean time to re-enter the ophthalmic clinique, and treat some of the diseases there, under the direction of the professor.

The cost of this examination, which is denominated the final *Regrosum*, is two hundred florins, which goes to form a fund, from which each examiner receives a ducat.

The first examination for the degree of a doctor of surgery consists of anatomy, chemistry, the art of prescribing, medical jurisprudence, the theory and practice of surgery and ophthalmology. The examiners are the president and dean, with Professors Bernt, Berres, Rosas, Pleischel, Wattman, and Töltenyi, or those holding similar professorships for the time being. The second examination consists in the candidate performing two surgical operations upon the subject publicly in the anatomical theatre, in the presence of the professors and the class. This is the only public examination. In performing each operation, the candidate is required to detail its history; the different methods employed; its dangers, advantages, and probable results; the parts incised; the description, use, and value of the different instruments; as well as the dressing, bandaging, and after-treatment, &c.

The expense of this examination is one hundred and ninety-five florins.

The great majority of students who study in the

higher classes become both doctors of medicine and surgery, as, since the late regulations, besides the additional lectures which I have already stated it is necessary for the latter to attend, a doctor of one subject can take out a degree in the other, by undergoing two additional examinations. The *Doctor der Chirurgie* wishing to become an M.D. is examined in botany, natural history, pathology, therapeutics, and the practice of physic; and the *Doctor der Medicin* who desires also to become doctor of surgery, is first examined in the theory and practice of surgery, and then publicly performs the operations in like manner with the surgical candidate.

The former of these examinations costs one hundred and fourteen, and the latter one hundred and ten florins.

Owing to those admirably-constituted academic regulations recently introduced, surgery is daily rising in Austria.

It subsequently becomes a matter of choice to the medical man which branch of the profession he will practise.

The other doctor's degree conferred by the medical faculty is that of doctor of chemistry—of which we shall speak when describing the pharmacy course.

No foreigner is allowed to practise in Austria without attending the medical clinique for two years, and submitting to an examination similar to the above; and no physician or surgeon can practise in Vienna unless those who have graduated in that university, without a special licence from the medical faculty, and paying a sum of two hundred florins; but those who have graduated in any of the other eight universities are at liberty to

2 establish themselves in whatever part of the empire they please.

The number of medical men of the higher grade resident in Vienna in 1840 was 370; of whom 74 were surgeons, and 20 oculists. Of 330 of these, 130 were Bohemians, 129 Austrians, 43 Hungarians, and 28 Italo-Illyrians. Not only are the Bohemian or Sclavonian race the most zealous cultivators of medicine, but in talent and reputation they far surpass the others, and form a large majority of the professors. This might, however, be accounted for by the circumstance of the university of Prague being the stepping-stone to Vienna, and its being an established rule that all the professors in the latter should first hold a similar office in some other university.

During the period of my visit, the physician in the most extensive practice was Signior Malfatti, an Italian.

The usual fee to a doctor of medicine or surgery is a *Gulden münztz* (two shillings) for each visit, but this sum varies, according to the business or the celebrity of the practitioner, to a ducat or even more. The consultation fee is always a ducat. The law makes strict provision for the remuneration of medical men: in posthumous cases the physician and the apothecary take precedence in this respect of the relatives and legatees. The highest sum made by any physician or surgeon in Vienna is from fifty to sixty thousand florins a year.

CHAPTER IV.

GENERAL PRACTITIONERS, PHARMACY, AND
APOTHECARIES.

SURGEON-BARBERS—THEIR EDUCATION—DISABILITIES UNDER WHICH THEY
LABOUR—PRESENT CONDITION OF PHARMACY IN AUSTRIA—PRICE OF
MEDICINES—THE PHARMACY DEPARTMENT—THE GREMIUM LAWS—REGU-
LATIONS OF APOTHECARIES—PHARMACEUTICAL EDUCATION—MASTER
APOTHECARIES—DOCTORS OF CHEMISTRY—REGULATIONS CONCERNING
THE DISPENSING OF MEDICINES—REGULATIONS BETWEEN APOTHECARIES
AND PRACTITIONERS—PHARMACOPÆAS—COMPARISON WITH GREAT
BRITAIN—SURGICAL GREMIUMS—THEIR PRIVILEGES AND ORGANIZATION.

WITH the education of those two classes of practitioners described in the last chapter our commendation ceases, for that of the lower grades, the Magisters or Patrons of surgery, is of a very inferior description; and the disabilities under which this class labour in the position which they occupy in the caste-maintaining system of Austria, is such as degrades the surgeons, not only in letter, but in spirit, to the mere barbers and dressers of wounds—a position from which they can never rise, no matter what their talents or ability. Every *Wundarzt* (one of the class of whom I now write) is obliged by the law of the land to shave for a couple of *kreutzers*, exhibit the basin and striped pole, and keep open a barber's shop; some idea of the interior of which may be learned by a glance at Tenier's graphic illustration of a Flemish surgery. And although many of these surgeons in the

larger cities do not themselves manipulate upon the jaws and chins of the inhabitants, yet are they obliged to keep a servant or an apprentice to do so, as hair-dressers or any other class of the community, except the *Wundärtze*, are not permitted to perform this operation. These general practitioners are not allowed to sell medicine, but to them is committed the performance of all the minor chirurgical parts of the profession, such as usually falls to the lot of the apothecary with us; as for instance, bleeding, cupping, the application of leeches, and the dressing of simple wounds and fractures, &c. They cannot prescribe medicine, except a few simples, unless in cases of immediate danger, and when a physician or doctor of surgery is not at hand; they form, however, the principal practitioners in the distant country parts.

Until within the last few years, it was necessary, in order to become a *Doctor der Chirurgie*, first to take out a degree in physic, and then to study surgery; and therefore very few ever put themselves to the trouble with the loss of time and labour to attend to the latter; a circumstance which, added to the condition of the *Wundarzt* already explained, operated materially in keeping Austrian surgery far below that of any other continental country, or its own state of medicine. The endeavour made by the physicians to preserve the two classes distinct, has also operated most injuriously. One instance of this occurred to my own knowledge, in which a young rising practitioner was refused admittance into the faculty of medicine until he removed the word *Opérateur* from his name. I am happy, however,

to say, that these disabilities are daily decreasing; and in a few years more, the arrival of a *Dieffenbach* in the imperial city will not exhibit the want of confidence which the Austrians have in their own operators and surgeons.

The practical course "*Chirurgische Studium für Civil und Landwundärzte*" occupies three years, and may be passed in a lyceum, or faculty of science, as well as in a niversity. It is as follows:—

	Period.	Subject.	Professor.	Hour.	Frequency in the week.
First Year.	First Semester.	Introduction to Medical Studies, and Physics	Dr. John Wisgrill.	10 to 11	5 times.
		Anatomy	Dr. Berres.	9—10 & 3—4	do.
		Botany	Dr. John Wisgrill.	7—8	do.
		General & Pharmaceutical Chemistry	do.	8—9	do.
	Second Semester.	Anatomy	Dr. Berres.	9—10 & 3—4	do.
		Dissections	From beginning of Oct. to end of April.		
Second Year.	First Semester.	Physiology, Pathology, and Therapeutics	Dr. C. D. Schroff.	11—12 & 4—5	5 times.
		Pharmacopea, and the Art of Prescribing, Dietetics, &c.	do.	11—12 & 4—5	daily.
	Second Semester.	Theory of Midwifery	Dr. J. Klein.	12—1	do.
		Epizootics (Diseases of domestic Animals)	Prof. Hayne.	5—6	3 times.
Third Year.	First Semester.	Medical Clinique	Dr. A. Wawruch.	8—9	daily.
		Special Therapeutics of Internal Diseases	do.	9—10	5 times.
		Surgical Clinique	Prof. Wattmann.	10—11	daily.
		Surgical Operations	do.	11—12	5 times.
		Legal Medicine— <i>(Gereichtliche Arzneykunde)</i>	Dr. Josh. Bernt.	12—1	do.
		Medical Clinique and Therapea	As in former Semester.		
		Surgical Clinique, Therapea, and Operations	do.		
		Ophthalmic Surgery	Prof. Rosas.	12—1	do.

The preliminary education of this class of students consists in having passed the third class of a superior preparatory school, and the four grammar classes of a gymnasium, as well as in having received a first-class certificate; the majority of these students serve an apprenticeship in the *Offitzin*, or the establishment of a *Wundarzt*.

The highest rank that this class can attain to is that of *Magister der Chirurgie*, which is obtained by having studied six grammar classes in a *Lehranstalt*, and passing the third year of his practical course in a university, in what is termed the little course, *i. e.*, by repeating the surgical lectures, together with those specified for the same year in the foregoing table, and in having undergone a public examination before the professor and his class upon the subject of bandaging and the use of instruments. Students who pass directly from the gymnasium to the practical course, without being bound to a *Wundarzt*, frequent the wards for the treatment of internal diseases in some of the recognised hospitals, for *one month*! and also assist in the surgical practice of an hospital for three months: those who commence their course in a university school, or who have been apprenticed to a surgeon, require a certificate of hospital attendance but for one month altogether; this, however, is independent of the clinical instruction, and is intended to give them some knowledge of the minor details of a sanatory establishment. The *Magister der Chirurgie* passes two examinations: the first includes anatomy, surgery, practice of physic and legal medicine—there are six examiners; at the second he makes

one public operation as by those of a higher grade. The cost is one hundred and two florins. The *Civil und Landwundarzt*, or *Patron der Chirurgie*, passes but one examination upon the same subjects as the master in surgery; he is not required to perform an operation. The cost is fifty-four florins. The number of *Civil und Landwundärzte* in Vienna are, twenty-eight in the town and eighty-four in the suburbs. Of the higher grade, (the *Magister Chirurgie*,) there are thirty-five, the majority of whom are employed in the hospitals or under the poor law.

Accoucheurs are examined by three professors on the theory and practice of midwifery and obstetrical jurisprudence (*gerichtliche-geburts-arzneikunde*)—cost forty florins; and for midwives (*Hebammen*) thirty-four florins. Occulists have two examinations—the first upon the theory and practice of ophthalmology, with three examiners; the second consists in performing a certain number of operations: the expense is forty-seven florins. The lowest grade of practitioners allowed to take out this degree is that of *Magister der Chirurgie*. Dentists have four examiners, and pay fifty-four florins.

There appears to me one great and manifest defect in the medical education of Austria—I mean that of comparative anatomy, which is not taught, because not known, in this university. But of this, as well as geology, I shall have to speak in another place.

PHARMACY.—There is no division of medical science in Austria that is better managed, or that might with greater advantage be imitated in many respects by our-

selves, than that of pharmacy, for it is there studied and practised as a separate and distinct branch of knowledge: the apothecary neither aspiring to the character of a medical practitioner on the one hand, nor descending to the trade of a druggist or retail grocer on the other. There, the apothecary is solely a compounder of physician's and surgeon's prescriptions. He dare not, under the severest penalties, prescribe even the most simple remedies, nor perform the most insignificant surgical operations—nay more, he cannot sell a dose of physic without the written order of a physician or surgeon who is recognised by the university of his country. Under this order of things, the prescriber and the taker of medicine have the advantage of having that medicine accurately compounded by a properly-educated pharmacean, whose whole time and ability are devoted to the subject. Only a certain fixed number of apothecaries are permitted to dispense and sell medicine in the empire: in Vienna the number is limited to forty, and never varies, for the *Apotheke* or shop, like the title of monarchy, never dies, but merely changes masters. These establishments are known by their signs,* and not by the names of their owners, who may be, and often are, widows of apothecaries, or merely tenants of the relatives or executors of such. The apothecary has no connection whatever with the

* Vienna has been long famed for the beauty of its signs; and some of the best executed of these belong to the establishments of apothecaries. Several have been painted by artists of considerable merit, and will well repay the visit of the traveller, particularly one in the Graben, and that beside the post-office.

patient; he never leaves his shop to apply his remedies or perform the minor operations of surgery, such as bleeding, cupping, leeching, &c. as with us—these being, as I have shown, the exclusive province of the *Wundarzt*. Each medicine has a certain stated price fixed by authority, and marked in the pharmacopoeia and medical tax-book, so that no exorbitant demand can possibly be made; and as has been already stated, no apothecary dare, under a heavy penalty, compound the prescription of any medical man whose name is not set forth in the printed list of authorized practitioners. The poor of this country being every where so well provided for by the state, the great number of hospitals that exist, and the smallness of the fees received by the practitioner, enabling the middle classes to procure proper medical advice, render unnecessary the system of self-doctoring or quack-doctoring, in use in Great Britain. The department of pharmacy consists of doctors of chemistry and master apothecaries; and these latter are again subdivided into the *Apotheker* who is a *bona-fide* possessor of a shop, the *Pächter* or tenant who hires such of an apothecary or his relatives, and the *Provisor*, who is a dispenser employed by an apothecary unable to manage his own concerns, or by his widow or friends, &c., and finally the *Gehülfe* or journeyman employed under any of these. No apothecary or doctor of chemistry can hold two establishments.

The affairs of this body, as also those of the physicians and surgeons, are under the care and direction of a corporation styled a *Gremium*; a notice of the construction of which here will serve for each of the other

departments. It is thus constituted:—In the metropolis of each province of the empire there is a *Hauptgremium* or chief corporation, consisting of a director, appointed triennially, and two assistants, chosen by ballot, and all the apothecaries keeping shops in the town or suburbs, either as possessors or tenants (*Pächter*)—and in case the possessor be not an apothecary (as in the instance of widows) then the *Provisor* employed to conduct such an establishment has a seat in the gremium. In Vienna there are two directors. In Bohemia *Provisors* have no voice in the gremium. This corporation meets quarterly, and holds a general assembly every September, and the notary of the medical faculty of the province presides at each of these meetings as Gremial-commissioner. Each member of this body is bound to appear at the quarterly meetings, or send a sufficient apology to the director.

In every district of the province there is a *Filialgremium* or auxiliary corporation, constituted in like manner with the chief one, and governed by a director and assistants: at its quarterly meetings and general assembly (which is held a fortnight before the metropolitan one) the district physician presides. This district gremium sends a deputation to represent its members at the annual September meeting in the chief city; but at the same time every recognised country apothecary is permitted to attend, though not to vote, at the general assembly. In Bohemia the district or filial gremium is under the direction of the government office of its state. The province of the gremium is to oversee and regulate all matters relating to pharmacy, to appoint

Provisors, examine and grant their freedom to apprentices, direct the financial affairs of the province or district, adjudicate in all disputes among the members or their assistants, assist distressed members of their body, together with their widows and orphans, and also return a statement of their proceedings to the medical department of the government.

If an apothecary dies, or falls sick, the gremial director takes charge of his establishment until a *Provisor* or a new occupant can be provided; he has, besides, to see that all persons selling or dispensing medicine within his district or town, are properly authorized and educated; and to inspect all shops as to the quality of their medicines. The gremium is supported by taxes levied off each of its members for licence to hold *Apotheken*, to receive apprentices, assistants, provisors, &c. sums varying from forty florins in the cities, and twenty in the country parts, to sums so small as one florin annually. Each member pays one hundred florins for his incorporation in Vienna; fifty in a provincial city, and twenty-five in a filial gremium. In case of widows carrying on the business of an apothecary, by means of a *Provisor*, the sum is but one half. The directors are obliged to send in an annual account of their income and expenditure to the magistrates of cities; and to the local government officers in rural districts. The expense of the head gremium consists of one hundred florins to the commissioner, fifty to each of the directors, ten to an assistant, and one hundred and twenty to the porter. The salaries of the officers of the filial gremium are not quite half these sums, and in Bohemia they are still less. A portion of these salaries is paid from the

fees just mentioned, and the remainder out of the general treasury. All surplus money is put into a fund and lent out on good security; a portion of the interest going to defray a part of the general expenses, and the remainder of it being devoted to assist unfortunate or distressed members, and to provide travelling money for journeymen, unable to pay their own expenses, &c. Each doctor of chemistry, or master apothecary, must belong to the university or lyceum of the province in which he practises.

Regarding the apprentices, the following regulations are strictly adhered to:—That the pupil has already passed through the four first grammar classes in a gymnasium, and is fourteen years of age. That he is bound for a period of not less than four years, in presence of the gremial director and one member. That he attends two courses of lectures, either in a university or a recognised lyceum, where the minor branches of medicine are taught. If there is no such school within his reach, then his master is bound to instruct him in those acquirements taught to pharmaceutical students in the established university course, and to keep for his perusal certain works set forth by authority of the gremium.* The ordinary course is as follows:—

FIRST YEAR.	{	<i>First Semester.</i> —Mineralogy.
	{	<i>Second Semester.</i> —Zoology—Botany.
SECOND YEAR.	{	<i>First Semester.</i> —General Chemistry.
	{	<i>Second Semester.</i> —Pharmacy.

* *Ehrmann's Lehrbuch der Pharmacie.* *Zimmermann's Grundzüge der Phytologie.* *Goldfuss's Handbuch der Zoologie.* *Leonhards' Naturgeschichte des Mineralreiches*—are the works specified by the gremial authority.

At the end of his apprenticeship the student, having been first examined by the filial gremium, as to his knowledge of the elements of these subjects, is forwarded for further examination to the *Haupt-Gremium*, where he is examined on his knowledge of pharmacy; when, if found to be proficient in this, and his general conduct warrants it, he receives his *Freisprechung*, or freedom from apprenticeship. This is termed the *Tyrocialprüfung*, and constitutes him a *Gehülfe*, or assistant, in which capacity he must remain four years in some Austrian *Apotheke*, or as is generally the case, in several, from their being, like the journeymen of all other trades, obliged to travel through the country. At the expiration of that period he is eligible to be examined for his degree of *Magister der Pharmacie*, at a university, by five examiners, consisting of the president or dean, the vice-director of the medical faculty, and the professors of chemistry, botany, and natural history, on the subjects already mentioned in the course. The lectures are free to all, but the examinations cost eighty-six florins (£4 10s.)

To obtain the degree of Doctor of Chemistry, the student must have already passed through six grammar and one philosophy class in his preliminary education, and he is required to repeat the course of lectures prescribed to pharmaciens in their second year; to make two examinations, and to perform and explain two chemical experiments, and the latter of those publicly, in the laboratory of the university. The most respectable apothecaries in the chief towns of the empire, are doctors of chemistry; should, however, (as is frequently the case,) the doctor

of chemistry be also a doctor of medicine, he cannot hold an *Apotheke* and at the same time prescribe medicine.

The following are some of the principal rules concerning the duties of apothecaries, and the composition and sale of medicines :—All poisons are required to be kept under lock and key, and can only be compounded by the head of the establishment. All powerful medicines, as emetics, drastic purges, strong mercurial compounds and narcotics, and all the preparations marked thus + in the tax-book, are not permitted to be sold without the recipe of an authorized practitioner. No apothecary dare, under the severest penalties, alter any item in a prescription. It is likewise set forth in the regulations, that unless the prescription is clearly written, and the apothecary fully understands it, he is forbidden to compound it. On the death, sickness, or absence of an apothecary, the director sends a provisor at once to fill his place ; until such is done no medicine can be sold or compounded in the establishment. Apothecaries known to sell medicines that *might* procure abortion, without the order of a physician, are punished in the severest manner.

In the remote and country parts of Austria there are but few apothecaries ; for not being allowed to prescribe or practise themselves, and the law permitting their selling but a few simples without a written order, they are almost wholly dependent on the medical practitioner. In such places where both exist, the apothecary dispenses the medicines ordered by the practitioner for the poor of the neighbourhood ; his accounts are audited and taxed according to the printed tariff at the

end of the year, and he is paid by the local civil authorities. This is the nearest approach to a dispensary system that I am aware of in southern Germany. If an apothecary resides within a certain distance of a *Wundarzt*, he can prevent the latter dispensing medicine.

In the cities a mutual interchange of good offices is carried on between the prescriber and compounder of medicine, pretty similar to that which is said to exist in some parts of this country; it is managed, however, in a different way. One of the chief apothecaries in Vienna showed me his books for a number of years, by which I find that he, in common with the rest of his craft, was obliged yearly (at Christmas) to send the different physicians and surgeons whose prescriptions he had most frequently compounded, presents of meat, coffee, groceries, &c., &c., to a considerable amount; but the tax did not end here, for the servant of the doctor had likewise to receive a largesse. To such an extent had this custom grown, that a few years ago when, owing to the increase of homœopathy, the sale of medicine in Vienna had decreased a third or more, the apothecaries held a meeting and agreed to resist this levy, and in lieu thereof, gave each medical practitioner in the city a sum of money commensurate with the number of his prescriptions made up in their establishments. There are no medical halls, and the apothecary's shop can only be distinguished by its sign. The Austrian pharmacopoeia shows but little advance in the science of the materia medica for the last twenty years. It is so seldom revised, that the most valuable and approved medicines do not find

their way into it, and consequently, are not to be found in the shops, till years after they are in common use in the rest of Europe; and when a new edition of the pharmacopoeia does appear, though edited by the president of the medical department, the professor of materia medica, and the director of the pharmacy department, it has to go through the ordeal of a strict censorship!! In Austria, both the public on the one hand, and the prescriber and legitimate compounder of medicine on the other, are protected against quacks, mountebanks, patent medicines, wonder-working nostrums, poisonous pills, mineral cosmetics, and the thousand deleterious substances advertised, puffed, and vended, under the name of specifics and panaceas, not only with the permission, but frequently with the *authority of the state*, in Great Britain. The public prints are not hired to entrap the ignorant or credulous, by lauding empirics and impostors; the public eye is not disgusted by unseemly and disgraceful placards; nor modest females insulted, by having indecent handbills thrust upon them in the open streets, as occurs daily in this country. Moreover, no one is allowed to sell medicine of any description without a proper education and a satisfactory licence; and the trade of a druggist is, as it should be, confined to the wholesale vending of medicines to apothecaries. England might and ought to take a wholesome lesson from this well-ordered condition of the present state of pharmacy in the Austrian states.

In this division of the Austrian *corps medical*, I have thus entered minutely into its government and regulations, for as the other branches of the faculty are sub-

jected to rules based upon similar provisions, and are also incorporated into gremiums, more or less resembling that of the apothecaries, it will be unnecessary to re-enter upon their description in detail.

There is a surgical *Gremium*, similar to the foregoing, in both the towns and country parts of each district, to which every practitioner of that grade must belong. In Vienna this corporate body is governed by four *Vorsteher*—two for the town, and two for the suburbs—who are chosen annually from the members of the gremium; the notary of the medical faculty acts as commissioner at their meetings. Prior to the year 1804, it was only necessary for the *Wundarzt* to serve an apprenticeship for three years, and to study his art under his master, with whatever opportunities his situation afforded, without going through any regular academic course of study, or attending any established school of medicine. No surgical student of this grade is allowed to attend lecturers during the first three years of his apprenticeship. Severe penalties are inflicted upon all *Wundärzte* who attempt to practise without undergoing a proper examination, and taking out a specific licence.

There are journeymen *Wundärzte* similarly situated, and under similar regulations with those of the apothecaries I have just described. The incorporation tax for a *Bürgerlichen Wundarzt* is thirty-five florins; and three florins yearly; for a *Gehülfe*, one florin; for receiving an apprentice the master pays six florins, and at the *Freisprechung*, nine florins. In the country parts these taxes are reduced to twelve florins, one florin; twenty-six kreutzers; three florins, and six florins.

There are twenty gremiums in Lower Austria, with an average number of thirty-two members in each. There is one gremium in every *Kreisamt*. The meeting is held in June, and the *Kreisarzt* or physician of the district has the supervision and direction of the whole. The taxes vary in different provinces. These practitioners are remunerated according to a regular scale of fees—thus, for bleeding, ten to seventeen kreutzers; for dressing a flesh wound, twenty-four kreutzers; if the wound be of any magnitude, forty-five kreutzers; for the whole attendance on such, from one to two florins in the country, and fifteen to twenty kreutzers in towns; for fractures or lacerated wounds, or injuries of the head, the fees are greater, and also for the general attendance on fractures, &c., as well as for the operation of trepanning, the latter being, by the medical laws of Austria, within the province of persons who are not permitted to prescribe a dose of medicine! If a fire occurs in the neighbourhood, the *Wundarzt* in whose district it happens, is obliged to attend, to be prepared for any accidents that may take place; and in case of the appearance of epidemics, he is obliged immediately to notify such to the head physician and the local government office.

The number of these practitioners in each district is limited, and none others are permitted to locate themselves without a special licence from the government, unless the inhabitants of the place desire it. Each *Wundarzt* has under his care a certain number of villages, and no other surgeon is allowed to encroach upon his walk, unless sent for by the desire of a patient.

Unless the *Wundarzt* belongs to the *Gremium* he is not permitted to keep an *Officin*, or shop, nor to hang out his sign, and he is forbidden to treat any internal disease, if there is a physician in his district. Circumscribed as is his practice, yet he enjoys an immunity from all quacks, who are punished with six months' imprisonment for every offence ; and physicians are not allowed to bleed, cup, or in any way interfere with the province of the *Wundarzt*. If there is not an apothecary within one hour's ride of his residence, then the *Wundarzt* is permitted to compound and sell a certain limited quantity of medicine. The widows and daughters of these medical men are allowed to continue their establishments on terms similar to the regulations of apothecaries. There are several volumes of laws relative to the duties and restrictions of *Wundärzte* in Austria.*

* Works consulted—*Das neueste und Wissenswerthe aus dem ganzen Umfange der Pharmacie und ihrer Grundwissenschaften*, von Mart. J. Ehrmann, Professor der Pharmacie und Waarenkunde an der K. K. Universität zu Wien, 1838.—*Ordnung und Gesetze für das Apotheke-Gremium, und für die Filial-Gremium der vier Kreise in Oesterreich unter der Enns*—von Anton Freyherr von Lago, &c.—*Instruction für Apotheke. Vorlesungen an der K. K. Universität zu Wien*, 1841.

CHAPTER V.

PRESENT STATE OF SCIENCE IN VIENNA.

CHARACTER OF THE AUSTRIAN STUDENTS—AMUSEMENT IN VIENNA—THE ELISEUM—STATE OF SCIENCE IN THE CAPITAL—WANT OF AN ACADEMY—COMPARISON BETWEEN THE LABOURING CLASSES OF AUSTRIA AND GREAT BRITAIN—THE DANUBE SOCIETY—LEOPOLD ACADEMY—EFFORTS OF LEIBNITZ TO ESTABLISH AN ACADEMY IN VIENNA—KLOPSTOCK—HELL—VON HESS—PETITION OF VIENNESE LITERATI IN 1827—ITS NEGLECT—EFFORTS OF LITTROW—GALL AND MOHS—LITERARY SOCIETIES—PRESENT CONDITION OF LITERATURE, AND GENERAL LITERARY STATISTICS—STATE OF THE ARTS—MECHANICS' INSTITUTE.

THE students attending the Vienna university are much more orderly characters than those with whom I have mixed in other parts of Germany; and, compared with similar classes of the community in those of Königsberg, Bonn, or Heidelberg, can hardly be believed to belong to the same genus. Persons who have travelled much in Germany, and especially those who may have studied at any of the universities there, must have been forcibly struck by the extraordinary peculiarities of the students—their dress, manners, habits of life, and general character—creating them an almost distinct race of beings, separate from the rest of their countrymen, during that remarkable state of transition which they undergo for some five or six years. On seeing a batch of these young gentlemen at any of the universities celebrated for the *outré* costume of its classes, clad in their half-military frock-coats, covered with tags and tassels; their long flowing hair, hanging over their very shoulders,

surmounted by their pipkin caps and frying-pan peaks ; their top-boots, whips, and spurs ; and a ponderous *Meerschaum* hanging at their front button—one is naturally inclined to ask what becomes of all the German students, as we would inquire after the destinies of hackney-coaches and post-boys : did they not know that the degree once obtained, the metamorphosis is complete, the riotous, odd-looking student of the morning leaves in the evening the scenes of his academic life a sober, hard-headed, clean-shaven, reputable, every-day German. No motherly frog ever recognises (how could she, poor thing?) her offspring while still paddling about in the spare habiliments of a tadpole, till it has doffed its tail and gills, and hopped out on four legs : so with these curious creatures—they have, during this period, little intercourse with, and often little knowledge of their friends, nor their friends of them, except so far as concerns their exchequer.

The Austrian students are, generally speaking, a quiet, poor, hard-working, temperate, and submissive race—less mischievous, and less equally well-informed than their Prussian and Rhenish neighbours. The *Burschenschaft* has never been allowed to exist in Austria, and the police, secret and public, are too numerous and too vigilant, even if it did, to permit of its evil tendencies. The students are either too poor or too matter-of-fact to indulge in the same eccentricities of dress and conduct as others of a like class elsewhere ; and the censorship keeping out of their hands all mischievous productions, they have little opportunity of acquiring a knowledge of the political condition of other countries ; for the

Austrian of even the middle class, no matter what may be his age or station, cannot leave his fatherland without the special permission of the government, to obtain which he is required to give a year's notice. They herd not together in the same cliques or masses, as at other universities; and the system that keeps them pensioners in youth and placemen in manhood, holds this class, if not attached to, at least in just dread of the executive. I do not think from what I have seen of this portion of the community, that revolution will ever spring from them. In other respects they resemble the rest of their countrymen—enjoy the good things of this life while and whenever they can, eating like Austrians, smoking with the zest and energy of Dutchmen, and beer-drinking with almost the capacity of Bavarians.

Amusement is cheap in the capital; dancing and smoking are with the students, as with the rest of the Viennese, their chief solace and enjoyment, for the *Sperl* and *Goldenen Birn* down to the balls at *Marien-Hülf*, the *Wieden Theater*, the *Volksgarten*, the *Radoutensaal*, and the *Eliseum*, all offer for a few *kreutzers* recreation even to satiety. The latter classic, though not attic land consists of a vast number of cellars excavated beneath several extensive streets, and fitted up so as to resemble the several quarters of the globe; capable of holding some thousands of people, and far exceeding in the variety of its entertainments the merriest *fête* at *Longchamp* or the *Champs Elisées* in their most palmy days. The temperature, the decorations, and the dresses of the bands and attendants in each of these fairy lands being arranged in accordance with the originals; the

millions of lights, the wit of the improvisators, the music of the troubadours, the native songs of the Tyrolers, the laugh and jest of the clowns, quacks, and conjurers, the clinking of glasses, and the honest good humour that beams in the faces of the many hundred light-hearted Viennese, with their ponderous *Fraus*, and bucksome daughters, make this scene highly attractive to foreigners as well as students, or indeed to all who would witness low-life below stairs in this gayest of capitals. Grotesque and mixed as are the characters one sees in the Elyseum, the admittance to which is but four pence, I have seldom visited it without meeting there some of the highest of the Austrian nobility—nay, it is not without the pale of royalty itself, for both here and in other places of similar character and resort will frequently be found some two or three of the arch-dukes of Austria, mingling with unconcern and almost without observation among the artizans and shopkeepers over whom they rule;—strange to English eyes—yet such is Austrian policy.

And then as to dancing—Orpheus must have been a *Wiener*, or at least have once set the good people of the imperial city a-going; and should he return some twenty years hence, he will find they have never ceased during his absence. It is really quite intoxicating for a foreigner to look at so many things turning round on all sides of him—men, women, and children—the infant and the aged, the merry and the melancholy—round and round they go, spinning away the thread of life, at least gaily, if not profitably. I do verily believe, that if but the first draw of Strauss' or Lanner's fiddle-bow was heard in

any street or market-place in Vienna in any weather or season, or at any hour of the day or night, all living, breathing nature within earshot, would commence to turn: the coachman would leap from his carriage, the laundress would desert her basket—and all, peeresses and prelates, priests and professors, soldiers and shopkeepers, waiters and washerwomen, Turks, Jews, and gentiles, would simultaneously rush into one another's arms, and waltz themselves to a jelly. In fact, this dancing mania, like animal magnetism, or the laughing gas, is quite irresistible, at least during the carnival.

With all this, I have never seen a blow given; I never witnessed a quarrel or a row amidst those varied scenes; and among the students duelling is almost unknown. But for the perpetual, never-ending taking off of hats Austrian politeness would be really charming. The Austrians are polite and obliging to strangers and to one another from good nature and kindness of heart—the French because it is the etiquette. Drunkenness is scarcely ever witnessed: during my residence in Vienna I never saw a person in a state absolutely drunk; and begging is neither tolerated nor necessary.—But, I find I am running into a description of the domestic manners of the people, instead of writing about their statistics and sanatory institutions.

While no capital in Europe can boast of finer collections or more extensive museums in both science and the arts than that of Austria, it is a fact equally certain and admitted, that there is less done to advance the cause of general science, or any of its higher branches, or to uphold the true philosopher in Vienna, than in

any other city of the same extent and resources of the present day. This is no new theme of wonder, no hap-hazard conclusion formed in an hour or a day ; it is the result of minute and anxious inquiry for several months—it is a tale in the mouths of all those who are capable of forming an opinion on the subject, and who dare express their sentiments honestly and freely ; and it must be the conviction of any man of science or literature who there mixes in that rank of society from which science and literature have ever emanated. How is this ? Is there not material for such ? Will the mere want of patronage thus completely crush the growth of so noble and fast-flowering a plant ? No—I fear we must seek in some deeper source for the stubborn rock that thus blights the roots of the tree of knowledge. Even the casual foreigner, or the amusement-hunting visitor, who in his short sojourn in the imperial city is led about by his *valet-de-place* from institution to museum, from academy to university—who spends a delightful day in the Ambrass or the Belvedere Gallery—beholds the richest treasures of the animal and mineral kingdom, crowded into the different splendid collections of natural history—is lost in wonder at the brilliancy of the *Schatzkammer*—and sees in the museums of antiquities the noblest efforts of Etruscan and Grecian art—whose mind is powerfully impressed with the paternal government which has erected and endowed such noble hospitals and sanatory institutions—and looking at these things through the purple veil that well-ordered diplomacy has encompassed them, says to himself, surely with such encou-

ragements, art and science must flourish here—the savans of Vienna must be numerous and celebrated. But noble and impressive as are these institutions and museums, they have not produced the effects that similar establishments have in other countries. The higher branches of science are at a very low ebb in Vienna, particularly at this moment, and have been so since the decease of its astronomer, botanist, and mineralogist—Littrow, Jacquin, and Mohs. Chemistry has never had existence there; astronomy is buried in the grave of its late professor; mineralogy is locked up within the glass-cases of the K.K. cabinet of the emperor (unless it may again flourish in the person of Mr. Haidinger); physiology is but a name; and geology and comparative anatomy are still unborn in the Austrian capital—the former because it is, or was, *forbidden* to be taught, lest it should injure the morality of the religious Viennese!—and the latter because it has not yet been specified in the curriculum of education prescribed by the state. One is hardly credited when he states that there is not one comparative anatomist of note in Vienna, or that this branch of science forms no part of such extensive practical medical study as that prescribed in this university. True it is, that a Cuvier, an Owen, or a Müller are not the offspring of every country;—the former was the child of France, and never could have been, to the same extent at least, the first of naturalists in another land; but Austria has never had, and never will have, according to her present system, such philosophers, until she publicly patronizes these sciences.

There are orientalists in Vienna—why? Because the

government supports a school of oriental languages—because she requires such diplomats and interpreters at her own as well as the Ottoman court ; and many other branches of knowledge of a like description, and arising from similar *political* causes, which I have already detailed, exist in the capital.

There are many able professors in her university, besides numerous directors of cabinets and museums, eminent naturalists, celebrated travellers, distinguished physicians, and several private individuals of acknowledged literary and scientific ability—some of whom have long since earned European reputations ; but there is no central point of interest, no common rallying place, no general or special scientific society, where such persons may meet for mutual instruction and the general propagation of knowledge—in one word, there is no academy of science in Vienna. It certainly sounds strange, and loudly demands inquiry, why the imperial city should be the only capital in Europe without an academy for the cultivation of science, more especially as such institutions are permitted to exist in other parts of the empire, as at Prague, Pesth, Venice, and Milan. Numerous and incontrovertible proofs could be adduced of there being sufficient material for the formation of such an institute in Vienna, although in conversation we have often heard the contrary advanced—which, if it be true, proves but the ill construction and worse working of the universities and different cabinets and collections. Other writers have raised a healthful spirit of emulation among kindred nations, and exhibited the great advance of science ensuing from the benefits of academic insti-

tutions in other countries, but all that the historian of Vienna can now accomplish is, to draw up a brief sketch of the abortive efforts that have from time to time been made, for the last hundred years, to establish an academy in the Austrian capital, and allow the mind of civilized Europe to form an opinion as to its causes and its consequences.

Were such an academy in existence, it would elicit native talent, and perhaps save the government the degrading necessity of procuring from other universities professors for their own; acting as the touch-stone of real merit, independent of royal patronage, it would generate a spirit and create a desire for scientific knowledge and investigation, as experience amply proves it has done in other countries; and moreover it would advance and give greater scope to the mind of that class who naturally feel that Austria is not a free country—the thinking and the educated.

The fear of change, even of a truly scientific and literary nature, seems almost as great a bugbear to the Austrian rulers as political advancement or reform. But let not the government of Austria suppose that by giving encouragement to the progress of science, it would thereby encourage a revolutionary spirit in the heart of its dominions. The author has resided sufficiently long in the capital, and has had such opportunities of observing the condition of the people at large, as enables him to see and feel that the trading and working classes of the community (the only *materiel* by which the educated and the political can ever hope to effect any revolutionary change in their state or government)

are too comfortable, contented, and happy to become their instruments. He has seen with regret how much superior was the condition of the burghers and tradesmen of Vienna to the corresponding classes in England; and how much superior the Viennese mechanic was to the gin and whisky-drinking, sallow-faced, discontented artizan of Great Britain—too often, alas, rendered unhappy and discontented by the inciting declamation of some ale-house orator, or by the blasphemous and revolutionary sentiments of some Chartist periodical, that lead him to brood over fictitious wants, or drive him forward to deeds of outrage, at once ruinous to himself and disgraceful to the community to which he belongs. But look at the same classes in Austria—enjoying their pipe and supper, listening to the merry strains of Strauss and Lanner, while their families, the gay, light-hearted daughters of the Danube, are whirling in the waltz or gallope, both helping to maintain, as well as their betters, the well-known motto of the Viennese, “*Man lebt um zu leben.*” The author has heard of, and also seen much of what is called Austrian tyranny; but ardently as he loves liberty, and venerates the glorious institutions of Great Britain, he is now constrained to say that he would willingly exchange much of the miscalled liberty for which the starving, naked, and often houseless peasant of his father-land hurrahs, for a moiety of the food, clothing, and superior condition of the like classes in Austria. Without entering on the dangerous subject of politics, which should not find its way into a work of this description, even had its author the desire of doing so,

he cannot but notice the boast of one of the latest writers on Vienna—that, while its rulers, or to speak more correctly, its *Ruler*, has retained this great empire, steady and unmoved, although formed of such an incongruous mixture of tongues and nations, when other countries of Europe have been shaken to their foundations, or had their governments completely overturned by war and internal revolution, Austria has, during the last half century, remained like a ship in a calm, sluggishly rolling on the windless swell, while her helmsman simply rights his wheel when the occasional jarring of his rudder reminds him that he is still director of the barque.

This may, in political affairs, be all for the benefit of the country—time will yet inform us; but it is not alone in such matters that this great country has remained in *statu quo*;—while the surrounding kingdoms have increased their commerce, extended their fame, and benefitted mankind, by their culture, patronage, and advancement of science; Austria can still boast that her rulers have preserved her unmoved and unaffected by the scientific progress and scientific revolution of the last forty years.

It may be for her political advantage that her double-headed national emblem should keep a watchful eye upon innovation from without, or alteration from within; but we greatly fear that in this over-anxious care the outstretched wings of the *Schwarzen Adler* have shaded the extensive dominions of Austria, and its imperial city in particular, from the light of science, and cast a gloom upon the ardour necessary to discovery and improvement.

Those versed in the literary history of this part of Europe will remember that so early as the end of the fifteenth century (1493) the Danube Society (*Gelehrte Donaugesellschaft*) for the advancement of science was established through the instrumentality of the distinguished Conrad Celtes, during the reign and under the auspices of Maximilian I. This society was chiefly distinguished for its cultivation of history, mathematics, poetry, and rhetoric. Celtes (who was afterwards poet-laureate) was called to Vienna by the emperor in 1497, at the same time that the Danube Society was removed there from Ofen. The reputation of this institution soon attracted to it students not only from the different countries of Germany, but also from Italy and Belgium, and it bid fair to rival the then rising celebrity of Paris. On the death of Celtes, in February 1508, Cuspinus was elected director of this society, which held its meetings at his house, the *Weissen Rössel*, in the *Singerstrasse*, till the period of its final decay. Kaltenbeck, a distinguished Viennese writer, has published a very interesting and curious account of this society—its labours, and the history of its members—in one of the periodicals of the capital—“*Oesterreichische Zeitschrift für Geschichts-und-Staatskunde*,” and reprinted it in a pamphlet in 1837. This gentleman accounts for the decline of the *Donaugesellschaft* partly by the decease of its patron, Maximilian, and partly by the effects of the Wittenberg reformation: its complete destruction was, however, chiefly owing to the Turkish wars, which then raged on the Austrian frontier. This learned body published several volumes of the classics, as well as

different works on geography and mathematics ; it purged philosophy and theology from the dialectic theory, but did little to advance the natural sciences.

In 1652, J. L. Bauschius founded the "*Academia Naturæ Curiosorum*" at Vienna, in the reign and under the protection of Leopold I., from whom it afterwards took the name of "*Cæsareo Leopoldo Naturæ Curiosorum Academia*." It has long since been removed from Vienna to another part of Germany, and its meetings have been discontinued ; but it still publishes at Bonn most valuable and interesting transactions, with which the scientific world is now well acquainted.

During the visit of Peter the Great of Russia to France he conceived the idea of founding an academy in St. Petersburg, similar to the Parisian Institute ; and for this purpose he applied to that body to furnish him with a plan for its construction. The Institute appointed the celebrated Leibnitz, who happened to be then in Paris, to carry the Czar's good purposes into effect. He proceeded to the Russian capital, and after some time succeeded in procuring from the monarch the statutes of the present Petersburg Academy, which was subsequently opened on the 25th December, 1725.

Leibnitz, who was a German by birth, returned to his own country through Vienna, where he remained a considerable time, with a view of establishing there also an academy of sciences. In this endeavour he was ably supported by the distinguished Prince Eugene, so celebrated in arts and arms, and famed as well for his scientific as his military acquirements. But the united energies and interest of these two great men were

unavailing : intolerance and the vanity of some few individuals triumphed ; the academy was not permitted to be established ; and the great philosopher, shaking off the dust from his feet against the imperial city, soon afterwards retired in disgust to Berlin. Here he was received with every mark of distinction due to his well-earned reputation, and here he shortly afterwards founded the Royal Academy of Prussia—an institution that has since become the nursing-mother of science in Germany.

One of the great obstacles then (as it is even now) thrown in the way of an academy of science in Vienna was the want of funds for its support. To remedy this defect in the Austrian exchequer, both Leibnitz and his patron, the Prince of Savoy, proposed many feasible methods : such as establishing paper manufactories, (all paper being then imported from the Netherlands,) and by procuring for the academy the privilege of printing almanacs ; but all were unavailing—the state willed it, and it must be so. Let us hear what the writer to whom I have already referred says upon this subject :—“ If one reads of the interest the principal ministers of the imperial court, and even Charles the Sixth and his consort, took in the foundation of such an academy, it must indeed be surprising that single individuals were able to destroy a negotiation already so far advanced.”

In 1768, another effort was made for the same purpose by Klopstock, who thus writes to his mother :—“ I will briefly give you the pleasing information that the emperor has resolved to assist the sciences in Ger-

many. Pray to God, my dear mother, that he may permit this affair to prosper." And upon the 12th of August in the same year, he addresses Prince Kaunitz upon the same subject, and concludes by assuring him that he does not seek any thing for himself, and will be happy if he can only bring it to pass that something might be done for those who have distinguished themselves in science in Vienna.

The idea of an academy was again revived under the reign of Maria Theresa, at the time of the general reformation and revision of the Austrian education in 1773, when Martini, who was the director of the commission for this purpose, drew up a prospectus of an academy, founded on the plan of those of Berlin, Munich, and London. In order to support such an institution, a proposal was laid before the empress, (who was not inimical to its erection, but was unwilling to grant the supplies,) to the effect, that from that time the privilege hitherto granted to the printers of almanacs should not be again renewed; and that until a sufficient fund had accumulated, all almanacs and calenders were to be conducted by the celebrated friar Hell, the astronomer. Accordingly, Hell published the almanac for 1774, and men of all ranks became interested in the prospect of a speedy reformation in Vienna. Among the most zealous patrons of this good work was Prince Kaunitz; but the chief merit of the organization of the proposed academy is due to a young lawyer, a native of Wirtemberg, then professor of history in the Vienna university, J. Ganz. Ritter. Von Hess, a man of very superior talents and attainments. According to his calculation, 31,500 florins

was considered a sufficient yearly income ; and the almanac monopoly would have yielded more than that sum. The fair prospects of this enterprise were soon, however, clouded ; for a bookseller named Tratterer, who previously held the almanac privileges, was enabled to make sufficient interest with the empress to suppress the academy, and continue to him the almanac monopoly ; and the Austrian government of that day were either too poor to afford, or too indifferent to science and literature to grant the sum of £3,150, agreed upon for the support of an academy in the imperial city.*

From time to time, and by writer after writer, has this lamentable deficiency been alluded to, still the government, from whom all here must emanate, took no step to remedy the defect ; at length a few of the men most eminent in science and literature, finding no minister willing to assist them, or put forward their claims for this purpose, determined to address themselves to the emperor in person. The following twelve persons petitioned the Kaizer to establish an academy, and grant government assistance towards its support. The representatives of the mathematical and physical section were—Jacquin, the botanist ; Baumgartner, director of the China factory ; Ettingshausen, professor of physics ; Schreibers, director of the natural history cabinet ; Pruhel, director of the polytechnic institute ; and Littrow, the astronomer. The philological and historical class was supported by the names of Kopiter and Wolf,

* Entwurf einer Akademie der Wissenschaften für Wien unter Maria Theresia.—*Wien*. 1837.

both of the imperial library; Buchholz Arneth, director of the cabinet of medals and antiquities; Chonel, curator of the imperial archives; and Hammer Purgstall, the orientalist. This petition was received by the archduke Lewis, on the 20th of March, 1837, at the same time that the academy at Milan was re-erected.* It was then forwarded to the chancellery, and from thence to the police department; and it remained in its passage through the public offices for about two years, till it at last gained its way back to the bureau of the minister of the interior, where it now remains, and is likely to do so, till a new generation and a more enlightened era forces its attention upon the government. Jacquin, Littrow, and Buchholz, are no more: while they lived, comparisons might have been made as to the respective merits of the individuals who composed the leading persons of this desirable undertaking; but as the list now stands, Von Hammer remains without a competitor, undoubtedly the person of most literary reputation in Vienna.

Silent as the Austrian rulers have been for the last five years upon the subject of this petition, the circumstance has found its way into the different periodicals of

* A distinguished English writer, then resident in Vienna, requested some information from a friend of the author's, upon the state of science and literature in the imperial city (a portion of the material she was then collecting for her forthcoming work.) She was handed a copy of this petition, and the circumstances of its presentation explained to her. She received the paper, and expressed much surprise at its extraordinary import; but in a few days returned the document, with the information that it could not appear in her work!

Europe. The Frankfort *Allgemeine-Post-Zeitung* for August, 1838, contains a well-written article upon the subject of academical miscellanies, in which the claims of Vienna are strongly put forward ; and the Athenæum for October, in that year, thus writes upon the same subject :—" It can hardly be supposed, that the Austrian government should dread the effects of an increased activity of the human intellect. According to D'Alembert, princes encourage learning for the sake of diverting the minds of their subjects from the consideration of their practical interests and political rights ; and one would suppose, that the examples of Peter the Great and Frederick the Great, who both did their utmost to give science a permanent abode in their respective capitals ; would be sufficient to inspire the Austrian statesman with confidence, if he were at all disposed to favour the progress of science."

Shortly after the presentation of the petition, there appeared a work by Graff, "*Recueil des actes de l'Academie imp. de St. Petersburgh*," giving an account of the establishment and working of this institution in the Russian capital. The opportune appearance of this book afforded Littrow an occasion to write an admirable article upon the subject in the *Wiener Jahrbücher der Literatur*, Band 81, in which he takes occasion to point out to the government of his own country, the benefits conferred on Russia by the academy of St. Petersburgh, during the reigns from Peter to Catherine the Second. In his own beautiful and peculiar style, he details the erection, and recounts the labours of the different European academies. When speaking of those in Spain,

a poetic spirit worthy of the great astronomer breaks forth. He eloquently sketches the history of that country in her golden age; not during the period in which she discovered a world, but already, in the eighth and ninth centuries, when warmed with Arabic fire, she poured forth her spiritual light, in the richest streams, over the whole of Europe, then sunk in the dark night of barbarity and superstition, and even into the regions of the distant east. With the pen of a practised artist, and the graphic powers of an historian, he paints the splendour of the court of the Omunajaden, which added to the renown of arms an equal fame in arts and sciences, and calls to our recollection the day when the philosopher, abandoning his cell in the most distant parts of Europe, and even in the remote lands of Asia, sought instruction in the academy of Cordova. "Never," says he, "was science higher esteemed, or every blossom of the human mind more honoured, than in the resplendent court of Hakem the Second. The renown of the academy of Cordova leaves far behind it the longest echoes of Alexandria, great as it was in its day. It leaves behind it even the fame of the high schools of Bagdad, Kufa, Bassora, and Bocara, and even the erections of Haroun Al Raschid, and Almamon; and never was Spain (in comparison with its time, and with the surrounding world) more intelligent, richer, or happier; never was its administration, finances, or industry—its internal or external commerce—its agriculture, and even the condition of its roads, better attended to, than in the glancing period of the Omunajaden." He next alludes to the men brought forward by acade-

mies, foremost among whom stands Pope Sylvester the Second, the renowned teacher of kings and princes. He adduces the benefits, national, scientific, and individual, conferred by the societies of London, Berlin, Paris, and St. Petersburg. He holds up to Austria, the many great masters that these academies have produced—the Newtons, Eulers, D'Alemberts, with Copernicus, Lagrange, Laplace, Monge, Gauss, and others; who, fostered by academic institutions, have extended their researches into the regions of the unknown; and by enlarging the boundaries of science, advanced the interest and the honour of their countries. In a style of the most withering sarcasm, but with such admirable tact as to escape the red pen of even an Austrian censor, he compares his own country to the present stereotype condition of China; and in the same classical, argumentative, and cutting vein, he clearly defines that difference so hard to impress upon the Austrian government, between a university and an academy; the former being designed but for the instruction of youth, and where each professor (especially in southern Germany) must teach not only certain doctrines, but teach them according to specified rules framed for his direction, and beyond which he dare not advance; while the latter is intended not only for the advancement of abstract science, but for the instruction of the professors themselves.

Shortly after the publication of this powerful appeal, of which the foregoing is but a meagre extract, Littrow died; but though he had not the satisfaction of witnessing the consummation of his darling project, he had

at least the consolation of having raised his voice and put forth all his energies in its behalf.

In this state of things I left Vienna in 1841; and nothing has since been effected in support of the erection of an academy. I understand that the minister of the exterior directed one of his *employés*, P. Hügel, the brother of the traveller, and formerly *charge-d'affaires* at Paris, to draw up a report upon the petition of 1837. I cannot but suspect that this is but a stroke of policy to gain time; and it is much to be feared that the hands into which the petition has fallen will again consign it to oblivion, more particularly as an article hostile to the principle of an institute appeared in the *Augsburgh Gazette* of the 18th April, 1841.

In this production, distinguished only for its sophistical objections and its fawning flattery, a want of the necessary *materiel* is assigned as a sufficient cause for the non-erection of an academy. If such a want does exist, then the science and literature of the Austrian capital must have degenerated since the days of Leibnitz and the time of Maria Theresa; and such a deficiency at present can only be accounted for, as I have already stated, by the misdirection or mal-administration of the *Studium-Hof-Commission*, and by the absence of the necessary care and support of science in the heart of the Austrian dominions. It is generally but erroneously supposed, that the Viennese possess but little taste for literary and scientific matters. I do firmly believe, that were the barrier that now dams up the stream of learning at its source but once removed, Vienna would pour forth a flood of light that would soon rival every capital in

Europe. Surely, with such men as Hammer Purgstall, the first of living orientalists, and who undoubtedly stands at the head of the Austrian literati; mathematicians and chemists of such eminence as Baumgarten and Ettingshausen; novelists like Caroline Pichler; poets like Grillparzer, Sedlitz, Lenau (Nimpsch), and Castelli;* travellers like Hügel; naturalists, who count among their numbers John Natterer, Endlicker, Sreibers, Haidinger, Diesing, and Heckell, besides such men as Count Bruenner, the friend and pupil of Cuvier, and Pratobavaria, the lawyer; together with those persons whose names have been already enumerated in the petition of 1837, and many others that I might with great justice enumerate;—there is a sufficiency of talent to render the literary society of the capital both useful, brilliant, and agreeable.

In the article in the *Augsburgh Gazette* to which I have already referred, (and in which a distinguished traveller and his brother are styled, the one, Julius Cæsar, and the other, Fabius Cunctator,) it is said that the time has not yet arrived for the formation of an academy of sciences. I think I have already shown the fallacy of this assertion; and supposing it to be true, it entails the greater disgrace upon those who have had, but did not exercise the power, of collecting and cultivating adequate *materiel* for this purpose during the last ten or a dozen years.

I may mention here two circumstances which show the

* The number of poets in Vienna is very remarkable: independent of those I have enumerated above, we find Count Auersperg, (the *Anastasius Grün*,) Fränkel, Feuchtersläben, and Betty Paoli, who have all written with much spirit and effect.

distaste which the Austrian rulers have for science. Gall, the distinguished phrenologist, was driven from Vienna, for daring to step beyond the beaten path marked out for him by the state, or venture, even upon a purely physiological subject, to think for himself, and attempt to lift the veil that hangs over one of the most interesting portions of science. Without in any way advocating, or even subscribing to the doctrines of this distinguished man, it must be acknowledged, that when he was expelled the imperial dominions, the government deprived its country of the most celebrated cerebral anatomist that has yet existed.

Some years ago, Mohs, the greatest mineralogist of Europe in his day, requested permission from the government to deliver a course of popular lectures on mineralogy in the splendid imperial cabinet. After a considerable delay, and when the police became convinced that nothing political was intended, the proposal was acceded to. Attracted by the knowledge and eloquence of the professor, as well as the novelty of the subject, crowds of the first people of Vienna attended his course. After a few lectures, the number of his hearers amounted to some hundreds: great interest was evinced in society on the matter, and it became the general topic of conversation. One would naturally have supposed that so harmless and unexciting a subject as mineralogy could in nowise affect the political condition of the community, but the government thought otherwise, and at the end of the first six months these lectures were ordered to be discontinued! Mohs soon afterwards resigned his care of the mineralogical cabinet.

The late emperor, *Pater Patriæ*, as he has been so often termed, when asked for permission to found an academy, made this memorable answer, one that seems the stereotyped motto of Austria, "*Ich brauche keine Gelehrten, Ich brauche gute Beamten.*" I want not men of learning, I want good *employés*.

By the laws of Austria, a subject is not permitted, no matter what his rank or celebrity, to receive a degree from any foreign university or academy; and some of my own friends have lately been obliged to return those sent to them by such institutions; so that the state will neither honour its men of learning, nor permit other countries to do so.

I regret to say, that the annals of the "Museum of Natural History," one or two numbers of which appeared some years ago, have been discontinued, and no means now exist of publishing an account of the many interesting, and as yet undescribed, rarities of this extensive cabinet.

The literature of Austria, in quality as well as quantity, appears to have degenerated during the last fifty years, for, from 1733 to 1790, the period when it flourished most, there were in one year in Vienna upwards of four hundred authors. It is stated by Springer, that the authors of Austria amount in the present day to two thousand five hundred. The severity of the censorship is no doubt one of the chief causes at present acting so injuriously upon all literary labour, literary speculation, and the general spread of knowledge. Natural history, geography, mathematics, law, and the physical, technical, and medical sciences, compose the chief part of

the present home literature of Austria. Philology also has been long cultivated with success, and the oriental languages in particular have received in this country special attention, while dramatic works and lyrical poetry are, when unconnected with politics or religion, rather encouraged by the state, and are well suited to the genius of this imaginative people. The Austrian literature, as may be supposed, consists of the several languages and nations of this great empire, and likewise numbers among its productions, works in several of the oriental languages, particularly the Armenian. These latter, which consist partly of translations and partly of original productions, emanate from the Mechitaristen or Armenian Catholics, in the cloister of St. Lazarus, near Venice; they are for the most part composed of works of instruction and devotion, and supply those of the Armenian creed throughout the Ottoman empire generally. The Wallachian people, upon the borders of Hungary and Transylvania, although they cannot be said to be possessed of a special literature, have their school books, and also some religious works printed in their own tongue. Within the last few years, several new works have been printed in Latin, Romaic, and Hebrew; but the proper national literature of Austria consists of those works published in the German, Italian, Slavonian, and Hungarian languages, and very lately, some few books have appeared in the original Bohemian tongue. The German press is most actively employed in the capital, and the country below the Enns, and least so in the Tyrol, Carynthia, and Carniola. Hungary has lately sent forth many valuable publications, chiefly on scien-

tific subjects, in the Slavonian language; but the upper portion of that country seems latterly to have preferred the German literature to its own. Its literature is said to have arisen during the second half of the last century, in the numerous songs and airs which well suited the chivalrous and enterprising spirit of the Magyars; and it has grown so rapidly since that period, that in the space of nine years, from 1817 to 1825 inclusive, there appeared three hundred and ten articles in Hungarian, two hundred and fifty-nine in Latin, one hundred and twenty-seven in German, and eleven in the Slavonian tongue, in that country.*

Venice and Milan are the centres of Italian literature, which is at present characterized by the predominance of works on language, mathematics, natural philosophy, and the natural sciences generally; not because I believe those subjects to be more congenial to the tastes and manners of that people, but because they are the only ones they can treat with safety.

The Hungarian language, now the language of its senate and its official details, is daily becoming more known, more valued, and more cultivated—poetry and dramatic and theological writings are at present its chief subjects.

The Slavonian literature, which is divided into the proper Bohemian, the Slavonian, and the Serbish and Windish tongues, has long been distinguished in Moravia, Bohemia, and the Czechen, and may date its most

* "Esaplovice's Gemälde von Ungarn I. 310."—Schwartner's Statistik III. 450.

glancing period so far back as the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, and it continued till the influence of Austria forced upon the people of these countries the German tongue. After a long pause, an endeavour has been recently made to re-establish the written language of Bohemia, but with little success; the public, and the upper circles in particular, had become accustomed to their adopted language, and they possessed neither the energy nor literary ability of the Hungarians to throw it off. In 1835, there were nine journals published in Prague in the mother tongue.

The literature of Poland has likewise had a glorious era in the same period with the Bohemian; and a sufficiency remains from that time to exhibit its abundance, force, and beauty, in poetry, history, and theology. It can hardly now be expected that, bowed down, and broken in spirit as in fortune, Poland could still shine in literature; and, therefore, although translations from the French and German are numerous, her native works and authors are but few, yet these few still adhere to the original type, and their productions are chiefly of a poetical, religious, and historic nature.

The Serbish literature is still in its infancy, for this tongue has only been elevated to a written language since the commencement of the eighteenth century. It is chiefly cultivated in Dalmatia and Ragusa. Several of the works of Hungary, particularly upon theological, historical, and philological subjects, are written in Latin, for there that language is still spoken, even by the lower orders, in the common usages of life.

The following table exhibits in a clearer manner than words can express the character and present condition of Austrian literature; it is extracted from Springer's Statistics, published in 1840, and shows that the number of works published in the monarchy had decreased two hundred and seventy from 1832 to 1833.

SUBJECTS.	YEARS.		SUBJECTS.	YEARS.	
	1832	1833		1832	1833
Morals and Theology, Religion, Prayer-books, &c. }	729	665	Brought forward .	1661	1510
Law and Political Affairs	41	58	Poetry and the Drama .	197	151
Medicine and Surgery, including Inaugural Dissertations . . . }	263	279	Minor Poems and Songs .	256	233
Philosophy	26	25	Music and the Fine Arts }	51	48
Philology	9	3	(Painting) }	8	10
Astronomy	9	4	Statistics	106	96
History and Biography .	216	111	Geography, Voyages, and }	8	5
Chemistry and Physics .	20	24	Travels }	179	165
Mathematics and Geometry	31	43	Military Works . . .	195	160
Romances, Tales, and Novels	231	198	Educational and School }	93	106
Agriculture and Technology	48	59	Books, &c. . . . }		
Natural History . . .	15	25	Almanacks, Calendars, }		
Architecture	23	16	Hand-Books, and Annuals, &c. . . . }		
	1661	1510	Other Works unspecified .	2754	2484

An examination of this table affords us no bad criterion of the taste of the Austrian people and the character of their literature, as sanctioned and patronized by the government. Heretofore we have been in the habit of judging of the Austrian literature by the number of the publications of that country specified in the Leipzig catalogue; this however is an unfair test, for in the list of German works published at the Easter fair in the year 1835, of 3164 books mentioned therein but 216 were Austrian; and in 1839, of 3127 works only 118 were Austrian. This arises from the little

intercourse that subsists between the Austrian and the other German publishers—from many of the Austrian works being written in the Slavonian, Hungarian, and Latin languages—from the fact of most Austrian works being expressly written for, and only applicable to, the condition of the inhabitants of that country—and from the strict censorship of the imperial dominions, rendering impossible the usual barter or interchange of literature, by which the booksellers of the other countries of Germany conduct their mercantile transactions. It is calculated that but a tenth part of the annual Austrian literature appears in the Leipzig catalogue. Compared with the other states of Europe, and with Germany in particular, it is evident, that when we subtract the mere school-books and other minor publications, the literature of Southern Germany is by no means adequate to the population and the present state of civilization in that country; and the polyglot condition of this literature, reduces the number of works which are applicable to each nation or condition of the community to a much smaller number.

It will be seen by referring to the foregoing table, that (independent of the school-books and almanacs) religious works are the most numerous; then follow those on medicine; after that, poetry and dramatic productions; and then historical and biographic works; the novel and romance literature, although apparently so numerous in these years, is not so in reality, for many of the works included in this number, were but new editions of former publications. Many of the poetic works, which were chiefly Italian, were of mere local interest;

and much of the history and biography is of a popular and encyclopædic character.

The relative proportion of works in the four different languages now in most general use in the Austrian states, stood thus in the years 1832 and 1833—Italian 2,221, German 2,139, Latin 389, Bohemian 178; Hungarian literature was not at this time in a sufficient state of advancement to offer a fair comparison with the foregoing. In Italian literature, the greatest number of works are those published in the Lombardy states, which, even in the year 1824, possessed a native literature to the amount of 1,040,500 volumes;—in 1832, this kingdom published 913 and the Venetian state 862 works; and in 1836, Lombardy produced 788 and Venice 843 books.

In the years 1832 and 1833, the works published in Austria (not including Italy) were 70 Polish, 91 Greek, 37 Windish and Serbish, 53 Hebrew, and 8 Armenian, exclusive of its own immediate literature; many of these, however, were but translations and new editions, the number of original works being about two-thirds of the whole.

Owing to the strict censorship, few foreign works are admitted into Austria;—in 1832, these amounted to 2,509, and in 1833, they numbered 2,791; among those of the former year were 67 historical, 63 poetical, 29 theological, and 14 legal and juridical. Of 5,300 foreign publications recently admitted into Austria, 3,578 were German, 771 French, 657 Italian, 112 Polish, 75 English, 6 Greek, and 101 Latin.

The periodical literature is very scanty; each of the

fifteen provincial cities publishes a newspaper, denominated the *Provinzial-Zeitung*, which is under the immediate direction of the government of the place; it contains all the government orders and regulations, and likewise publishes the local news. Each government-office issues an *Amtsblatt*, or government gazette, which is solely occupied with all the new laws, regulations, and enactments. There are likewise fourteen other general newspapers, the principal of which are the Austrian Observer (*Oesterreichische-Beobachter*), established since 1810, and the Salzburg, Troppau, Presburg, and Agram papers, the *Kaschauer Bothe* and the *MAGYAR KURIR*; that, however, in the greatest circulation, is the *Wiener Zeitung*.* There are six newspapers published in the capital, two of which, the Observer and the *Wiener Zeitung*, are so-called political. The chief foreign news, however, obtained by the Austrians, is contained in the *Allgemeine Zeitung*, or Augsburg Gazette, which has, it is said, a separate edition printed for circulation in Austria when any thing appears in its pages that does not satisfy the conscience of the censor.

Foreign newspapers were likewise admitted, in the following numbers and proportions, in 1833, German 252, French 116, English 20, Italian 35—in all, 423.

This number has however been much curtailed since

* The relative numbers of the *Beobachter* and the *Wiener Zeitung*, published in three years, are as follows:—

	1833		1836		1837
Beobachter ...	1783	...	1380	...	1219
Wiener Zeitung ...	8683	...	5663	...	5804

that period, for by the last official accounts (those for 1836) we find the number reduced to 205; the tone and character of which may be learned from the following statement:—German—39 political, 52 literary and artistic, and 40 of a mixed nature; French—21 political, 2 literary and artistic, 36 mixed; English—4 political and 1 literary; Italian—6 political; and two in other foreign languages. The higher periodical literature consists of journals, (*Jahrbücher*,) magazines, and general communicators, (*Mittheilungen*,) to the number of 76. One half of these belong to the Lombardo-Venetian kingdom, which takes the lead in literary matters of all the other Austrian provinces: thus, we find, that of the 76 journals published in the entire of Italy, 32 belonged to Lombardy, 10 to Venice, 24 to Naples, and 10 to Sardinia. The characters of the 76 Austrian journals are, 2 theological, 3 legal, 7 medical, 2 astronomical, 13 for physics, agriculture, trade, and commerce, 9 for history, statistics, and geography, 2 military, 2 for general literature, and 36 for art and mixed subjects. There are 2 literary, 2 medical, and 3 legal periodicals published in Vienna, besides the quarterly proceedings of the agricultural and industrial societies. The *Jahrbücher der Literatur*, which commenced in 1818, is the chief Austrian journal of eminence, and the *Medicinisch-Chirurgische-Zeitschrift*, published at Innsbruck, is one of the oldest medical periodicals in Europe; it is now in its fifty-fourth year. The six papers which are principally read in the capital, have the following circulation:—*Allgemeine Zeitung* 1999, *Theater-Zeitung* 965, *Militär-Zeitschrift*

523, *Wiener Mode-Zeitchrift* 490, *Leipziger Moden* 229, *Journal de Francfort* 87; besides these, there are the *Humorist* and the *Oesterreichische Zuschauer*, which have also got a considerable circulation. There is a private subscription reading-room in Vienna, the Casino, where foreigners will find some of the English newspapers and reviews—the “Times,” “Morning Post,” and the “Athenæum.”

Printing in Austria, the great bulk of which was formerly performed abroad, has latterly increased considerably, and there are now 26 printing-offices in Vienna. The following table shows the number of printing-offices and book-shops in the Austrian provinces in 1834 and 1837:—

PROVINCES.	Printing Offices in 1834.	Book- shops in 1837.	PROVINCES.	Printing Offices in 1834.	Book- shops in 1837.
Lower Austria .	29	49	Brought forward .	78	100
Upper Austria .	11	12	Bohemia . .	14	39
Styria . .	8	8	Moravia & Silesia	12	6
Carynthia & Car- niola . . }	9	8	Gallicia . .	16	9
Tyrol . .	10	15	Dalmatia . .	4	—
Transylvania .	11	8	Lombardy . .	79	138
			Venice . .	76	17
Carried forward	78	100	Total .	279	309

Modern Greek is chiefly printed in Vienna, Venice, and Trieste; Hebrew* in Vienna, Prague, Lemberg, Przemisl, and Zolkiew; the Wallachian books are printed

* During my residence at Vienna in 1841, Mr. Schaufler, an American missionary, but by birth a German, was editing a new edition of the Hebrew Bible, containing both the Hebrew text and the Rabinnical Spanish.

at Ofen, Herrmanstadt, and Blazendorf: and the Armenian at Vienna and Trieste.

In addition to the various schools of utility described in the foregoing portion of this work, there are academies for the instruction of artists at Vienna, Milan, and Venice; besides which, the "imperial institutions for the propagation of arts and sciences, and the promotion of agriculture, industry, and trade," at Venice and Milan, deserve to be noticed. These latter societies are composed of forty-one actual members; twenty-two of whom receive a yearly salary of four hundred florins; they publish journals of their transactions.

The Academy of Sciences at Prague is especially celebrated for mathematics and physics, history and antiquities. The Hungarian academy of sciences at Pesth, established in 1830, under the patronage of the viceroy Joseph, for the advancement of literature, science, and arts, and the special cultivation of the Hungarian language, promises much good for that country. The president of this society is elected every three years, but may be again re-elected: and Count Teleky has more than once filled this office. This society consists of the president and vice-president; a perpetual secretary, Dr. Schoedel; several annual secretaries; a treasurer; ordinary members, who receive a yearly salary, and whose duty it is to enrich the literature of Hungary and to criticise and report upon the works of others sent to the academy; resident members, living at Pesth, whose duties are similar to the former, but in a minor degree, and who do not receive any remuneration; non-resident members, who are only required to be present at the anniversary

meetings; honorary members, who have received this distinction for their abilities and knowledge, or for benefits conferred upon this academy; and lastly, corresponding members, who have either enriched the literature of their own countries or increased that of Hungary.

The sections are divided into those for philology, history, mathematics, philosophy, and the medical and natural sciences. One of the great objects of the society is to promote the study and propagate the reading of the Hungarian dialect; and for this purpose it publishes a number of works, not only upon scientific but, popular subjects, adapted to the means and the capacity of every class of the community. These, as well as the translations of the most celebrated authors of other nations, it causes to be sold at a price so low, that they are within the reach of the poorest. When an author has written a work in the Hungarian tongue, and wishes to have it published by the academy, he submits it to their secretary, who, at the monthly meeting next ensuing, brings it under the notice of the society at large; a committee of the section to which it belongs then institute a strict scrutiny as to its literary or scientific merit, and, if approved of by them, it is published by the academy in the order in which it stands with the MSS. already received. The authors are remunerated from the funds of the academy according to the value of their respective works; and the general expenses of the institute are defrayed by the voluntary contributions of the nobles and the inhabitants of this kingdom.

Should the government of Austria permit an academy

to exist in the imperial city, the well-wishers of science and literature in Vienna might learn a useful lesson from the patriotic manner in which the Hungarian people support their institution.

The fourth academy of science in the empire is that at Padua. The other societies, institutes, and academies are, the Olympic Academy, for arts, sciences, drawing, and painting, at Vicenza; the Academy for Painters and Sculptors, at Vienna; the Academy *Dé Concordi*, at Rovigo, for the culture of sciences; the Athenæums, at Venice, Treviso, Brescia, and Bergamo, for similar purposes; the Academy *degli Agiati*, at Roveredo, in the Tyrol, for the cultivation and publication of beautiful literature (*Die schöne Literatur*) and the Italian language; the Cabinet of Minerva, at Trieste; the Patriotic Society of the Friends of Art, at Prague, containing a good picture-gallery united to the painting and drawing school; the Society for the Promotion of the formed Arts (*Bildende Künste*) at Vienna, a description of art union;* the Economical or Agricultural Societies, at Vienna, Gratz, and Prague, with the latter of which is united a society for the care and management of sheep; the Society for Agriculture, Natural History, and Agricultural Chemistry, at Brünn; the Agricultural Societies of Laibach and Klagenfurt, as also those of the Tyrol and Vorarlberg, with their central meeting-place at Innsbruck, and auxiliary branches in the different districts. To these may be added, the Society

* The subscription to this society is five florins, and the number of pieces of painting and sculpture purchased for the members in 1834, amounted to 2,075.

for the Improvement of Agriculture, Arts, and Trade, in Görz, Verona, and Pesth; the Academy for Husbandry, in Udine; the Geognostic Mountain Society in the Tyrol and Vorarlberg, established for the purpose of discovering and investigating the mineral productions of these countries; the Horticultural Society of Vienna; and the Society for Promoting the Native Industry, Trade, and Manufactures of Bohemia—its public exhibitions are highly interesting, and it awards medals and diplomas to the manufacturers of the best productions.

Since the presentation of the petition of 1837, (spoken of at page 91,) three learned bodies have been organized in Vienna: the Society of Physicians, the Agricultural Society, and that for the promotion of commerce and industry: the two former are conducted upon the plan, and supported for the same objects as similar societies in this country; the latter, which partakes somewhat of the nature of a mechanics' institution, is deserving of our special attention. The *Gewerbs-Verein*, or Industrial Society, has done more to advance the interests of Vienna than any other institution since the days of the great reformer Joseph II., and notwithstanding the just outcry against the government for the want of an academy of science, this society had done much to remove from Austria the reproach of want of progress and improvement. Considering the condition in which I have already described the Austrian capital to be, it is curious to find there such an association for promoting industry, the arts, and manufactures, in so flourishing a condition, and established on such liberal principles; it certainly presents not only a curious

anomaly, but forms a remarkable epoch in the history of Austria; and even the casual observer must see in this society, which is open to free discussion upon all matters concerning commerce and industry, not only an advance towards national improvement, but a step gained in the ladder of liberty, which may one day end in its becoming the nucleus of a political parliament.

It is divided into five sections: those for chemistry and physics; mechanism and mechanics; natural history; trade and commerce; and the fine arts, as connected with manufacture and design. This society is not only ably supported by the trading and manufacturing classes, but also by several eminent scientific individuals, and many distinguished members of the nobility, foremost among whom stands Count Ferdinand Colloredo, its president. This body may be said to possess the talent of the middle classes of society in Vienna; the visitor will learn more of the feeling and character of this portion of the Austrian people by an evening's visit to its reading-room and museum than he possibly could in months elsewhere. Space does not permit me to enter into a further description of this patriotic institution, which has already achieved much for Austria; I wish it every success which it so eminently deserves; and would only add, let those who are so much interested in the erection of an academy of science take example by the *Gewerb-Verein*, its management, its funds, and the zeal and spirit which produced its erection, and let the government of Austria reflect what an extraordinary anomaly it presents, to permit the existence of such an

institution, while a similar privilege is denied to men of science and learning.

The following table exhibits a summary of all the foregoing societies in the empire, their number, members, and pupils:—

SOCIETIES.	NO.	MEMBERS.		PUPILS.
		Acting	Total.	
Learned Societies—Science and Mechanics .	17	1371	3003	262
Academies of Art	6	68	446	2733
Agricultural Societies	11	261	6111	31
Industrial Societies	10	2338	3223	678
Music Societies	1	141	141	..
	45	4179	12924	3704

Although the fine arts are not particularly cultivated in the imperial city or the provinces of Austria Proper, yet the splendid galleries of the former, added to the patronage bestowed upon modern artists, and its academy of painting, has created no unworthy school of art since the commencement of the last general peace; and even in the year 1820 there were seven hundred students and young artists studying in Vienna: but while Venice, Milan, and Prague are numbered among the cities of the empire, sculpture, painting, and engraving, music and the drama, find there a more congenial home.

Generally speaking, the fine arts flourish most in the German, Bohemian, and Italian provinces; while Hungary, Transylvania, Gallicia, and the Military Borders, as might be anticipated from the present condition of these countries, neither possess much art, nor feel its want. Yet although this applies to Hungary as

a nation, the observation is daily losing force in the capital of that country.

The imperishable reputation of Italy as a school of art, the magnificence of its galleries, the number and the value of its antiques in marble and on canvas, the remembrance of its ancient story, and the very tread of its classic ground, have long since created it the centre of European art; and while Rome forms the nucleus of this centre, the cities of the Austrian dominions in the Lombardo-Venetian states still continue to uphold, as far as the state of art in the present day will permit, the name and celebrity bequeathed to them by the ancient masters: and the spoils of the Byzantine kingdom, which adorn the lovely daughter of the Adriatic, still mould the taste of the Venetian artists.

So early as the end of the fourteenth century, the school of Padua had arisen, with Andreas Mantegna and his followers, and that of Verona, with Gianfrancesco Carotto. In these, if the outline was sharp or even harsh, still the drawing was correct. In the second half of the fifteenth century the Venetian school arose; and while it softened the lines of the two former, first brought into play those wonderful powers of its magnificent colouring, which has since become its characteristic, and has never been surpassed. As we advance in the sixteenth century—the golden age of painting in Italy—Rome, Florence, and Venice vie for the mastery in the art bequeathed to them by Giorgione and the celebrated Tiziano Vercelli; and even in later years, when the glory of painting had departed

from the other Italian schools, that of Venice still flourished, and could boast a Tintoretto and a Paul Veronese. In the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, those stars of the first magnitude which had illuminated the horizon of Italian painting had set; the age of imitation ensued, for the artists of that day, acknowledging the superiority of their forefathers, seemed as it were awed by the perfection attained by the masters of the early school, and seldom ventured to test their own powers of originality; and thus, although the schools of Milan, Venice, and Cremona still produced many distinguished artists, they were but *disciples* of an earlier and a more resplendent period.

This condition of the art in Italy continues to the present day; for although a hundred pieces of sculpture, and four hundred and ninety-seven paintings, by modern artists, were produced in the Milanese exhibition in 1838, there were but few works among them of any merit, whereon *copy* could not have been read.

While the arts were undergoing this change in Italy, the peculiar schools of Austria and Bohemia shot forth, and even in their infancy were characterised by much taste and genius, particularly in miniature painting. To Bohemia undoubtedly belongs the honour of having created the first national school in the Austrian dominions, for even so early as the latter end of the fourteenth, and beginning of the fifteenth century, when the Emperor Charles IV. held his court in Prague, the encouragement which painters, sculptors, and architects of every nation there received, soon raised a healthful spirit of emulation among the native artists of that

country, among whom the names of Kunze and Theodorich of Prague stand pre-eminent.

The works of the early Bohemian school possess all the errors in drawing and perspective which characterize the old German style. The last and the present centuries have, however, produced many distinguished Bohemian artists, who justly earned for themselves and their country considerable reputation in painting. The imperial city was one of the last places in the monarchy where native art commenced to flourish; how far this circumstance may have arisen from the want of that encouragement to artists and that fostering care of art, (such as she now denies to science,) the records I have consulted make no mention; for, although we read of the protection afforded by Rudolph II., the school has made but little progress till the present time.

In 1704, an academy of painting and sculpture, under Leopold the First, was founded in Vienna, and furnished with models of the best antiques from Rome and Florence; thus the foundation was laid, but no superstructure arose upon it, and a very few years after its erection it fell into decay. In 1726 it again rose into life, and a school of architecture was connected with it; but the first great step towards the formation of a school of art had its origin in the collections commenced by the noble families of Lichtenstein and Schwartzenberg, and by the protection and patronage which they afforded to architects, sculptors, and painters, during the latter part of the eighteenth century.

Under Joseph II. the academy was enriched with many new and splendid works of art, liberally endowed

by this patriotic emperor, divided into separate schools for its several branches, and placed under the direction of Frederick Füger, a painter of acknowledged and superior merit.

The splendid public and private galleries of Vienna are now too well known to require comment or description—the present school is chiefly distinguished for its success in portrait painting and landscape. Although sculpture has never flourished to any extent in the capital, the statues and monuments of which are principally by Italian masters, yet Austria has sent forth many distinguished artists in this department, at the head of whom stands Raphael Donner, one of the most celebrated European sculptors during the early years of the last century. Some years ago the Viennese school of engraving was more distinguished than any other of southern Germany, and received much *eclat* from the works of Jacob Schmutzer; but this art has here, as in other parts of Germany, given way to the softer touches of lithography. We are indebted to a Bohemian, Alois Senefelder, for the invention of this latter art, which was first brought into general use in Munich, and afterwards in Vienna, from whence it has spread to all parts of the globe.

Singing and music, which have had their birth-place in the Italian states of this empire, are highly cultivated in the capital, the operatic and sacred music of which is ably sustained by native artists, and the melody and power of Lutzer and Staudegel will be long remembered by those of their hearers who have a heart that can be charmed by music and song.

The German and Bohemian people, who by nature possess so much of the genius of music, soon improved their own talents in that line by adopting much of the style and manner of their Italian neighbours ; Prague and Vienna have lately become rallying points for all the good musicians and singers on the Continent ;* and the reputation which Mozart and Haydn, (both of whom were Austrians,) and Gluck and Beethoven, acquired for the capital of southern Germany, is still sustained by able artists and composers.

The Viennese possess much taste for the drama in all its branches ; the theatres, though numerous, are always well attended, and that of the Burg is one of the best conducted on the Continent. The pieces acted there are always of the chastest character, and the talent of its actors, among whom are Löwe and Madame Retch, is universally acknowledged.

* During my stay at Vienna I was twice present at concerts in the great riding schools of the palace, at which 1100 artists performed.

CHAPTER VI.

THE GREAT GENERAL HOSPITAL.

INTRODUCTORY REMARKS—THE SITUATION OF VIENNA—THE ALLGEMEINE KRANKENHAUS—ITS ERECTION—POSITION—OBJECTS—DIVISION—OFFICERS—GOVERNMENT—SUPPORT—RECEPTION OF PATIENTS—DISEASES—TYPHUS—ITS PATHOLOGY—OPINIONS OF ROKITANSKY.

THERE is no country in Europe (as may be gleaned from the foregoing remarks) where the details of medical education are attended to with such strictness—the different provinces of the medical profession preserved more distinct—the sanitary laws framed and enforced with a greater regard to the public health—the system of medical police better regulated—or, for its extent, civilization, and variety of population, the sick poor better provided for than in Austria. As, however, all must emanate from the imperial city, and as the principal school of practical medicine, not only for the Austrian states, but for all southern Germany, is the great general hospital at Vienna, which also serves as a model for those throughout the provinces, I purpose commencing this chapter with a description of that magnificent institution—the most extensive of its kind either here or upon the Continent—in order that the reader at home, or the visitor on the spot, may be better able to follow my subsequent account of the practical education, statistics, medical regulations, and government Hygiène in this vast empire.

Although the capitals of Russia, France, Great Britain, and Prussia, and some of the minor kingdoms of Europe, may boast as great, or a greater number of medical and eleemosynary institutions proportioned to the wants of their populations, there is none that, as a *whole*, furnishes medical relief upon so immense a scale—affords greater opportunities of studying disease—or combines within so defined a circuit, the several branches into which medical science may be divided, or that the pupil is required to become acquainted with, as this vast asylum, which contains within its walls 3,477 persons, and treats upwards of 30,500 patients annually.

The imperial city, situated about a mile from the Danube, and washed by its tributary the Wien, is divided into the old fortified town, or Stadt, and the new suburbs, or Vorstadt. The former is a compact, and somewhat circular-shaped enclosure, surrounded by a massive wall, fosse, and bastion; it is the residence of the court and the aristocracy; its streets of palaces—its many handsome churches, museums, and other public buildings—with its noble cathedral, rising in the centre—give it an imposing effect. Its architecture—a mixture of the Spanish and Oriental—has, at first sight, rather a sombre and formal appearance—did not the gaiety of its inhabitants soon dispel the gloom inspired by the massive form of their dwellings.

The Stadt is surrounded by the glacis, an open green space of several acres across, intersected by numerous walks and avenues, (giving it the look of a spider's web,) and crossed by the great entrances to the city. It is

adorned by numerous and tastefully laid out plantations ; and on this part, buildings are not permitted to be erected. When Vienna was a fortified city, it formed part of the outworks ; and now, in piping times of peace, it serves as a handsome and pleasing *Champs Elysée*, where the gay and light-hearted Viennese Bourgeoisie spend their summer afternoons, drinking kaiser-beer, and listening to the enlivening strains of Strauss and Lanner. It is used also as a manœuvre-ground for the immense garrison always retained in the capital ; and it is of inestimable value, as constituting the great lungs or breathing-place of the city ; and I have no doubt that, as such, it contributes much to the health of its inhabitants. Beyond this open space, or glacis, which it completely surrounds, commences the suburb, or Vorstadt, far more populous than the parent city ; it is the residence of the middle classes, the Bourgeoisie, the manufacturers, and trades-people, and the canaille. This Vorstadt is divided into districts ; in one of these (the Alser Vorstadt) is situated the *K. K. Allgemeine Krankenhaus*,* or Imperial Royal General Hospital, for thus flourishes the title of every institution connected with the state in Austria.

* One of the first objects that arrests the traveller's attention on arriving at the Austrian Barrier, is the large black and yellow K. K. painted at the toll-bar. These talismanic letters—the *Kaiserlich Kæniglich*, or Imperial Royal mark of authority and protection—are momentarily presented to his view, from one end of the land to the other—at all times, in all places ; from the highest office, and the most exalted officer of the crown, down to the latest invented lucifer-match—every thing that is under the protection of the state bears this never-ending emblem of monarchical government.

In the early part of the eighteenth century, we find that several minor hospitals existed in Vienna, as that of the *Bäckenhäusel*, that of the Holy Trinity, and the Spanish Hospital, &c. &c. Towards the end of the last century, the Emperor Joseph the Second, son of Maria Theresa, the great reformer of Austria, and the noble founder of so many of the benevolent institutions of that country, determined to suppress all these small hospitals, with the exception of those belonging to the sisters and brothers of charity, and to apply their funds and revenues to the erection of one grand sanatory establishment; and this he largely assisted, in its erection and income, with his private purse.* To carry this into effect, he required plans of such an institution from the chief physicians in the empire—Barons Störk, and Von Quarin, Professor Stoll, and Dr. Von Mertens. That of Quarin was approved of; and a great part of the present building erected in 1783, and opened on the 16th of August in the following year, for the reception of patients, Quarin being appointed the first director of it.

The site of this building is airy and convenient, and, although surrounded by a crowded suburb, healthy. The front, which faces the Alsergasse, is plain and unornamented, and bears over the doorway this benevolent motto—"SALUTI ET SOLATIO ÆGRORUM."

The object of this institution is three-fold. First, to afford a comfortable asylum for those able to pay all, or a portion of their expenses; secondly, to provide in-door medical relief gratis for those unable to pay any portion

* Josephinische Gesetzsammlung; Band. 6, Pag. 203 bis. 484.

of their cost; and, thirdly, to maintain a school of practical clinical medicine. The hospital is divided into three great departments—the medical and surgical hospital, the lying-in institution, and the lunatic asylum. The building itself is divided into the old and the new: the former has been already mentioned; the latter was commenced in 1832, and finished in 1834; it cost 496,838 florins 43 kreutzers Austrian money, or £49,183 17s. 5d. sterling: both together cover a space of 13,600 square yards. The general plan of the building is a vast quadrangle, three stories high, inclosing within its area one large and ten minor courts (see a plan of the hospital facing the title); the interiors of these square courts are tastefully laid out, intersected by gravel-walks, bordered by rows of trees, and ornamented with shrubs and flowers: a handsome fountain plays in the centre of each, and water is amply supplied by several basins and reservoirs: under the shade of these trees seats and benches are placed for the accommodation of the patients. The hospital contains 104 wards, independent of the *maternité* and lunatic asylum; it is furnished with 2,214 beds—1,247 for males, and 967 for females—and receives from 18,000 to 20,000 patients annually. It also contains the residences of the priests, directors, professors, physicians, and other medical attendants; the chapels, the pharmacy, and compounding department, pathological museum, lecture-rooms, operating theatres, dead-house, dissecting-rooms, baths, and laundry;*

* There are no less than 6,250 articles washed in this laundry daily !! and from 200 to 300 persons use baths daily.

besides a *Gasthaus*, with a *table-d'hôte* for the use of the students—the latter cheap and bad. The greater portion of these are situate in the ground-story of the first great square; generally, throughout the hospital, the wards of the ground-floor are occupied by patients with chronic and surgical diseases, and those of the upper ones by persons labouring under internal and acute affections, the whole being arranged in six medical, four surgical, and four clinical divisions. With the exception of the four professors of medicine and surgery, the whole medical staff, amounting to seventy-six persons, reside within the precincts of the hospital.

Each division is under the immediate care and direction of a chief physician or surgeon—the *Primararzt*, or *Primarchirurg*, or *Primarwundarzt*; under him are placed from two to three *Secundarärzte*, who have the management and attendance upon from three to four wards. Attached to each of these secondary physicians we find from two to three young practitioners, denominated *Praktikanten*, who perform the same duty as the dressers or head pupils in English hospitals: except those in the “Surgical Operators’ Institute” of the surgical clinique, these latter are not paid, but they have lodgings provided for them in the hospital, and are supplied with fire and candlelight: after some time they are generally raised to the offices of *Secundarärzte* or *Secundarwundärzte*, the majority of whom receive from 120 to 240 florins yearly. The primary officers, or physicians and surgeons of divisions, are likewise in general chosen from the class below them, and get from 1,000 to 1,500 florins, or £150 yearly.

The whole hospital, including the medical and non-professional attendants, is under the government of a director and vice-director, appointed by the Protomedicus and the medical department of the state, and they usually appoint the officers beneath them.

The following table exhibits the number, distribution, and salaries of the different officers, medical attendants, nurses, and servants in the three great departments of the *Krankenhaus*, at the period of my visit: all of whom have apartments, fire, and lighting, from the establishment, independent of their salaries :—

OFFICERS AND ATTENDANTS.	General Hospital.	Lunatic Asylum.	Lying-in Hospital.	Salaries in English Money.
Number of Beds	2214	370	441	
MEDICAL OFFICERS AND ATTENDANTS.				£
1 Director	1	. . .	. . .	300
1 Vice director	1	. . .	. . .	230
8 Primärärzte	6	1	1	990
5 Primärwundärzte	5	. . .	. . .	540
15 Secundärärzte	12	2	1	188
11 Secundarchirurgen	9	2	. . .	196
32 Practicants	30	2	. . .	132
1 Head Midwife	. . .	. . .	1	30
1 Assistant ditto	. . .	. . .	1	18
4 Head Nurses (Males)	4	. . .	. . .	240
52 Male Nurses	22	30	. . .	624
251 Female ditto	181	28	42	3012
6 Professors	5	. . .	1	—
1 Apothecary	1	. . .	. . .	—
Total	277	65	47	6500
NON-MEDICAL OFFICERS AND ATTENDANTS.				
1 Chancellor	1	. . .	. . .	120
1 Spiritual Director	1	. . .	. . .	} 57
5 Priests	5	. . .	. . .	
1 Controller	1	. . .	. . .	90
22 Clerks, &c.	26	. . .	. . .	740
7 Porters	3	3	1	108
28 General Servants and Attendants	28	. . .	. . .	466
General Total	342	68	48	8081

Thus we find that there are 389 medical attendants to 3,025 beds, or one for every eight, independent of the different clerks and general servants not in immediate attendance upon the sick.

The six professors are paid by the university or the government; and the apothecary is paid out of a certain fund set apart for that purpose, and not included in the hospital expenses.

Seven of the *Secundärärzte* and twenty-one *Praktikanten* do not receive pay.

The medical officers visit the wards twice a day, from seven to nine in the morning, and again at four in the afternoon; the former is, however, the chief visit, and that at which the medicine is prescribed, and the diet, &c. &c. regulated.*

The offices of director and vice-director are always filled by medical men; the person who occupies the latter post is generally a *Primararzt* over some of the wards of the hospital at the same time. This officer was first appointed in 1823, and is, *de facto*, the governor of the establishment.

The post of director is one of considerable trust, and is immediately connected with the government of Lower

* The English visitor will be not a little surprised on his first entrance into an Austrian hospital, at the custom observed there of all the nurses, patients, and attendants, kissing the hands of the chief medical attendants. I am glad to say that this servile custom is falling into daily disuse, the majority of the officers being content with the expression "*Küss die Hand*," yet others still hold out the hand to be kissed on entering the wards, or meeting any of the servants.

Austria. All the head physicians and surgeons (who are under his direct superintendence) furnish the hospital direction with daily and monthly *Protokollen*, or journals of their divisions. The director also holds a meeting of these *Primärärzte* and *Primärwundärzte* once a month, and from this meeting forwards a report to government upon the state of disease, the sanatory condition of the hospital, and the general public health.

Noble and munificent as this vast institution appears at first sight to the foreigner, who, if an Englishman or Frenchman, expects to find in it an asylum for the diseased and destitute, where, in accordance with the spirit of similar establishments in his own country, sickness and poverty are the only qualifications necessary to procure admission, he will find, upon a closer examination, that with the exception of the lying-in department for females illegitimately with child, and its attendant institution for the foundlings born there, together with the female venereal wards, there is little or *no gratuitous* relief afforded in the Viennese *Krankenhaus*. I am far from wishing to decry the system of affording medical relief by means of compulsory taxation, but I do conceive it arbitrary and injurious, to levy this tax off those least able to bear it—the diseased themselves, or their relatives—while the rich and noble are neither taxed, *nor permitted to support*, by voluntary contributions, the hospitals and asylums of their country.

The following regulations with regard to the mode of reception into this hospital will briefly explain my meaning, and the drift of these remarks:—

Each patient desiring admission, is required to pro-

duce a certificate from the magistrate, or local government officer of his district, whether in town or country, as to his own or his relations' capability of defraying his expenses; if it can be satisfactorily proved that he himself or his friends are really unable to pay for his reception, then he is admitted gratuitously, as far as he himself or his family are concerned, but his expenses are levied off his parish or district. If his friends are in circumstances to afford it, they are compelled to pay for his care and treatment.

Masters are compelled to pay for their servants, for one month, fourteen florins if they are, at the commencement of their illness, discharged; and if they wish to retain them in their service, they pay at the same rate during the entire period of their residence in hospital. The different guilds and corporations pay a yearly sum to the *Krankenhaus*, for the members of their bodies; and if the patients are paupers, and under the poor-law direction at the time of their illness, that body is also compelled to defray the expenses of those under their superintendence. Patients forwarded from the country parts, affected with remarkable diseases, or venereal, &c., have their cost paid by the district to which they at the time belong. Accidents are received at once, and the circumstances of the case inquired into afterwards. On a patient presenting himself for admission, he is first examined at an office set apart for the purpose, and there the mode of his reception, the class of ward he is to occupy, and the physician he is to be treated by, is determined on.

There are three classes of paying patients: the first,

or highest, pay one florin twenty kreutzer, or two shillings and four pence daily; these are generally persons in the middle ranks of life; the second, pay fifty-one kreutzer; and the third, eighteen kreutzer.* This is the cost to the citizens of Vienna. The inhabitants of the country parts, who generally come under the third class, pay thirty-two kreutzer. All must pay one month in advance. If the patient is dismissed, or dies before the expiration of a month, then a part of the money is returned to himself or his friends; but the first class pay for four days, the second for six, and the third for eight days longer.

Manufacturers must pay for those in their employment in the third class, unless the patients are affected with venereal, in which case neither masters nor manufacturers are obliged to pay for their servants, or those engaged in their factories. Strangers and travelling journeymen are paid for in the third class by their native town or Kreis. If the police send a patient from any of the gaols or houses of correction, they are bound to pay for them; and in like manner the creditor pays for the cure and attendance of the debtor. To what an extent this system is carried, may be learned by knowing, that if a foreigner is compelled to seek medical relief in this or any other Austrian hospital, his ambassador is served with the bill of his expenses, which his country is obliged to discharge!

* An Austrian florin is equivalent to two shillings sterling, and consists of three zwanziger; each zwanziger, valued at eight pence, contains twenty kreutzer; two and a half kreutzer make an English penny.

The patients get three meals a day ; at eight, eleven to twelve, and five.

The wards, which are clean and of good proportions, contain from twenty to thirty beds each ; their windows are raised several feet above the floor, and they are heated according to Meiszner's method, by large iron stoves placed in the wall, and supplied with fuel from without. They are, however, very badly ventilated, but this may be owing to the endeavour made to keep out the extreme cold of winter ; the bedsteads are wooden, and unprovided with curtains, except in the eye wards. There are private rooms, and smaller wards, with somewhat better accommodation for the first class paying patients. The nurses, who are chiefly females, are obliged to sleep in their respective wards. There are one hundred and eighty-one female and twenty-two male nurses in this department of the *Kranhenhaus*.

The majority of the wards are generally kept locked, and some of them, as the venereal and skin ones, always so. Those most worthy the visitor's notice, are the ones set apart for special diseases, as syphilis, fever, affections of the skin, diseases of the chest, ophthalmic cases, &c. &c. ; besides which there are the general medical and surgical divisions, containing acute and chronic affections in both departments, but seldom possessing cases of much interest to the foreigner ; and there are also small distinct wards for patients labouring under hydrophobia.

Patients affected with paralysis, cancer, malignant, scrofulous, and other incurable maladies, are distributed through the general wards of the hospital. This great

disadvantage to themselves and the other patients, is so manifest, that I trust there will soon be erected a special hospital for incurables, or wards set apart for their reception, in that already existing.

Scrofulous diseases, particularly in the tubercular form, are more frequent in Austria than any other country I have visited. General surgery has but little to offer to the attention of the French or English student, except, perhaps, a lesson upon adhesive inflammation to the former. The want of machinery and manufactures, as well as the few heavy-wheeled carriages, and the sober quiet deportment of the inhabitants, compared with London, Paris, or Dublin, no doubt assists in lessening the number of accidents.

Calculus and bladder affections are also comparatively less frequent than with us. I cannot praise the dressing and bandaging—it is neither neat nor scientific. The surgical divisions most deserving a visit, are those of Drs. Schuh,* and Moisisowitz, the most rising surgeons in Vienna. Rheumatism is a most frequent and dangerous affection in Vienna. Diseases of the skin are not very common in this part of Austria: there is a separate division set apart for their treatment, which is chiefly by baths and fumigations; but to those who have seen St. Louis, at Paris, it offers little attraction.

The fever wards are usually crowded, especially in the cold season, and their mortality is very great; generally

* Dr. Schuh tapped the pericardium during my stay in Vienna, by trephining the sternum in a patient of Dr. Skodas. She survived; but I left the city before her case had terminated, several months after the operation.

a third die; ulceration of the intestines, and scrofulous tubercular deposits in the abdomen, being the most usual pathological appearances. The visitor will have here a good opportunity of witnessing, on a large scale, the *Nerven fieber*, or true *typhus abdominalis* of the east of Europe. The treatment is more of the expectant than the anticipating plan, and consists, as indeed does the treatment of most diseases in this hospital, of some one line already marked out, and only deviating to meet symptoms as they present themselves, but never venturing upon new and unexplored ground. Stimulants are never used even in the advanced stage of this disease.

Much new light has been lately thrown upon the pathology of this form of disease (typhus) by the researches and observations of Professor Rokitansky, and which have been made known to the profession in this country by my friends and colleagues in Vienna, Drs. Drysdale and Russell, in their valuable article on the Pathology of Typhus, in the note to "Fletcher's Elements of General Pathology." From this we learn that "the Typhus process is characterized in an anatomical point of view by the deposition of a peculiar morbid product, which forthwith undergoes a distinct series of peculiar changes. The seat of this process is various, and depends upon the specific relation of the general process to certain organs. The tissues most subject to this deposition are the mucous membrane and the Lymphatic glands; and in Austria, at least, where the observations were made, the mucous membrane of the ileum (*ilio-typhus*) is most frequently affected, but it also occurs in the bronchia and lungs,

(when in this seat constituting most probably the *exanthematic typhus*,) and also, though very rarely, in the colon (*colo-typhus*)."

Let us examine its changes in the intestines—the most frequent seat of the process. First, the stage of congestion, corresponding to the period of irritation and catarrhal or gastric symptoms. "It exhibits a congested state of the vessels, or succulent condition of the mucous membrane, particularly of the villous coat extending over the greater part of the ileum, but better marked at particular spots—especially near the cœcum; the mesenteric glands are slightly swollen, their vessels are gorged with blood, their substance soft and elastic, and their colour dark.

"In the second stage (the stage of deposition of the morbid product, *i. e.* typhus infiltration, which is in respect to the degeneration its crude stage) the congested stage moderates to a certain degree, and is reduced to several spots corresponding to the Peyerian glands, and a few solitary follicles. Here it appears in the form of round elliptic '*plaques*,' varying from half a line to three lines in thickness, which are formed by the deposition of a peculiar substance in the Peyerian plexus and submucous cellular tissue. On a more close examination the degeneration is found to be so deposited in the submucous tissue of the follicles, that the deepest layer of that tissue, immediately covering the muscular coat, remains free from infiltration. It very seldom reaches beyond the bounds of the follicular apparatus.

"The mesenteric glands are now more swollen, so as to reach the size of a bean or hazel nut, blue, or greyish

red, tolerably consistent, and apparently infiltrated with lardaceous substance.

“The commencement of the third stage (that of intumescence, softening and throwing off of the degeneration) is indicated by a return of the congestion in the ileum in a violent degree. The vessels, especially the veins, both in the mesentery and in their ramifications in the intestines, are gorged with dark-violet viscid blood, and the tissue of the mucous membrane presents again a swollen appearance, more especially in the villi, which yield a greyish-white turbid fluid on pressure.

“But the most remarkable change takes place in the *typhus-plaques* and mesenteric glands, which become spongy and turgescient. These changes may take place in either of the following ways. The deposit assumes the appearance of a greyish marrow-like substance, and is then, along with the covering of the mucous membrane adhering to it, converted into a dirty yellowish-brown eschar; which, shrinking together from all sides, gradually loosens itself at the margin, splits into various directions, breaks off from the deepest stratum of the submucous cellular tissue, and is carried off all at once, or by a repeated recurrence of the process; or the deposit degenerates into a loose, vascular, blood-streaked, blueish-red, luxuriant fungoid structure, which becomes a special source of profuse intestinal hemorrhages, and is generally thrown off piecemeal, without scabbing.

“The mesenteric glands now reach their greatest volume, attaining the size of a pigeon’s, and near the cœcal valve not unfrequently that of a hen’s egg. Their substance is injected, tolerably consistent, but changes

into a greyish-red, loose pulp, frequently presenting the appearance of evident extravasation of blood. It is then soft and elastic, or frequently gives rise to the sensation of fluctuation.

“In the fourth stage, after this deposition is thrown off, a loss of substance of the internal surface of the gut remains, which represents the proper typhus ulcer. It is unnecessary to go more into the detail or the appearance of these ulcers, which have been so frequently described and are so well known. At this stage the morbid product has been thrown off; the mesenteric glands diminish forthwith in volume by the removal of the infiltrated morbid matter, but they remain still somewhat larger than natural, and retain a reddish colour and their increased vascularity.

“When the typhus process localizes itself in the bronchial mucous membrane, the phenomenon presents a considerable difference. It appears always in the form of a diffused intense congestion, with dark-coloured swelling of the membrane, and copious secretion of a gelatinous, occasionally dark blood-streaked mucous, and is principally developed in the bronchial ramifications of the inferior lobe. It appears, therefore, in this situation to be always arrested in the stage of typhus congestion, and never comes to any manifest production of that morbid product in the tissue of the bronchial mucous membrane, which is produced in such abundance in the follicular apparatus of the intestinal mucous membrane in abdominal typhus. Thus in the primitive *broncho-typhus* the general affection is localized in the bronchial mucous membrane alone, to the

exclusion of all the other mucous membranes, even that of the intestines, with which the typhus process in general has the greatest affinity. In many cases indeed the latter exhibits a recognizable, but always subordinate secondary affection of the follicles, in which the neighbouring mesenteric glands participate; and it would often be difficult to recognise the affection as typhus, were it not for the other attendant changes which mark the disease—viz. the peculiar ingorgement of the spleen and congestion of the pyloric extremity of the stomach, the condition of the blood, and the typhus nature of the affection in general, but more especially the change in the bronchial glands. This change is the same as that which the mesenteric glands undergo in the *ilio-typhus*. They are swollen to the size of a pigeon's or hen's egg, reddish-blue, spongy, friable, soft, and infiltrated with the peculiar typhus product.

“This form is frequently combined with *pneumotyphus* and typhus pleurisy, and is undoubtedly the pathological cause of the exanthematic contagious typhus, and most probably also of the Irish and North-American typhus, which commonly run their course without abdominal affection.

“Sometimes the typhus affection of the lungs is better pronounced than that of the bronchia; but the former never occurs independently of the latter.

“Besides these primary seats of typhus deposition it may be deposited in many other organs as a secondary formation, giving rise to many complications, which though very interesting in a practical point of view, would lead to too much detail were we to notice them here.

“Third. The typhus matter, has, even at its origin, but much more in the transformations it undergoes, the greatest analogy with the cancerous degeneration, and more particularly with the medullary cancer.

“Fourth. The local typhus process is an inflammation, not however of a healthy character, but of a typhus character; and this unhealthiness is given, according to Rokitansky, by the peculiar diseased state of the blood. Lastly. Rokitansky is of opinion that when the local typhus process is not met with in the mucous membrane of the intestines or in any other mucous membranes, it may have run its course in the blood without localizing itself at all.”—“*Rokitansky's Handbuch der Pathologischen Anatomie.*”

A perusal of the foregoing remarks shows that its post-mortem appearances resemble very closely the Parisian form of the disease. The Viennese pathologists, however, consider it a dyscrastic affection, depending entirely upon the formation and subsequent changes of the peculiar substance called “typhus matter,” similar in nature to medullary-sarcoma. This lengthened extract by my companions in Vienna is too valuable and too much to the purpose to require comment or apology.

CHAPTER VII.

PUBLIC CLINICAL INSTRUCTION.

CLINICAL INSTRUCTION—ITS ADVANTAGES—THE MEDICAL CLINIQUE FOR SURGEONS—THE SURGICAL CLINIQUE—OPERATORS' INSTITUTE—ITS INTENTION AND STATISTICS—THE OPHTHALMIC SCHOOL OF VIENNA—ITS ORIGIN AND CELEBRITY—THE MEN WHO FLOURISHED IN IT—THEIR WRITINGS AND OPERATIONS—LABOURS OF BEER—THE OPHTHALMIC CLINIQUE—ITS HISTORY—ADVANTAGES—EDUCATION OF OCULISTS—MUSEUM—PRACTICE AND OPERATIONS OF ROSAS.

THE chief difference observed between the methods of acquiring a knowledge of medicine at home and on the Continent, consists in the better clinical instruction of the latter. It was this admirable system of education that first attracted the attention of foreign students and professors to the German school of medicine in the beginning of this century; and to it may be traced, in a great measure, the rapid rise and steady progress of medical science in that country, since the conclusion of the last general European war. This system, though not carried to its full extent, is now so generally adopted by the most distinguished teachers in this country, and its usefulness is so universally admitted, that it needs no powers of language to induce the student and the professor to cultivate it with assiduity as the best means of advantageously prosecuting the noble labour and inquiry in which both are engaged. The cliniques of Vienna have long been celebrated, but to the British medical public they are not yet sufficiently known to be appre-

ciated. This branch of practical education, as required by the Viennese university, and denominated the *Klinische Lehranstalten*, consists of four public schools—the medical clinique for physicians, the medical clinique for surgeons, and the surgical and ophthalmic cliniques, besides which there is a private special clinique for diseases of the chest, under Dr. Skoda.

The medical clinique for physicians is held from eight to ten o'clock, on five days in the week, in a distinct building of the *Krankenhaus*, which faces the entrance into the first great quadrangle;* it consists of a male and female ward, containing together twenty-eight beds, with an average reception of from two hundred and eighty to three hundred patients annually; these patients always consist of the most interesting and instructive cases selected from the general wards of the hospital by the professor's assistant, who, on a vacancy occurring in the clinique, has the privilege of removing into it any patient he chooses—each new case is immediately delivered into the hands of a pupil, taken in rotation, and styled the *Ordinarius*, who carefully notes the symptoms, and all the phænomena of disease then presenting, and who prescribes, under the superintendence of the assistant, any medicine that may be immediately necessary. On the next visit of the professor, the *Ordinarius* examines the patient in the presence of the class, inquiring minutely into the origin

* In it also reside the director, the professors of medicine and pathological anatomy, and some of the subordinate officers of the *Krankenhaus* direction, and in the under story we find the *Gasthaus* already alluded to.

and history of the case—the state of the functions, secretions, and excretions, and details the presenting appearances, &c. &c.—the pupil is then questioned by the professor on any point in the examination he may have omitted, and is required to give his opinion on the prognosis and diagnosis, and finally to prescribe the medicine and dietetics—all which are corrected, if necessary, by the professor, who then makes some observations on the general character of the disease, and the peculiarities of each individual case, and defines the line of treatment to be pursued. The pupil then prepares a concise written report of the case in Latin, in which tongue nearly all bedside communications between the professors and the students are conducted in Vienna*—on each subsequent visit the pupil describes the changes that have taken place in the interim, the effect of the medicines, and the state of the functions. Moreover, a tablet of tolerable dimensions is hung over each bed, specifying not only the disease, name, age, sex, and nativity of the patient, but also the medicines, diet, and regimen, the state of the pulse, the temperature, and the secretions.† This judicious arrangement not only makes known to the class the precise condition of each case, but saves the patient the annoyance and injury of that continued questioning by the students, practised in other hospitals, particularly in this country.

* The British student will be not a little astonished at the facility with which Germans converse in Latin, and from their mode of pronunciation, will at first find it difficult to comprehend them, he should therefore practise the speaking of Latin before he leaves this country.

† This is written in Latin by the ordinarius, each day, on a black painted board, with simple flour and water.

According to the curriculum of medical education in Austria, it is not left to the student's option at what period of his course he will make it his convenience to attend this or any other clinique, for he is not permitted to enter upon this practical branch of study till the fourth year of his course, and until he has been previously grounded in anatomy and physiology, general pathology, chemistry, and pharmacy, as well as having received instruction in some of the minor and collateral walks of his profession, such as zoology, botany, &c.; he does not, therefore, engage in it while he is yet unequal to the task required of him, or is incapable of duly appreciating the advantages he is offered—circumstances which, in this country, add not a little to the perplexities and difficulties which beset the student, according to our present very bad system of instruction. By the existing regulations of the Vienna university, the student requiring the degree of doctor of medicine, or doctor of surgery, must attend four six-month courses of practical medicine in this clinique, in the fourth and fifth year of his studies. From the character of the instruction pursued in this and similar institutions, the student's mind is trained and unconsciously led into a proper course of investigation—he is literally taught how to observe—he is daily called upon to exercise his own reason and judgment, and thus he has not only become familiar with disease, but he has acquired a facility of expressing himself concerning it, and of arranging and committing to paper, in a definite form, his thoughts and observations on it. How much such a general system is wanting in this country the student can tell

who has been called upon for the first time in his life before a public court of examiners, to describe a disease, and that, the hour before he is licensed to treat it, and who is next sent abroad upon the world a practitioner, to exercise for the first time his own faculties in examining and prescribing for those committed to his care. Thus, says an able Scotch writer on this subject (himself a pupil of this school) :—"The graduates of Vienna have not idled away the season for improvement. Placed in a situation suited as well for the communication of knowledge, as for the elicitation of talent, they are schooled in penetration, and in actual habits of observation, and bring into the chambers of the sick, something more than book-learning, something widely different from fashionable accomplishments."*

This clinique was established at the time of the first erection of the hospital, in 1784, under Professor Maximilian Stoll, and then contained but twelve beds ; in 1800 it was increased to twenty-four, and subsequently to its present complement. Some of the most eminent physicians of Germany were professors in this school during the last half century, as Renlein, Frank, and the venerable Hildebrand, father to the present professor, Dr. Franz Edlen von Hildebrand ; the reputation of the

* The clinique that approaches nearest to the German method is that introduced by Drs. Graves and Stokes, into the medical wards of the Meath Hospital, Dublin. Dr. Graves was long a student in Germany, and on his return to this country in 1820, first established clinical instruction on the German plan (see his introductory "Lecture on Clinical Instruction," in the *London Medical Gazette* for June, 1832, and his "System of Clinical Medicine," Dublin, 1843, Fannin & Co.)

son does not approach near that of the father, either as a teacher, or a practical physician.

Attached to this clinique is a lecture-room where, at a later hour in the morning, the professor delivers a systematic course of lectures upon the theory and practice of medicine.

Thus far the theory and principles of clinical medicine are admirably framed, but in practice this school is not without its disadvantages to both patients and pupils, arising chiefly from the great number of the latter ; the crowd of students collected into those comparatively small wards, at the hour of visit, fills them to excess, rendering it not only impossible for the majority to hear or learn any thing, but at times tainting the atmosphere beyond what can be imagined. This latter pernicious effect upon the tone of diseases is, however, more observable in the other cliniques (especially the surgical) than in this. If it be true that more is learned from one well-observed case throughout its progress, than from the cursory oversight of hundreds in the daily *walk* of an English hospital, it is equally true that the number of the observers must be also limited. Another decided disadvantage in this exclusive clinical instruction, (which does not exist, as far as it has been introduced into this country,) is, that the pupils are not required, and in some instances are not permitted, to visit the wards of the general hospital ; for although it is of great importance to the younger students to be first made acquainted with disease by treating and observing individual cases, yet to the more advanced pupil it would be of great practical importance to visit, even for a few

months, the different divisions of this great hospital. Not only would this have a beneficial effect in preventing his mind generalizing from a few cases ; but in some of the wards for special diseases, as those of the skin, syphilis, &c., &c., where such variety arises, it is absolutely necessary to observe them upon a large scale.

The next division of the *Lehranstalt* is the medical clinique for surgeons of a lower grade than those who study in the foregoing ; these are the *Civil und Landwundärzte*, a class approaching in character the general practitioners of this country. This department, *Die medicinische Klinik für Wundärzte*, has but one ward, with thirteen beds, and its receptions average one hundred and seventy yearly. The professor, Dr. Andreas Wawruch's visit, is from eight to ten o'clock in the morning daily. The surgical students described above, are required to attend this clinique during the first and second semesters of their third year. It is conducted on the same principle as the former, but possesses little attraction for the foreigner. In these two, as well as all the other cliniques, the professors hold public examinations at the end of each course ; and on the proficiency of the pupils at these examinations the certificate of attendance is alone granted. On the whole, the present state of pure medicine in Vienna is, when compared with other parts of Germany, at a very low ebb.

The surgical clinique, *Die chirurgische Klinik*, consisting of two spacious wards, with twenty-five beds, is situated on the ground floor, to the immediate left of the front entrance. The wards are clean and lofty, and, except at visit hour, better ventilated than those of the

general hospital. As however the male and female departments are only separated by a door which remains more frequently open than shut, the two sexes are thus virtually placed in the same apartment. Connected with this clinique is an *Ambulatorium* or dispensary, consisting, for the most part, of patients requiring operations, who present themselves from different parts of the empire, to the number of one hundred annually. At the extremity of these wards is a well-lighted public operating theatre, and beyond that, a private one, for the use of the pupils of the operative institute. There is also a collection of surgical instruments and apparatus, and an extensive and valuable circulating library of medico-chirurgical works and German periodicals, which is likewise open to the use of foreigners, on the payment of a few kreutzer monthly. This library is arranged in presses at the end of the male ward, each press being surmounted by the name and titles of the donor, the works being for the most part the gifts and bequests of the different surgical professors who have filled this chair. The professor's assistant is *ex officio* librarian for the time being, and the subscription is thirty kreutzer, or about one shilling of our money, monthly. The hour of attendance at this clinique is from ten to eleven o'clock daily.

All those observations which I have already made with regard to the crowded state of the medical clinique apply with three-fold force to this. During the season of 1840 and 41, there were no less than three hundred students entered in this clinique; and I have frequently seen these small wards so full, as to be impassable at the hour of visit. For the sake

of humanity, as well as for the reputation of the school, either a second clinique should be established, or the wards of this increased to three times their present size ; the average receptions being from one hundred and sixty to one hundred and eighty in each year, it is here impossible that the usual mode of instruction can be carried into effect. The treatment in this school is very simple, its present professor, Dr. Joseph Edlen von Wattmann, being a disciple of his predecessor, Kern,* without, however, possessing the originality of that distinguished surgeon. As an operator, the profession has little opportunity of judging of his abilities, the great majority of the operations in this clinique being performed by the pupils of the operative institute ; but the Viennese is far behind any of the other continental schools in its operations, except those upon the eye, which are now, as they have ever been, pre-eminent. This may in a great measure be owing to the operations in the general wards of this, and all the other hospitals of Vienna, being strictly private, and seldom witnessed either by the student or the foreign visitor. Both the doctors of surgery and the civil and country surgeons, *Chirurgiens de Ville et de Campagne*, attend this clinique: the former during the four last seasons in their fourth and fifth years ; and the latter, for two courses in their third year.

Associated with the surgical clinique, is the Opera-

* The system of water dressing so long advocated by the late distinguished Professor Macartney, in the University of Dublin, and now coming into such general repute, was introduced into this clinique by Professor Kern, forty years ago.

tors' Institute, *Das K. K. Chirurgische Operations Institut*, established by the late emperor, in 1807, chiefly at the instigation of Kern.*

This is one of the most valuable institutions connected with medicine in Austria. Its object is, to educate as operators a certain number of physicians and surgeons. They are fourteen in number, have apartments in the hospital, and are supported by the state for two years—the full period required for their studies. Each of the three grades of the profession are eligible to fill these places, but they must be either doctors of medicine, doctors of surgery, or *Wundärzte*. If the former, they are required to undergo a special surgical examination, and if the latter, (or patrons of surgery,) they must previously take out the degree of master surgeon (*Magister der Chirurgie*).

The privilege of sending pupils to this school is not confined to the Vienna University, but a certain number are sent from each of the universities yearly: the candidates are first recommended by the surgical professor, and then make a *concours* in their own university—the subject of examination being topographical or regional anatomy. The election takes place on the 8th of February, and the person elected must sign a bond promising to remain in the Austrian states. During the first year they operate on the dead body only, and at the end of this period they undergo a public examination, when,

* The reader will find a detailed account of this institution in the little work of my friend, Dr. Carl Ludwig Sigmund, published in Vienna in 1841.

if found proficient, they are permitted to operate on the living subject ; they also receive private instruction from Professor Wattmann : and the operations of the surgical clinique, with some rare exceptions, are performed by these young men.

Many years before the establishment of this institution, which is now connected with the university, a similar one existed in the Josephinum Academy for military surgeons. Professor Rosas instructs two of these gentlemen gratis at each of his private courses.

At the expiration of their two years' study they receive a special diploma as *Operateurs*, and, for the most part, return to their particular provinces, where they are required to serve the state gratuitously for some time ; this time is, however, seldom of long duration, for they are very soon advanced to some place of trust and emolument—indeed there are many situations under the medical government of the country that can be filled only by these persons.

MEMBERS OF THE OPERATORS' INSTITUTE.

Lower Austria . . .	52	Brought forward . . .	101
Upper Austria . . .	8	Gallicia . . .	6
Styria . . .	17	Venetian States . . .	15
Bohemia . . .	12	Lombardy States . . .	16
Moravia . . .	3	Hungary . . .	7
Carinthia . . .	1	Transylvania . . .	5
Carniola . . .	1		
Illyria and Coastland . . .	4		150
The Tyrol . . .	3	Russia . . .	2
Carried forward . . .	101		152*

* Twenty-nine of these are at present, or have been professors.

One hundred and seventy-four physicians and surgeons have been educated as *Opérateurs* at this institute since its commencement, twenty-two of whom have since died ; the remaining one hundred and fifty-two are distributed throughout the Austrian provinces, as in the foregoing return.

There is no branch of medical science so admirably managed, or that forms a source of greater attraction than the Ophthalmic Clinique. The high and justly-celebrated character the school of ophthalmic surgery in Vienna obtained for itself above half a century ago, the many esteemed oculists it has brought forth, and the reputation it now enjoys of being the first of its kind in Europe, lead us to inquire somewhat as to its first foundation, its early history, and the means by which it has been raised to its present eminence. It is remarkable that while ophthalmology is, and has for so many years been cultivated with such marked success in Austria, the general practice of surgery is in a state so low, that one of the grades of those licensed by its universities and lyceums to practise that branch of the healing art, is compelled by law to keep a barber's shop. See page 59.

In 1745, Nicholas Joseph Pallucci, an Italian physician, born in 1719, and already celebrated as an oculist and lithotomist, was brought by Van Swieten from Florence to the university of Vienna, and may fairly be said to have laid the foundation of the ophthalmic school there ; for although he was not a public teacher, yet the works he published on affections of the eye, and his expertness as an operator, generated a taste for

that department of medical science, that has gone on increasing to the present day. Pallucci was opposed to the extraction of cataract, but depressed, it is said, with much facility and marked success. He invented a new instrument for this purpose, a kind of trocar, not unlike a cistotome, concealed within a sheath, and with the stilet of this he readily depressed. It was an instrument almost peculiar to himself, and soon fell into disuse. He was the first who removed with a forceps an opaque capsule, through an opening in the cornea—an operation now frequently performed, especially by Professor Jäger, who, however, uses a hook instead of the forceps invented by the Italian. Pallucci died in 1797;* but, notwithstanding his labours, the present professors of the Viennese school claim Joseph Barth for its founder—he being the first public teacher of ophthalmology in the Austrian dominions.

Barth was born in the island of Malta in 1745, and studied medicine at Rome, and afterwards at Vienna. When but eighteen years of age he was appointed

* His first work which appeared upon the new method of depression was published in French, at Paris, in 1750, and probably procured him that reputation which recommended him to Van Swieten; it was afterwards reprinted in German at Leipzig, in 1752—See “Geschichte der neuern Heilkunde von Dr. J. F. C. Hecker, Zweites Buch der Wiener Schule, von 1745, bis 1785.”

“Bechreibung eines neuen Instruments, den Staar mit allem nur möglichen Erfolg niederzudrücken:” 8vo. This instrument is figured in Blazius.

His second edition, in Italian, was published in Vienna in 1763. In 1762 he put forth a large octavo, in Latin, on the cure of *Fistula Lachrymalis*. His other works are on the operations for *Calculus* and *Polypus nasi*.

professor of anatomy to the university, under Stoerk, the successor of Van Swieten. The anatomical school of the Austrian capital acquired considerable renown at that period from possessing the valuable microscopic preparations of Ruysch, Lieberkühn, and Albinus—purchased by Van Swieten for the university; they were committed to the keeping of Barth, and the opportunities they afforded him for studying minute anatomical structure were eagerly laid hold of, and tended in no little degree to his future advancement.

This tradition is current in Vienna:—A lady attached to the court of the empress, becoming blind, was pronounced amaurotic by the medical advice called in; her malady continuing to increase, the Baron Wenzel was sent for, and he at once declared it to be cataract, and operated on it with success. So amazed was Maria Theresa at this display of Austrian surgery, that she forthwith established a special lectureship of ophthalmology, and Barth was the first that filled this chair in 1773; and in 1776 he was appointed oculist to Joseph II. He was a most expert extractor, and there are still living several who have witnessed his operations—the invention and use of Beer's knife (that now so generally adopted) is in a great measure due to him, for although his was longer in the blade, and somewhat broader towards the handle, yet it was upon an enlarged scale the same. The objections urged against it, of pricking the nose from the great length of its point, and not cutting itself out (as it is termed) with facility, is now obviated in that introduced by his pupil, Beer. His mode of operating was

remarkable ; he did not require an assistant, (and was, perhaps, the first oculist who did not,) but placing the patient standing in the corner of the room near a window, he opened the lids, and fixed the eye with one hand, he passed his knife through the cornea with the other, as is now so dexterously performed by Mr. Alexander, but different from that very distinguished oculist, he stood before his patient. It is needless to add that he was ambidexter.* He died in 1818 ; his portrait bespeaks him a man of noble and prepossessing appearance, and his *ad captandum*, but engaging manner and address, added to his acknowledged talents, procured him many admirers.

Cotemporaneously with him, lived Joseph Mohrenheim in Vienna, who though not a teacher was much consulted on eye diseases, as well as midwifery and general surgery. The peculiarity of his ophthalmic practice consisted in the use of a hook in the operation of extraction, with which, when the capsule could not with facility be opened, he is said to have drawn out the lens.†

* Barth wrote likewise upon anatomy, and published sixty-one plates of the muscles, in Vienna, in 1786. His operations are to be found in Ehrlich's *chirurg. Beobachtungen*, Th. 1, s. 34, and the *Salzburger med. Zeitung*, Jahr, 1797, B. 2, s. 33. The first of these was published at Leipzig, in 1795. He also wrote a small treatise on cataract (*Abhandlung über die Ausziehung des grauen Staars*), in 1797. It is strange that none of the writings of Barth are enumerated in Engelman's Catalogue.

† This operation will be found described in "*Mohrenheim Beobachtungen verschiedener chirurg. Vorfälle*," Bd. 1, 2, 1780 and 1783.

About the same time, Franz Siegerist invented and published in Vienna, a description of his extraction knife, the peculiarity of which consisted in its great length and the fineness of its point, which resembled a needle, and projected far beyond the cutting portion of the instrument. With this needle-pointed instrument he opened the capsule in passing through the anterior chamber—an operation afterwards attempted by Sir W. Adams in this city. The advantages he ascribed to his invention were, that in addition to that just related, he was enabled to see the pupil and the greater portion of the iris when the point of his instrument had made the inner or counter punctation; and it fixed the eye for the subsequent incision of the cornea, by its broader and hinder part. This, however, besides being liable to all the disadvantages of the over-lengthy knife of Barth, could seldom avoid pricking the side of the nose, unless the globe was turned outwards (by depressing the handle towards the temporal fossa) more than is natural; yet it had its supporters in its day. It is described at length by Jüngken in his *Augenoperationen*.*

Barth had four highly distinguished pupils, Beer, Prochaska, Schmidt, and Santerelli; the former of whom, the father of modern ophthalmology, was the founder of this clinique, and was the first special professor of diseases of the eye.

George Prochaska, the celebrated anatomist, though he neither wrote nor lectured on the organs of vision, practised much in private, as an oculist, in Vienna.

* Siegerst's Beschreibung des Staarmessers und Gegenhalters. Wien. 1783.

From the time of Barth to the beginning of this century, Joseph Adam Schmidt, professor of surgery in the Josephinum Military Academy, did much to advance oculistic surgery in Germany. He delivered a course of lectures, and publicly performed operations on the eye, as the chief part of his course. Among his writings, are several admirable publications on iritis, the operations for cataract, and diseases of the lachrymal organs, published from 1794 to 1812; and in connection with Himley, he edited and published the *Ophthalmologische Bibliothek*. Since his death, his professorship has become a special one for ophthalmology, and has been occupied by the talented and distinguished Jäger.

To Jacob Santerelli is undoubtedly due the first performance of extraction through the upper section of the cornea. Dr. Mackenzie says, that when he was a pupil at Vienna, in 1817, "it was usual to attribute the invention of the upper section to Santerelli, and to swear *in verba magistri*, that it was a bad operation." It has been frequently claimed by others, but, we believe, unjustly. Dr. Mackenzie continues, "Santerelli was the first, (Delle Cateratte, p. 79, Forli. 1811,) as far as I know, who actually made the section not semilaterally, as Wenzel had done, but at the upper edge of the Cornea. This he did at Berlin, in 1795."* The method of Santerelli was to operate standing behind the patient, who was seated beneath him, similar to that of Mr. Alexander. He opened the cornea, by inserting a knife

* "Mackenzie on the Diseases of the Eye."

shaped like a broad-shouldered lancet, into the anterior chamber, through its superior half, acting in this manner like a wedge, and not giving the clean incision made by dividing it from side to side. Dr. Mackenzie doubts, (and it appears to us with great justice,) whether he could, in this way, divide more than a quarter, or at most, a third of the circle of the cornea. The latter of these authors, adds, that he latterly abandoned this method, and made the downward incision. His work was first published at Vienna in 1795.*

George Joseph Beer, was for many years the assistant to Barth. He published his first essay in 1791, and acquired high renown as a writer, an operator, and an instructor. He commenced as a private teacher on the eye in the year 1798, and from thence to 1815 he was, with the unanimous consent of the profession, allowed to be the most esteemed writer of his day; indeed, he may be said to have been the founder of the present improved practice of ophthalmic surgery, both in Europe and America. He was the first systematic arranger of eye diseases; and had his larger works been translated into our language, they would have robbed many a scribbler and so-called oculist of his borrowed plumes. Beer was a man whose observant eye, superior talents, and high literary and scientific attainments would have raised him to eminence in any walk of life. He was a good anatomist, both human and comparative; and his

* Santerelli ricerche per facilitare il cateterismo e l'estrazione della Cataratta. —Vienn. 1795. It is not noticed in Engelman.

preparations of the eye, made for demonstration, have been often detailed to me by his pupils, as some of the most beautiful specimens of recent anatomy they had ever witnessed. It was, and still is, this superior education, this general, high scientific character of the German professors of ophthalmology, that first rescued that important art from the hands of the itinerant quacks and uninstructed empirics, styled oculists, of the last century. "Thus," says a distinguished author, when writing on this subject, "it is necessary accurately to distinguish those practitioners who have of late years applied themselves in Germany to the diseases of the eye, from the class who are termed oculists, whether of that or any other country. The latter would wish to divide surgery into a number of trades, of which they would monopolize one. The former have not confined themselves to the eye; but all of them have come prepared to the study of that organ, by an intimate acquaintance with medical science in general, and many of them have distinguished themselves by their labours in anatomy, and their improvements in the practice of surgery." Of such men (added to those already enumerated) were Richter, Himley, Elbe, Rust, Benedict, Quadri, Gräfe, Plenk, Buckhorn, Reisinger, &c.; while the names of Jäger, Rosas, Jüngken, Fischer, Ammon, Walther, Langenbeck, Chilius, Weller, Peringer, and others of the present school, ably retain the character earned by their predecessors.

The writings and discoveries of Beer are too well known to require comment or enumeration here. From a small but interesting pamphlet of his, published in 1813,

(*Die Geschichte der Augenheilkunde*,) we are first informed of the erection of the ophthalmic clinique in Vienna. In it, he says, that after fourteen years' private instruction in his art, he laid the design of forming a special clinique for this purpose before the emperor. This design was approved of, and a portion of the Imperial Hospital set apart for treating and teaching eye diseases, "so that," he writes, "I actually ascended the clinical pulpit on the 28th of April, 1812, as extraordinary professor of diseases of the eye to the high school of this place." Being then but extraordinary professor, the students of the university were not compelled to attend his lectures; but men from every part of Europe soon flocked round the great teacher, to profit by his instructions, and take advantage of the many opportunities his position afforded.* In 1815, the extraordinary was converted into an ordinary professorship of practical ophthalmology, attendance on which then became a compulsory part of medical education, and a paid assistant, who resided in the hospital, was attached to the clinique.

Among the many pupils of Beer, five in particular, distinguished themselves, Jäger, Rosas, Benedict, Brin-golf, and Dr. Fischer the venerable professor of ophthalmology, at Prague. Beer was succeeded in the chair of ophthalmic surgery, by the present professor, Dr. Anton Edlen von Rosas, a Hungarian physician, who holds his clinique from ten to twelve o'clock daily. This clinique is situated in the second story of the left-

* Wardrop and Mackenzie were both pupils of Beer.

hand corner of the third square, near the Pathological museum. It consists of a male and female ward, with twenty beds, most admirably fitted up for the comfort of persons labouring under diseases of the eyes; the beds, constructed on the principle of those for fractures, and made to raise in the upper half, are furnished with curtains, the walls and fixtures painted green, and the windows so arranged as to modify the light. To prevent the chance of contagion from the indiscriminate use of the sponges and napkins, or the vessels, each ward is supplied with a small cistern, placed against the wall, about five feet from the ground, with a siphon-shaped tube attached; on turning the cock of this, a *jet* of luke-warm water plays to the height of about eight inches. To this each patient who requires ablution applies his eyes, and thus, without the fear of infection, syringes the organs in the most gentle and agreeable manner. It is an apparatus that the eye wards of every hospital should be supplied with.

The annual average number of patients treated in this department is about one hundred and fifty, all interesting cases chosen by the professor's assistant from the general wards of the hospital; and attached to it is an *Ambulatorium*, which affords relief to above one thousand persons in each year. United with these wards is a spacious and well-arranged *Auditorium*, or lecture and operating-room, at one extremity of which there is a raised platform railed off, for operating and examining patients; it is, however, at present rather too small for

the accommodation of the vast number of students who crowd this clinique.*

In this theatre stands a bust of the Emperor Francis I., "*Patris Patriæ*," under whose auspices and those of Andreas von Stifft—the former Protomedicus—it was erected in 1816; and around the walls are portraits of Barth, Prochaska, Rust, T. Sömmerring, Richter, Adam Schmidt, Fischer, Quadri of Bologna, Philip von Walther of Munich, Gräfe, Jüngken, Von Ammon, and our distinguished countryman Dr. Mackenzie. Attached to this clinique is a very valuable and extensive library, chiefly composed of works upon the eye, in different languages, from which books are lent out to the student or visitor weekly, on the payment of a very trifling subscription; there is also a small collection of pathological specimens of the human eye in spirits, many of which are from the hands of Beer. One of the greatest objects of attraction to the foreign visitor in this school, is the magnificent collection of wax-preparations of the morbid eye, and the armentarium chirurgicum of eye-instruments from the earliest period to the present date, both beautifully arranged and in admirable keeping.

The former are the handiwork of a native artist, who has long devoted himself to the pathological as well as the artistic branch of his profession, and a visit to whose studio I would recommend to all engaged in the study of affections of the eye; as far as

* I consider the plan of the operating theatre in the London ophthalmic hospital, at Moorfields, the best I have yet witnessed, and I only regret that there is not more occasion to enlarge it.

my experience and observation extends, this is the finest collection of its kind in Europe.

The business of this clinique is conducted on much the same principle as the other departments ; perhaps it may be a little more methodical. The professor, the patient, and the *Ordinarius*, or attending pupil, occupy the interior of the theatre ; the latter then proceeds with the examination of the case, detailing first the objective and then the subjective symptoms, the diagnosis and the therapea. Great pains are taken by Professor Rosas to instruct his pupils in the general constitutional treatment of the patients ;—an advantage which this school possesses beyond any other in Europe, except the London ophthalmic hospital in Moorefields. The treatment pursued by Dr. Rosas, in the generality of cases, is very similar to that adopted with such marked success at the latter institution, and already made known to the world by the work of my friend and preceptor Mr. Tyrrell. Under this system, the eye-disease is in so many instances regarded but as an index to the state of general constitutional derangement, and the organ itself treated as a delicate portion of the human frame, and not a mere chemical preparation, to be altered and acted on by the different salts and compounds applied to it, as is now too much the fashion in Great Britain.

Immediately before each operation, the attendant pupil reads to the class a Latin dissertation upon the case, its history, the objects of the operation, and the probable result. This, at least, is pure clinical instruction.

After the ordinary duties of the clinique in the theatre

are ended, the professor visits those patients unable to be removed from their wards, where the most valuable information may be gleaned from his observations.

Dr. Rosas delivers a course of systematic lectures on the diseases of the eye, on two days in the week, and his work, "The Handbook of the Theory and Practice of Eye-surgery,"* is one of the modern works upon that subject most generally read in Germany. Strangers are always admitted free of expense into this as well as the other public clinics of the *Krankenhaus*.

Every student intending to become a doctor of medicine or surgery, must attend the ophthalmic clinique during the first six months of his fifth year; and at his final examination, (*Zweyte Prüfung*,) his knowledge of ophthalmic surgery is strictly inquired into. Every *Civil- und- Landwundarzt* studies in this school during the second six months of his third year, and upon taking his degree he is examined upon ophthalmology by the professor of that branch.

In order, however, to perform operations on the eye, and practise this branch of medicine as a speciality, it is necessary that an additional year (after the degree has been obtained from the university) be spent in attendance upon the eye-clinique, at the end of which period some public operations, performed in the presence of the professor, are required as a test of the person's right to practise. This latter course is frequently attended by medical men who have been already in practice,

* Handbuch der theoretischen und practischen Augenheilkunde 3 Bd. 1830. Also an abridgment in 1 vol. in 1831. Vienna.

and also by foreigners. A special degree is granted for it.

The practitioners thus educated, and styled town and country oculists, *Land-und-Stadt-Augenärzte* are distributed throughout the whole of this great empire; no town of any consequence is without one; they are paid by the state, and obliged to administer medicine and advice to the poor in all cases of eye-disease, and also to furnish the board of medical direction with a monthly *Protokol*, or sanatory report of the progress of such affections among the people of their district.

Rosas is a dexterous and steady operator. In his extraction the patient is seated on a low stool, with the head placed obliquely to the light, and resting against the breast of an assistant who raises the upper lid, while the operator depresses the lower with the middle and forefingers in the usual manner. He makes the downward section, with a knife somewhat different from that of Beer, as originally used by him, and figured in his work in 1830. This knife is much shorter in the blade than Beer's; its posterior edge (or back) is also sharp and slightly convex. Holding it between the thumb, and the index and middle fingers, the ring-finger bent unto the hollow of the hand, and the little one resting on the cheek-bone, he introduces the point at a right angle with the cornea, (to prevent its catching in its layers,) a little above the transverse axis of the eye, and having entered the anterior chamber, he alters the position of the instrument by depressing its handle towards the temporal fossa, and thus brings the surface of the blade on the same plane with that of the iris. Having passed it rapidly through

the chamber and made the counter-punctuation, so that a full quarter of an inch of the point has passed through the inner margin of the cornea, he then *draws* it slowly downwards, and slightly outwards, and so completes the section. If the case is one of double cataract he makes the corneal section, and concludes the operation in the second eye before he extracts the lens of the first. He opens the capsule with a Langenbeck's needle, sharpened on its concave edge, and extracts the lens by gently pressing on the upper portion of the cornea with the flat of the needle.

The object aimed at in having the back of the knife curved is, to give it shortness as well as breadth, and thus avoid pricking the side of the nose; and its posterior sharp edge is to permit of its cutting upwards as well as downwards, and thus not only pass through the cornea with greater facility, but also enable the operator to extend the incision upwards if the original punctuation is too low. Another reason assigned by the inventor of this knife is, that its blade by being sharp at both sides, and forming in its section a compressed ellipse, permits less escape of the aqueous fluid in passing through the chamber, than the ordinary instrument.

In this manner Rosas operates with the most marked success; but in other hands, especially beginners, his method and instruments are open to many objections. The insertion of the knife at right angles with the cornea, is very liable to transfix the iris, and by twisting the cornea itself, renders its further insertion less smooth and easy; and its cutting back endangers both sclerotic

and iris, especially in turning its lower edge outward when completing the incision ;—and when the iris happens to roll over the back of the knife, it cannot be pressed off with the same facility as when the posterior part is blunt ;—should the point of the knife get entangled in the iris, he withdraws it and re-introduces it in another place ; if the corneal opening is too small he enlarges it with a Daviel's scissors.

The operations of depression and reclinacion are much more common in the Viennese school than in England. In this clinique these, as well as the operation for solution, are performed *per scleroticam*. Inartificial pupil Rosas generally adopts the methods of Beer and Langenbeck, but removes the portion of iris drawn through the wound.

Professor Rosas gives a course of private instruction in operating, which being the same as that of Jäger, will be described hereafter. Foreigners should avail themselves of it, as well as that of his assistant, Dr. Gulz, who will explain to them the collection of instruments and preparations, and procure for them a sufficiency of eyes from the dissecting-rooms of the *Krankenhaus*.

I cannot allow this opportunity to pass without recording the uniform civility and attention that I, in common with the rest of my countrymen, invariably experienced from the professors and assistants, when visiting the different cliniques of Vienna. The English student or physician, who may have been refused admittance as a *foreign visitor* into the medical clinique at Berlin, or has been rudely thrust from the door of the operating theatre of the Clinicum of that place, will find

a strong contrast to all this in Austria ; and yet, though I am compelled to make this remark from what I witnessed in the former place, as an individual, I must return the professors and medical men of that noble and scientific city my warmest thanks for their kindness, hospitality, and professional attention, and in an especial manner am I indebted to Professors Jüngken and Dieffenbach.

The foreigner wishing to witness Prussian medicine or surgery, will require an introduction, either by letter or the current coin of the realm. In Vienna, his country and his diploma are the only passports he requires to insure him admission, kindness, and attention. It is however but justice to remark, that in Berlin the professors receive fees from their pupils.

CHAPTER VIII.

THE YOUNG SCHOOL OF VIENNA, AUSCULTATION,
AND PATHOLOGICAL ANATOMY.

PRIVATE CLINIQUE OF SKODA—DISEASES OF THE CHEST—MODE OF INSTRUCTION—EXPERIMENTS AND OPINIONS OF THE PROFESSOR—CONSONANCE—STETHOSCOPIC PHENOMENON—SCHOOL OF PATHOLOGY—PATHOLOGICAL MUSEUM—ITS PREPARATIONS—PROFESSOR ROKITANSKY—HIS PRIVATE COURSE AND PECULIAR OPINIONS.

DR. SKODA'S private clinique, for diseases of the chest, is perhaps the best school for acquiring a knowledge of the diagnosis of such affections that the foreigner can visit. It is purely a stethoscopic clinique, recently established by the government, and is to be found in the vicinity of the *Gebäranstalt*. It contains two wards—male and female—with forty-two beds, solely for patients labouring under acute and chronic diseases of the chest, who are chosen from the wards of the general hospital for the purpose of instruction. These wards are in the newly-erected buildings of the *Krankenhaus*; they are remarkably clean, lofty, and, though sufficiently warm, well ventilated. As an auscultator, Dr. Skoda possesses an unrivalled reputation, and certainly his diagnosis of heart and lung affections is astonishingly correct. It is entirely in this latter branch of knowledge that this clinique is so remarkable; for the treatment pursued there has in it nothing peculiar except

that it is by no means good. It is purely antiphlogistic—consisting of blood-letting, leeching, and blistering, with the use of a few simples—such as tartarized antimony and the tinctura digitalis—administered in large doses. In pleuritic effusion he practises paracentesis much more frequently than any other physician, and does so even in acute cases; for he maintains that it must be performed early if at all, otherwise the lung having become collapsed and shrivelled up by the long-continued pressure of the fluid, will not again expand. He has also punctured the pericardium several times and with various success. I have since heard that in one of these cases to which I have already alluded at page 132, necrosis of the sternum followed, and a medullary sarcomatous tumour spouted from the mediastinum. In acute rheumatism he employs the constant application of iced water to the inflamed extremities, even where there is severe pericarditis present. The hour of visit is from four to half-past five o'clock in the afternoon, and the system of instruction precisely similar to that pursued in the public clinics—each patient being under the care of an *Ordinarius*, who is required to detail the stethoscopic signs, and those elicited by percussion, &c. daily. The course lasts from two to three months, and is then repeated to another class: it costs thirty florins, or three pounds. The students who attend it are chiefly foreigners, and generally amount to about twenty-four.*

* There are but six pupils in each of Dr. Skoda's four classes. Two of these classes attend in the forenoon, and two in the afternoon, three times a week.

Skoda takes great pains with his pupils, and besides the clinical instruction delivers several lectures during his course, upon the pathology of the circulating and respiratory organs, from the cases that have died in these wards: indeed he is the only practical teacher in Vienna who pays attention to this subject. The department of practical medicine and surgery, and of pathological anatomy, being in all the other cliniques perfectly distinct. The students attending the former never hear more of the cases that may have died under their observation till the professor of the latter branch alludes to them several months after, when their peculiarities must have totally escaped their memories.

In these lectures Dr. Skoda also performs many curious physical experiments, to explain the different sounds of the chest, both normal and diseased;—these, as well as the peculiarity of his opinions, will be found in his work, "*Abhandlung über Percussion und Auscultation.*"*

My fellow-students in Vienna, Drs. Drysdale and Russell, having published a most accurate analytical account of his researches in their work already alluded to, and in "The Edinburgh Medical and Surgical Jour-

* It is remarkable that Dr. Skoda, in common with the other physicians and teachers of this great hospital, has very little private practice in Vienna; and the most eminent practitioners in that city are quite unconnected with hospitals. Dr. Skoda was originally one of the physicians to the general wards of the hospital, and his celebrity as a stethoscopist procured him this special clinique.

nal," it only remains briefly to mention a few of the most remarkable of them.

Consonance is a term adopted by Dr. Skoda to express a well-known phenomenon; and it may be here properly explained.

"A tense guitar string sounds in unison with a note produced in its vicinity, either by another musical instrument or by the voice. A tuning-fork held in the air emits a much weaker sound than when placed upon a table or chest. The table or chest must increase the intensity of the sound, by assuming the same vibrations as the tuning-fork, or, in other words, by consonating with it. The note of a Jew's harp is scarcely perceptible when it is struck in the air, and it is heard much more distinctly when played in the mouth. Thus the air in the mouth must increase the sound of the Jew's harp, *i. e.* must consonate with it.

"It sometimes happens that the voice is heard more strongly at the thorax than at the larynx, which in itself is sufficient to show that its strength is increased by means of consonance within the chest. The different degrees of the intensity of the voice heard at the thorax, may be explained by the different strength of the consonance within the chest. To ascertain these changes we must discover what it is within the chest that consonates with the voice, and by what circumstances the consonance is liable to be altered.

"The voice, as it issues from the mouth, is composed of the sound formed at the larynx and the consonating sounds produced in the pharynx, mouth, and nasal cavities. This is shown by the alteration the voice

undergoes by the shutting and opening of the nostrils and mouth, while there is no change made in the larynx. The pitch of the voice is evidently fixed by the larynx alone, and the opening and shutting of the nostrils and mouth has no influence upon it; the articulation of the voice, however, and its timbre, depend upon the mouth and nostrils.

“As it is certain that the air in the pharynx, mouth, and nostrils consonates with the sound formed in the larynx, there can be no doubt that the air in the trachea and bronchiæ may also be thrown into consonant vibrations with the sounds formed at the larynx. Hence it is the air in the chest, and not the parenchyma of the lungs, which consonates with the voice at the larynx, as the latter seems ill adapted for consonating—being neither stiff nor sufficiently tense. Those substances, such as air, tense strings, membranes, slips of wood, and thin plates, in which a musical sound is most readily produced, are most easily thrown into consonants of vibrations.

“Air can consonate only when confined within a circumscribed space. In the open air the human voice and every other sound is heard more feebly than in a room. The air confined within the box of a guitar, violin, piano, &c. consonates with the note struck on the strings, while the sound is not increased by the consonance of the external air. The strength of the consonance depends upon the size and form of the space in which the air is confined, and upon the properties of the walls which bound the space. It appears that the consonating sound of the enclosed air will be the

stronger, the more perfectly the walls reflect the sounds which spread through the air. A space surrounded by solid walls produces the greatest consonance, while in a linen tent the sound is but little increased. The cause of the strengthening of sounds by the speaking-trumpet is well known.

“The air enclosed in a defined space does not consonate with every sound; and should it consonate with several different notes or sounds, it does not reproduce them all with the same degree of strength and clearness. No body can sound in consonance with another, unless it is itself capable of producing the same note, or one whose vibrations form an aliquot part of the note.—*Baumgartner's Physik, 4te Ausgabe, Bd. 1. p. 276.*

“The deductions drawn from the physical principles just referred to, may be used in explaining the consonance of the voice in the chest. The air in the trachea and bronchiæ can consonate with the voice in as far as their walls resemble the walls of the larynx, mouth, and nasal cavities, in their power of reflecting sound. In the trachea, the walls of which consist of cartilage, the voice consonates almost as strongly as it sounds in the larynx. In the two branches also into which the trachea divides, the consonance must be nearly as perfect. On the entrance of the bronchiæ into the parenchyma of the lung they have no longer cartilaginous rings, but merely thin, irregular plates of cartilage interspersed in the fibrous tissue. As the bronchiæ ramify, these plates become smaller, thinner, and less numerous, and at last disappear altogether; and the finest twigs of the bronchiæ

consist merely of membranous canals. In the normal state of the parenchyma of the lung, the air in the bronchiæ consonates less strongly with the voice than that in the trachea, in proportion to the smaller number of cartilages they contain. The conditions which increase the consonance of the voice in the air contained within the branches of the bronchiæ that ramify in the parenchyma of the lung, are either that the walls of the bronchiæ have become cartilaginous, or, if still membranous, very thick, or that the surrounding tissue of the lungs has become devoid of air : in all these conditions the walls reflect the sound more strongly than the membranous walls of the normal bronchiæ ; and there must be no interruption of continuity between the air in the bronchiæ and that in the larynx. If the air in a confined space be thrown into either original or imparted autophonous vibrations, which give rise to sound, the surrounding walls not unfrequently partake of the same vibrations, and they do this the more readily the less stiff and hard they are.

“ The organ pipe vibrates when the air contained in it sounds. The same is true of the speaking-trumpet. The larynx vibrates with every sound produced in it, and its vibrations are perceptible through several inches of animal substance. The walls of the bronchiæ which ramify within the parenchyma of the lungs will, if the air within them consonate with the voice, be thrown into vibrations as readily as the larynx, and these vibrations may spread through a layer of fluid, or muscle, of several inches thick, even to the parietes of the thorax, and the sounds produced by consonance

in the bronchiæ will be perceptible at the walls of the chest.

“In order to illustrate the above explanation of the difference of resonance of the voice in the chest, Dr. Skoda performed a considerable number of experiments, a few of which are the following:—

“As after death, the bronchiæ are almost constantly found filled with fluid, the lungs themselves are rendered unfit for the purpose of experimenting; we must therefore choose other tissues, whose powers of reflecting sound resemble severally that of the healthy and hepatised lungs.

“In this respect, a portion of the small intestine represents pretty well the more membranous parts of the bronchiæ, and a portion of the heart and liver, the hepatised lung. If a person speak through a stethoscope placed on one end of a moderately inflated small intestine, consonant vibrations of the voice, in the air within the intestine, may be heard by another person listening through a stethoscope placed on the other end of the intestine. If a layer of a solid or fluid substance be interposed between the mouth of the stethoscope and the intestine, as, for example, a piece of liver, or of intestine filled with water, the sound is heard very indistinctly, and not at all, if the thickness of the interposed substance reaches half an inch.

“If a passage be bored in the liver, so as not completely to pierce it through, and this be spoken into by means of a stethoscope, accurately fitted into the entrance of it, the voice may be heard along the whole length of the passage, and for a considerable distance on

each side, through a stethoscope placed over it, so strong, that it by far exceeds in intensity the voice proceeding from the mouth of the speaker, which is heard by the free air. The voice can still be heard, even when a layer of liver, lung, cartilage, or bone, several inches in thickness, is interposed, although naturally weaker and weaker, as the thickness of the interposed substance is increased. If the liver be plunged in water, it is still heard through a stratum of water two inches thick. Similar experiments may be performed with the heart, and with the larynx and bronchiæ. If a piece of intestine, prepared as in the first experiment, be plunged under water, observing the precaution that no water gets into the stethoscope, the voice is heard much louder than if the experiment be made out of the water.

“These experiments show tolerably distinctly what relation the voice in the thorax holds to the different conditions of the lung. If the voice in the intestine, when not immersed in water, consonate so feebly as to be inaudible through of a layer of lung, liver, or fluid, half an inch thick, the consonance in the membranous bronchiæ will likewise be so slight as not to be heard at the walls of the chest. But, on the other hand, as the voice in the heart and trachea, and in the passage bored in the liver, consonated so strongly as to be heard through an interposed substance several inches thick, so will the voice in the bronchiæ of a lung, hepatized or infiltrated with tuberculous matter, consonate so powerfully as to be heard louder upon auscultation at the thorax, than as it issues from the mouth.

“The consonating voice within the chest differs very

much in clearness, loudness, and timbre or quality, from the voice proceeding from the mouth, and varies in itself at different times ; but, as the cause of these differences is not well understood, and as they do not afford any diagnostic signs, it is unnecessary to enter more minutely into them here."

In fine, the distinguishing peculiarity of Skoda's doctrines is, that he considers all mere shades of difference in respiratory sounds of little or no diagnostic value, and, therefore, abolishes all the names indicating such minute distinctions. He merely takes into account those sounds which are distinct and broadly differing from others, and founds his diagnosis on the combination of different symptoms in each case. Any sound, when it cannot be brought plainly under any of the great divisions, he calls indeterminate (*unbestimmt*) and draws no conclusion from it.

His divisions of the respiratory sounds are—1, vesicular respiration ; 2, bronchial respiration ; 3, indeterminate respiratory sounds ; 4, amphoric and metallic echoes.

Division of the sounds of the voice:—1, Strong bronchophony, or the resonance of the voice, accompanied by concussion of the ear—the voice which penetrates the stethoscope completely ; 2, weak bronchophony, or that without, or with imperceptible concussion of the ear ; 3, the indistinct buzzing and absence of all sound ; 4, the amphoric echo.

His explanation of the transmission of the sounds through the chest is peculiar to himself. The common explanation of bronchophony and bronchial respiration is, that the lungs being in a denser state, conduct the

sound better. But he found by experiment that this is not the cause. He explains it by consonance—viz., that the walls of the bronchial tubes being rendered firmer by being surrounded by condensed pulmonary tissue, are enabled to reflect the sound, and thus the air in the bronchial tubes vibrates in consonance with that in the larynx.

The school of pathological anatomy being also connected with, and situate within the boundary of the *Krankenhaus*, here claims our attention. I need not now expatiate on its merits; the following description, though necessarily brief and sketchy, shows it to be at present the first in Europe:—

The pathological museum is to be found in the lower story of the last square, adjoining the eye clinique, and may be entered from the passage leading to the dead-house and dissecting-room. It was commenced many years ago under the direction of Stifft, and was committed to the care of a prosector. Subsequently, a professorship of pathological anatomy was established, and from the time that the present occupant of that chair, Dr. Carl Rokitansky, was elected, may be dated the origin of its celebrity, and the rise of the young school of Viennese medicine. This splendid collection of morbid anatomy, undoubtedly the most interesting and extensive in the world, contained at the period of my visit five thousand three hundred and eighty-four preparations, some dry, and others preserved in spirits.* The room in which they are placed is now, however, much too small, and in many respects ill-adapted for them, and their arrange-

* It has been increased from six hundred to this number since 1817.

ment is neither showy, elegant, nor judicious. This museum is particularly rich in specimens of diseased bones. There are thirty-seven examples of deformed pelves, well worthy the attentive examination of the accoucheur;—some of these have been already made known to the world by the labours of Professor Nägele, of Heidelberg. There are four hundred crania, three hundred of which are the skulls of persons who had been affected with different descriptions of mental derangement, and died in the adjoining lunatic asylum; these will amply repay the examination of the phrenologist, and all those engaged in the study of mental diseases, as well as the craniologist, who will find in them examples of all the peculiarities of head to be found among the various natives of the Austrian empire. Each of these skulls contains within it a brief history of the cause and peculiarity of the mania with which the individual was affected. Among the collection of heads, are several marked with syphilitic caries; these are all of a very old date, and no new ones have been received for many years; a strong proof of the declining virulence of this disease. Here the visitor will be shown many specimens of *Osteophite*, a thin lamina of bony matter, which becomes deposited on the surface of the skull, particularly in pregnant or parturient women; its most frequent seat is on the interior of the parietal bones, or on the bones of the face. So certain are the pathologists of this school of its being a test of pregnancy, that I have frequently seen them pronounce with accuracy on the condition of the womb, merely by removing the calvarium. There is also a numerous assemblage of

diseased spines, and some curious rachitic skeletons; and also a normal skeleton, seven feet high. The collection of diseased hearts and blood vessels is very extensive, and the mode of preserving them in a dry state is worthy of attention. In the same compartment are several examples of aneurism of the tricuspid valves; five splendid specimens of osteocartilaginous deposit within the uterus;—two of these are perhaps the largest and most remarkable in existence; and also some dry preparations of the cists of ovarian dropsy, will require the special notice of the pathologist. The collection of monstrosities is curious and extensive; among them are some acephalous foetuses, with the spinal canal open posteriorly, in which there is also one half of a dorsal vertebra supernumerary. I mention this rarity, because there is also in the same museum an adult skeleton, with a similar addition between the last lumbar and first sacral vertebræ, which, as might be anticipated, produced lateral curvature.

The specimens of diseased intestines, particularly those exhibiting tubercular deposits, ulcers, and perforations, the result of the typhus abdominalis of that country, as already spoken of at page 133, are very valuable.*

* Some of the best preserved specimens of diseased intestines that I have seen, were those preserved by spreading the preparations out on plates of glass, drying them quickly, and varnishing them as soon as dry, by my friend Professor Hasse, at Leipzig.—See his valuable work, *Specielle pathologische Anatomie*. Leipzig: 1841.

One of the greatest curiosities in this museum is the entire body of a child, aged about five years, who was affected with scaly lepra, in some parts resembling elephantiasis. This is from the hands of the celebrated anatomist Prochaska: it is preserved in a standing posture, and is the very best instance of modern embalment I have ever seen; the features are very little altered, and the flesh remains as plump and natural as life. It is far superior to those in the Hunterian museum in the London College of Surgeons, and its mode of preparation is now quite unknown. It is much to be regretted that as yet no catalogue exists of this valuable collection; one is, however, in process of completion by the professor and his assistant Dr. Engel. The bodies of *all* who die within the walls of the *Allgemeine Krankenhaus* are removed for examination to the dead-house and dissecting-rooms, (*Todtenhaus* and *Sectionskammer*,) which are situated in the open court behind the museum.

The method of teaching pathological anatomy is conducted on much the same principle as that of the clinical instruction, and the school is chiefly frequented by foreign medical men. From eight to ten o'clock every morning, the professor and his two assistants attend in the dead-house, and carefully examine the majority of those bodies that have died of any particular or interesting disease; for to examine all, or one half, would be impossible within the time: generally from four to six bodies are opened daily, and a short notice of the symptoms, diagnosis, and treatment, &c., is sent with each cadaver. The profes-

sor, or one of his assistants, demonstrates the morbid appearances to the class, while the other, (the junior,) who sits at the rostrum, transfers his observations to the records of the museum. Any lesions of organs, or diseased appearances that may then present, are removed for preparation. This course, which lasts the entire year, is public to all who desire to visit it: it is, however, as I have already stated, chiefly frequented by foreigners and the practitioners resident in the hospital; for the students of the university are generally engaged at the practical clinics at this hour.

Professor Rokitansky delivers a public course of lectures upon pathological anatomy in the museum three times a week, on Mondays, Wednesdays, and Fridays, from three to four in the afternoon. This professorship being as yet but an extraordinary one, and attendance upon this course not being *absolutely* required by the university, few Austrian students, as might be expected, are to be found at these lectures. The professor's delivery is by no means good, and his language difficult, for those who are not natives of Germany, to understand. Till within the last year or two, the very name of this distinguished pathologist was unknown in this country: his early writings consisted, for the most part, of scattered papers and monographs, published in the "*Wiener medicinische Jahrbücher*;" he has now, however, produced a work that must acquire for him European celebrity, the "*Handbuch der pathologischen Anatomie*."*

* Wien, 1841,—the third volume appeared first.

Rokitansky resides in the detached building of the first great square, and his private microscopic preparations are well worth visiting; his salary is paid by the government, independent of the sums received from his private pupils, which must now be considerable.

There are two paid pathological assistants; the situation is obtained by *concours*, and lasts for eight years. The present assistants are Drs. Dlahy and Engel; and the late assistant Dr. Kolletschka, now the physician to the Jewish hospital, is also a pathologist of undisputed merits and acquirements.

It is Rokitansky's *private course* that more particularly demands the foreigner's attention. In this he has several classes during the day, and from eight to twelve persons in each class; those attending this course are daily required in their turn to perform an autopsy in the dead-house—to describe the morbid and healthy appearances they meet with in each cavity or tissue—and answer the questions of the professor on the subject, as in the clinical wards of the hospital.

The class having been thus grounded in the principles of the science, and their eyes made familiar with diseased structures for a month or five weeks, they are then conducted to the museum, where the professor explains the preparations systematically, and offers some observations upon the theory of pathology, as well as a *resumé* of his own peculiar views, and finally exhibits to his pupils his microscopic collection.

The whole course lasts about six weeks, of which from eight to ten days are employed in the museum; the time occupied is an hour a day, and the cost is thirty

florins, or three pounds. The senior assistant also gives a private course, which I would advise the visitor likewise to attend, as besides the instruction he receives, it affords him an opportunity of examining as many bodies as he wishes.

Different from all other pathologists, Rokitansky does not engage in the study or treatment of disease during life—he is not a practical physician, and seldom sees one of the many hundreds of cases whose bodies he dissects. This has been loudly exclaimed against by many, who say that here morbid anatomy has completely usurped the place of pathology;—but though it presents an anomaly peculiar to this school, it undoubtedly possesses many advantages.

We all know how difficult it is to dispossess the mind of any previously-conceived and long-cherished idea, by which we either treat, or explain the phenomenon of disease. We have all witnessed how frequently men generalize from a few particular cases, and how easily they find the morbid appearances to agree with the previous diagnosis, and if they do not find such, they fancy that they do. This has arisen from the physician who treats the case—the pathologist and the morbid anatomist being one and the same person: and the school of Vienna, previous to the present mode of examining diseased structures, offered a well-marked example of this defect. The *Protocols* of the different medical sections teemed with numbers of cases whose *post-mortem* appearances fully corroborated their previous diagnoses, and yet but little advance was made in pathological science in those times. Furthermore, although I do

not believe the diseases have altered, yet we now find pathological appearances quite different from what they were said to be prior to the introduction of Rokitansky's method. He first emancipated himself and his school from this fault, and now teaches general pathology and morbid anatomy (unconnected with, and unobstructed by, either diagnosis or theory) solely from the changes observable after death, and the solid grounds of observation and experience.

This school comes nearer to the principle aimed at by the immortal Laennec than any other since his day, and in many respects it surpasses the original. Discarding all presumptive hypotheses, it is characterized by a tendency to take objective and natural-historical views of the organic and structural changes accompanying disease; and also, as far as possible to discover the peculiar morbid products which distinguish certain morbid states: thus it is purely inductive, and when it admits of speculation, it is merely as to the *mode of origin* of these changes. As an example of the tendency of this school, as well as of the professor's style and mode of analysis, I may again refer to the observations upon typhus, at page 133.

As a writer, Rokitansky is much and justly admired; his language, ever forcible and explicit, expresses his meaning with all the clearness and perspicuity of which the German tongue is capable. He may now be regarded as the head and leader of the young school of Vienna, which the talent and labours of Skoda, Helm, and a few others have so ably contributed to create.

CHAPTER IX.

ON SYPHILIS.

THE SYPHILITIC WARDS—THEIR STATISTICS—DESCRIPTION OF THE DISEASE IN AUSTRIA—ITS PECULIARITIES—CONDYLOMA—THE FEMALE WARDS—TREATMENT—THE NON-MERCURIAL PLAN—SCHARLIEVO—ITS HISTORY AND WRITERS.

EXCEPT the cliniques, those wards most worthy of notice are the syphilitic, "*Die syphilitische Abtheilung*;" containing three hundred and fifty beds—two hundred for males, and one hundred and fifty for females. An examination of the accompanying table will enable the reader to perceive at a glance the character and variety of the disease most frequently encountered in Austria; it also shows that there venereal affections are of a much milder nature than in Great Britain, and that cases are treated in hospital that would never have demanded admittance, nor have been received into hospital in this country. Many of the sores upon the genitals that I saw, in the male wards particularly, were not venereal. The fact, however, of the mild and primary cases being received, and in the instance of females being compelled to go into hospital, together with the sanitary police regulations, to be spoken of hereafter—with regard to this and other infectious disorders, the peculiarity of the climate, the temperate habits of the people, the non-use of mercury, and the non-existence

of unqualified practitioners to attempt its treatment, serve no doubt to modify the disease to a considerable extent.

Report of Cases treated in the Syphilitic Division of the General Hospital at Vienna, in the year 1839-40.

DISEASE.	MALES.							FEMALES.							General Total.		
	Admitted.	Cured.	Uncured.	Improved.	Transferred.	Died.	Remaining.	Total Males.	Admitted.	Cured.	Uncured.	Improved.	Transferred.	Died.		Remaining.	Total Females.
Chancre.....	186	161	..	..	8	..	17	186	138	91	..	..	15	..	32	138	324
Condyloma.....	111	98	..	..	2	..	11	111	383	288	5	..	36	..	54	383	494
Bubo.....	211	166	2	..	11	2	30	211	69	47	..	..	4	3	15	69	280
Gonorrhœa.....	267	247	..	..	7	..	13	267	159	115	3	..	21	..	20	159	426
Abscessus Labii	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	11	6	..	..	..	..	5	11	11
Hernia Humoralis	94	91	..	..	1	..	2	94	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	94
Testes Syphiliticæ	3	2	..	..	1	..	..	3	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	3
Phymosis & Pa- raphymosis.. }	135	125	..	2	4	..	4	135	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	135
Angina Ulcerosa..	21	20	..	..	1	..	..	21	16	11	..	..	2	1	2	16	37
Eruptiones.....	5	3	..	..	2	..	..	5	36	25	..	..	5	..	6	36	41
Genl. Secondary Syphilis..... }	20	9	..	..	1	1	9	20	10	2	1	..	4	..	3	10	30
Caries.....	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	..	..	..	1	..	..	1	1
Serofula with Syphilis..... }	5	..	..	..	5	..	..	5	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	5
Total,	1058	922	2	2	43	3	86	1058	823	585	9	..	88	4	137	823	1881

In the primary sores the difference between the disease in Austria and with us is very striking: true chancre is very rarely seen,* and phagedenic and sloughing ulcers of the genitals are comparatively unknown. It is however among the secondary forms of syphilis that the stranger, particularly if an Irish-

* I was once taken to the military hospital to see a true Hunterian chancre. That pointed out to me as such was merely an aphthous sore.

man, perceives the most decided difference. Affections of the throat and papular eruptions are the most common, but syphilitic rheumatism and nocturnal pains are rare and less severe than in this country. Rupia, nodes, caries, the pustular form of eruption, the spreading syphilitic sore, diseases of the bones and testes, &c. and other severe secondary and tertiary forms are very seldom seen; indeed rupia was, I found, only known from English descriptions of it, and during six months I did not see a single case of syphilitic iritis.

Among the primary affections I was most struck with the prevalence of condylomata (*Feigwarzen*); and this form of the disease is considered by the medical men attached to this department, and indeed it is now a doctrine of very general acceptance throughout Germany, to be a primary affection, and that it may, and in numerous instances does, appear as the only symptom. In the majority of the cases in the female wards of this hospital vaginal discharge was also present, but it is not, as in this country, generally believed to be an attendant on gonorrhœal or leucorrhœal discharge—the effect of neglect, uncleanness, or friction, as between the nates, &c. That this is not the case in Vienna I am convinced; for I have seen it appear in persons and on parts where none of these circumstances were present, in the form of a minute *vesicle*, which burst, and the surface thus slightly denuded of its epithelium, threw out these excrescences.* It is believed to be very rarely followed

* In confirmation of the primary and truly syphilitic nature of condyloma, I may mention that subsequently I was shown

by secondary symptoms ; but I consider that there is in Austria a peculiar form of it, more particularly resembling button scurvy (*morula*), and appearing most frequently on the scrotum and around the margin of the anus, that only shows itself after the healing of the primary disease—the *Tubercules muqueuses* of the French ; and this appearance is to be observed most frequently in women. In the males it occurs in the form of small warts on the glands penis itself. The raised chancre is one of the most common forms of primary ulcer, and condylomatous growths spring from any exposed or ulcerated surface. Thus, while with us a venereal sore will frequently cause a great loss of parts, in Germany it throws out an exuberant growth.

In the female wards the patients average from twenty-seven to forty years of age, and are of the very lowest class of society ; it seemed to me a great defect that the married women were not separated from the others ; all, however, appeared well-behaved, and under great moral restraint, though each of the three wards they occupied contained as many as fifty beds.

cases in the Venereal Hospital at Berlin, in which all the morbid growth being cut off in its early stage, the exposed surface assumed all the characters of a purely syphilitic ulcer. In this hospital I observed nearly the same kind of disease, but perhaps of not so mild a nature as in Austria ; there was, however, more condylomata, especially in females, and less gonorrhœa. The treatment is there also non-mercurial ; and there appeared very few cases of secondary disease. The nitrate of silver is used somewhat more extensively ; but altogether the venereal wards of the *Charité* are conducted on much the same principles as those of the Viennese *Krankenhaus*.

The visit to these wards is made from half-past seven to half-past eight o'clock daily, and on Saturday at three o'clock all the females are inspected; for this purpose there is a table of a peculiar construction placed opposite a direct light; this the patients, to the number of one hundred and fifty and upwards, ascend in turn, and are placed as for the lateral operation of lithotomy; and the vagina and os uteri are then fully examined with a plain cylindrical speculum. I frequently observed ulcerations and chancres on the very lips of the uterus; and in a large majority of the cases in these wards a uterine discharge was present. This can be easily distinguished from the vaginal discharge of gonorrhœa by its peculiar ropy mucous nature, and can be always seen proceeding from the os uteri after the vaginal discharge has been thoroughly cleansed out. Dr. Giegl, the assistant physician of this department, agrees with me that it is not of itself infectious, and I believe it will be found to exist in most public women. The vagina is then injected with plain tepid water, the ulcers and condylomata, if such are present, touched with the *Aqua Phagedenica*,* or a weak solution of the nitrate of silver, and a small pledget of charpie, wet with some light astringent wash, thrown up the vagina to the mouth of the uterus, and allowed to remain till next day when it is renewed.

In the foregoing table, the term "general secondary

* The Austrian Pharmacopœia has two preparations denominated Aq. Phagadenica; one calomel, the other oxymuriate of mercury and lime-water—the black and yellow washes of this country; the latter is that most frequently used.

sypilis," *Allgemeine Lustseuche*, applies only to cases where eruptions, nodes, or pains in the joints are present. Of the three cases of bubo that died in the female wards two were from gangrene, and one from peritonitis. In females, leucorrhœa is applied indiscriminately with gonorrhœa to all the vaginal discharges. In the male there are two terms used to indicate urethral discharge: *Tripper*, or true gonorrhœa virulenta; and *Balanitis*, which means a slight discharge from both the urethra and corona glandis, attended by very little inflammation.

The treatment in all primary cases is purely antiphlogistic, and non-mercurial, and consists in confinement to bed, low diet, baths, diaphoretics, purging, local fomentations, and mild astringent lotions. In gonorrhœa the spirit of turpentine, in frequent doses, is much used, I believe on account of its cheapness; but injections are never permitted, nor are they made use of in private practice, and strictures are so exceedingly rare, that I did not see one instance of such during the whole time I was in Vienna. In the severer forms of secondary venereal, mercury is given in very minute doses, in the form of the *Decoctum Zitmannii*, made by boiling a drachm of calomel, sewed up in a little linen bag, in four quarts of the decoction of sarsaparilla (if there is any mercury in this odd compound when filtered, it can only be looked upon as homœopathic); or the *Decoct. Sarsaparillæ cum Hydriod. Potass* is used, but "*blue pill and rubbings*" are unknown; solutions of the nitrate of silver are used to facilitate the healing of indolent chancres and condylomata.

Innocation with syphilitic virus, as practised by M. Ricord, in the Hôpital des Vénériens in Paris, is not permitted in Vienna. I find, both upon inquiry from the heads of the Lying-in Hospital, and from the statistics, of 26,149 births among the lower orders, now in my possession, that infantile syphilis is exceedingly rare; and Dr. Helm informs me, that abortions from that disease are hardly known. Of affections of the nose, &c. I saw none, and but one instance of caries occurred in 2151 cases.

Doctors Meyer and Giegl, the attending physicians of the male and female venereal wards, in their last report to the general Hospital Direction, state that at present the disease has become so modified, that not more than one in nineteen cases have secondary syphilis; and it is generally acknowledged by the medical men of Vienna, that of late years the disease has become far less fatal than formerly. That it did exist in a very aggravated form, we need no further confirmation than the number of crania in the pathological museum, exhibiting the worst and most extensive forms of syphilitic caries; and the disease called Scharlievo or Radesyge, that committed such fearful ravages half a century ago, more especially in Scandinavia, and of which we read so many extraordinary accounts in Holst, Hünefeld, Tenniker, Michabelles, and others, was a venereal affection.*

* This extraordinary affection, which appears to be a mixture of syphilis, scrofula, and yaws, or sibbens, and is known under the provincial names of Radesyge in Austria and Scandinavia, and Scharlievo or Scerliev in Italy, has not appeared in this

Mr. Carmichael, who in the last edition of his admirable work upon *Venereal Diseases*, has printed some of

country. Much obscurity prevails among the writers upon it:—Francis Bene, in his *Elements of Practical Medicine*, published at Pesth in 1834, vol. iv. page 53, when speaking of the complications of syphilis says, that in the towns of Istria and Spezzia in Italy, this syphilitic disease exists to a great extent, and manifests itself in the early stage by fistulas, abscesses, and different skin excrescences which break out all over the body; it is also sometimes complicated with itch, but is most frequently unattended by any other affection, and this writer considers it to be a distinct specific disease.

Michabelles has likewise described it—"Das Malo di'Scarlievo in historischer und pathologischer Hinsicht beschrieben." Nürnberg, 1833.

Tenniker has given an historical account of it in the fifth volume of the *Austrian medicinische Jahrbücher*, nos. 3 and 4, as it appeared in the district of Fieume.

The curious reader may also consult Arboe—*Drei Abhandlungen von den Kennzeichen, Ursachen und der Heilmethode der Radesyge*. Altona, 1799.

F. L. Hünefeld—*Die Radesyge oder das scandinavische Syphiloïd aus scandinavischen Quellen dargestellt*. Leipzig, 1828.

"Callisen, in his *Systema Chirurgiæ*, terms it *Lepra Septentrionalis*, and says that it extends from Norway and Sweden to the shores of Iceland, the Feroe Islands, and some provinces of Scotland, where most probably it constitutes the malady termed *Sivvens*, of which I myself have seen many instances in Glasgow and the north of Ireland. In none of the cases which came under my observation could the symptoms (though strongly resembling the secondary form of the phagedenic venereal, particularly its attacks upon the nose, throat, and mouth) be traced to any primary affection. In Norway and Sweden, where the disease exhibits its greatest degree of violence, it is called *Radesyge*. Dr. Holst of Christiana, with whom I had the pleasure of conversing on the subject, published an account of it in 1817. He attributes the disease to the use of food of the most rancid description, consisting of salt dried beef and pork,

my notes upon this affection, as it appears in the Vienna hospital, adds that "had mercury been employed for the cure of the indurated chancre of Hunter, as advocated by himself and subsequently by M. Ricord, we may infer that the proportion of primary followed by secondary symptoms, would have been still further reduced. The exuberant growth of primary ulcers is probably nothing more than that fungous state which takes place in *venerola vulgaris* in the second or third week. But the great prevalence of condylomata, which is considered in Vienna to be a primary affection, must be owing to some circumstances unusual in this country." My observations of the disease do not quite coincide with the idea expressed by the learned writer in the latter paragraph, more especially as this peculiar character appears in twice as many instances in the female as in the male. Climate, and the extremes of heat and cold, exert a powerful influence on all venereal affections; indeed I know of no disease in which so marked a difference may be observed, even in the different countries of Europe, and those bordering the Mediterranean. This

and semi-putrid fish, without any vegetables or even bread, which is so scarce in those high latitudes, that the inhabitants are often obliged to substitute for it the pulverized bones of fishes. While subsisting on this wretched diet, they live in low, damp huts, in which both air and light are carefully excluded. The mode of curing this disease is analogous to that for sea scurvy, and consists chiefly in avoiding the exciting causes, and in the use of esculent vegetables, fruits, and vegetable acids."—*Carmichael's Lectures on Venereal*.—Dublin: Hodges and Smith. 1842.

F. Holst—*Morbus quem Radesyge vocant quinam fit quanque ratione Scandinaviæ tolendus*. Christiana, 1817.

difference I have remarked in the northern parts of Spain and in the various hospitals of Lisbon, Paris, Berlin, and Vienna, as well as in Italy and the north of Europe, among the French at home, and in the north of Africa, presenting striking peculiarities; and I might add, that the disease in Great Britain and Ireland differs materially from what I have observed it in any other part of the world.* I cannot but conclude that the character of the people, their mode of living and superior temperance, as well as the prevention of the abuse or indiscriminate use of mercury, materially assists in modifying this fearful malady.

* Having been a resident for several years in the chief male venereal hospital in Dublin, I am constrained to say, that the forms of disease then treated in it were of a more obstinate, malignant, and finally fatal character, than in any other country in which I have ever seen it.

CHAPTER X.

THE LUNATIC ASYLUM.

THE IRRENTHURM—ITS SITUATION—WARDS—IMPROPER TREATMENT OF
THE INSANE—COMPARISON WITH THAT AT PRAGUE—THE LAZARETH
—ASYLUM AT YBBS—STATISTICS OF INSANE IN LOWER AUSTRIA.

THE Lunatic Asylum—*Die Irrenanstalt*. This great division of the establishment is situated to the north of the *Krankenhaus*, between it and the Military Hospital, from each of which it can be entered. It consists of two compartments—the madhouse, where the violent and incurable are confined; a prison, which I rejoice to say, is now scarcely known in the rest of Europe; and the *Lazareth*, which is more of the nature of the ordinary lunatic asylums of this country: the entire is capable of receiving as many as three hundred and seventy patients. The former (the *Irrenthurm* or *Narrenthurm*,) is a huge circular tower, standing apart from the rest of the buildings, constructed in the form of a cylinder, five stories high, with a yard in the centre, and containing one hundred and thirty-nine wards and cells, with beds for two hundred and fifty lunatics. The floor and ceilings are stone-arched, and round the inner wall runs a corridor, from which the cells radiate outwards in each story; the whole is heated on the same principle as the General Hospital.

This tower was built in 1784, at a period when the

object was to secure the greatest number of insane within the least possible space, and when lunatic asylums were the very worst description of gaols, erected and conducted without regard to health, cleanliness, or the hope of amending the condition of their unhappy inmates; and, I regret to say, that as far as my inspection of it was permitted—on two several occasions—as such it remains to this day, a wretched, filthy prison, close and ill-ventilated, its smell overpowering, and the sight of its unfortunate occupants, frantic, chained, and many of them naked—disgusting to the visitor. With the greatest care and under the kindest treatment, insanity is ever humiliating, even to those accustomed to its horrors; but here it was, and I fear still is, sickening to behold.

On the first morning that I visited it, a crowd of country folk, many of whom were women, waited for admittance at the massive outer grating. The bars and bolts having been withdrawn, they were conducted through the corridors along with me, as a mere matter of curiosity, or as one would go to see a collection of wild beasts; and wild they certainly were—the few who had by long-continued custom become thus familiar with, or indifferent to, the public gaze, had their peculiar energies soon lashed to frenzy, by the inhuman taunt of some hardened keeper, who was more than once called up by our conductor to excite the impotent rage of some particular individual, perhaps by allusion to the very cause of his or her insanity: all this was for the gratification of the rustic visitors. Further details are, I feel, superfluous; but since I visited Grand Cairo,

I have not witnessed such a scene. This state of things in a city calling itself civilized, and under the very nose of monarchy, surprised me the more, for, that one of the best managed institutions of the kind I have ever seen is that at Prague, under the direction of the intelligent and philanthropic Dr. Riedel,* and those of Berlin and other parts of Germany, are models for

* This admirable asylum contains three hundred and thirty beds, and is most humanely and scientifically conducted; it is well worth the inspection of all who visit that ancient and magnificent capital. The system pursued there of engaging the attention, and employing the minds of all the patients, by moderate labour, household occupations, and amusements, is worthy of imitation. The reading, music, and billiard-rooms, though filled with lunatics, were as quiet and well-conducted as many of those used by the so called sane portion of the population. During my visit, the band played some excellent music; and dancing, and even balls have been lately introduced with a happy effect. From fifty to sixty patients are discharged cured annually. I am indebted to its *Primararzt*, Dr. Riedel, for the following statistical record of its receptions, deaths, and dismissals during the six years prior to 1841.

Years.	Receptions.				Ages.								Cured.	Improved.	Died.	Remaining.	Total Males and Females.
	Men.	Women.	Unmar- ried.	Married.	1 to 10.	11 to 20.	21 to 30.	31 to 40.	41 to 50.	51 to 60.	61 to 70.	71 to 80.					
1835	70	48	71	47	2	10	37	38	16	1	3	1	35	25	42	16	118
1836	76	46	72	50	1	17	37	30	24	9	4	0	51	16	33	22	122
1837	75	57	75	57	0	21	35	34	25	11	4	2	46	19	43	24	132
1838	63	63	67	59	0	10	41	31	25	14	4	1	54	17	20	35	126
1839	60	63	62	61	3	10	38	25	32	11	4	0	45	12	32	34	123
1840	81	49	69	61	0	7	42	35	22	17	6	1	30	6	12	82	139
Total	425	326	416	335	6	75	230	193	144	73	25	5	261	95	182	213	751
	751		751		751								751				

general imitation. Some years ago, Austria, impressed with the wretched condition of the Vienna lunatic asylum, sent a young physician to travel and collect information on the subject of the care of the insane in other countries. Dr. Julius, of philanthropic celebrity, has informed me that the report of this gentleman was a very good one, and ably drawn up; yet, still, this blot upon humanity is permitted to exist as an "Imperial Royal Institution."*

Next is the *Lazareth*, a very old building, that was formerly used as a plague hospital. It is separated from the tower by a yard and the botanic garden of the Josephinum Academy. It consists of two separate compartments, with five male and six female wards, besides twelve separate rooms for patients of a higher class—the whole number of beds being one hundred and twenty. This division of the asylum I found clean and orderly, though, as a house of recovery, the treatment still adopted there is but little conducive. The milder cases, and those still considered within the pale of hope and art, are received into this division, which has a garden attached to it for the use of patients. Pupils are not admitted to the wards of the asylum;† nor does the subject of insanity form a portion of practical medical instruction in Austria; a circumstance to be regretted in a country where so many are afflicted with that awful visitation, and the great majority of

* The number of females confined in this tower affected with Nymphomania, is quite incredible.

† In Berlin there is a Special Clinique for the Insane—it works well, and does not injure the patients.

whose institutions for the insane are under such bad management.

The number of incurable lunatics having within the last few years increased so much, that they could not be provided for in the *Irrenthurm*, the extensive asylum at Ybbs has been erected. This is beautifully situated on the Danube, about two days' journey from Vienna, towards Upper Austria, and it has accommodation for from three hundred and thirty to three hundred and sixty patients. To this, the surplus of the quiet, but incurable insane, are sent yearly from the *Irrenthurm*. It is, I understand, tolerably well conducted, and its delightful and healthy situation must, no doubt, contribute much to the comfort, if not the health of its residents; that it has the latter power, we learn from the fact, that upwards of five per cent. permanently recover, of those who had been for years before confined in the tower and were pronounced incurable.

Accurate *post mortem* examinations are made of all the insane that die in the *Irrenanstalt*.

The receptions into these institutions are as follows:—There are three paying classes, and one received gratis; their *Kreis*, or the district from which they come, defraying their expenses. The first class pays forty florins monthly; or fifty florins, if they require a separate room and attendance. The second pays twenty-six, and the third, nine florins monthly.

The attendants consist of one *Primararzt*, who is over all; two secondary physicians, two secondary surgeons and two Practicants, with thirty male and twenty-eight female nurses, besides porters and other servants.

The following table shows the condition of the insane in the public asylums in Lower Austria in 1838 :—

	Received.	Dismissed.	Died.	Remaining in 1838.	Mortality per cent.
Irrenthurm and Lazareth }	533	138	71	324	13.33
In Ybbs	350	4	27	319	7.71
Total	883	142	98	643	11.09

The paid medical officers are :—the *Primararzt*, who has 1200 florins, one *Secundararzt*, with 240 florins, and two *Secundarwundärzte* with 480 florins.

CHAPTER XI.

MIDWIFERY AND THE LYING-IN HOSPITAL.

THE GEBÄRANSTALT—ITS TENDENCY—ORIGIN AND ERECTION—DIVISIONS—RECEPTIONS—THEIR CLASSIFICATION—THE SECRECY OF THE ESTABLISHMENT—ITS ARRANGEMENT—TERMS OF ADMISSION—ILLEGITIMACY—ITS CAUSES, CONSEQUENCES, AND REWARDS—COMPARISON WITH LEGITIMACY—STATISTICAL TABLES OF ILLEGITIMACY—THE OBSTETRIC CLINIQUE, FOR ACCOUCHEURS—THAT FOR MIDWIVES—VIENNESE MIDWIFERY—PUERPERAL FEVER—ITS MORTALITY—THE PROFESSORS—WORKS OF BOER—OBSTETRIC EDUCATION—TABLE OF RECEPTIONS—STATISTICS OF DELIVERIES—BIRTHS AND OPERATIONS—MONSTROSITIES.

IN the following chapter I purpose to lay before my readers a simple narrative of the origin, history, and present state of the *Gebüranstalt*, or imperial lying-in hospital in Vienna—one of the most splendid and extensive establishments of its kind in Europe. To this I have added a condensed statement of the statistics of this institution for the eight years prior to 1840, giving the result of 25,906 deliveries, without, however, instituting a comparison between these results, as regards mothers or offspring, with any other such public asylum; and finally, a *resumé* of the system of obstetric education in the Austrian monarchy.

Although the moralist may question the tendency of some of its laws, and its general effect upon society in a religious point of view, yet among the many humane and charitable institutions of the imperial city, there is none more deserving of the attention of the philanthro-

pist—none that the professional visitor will derive more instruction in becoming acquainted with—and none that the directors and medical attendants of such establishments in our own country, should be better informed upon than the *Maternité* of Vienna. The present hospital owes its origin to the Emperor Joseph the Second, the noble founder of so many benevolent institutions in the Austrian capital. It forms a considerable portion of the general hospital, and may be entered either through it, or by the side door opening into the Kirchgasse.*

Previous to its erection, even so far back as the reign of the Empress Eleanor, (wife to Leopold I. who reigned from 1657 to 1705,) a *Gebärhaus* (or birth-house) had been established in St. Mark's Burger-hospital for the reception of *unmarried* pregnant females; it contained sixteen beds, but was subsequently augmented to sixty-six, and accommodated from three to four hundred females annually, but even this increase was found totally inadequate to the desired object; and females, whether aware of its insufficiency, or fearing to be delivered there from other causes, applied for admission only when driven to it by the utmost extremity of their circumstances. At this period it is reported, that vast numbers of parturient women were lost, partly owing to the causes already mentioned, and partly to the ignorance of those by whom they were attended. Under the reign of Maria Theresa, this latter defect in medical education was in some measure remedied by a school of obstetricy being established in St. Mark's

* See plan of the Hospital facing the title.

Hospital for the instruction of accoucheurs and midwives, but from its smallness, it was far from producing the required effect. In the year 1784, this twofold object of a proper asylum for pregnant females on the one hand, and a school for the cultivation of obstetric knowledge on the other was supplied, and in that year 748 births took place within its walls. The present establishment was erected according to the plan of Baron Quarin, and opened on the 16th of August in that year; and now, with its administration and arrangement since the last additions in 1834, completes the divisions of the *Allgemeine Krankenhaus*.

Pregnant women of all grades and of every religious persuasion can avail themselves of the advantages of this asylum: the poor and destitute are admitted gratis; and the rich by paying a certain stated sum; thus it is well adapted to the circumstances of all classes, where poverty, and necessity, or where fear and a desire of secrecy induce such to apply for refuge therein, during their hour of trial. Here every comfort is supplied—no visitor can intrude—no law affect, and no authority reach its inmates—nay more, the very fact of their having been delivered there is inadmissible either as documentary or personal evidence in a court of justice. The whole institution is divided into two great divisions, the paying and the non-paying; the former is perfectly distinct from the latter, and consists of three classes: to the first, or highest class, are allotted five neat, well-furnished, and secluded chambers, perfectly distinct and separate from each other, and from the rest of the establishment; they are guarded with the greatest strict-

ness, and are inaccessible to all but the attendant physician, and if necessary the nurse. Each of these is occupied by one person alone, who pays one florin, twenty kreutzers, or about two shillings and eightpence daily for its use. These are said to be for the young ladies of the imperial city, and are, I have been creditably informed, sometimes the resort of females from among the highest circles of society.

The second class have not separate chambers, but occupy two large rooms with six beds in each; the cost of admission into this portion of the hospital is fifty-one kreutzers, or about one shilling and eightpence halfpenny daily. The *Entbundenen*, or those already delivered, are separate from those pregnant awaiting their accouchement.

The third class occupy several wards with ten beds in each, and as females are received at any time after the sixth month of pregnancy, those undelivered are kept apart from those in the puerperal state; the whole are separated into the *Schwangeren* or pregnant, the *Gebärenden* or parturients, and the *Wöchnerinnen* or puerperals. The expense in this last division is eighteen kreutzers, or sevenpence daily. Not only in the first, but in all the three paying classes, no admission is permitted; none are allowed on any pretext whatever to enter therein, except the immediate attendants; and besides this, the localities of this part are so arranged as to secure those residing therein from the gaze of the curious. The principle of secrecy is imposed as one of the strictest duties on all those in any way engaged in the institution. Should a female desert her family and take shelter here, the vigilance of the police,

or the inquiries of her friends may trace her to the door of the *Gebäranstalt*, but no farther. Here the executive enters not; such is the law, that not only is a father or a husband denied an entrance, but he cannot, as has been already observed, receive from the records of the hospital, or any one connected therewith, any testimony of her reception or delivery. Indeed in many instances, and in almost all the cases occurring among the first or highest class, such evidence could not possibly be obtained, as a female may enter, accomplish her delivery, and depart from the hospital without her name being known, or even her face seen by the physician, or any of the attendants! The entrance into these paying wards is not the same as that leading into the general hospital, but by a private way, ending in a small *cul-de-sac*, that runs between the ancient Spanish cloister and an adjoining barrack; and as it is forbidden to have any windows looking into this lane, persons approaching that way are perfectly secure from observation. At the end of this *cul-de-sac* there is one small door, with a bell attached to it; a porter remains at the entrance day and night, and conducts the person requiring admission to whatever apartment or division they require, or their means afford. Persons are allowed to appear masked, veiled, or otherwise disguised; they may enter at any time previous to their delivery, and remain as long as they wish; they may carry their infants away with them or send them to the foundling-hospital through the medical attendant. The names and address of persons admitted into this division are not required, but each female must write her name and residence upon a billet

which she seals, and on the back of which the physician inscribes the number of the room and bed she occupies. This ticket is then placed in a small locked-up cabinet beside her bed, and at her departure it is returned to her unopened; its object being, that in case of her death, the institution may inform her friends, or be able to produce this testimony of her decease on the demand of her relations or the police.

Females entering the first class apartments of this division are not required to apply to the porter in the usual manner, but may, if they wish, go to the apartments of the attending accoucheur direct, who will conduct them to their appointed chamber, and with similar secrecy and precaution they may go out. The rooms of this class are likewise provided with cradles and every necessary comfort. Here the patient is permitted to bring her own servants and linen if she desire it, or she can be supplied from the stores of the hospital with every such requisite, &c. Without her own desire no one except the doctor—not even a nurse or midwife is allowed to enter her chamber; and in case of severe illness she is at liberty to call in another physician along with the usual house-attendant. In the year 1840, twenty-two females were delivered in this part of the establishment. The females in each of those three paying classes may remove their children from the foundling-hospital when they please, on defraying the expenses already incurred in their rearing and education.

The second division for those who are admitted gratis, contained previous to the additions in 1834, one *Entbindungszimmer*, or delivery ward, with ten beds, three

Wöchnerzimmer, or puerperal wards (as they are termed) with thirty-six beds each; and one *Krankenzimmer*, or recovery ward, with twelve beds, where those labouring under any serious or protracted illness after their delivery are removed to—altogether one hundred and thirty beds. Subsequent to these additions, or as it now stands, it contains two delivery wards, with eleven beds in each; eight puerperal and convalescent, containing together two hundred and fifteen beds; three large wards for the reception of pregnant previous to delivery, with one hundred and ten beds; and two sick wards, with thirty-seven beds, where females in dangerous or protracted illnesses are removed to—making a total of three hundred and eighty-four beds, and including those of the paying division, forming a gross total in the entire establishment of four hundred and forty-one. The average number of females delivered annually is four thousand five hundred.

The following regulations, which I have copied from the records of the institution, are observed with regard to the admission of females into the non-paying division:—

1st—All unmarried pregnant females, natives of the Austrian monarchy, or at the time resident therein, who are paupers, and can bring a certificate of their poverty; should any of the persons so admitted, require secrecy, it must be granted to them without producing a certificate of poverty. 2d—Married women can be admitted only by a certificate of poverty, and then their relatives are compelled to pay for them; and in case of friendless persons, their district, parish, or village, is compelled to defray their expenses. If the husband be dead, they are admitted under the same re-

gulations as the unmarried females. 3d—Persons overtaken by their labour, and delivered on their way to the hospital, are received at once, and their circumstances inquired into afterwards. Females are frequently delivered on the glacis, in passing from the town to the hospital. 4th—Unmarried females who have been attended by a midwife are admissible, in case of their requiring relief in their puerperal state, when they can prove their poverty by a certificate, and the circumstances of their unexpected delivery through the inquiry and confirmation of the police. 5th—Pregnant females belonging to public institutions can be sent by the authorities to the hospital, and are received according to the second regulation. 6th—Soldiers' wives, married according to the first military regulation, specified below, are also admissible;* but those married according to the second, can only be received under the law relating to married women. 7th—Pregnants cannot be received into the hospital before the end of the seventh month, except in cases of actual, or threatened abortion. On their entrance, all are examined by the head midwife, and in doubtful cases, by the physician, as to the period of their pregnancy. Those students who desire it, can witness these examinations; and the English accoucheur who may be present, and is also called on for his opinion, will, generally speaking, find his knowledge (practical though it may be in other respects) very defi-

* Only three soldiers in each company are allowed to bring their wives into barracks; these are the persons married according to the first regulation. Those alluded to in the second, are soldiers wives not permitted to reside in barrack.

cient in pronouncing upon the exact term of pregnancy, owing to the unfrequency of such, either in private practice, or in the public institutions at home. 8th—Unpaying pregnant, who have been admitted either by certificate or otherwise, can leave the hospital before their delivery, at pleasure. 9th—All females delivered in the non-paying division, except such as are sick, or incapable of nursing, or whose children have died before the date of their dismissal from the hospital, or those who desire to take their children with them, are compelled to go into the foundling-house for two months, where they are employed as nurses, each woman suckling her own, and generally another child; the second being one of those sent from the paying division, or whose mother had died in hospital. 10th—Foreigners are subject to the like rules, and receive the same care and protection.

I have now laid before my readers a plain, didactic description of this vast establishment. Let us rest here for a moment, and reflect upon the state of society it springs from, and again produces.

If, on the one hand, infanticide, the prevention of which was the chief aim of the noble founder, be a crime less known in Vienna than other cities,* the remedy administered has undoubtedly proved a source of national moral degradation; for, startling as it sounds, it has

* During my residence in Vienna, in the winter of 1840-41, two cases of infanticide, attended with the most revolting circumstances, occurred within a few days of each other: one in the Land-Strasse, and the other in the Josephstadt-Vorstadt; but on the whole, both desertion and infanticide are, I believe, less known, at least in the provinces of Austria Proper, than in any other country in Europe.

offered a *premium for illegitimacy* ! Let us see how this is brought about. 1st—The laws, both civil and ecclesiastical, relating to marriages in Austria, are so strict, that few of the lower orders are able to avail themselves of that rite. 2d—A female, even of the better class, does not (at least to the same extent as in other countries) lose cast on becoming illegitimately with child. 3d—In the seventh month of her pregnancy (and many of them are enabled to get in sooner) she applies to the Lying-in Hospital, states her poverty, and is asked two questions—Are you legitimately or illegitimately with child? If she answers the latter, she is received, *sans cérémonie* ; she is given a suit of clothes provided by the state (an imperial livery) to wear, and her own are carefully preserved till the period of her departure. If it be during the summer months, she has handsome gardens to walk in ; and if in winter, well-heated apartments are provided for her to take exercise in : and no labour is required of her, except to assist in keeping the ward she occupies clean. Thus she pleasantly passes away two months and a half ; when, if she escapes the perils of child-bed and puerperal fever, she is sent into the foundling-house to nurse her own and sometimes one other child. Here she receives a new set of the “*Kaiserlich Königliche Kleidung*,” the imperial royal livery ; and on her departure she gets a bonus of about five shillings. This, however, is not all ;—from the foundling-house she goes to the nursing-office (“*Die Ammen-Anstalt*,” or *Saugammenanstalt*), described at page 234, where, if healthy, she is immediately provided with a nursing, perhaps in

one of the most respectable families of Vienna—for few, if any, of the Viennese ladies nurse their own offspring; and in general the females from the hospital are, for many reasons, preferred to married ones. These women almost invariably return to the *Gebäranstalt* at the end of eighteen months; thus some have told me that they had been in it already three times.* But I have not yet enumerated all the advantages she enjoys; for her child is provided for at the public expense. During the first two months it is committed to her own care, and then sent to the country; and if a male, it is always a welcome visitor in the family of an Austrian peasant, for if it can be reared to eighteen years of age it is rendered up to the conscription, instead of the eldest son of its adopted father. How many thousands of the Austrian soldiers are, by this means, illegitimate, it would be difficult to say.

Humanity may rejoice at all those blessings offered to the unfortunate, but mark the difference to the virtuous and industrious wife. By the strict laws of the institution she *cannot* be received without payment, and if too poor to pay herself, her district or parish must pay for her, as has been already remarked: and she experiences considerable difficulty in proving her poverty, or obtaining the necessary certificate from the parish and the police to entitle her to admission!!

* The greatest number of these females of any particular class are the masons' assistants, the majority of whom are Bohemians, Hungarians, Moravians, and others not natives of Vienna. The foreigner visiting the imperial city will be not a little surprised at the multitude of hod-women and female scavengers he meets at every turn in the streets.

The effect produced upon the general population by this premium, may be gathered from the examination of the following table, by one of the first statisticians on the Continent, from data collected in the years 1828-9:*

PROPORTION OF ILLEGITIMATE TO LEGITIMATE BIRTHS.

In Upper Austria	-	1 in 6·	In Moravia	-	-	1 in 8·7
„ Lower Austria	-	1 in 7·8	„ Carniola & Coast Land	-	-	1 in 16·0
„ Bohemia	-	1 in 7·3	„ Lombardy	-	-	1 in 24·0
„ Carynthia	-	1 in 3·2	„ City of Vienna	-	-	1 in 2·24
„ Galicia	-	1 in 14·0				

This latter item is only surpassed by Munich, where it is recorded that in 1838 the number of illegitimate *exceeded* the legitimate births by 270! and yet in that goodly city, public women, as well as tobacco-smokers, are not allowed to appear in the streets.

The following table exhibits the state of illegitimate with relation to the general births in the cities and chief towns of the empire, for the seven years ending December, 1837:—

LOCALITIES.	Births in 7 years.		Proportion of Illegitimate to Legitimate Births in each year—as 10 to—							
	Legitimate.	Illegitimate.	1831	1832	1833	1834	1835	1836	1837	Total Period.
Vienna.....	56,394	44,773	14	14	12	12	12	12	12	12
Linz	3,550	2,392	27	27	20	19	19	15	18	14
Gratz	5,441	7,406	28	9	7	6	6	6	6	7
Laibach.....	2,319	1,107	15	18	25	23	19	24	20	20
Trieste & District	15,835	4,516	37	40	41	22	29	28	35	35
Innsbruck.....	1,663	436	56	41	38	32	39	32	37	38
Prague.....	17,938	12,371	16	14	15	15	14	14	13	14
Brünn.....	7,514	4,145	16	14	14	13	12	13	15	13
Lemberg.....	11,077	7,685	22	16	13	14	13	12	12	14
Zara.....	2,328	594	69	69	47	27	21	24	25	39
Milan.....	32,096	11,370	29	30	27	28	29	28	27	28
Venice.....	21,889	3,774	51	53	56	62	61	61	61	57
Total,	178,044	100,569	21	19	17	16	17	16	16	17

* Bevölkerungs Wissenschaft von Dr. Ch. Bernoulli, Professor in Basel. The calculation for Lower Austria and Vienna was made in 1836.

By an examination of this table we perceive that on an average, illegitimacy prevails most in Gratz, Vienna, and Brünn, and least in the cities of Venice, Zara, Innsbruck, and Trieste, and that it is also rapidly on the increase since the year 1830. From the record of births for the year 1839 we learn that in Lower Austria and Styria the proportion of illegitimate to legitimate children was as 1 to 3·2; Upper Austria, Carinthia, and Carniola 1 to 4·5; Bohemia, Moravia, and Silesia are still less; Galicia 1 in 12·8; the Illyrian Coast 1 in 14·1: and as we approach the Italian states the proportion continues to decrease—the Tyrol having but 1 in 20·7; Lombardy 1 in 21·2; and the Venetian state only 1 in 38·2. Dalmatia, Transylvania, and the Military Borders likewise present but few illegitimates, in comparison with those countries approaching the seat of government. The total births of Austria in 1839, (Hungary excepted,) were 945,693—of which 856,503 were legitimate, and 89,190 illegitimate.

It may be asked, are there any political reasons for encouraging such a condition of morals—for by thus permitting, it encourages? Yes, the Austrian state, whose political web extends not only into the paths of literature and science, but sends its far-stretching fibres into every domestic circle in the land, has, I have been credibly informed, and I believe it to be true, an object in thus countenancing illegitimacy—it is that of *checking over population*; as those who are informed upon the subject of population well know it has the power to do, by decreasing the number of births, and increasing the infantile mortality. And

how material an influence illegitimacy may have in Austria may be learned by referring to the general table of foundling hospitals, by which it will be seen that in 1837, no less than 86,902 children, who must have been the living remainder of above 100,000 births, were provided for by the state.—But to the more legitimate object of my report—

In connection with the non-paying division is the PRACTICAL OBSTETRIC CLINIQUE, for the education of accoucheurs and midwives (*Geburtshelfer* and *Hebammen*). It is divided into two sections, perfectly separate from each other—one for the instruction of males, the other of females; each being provided with a separate professor, to whom is committed the care of the patients and the education of the students. In this hospital there are no “delivery couches,” as in the Parisian and Dublin hospitals, but the same cleanly and convenient purpose is accomplished by having a special ward where all the labours are accomplished. In it, each bed is provided with a proper screen; but though it possesses the advantage of not disturbing those already delivered, it has this great disadvantage, that the patients are obliged to be removed to another ward in a few hours after their accouchement. The females are delivered either on the back or side, generally, however, the latter. Each section is provided with a head midwife, who has the charge of the female attendants, as well as the examination of the pregnant and puerperals: a few of the midwives are also located in the section where the accoucheurs are instructed. Without the special permission of the professor, no one is

allowed into the female clinique, but into that for males any physician (especially a foreigner) may go at the hour of visit, and introduce himself to the professor; at other times he must be provided with a special order, which can be obtained by applying either to the professor or at the hospital direction. The visit hour in both these sections is from nine to eleven o'clock, A.M. when the professor makes some clinical remarks; and also examines the pupils who have charge of the cases; this examination, as in other clinics, being spoken in Latin, prevents the patients becoming acquainted with the nature or probable result of their diseases. The pupils, as well as the midwives, take their turn of duty and attendance in the delivery ward in rotation, and note in the register the circumstances attending the delivery of each person. I may remark that no bandage, or what is technically termed with us, a *skirt*, is ever used after delivery in the Vienna hospital, and fatal hemorrhages are said to be of very rare occurrence, but one death being all that either of the professors told me they remembered for the last few years. It is acknowledged, however, that *slight floodings* do frequently occur, and bring the patients to a very low and debilitated state. May not this weak condition predispose to the so-frequent occurrence of puerperal fever? This latter affection makes fearful ravages in the *Gebärhaus* annually. It is not considered by the medical men there as infectious, and therefore no precaution is ever taken to prevent its spread by cleansing, fumigating, whitewashing, or shutting up certain wards where it has particularly prevailed for any length of time;—nay more, so little attention is paid

even to the chance of its being of an infectious or contagious nature, and so firmly wedded to their opinions are the physicians and attendants of this institution, that I myself have seen a newly-delivered woman placed in a bed scarcely yet cold, in which a death from puerperal fever had taken place not two hours before!! From my own observations I am inclined to attribute the frequency and fatality of this terrible scourge to the want of proper ventilation, in addition to the necessarily crowded state of the wards, and the most unjustifiable practice that I have just detailed. In order to preserve the proper temperature during the cold season, it is necessary to keep a great number of stoves lighted; there are also double windows to the wards, and as every chink and crevice that might admit the cold (and with it a fresh supply of good air) is closed with the most scrupulous attention, the air must become in a short time exceedingly impure; and the fact that puerperal fever appears epidemically, and generally in the winter and spring of the year, confirms this idea of at least one of the probable causes of its destructive influence.

I have constantly remarked four and five bodies in the dead-house, for several successive mornings, that had died of puerperal fever: these the stranger may at once recognise by the extensive and deep blister-marks on the inside of the thighs. The bodies of these poor females, many of whom were young and handsome, present a sad spectacle even among that vast throng of breathless carcases. Vesication of the thighs by the most powerful means forms one of the chief remedies in practice for this disease, and also for hysteritis and

other inflammatory affections of the uterus; and had it proved effectual even in mitigating these maladies, or lessening their mortality, one could not well object to the continuance of so severe a remedy for so formidable a scourge, but I believe it has not had this effect, while the torture it inflicts is of the severest kind, as blister over blister is frequently applied. In those who have recovered I have seen some of the worst sloughing sores I ever beheld from its effects. Dr. Theodore Helm, lately the assistant in this hospital and author of the only good work on midwifery that has appeared from this school for many years, a man of whom science and the medical profession in Vienna may be proud, agrees with me, as to the infectious nature of this form of disease.*

The present professors in the midwifery clinique are Drs. Klein and Bartsch, neither of whom have done much to advance the science they profess, although so vast a field for observation and research lay open to them. Dr. Klein lectures in the university, and has the care of the public clinique and the non-paying division, and also the general direction of the *Gebärhaus*.

Deputy Professor Bartsch is attached to the paying division and the female clinique. He is also the *Primararzt* of the whole division. All the operations which cannot be undertaken by the chief midwife, are per-

* *Traité sur les Maladies Puerpérales suivie de Recherches sur L'Auscultation des Femmes Enceintes*, par Théodore Helm Docteur en Médecin, &c. &c. ex-chef de la Clinique d'Accouchement de Vienne. Paris et Vienne. 1840.

formed by the *Primararzt* or *Secundararzt*, the latter of whom possesses more power than those of similar rank in the general hospital; and a certain number of male students always reside within the hospital.

The name and writings of the late Lucas Joseph Boër have however long since shed a lustre on practical midwifery in Vienna, and justly earned for him a European reputation.* Practical midwifery is not a compulsory portion of medical education in Austria; the curriculum of instruction in simple medicine does not require any acquaintance even with the theory of this branch of science, and, therefore, physicians seldom practise as accoucheurs. In surgery it is compulsory; every *Wundarzt* must become well acquainted with the practice as well as the theory of midwifery. During the first six months of his third year, he must attend a two months' course of lectures upon the theory of midwifery in the university, and subsequently he is required to attend the practical clinique of Professor Klein, in the *Gebäranstalt*, but only for two months. It must not be supposed, however, that the lives of the Austrian females are entrusted to men provided with such a scanty supply of practical knowledge as these possess; in fact, they are not permitted to practise at all, and the course I have mentioned only forms a portion of their general medical edu-

* Boër's works are already well-known to European accoucheurs. From 1780 to 1834, a period of fifty-four years, he published ten works, the chief of which are, *Abhandlungen und Vesuche geburtshülftichen Inhalts*—1780. *Naturalis Medicinæ Obstetriciæ*, 1812; *Natürliche Geburtshilfe und Behandlung der Schwangern, Wöchnerinnen, und neugebornen Kinder*, 1817, &c., &c.

cation. In Austria, in order to practise any speciality, as ophthalmic surgery, midwifery, or dental surgery, it is necessary for the person, whether a doctor of physic or surgery, or a *Wundarzt*, to enter upon a separate *additional* course of study, undergo a separate examination, and take out a separate diploma in that branch. Thus, there are among all grades, but particularly among the *Wundärzte* and doctors of surgery, masters of ophthalmology, as I have already noticed, and masters of midwifery, who are alone entitled to practise these arts. To become a master midwife, it is necessary to attend two six months' courses; and if the person is a physician, he must likewise, in addition to his examination, perform an obstetric operation in the presence of the professor. To obtain a midwifery diploma, every candidate is examined by the president of the faculty, the dean, and the professor of midwifery.

Midwives (*Hebammen*) are required to study for one year, six months' lectures in the university, and six months' practice in the hospital. They not only receive a gratuitous education, but are also supported at the expense of the state, and subsequently paid by the district in which they may be located; and none others but those so educated and properly licensed, are allowed to practise. In the winter of 1838-9, there were ninety-eight accoucheurs and seventy-one midwives educated in this clinique.

Although the midwifery school of Vienna offers greater advantages in point of the number of deliveries than any other on the Continent, it is to be regretted, that where so wide a field for observation exists, so little has been

recorded by those to whom has been committed the medical superintendence of it, either as regards its statistics, or any scientific improvements that may have taken place in it since the days of Boër.* All who are themselves acquainted with practical midwifery, or have been in any way engaged in teaching it, must, I think, admit that the system of education pursued in this department is extremely defective; two months' practical instruction being totally inadequate to effect the desired object. The observation so often repeated, that one learns a sufficiency of this science by witnessing a dozen deliveries, may hold good, as regards our acquaintance with natural labour, in all perfectly normal cases (though it is not one that any sound practical accoucheur will admit); but it is only from the mass of natural cases, that those requiring the interference of art can occur, and can be observed; and a sufficiency of such, to offer the student a fair opportunity of learning this branch of his profession, cannot possibly take place in two months. The system so much inveighed against in the Dublin Lying-in Hospital, of not permitting pupils to interfere in any case, not even to introduce a catheter, without permission, is strictly adhered to in the *Gebüranstalt*.

There are very few private accoucheurs of any note in Vienna; this may arise from the circumstance of the Austrian ladies being chiefly attended by *Sages-femmes*.

* Horns *Lehrbuch der Geburtshülfe* is the manual of midwifery read by the students in Vienna.

The following table exhibits the receptions of this institution for nine years prior to the year 1838 :—

RECEPTIONS FROM 1830 TO 1838.

Years.	Paying Division.				Non-paying Division.	Total.
	Class					
	1	2	3	Total.		
1830	8	6	157	171	2569	2740
1831	14	16	158	188	3147	3335
1832	17	16	203	236	3036	3272
1833	19	21	152	192	3672	3864
1834	18	36	134	184	4007	4191
1835	15	44	141	200	3887	4087
1836	13	30	108	151	3902	4053
1837	19	40	128	187	4262	4449
1838	20	41	197	258	4195	4453

This shows an increase of 97 receptions into the paying and 1,626 into the non-paying division since the year 1830 :—

Table showing the Receptions and Mortality in the year 1838 :—

	Receptions.	Deaths.	Remaining in Hospital.	Mortality per Cent.	
				On Receptions	Not including Remainder.
Mothers	4453	179	253	4.01	4.26
Children	4073	200	113	4.91	5.05

The income of the hospital is derived from private funds and legacies, and the paying division, amounting

to 4,940 florins, and 31,526 florins, are paid by the state ; in all 36,010 florins, or £3601 10s. in English currency. The state pays the difference between the private funds of the hospital and its yearly expenditure.

The following most interesting and curious statistical tables, the most extensive that I am aware of being in existence in British print, were collected and arranged with much care from the unpublished records of the hospital, for the eight years ending 31st December, 1840, and exhibit the result of 25,906 deliveries, and 26,149 births, in both mothers and offspring, for that period.

In these, it will be seen that the calculations are varied from time to time, as the documents to which, I had access were more or less perfect ; some affording the minutiae of one description of information, some another : in one instance, or for one year, specifying the sex, and in another, merely giving the gross total.

NUMBER OF DELIVERIES, 25,906.

Children	{	Single births	25,638.
		Twins, 248 times	— 496, or 1 in 105·43.
		Triplets, 5 „	— 15, or 1 in 5229·8.
		Total births,	26,149.

Sex in 23,413 births*	{	Boys, 11,717	} Proportion of Males to 100 Females 100·17.
		Girls, 11,696	

* This affords another very remarkable instance of the laws that are supposed to regulate illegitimate births, viz. :—that females are either equal to, or predominate over, male births ; for of 21,212 children born in the seven years prior to 1838, the sexes were in the proportion of 10,584 males to 10,628 girls.

Sex of Still-born Children in 2,201 births.	$\left\{ \begin{array}{ll} \text{Boys,} & 48 \\ \text{Girls,} & 45 \\ \text{Total} & 93 \end{array} \right\}$	Proportion of Males to 100 Females	106.66.
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Total still-born in 23,413 births, 939, or 1 in . 24.92.

Died before the ninth day, in 23,222, 1,482, or 1 in . 15.66.

Sexes in 95 of these	$\left\{ \begin{array}{ll} \text{Boys,} & 49 \\ \text{Girls,} & 46 \end{array} \right\}$	Proportion of Males to 100 Females	106.52.
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Abortions and Premature deliveries } 674, or 1 in 38.13.
in 25,705 cases.

In 196 cases of Abortions and Premature Deliveries there occurred in	$\left\{ \begin{array}{ll} \text{The 3rd month,} & . \quad 2 \\ \text{4th } " & . \quad 2 \\ \text{5th } " & . \quad 3 \\ \text{6th } " & . \quad 25 \\ \text{7th } " & . \quad 54 \\ \text{8th } " & . \quad 110 \end{array} \right\}$
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Table showing the number and variety of presentations in 25,449 single births :—

Breech,	448, or 1 in 56.8.
Face,	190, or 1 in 133.94.
Feet,	133, or 1 in 191.34.
Funis,	133, or 1 in 191.34.
Of 133 Funis } With head,	97, or 1 in 1.37.
cases in 26,149 } With other parts,	36, or 1 in 3.69.
Transverse position,	94, or 1 in 270.73.
Placenta,	35, or 1 in 727.11.
Of 35 Placenta } Complete,	20, or 1 in 1.75.
Presentations } Partial,	15, or 1 in 2.33.
Turning,	140 times, or 1 in 186.77.
Forceps used,	359 do. or 1 in 72.83.
Perforation,	39 do. or 1 in 670.48.
Cesarean Section } after Death. }	4 do. or 1 in 6537.25.
Ruptured Uterus, 7 do. in 21,001 cases,	or 1 in 3000.14.
Convulsions, 34 do. in do. do.	or 1 in 617.67.
Extra-Uterine foetation once in 25,906 conceptions.	
Spontaneous Turning, once in 26,149 births.	
Monstrous Births, 68 in 23,222,	or once in 341.5.
Mortality of Mothers 755 in 23,312,	or one in 30.87.

The reports and documents from which these tables are drawn up would, no doubt, afford a much more minute and diversified arrangement, were they intended for a special work on midwifery. As, however, I am not aware of any table similar to the accompanying being in existence, I give it to my readers as affording a curious statistic of the number and variety, in which we may expect monstrosities to occur in 23,413 births taking place under similar circumstances.

Club foot	16 or once in	1463.31
Hare lip	20 „	1170.65
Simple ditto	9 „	2601.44
With cleft palate	11 „	2128.45
Spina bifida	5 „	4682.6
Hydrocephalus	6 „	3902.16
With six fingers	3 „	7804.33
Imperforate anus	2 „	11706.5
Hemicephalus	1 „	23413.
Acephalus	1 „	23413.
With umbilical hernia	1 „	23413.
Without eyes	2 „	11706.5
Wanting superior part of vertex	1 „	23413.
With lenticular cataract	1 „	23413.
Wanting one upper extremity	2 „	11706.5
With plurality of fingers and toes	5 „	4682.6
Hydrocephalus with spina bifida, and closed anus	1 „	23413.
Club foot and closed anus	1 „	23413.

From an examination of this record, we learn that in a population chiefly illegitimate, 88 instances of these deviations from the normal type occurred in 23,413 births, or about one in every 2660.14.

The statistics of still-born births upon an extensive scale are so rare that I subjoin the accompanying table, which exhibits their number, sexes, and proportion to the living births, in seven years, in the Austrian dominions :—

LOCALITY.	Total Births.	STILL-BORN.					Proportion of Still-born to Living Infants, as 1 to
		Males.	Females.	Legitimate.	Illegitimate.	Total.	
Vienna.....	101,167	2027	1614	1713	1928	3641	27·78
Linz.....	5,942	160	130	180	110	290	20·48
Gratz.....	12,847	163	119	178	104	282	45·55
Laibach.....	3,426	54	44	67	31	98	34·95
Trieste and District....	20,351	88	43	28	103	131	155·35
Innsbruck.....	2,099	33	20	33	20	53	39·60
Prague...	30,309	813	572	733	652	1385	21·88
Brünn.....	11,659	117	78	111	84	195	59·78
Lemberg.....	18,762	368	241	308	301	609	30·80
Zara.....	2,922	74	65	75	64	139	21·02
Milan.....	43,466	915	462	1101	276	1377	31·56
Venice.....	25,663	457	440	528	369	897	28·60
Total,	278,613	5269	3828	5055	4042	9097	30·62

CHAPTER XII.

THE FOUNDLING HOSPITAL.

ITS SITUATION — OBJECTS — MORTALITY — STATISTICS — DISEASES — THE ZUZEL — COST OF RECEPTION — INCOME — THE VACCINATING INSTITUTE — THE WET-NURSING ESTABLISHMENT — GENERAL STATISTICS OF THE ALLGEMEINE KRANKENHAUS.

THE Foundling Hospital — *K. K. Findelanstalt* — although not included within the walls of the *Allgemeine Krankenhaus*, yet being connected with it, and under the same direction, requires to be noticed in this place.

This great establishment occupies a large plot of ground in the Alsergasse, nearly opposite the front of the *Krankenhaus*, and like it was erected in 1784, by Joseph II. Its avowed object is not only to afford protection to those illegitimate children who are deprived of the care of their parents, but also to remove as much as possible, the moral and social disabilities under which illegitimate children and their parents labour.

It also receives legitimate children, whose parents from sickness, poverty, or other causes, are unable to afford them the necessary care and instruction; or when the admission of such into the orphan-house is prevented by want of the certificates or other documents required in such places: and finally, it offers an asylum to all children, whether legitimate or illegitimate, and of every rank and grade, whose parents either from a desire

of secrecy, or other motives, pay a certain sum for their maintenance.

We read in the ancient records of this city, that so early as the year 1730, the care of illegitimate children had occupied the attention of the state, and that an institution, under the direction of the magistrates of Vienna, was attached to the *Bürgerspital* for the care of aged paupers, and the illegitimate and legitimate offspring of indigent or insane females.

The building consists of two stories, with five large and lofty wards in each, occupied by the nurses and infants; the latter are all nursed at the breast, and for the most part by their own mothers, as I have already explained, when speaking of the non-paying division of *Gebärhaus*. At the rear of the hospital there is a handsome garden for the use of the nurses and children during the warm season. Considering the great number of persons included within this institution, I generally found it clean and orderly. I consider it, however, a great disadvantage to have the wards of a foundling hospital upon a large scale, for, independent of the rapid spread of epidemic disorders, the noise of so many young children is highly detrimental to their health: and this noise is quite unavoidable, for as soon as one infant commences crying, it is the signal for a general squall from all within ear-shot of it. The generality of the mothers in this hospital are very young, the infants do not sleep with them, but in small cots, one on each side of their beds.

The frightful mortality of this hospital has long since become generally known in Europe, and we find its

statistics quoted and remarked upon in every work that treats of such subjects ; for with the exception of that formerly existing in Dublin,* its records exhibit a greater annual amount of deaths in proportion to the receptions, than any other foundling institution on record.

In the year 1784, there died 1286 out of 2366, or 54 per cent. ; and this rate of mortality went on increasing to 1812, when of 3817 children, (of whom 2809 were the receptions of that year,) 2638 died—or 69 per cent.† The destiny of children is always precarious, but when we calculate the chances of life to these helpless beings, even for the remaining term of the infantile period, either according to the general law of mortality out of hospitals, at best 25 per cent. ; or that artificially produced within this or similar establishments, then their tenure of existence becomes short indeed.

Thus we find that from 1784 to 1838 inclusive, a period of fifty-four years, the total receptions were 183,955, the deaths 146,920, and those that left the hospital at different ages 25,559, of whose future destiny no record has been preserved.

Every endeavour to rear more than a third of these little sufferers to the age of twelve months within the hospital failed ; but although deserted by their natural parents, they were not beyond the care and sympathy

* Of 10,272 sick children and infants sent into the infirmary of the Dublin Foundling Hospital during the twenty-one years ending 1796, only forty-five recovered!!—See Parliamentary Inquiry.

† Knolz has permitted many errors in printing the figures of the statistical tables from which these calculations are made.

of the kind-hearted and philanthropic monarch who then filled the Austrian throne.

“ The Emperor Joseph the Second frequently visited this hospital in person, and upon one occasion he ordered Professor Boër to make a series of experiments with all kinds of food, that it might be ascertained how far diet had its share in the mortality. Twenty children were selected and fed with various kinds of paps and soups, but in a few months most of them were dead. . . . In 1813, the government enacted, that the foundling-house should merely serve as a depôt for the children, till they could be delivered to the care of nurses in different parts of the country. “ Already,” writes Dr. Mackenzie, “ this plan has, in part, answered the benevolent intentions of those who supported it, and given credit to the opinion of the medical faculty, who, in their report upon this subject, attributed the mortality in the foundling-house, not to the want of care, food, or cleanliness, but the crowding together of so many children, to the unavoidable deterioration of the atmosphere which hence resulted, to the noise, and to the contagious diseases to which the children were exposed, and especially diarrhœa.”

The general infantile mortality in Vienna, and throughout Austria, is very great, and the causes of death are chiefly abdominal diseases. I have remarked two singular practices in the treatment of infants, both of which are highly prejudicial: during the first year or eighteen months they are bandaged like so many Egyptian mummies, by means of a broad tape or ribbon, bound round their pillows, in which they are completely

encased, and which prevents their ever stirring a muscle of their extremities. Again, each infant, no matter whether it suckles at the breast or is spoon-fed, is provided with a kind of artificial nipple called *Zuzel* or *Zulp*, and formed of a bit of linen, in which a piece of pap or bread and milk, about the size of the thumb is bound up. This is not only given it to derive nourishment from, but whenever the child cries it is crammed into its mouth. Now, although a good nurse will change the food in this every twenty-four hours, yet I have been informed that many do not do so for a week together; in either case fermentation ensues, and this, added to the saliva of the infant with which it is saturated, the dirt of the thing itself which is constantly falling from the child—its becoming hot and cold twenty times a day—renders it one of the most unhealthy substances a child can possibly have access to, as its general sour smell plainly attests. It is not alone given to them when teething—for I have seen it in the mouths of numbers of children not a week old.

Notwithstanding that all these circumstances do, in a great measure, contribute to produce this enormous loss of life in the Viennese, as well as in most other foundling hospitals, it must be remembered, “that the frail tenure by which an infant holds its life, will not allow of a remitted attention even for a few hours; and that the desertion of a child by its mother, at the very time, when, of all others, it stands most in need of her care, is in the event nearly equivalent to its destruction.”*

* Malthus, as quoted by F. Bisset Hawkins.

No child is now retained in the hospital for longer than two months, and the following table, which I have carefully arranged from the records of the institution, shows how well this system has worked, and how much the mortality has decreased for the last twenty years.

Statistics of the Vienna Findelanstalt, from 1784 to 1838, in quintennial periods.

Years.	Receptions.	Dismissals.	Deaths.	Mortality per Cent.
1784 to 1788	10,108	112	8,753	86·59
1789 „ 1793	11,371	527	10,326	90·80
1794 „ 1798	13,736	588	13,109	95·43
1799 „ 1803	15,897	708	15,104	95·01
1804 „ 1808	15,502	1,252	14,626	94·34
1809 „ 1813	14,956	978	13,874	92·76
1814 „ 1818	17,241	709	13,962	80·98
1819 „ 1823	21,487	1,293	13,574	63·17
1824 „ 1828	22,875	3,281	13,889	60·71
1829 „ 1833	17,930	7,955	12,982	72·40
1834 „ 1838	22,852	8,156	16,721	73·17
Total,	183,955	25,559	146,920	79·86

The following are the terms of admission into this hospital:—

All illegitimate children whose parents are unable to maintain them; the children of all the females delivered in the public clinique of the *Gebäranstalt*, and the children of sick paupers, are received gratis.

The legitimate infants born in the *Gebärhaus* are received on paying twenty florins; and if the mothers are too poor to pay so much, then their district or city is taxed to that amount.

Children not born in the hospital, whose parents are natives of the Austrian monarchy, pay fifty florins; others, whose circumstances can afford it, pay from one hundred to two hundred and forty florins, and can be received till sixteen years of age. In 1838, the relative numbers who paid these sums were—

At the 240 florins cost	.	.	.	„
„ 100 do. „	.	.	.	21
„ 50 do. „	.	.	.	600
„ 20 do. „	.	.	.	500
Total	.	.	.	1121
Gratuitous receptions	.	.	.	3778
General Total	.	.	.	4899

There is no indiscriminate admission of infants by means of an open cradle or “*le tour*” in this establishment, as in the *Enfants Trouvés* at Paris; and although the strictest secrecy is preserved, means are taken to insure the identity of each individual child, which is accurately marked, and a receipt given for it to the mother, who can at any time hear of it, and even see it, on producing the certificate; as may be gathered from the statistical records, the chances of the latter (that of ever seeing it again) are very questionable: moreover, the friends may, if they wish, remove the child at any time from under the care of the institution. There is, I regret to add, one exception to this rule—no *Jew* is ever allowed a receipt for, nor can they ever get back their child, or even learn its name or destiny, unless by conforming to the Catholic faith. This is but one of the many severe social, political, and religious disabilities

under which the Israelitish people still labour in that country. Austria should take a lesson in benevolence and Christian charity from the late enactments of Prussia and Russia on this subject.

If a foundling acquires property during the period that it is under the hospital direction, it is then required to pay for its reception and maintenance.

The infants are generally retained in the hospital from two to three months, and are then sent to the country to nurse. The mothers, who also remain in the hospital as nurses for about two months, receive 1 florin and 20 kreutzers monthly.

Besides those ten that I have already mentioned, there are other wards for the children of more advanced age, but those latter are now very few.

The hospital is under the *Krankenhausdirection*, and its immediate officers are, a *Hausarzt*, with a salary of 660 florins—so called, I suppose, because he does not live in the house; one *Secundararzt*, a *Hauswundarzt*, and four *Findelkinderaufseher*, at salaries of 240, 500, and 450 florins—these latter are also *Bezirksärzte* in different districts of the Vienna Vorstadt. These, with a civil governor, at 1000 florins yearly; a head female overseer, who is also an accoucheuse; the ward-nurses, porters, and attendants, complete its staff. Its funds are still in part supplied from those of the *Bürgerspital* to the amount of 18,000 florins, (and for which the Viennese foundlings are entitled to certain privileges,) the income derived from the paying foundlings, donations, and a government grant.

This latter has been increased of late years to meet the wants not only of the greater numbers received, but also to support those still living and at nurse throughout the country, amounting in 1838 to 353,963 florins.

FUNDS OF THE FINDELHAUS.

Private funds of Hospital	36,915 florins.	Cost of Hospital.....	20,440 florins.
Paid by the State.....	353,963 „	Cost of Foundlings at } Nurse	412,538 „
Paid by Foundlings....	42,100 „		
Total,	432,978 florins.	Total,	432,978 florins.

I found upon inquiry that very many of the females whom I saw in the *Findelhaus* had been themselves foundlings.

Connected with the Foundling Hospital, and occupying a portion of the same building, is the wet-nursing and vaccinating institute. The former, the *Saugammeninstitut*, was erected by the government in 1801, for the purpose of providing wet nurses for the city of Vienna; something on the same plan as that carried on by the porters of the Lying-in Hospital in this city. All these women who wish to procure service as private nurses, are carefully examined by the *Hausarzt*, and if approved of, have their names registered in the books of the institute. Those requiring wet nurses apply to the *Findelhausdirection*, who provide the proper person, and give a certificate of her health and eligibility, &c. &c. This certificate holds good for fourteen days; when, if the nurse is not liked, she is exchanged for another. Twenty florins are paid to the *Findelhaus* by the person requiring the nurse,

but she herself may make what bargain she likes, and generally receives very high wages.

The chief vaccinating institute, *Hauptimpfungsinstitut*, was called into existence in 1802, and is likewise under the *Findelhausdirection*. Its objects are, to vaccinate the foundlings, and all those of every class who choose to apply, on the most scientific principles; to keep up a stock of pure vaccine matter, and distribute it throughout the empire; and to offer practical instruction in this most essential art to a certain number of surgical students, who subsequently become the public vaccinators of the country. These latter attend the institute twice a week for six weeks, and receive a certificate from it, which is produced at their *Regrosum*, or final examination.*

The funds that support the *Allgemeine Krankenhaus* are derived from those of the ancient *Bürgerspital*, *Johannesspital*, and other minor hospitals suppressed by Joseph the Second; also, the interest of a capital created by loan, on a system somewhat analogous to that of our national debt, called *Staatsobligationen*; sums

* We have got a well-managed Cowpock Institution in Dublin, where from 3000 to 5000 children are vaccinated yearly, but students very rarely, if ever, attend it: hundreds receive their degrees daily, and go into practice in Great Britain, who, I will venture to assert, never once watched the progress of a vaccine vesicle—nay, in all probability, never saw the operation performed. Had the medical men of this country been better educated or at all educated on this subject, and paid it more attention for the last thirty years, we might not have the same difficulty arising with regard to the value of this specific in the present day. Do the Irish poor law commissioners require any test or qualification from their six-penny vaccinators?

granted by the university for the support of the clinical school; also the funds of the ancient lying-in hospital and lunatic asylum; and from the reception costs of the patients;—amounting in all to 407,814 florins, 59 kreutzers, or £40,781 10s.: the balance is paid by the state.

This concludes the different divisions of the *Allgemeine Krankenhaus*, and the following table exhibits the receptions, dismissals, deaths and expenditure of each section for the year ending 1st January, 1839 :—

SECTIONS.	Receptions.	Dismissals.	Deaths.	Remaining.	Mortality per cent.	Cost in English Money.
General Hospital	20,545	16,283	2,678	1,584	13·02	£28,022 4 0
Lying-in } Mothers ..	4,766	4,334	176	256	3·69	} 3,601 10 0
Hospital { Children..	4,386	4,073	200	113	4·56	
Lunatic Asylum	533	138	71	324	13·36	} 10,244 12 0
Ditto at Ybbs	350	4	27	319	7·71	
Foundling Hospital *	16,833	1,832	3,525	11,476	20·94	43,297 16 0
Total	47,413	26,664	6,677	14,072	14·02	£85,166 2 0

* This number includes also those at nurse in the country parts.

CHAPTER XIII.

THE VETERINARY INSTITUTION AND JOSEPHINUM
ACADEMY.

THE VETERINARY INSTITUTION—ITS PROGRAMME OF STUDY—ITS EDUCATION: DIFFERENT DESCRIPTIONS OF—VARIETY OF PRACTITIONERS—JOSEPHINUM MILITARY ACADEMY—DESCRIPTION OF THE INSTITUTION—ITS ERECTION—CHARACTER OF ITS EDUCATION—HOSPITAL—CLINQUES—OPHTHALMIC CLINIQUE OF PROFESSOR JÆGER—ITS RECOMMENDATION—STATISTICS—PECULIARITIES OF ITS TREATMENT—THE CURE OF PANUS—EGYPTIAN OPHTHALMIA—DR. JÆGER'S PRIVATE COURSE—HIS OPERATIONS FOR CATARACT, RECLINATION, DEPRESSION, DISTENSION, AND EXTRACTION—ARTIFICIAL PUPIL—JOSEPHINUM ANATOMICAL MUSEUM—WAX PREPARATIONS—AUSTRIAN ARMY-SURGEONS.

AMONG the many noble institutions of this great country, well-arranged, and liberally endowed as they are, there is none that stands more prominently forward in a sanatory point of view, than the system of veterinary education, and the veterinary institute of Vienna. This truly imperial establishment, the *Thierarzenei-Institut*, is beautifully situated in one of the extensive suburbs that surround the capital; it was erected in 1823, chiefly through the instrumentality of the late Protomedicus, Baron Stifft, who, whatever may have been his failings in other respects, certainly used the great influence he possessed with the late emperor to effect much good in erecting many valuable medical institutions in the kingdom. It is now placed under the direction of the university, and it must be confessed, that the education of

the horse doctor is, in many respects, superior to that of the *Wundarzt*.

This is both a military and civil academy for the education of the *Veterinaires* of the Austrian army, and also the country epizootic and general veterinary practitioners, the majority of whom are paid government officers.

The organization of this institution published in 1824, and of that at Milan in 1837, occupy a considerable space in the catalogue of laws that regulate the medico-chirurgical studies, and show the great interest they at present receive from the Austrian government. This institution is governed by a director, Dr. G. T. Eckel—a learned and ingenious man—and also five ordinary and four extraordinary professors. The state supports four pensioners, or bursars, at a yearly salary of 300 florins in the establishment, who subsequently fill the offices of provincial *Thierärzte*; and also eighteen military pupils;—the period of study is, three years for the former and two for the latter.

The course of education is adapted to all who study medicine in any of its departments, as well as to the special practitioners in the diseases of domestic animals, cavalry-officers, horse-trainers, land-bailiffs, and agriculturalists, smiths and farriers, inspectors of meat-markets, sheep and cattle-doctors, shepherds and huntsmen, &c. A portion of the veterinary course is attended by the students in the higher branches of medicine and surgery, as those of this class who may have graduated in the veterinary institute are invariably preferred in making the appointment of district physician, and great num-

bers of the medical men, in the remote and country parts, are also *Approbirte Thierärzte*.

The institute itself is very extensive, and is in most admirable order; it is not confined to the education of mere horse-doctors, but possesses hospitals and cliniques for the reception of every description of cattle and domestic animals. The only establishment of the kind that at all equals it, is that at Alfort, near Paris.

There is a good library, an extensive collection of surgical instruments, shoes, and shoeing apparatus, and one of the most interesting museums of comparative anatomy in Vienna—indeed, this is the only school where that useful and necessary branch of science is taught. The collection of monstrosities among the lower animals, as well as that of the native Mammifers of Austria, in this department is well worthy of the inspection of the curious. The course of instruction is divided into the ordinary and extraordinary lectures, in the following manner :—

FIRST YEAR.

- 1.—Natural History and the Hygiene of domestic mammiferous animals; daily, from 9 to 10 o'clock, during the months of October and November, by Professor J. E. Veith.
- 2.—Anatomy and Physiology of the Horse and other domestic animals; 10 to 11, daily, for six months. Professor, Jos. Hörmann.
- 3.—Theory of Hoof and Cloven-foot Farriery; October and November, daily from 11 to 12. Professor, Joh. Langenbacher.
- 4.—Elements of Chemistry and Physics; December to February, daily, 11 to 12. Professor, Dr. A. L. Buchmüller.

- 5.—General Pathology and Therapeutics; April, May, and June, daily, from 11 to 12. Professor, Dr. A. L. Buchmüller.
- 6.—Medicine; May and July, daily, 9 to 10. Professor, Dr. A. L. Buchmüller.

SECOND YEAR.

- 7.—Medical Clinique (in *Krankenstellen*); five times a week, during the Winter Semester from 7½ to 8½, and in the Summer Semester from 6½ to 7½, by Professor Hayne.
- 8.—Surgical Clinique; at the same hours during a similar period. Professors, Hayne and Langenbacher.
- 9.—General and Special Veterinary-surgery; three months, from December to April, five times a week, from 11 to 12 o'clock, by Professor Veith.
- 10.—Special Nosology and Therapeutics, for diseases of domestic animals; eight months, from 8 to 9 in summer, and 9 to 10 in winter, by Professor Hayne.
- 11.—On the care and management of Studs; March and April, daily, 9 to 10 o'clock. Professor Langenbacher.
- 12.—Upon the external Anatomy of the Horse; in May, daily, from 9 to 10 o'clock. Professor Langenbacher.
- 13.—Surgical Operations; in June, daily, 9 to 10. Professor Langenbacher.
- 14.—Judicial Veterinary Medicine; May and June, daily, 11 to 12, by Professor Veith.
- 15.—Repetition of Anatomy and Physiology; during the entire year, as in former course.
- 16.—Dispensary or Ordination (in *Krankenstellen*); daily, 4 to 5, during entire course. Professors, Langenbacher and Hayne.
- 17.—Epidemics, Epizootics, and Veterinary Police; four months, three times a week, 5¼ to 6¼. Professor Hayne.
- 18.—Instruction for Police Agents, Sanatory Officers, and Meat Inspectors; May and June, three times a week, 6 to 7. Assistant-Professor, B. Stütz.*

* The assistant professors are here denominated *Correpetitors*, and receive from four to seven hundred florins yearly.

- 19.—Instruction for Shepherds and Herdsmen; October and November, daily, 6 to 7. Correpetitor Stütz.
- 20.—Instruction for Huntsmen; April and May, twice a week, 6 to 7. Correpetitor Stütz.

Graduated physicians and approved surgeons (*Approbirte Wundärzte*) need not attend the lectures No. 4.

Physicians and surgeons wishing to become district officers, as *Kreisärzte und Kreiswundärzte*, must attend the lectures No. 17.

Riding-masters, horse-breakers, &c. must attend the lectures Nos. 1, 2, 3, 11, 12, and 14.

Land-bailiffs and agriculturists, Nos. 1 and 17.

Smiths and farriers, who take out a two-years' course, attend those from 1 to 17, inclusive; and such, attending but one year, frequent the lectures Nos. 2, 3, 6, 7, 8, and 10.

A course of repetition lectures is likewise delivered during the entire year, upon anatomy by Dr. Rabbas; hoof-farriery, by Herrn J. Berner; chemistry and physics, by Dr. Blaiwais; nosology and therapeutics, by the same; veterinary-surgery, by Herrn Stütz; and the external anatomy of the horse, by Herrn Berner.

This course is chiefly intended for the military smiths and farriers (*Curschmiede*).

The value of such an institution in an agricultural and cattle country like Austria is too manifest to require comment.

A reference to the foregoing programme of study shows us that there are many descriptions of veterinary practitioners distributed throughout the country—first, the general medical practitioners who may have gradu-

ated in the *Thierarzenei-Institut*: second, the special veterinary practitioners, who must also be surgeons, (*Approbirte Thierärzte*); smiths and farriers (*Gelernte Schmiede*); land-bailiffs, agriculturalists, and managers of estates (*Landwirthe und Oekonomen*), who must have received a previous good general education, and have attended lectures upon agriculture in a university or lyceum; equerries and riding-masters (*Officier, Beretire und Stallmeister*); as also cattle and meat inspectors (*Vieh-und Fleischbeschauer*), whose business it is to inspect the markets, as well as to examine all cattle exposed for sale—these persons are generally butchers; herds and shepherds (*Hirten und Schafmeister*); and, lastly, huntsmen (*Jäger*), whose business it is to attend more particularly to the treatment of dogs;—the whole being committed to the care of a *Landes-Thierarzt*, an immediate government officer placed under the direction of the *Protomedicus*. There is one *Landes-Thierarzt*, with a salary of six hundred florins, in every province, who furnishes sanitary reports from each district to the general medical direction.

With the brief description of one more medical institution, the Josephinum Military Academy, I close this portion of my work. In 1785, Joseph II. founded an institution for the education of military physicians in the Alservorstadt, adjoining the general hospital. It is one of the most truly imperial establishments in the city; and consists of a school of medicine and an extensive hospital for the soldiery of the large garrison of Vienna. The former, which is perfect in itself, and confers degrees in like manner with the university, has

long been celebrated. Many of its professors, both at present and in former times, acquired European reputation. The system of its education is founded upon the principles of that in the university; and its different museums (particularly that for wax anatomical preparations, which is with one exception, unrivalled among the collections of the Continent,) are extensive and valuable. There are 13 professors, and 321 pupils; of whom 151 are pensioners upon the state, at a cost of 16,023 florins: the entire expenses of the institution being 49,513 florins, or £4,951 6s. 0d. sterling. The emperor whose name it bears perceiving the great want of properly-educated military surgeons in the war of 1778, engaged the service of the celebrated Brambilla, author of the "*Instrumentarium Chirurgicum*," to establish a school of medicine for the special purpose of supplying medical men to the Austrian army. Brambilla, the military Van Swieten and the father of Austrian surgery, drew up a code of laws for its arrangement, and was appointed its first director, as well as professor of surgery.

The building is one of the finest in the capital, and, standing opposite the open space of the Glacis, has a grand and imposing effect. Over the front entrance is the following inscription—"Munificentia et Auspiciis Imp. Cæs. Josephi II. P. F. Schola Medico-Chirurgica, militum morbis et vulneribus curandis sanandisque instituta æde et omni supellectile salutaris artis instructa Anno R. S. 1785." It was opened in 1785, and a large gold medal was struck to commemorate the event.

This institution is quite separate from, and uncon-

nected with, either the university or faculty of medicine; it is under the immediate control and direction of the minister of war, and its expenses are entirely defrayed out of the state treasury. In the beginning of this century two of its professors, Zang and J. A. Schmidt, acquired considerable reputation; and at present it boasts among its teachers many of the most distinguished medical men in Vienna, foremost among whom stands Frederick Jäger, undoubtedly the most renowned oculist of our day. The course of study for both the higher and second class practitioners is organized upon the same plan as that adopted by the Civil Medico-Chirurgical Direction: the lectures occupy the same time, and are given at nearly the same hours. The following is a list of the professors:—

Botany, zoology, and the elementary studies—Dr. J. Dreyer. Anatomy—Dr. An. Römer, who is also vice-director. Physiology—Dr. A. J. R. Bischoff. Chemistry—Dr. Beissky. Pathology and materia medica, &c.—Dr. Jos. Zlatarowitsch. Medicine—Dr. S. Schroff. Surgery—Dr. Michl. Hager. Ophthalmology—Dr. F. Jäger. Legal medicine—Dr. P. Wagner. Midwifery—Dr. Schwarzer.

In addition to these, the elementary subjects in the course for *Wundärzte* are taught by Dr. Franz Mandle; physiology and therapeutics, Dr. Willerding; and the medical clinique, by Dr. Weidler. There are two medical cliniques, one surgical, an ophthalmic, and an obstetric clinique—the surgical one is small, and contains but twelve or fifteen beds. The hospital, which is very extensive, and in immediate connexion with the academy,

is clean and well-ordered, and ventilated: the different diseases in it are all arranged in separate and special departments: thus there are wards exclusively set apart for fever, others for rheumatism, exanthemata, eruptions and diseases of the skin, venereal, affections of the chest; and one large ward for ophthalmic maladies, with twenty-six beds, all exclusive of the several cliniques.

The lecture-rooms and operating-theatre are spacious and well arranged. The dissecting-rooms are small, and placed behind the *Irrenthurm* and the general hospital.

The obstetric department contains one ward of fifteen beds, and a delivery-chamber with one bed; *Schwangere* are admitted during the latter months of pregnancy, as in the *Krankenhaus*: the annual number of deliveries is about eighty: these females are chiefly soldiers' wives (so called) and a few others, who are received upon paying twelve kreutzers daily; some are even admitted gratuitously, so that here, also, I find the majority of females are delivered of illegitimate offspring. There is in this chamber a curious specimen of an old delivery-chair worthy of examination, and also a weighing-machine, in which each infant is weighed immediately after its birth.

Non-military persons can be admitted into the different cliniques of this hospital, on paying a sum of twelve kreutzers daily, and in some instances even without payment, upon producing a certificate of extreme poverty. There are separate wards and several small single chambers for the reception of sick officers.

In the winter season the stranger will here have a good opportunity of witnessing the effect of frost-bites upon a very extensive scale. During my stay in Vienna, in 1839 and 1840, there occurred no less than ten deaths from this cause (soldiers frozen to death on their posts) in one fortnight, although the sentries are changed at this time of the year every hour. The Ranmer thermometer then ranged from 18° below the freezing point in the town, to 23° at the lines, and in the country parts.

The syphilitic division contains one hundred and thirty beds—the wards are lofty, clean, airy, and comfortable. The Austrian soldiers are inspected every week, but even with this vigilance they frequently contrive to evade detection, from their objection to the confinement of an hospital; those who do so are punished, and of these the visitor will recognise many with “*morbis flagellatio*” marked in very legible characters upon their *glutæi*, as well as on the board which hangs over each bed, specifying the disease and treatment, &c. The character of these venereal affections closely resembles that in the civic hospital, of which I have already spoken, consisting of simple excoriations, slight venereal ulcerations, aphthous sores and condylomata, and chancres throwing out exuberant granulations during the healing process; there were also some ill-conditioned buboes, and two or three severe phagedenic ulcerations in the inguinal regions. Of secondary symptoms there were very few, and these chiefly consisted of papular eruptions; but of rupiæ and the severer forms I saw but one case, that of a node on the forehead. The

treatment here is nearly the same as that in the civil hospital, but in addition to the strict antiphlogistic plan, very minute, almost homœopathic doses of mercury are administered in cases of chancre, in the form of Hahnemann's *Mercuria Solubilis*, or grey oxide of mercury, made by precipitating the proto-muriate of mercury with caustic ammonia; of this, doses of one-fourth of a grain are administered daily. In the secondary cases the *Decoctum Zitmannii* is administered, and in the more advanced forms the one-sixteenth of a grain of muriate of mercury is given in the twenty-four hours; and both the primary and secondary sores, including the condylomata, are touched with a solution of the same remedy twice a day.

The great object of attraction to the foreigner in the Josephinum academy, is the ophthalmic clinique of Dr. Jäger, which is conducted on the same plan as that of Rosas in the civil hospital; it contains two wards with eleven male and eleven female beds: the students are those educating for medical officers of the Austrian army; and the patients are soldiers and their families.

Dr. Frederick Jäger, the son of a physician of Mergentheim, in Würtemberg, was the favourite pupil, and afterwards the assistant of Beer. He resided in Vienna in the former capacity in 1808, and on taking his doctor's degree at Landshut,* in the same year, he wrote an inaugural dissertation on "The Diagnosis of Arthritic

* The University of Landshut was transferred to Munich in 1826.

and Syphilitic Inflammation of the Eye." From 1808 to 1812, he continued the assistant of the great Austrian oculist, who speaks thus of him in the little work already quoted, *Geschichte der Augenheilkunde*: "Since then," *i. e.* from 1808 to 1812, "he was uninterruptedly my assistant, and so advantageously distinguished himself by his diligent application, that he not only (under my direction) undertook in private the extraction of a cataract, but also publicly in the clinical school, operated successfully, by means of the same operation, on both eyes of John Haas, a man aged fifty-five, on the 19th of June, 1812." In the same year Jäger published his "*Dissertatio de Karatonyxidis Usu*,"* in which he records the results and descants upon the merits of nineteen operations for cataract by keratonixis. On the death of J. A. Schmidt, Dr. Jäger was appointed special professor of ophthalmology to the Josephinum academy, a place he still continues to hold; as an operator he has obtained nearly the same exalted reputation enjoyed by his master; and his private teaching is at present one of the greatest attractions in Vienna.†

The clinique opens at eleven and ends at one, and as the Josephinum is separated from the *Krankenhaus* by

* *Dissertatio de Karatonyxidisu, quam pro facultate praxeos medicæ in ditionibus Austriacis exercendæ rite, obtinenda in antiquissima ac celeberrima Universitate Vindobonensi disquisitioni publicæ submittit. Fridericus Jäger, 1812, Vienna.*

† Jäger subsequently became the son-in-law of Beer, whose library, preparations, and instruments, he thus inherited. His elder brother Dr. Carl Jäger, a man of much learning, also practises as an oculist in Vienna.

only a narrow lane (the Kirchengasse), a few minutes' walk will conduct the ophthalmic student to it from the school of Rosas. Between the wards of this clinique there is a spacious hall into which the patient who is to be examined is conducted by the *Ordinarius*, or pupil under whose care he is placed, who first details the history of the case (in German, no Latin being spoken in this institution), and then proceeds to describe the subjective symptoms; and lastly, the description of the existing appearances, both normal and diseased, and concludes with the diagnosis, prognosis, and treatment. He is then questioned upon the case by the professor, who generally makes some observations on the peculiarity of each example of disease, as it presents itself in the person so examined. The second hour is usually occupied with operations. Finally, those patients not able to be removed from their beds are visited by the professor and his class. Public examinations of all the pupils are occasionally held, and the ophthalmic assistant gives a course of lectures on the operative surgery of the eye twice a week. Connected with this clinique, there is an extensive Ambulatorium for extern patients, or indeed for all who choose to offer themselves: and around the professor's chair will be found medical men of every country in Europe, as well as America, attracted by the splendour of his operations, and personally attached to him by the invariable kindness and winning urbanity of his manner.

In the year 1839, the number of patients treated in this clinique was 128, these were all cases of interest and importance, and were chosen from out of the wards

of the entire hospital. The number treated in the ambulatorium in that year was 238.

The following table exhibits the number and variety of cataracts, with their results, treated in the Josephinum academy in the same year :

	Admitted.	Cured.	Relieved.
Lenticular.....	52	45	7
Capsular	9	4	5
Capsulo-lenticular	10	10	"
Secondary.....	1	1	"
Total.....	72	60	12

Cataract and amaurosis are diseases of very frequent occurrence in Vienna ; as also, arthritic affections of the eyes, particularly arthritic iritis, whereas the syphilitic form of that disease is very rare in comparison with other countries, but especially Great Britain, only three cases of it having presented in the Josephinum Eye Clinique in the year 1840.

During the warm season severe ophthalmias predominate more than with us, and many of them run rapidly into the purulent, or even the Egyptian form, particularly among the soldiery. The hot winds laden with quantities of fine dust, very similar to that in Egypt and other parts of the Levant, which prevail during the summer months, and are so annoying upon the Glacis and in the Vorstadt of this great city, are, no doubt, a fruitful source of ophthalmia to the Viennese. Chronic keratitis, the *Pannus* of con-

tinental writers, is also very common here, and has received of late years much attention from the German oculists.*

It is a matter of regret, that a man possessing the experience and opportunities of Dr. Jäger, has not favoured

* The treatment of pannus or chronic cornitis, by producing a new inflammation through inoculation with the matter of *ophthalmia neonatorum*, though almost unknown in these countries, has been employed for many years in Germany; and has lately attracted particular attention from its mention and recommendation in the work of Dr. D. F. Piringer, oculist to the hospital at Grätz, "*Die Blennorrhæ am Menschenauge*," and in particular, in the chapter "*Die Heilung des Pannus durch Einimpfung der Ophthalmoblennorrhæ*."

Prior to the appearance of this very laborious work, so admirable in its symptomatology, our attention was directed to the subject by Professor Jäger, in whose clinique we had an opportunity of observing two cases so treated in November, 1840.

Both of these patients, one an officer, aged twenty-four, the other a soldier, aged twenty-seven, had been afflicted with this most untractable malady in its most severe form for many months, one indeed, for years. In both cases the cornea strongly resembled a piece of *red cloth*, being highly vascular to the naked eye; and numerous other fine vessels becoming perceptible on viewing it with a moderate lens; the intervals between the vessels, as seen with the lens, being opaque, greyish, and similar to ground glass, and the whole surface apparently raised above its normal height. In both of these there was considerable conjunctivitis, some photophobia and epiphora, and but little abnormal discharge; both eyes of these persons were similarly affected, and it is needless to add, that they were unable to "find their way," or pursue their usual occupations. They were of scrofulous habits, their general health much impaired, and the usual remedies had been resorted to without any permanent improvement. Upon the 19th of Nov. Jäger inoculated one of these cases, by placing a camel's hair

the profession with more of his observations and opinions ; for with the exception of some scattered articles in journals and medical periodicals, he wrote nothing

pencil, containing some of the matter of ophthalmia neonatorum, previously moistened over the steam of warm water, between the eyelids. In this instance a glutinous viscid mucous discharge was perceptible upon the ciliæ and palpebral margin within *one hour and a half* from the time of the application of the matter, which, from its minuteness and solubility, could not have acted as a foreign body.

This discharge continued to increase without any other symptom till exactly the twenty-fourth hour from the date of the inoculation, when the pain, swelling, and other symptoms of purulent ophthalmia set in. On visiting him at the thirty-sixth hour, in addition to the above, there was lachrymation, great intolerance of light, the ciliæ gathered into packets, and clotted with the discharge, which was then profuse and muco-purulent ; and the superior palpebræ were swollen, ædematous, and of a purplish-red colour, deepening towards their margins, which overhung the lower ones. On opening the lids, the conjunctiva scleroticæ was redder than before, swelled and slightly chemosed, but *not so florid* as is usual in cases of common ophthalmia ; the cornea was sunk, muddy, and of a *lighter colour* than prior to the application of the infection, and flocculi of whitish lymph matter floated out on the discharge. Leeches, purging, fermentations, confinement to bed in a modified light, and the other usual anti-phlogistic remedies were had recourse to, and on the chemosis increasing, incisions were made in it with the scissors. To transcribe the notes of the progress of this and the second case, similarly treated, and attended with very similar symptoms, would prolong this notice to an inconvenient length. In both instances the inflammation ran very high, and very active measures had to be resorted to. In one, ulceration of the cornea took place ; finally, however, *i. e.* at the end of about ten weeks, after frequent minor attacks of fresh inflammation, they both recovered, with slight opacity of the cornea, and left the hospital with very

from the date of the work already quoted at page 248, till last year, when, owing to the great ravages of the so-styled Egyptian ophthalmia in the Austrian army,

useful vision; and although much broken in health, free from pain in the eyes.

To Jäger is undoubtedly due the introduction of this mode of treating pannus, as well as granular lids, and old standing cases of general scrofulous vascularity of the conjunctiva, covering both lids and globe, &c. He stated to us that he first tried it thirty years ago, when assistant to Beer, (but without his knowledge,) and has cured hundreds by it. He says that he has always found that the newly-produced disease is never so violent when another affection has possession (as he terms it) of the organ.

Unless it be homœopathically, the *modus operandi* of this method of cure is no doubt very difficult to explain; but certain it is, that in a great number of cases, when the purulent ophthalmia ceases, the previously existing opacity and vascularity of the cornea clears off along with it. Can it be that the chemosis which forms round the margin of the cornea, and which would, in all probability, destroy that structure in an eye previously healthy, acts only so far upon the diseased one, (by cutting off the abnormal supply of blood sent into it through the enlarged vessels,) that it retains a sufficiency of vitality to preserve it till the inflammation has subsided; and then, that the process of adhesion and lymph deposit round the cornea like an *arcus senilis*, prevents a recurrence of the old affection, when the produced one has been removed?

Dr. Piringer has related a number of very interesting cases, illustrative of the foregoing remarks, well worth the perusal of the oculist. In one, he had to inoculate three times before inflammation took place. First, on the 20th of June, with freshly taken infection;—no alteration taking place he again applied it on the 23rd and 25th, but without effect;—finally, however, on the 26th, he made a third trial with the very same matter, a portion of that originally taken from a new-born infant, and suc-

he was called upon by the government to draw up a memoir on that subject, shortly before his visit to the Crown Prince of Hanover (*Die Eyphtische Augenentzündung—Ophthalmia Egyptica—Zufolge Allerhöchsten Auftrags—von Friederich Jäger*). A passing notice of this little work, may not be out of place here; for although the opinions therein advocated, have not been noticed in the English periodicals, they have given rise to much discussion in Germany.

The outline of the history, and, in particular, the enumeration of the symptoms of this disease, are detailed with remarkable acuteness. He admits, that in general the latter are those of the common catarrhal ophthalmia in the first instance, on the basis of which (as he expresses it) the Egyptian form developes itself. The earliest appearances, he says, are, that the conjunctiva palpebrarum *on the border of the tarsus* loses its healthy aspect, its transparency, and its pale pink colour; becomes dry, and the meibomian secretion ceases; it then shows a deep and uniform redness—the red-

ceeded. In this case the disease showed itself fully in thirty-six hours, and in forty-eight it was perfectly established.

This remedy is no doubt a severe one; but there are few persons afflicted with this disease in an aggravated form, who would not submit willingly to it.

It will be advisable to procure the infection, if possible, from a case of pure ophthalmia neonatorum, and not that arising from gonorrhœa.

The German writers recognise two forms of pannus: the *Dünne Augenfell* (pannus membranaceus), and the *Dicke oder fleischige Augenfell* (pannus carnosus, seu sarcomatosus.)

ness of inflammation—still unattended with secretion of any kind, and, instead of the healthy shining appearance, it becomes opaque and rough, like muffed or slightly ground glass.* If in a few hours the lids be everted, the conjunctiva lining them will exhibit a blueish-red, sometimes a dark purple colour. At the same time,

membrane itself swells, and the papillary bodies upon its surface (*corpora papillaria*) become more developed, hypertrophied, of a firm, round, tightly compressed form, and stand out prominently from the tunic on which they are placed, resembling very much the granulations in a wound, visibly raised above the surface.

The absence of distinct stages, and the other symptoms he mentions, are those remarked by most writers on the subject; but by the *early* development and granular appearance of this villous layer of the conjunctiva (the *Papillarkörper*) it is that he diagnoses *the Egyptian from all other ophthalmias*.

The professor coincides with the opinions we have already expressed, as to the predisposing and exciting causes of this disease, at least as it presented itself to us in Egypt.† Among the former of these, he mentions excess of light, wind, sand, smoke, or ammoniacal vapours carried into the atmosphere, mechanical irritants, over use of the eyes, excess in vinous

* A good method of examining the appearance of the tarsal margin in the healthy eye, is to look closely into a piece of highly polished concave speculum metal.

† Narrative of a voyage to Madeira and the Mediterranean. Vol. i. p. 330.

liquors,* bad food, suppressed perspiration, and the previous existence of catarrhal disease, whether of an endemic or epidemic nature. To these causes, which are those which likewise produce the common catarrhal ophthalmia, he adds, *miasma* and *contagion* as productive of the Egyptian affection.

We have already remarked elsewhere, upon the probability of this *miasma* arising from the noxious exhalations that take place on the fall of the Nile, and at the season of the Khumáséen winds. With respect to the contagion, he does not consider it at all necessary for the matter to be applied to the eye, but thinks that it is volatile, *i. e.*, that the discharge, especially when it becomes foetid, gives off its infecting particles that first affect the tarsal margin of the lids, and produce this already-described morbid growth from the conjunctiva. Dr. Jäger has several times pointed out this early granular appearance to us, and the remarkable round distinct form that these bodies subsequently present in the after-stages of the disease. But we must confess, that although we have had opportunities of examining many hundreds of Egyptians so affected, both at Alexandria and in the hospitals at Cairo, it did not seem to us that these *Papillarkörper* were at all necessary to constitute true Egyptian ophthalmia ; or that the subsequent granulations differed in any way from those that result from other

* The Austrian soldiery are particularly liable to the Egyptian ophthalmia on the first use of the newly-made country wines. This was also the opinion of Beer.

causes.* Dr. Rigler was at the period of my visit the assistant in the Josephinum Eye Clinique.

The most advisable course to be pursued by those who visit Vienna solely for the sake of the eye practice, is to attend Rosas from ten to half-past eleven; a few minutes' walk will then conduct them to the school of Jäger, where they should remain till half-past twelve or one o'clock. From one to two, Jäger holds a public *Ordination*, as it is termed, at his own house, for the reception of patients from among the middling classes, and to which he generally invites professional strangers, but to which his private pupils always have access. Much may be learned here of his private practice; and all foreigners should, if possible, witness it. Strangers are admitted, free of cost, into the eye clinique, both in the general hospital and the military academy.

We now arrive at the most attractive portion of the course, and by far the most valuable part of the education given in eye surgery—the private course of instruction in operating, which occupies the hour from two to three daily, at the professor's house, when eyes can be procured; and for this a stated sum is required.

Jäger takes but six pupils at a time, and these are almost invariably foreigners, either private individuals, or persons sent by their governments or universities.†

* A very severe critique appeared on this portion of his work, in the "Oesterreichisch medizinische Jahrbücher," for autumn 1840, edited by Professor Rosas.

† Among the oculists of the Viennese school now practising in England, are Dr. Mackenzie, of Glasgow, Mr. T. Wharton Jones and Dr. Franz, of London, Dr. R. Hamilton of Edinburgh, and Dr. R. Dudgeon, of Liverpool.

This course, popularly termed a *Privatissima*, generally lasts about three months. Of the advantages it offers, it is enough for the present to say, that there is no such inducement held out to visit any other continental school, and of its teacher, we may add in the words of a late writer on the subject—“*und was Allen bekannt ist, mag genügen, dass Niemand seinen Unterricht ohne Befriedigung genossen hat.*”

As the operations for cataract and artificial pupil are those for which the professor has become most celebrated, and as they are those in which the peculiarities of his *modus operandi* are least generally known, it may not be uninteresting to detail them here, after the manner in which they are taught to the students of his private class. Dr. Jäger was the first to introduce and teach ophthalmic operations, by means of the *Phantom* or mask, an instrument now very generally known in this country, and which was invented by an artist in Vienna. In the use of instruments, the system of manipulation taught by him, is as accurate and complete as that of penmanship, engraving, drawing, playing on the piano-forte, or any other art requiring a free, steady, dexterous, yet delicate and unembarrassed action of the fingers, the result of practice and experience, tact, mechanical taste, and an educated touch, added to confidence, and that quick and minute perfection of vision so necessary in all who would themselves restore that faculty to others. In fact, by this system, he has reduced the mode of performing operations upon the eye to a geometric science, the value of which may be learned, but is difficult to explain. In *all* his operations, the patient is seated

upon a low stool, opposite the professor, with the head resting against the breast of an assistant who raises the upper lid. Jäger operates equally well with both hands, and I have frequently seen him in extracting, pass the knife from the right into the left hand, and complete the section of both corneæ within fifty seconds.

Both in operating and in teaching, he lays much stress upon the position and motions of the fingers of both hands. If operating upon the left eye, he depresses and secures the lower lid, and, at the same time, gently fixes the globe with the middle and index fingers of the left hand, the former resting against the side of the nose, and the ring and little finger occupying a position somewhat lower upon the opposite cheek, while the thumb rests against the chin. The knife or needle is grasped between the thumb and middle finger of the right hand, the index finger being placed in contact with and behind the middle, almost as the pen is held in writing, but the last or ungual joint of the thumb must remain invariably stiff and extended. The handle of an instrument so held, crosses the last or ungual joint of the index finger obliquely. The ring and little fingers of the right hand are retained close together, but separate from the others, semiflexed in all their joints, and turned towards the palm of the hand, and so maintain that position unmoved, while the others perform the motion produced by following the abduction and adduction of the thumb; in doing which, the point of the instrument moves not in the section of a circle, as must occur when the last joint of the thumb is flexed, but in a straight horizontal line; the fore-arm

is slightly pronated, and the wrist bent considerably backward. This motion is, it is true, at first difficult to attain, more especially that of retaining the thumb stiff, and the two last fingers semiflexed and unmoveable; but having by practice once mastered it, it gives the operator a power which no other method possesses. In operating, the back of the two last phalanges of the ring and little fingers rest on the cheek and malar bones, their points pressing against the last phalanx of the left index finger, in which position, it is evident that a secure support is formed for the motions of the remaining fingers and thumb.

The blades of all the needles used by German oculists are much longer than those in general use in Great Britain, the advantages of which in the hands of a good operator, held as I have described, are obvious.

Jäger's cataract operations consist in Reclination, Depression, Distission or Solution, Dislaceration, and Extraction. The instrument used for Reclination is a straight spear-pointed needle, an inch and a half long in the blade; the handle square, with the angles taken off, that it may more easily revolve in the fingers, and marked with a black spot opposite one of the flat sides of the blade, that the position of the point may be known when placed within the eye. This needle, held immediately behind the blade, and placed parallel with the horizontal axis of the eye, with the surfaces of its blade looking upwards and downwards, he introduces through the sclerotic, one line from the temporal margin of the cornea, and half a line beneath the equator of the eye, and pointing towards the centre of the globe, so that

in the insertion it may not injure the iris, ciliary body, or retina; having pressed it forward in this position for about a line or a line and a half, and the shoulders of the blade having passed through the incision, the handle is rotated once, in order that the edges of the blade may look upwards and downwards—and this the mark on the handle can determine. The handle is then depressed towards the temporal fossa; while the blade, with its point turned slightly upward, is then passed forward through the posterior chamber till it completely crosses the pupil, by moving the thumb and two first fingers in the manner I have already described; the flat of the blade being then opposed to the anterior surface of the lens, and its point projecting beyond its margin, the cataract is reclined downwards and backwards into the vitreous humour by elevating and bringing forward the handle of the needle, while the sclerotic itself acts as the fulcrum to this delicate lever. In performing this latter portion of the operation, the index finger assumes somewhat of the straight position. Finally, having retained the point of the instrument in this position for a few seconds, it is rotated slightly, and brought out in the same aspect in which it was introduced.

In the operation for Depression the needle is of a similar shape, but slightly curved at its point; the middle and ring fingers rest upon a point nearer the internal canthus, so as to bring the thumb and two first fingers more beneath the eye, and the palm of the hand is turned more backwards, so that when the needle is placed before the eye it crosses the cornea obliquely

from within, outwards and downwards. The operation is commenced by laying the flat convex side of the needle upon the cornea, and drawing it gently across it to a point distant about a line from its inferior and outward margin, where it is quickly introduced, and having passed it into the anterior chamber for something more than half-way across the pupil, in the line already described, the handle is elevated without moving either the hand or wrist, but by raising the index finger to the straight position, which depresses the point of the needle, and with it the lens. In this case the cornea acts as the fulcrum, and the instrument is withdrawn without any rotatory motion.

The Distission or division of the cataract (the Solution, *Keratonyxis* or *Hyalonyxis* of authors) is performed with a straight needle, with a sword-shaped or angular point, and a double-cutting edge introduced *per corneam*, as in the method for depression, then rotated so as to bring the cutting edge at right angles with the lens, which it is made to enter, and divide obliquely once or twice. This is an operation now seldom performed by Jäger.

The Dislaceration is made by introducing the triangular-shaped knife of Jäger,* held in the same manner as the needle in the operation for reclinacion, into the outer margin of the cornea, about a line from its sclerotic

* This is a modification of that used by Beer, but is broader in the shoulder and shorter in the blade—the whole length of the latter not exceeding three-eighths of an inch. This is a most useful instrument in every ophthalmic surgeon's case.

attachment, and through the pupil till it makes a slight cut into the lens. The incision thus made is about three lines in length. A fine iris hook, held in the same position, is laid flat upon the cornea, and drawn along its outer surface till it enters the incision, when it is rotated in the anterior chamber till its point looks directly backward, and being inserted into the wound in the opaque capsule, it lacerates it by being moved with a sawing motion, from within outwards, two or three times. In withdrawing the hook, considerable tact and experience is necessary to prevent its catching either in the iris or the edges of the incision. The most advisable plan is to restore the hook to the position in which it was on entering, and by pressing its flat surface against the internal face of the cornea, thus withdraw it. This operation is only applicable to some cases of capsular or capsulo-lenticular cataract, synechia posterior, or those cases in which extraction or couching would be impossible, and distission or drilling insufficient.

It is, however, in the operation for Extraction that Jäger evinces the greatest dexterity. His knife is similar to that used by Beer, but not so thick on the back, its sides forming a perfectly level surface, and its point being a continuation of the posterior edge, without being levelled off like Beer's.* It is the longest and finest knife at present in use for this operation. He makes the upper section of the cornea; and although Santerelli was the first to invent, to Jäger† is

* See Beer's original work, vol. ii. Vienna, 1817.

† Dr. Jäger informed me that he has practised this method since 1822.

certainly due the credit of having introduced this method into general practice. Among his reasons for its adoption, may be mentioned, that of the upper lid forming a better cover for the wound, there being less liability of prolapsus of the vitrious humour, and when prolapsus of the iris takes place, it leaves the eye in a much better condition for the formation of a new pupil, and the corneal cicatrix interferes less with subsequent vision than when made elsewhere. The knife being held in the same manner as the needle in reclination, with its surface on the same plane with the iris, the punctuation is made very close to the sclerotic, and it is passed with *great rapidity* through the anterior chamber; having made the counter-punctuation, he cuts gently inwards and upwards till the section is completed, except one point, which is cut through by turning the edge of the blade slightly outwards, and drawing it a little backward and upwards. This last action prevents the point of the knife touching the nose, and also avoids the spasmodic action that so frequently takes place upon the completion of the section. This concludes the first stage of the operation. The second, or that of laceration, is made with a straight needle, similar to that used in distission, and with which a crucial incision is made in the capsule; then holding the curette, which is fixed in the same handle with the lacerating needle, beside the outer portion of the corneal section, and the ring and little fingers placed upon the temple, he presses gently with the fore finger of the left hand upon the lower lid, and when the lens appears in the wound he generally relieves it with the curette. If the wound of

the cornea is too small, he re-introduces the knife a little lower down, in preference to the use of either the scissors or curved knife. Jäger makes the incision of the cornea quicker than any operator I am at present acquainted with, and I have never seen him lose the vitrious humour. If the knife has been pushed forward to the fullest extent to which the motion of the fingers will permit, the index finger of the operating hand slides backwards upon the handle, and being followed by the thumb and middle finger, a new and a longer grasp is thus obtained upon the handle, and the section completed without altering the position of the hand or wrist.

The double-bladed knife, invented by Jäger some years ago, is now never used by either himself or his pupils. Its object seems to have been quite misunderstood by those who attempted to modify it in Great Britain; it was never intended for the hands of a first-rate operator who could use with facility a single knife, but for those pupils who found a difficulty in steadying the globe, and safely completing the incision after the counter-punctuation was made.

Jäger performs but two operations for artificial pupil: that of separation of the iris from its ciliary margin, and drawing it through an aperture in the cornea, when the opacity is towards the centre or the outer side; and that of removal of a portion of the pupillary circle of the iris through a lateral and external incision, when the opacity or adhesion is toward the inner side of the cornea.

In the first of these, the *Corodialysis* of Langenbeck,

he divides the cornea with the triangular knife I have already described in the operation for dislaceration, withdraws the iris by means of a single hook, and always leaves the prolapsed or strangled portion in the wound.

He likewise uses the same knife in that for excision, the *Corectomia* of Beer, and divides the cornea as near as possible to its external junction with the sclerotic; draws out the iris by means of a fine curved forceps, held between the index finger and the thumb, the hand being supported by the three other fingers resting upon the zigoma, and then removes the prolapsed portion with curved scissors, held between the thumb and middle finger of the left hand, the back of which rests against the side of the cheek.

In common with all German oculists, he closes the lids after every operation with slips of court plaster, which remain on till the third day. Each operation upon the eye or its appendages, with all its different modifications, is performed again and again by the class, until they have acquired a sufficient degree of dexterity in its manipulations.

Without drawing invidious distinctions between the relative merits of the two great Viennese oculists, it may perhaps be near the truth to say, that while the operations of Jäger are the most splendid exhibitions of eye-surgery in Europe, the general treatment of Rosas is superior; and as far as the history of the science is concerned, the latter is said to be the more learned of the two.

The Josephinum Anatomical Museum has long been considered an object of popular as well as scientific interest to the visitor ;—it is thrown open to the public every Thursday, and amply repays the time spent in its examination.* It consists of fifteen handsome rooms, chiefly occupied by wax models of the human body, the size of nature, and numbering several hundreds. The great majority of these are the production of the Chevaliers Tortona and Mascagni, the celebrated artists of Florence ; and, although many of the minute preparations are by no means in accordance with the present state of accurate anatomical knowledge, yet, as a whole, it is a magnificent collection. In the first chamber, No. 61, we find a most beautiful and extensive arrangement of wax preparations of rare and exotic plants, fruits, and flowers, well worthy the attentive inspection of the botanical student. Each specimen is represented in full flower, and of the natural size ; they are the most life-like imitations of the kind I have ever seen. The

* For the honour of Vienna, I rejoice to say, that females are not admitted to this museum. Whatever may be said or written regarding the morality of the Austrians from the time of Lady Mary Wortley Montague to the present, no matter how their population, statistics, or social society may be altered or influenced by the present state of things, certainly, there is no country in Europe where public decency is better preserved than there. Let any observer walk into the Museum de Duputryen in Paris, and can he there witness, without a blush for the depraved condition of womankind in that city, well-dressed and apparently respectable females, minutely inspecting the spirit preparations, and disgustingly correct models in wax, of the frightful ravages of Lues Venerea upon the faces and genitals of both sexes.

same apartment contains some stuffed mammals, but they are not of much value or interest. The three succeeding rooms, No. 62, 63, and 64, are devoted to a small zoological collection of the animal kingdom down to the Molluscs. From this we enter the splendid lecture theatre, which contains a good picture of the founder of the institution, and also one of the late emperor. The anatomical collection commences in room No. 74, with thirty-seven models of the bones, the skeleton, and the first layer of muscles; to each preparation is attached a copperplate, and a short description. No. 73 contains a continuation of the same subject, and also some very well-executed preparations, placed in the centre of the room, of the superficial veins and absorbents. The attitude of these figures is easy and natural. Here also commences the series of preparations of the viscera and some of the organs of sense; there are fifteen of the eye and orbit; but much inferior to the others. No. 74, abdominal, thoracic, and pelvic viscera, brain, mammæ, and respiratory organs. No. 75, a continuation of the same subject, superficial muscles, spinal axis, ganglionic system; preparations illustrating foetal life, internal structure of bone, arterial system, and morbid anatomy. The next chamber, No. 79, is in another part of the building, it contains the brain and cerebro-spinal system on a more extensive scale; the nerves of the head and trunk—preparations exhibiting the minute structure of nervous matter, nerves and ganglions. No. 80 is a very handsome apartment, with the roof supported by graceful pillars; this is principally occupied by six cases containing models the size

of life, but with one exception, they are of inferior workmanship to the others ; of these—one shows the vessels and general anatomy ; two of males, the deep and superficial absorbents ; and three of females, two of which exhibit the thoracic and abdominal viscera—the third is a Venus, with an apple, in a recumbent posture, showing the external anatomy, it is considered a fine composition, but is much more admired by the Viennese than it deserves. The outline of the figure is good, but in many of its minor details it is very defective, and from the effect of time or other causes, its colour has very much faded. Several rooms in the attic story are occupied by obstetric preparations, shown only to medical men ; they consist of abnormal gravid uteri in spirits, wax models explanatory of midwifery manipulations, spirit preparations illustrative of foetal life, and a large collection of rare monstrosities, among which are two children attached by one funis ; a child with its face looking to the left side, while the external ears look towards the right ; a child with two faces on one head—the faces look right and left ; a child with closed meatus auditorius externus, &c., &c., besides the usual arrests of development generally found in such collections.

The Austrian army is well supplied with medical officers. All students educated in the Josephinum are obliged to enter the service for fourteen years, and those who do so from any of the civil institutions serve eight years, after which period both become entitled to a pension of full pay for life.

Physicians or surgeons who may have graduated in

any of the civil institutions, must make a *regrosum*, or examination in the Josephinum, before they are admissible into the army. The preparatory education of the Josephinum academy is similar to that required in the Lyceums and Universities. Those who have taken out a philosophy course are eligible to the degree of M.D., and become at the same time doctor of surgery, and oculist, and accoucheur; those who have only passed the grammar classes of the inferior schools, cannot rise higher than the degree of *Unterarzt*, which is equivalent to that of *Wundarzt* among the civilians. The medical staff officers consist of *General-Stabsärzte* and *Regiments-aerzte*. Each regiment (containing above 1000 men) is allowed one *Regiments Arzt* and three *Oberärzte*, one to each battalion, under whom are placed several *Unterärzte*. The first and second class must be doctors of medicine and surgery: the pay of the former, who hold the rank of captains, is six hundred florins, or sixty pounds; and of the latter, or *Oberärzte*, two hundred and twenty-eight florins, or twenty-two pounds sixteen shillings yearly.

CHAPTER XIV.

HOMŒOPATHY—POOR LAWS; AND MINOR HOSPITALS
OF VIENNA.

PRESENT STATE OF HOMŒOPATHY IN VIENNA—TRIAL OF ITS POWERS IN 1828—HOSPITAL OF THE SISTERS OF CHARITY—HOMŒOPATHIC TREATMENT OF CHOLERA—STATISTICAL RECORDS OF THE SYSTEM—POOR LAW SYSTEM—SOCIETY OF NOBLE LADIES—POOR HOUSES AND POOR LAW HOSPITALS—ORPHAN HOUSE—STATISTICS OF POOR LAW HOSPITALS—THE BURGER HOSPITAL—INSTITUTION OF THE MERCIFUL BROTHERS—HOSPITALS FOR CLERGY, JEWS, AND CRIMINALS—COMMERCIAL HOSPITAL—INSTITUTION OF THE SISTERS OF ELIZABETH—DEAF AND DUMB ASYLUM—BLIND ASYLUM—HOSPITAL FOR CHILDREN—ORTHOPEDIC INSTITUTION—GENERAL TABLE OF HOSPITAL STATISTICS.

THE present state of homœopathy in Vienna next claims our attention ; and although I neither advocate that doctrine, nor slander its supporters, I deem it but the part of truth and justice to lay the following statement before my readers.

One of the cleanest and best regulated hospitals in the capital is managed on the homœopathic plan. The following circumstances led to its erection :—The rapid spread of this mode of treatment in Austria, and the patronage it received from many noble and influential individuals in that country, attracted the attention of the government several years ago, who, with their characteristic jealousy of innovation, then issued an order forbidding it to be practised. As, however, this had not the effect of suppressing it, but as it seemed rather to gain strength from the legal disabili-

ties under which it then laboured, it was determined in 1828 to test its efficacy in the Military Hospital of the Josephinum. With this view, a commission was nominated, consisting of twelve professors, all of whom, it is but fair to observe, were strenuously opposed to the homœopathic doctrine. Dr. Marrenzellar, a veteran homœopath, and a contemporary of Hahnemann's, was appointed as the physician, and two members of the commission always attended him during his visit, and at the expiration of every ten days reported the progress of the cases under his charge. The only part of the report published is that of Drs. Jäger and Zang : it contains a very brief outline of the cases and their treatment, and expresses the surprise of these eminent professors at the happy issue of some of them.* The commission, however, as a body, came to the conclusion, that from the results obtained from their investigations, it was impossible to declare either for or against homœopathy ; one of the twelve, however, subsequently stated his conviction of the efficacy of the system from these trials, and has since remained an open adherent of it.

Notwithstanding the comparatively discouraging sentence of the commission, the public did not seem altogether to lose their confidence in the new system, and it still retained the patronage of some of the most distinguished nobility, amongst whom were Maximilian

* Vide.—Archive : für die Homöopathische Heilkunst, 18 Bd. 2 Heft.—In this the cases are all detailed, the report of Drs. Jäger and Zang being given.

von Este and Count Condenhove.* In the year 1832, through the exertions and liberality of these noblemen, a colony of the *Barmherzigen Schwestern*, or German Sisters of Charity, was transplanted from the Tyrol to Vienna, and a convent purchased for their reception in the suburb of Gumpendorf, with an hospital containing sixty beds attached to it, which was placed under the charge of Dr. Mayerhoffer, an homœopathic physician. This hospital was opened upon the 6th of July, 1832, for the gratuitous reception of poor patients of every religious persuasion, without any other recommendation than disease : in this respect it approaches nearer to the English hospitals than any other in Vienna. The only exceptions to its admissions are patients affected with venereal, itch, incurable or external diseases, and children under four years of age : it is at present supported solely by voluntary contributions. There are four wards, besides some small extra chambers for bad cases. The beds and bed-furniture, &c. are very much superior to those generally used in hospitals ; the latter consisting, besides the usual straw-bed, of a good hair mattress, a sheet, quilted cotton coverlets, with two pillows, and other minor luxuries, quite unknown in an Austrian hospital. The good ventilation, the extreme cleanness, and the general air

* I mention the names of these personages as a matter of history, without any reference to their capabilities of judging between the truth and error of any system of medical treatment. The trial of St. John Long, in this country, some years ago, shows what a parade of names and titles may be found enlisted in the cause of any ingenious or audacious quack.

of comfort, reminds one more of a domestic chamber than a public institution; except that of St. Louis, at Paris, I have seen nothing like it on the Continent. Attached to it is a pleasant garden and a series of admirable baths. These charitable and benevolent women, the Merciful Sisters of the order of St. Vincent de Paul, are the sole nurses; and I have had many opportunities during my attendance at this institution, of witnessing their kind treatment of those under their care: they also attend gratuitously, as nurses, throughout the city; and by their means, from fifty to eighty persons are fed daily at the gates of the hospital.

From July to November, 1832, cholera patients were alone admitted, and treated on the homœopathic plan: of 193 receptions from this epidemic, 105 recovered and 88 died. From November, 1832, to November, 1833, 266 patients affected with general diseases were received, of whom 213 were cured, 23 died, 8 were dismissed incurable, and 22 remained in hospital. In the years 1833 and 1834, the admissions were 316, the cures 255, deaths 33, dismissed incurable 23, and remained in hospital 27.

In 1834, Dr. Fleischmann, the present physician, was appointed; and in 1836, this hospital, along with all the others in Vienna, was ordered to be fitted up for the reception of cholera patients.

Dr. Fleischmann agreed to continue his charge, on the condition that he was to be permitted to adhere to the homœopathic plan of treatment; to this the government assented; and two District Physicians (allopaths) were appointed to report upon the nature of the cases

taken into this hospital, as well as to observe their course and treatment.

Upon comparing the report made of the treatment of cholera in this hospital, with that of the same epidemic in the other hospitals in Vienna at a similar time, it appeared, that while two-thirds of those treated by Dr. Fleischmann recovered, two-thirds of those treated by the ordinary methods in the other hospitals died.* This very extraordinary result led Count Kolowrat (Minister of the Interior,) to repeal the law relative to the practice of homœopathy, although with that inconsistency which not unfrequently distinguishes the Austrian government; it at the same time enacted the strictest prohibition of all works in favour of the system being published in Austria.

From the year 1832 to the year 1840, the entire number of patients treated in this hospital of the *Barmherzigen Schwestern* was 4422; of these 3758 recovered, 313 died, and 93 were dismissed incurable. But these numbers include also the cholera patients treated in 1832 and 1836. The cases treated in the establishment are of much the same nature as those received into any general medical hospital, and, as may be seen by reference to the annexed return, include a great number of those affected with acute diseases.

* Those who would become acquainted with the homœopathic treatment of cholera, may consult Dr. Quinn's pamphlet, "Du traitement homœopathique du Cholera;" and also "Die Cholera mit dem besten Erfolg bekämpft durch die homœopathische Cur-art.—Bremen, 1835, Geisler."

During the last four years the medical statistics of this hospital were as follows :—

DISEASES.	Receptions.	Recoveries.	Deaths.	Remaining in Hospital.
Small Pox	56	47	8	1
Chlorosis	32	31	..	1
Diarrhœa.....	46	46	..	..
Ophthalmia.....	22	21	..	1
Peritonitis.....	51	46	4	1
Rachitis.....	9	8	1	..
Pneumonia	128	116	8	4
Pleuritis.....	167	161	3	3
Typhus	430	344	63	23
	941	820	87	34

The average number of days spent by each person in hospital was $21\frac{245}{343}$.

The hospital I have now described is the stronghold of homœopathy in Germany. There are above twenty homœopathic physicians now practising in Vienna, several of whom drive their carriages; and among ladies of rank, in particular, this line of treatment seems to be becoming fashionable.

In the year 1841, a small hospital was opened in the Elizabetherin convent, where likewise patients are treated homœopathically: besides these, two inconsiderable hospitals on similar principles have been established, the one at Gyongyos near Pesth, and the other at Güns near Presburg.

In Saxony, in the year 1829, the adherents of this system met at Köthan to celebrate the birth-day of Hahnemann; a collection was made to defray the expenses of the feast, after which it was found that a con-

siderable sum remained, with which it was agreed to found an hospital at Leipzig, to be maintained for five years, in order to afford a public test of the powers of homœopathy, as well as to serve for a school of instruction in that particular branch of medicine. An interesting, and I believe faithful record of the progress and final results of this hospital, from the pen of one on whom I may safely depend, now lies before me, but I feel it would be departing from the line I have hitherto observed of treating solely of Austrian institutions, were I to enter further on this subject. Several homœopathic journals now flourish in Germany.

I have drawn up the statistical part of this paper from the records which I received at the hospital, and from an article of Dr. Fleischmann's in the third number of the "Hygea," an homœopathic periodical, published at Carlsruhe by Dr. Greissalich.

Whatever the opponents of this system may put forward against it, I am bound to say, and I am far from being an homœopathic practitioner, that the cases I saw treated by it in the Vienna hospital, were fully as acute and virulent as those that have come under my observation elsewhere, and the statistics show that the mortality is much less than in the other hospitals of that city. Knolz, the Austrian *Protomedicus* has published those for 1838, which exhibit a mortality of but five or six per cent., while three similar institutions on the allopathic plan, enumerated before it in the same table, show a mortality as high as from eight to ten per cent.—See general table of the Vienna hospitals at the conclusion of this article.

Homœopathy, whatever may be its own merits or demerits, has undoubtedly exercised a beneficial influence upon the allopathic practice of many parts of the Continent, by lessening the enormous doses of medicine formerly prescribed; of this I have given an example at page 71. One of the numbers of the *Allgemeine Zeitung* of Leipzig for 1842, informs us that the university of Brunswick has by a decree of the 22nd March, 1842, appointed Dr. Felitz (an homœopathic practitioner there) to examine all candidates for the degree of doctor of medicine, who have declared their intention of adhering to this system. Hydropathy has already acquired such popularity in this country, as well as in Austria, that it would be superfluous to enter upon the subject here.

In addition to these public, benevolent, and medical institutions, the poor of Vienna have their wants well supplied by means of an admirably-managed system of poor laws, the direction of which is committed to eight priests in the city, twenty-one in the suburbs, and three outside the lines, besides a certain number of citizens denominated "Fathers of the poor," and who, having spent three years in that office, are exempt from all taxes, and receive a gold medal from the government. Medical relief is afforded by a certain number of physicians and surgeons, denominated *Stadtarmenärzte* and *Stadtarmenwundärzte*, of whom there are two of the former and one of the latter within the walls; and in the suburbs there are eight *Polizeibezirksärzte*, and the same number of *Polizeibezirkswundärzte*, besides several paid oculists, who visit the sick, and receive them at their own houses

at certain stated hours daily. The medical men are the persons who recommend paupers for poor-law relief, or procure admission, if necessary for the diseased, into the poor-law or other public hospitals. Fathers are obliged to maintain three children, and mothers one child, before they are entitled to poor-law relief.

The Society of Noble Ladies (*Gesellschaft adeliger Damen*), founded by the Princess Caroline Von Lobkowitz, one of the house of Schwartzenberg, in 1810, forms a minor poor-law in itself, and is one of the most truly charitable institutions in Austria. In 1830 this society afforded relief with both money, clothes, and medical assistance to 812 poor married females during their accouchement; supplied 1049 families with fuel; entirely supported 38 poor families; defrayed the expenses of 230 patients treated in the *Marien* hospital near Baden; supplied 3486 baths to the poor of Vienna; maintained 7 pupils in the deaf and dumb, and 8 in the blind institution; besides 6 in the orphan house, and had 16 girls educated in needle work, &c. &c. Moreover, this society paid for the degrees of 3 poor physicians, 3 surgeons, and 3 midwives, and largely assisted the private girls' schools at Ardlin, and the institution for sick children, belonging to Dr. Löbisch; and likewise afforded premiums to the deaf and dumb asylum, and relieved 84 poor and industrious tradespeople—in all 2,221 persons, with 75,157 florins, or £7,515 14s.

Sick and indigent roomkeepers, being the families and relatives of medical men, are provided for by a fund created by the medical faculty on the occasion of the

jubilee of Stifft, the late *Protomedicus*, in 1834. There are also funds for poor students, invalids, and officers who have served in the campaign of 1813-14.

The poor-law system of Vienna includes out-door relief, such as I have already described, and also a number of hospitals and poor-houses, called *Versorgungshäuser und Grundspitüler*, the Burgher's Hospital of St. Mark, the Orphan House, the deaf and dumb, and blind institutions, as well as the Foundling Hospital—the latter is, however, included in the general *Krankenhausdirection*.

The Orphan House (*Waisenhaus*) was established during the reign of Maria Theresa, in 1742, by an ecclesiastic, Anthon Marxer, and the Hofrath von Kienmayer, who first erected a small institution of this kind in the Landstrasse. The benevolence of this design attracted the attention of the empress, who soon took it under her especial direction, and in 1745 erected the present institution, and endowed it with 300,000 florins, from her private purse, while she expressed her feelings upon the subject in the following memorable words—“*Ich schenke den P. Marxer und seinen Armen das Schloss und die Herrschaft Ebersdorf und dawider soll Niemand etwas einzuwenden haben.*” Many of the Austrian nobles followed her example, and added to its income, till it became capable of holding 400 children—its present number. In 1784, Joseph II. separated the children of the military from this establishment, and transferred it to the Spanish Hospital in the Alser Vorstadt. In 1838 there were 378 children in the institution, and 2930 apprenticed to

trades, but still under the direction of the establishment: the deaths in this year were but 10, and 50 children were apprenticed. The income of the same year amounted to 164,824 florins and 38 kreutzers, and the expenditure 163,221 florins, or £16,322 2s.

There are six *Versorgungshäuser* in Vienna and its suburbs—they are some of the oldest eleemosynary institutions in the city, that in the Währingergasse having been erected in 1656, and renewed in 1744. It contains 38 large, and 8 small wards, with accommodation for 570 patients; that at Alserbache 360; at Langenkeller 104; Mauerbach 682; St. Andrea 388; and at Ybbs 838; besides 214 patients in seven small *Grundspitäler* ;*—making a total of 3,096 paupers resident in these poor-houses in 1839.

Those interested in the management of poor-houses and the sanatory condition of the lower orders, as well as all those engaged upon the subject of medical statistics, will, I am sure, examine with attention the following curious table, which exhibits the number and average duration of 3976 chronic diseases occurring in both sexes at different ages from 20 to 60 and upwards, and the average duration of life in each disease, in the different Viennese poor-houses during the 15 years ending 1st January, 1840:—

* Among the many curious names of things and places, such as *Heilige-geist-strasse*, &c. &c. that have no doubt attracted the attention of travellers, the name of "*zum blauen Herrgott*," attached to the *Grundspital* at Alserbache, is one of the greatest breaches of the first commandment that I have ever met in Germany.

DISEASES.	Number of persons affected.	Ages.									
		20 to 30.					30 to 40.				
		Males.		Females.			Males.		Females.		
		Average Duration.		Average Duration.			Average Duration.		Average Duration.		
		Number.	Years.	Months.	Number.	Years.	Months.	Number.	Years.	Months.	Number.
Age and debility	665	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
General weakness	551	..	..	..	1	2	..	..	..	2	2
Nervous diseases	110	..	..	..	..	..	2	..	3	1	3
Lameness	229	3	3	..	1	13	..	5	2	6	2
Lameness from apoplexy	33	..	..	..	2	2	..	..	..	..	..
Paralysis	107	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	13	..
Epilepsy	94	19	5	..	12	3	2	9	8	..	8
Cramps	14	2	2	5	2	4	..	1	4	..	1
Gout	339	..	..	..	..	..	2	2	5	2	8
Dropsy	102	1	2	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Lung diseases	378	2	..	3	1	2	..	1	..	3	4
Disease of windpipe	4	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Other diseases of the chest	112	..	..	..	1	2	..	3	2	5	..
Spitting of blood	8	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	..
Vomiting of blood	2	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Ulceration	132	5	5	3	1	32	..	3	8	6	4
Caries and disease of bones	76	8	7	2	3	9	7	2	2	..	4
Cancer of the womb	33	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
General cancer	45	..	..	..	2	4	1	..	..	..	1
Scorbutic	28	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Disease of intestines	27	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Piles	12	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Disease of urinary organs	11	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Stone in the kidney	8	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Scrofula	9	5	4	..	..	..	..	2	4	..	1
Rupture	133	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Disease of the joints and spine	72	5	15	7	..	..	..	1	2	..	5
Blindness and disease of the eyes	129	9	1	9	2	25	..	4	10	..	..
Deaf, and deaf and dumb	47	4	4	5	5	1	8	..	..	..	2
Idiocy	126	14	2	3	21	3	5	11	4	..	8
Insanity	340	19	2	5	14	2	5	40	4	..	25

Ages.											General average duration of disease at all ages.						Average duration of Life.								
40 to 50.					50 to 60, and upwards.																				
Males.			Females.		Males.			Females.			Males.		Females.		Both Sexes.		Males.		Females.		Both Sexes.				
Average Duration.		Number.	Average Duration.		Number.	Average Duration.		Number.	Average Duration.		Number.	Average Duration.		Number.	Average Duration.		Number.	Average Duration.		Number.	Average Duration.		Number.		
Years.	Months.		Years.	Months.		Years.	Months.		Years.	Months.		Years.	Months.		Years.	Months.		Years.	Months.		Years.	Months.		Years.	Months.
..	..	..	..	..	264	4	..	401	4	5	4	..	4	5	4	3	74	9	80	..	78	1			
4	..	..	..	..	254	4	2	291	5	1	4	2	5	1	4	7	88	3	86	3	87	4			
1	3	5	3	7	42	2	4	55	5	4	2	2	4	4	3	4	78	8	75	9	77	2			
1	..	11	3	..	94	5	5	109	8	2	4	8	7	7	6	4	75	3	77	6	76	6			
7	5	..	..	..	14	5	..	13	9	..	6	..	8	..	7	..	55	..	59	..	57	..			
2	..	2	1	..	43	2	..	56	3	..	2	..	3	1	2	6	74	..	76	..	75	1			
2	7	7	9	3	13	3	9	22	12	..	5	1	8	5	6	8	50	4	58	7	54	7			
..	..	1	..	..	1	14	..	6	18	..	5	7	12	3	10	4	26	6	40	..	37	8			
3	..	5	11	5	138	8	3	189	10	8	8	..	10	8	9	6	72	4	73	8	73	3			
..	3	1	7	..	45	10	1	54	11	5	8	7	11	4	10	6	70	5	70	9	70	7			
4	3	50	16	6	128	6	..	155	7	7	7	7	9	7	8	6	75	3	64	5	61	2			
..	..	1	6	..	1	7	..	2	8	..	7	..	7	6	7	3	46	..	62	..	58	..			
7	5	2	3	..	56	6	5	46	8	7	6	4	8	3	7	2	67	5	73	5	70	1			
..	..	..	..	..	2	6	..	5	8	..	4	..	8	..	6	5	77	..	62	8	68	4			
..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	2	15	..	..	..	15	..	15	..	..	..	69	..	69	..			
3	..	6	10	..	43	5	7	64	8	7	5	6	9	3	7	6	75	2	76	3	75	8			
1	..	5	9	..	20	5	3	32	5	9	5	3	6	3	5	4	59	2	78	1	80	1			
..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	33	10	9	..	..	10	9	10	9	..	..	67	2	67	2			
..	..	7	3	2	10	1	1	25	1	7	1	1	2	5	1	9	59	8	58	5	58	8			
..	..	..	..	..	12	1	..	16	2	..	1	..	2	0	1	5	75	..	78	..	76	7			
..	..	1	4	..	9	1	3	17	8	5	4	3	8	3	7	3	61	4	66	5	64	8			
..	..	..	..	..	12	13	8	..	..	..	13	8	..	..	13	8	68	8	..	..	68	8			
..	..	..	..	..	11	8	5	..	..	..	8	5	..	..	8	5	68	6	..	..	68	6			
..	..	1	1	..	7	13	7	..	..	..	13	7	1	..	12	1	66	6	41	..	63	3			
..	..	..	..	..	1	10	..	..	..	..	5	..	7	..	6	..	32	..	31	..	61	8			
6	..	1	1	..	97	6	6	32	4	2	6	5	4	2	3	..	82	9	80	..	82	2			
18	5	2	18	5	28	5	8	27	14	2	8	3	13	4	10	7	54	1	67	8	60	5			
8	9	9	7	9	46	6	8	47	10	2	9	..	11	11	10	1	72	2	69	8	71	1			
11	..	2	7	..	17	9	2	15	12	2	8	4	9	1	8	8	59	5	58	5	59	..			
4	..	7	6	..	22	8	4	32	9	4	5	3	6	6	5	2	51	9	61	9	58	..			
4	5	43	4	5	55	5	..	19	5	..	4	..	4	5	4	2	44	..	44	..	44	..			

The Burgher Hospital of St. Mark was erected in 1394 ; it possesses 45 wards, each containing from 8 to 24 beds. The police physicians, eight in number, are paid 460 florins yearly, the surgeons 250 florins, and the midwives 130 florins. These persons are only allowed to practise among the poor, from whom they are not permitted to receive any description of compensation. These medical men also see that all sanatory and police regulations are put in force, and also prevent all quacks or secret practitioners and unlicensed midwives and apothecaries from practising ; they likewise inspect the residences of all those infected with epidemic diseases, take measures to prevent hydrophobia, and provide inoculation, trusses, and baths for all those poor persons under their care. The duties of the public oculists of Vienna are much of the same character as those of the foregoing, except that their practice is confined to their own particular branches, and they hold an *Ordination* or public dispensary at their own houses daily, at a certain stated hour.

The Institute of the Merciful Brothers (*Barmherzigen Brüder*) was founded in 1534, by John von Gott, a native of Portugal, for the purpose of affording relief to the poor and abandoned sick, without recompense, and without any distinction of religion or country. This order has extended itself very generally not only through Europe, but also to America. In the beginning of the seventeenth century, Prince Carl Eusebius von Liechtenstein imported a colony of this order from Rome to the neighbourhood of Vienna, where he erected a cloister and an hospital for their use at Feldsberg, in 1605.

In 1614 the order of Merciful Brothers was fully established in the Leopoldstadt by the Emperor Mathias. Ferdinand II. enlarged their possessions, and permitted them to collect contributions wherever they could. This establishment has encountered many disasters. In 1683 their church and cloister was completely demolished by the Turks ; it suffered severely from the plague in 1713, and their building has been in continual danger from the repeated overflowings of the Danube—of which the most extensive occurred in 1830. This confraternity devote themselves entirely to the benevolent object of attending to the sick ; and the novitiate is spent in attendance upon the wards of an hospital. There are twenty-nine institutions of this description in the Austrian empire ;—that in Vienna is situated in Tarbor-Strasse in the Leopoldstadt, and is well worthy the inspection of all foreigners. The hospital which likewise receives lunatics, as well as those affected with general and surgical diseases, contains 180 beds, of which 106 are situate in one ward. The lunatics are placed in two separate wards, with 28 beds, in an adjoining yard. The admirable arrangement of the baths, the comfort, order, and extreme cleanliness, with the kindness and attention bestowed upon the diseased and insane by the benevolent brethren of this institution, justly merits the warmest approbation. There are no servants required by this order, not even for the hospital, for they count among their members physicians, surgeons, apothecaries, nurse-tenders, cooks, porters, washermen, and even tradesmen—as joiners and tailors, &c. The income of this institution is derived from

the interest of funded property, inheritances, sums paid by the different guilds of the city, and collections made by the brethren. There are sixty-eight brethren in this cloister—consisting of the *Provincial*, or abbot of the province; the prior; the provincial secretary, and four priests for attending to all matters purely ecclesiastical; a procurator, and vice-procurator; one head, and four under surgeons; an apothecary, with six assistants; a register; two inspectors of the lunatics; an inspector of the household; a housekeeper; a kitchen-master and three cooks; a butler and two porters, a sacristan, a tailor, and a washerman; besides four collectors for the city, and ten for the country; six surgical students; and thirteen novices, who act as assistant nurse-tenders. The medical members of the fraternity have been all regularly educated in a university or school of physic. The number of patients treated in this hospital in 1838 was 3609.

In connexion with this hospital there is a house of recovery, erected in 1755, in the Land-Strasse, where the convalescents are removed to as soon as possible; the number of receptions into this institution is 880 yearly. The total number of persons treated in all the hospitals of the *Barmherzigen Brüder* in the Austrian states from the 1st of November, 1837, to the 1st of October, 1838, was 19,710, of whom 1452 died, and the remainder were dismissed cured or relieved. It has frequently occurred that upon the violent outbreak of any epidemic in the country parts, a number of these brothers of charity have established themselves in the district, and attended the sick of all classes till the subsidence of

the malady, when they have again returned to their convents.

The institution for sick and indigent priests (*Priesterkranken und Defizienten-institut*) in the Land-Strasse, Ungergasse, No. 388, was originally erected as an hospital in 1780, for the care and treatment of the diseased among the secular clergy of the archbishopric of Vienna; four years afterwards it was enlarged for the purpose of affording refuge to the indigent as well as the sick among this order. The directorship of this institution rests in the person of the Archbishop von Milde, and the right of admission is applicable only to those priests of the diocese of Vienna and St. Poulten, who pay to the institution a yearly tax of six florins.

The Jewish hospital (*Israelitenspital*) is in the Rossau. In former times when the Israelitish race laboured under so many disabilities, which a fanatic Christianity had imposed upon them, it was a matter of difficulty even for their sick to gain admission into the hospitals and sanatory institutions in the majority of European kingdoms. This gave rise to the practice of their erecting hospitals attached to their burying-places; and that of which we now speak, was established above two hundred and fifty years ago, as a shelter for the diseased poor among the Viennese Israelites. The present building, which was erected in 1793, contains sixteen large wards, but from the poverty of its funds not more than forty beds are occupied, and its annual average receptions are about three hundred; those only who are affected with curable maladies are admissible, but all lunatics, and syphilitic and chronic diseases are inadmissible: the

hospital is maintained by certain taxes levied off all Jews resident in Vienna, and certain private funds belonging to the institution.

The hospital for criminals (*Inquisitenspital*) in the Alser Vorstadt, is an institution to which all criminals are removed in the event of sickness from their respective gaols: it contains thirty wards with accommodation for one hundred and sixty-nine patients and fifty-eight nurses; each ward contains six beds for patients, and two for the nurse-tenders or keepers. The doors and windows of this establishment are constructed upon the principle of those in gaols, and the wards are carefully locked up every night, but a bell attached to each enables the nurse-tenders, who are locked up along with the patients, to procure assistance should it be necessary. The medical department consists of two physicians, a resident surgeon and a *Practikant*.

There is an institution of a similar character in the Leopoldstadt, the "Imperial North Austrian Provincial Gaol Hospital," with accommodation for one hundred and twenty-six patients; the receptions and deaths in this hospital from 1836 to 1838 inclusive, were in 1836—four hundred and seventy-nine admissions, and twenty-five deaths; in 1837—three hundred and thirty-six admissions, and twenty-nine deaths; and in 1838—six hundred and twenty-six admissions, and thirty-eight deaths, showing a total mortality of 15·55 per cent.

The commercial hospital, *Handlungskrankeninstitut* in the Alser Vorstadt, was erected in 1745, for the reception of merchants' clerks, who subscribed two florins a year towards its maintenance, and it has been endowed

from time to time by the merchants of Vienna. One hundred and seventeen patients were treated in this hospital in the year 1838.

The hospital of the Sisters of Elizabeth in the Land Strasse;—*Kloster und Spital der Elisabethinerinnen*.—This noble and benevolent institution of the nuns, belonging to the order of Elizabeth, was founded by the following means:—Elizabeth, daughter of Andrew II. King of Hungary, and wife of Ludwig Landgrave of Hesse and Thuringin, during those memorable years of 1225 and 1226, when in addition to flood and famine, pestilence and all its harrowing train of miseries, ravaged the greater part of Germany, and particularly the country surrounding the foot of those mountains on which her residence, the Wartburg near Eisenach was placed, daily visited the hospitals near her palace, where, with her own hands, she tended the sick, supplied them with every necessary, and performed such other works of piety and mercy, that her name has since become sacred in the land. At the age of twenty-two she was left a widow, and retiring from the world, she established an hospital at Marburg, where with unprecedented zeal and affection she daily ministered to the sick. To insure the continuance of this establishment she founded and endowed the order of the Holy Elizabeth. It was not, however, till the end of the fourteenth century that the members of this sisterhood became fully established by the instrumentality of Angelina Corbaria, daughter of Jaacob von Hannibal, of Fulingo, and since then their institutions have spread into many countries in Europe.

In 1709, a colony of this community was transplanted from Gratz to Vienna, where medicine was at that time much neglected, and but few hospitals provided for the wants of the inhabitants. In 1730, the Empress Eleanor added twenty beds to their hospital, but their principal patrons and benefactors have been the noble family of Liechtenstein. Through the bounty of the late professor of surgery, Dr. Zimmermann and Dr. Count Harrach, the hospital of this institution was increased to its present standing; it now admits ninety-one patients. The receptions are entirely gratuitous, and the avowed object of the institution is to afford shelter and medical relief to females suffering under acute or sudden diseases, irrespective of creed or nation—chronic or incurable affections, epilepsy, syphilis, cancer, and insanity are inadmissible. The chief medical attendance, as well as the nursing of the patients, is committed to the sisters of the institution, a certain number of whom are especially instructed in medicine, pharmacy, and the minor branches of surgery.

All the convalescents are obliged to attend chapel, and all persons admitted into this hospital are required to receive the sacrament according to the Roman Catholic ritual, so that although nominally all religions are admissible, none but those of that persuasion can take advantage of the benefits of this institution.

The greatest care and attention is paid by the nuns to those under their charge, and the utmost order and cleanliness prevails. From 1752 to 1839, there have been 36,072 patients treated in the *Elisabethinerinnen* hospital, of whom 5461 died. In 1838, the receptions were 731,

and the deaths 66—mortality 11·05. The number of persons included in the institution, independent of the patients, is 68, of whom 15 are engaged as nurses or attendants upon the sick. The expenses in 1838 amounted to £1289 7s. 4d.

The Imperial Deaf and Dumb Institution, *Taubstummeninstitut*, situate at No. 313, Favoriten-Strasse, in the old Wieden suburb, was established in 1779, in the reign of Maria Theresa, during the co-regency of her son Joseph II. It contains fifty boys and twenty girls, and I have no hesitation in pronouncing it to be one of the finest institutions of its kind in Europe.

The following brief notice of the origin and subsequent progress of asylums for educating the deaf and dumb, will, no doubt, interest those engaged in the management of such institutions in our own country. As far as I have been able to gather from established records, and the best authorities upon the subject, this good work had its origin in Germany, where, so early as the beginning of the sixteenth century, Joachim Pascha of Wusterhausen, instructed his deaf and dumb daughter by means of pictures and other representations.

In 1624, the celebrated Dr. John Rudolph Camerarius, published a work at Strasburgh, upon the possibility of instructing deaf mutes; after him the Jesuit, Caspar Schott, mentions in some of his numerous works, (*Physica Curiosa*, written in 1642,) that the deaf and dumb might be taught to speak and read, by imitating the motions made by the lips of others, and we are led to infer that this method was not unknown to Fabricius ab Aquapendente so early as 1613. In the same century

Bulwer in England published an account of the method of instructing the deaf and dumb.

In 1670, a Spanish monk, Pedro de Ponce, is reported to have taught four young mutes to write and pronounce words. During the early part of the eighteenth century much attention was attracted to the teaching of Madam de Sainte-Rose of Paris, and a Portuguese named Rodriques Pereira, in France, in 1755; at the same time that Kerger in Silesia, and Jacob Wild in Livonia, made many endeavours to perfect the deaf and dumb in speaking by the imitating method, and the latter invented a talking-machine to assist his pupils.

The first public institution for the instruction of the deaf and dumb established in Germany, and I believe in Europe, was that at Leipzig, erected in 1729, chiefly through the instrumentality of Samuel Heinicke. In 1775, Charles Michael de l'Epee, a native of Versailles, and originally intended for the clerical profession, animated by a feeling of compassion towards those of his fellow-creatures afflicted with this lamentable privation, undertook the instruction of two deaf and dumb girls, whose education had been commenced by the celebrated Father Vanin.

Twenty-two of the pupils in the Viennese Asylum are pensioners upon the state, the rest pay a yearly salary of 150 florins each, and the time spent in the asylum is six years.

The education given in this asylum is of a very superior description, and well suited to the circumstances of the unfortunate pupils, many of whom make better attempts to speak than any deaf and dumb persons I have

yet heard. The statistics of the eight institutions for the deaf and dumb in the Austrian states are exhibited at page 318; it is said, that with the exception of Hungary, there are upwards of 2000 deaf mutes in the entire monarchy, or one in every 11,826 souls; but this appears to be far too small a proportion. The cost of this institution in 1838 was 11,776 florins.

I may mention here an interesting physiological circumstance which I witnessed during one of my visits at this interesting institution in 1841. It is very generally, but erroneously supposed, that the deaf and dumb are *totally* incapable of appreciating sound; the majority of the pupils in this institution were always sensible of the vicinity of a military band though at some distance, and several of them were sensibly affected by the sound of different musical instruments when played in the same room with them, although the musicians were placed behind a screen; thus, they expressed different sensations upon wind or stringed instruments being played, and one boy, in particular, became sick in his stomach upon the trombone being sounded near him. How far this sense of the perception of sound may be owing to the cognizance of the peculiarity of vibration acting upon the increased sense of general touch, or upon some remains of the hearing function which they still possess, it is difficult to determine.

There are two blind asylums in the city, one for children, and the other for adults, *Die K. K. Bildungsanstalt für blinde Kinder und die Versorgungsanstalt für erwachsene Blinde*, both admirably conducted and well worthy the attention of the foreigner. The former was commenced by

Mr. William Klein, who in 1804 educated a blind boy in such a manner, that the government encouraged him to pursue his benevolent office, and two years afterwards an establishment for the education of eight blind children was commenced at the public expense. The education, manual dexterity, and musical proficiency acquired in this asylum, is of a superior order and admirably conducted. There are 41 in-door pupils and 10 day-scholars, besides whom, 32 destitute blind receive annually assistance to the amount of 10 florins each from the funds of the establishment. I have again to repeat, that the want of musical instruction in the blind institutions in this country is a decided neglect; and while numbers of blind musicians exist throughout the kingdom, music does not form, generally speaking, a portion of the education provided for those resident in the asylums. The pupil having spent from six to eight years in this asylum, is transferred to that for adult blind. The support of this establishment is maintained by a society of 74 ladies, and 342 gentlemen, at the head of whom is the Archduke Franz; it is one of the few benevolent undertakings permitted to exist by means of private enterprise. Its expenses in 1838 were 11,850 florins.

There are two hospitals for the care and treatment of sick children in Vienna—the *Wiener Kinderkrankeninstitut* and the private hospital of Dr. Ludwig Mauthner. The former was established in 1787, by Dr. Jos. Mastalier, and affords extensive opportunities for studying the diseases of children: it is principally supported by the members of the royal family.

Dr. Mauthner's establishment, situated in the most extensive, and the poorest, as well as the chief manufacturing suburb of the city, was opened in August, 1837. It consists of a dispensary, in which 1770 children are treated annually, and an hospital containing 12 beds, with an annual average reception of 220 children. This department is admirably arranged—in cleanliness it is a model to all the institutions that I have visited in that city; and the baths, as well as the manner of using them, are well worthy the attention of the physician. The only iron bedsteads employed in any of the hospitals in Vienna are those of Dr. Mauthner's institution. The hour of visit is from five to six o'clock in the evening, and the dispensary is held every morning at ten. During my visit to this hospital I was much struck with the great number of children affected with abdominal diseases, *Tabes*, and *Marasmus*, &c.—caused in a great measure, I am led to believe, by the manner in which the poor of Austria manage their infants, and the general use of the *Zuzel*, which I have already described at page 230, when speaking of the foundling institution. The report for 1839 informs us, that of 220 children treated in this hospital, 128 were cured, 32 were improved or removed from the hospital at the request of their parents, 51 died, and 9 remained under treatment; the proportion of sexes was 116 boys and 104 girls, and the mortality of the former, as might be expected at this age, much greater than the latter: the most fatal diseases being croup and cerebritis. In the *Ambulatorium*, or dispensary, in the same year, the number treated was 1772; of these 1137 are reported

as cured or improved, 100 died, 50 were received into hospital, 33 remained under treatment, and 452 had not returned to the dispensary. The entire establishment is supported by its benevolent founder, who wished it to be conducted by voluntary contributions, on the plan of the London hospitals, and stated this to the Empress, during a visit which she lately made to the institution. This, however, as might be expected from what I have already expressed in different parts of this work, the government would not sanction; but she then promised to endow six additional beds. The great interest expressed in this institution, particularly by the Viennese ladies, is evinced by the many titled names which will be found in the *Fremdenbuch*. This philanthropic asylum, which speaks so highly for the charity and medical zeal of its founder and sole supporter, differs from most of the *Kaiserlich K  nigliche* hospitals of the city, in that neither fee nor remuneration is demanded of the sick;—the annual expense is £100.

The Orthopedic Institution and Medical Gymnasium of Dr. Zink in the *Adlergasse*, No. 157, has been lately erected; it is as yet in its infancy, not only with respect to its foundation, but also with regard to its management and the treatment of its patients. The house contains twenty-two rooms, a large saloon, and a series of baths. During my visit there were very few patients under treatment; and the operations, beds, and mechanical apparatus do not afford sufficient inducement to those who have visited similar institutions in Paris, to walk through the dirtiest portion of the Alser-Vorstadt to inspect the *Orthop  dische Institut*

und die medizinische Gymnastik of Dr. Zink, in Vienna. These, with the Recovery House in Baden, the Marien Hospital in Wickersdorf, and four private lunatic asylums, include all the sanatory institutions of the Austrian capital, and the following table exhibits their statistics for the year 1838:—

Hospitals and Sanatory Institutions.	Receptions.	Dismissals.	Deaths.	Remaining in Hospital.	Mortality.
Great General Hospital (<i>Allgemeine Krankenhaus</i>)	20,545	16,283	2,678	1,584	1 in 7·67
Lying-in Hospital { Mothers.....	4,766	4,334	179	253	„ 24·57
{ Children	4,386	4,073	200	113	„ 21·93
Lunatic Asylum { <i>Irrenthurm & Lazareth</i>	533	138	71	324	„ 7·50
{ At Ybbs	350	4	27	319	„ 12·93
Foundling Hospital.....	16,833	1,832	3,525	11,476	„ 4·79
Orphan House.....	275	251	4	20	„ 68·75
Bürger Hospital of St. Mark (contain- ing 453 persons)	236	91	49	96	„ 5·36
Provincial Gaol Hospital.....	627	527	37	63	„ 11·54
Criminal Hospital.....	1,289	1,108	42	139	„ 30·69
Commercial Hospital.....	18	2	..	16	„ ..
Hospital of the Sisters of Elizabeth....	731	592	66	73	„ 11·06
Hospital of Merciful Brotherhood.....	3,609	3,166	276	167	„ 13·07
Do. do. Sisterhood.....	604	541	33	30	„ 18·01
Five Poor-Houses and their Hospitals, } containing 2,949 persons..... }	3,297	2,674	321	302	„ 14·42
Israelitish Hospital.....	299	254	25	20	„ 11·96
Institute for Sick Children (chiefly out- patients).....	1,174	1,084	79	11	„ 14·83
Dr. Mauthner's Children's Hospital	163	140	21	2	„ 7·76
Recovery House in Baden.....	716	711	5	..	„ 13·20
Marien Hospital in Wickersdorf.....	233	208	18	7	„ 12·94
Four Private Lunatic Asylums.....	48	11	3	34	„ 18·
Total	60,732	38,024	7,659	15,049	
Poor-Law Medical Relief.....	16,864	15,629	563	672	„ 28·17
General Total,	77,596	53,653	8,222	15,721	

The disparity between the receptions, deaths, and dismissals in some of the above institutions, arises from their having a permanent resident sick, who are received into hospital several times during the same year.

CHAPTER XV.

GENERAL AND MEDICAL STATISTICS OF THE
AUSTRIAN EMPIRE.

AUSTRIAN SANATORY INSTITUTIONS—DIVISION OF MEDICAL MEN—THE OFFICE OF PROTOMEDICUS—DISTRICT PHYSICIANS AND SURGEONS—DISTRIBUTION OF THE AUSTRIAN PRACTITIONERS—THEIR PROPORTION TO THE POPULATION—GENERAL POOR-LAW SYSTEM—MEDICAL POLICE—GENERAL MORTALITY IN THE AUSTRIAN STATES—STATISTICAL TABLES—CORONERS' INQUESTS—QUARANTINE AND SANATORY REGULATIONS—INOCULATION—SYPHILITIC DISEASES—REGULATIONS CONCERNING SCARLIAVO—GENERAL HOSPITAL STATISTICS OF AUSTRIA—MILITARY HOSPITALS—DEAF AND DUMB INSTITUTIONS—MIDWIFERY AND FOUNDLING HOSPITAL STATISTICS—TABLES OF CRIME.

THE sanatory, medical-relief, and special medical institutions of the Austrian empire are wisely and admirably arranged by its government under one great general system. This medical relief it affords its subjects, with a view, as well to the prevention of the origin and progress of disease, as to provide for the care and comfort of those already affected with disorders of every description. The Austrian sanatory and medical institutions have for some time past constituted one of the most admirable subjects that come within the sphere of her civil regulations. It is one of the few matters concerning which the terms *progress* and *reform* do not bear the epithet of *innovation*, and the medical relief provided for the poor of that country has from year to year become better and more general. The management of the medical and sanatory affairs of Austria forms a part of

her political administration, and is intrusted to the superintendence of men well instructed upon such matters. Thus there is a special *Referent* in the united *Hofkanzlei*: a *Landes Protomedicus* in every political *Landesstelle*, or province; and in each *Kreisamt*, the circuit office, the seat of the local magistracy, tax and police officers, &c., there are circuit physicians and surgeons, denominated in the German provinces *Kreisärzte* and *Kreiswundärzte*, and in the Italian, *Delegationsärzte*. These constitute a board of health, having the oversight of every thing relating to sanaty, cleanliness, and judicial medicine, &c. These circuits are again subdivided into districts, where another class of government physicians are distributed, who are termed *Bezirksärzte*. Besides these, there is one *Landesthierarzt*, or government veterinary surgeon, in each province.

The office of *Protomedicus* is very extensive, and one of considerable trust and importance. He has charge of the oversight of the health of the community of his province; all the paid medical officers hold immediately under him, and all the medical institutions, midwifery and foundling hospitals, lunatic asylums, prisons, and houses of correction, as well as the medical department of the educating establishments are placed under his supervision; and to his office belong the management of foundlings and orphans, and the providing for the sick, infirm, and aged poor. He is the intermediate link between all the different officers and institutions enumerated above, and the political government; to him belongs the appointment of the inferior medical officers of the province: and all protocols and certificates, as well

as the different hospital returns, with the cost and direction of such institutions, pass through his hands.

No medical man, surgeon or apothecary can establish himself in any town or province, without his permission. He likewise inspects every apothecary's shop in his province twice a year, he oversees the medical police, receives intelligence of, and reports upon, all epidemic diseases, and has the charge and appointment of all the midwives. His salary is three thousand florins a year, besides different fees and perquisites, as, for instance, two ducats yearly from each apothecary at the time of his visit—at least in Lower Austria. His great patronage, and his various and extensive duties, are too numerous to be summed in a work like the present. Hungary has its own *Protomedicus*, whose office is at the Royal *Stadthalterei* or government direction at Pesth; and in Transylvania, the office has been lately established upon the same footing as that of the *Sanitätsreferent* in the other German provinces.

The *Kreisphysicus* or *Delegationsarzt* has the same duties on a minor scale in his own district, as the *Protomedicus* has to perform over a province; and his yearly experience is reported to the medical government of the country, to enable them to correct or improve whatever may be defective in the sanitary laws or medical relief, or to remove those disabilities under which his particular circuit may labour. Some years ago, there was a great deficiency of medical practitioners in several of the country parts of the empire; this insufficiency has now, however, in a great measure, ceased. The want soon created the demand, and in 1829 the

number of Austrian students in the different medical schools amounted to 4,506, including the veterinary and pharmaceutical pupils. It now averages about 4,000 yearly. The medical faculty of Vienna, during the five years from 1829 to 1833, created 301 doctors of medicine and 30 doctors of surgery, the latter branch of the profession not then receiving the support or encouragement which by more recent enactments has been bestowed upon it. In 1837, the number of practitioners created in all the medical schools of the monarchy, was 397 doctors of medicine, 202 doctors of surgery, 70 master surgeons, 81 oculists, and 318 general practitioners, *Patronen der Chirurgie*, of whom 158 were entitled to practise midwifery.

The following Table exhibits the number and distribution of the Austrian Practitioners in the year 1837 :—

PROVINCES.	Paid by the State.		In Public Medical Institutions.		Private Practitioners.		Total.		Midwives.
	Physicians.	Surgeons.	Physicians.	Surgeons.	Physicians.	Surgeons.	Physicians.	Surgeons.	
Lower Austria	59	21	42	51	308	688	409	760	965
Upper Austria	30	5	2	4	37	367	69	376	750
Bohemia	27	17	8	7	376	945	411	969	3221
Moravia and Silesia	13	18	3	9	91	488	107	515	2080
Gallicia	26	28	4	5	126	270	156	303	644
Tyrol	38	17	16	12	200	279	254	308	821
Styria	33	13	5	3	32	291	70	307	580
Carinthia and Carniola	21	10	1	4	19	170	41	184	379
Illyrian Coast	14	10	4	7	79	67	97	84	369
Dalmatia	23	11	5	6	22	17	50	34	87
Lombardy and Venice	82	34	290	142	2066	1053	2438	1229	3623
Transylvania	39	67	6	5	13	25	58	97	353
Military Frontier	21	79	0	0	7	5	28	84	162
Total	426	330	386	255	3376	4665	4188	5250	14034

The number of apothecaries who are licensed yearly to practise, amounts to something more than 120, and the *Civil-und Landwundärzte* number above 600 annually.

Thus we find, that the Lombardo-Venetian kingdom, the country below the Enns and the Tyrol, have, in comparison with their territory and population, the greatest number of medical practitioners.

The proportion of medical men to 100,000 inhabitants, is in the different provinces as follows:—

In Lombardy . . .	91	Bohemia . . .	34
Lower Austria . . .	88	Carynthia & Carniola	31
Tyrol	69	Moravia and Silesia	29
Venice	68	Dalmatia . . .	22
Upper Austria . . .	51	Gallicia . . .	10
Styria	40	Military Borders .	9
Coastland	39	Transylvania . .	7

With the exception of Hungary, the gross proportion of physicians is one to every 5,637, and one *Wundarzt* to every 4,497 souls, an amount of medical relief that still admits of great augmentation, if it be admitted that the proportion of one to 1,000 in towns, and one to 1,500 in the country parts is but a sufficiency. This latter calculation, which has been lately put forward by eminent staticians, appears, however, to suppose far too great a number of medical practitioners as necessary to the wants of any community, unless in very thinly peopled districts; in the distribution of medical officers in any country, geographical space as well as density of population should be taken into account.

Hungary, Gallicia, Transylvania, and the Military Borders are those worst supplied with medical relief. We see, at page 306, how far this has affected the average morta-

lity of these countries. To remedy some of these defects, government, in 1827, granted a certain number of stipends to Gallician youths to enable them to study medicine, and then return and settle as practitioners in their own country. The same system has lately been pursued with regard to the Tyrol and Dalmatia. In Lombardy and the Venetian States, it is remarkable that the physicians predominate, while in all the other provinces the surgeons are the most numerous. The number of licensed midwives is proportionally greater in the Tyrol, Venice, and Moravia, where they are 100 to every 10,000 inhabitants, while in Galicia, Dalmatia, and Transylvania, they are but 20 to the same number: they continue however to increase annually—thus, in 1821, there were only 190 midwives in Galicia; now there are so many as 644.

The Poor Law System of Austria is well arranged, and the medical relief which it affords is very extensive. In order to become entitled to the benefits of this institution, it is necessary to have been a resident for ten years in the place wherein the relief is sought, unless in case of civic freedom or citizenship, *Bürgerrecht*. There are none or very few beggars to be found in this extensive empire, and the system is on a plan perfectly different from that at present at work in this country, the object being to have as few poor-houses and to afford as much out-door relief as possible. In the country parts, every parish has an *Armen Institut*, or local poor fund. The country poor-houses are denominated *Landespitäler*, and those in the towns and market-places, *Bürgerspitäler*. The funds of these institutions are derived from donations, legacies, and separate inheritances; charity derived from the chapel collections; weekly collections in

the parish boxes, made from house to house ; police fines ; taxes upon all public music for dancing—one florin in towns, and forty kreutzers in villages ; the third part of all monies and inheritance left by the clergy, unless their relatives themselves are so poor as absolutely to require it ; and lastly, all legacy duty. The priest of the parish is director of the *Armen Institut*, with whom is associated a citizen called *Armen Vater*, the father of the poor ; the schoolmaster is obliged to act as the secretary and accountant, and the accounts are laid before the local magistrates yearly. The general direction of the poor-law is placed immediately under the local government office, which is amenable to that of the district, and that in turn to the provincial *Landesregierung*.

The poor-law relief is divided into the permanent and the temporary ; the latter is administered to two classes, the sick and the poor ; the last of whom, if unable to work, get out-door relief of from two to eight kreutzers daily. In case of sickness, persons affected with sporadic diseases are attended by the *Kreisarzt*, and the expense paid out of the poor funds ; but in case of epidemics, fever, diarrhoea, scarlatina, measles, or small-pox, the cost of medicine, maintenance, and medical attendance is paid by the government—the *Cameral Aerarium*. In case of persons bitten by a mad or suspicious dog, the owner of the animal, if able, is obliged to defray all expenses ; but if too poor to do so, two-thirds are paid by the *Aerarium*, and one-third by the community of the place. If persons are sent to the provincial hospital for operations or any severe illness, their cost is defrayed according to their claim on the poor-law, or the ability of their relations, and in case of

extreme poverty, it is levied off the district at large. All poor lunatics are sent to the asylums, and maintained there by the *Cameral Aerarium*.

The permanent relief consists in affording daily assistance, from one-fourth to the entire support; that is, from two to eight kreutzers, the latter of which is sufficient for the support of an Austrian peasant; but, generally speaking, when a pauper is unable to perform any work, he is taken into the poor-house.

Burgesses and certain corporations have private means for defraying the expenses of their sick and poor.

The Austrian police inspect all food exposed for sale, and if bad or unwholesome, it is not permitted to be sold. They have also the power of inspecting the houses and lodgings of the inhabitants, to see if they are in a good and healthy condition; they likewise strictly prevent all quacks and unlicensed venders of medicine from practising or itinerating through the country.

No dead body can be interred without a certificate of death signed either by the attending physician or the police physician of the district. Throughout Austria there are special medical men set apart for this work, and denominated *Todtenbeschauer*, who get fifteen kreutzers for every examination. As soon as death has taken place, the friends are obliged to acquaint the magistrate, who sends the proper officer to inspect the body; except in cases of epidemic disease, no one is allowed to be buried sooner than forty-eight hours after death. If the person has died of typhus or any epidemic disease, the friends are not permitted to open the coffin, or expose the body in the grave-yard, as is customary in most

[illegible]

KINDS OF DEATH SPECIFIED.

PROVINCES.	Deaths by Disease.				Violent Deaths.					
	Ordinary.	Epidemic.	Small-pox.	Total.	Suicide	Hydrophobia.	Murdered.	Accidental.	Executed.	Total.
Lower Austria.....	49,172	223	585	49,980	103	3	16	412	2	536
Upper Austria.....	23,163	173	1	23,337	31	..	6	219	..	256
Styria.....	26,952	121	139	27,212	25	1	13	243	..	282
Carynthia and Carniola	19,730	284	77	20,091	14	..	20	183	1	218
Illyrian Coast....	14,344	367	13	14,724	21	2	15	135	..	173
Tyrol.....	20,527	235	93	20,855	12	2	23	370	1	408
Bohemia.....	116,733	636	128	117,497	174	5	53	809	6	1047
Moravia and Silesia...	61,356	125	55	61,536	106	..	24	488	1	619
Gallicia.....	137,924	4936	1216	144,076	192	11	92	1586	18	1899
Dalmatia.....	8,761	217	2	8,980	7	1	50	92	1	151
	478,662	7317	2309	488,288	685	25	312	4537	30	5589
Lombardy.....	85,906	289	1139	87,326	51	14	79	579	..	723
Venice.....	67,244	208	133	67,585	38	11	52	725	2	828
	153,150	497	1272	154,911	89	25	131	1304	2	1551
Total,	631,812	7814	3573	643,199	774	50	443	5841	32	7140
Hungary.....				309,000						
Transylvania.....	41,064	428	700	42,192	32	14	47	461	5	559
Military Frontier....	46,761	240	35	46,946	52	6	37	292	5	365

Table showing the Mortality of the different Cities and Chief Towns in the Empire.

Cities & Towns.	Population.	Deaths.			Kind of Deaths.								Mortality.
		Male.	Female.	Total.	Natural Deaths				Violent Deaths				
					Common.	Epidemic.	Small-pox.	Suicide.	Hydrophobia.	Murdered.	Accidental.	Executed.	
Vienna.....	333,580	8543	7671	16214	16024	..	64	57	..	..	69	..	1 in 20·57
Linz.....	23,370	560	524	1084	1079	..	..	..	..	..	5	..	.. 21·55
Gratz.....	43,790	725	773	1498	1492	..	..	1	..	..	5	..	.. 26·56
Laibach.....	14,850	286	256	542	536	..	5	..	..	..	1	..	.. 27·39
Triest & District	52,580	1204	1104	2308	2274	..	2	2	..	3	27	..	.. 22·78
Innsbruck.....	10,826	193	183	376	370	..	3	..	..	..	3	..	.. 23·79
Prague.....	105,530	2435	2124	4559	4521	..	5	10	..	..	23	..	.. 23·14
Brünn.....	37,180	644	635	1279	1265	..	..	6	..	..	8	..	.. 29·06
Lemberg.....	58,730	1544	1264	2808	2638	23	94	20	1	8	23	1	.. 20·91
Zara.....	6,740	137	146	283	283	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	.. 27·22
Milan.....	145,378	2694	2645	5339	5264	19	23	2	2	2	27	..	.. 23·81
Venice.....	93,847	1847	2118	3965	3582	326	..	1	..	..	55	1	.. 23·66

Coroners' Inquests (*Gerichtliche Leichenbeschau*) are conducted upon a totally different system from what they are in this country. In Austria they are entirely under the management and control of the medical body; and trial by jury not being there the "law established," one or two physicians and surgeons—some appointed officially, and others called in on an emergency, form the court to pronounce upon the cause of all sudden, violent, or suspicious deaths. Different districts have different descriptions of coroners. Thus, in the capitals of the provinces, the office rests in the persons of the *Stadt Physicus*, the *Magister Sanitatis*, or general health officer, and the *Stadt-Wundärzt*. In Lemberg and Prague it is held by the town surgeon and physician; in Gratz, by the health master and one of the two sworn *Wundärzte*; in Klagenfurth, by the first town physician and town surgeon; in Linz, by the *Landgerichtsarzt*, the town physician, and one *Wundarzt*—chosen for the occasion. If any of these are unable to attend, then another physician is called in, and receives four florins for his services, if he is not already a paid government officer. If the relations of the deceased person are in circumstances to afford it, they are obliged to defray the expense, but if otherwise, it is paid by the country. The body is removed to the general hospital, and the inquest held there, in order that the professor of medical jurisprudence and his class, who are obliged to attend, may have the benefit of the examination.

In the country parts inquests are held by the district physician and surgeon, and in case of their inability to attend, by any other two medical men of the higher

grades, sworn for the occasion, and appointed by the government magistrate.

Inquests are held in all cases of death by mechanical violence, no matter how long or short the interval between the receipt of the accident and the death; all cases of poisoning, accidental or designed; and, as is specified in the regulations on the subject now lying before me, deaths caused by the improper use or administration of baths, lotions, hairpowders, and cosmetics, or medicines given for the cure of eruptive or other diseases, ordered by, or purchased from, an apothecary, unless prescribed by a properly-qualified physician or surgeon; also, strangling, hanging, smothering, and drowning—either designed, accidental, or suicidal; all exposed or murdered infants; in cases of procured abortion or premature delivery; deaths occurring under the hands of quacks, and even in cases where a physician has been in attendance, if the friends or relatives desire it, this description of inquiry is held.

Post-mortem examinations are in all cases and under all circumstances required to be made by the medical men who preside at this judicial *Leichenbeschau*, and if they do not agree on a verdict, a third or a fourth practitioner is called in.

A code of laws, very judiciously and explicitly drawn up, explaining the nature and extent of the powers possessed by these coroners, and also the mode of conducting such inquiries, is in the hands of all the government, sanatory, and medical officers.

By thus committing the examination of every sus-

pected death and dead body to the management of a certain number of enlightened men, educated for it by a previous course of study and years of experience, these inquiries are conducted on a much better principle, and have a more beneficial tendency than investigations of a similar nature in this country.

As a means of preventing the spread of contagious disorders, the enactments put in force by Austria to guard against the plague in 1728, must be acknowledged to be most important and beneficial as connected with the health of the whole of Europe. The *Contumazstationen*, or Quarantine Stations, maintained by a corps of invalids upon the Turkish frontier, are very numerous, and the quarantine regulations maintained with great strictness: a military cordon of 4200 men, denominated *Gränzern*, are always kept upon the boundary line, and in time of danger this number can be at once increased to 10,000. Owing to this admirable system, and the great vigilance observed in all the Lazarettes, it is said that plague has not crossed the border for one hundred years. In Gallicia the *Hofkriegsrath*, or war-council, has the direction of this establishment; and in Dalmatia, and the other maritime countries, there are special sanitary magistrates and deputies, to whom are committed the management of matters of this description. These magistrates are paid government officers, and are located in all the larger seaports: the deputies are placed in the smaller towns, and the whole body are under the control of a central health-magistrate, and health-office, at Trieste. The health-

deputies *Sanitätsdeputationen* are thus distributed: in Bukowina 2, Transylvania 8, Banata 2, Slavonia 2, and Croatia 4; in Dalmatia there is a marine health-magistrate at Zara, a Lazarette at Ragusa, besides 10 health-officers for the country, with 4 circuit, 17 district, and 32 health-officers, distributed along the coast. The Trieste division has, beside this central magistrate, 43 deputies and 2 Lazarettos. The Venetian states have 1 marine magistrate at Venice, 2 Lazarettos, and 2 deputies. In 1837, the whole quarantine department of the empire consisted of 81 superior and 210 inferior officers. The expenses of this establishment are provided for by taxes levied for that express purpose; in 1839, the annual income was 32,900 and the outlay 24,000 florins. This tax falls heaviest in Hungary, on the military border, and the coast land, to make up the deficiency in Transylvania, Dalmatia, and Venice.

Strenuous endeavours are at present made by the Austrian government to check the progress of small-pox, and the vaccination department is placed under the superintendence of properly educated persons, physicians and surgeons attached to the *Kreisamt*, and the most zealous vaccinators amongst whom are awarded sums varying from 30 to 250 florins yearly, besides their stated salaries. The people are, in most instances, not actually forced to vaccinate their children, but every endeavour is made to induce them to receive the blessings of this safeguard; and the number of disabilities, under which those who are not vaccinated labour, are daily bringing about this

desirable effect. Thus, those who are not vaccinated cannot be received into any establishment for education, nor can they receive any government stipend, &c. &c.; and this applies as well to the parents as the children, the former of whom, feeling that they are debarred from the rights and privileges of many valuable institutions, are thus indirectly obliged to bring their children to the vaccinator. The severest punishments await those attempting to inoculate with the matter of the natural pock.

First—the baptismal registries are forwarded to the local government; then regular periods are set apart in each year, from May to autumn, for the purpose of vaccinating; and the clergy and magistrates are required to give a special warning to this effect in their different districts, and the former are required to preach upon the subject at that time, impressing upon their congregations the necessity of the operation. Once a year the district physician, attended by the police, searches every house in his district for the purpose of examining the children; and if any are found who have not been vaccinated, then the magistrates forward a note of the circumstance to the local government, who have the power, and frequently exercise it, of making the operation compulsory; besides which, the names of such persons are inserted in the public newspapers, if in a town; and in the country-parts, the priest reads them out from the altar. When the natural small-pox appears in any house, a notice to that effect, “*Hier sind bey—M—N—die Blattern,*” is posted on the door;—the church-bells

are not allowed to be rung, and no public funerals are permitted to persons dying of this disease who have not been vaccinated. If on the occurrence of the disease, it is not notified to the proper authorities, the person subjects himself to a fine of three florins. The overseeing of the vaccination is committed to the *Land Protomedicus*, and the district magistrates and physicians. Vaccine lymph is forwarded from the institution in Vienna to all parts of the empire. Notwithstanding this vigilance, we find by referring to the mortality tables for 1839, that 4308 deaths occurred from this cause.

The number of inoculators at present amounts to 4000, and the expenses incurred by the state to support this establishment were from 1830 to 1837, 95,000 florins yearly. With the exception of Hungary, Transylvania, and the military borders, 629,560 children were inoculated in the year 1837, in the entire empire; the number remaining uninoculated being 24,870, or in the proportion of 29 to 100 of the former.

The following table exhibits the proportion per cent. of the uninoculated to the inoculated :—

Lower Austria	.	27	Moravia	.	10
Upper Austria	.	114	Coast Land	.	24
Styria	.	31	Tyrol	.	42
Carinthia and Carniola		21	Moravia, &c.	.	10
Bohemia	.	3	Venetian States	.	33
Gallicia	.	3	Lombardy	.	50
Dalmatia	.	8			

The police of Austria are said to guard against the spread of syphilitic diseases—public brothels not being

tolerated, and public women being sent into the houses of correction ;—this, however, is but the letter of the law, not the practice, for though it has been stated, that owing to the present condition of morality, such persons *are not required* in that country, yet the lowest calculation allows the number of public females in the capital to be fifteen thousand. It is, however, much to be admired, that the same disgusting exhibitions which are witnessed in the capitals of Great Britain, are not permitted by the Austrian police ; all persons considered of an improper character, when found in the streets after a certain hour, being conducted to the police-office, and if on examination found to be diseased, they are at once sent to hospital. Public women are not licensed in Austria, but the police have the power of entering their dwellings, accompanied by one of the police physicians, and if they are diseased, compelling them to go into hospital. Notwithstanding the *apparently* moral condition of the city after nightfall, which must at once strike a foreigner, I am much inclined to think, that the public exhibition of vice is often a test of private morality : as instances, pro and con, I might adduce the cities of Rome and Vienna, on the one hand, and Dublin on the other.

In former times the quarantine, with regard to this disease, was strictly kept in all parts of the empire ; when any of the natives caught infection they were compelled to remain in their own houses, or in certain Lazarettes set apart for that purpose, till they were cured, and all intercourse with them was

strictly prevented ; foreigners similarly affected were instantly sent back to their own countries. At present, if males are known to be diseased they are in the same manner compelled to go into the *Krankenhaus*. The military are examined every fourteen days, and if a soldier upon furlough becomes diseased, punishment awaits him unless he reports the circumstance to the nearest military physician. In the country parts, the physicians are required to examine and report upon the state of this disease to the sanatory commissioners. When poor persons become affected, the cost of their treatment and expenses during the period of cure, is defrayed by the country ; two-thirds by the *Cameral ærarium*, or exchequer, and one-third by the parish. If persons are able to pay, they are compelled to do so ; at present all the country syphilitic patients are first forwarded to the district-physician, who notices the local government to that effect, and they are instantly forwarded without expense to the district-hospital, provided it has a separate ward for this disease. There is a separate Lazarette for this purpose at Linz. The males of the Tyrol are forwarded to Salbourg, and the females to the *Spital di St. Margarita* in Milan. In several of the capitals of the provinces there are syphilitic wards set apart in the gaols : strangers are sent back, having been cured, to their own districts, which are then made to pay their expenses. All those patients who have been cured and supported at the expense of the country, are subsequently obliged to pay back with their labour, in different government works, a small portion of it.

When that curious disease, called Scarlievo, to which I have already alluded at page 191, existed in Hungary, Istria, the Ukrain, and Dalmatia, the precautions taken by the police speedily arrested its progress; each person known to be affected with it being instantly removed to prison, and there retained until their cure was effected. At the beginning of this century, so general had this disease become, that it was necessary to erect special institutions for it at Portoré and Fieume, which were soon filled with patients, whose numbers amounted in a short time to no less than 3,579; since that period it has yearly decreased, and is now scarcely known.

Independent of the medical relief afforded by the poor-law, spoken of in a previous part of this chapter, the diseased are amply provided for by means of public hospitals, of which those at Vienna form so large a portion of this work. In the country parts, there are community-hospitals, or *Gemeinde Krankenhäuser*, which are supported by funds belonging to their own parish or district. All the larger provincial towns have their own special hospitals similar to those in the capital. In general, every magistracy and community has to provide for its own sick: much assistance is however rendered by the establishments of the merciful brothers and sisters, *Barmherzigen Brüder und Schwestern*, and also those of the order of Holy Elizabeth, *Elisabethinerinnen*. The hospitals belonging to these religious sects are numerous, and, generally speaking, well managed; they are supported by funds derivable from their own estates

and endowments, as well as by collections and the gifts of private individuals. Besides these, there are also private sick institutions for particular classes of the community, as that in Vienna for priests and clerks, &c. &c., and also hospitals for those of the Jewish persuasion at Vienna, Prague, Lemberg, and Brody.

The following table exhibits the number of hospitals in each of the provinces, with the annual cost, reception, and mortality of each, in the Austrian empire in the year 1838 :—

	No. of Hospitals	Recep- tions.	Cost in Florins.	Deaths	Mortality.
Lower Austria.....	7	25,123	319,482	3,422	1 in 7·34
Upper Austria.....	11	3,626	54,453	323	„ 11·22
Styria ..	5	3,053	38,824	274	„ 11·44
Carinthia and Carniola...	3	992	33,050	87	„ 11·40
Illyrian Coast	3	3,686	87,418	418	„ 8·84
Tyrol.....	49	4,564	107,258	521	„ 8·76
Bohemia.....	25	9,793	130,579	1,183	„ 8·28
Moravia and Silesia	13	5,191	59,100	554	„ 9·37
Gallicia.....	16	10,938	85,418	952	„ 11·49
Dalmatia..	5	2,371	43,241	238	„ 9·96
Lombardy	74	58,808	771,778	5,992	„ 9·81
Venice (and District)....	46	18,172	285,037	2,483	„ 7·31
Transylvania.....	5	557	8,512	43	„ 12·95
Military Borders.....	10	1,666	9,148	73	„ 22·82
Total.....	272	148,540	2,033,298	16,563	1 in 8·97
Average of 3 years, 1835 } to 1837 inclusive }		147,210	1,965,303	18,188	1 in 8·09

In 1837, the number of military hospitals was 166, and the reception of patients, 213,837; the mortality, as it might be expected, is much less in these than in the civil establishments; thus, upon an average of three

years, 1835-36-37, we find the mortality twelve per cent. in the latter, and but three in the former. No doubt the age, earlier treatment, and general better condition and manner of living in the soldiery, produces this.

The mortality differs very much in the different civil hospitals, the proportion of deaths is always greater in the larger establishments: thus, in 1811 and 1812, the average mortality in the *Allgemeine Krankenhaus* was eighteen per cent., since which time it has gradually decreased, till, upon the average for 1829 and 1831, we find it but nine per cent. It has subsequently risen, however, and the report for 1838 proves it to be from thirteen to fourteen per cent. In the Lemberg hospital, the average mortality for ten years was ten per cent., and in that at Gratz, for twelve years, twelve per cent.

Besides the special hospitals and sanatory institutions for particular diseases in different parts of the empire, there are the Ophthalmic Clinique attached to the School of Medicine in Vienna, the Institute for Blind Children at Prague,* that for persons affected with amaurosis, (*Staarblinde*,) at Pesth, as well as the different hospitals and private establishments described in the foregoing chapters.

The deaf and dumb institutions of Germany have

* The Blind Asylum at Prague is well worthy of the attention of the general as well as the medical visitor. The system of education, as well as amusement adopted in that institution, is worthy of imitation in this country.

long been celebrated. That of Vienna, already described, will explain the manner of conducting all the similar establishments in the monarchy: they are thus distributed:—

	No.	Teachers.	Pupils.		Total.	Pensioners.	Cost of Pensioners in Florins.	Total Cost in Florins.
			Intern.	Extern.				
Vienna	1	4	79	0	79	67	10128	10272
Linz	1	4	11	55	66	24	5232	5732
Gratz	1	3	24	16	40	28	1420	3162
Hall (in the Tyrol)	1	4	40	0	40	40	3626	3832
Prague	1	3	41	11	52	41	6162	6162
Brünn	1	2	18	8	26	18	2555	2555
Leopold	1	4	14	3	17	14	1874	1874
Milan	1	9	32	19	51	24	12221	16210
Total*	8	33	259	112	371	256	43218	49799
Cost in English Money...							£4321. 16. 0.	£4979. 18. 0.

The lunatic asylums, *Irrenanstalten*, are numerous; with the exception of Dalmatia, Transylvania, and the Military Borders, each Austrian province has a special public institution of this description. Up to a very recent period, these institutions were no more than gaols for the safe keeping of the insane, without any attempt being made to effect recovery by moral restraint or medical relief, and it is but a very short time since the government thought fit to appoint physicians to these establishments. This table exhibits the

* There is likewise one deaf and dumb asylum for both sexes at Pesth.

number of asylums and the insane confined in them in 1837 :—

	Hospitals.	PATIENTS.		
		Males.	Females.	Total.
Lower Austria.....	2	453	465	918
Upper Austria.....	2	57	55	112
Styria	1	72	105	177
Carinthia and Carniola	2	28	35	63
Coast Land	1	27	19	46
Tyrol.....	2	72	45	117
Bohemia... ..	1	264	147	411
Moravia and Silesia.....	1	45	29	74
Gallicia.....	1	149	127	276
Lombardy	9	746	676	1422
Venice and District.....	16	611	469	1080
Total.....	38	2524	2172	4696
In 1836.....		2591	2278	4869
In 1835.....		2414	2013	4427
Total Amount in 1837.....		397,867 Florins.		
Cost in English Money		£39,786 14s. 0d.		

There are besides these, several private institutions with whose statistics I am not acquainted; the public ones all belong to the state, their expenses are defrayed by the *Aerarium*, and the receptions are partly gratuitous. It would appear by reference to the foregoing table, in which the males exceed the females by 312, that the insane females are fewer in Austria than in other countries; the contrary, is, however, the fact: but the female lunatics being more frequently provided for by their own families, the correct number is not seen by the statistical returns. Thus concludes in true

Austrian phraseology, Dr. Springer's Report of the Lunatic Asylums—"Of these," (that is the exciting causes,) "many circumstances, partly physical and partly moral, that generally produce insanity, as revolution, with all her enormities, have fortunately not produced any victims here; and the temple of Janus has now been closed a considerable time."

All the capital cities in the empire, except those of Hungary and Transylvania, are provided with Lying-in Hospitals, *Gebürhäuser*; they generally constitute a part of the medical hospitals, but are more especially connected with the foundling institutions. Poor and unmarried pregnant females are received into these institutions in like manner, and on the same conditions as in Vienna; others pay a tax according to the comforts they enjoy or the attendance they require. In the Lombardy and Venetian States there are no separate lying-in hospitals: but females are received into wards set apart for them in the foundling institutions of these countries. According to the following table, we find that above 9,500 females are delivered annually in the public institutions of Austria. In former times, the number who took advantage of this relief was very much less than at present: thus at Grätz, in 1809, there were but 98 deliveries in the Lying-in Hospital, and in 1830, as many as 510; and in 1837 it had still further increased to 1,127. In those of Lombardy, in 1817, the deliveries were only 99, and in 1837 they were 113. The average expense to a female during her confinement is from nine to ten florins, and the cost to the hospital twenty-eight, the difference being paid by the state.

Midwifery is publicly taught in the Universities of Vienna, Grätz, Innsbruck, Prague, Olmutz, Leopold, Pavia, Padua, and Pesth; the Lyceums of Salzburg and Lynz; the Josephinum Academy of Vienna; the *Ecoles des Sages Femmes*, at Trieste, Zara, and Milan; and the Lying-in Hospital of Czernowitz. The accompanying statistical table exhibits the number of lying-in hospitals in Austria, with the births and mortality (in both mothers and offspring) occurring in each, in the year 1837:—

LYING-IN HOSPITALS IN 1837.

DISTRICTS.	No. of Hospitals.	Births.	MORTALITY.		
			Mothers.	Children.	
				Born Dead.	Died before 9th Day.
Lower Austria...	1	4635	455	113, or 1 in 32·13	234, or 1 in 19·8
Upper Austria...	1	201	4	10, „ „ 20·1	8, „ „ 25·12
Styria.....	1	1127	1	60, „ „ 18·78	21, „ „ 53·66
Carynthia.....	2	194	0	1, „ „ 19·4	15, „ „ 12·93
Coast Land.....	1	155	0	11, „ „ 14·09	„ „ „
Tyrol.....	2	182	3	4, „ „ 45·5	17, „ „ 10·70
Bohemia.....	1	1562	9	61, „ „ 25·6	60, „ „ 26·03
Moravia and } Silesia }	2	387	0	5, „ „ 77·4	4, „ „ 96·75
Gallicia.....	1	113	3	11, „ „ 10·27	16, „ „ 7·06
Dalmatia.....	1	29	0	1, „ „ 29·	„ „ „
Lombardy.....	8	692	28	56, „ „ 10·57	112, „ „ 6·17
Venice.....	16	397	5	27, „ „ 11·	18, „ „ 22·05
Total.....	37	9674	508	360, or 1 in 26·87	505, or 1 in 18·95
In 1836		9205	257	424, or 1 in 21·7	317, or 1 in 29·03
In 1835		9123	416	426, „ „ 21·41	560, „ „ 16·29
In 1830		6623	241		

The following table exhibits the number of foundling institutions in the Austrian empire in 1837, and the children provided for by such, either in the hospitals or at nurse in the rural districts.

PROVINCES.	No. of Hospitals.	CHILDREN.		
		In Hospital.	Out of Hospital.	Total.
Lower Austria	1	5,335	16,535	21,870
Upper Austria	1	198	1,565	1,763
Bohemia	1	1,573	5,240	6,813
Moravia and Silesia	2	426	1,497	1,923
Gallicia	1	..	1,021	1,021
Dalmatia	6	357	1,887	2,244
Tyrol	1	215	583	798
Carynthia and Carniola	1	..	1,036	1,036
Coast Land	1	492	1,517	2,009
Lombardy	11	9,187	19,271	28,458
Venice	6	2,611	11,352	13,963
Transylvania	1	..	5	5
Styria	1	1,076	3,823	4,899
Total, ..	34	21,470	65,332	86,802

The total annual cost of these institutions amounts to £122,102 14s. 0d. Hungary and the Military Borders are not provided with foundling institutions. The annual average mortality for the three years ending 1837 of the foundlings in hospital was thirteen; and in these out of hospital eleven, per cent.

Having commenced this work with a *resumé* or brief abstract of the education, and the social and moral condition of the Austrian empire, I will now conclude it with a statistical record of crime, its character and proportions in the different provinces of the monarchy.

CRIMES.	PROVINCES.												
	Upper and Lower Austria.	Styria.	Carniola & Carinthia.	Illyrian Coast.	Tyrol.	Bohemia.	Moravia and Silesia.	Gallicia.	Dalmatia.	Lombardy.	Venice.	In 10 years.	In 1837.
1 High Treason	2	..	..	..	2	..	..	3	..	10	..	15	7
2 Breaches of the Peace	8	4	..	..	..	11	..	6	..	23	7	70	8
3 Rebellion and Outrage	22	10	2	6	..	90	15	67	..	32	11	266	30
4 Public Assaults	460	228	61	370	690	426	355	1529	2831	5755	1614	14,319	2037
5 Returned from Transportation	5	1	..	..	3	15	6	4	..	14	..	48	6
6 Ill-treatment of Officials	109	70	11	40	61	320	144	310	94	422	270	1851	260
7 Forgery (of Note, or Paper Credit)	259	119	2	4	1	120	214	2320	..	14	10	3063	90
8 Coining	138	106	11	89	81	110	32	119	256	319	804	2065	234
9 Religious Disturbance	14	3	..	6	20	24	12	29	54	169	175	506	65
10 Violation	299	67	22	34	128	125	98	236	153	926	443	2531	271
11 Murder and Manslaughter	432	230	168	199	273	724	424	1305	1940	1588	956	8239	760
12 Procuring Abortion	63	41	5	3	18	37	26	132	40	70	33	468	39
13 Child Desertion	161	68	20	64	69	135	66	141	215	874	161	1974	104
14 Wounds and Injuries	664	173	82	225	476	524	397	1509	3184	4644	2440	14,318	1380
15 Duels	5	..	..	..	..	..	..	4	17	..	4	30	3
16 Malicious Burning	238	74	41	89	115	347	174	694	5097	2185	1449	10,503	819
17 Theft and Embezzlement	25,346	4036	1148	2248	5302	21,864	7463	19,063	6029	64,546	34,237	191,282	20,003
18 Robbery	446	161	163	259	366	411	205	740	1147	13,926	6246	24,070	1623
19 Fraud	5214	800	120	339	977	2028	1020	1512	443	2556	1554	16,563	1452
20 Bigamy	29	6	..	5	8	21	13	56	11	18	4	171	6
21 Defamation	58	25	2	10	50	60	29	127	92	99	109	661	41
22 Assisting Criminals	213	113	27	34	65	77	22	209	146	185	101	1192	99
23 Noncompliance with the Sanatory Laws	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	619	..	3	622	155
Yearly Average	34,185	6335	1885	4024	8705	27,469	10,724	30,115	22,379	98,375	50,631	294,827	29,492
In 1837	3418	633	188	402	870	2746	1072	3011	2237	9837	5063	29,482	29,492
	4059	671	380	471	909	3612	1088	2809	2053	8890	4550		

From this we learn that the crime of high treason, breaches of the peace, coining, theft, and return from transportation, prevailed most, in proportion to their population, in the Lombardy and Venetian kingdoms—entirely composed of the Italian races, and where education, as may be learned from the table of national instruction at page 11, is at so low an ebb when compared with the rest of Austria, that we find very little more than one third of the children at the school-age are in actual attendance upon the schools provided by the state. On the whole, Dalmatia presents, for the amount of its population, the greatest variety and extent of crime; for, with the exception of those already mentioned in Lombardy—forgery in Gallicia, and fraud in Upper and Lower Austria, this province outnumbers all the others in crimes of every description: and here again the effects of want of education are manifest; for among the Slavonian race inhabiting Gallicia, Dalmatia, and the Illyrian Coast, the proportion of children attending school to a 1000 at the “school-age” is but 105. The nature and extent of this work does not permit me to enter further into these matters, interesting though they may be.

THE END.

ERRATA.

- | | | | | | | | |
|------|------|------|-----|------------|---------------------|-------------|--------------------------|
| Page | 28, | line | 4, | <i>for</i> | Van Sweiten | <i>read</i> | Van Swieten. |
| " | 39, | " | 3, | <i>for</i> | Meditzin | <i>read</i> | Medizin. |
| " | 51, | " | 27, | <i>for</i> | des Gesellschaft | <i>read</i> | der Gesellschaft. |
| " | 51, | " | 27, | <i>for</i> | vaterlandeschen | <i>read</i> | vaterländischen. |
| " | 54, | ; | 9, | <i>for</i> | Daumhirsch | <i>read</i> | Damhirsch. |
| " | 55, | " | 9, | <i>for</i> | prüfung | <i>read</i> | Prüfung. |
| " | 58, | " | 17, | <i>for</i> | Signior | <i>read</i> | Signor. |
| " | 58, | " | 19, | <i>for</i> | müntz | <i>read</i> | Münz. |
| " | 60, | " | 5, | <i>for</i> | Wundärtze | <i>read</i> | Wundärzte. |
| " | 62, | " | 6, | <i>for</i> | Offitzin | <i>read</i> | Officin. |
| " | 63, | " | 7, | <i>for</i> | Landwundarzts | <i>read</i> | Landwundärzte. |
| " | 63, | " | 14, | <i>for</i> | geburts-arzneikunde | <i>read</i> | Geburtsarznei-
kunde. |
| " | 75, | " | 20, | <i>for</i> | Gesätze | <i>read</i> | Gesetze. |
| " | 75, | " | 21, | <i>for</i> | Gremium | <i>read</i> | Gremien. |
| " | 78, | " | 20, | <i>for</i> | Radoutensaal | <i>read</i> | Redoutensaal. |
| " | 79, | " | 6, | <i>for</i> | Fraus | <i>read</i> | Frauen. |
| " | 125, | " | 26, | <i>for</i> | Secundarärtze | <i>read</i> | Secundärärzte. |
| " | 128, | " | 3, | <i>for</i> | Protokollen | <i>read</i> | Protokolle. |
| " | 218, | " | 29, | <i>for</i> | Vesuche | <i>read</i> | Versuche. |
| " | 242, | " | 8, | <i>for</i> | Beretire | <i>read</i> | Bereiter. |
| " | 303, | " | 28, | <i>for</i> | Landespitäler | <i>read</i> | Landspitäler. |
| " | 304, | " | 8, | <i>for</i> | Fater | <i>read</i> | Vater. |
| " | 308, | " | 13, | <i>for</i> | Stadt-Wundärzt | <i>read</i> | Stadt-Wundarzt. |

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ESSAY VII.

On conscience

CONTENTS.

ESSAY VIII.

On Faith

ESSAY IX.

On love to God, charity, and hardness of heart . . .

ESSAY X.

On hope

ESSAY XI.

On the presence and absence of devotional feeling .

