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Board of Trustees, Boston University A Tool of Empire: The British Medical Establishment in Lagos, 1861-1905 Author(s): Spencer H. Brown Reviewed work(s): Source: The International Journal of African Historical Studies, Vol. 37, No. 2 (2004), pp. 309-343 Published by: Boston University African Studies Center Stable URL: <http://www.jstor.org/stable/4129011> . Accessed: 04/01/2013 14: 02 Your use of the JSTOR archive indicates your acceptance of the Terms & Conditions of Use, available at . <http://www.jstor.org/page/info/about/policies/terms.jsp> . JSTOR is a not-for-profit service that helps scholars, researchers, and students discover, use, and build upon a wide range of content in a trusted digital archive. We use information technology and tools to increase productivity and facilitate new forms of scholarship. For more information about JSTOR, please contact [support@jstor.org](mailto:support@jstor.org) . Boston University African Studies Center and Board of Trustees, Boston University are collaborating with JSTOR to digitize, preserve and extend access to The International Journal of African Historical Studies. <http://www.jstor.org> This content downloaded on Fri, 4 Jan 2013 14: 02: 15 PM All use subject to JSTOR Terms and Conditions International Journal of African Historical Studie 37, 2 (2004) 309 A TOOL OF EMPIRE: THE BRITISH MEDICAL ESTABLISHMENT IN LAGOS, 1861-1905\* By Spencer H. Brown medicine, and its handmaiden, "European public health, served as 'tools of Empire,' of both symbolic and practical consequence, and as images representative of the European roof to conquer, occupy or settle.... medicine served as an important commitment, variously instrument of empire, as well as an imperializing of cultural force in itself.... " I So argued Roy MacLeod in 1988. William Bynum stated that tropical medicine itself grew from the mid-1800s on because of "

the intensification of imperial rivalries" and because of its "increased capacity ... to aid in Christianizing, civilizing, commercialising, or simply dominating" new territories had come under European rule. "If medicine could tame the diseases that were rampant in the tropics, it had undoubted force as a tool of empire...." 2 There were those in the late political 1800s who felt "that medicine itself justified imperialism." 3 David Arnold asserted in 1988 that "medicine was a part of the ideology ... of empire" and that "imperial powers were beginning [in the late 1800s] to use medicine as a way of winning support from a newly subject population, balancing out the coercive features of colonial rule, and of establishing wider imperial hegemony than could be derived from a conquest alone." 4 The position that colonial medicine, especially its tropical component, was a tool of European imperialism--both in its establishment and in its justification--is an interpretation common among scholars, especially those interested in non-West- I would like to thank my friend and colleague, William L. Burton, for photocopying the many pages of the Lagos Blue Books; his kindness in doing so has literally made this study possible. My thanks to the Western Illinois University Foundation for a Summer Stipend that facilitated the latter stages of this research. My special thanks also to Kathy Dahl of the WIU Library for her reference knowledge and skills in locating pertinent sources. Finally, this study is in memory of Doris, my wife and friend. 1 Roy MacLeod, "Preface," in Roy MacLeod and Milton Lewis, eds., *Disease, Medicine, and Empire: Perspectives on Western Medicine and the Experience of European Expansion* (London, 1988), x. 2 William F. Bynum, *Science and the Practice of Medicine in the Nineteenth Century* (Cambridge, 1994), 148. 3 Ibid., 152. 4 David

Arnold, " Introduction: Disease, Medicine, and Empire," in David Arnold, ed., Imperial Medicine and Indigenous Societies (Manchester, 1988), 16. This content downloaded on Fri, 4 Jan 2013 14: 02: 15 PM All use subject to JSTOR Terms and Conditions 310 SPENCER H. BROWN ern cultures. 5 has arisen, in part, from an effort by many scholars from the 1950s It on to reevaluate of from the perspective colonial peoples and their cul imperialism with those who arguesuch revisionism. 6 tures, and I have no quarrel In such reevaluation of imperialism and the role of colonial medicine and health therein, however, it is essential to maintain and public objectivity avoid judg the Western liberal ments based upon current values often held by those educated in and tradition. is also essential to compare the effects of imperialism colonial medicine upon the indigenes living in the colonies with the effects of European government and medicine upon the citizens of the metropolises. Gwyn Prins, for example, asserts that " in the old-fashioned of disease environment colonial Africa, Hygaea ... was for many Africans seen as the colonialist's whore" because the district commissioner's public health orders " were among the most intrusive in rural Africa." 7 With respect to Feierman's stress upon reckoning the social costs of production, Prins states that " it will complete the destruction of the image of allopathic medicine's political detachment tighten the linkage of occupational and epidemiology to the study of the political economy of colonialism." 8 Accepting that colonial medicine was an integral part of the typical colonial what were the and administration can thus be described as a " tool" of imperialism, characteristics this tool, and what effects did it actually have on the health and of welfare of the indigenes? If there were social costs of production for colonial peoples

resulting from development projects (e. g., dams bringing an increase in schistosomiasis and highways and railroads making the spread of disease easier), must these projects with indifference to one charge the colonial officials who implemented and the indigenes' welfare? Yet indifference and callousness have been ascribed to these officials, though they lacked the knowledge that scholars of the late 1900s have for of and about disease transmission the importance of good nutrition the maintenance of health. 9 5 In addition to the authors previously cited, see also Gwyn Prins, " But What Was the Disease? The Present State of Health and Healing in African Studies," *Past and Present* 124 (1989), 159-79, esp. 164-66; Megan Vaughan, *Curing Their Ills: Colonial Power and African Illness* (Stanford, 1991), 204-205; and Steven Feierman, " Struggles for Control: The Social Roots of Health and Healing in Modern Africa," *African Studies Review* 28 (1985), 73-147, esp. 93-105 on the social costs of production as related to development and consequent ill health and 120-24 on colonial health services. 6 Spencer H. Brown, " A History of the People of Lagos, 1852-1886" (Ph. D. thesis, Northwestern University, 1964), embodies this revisionist view of imperialism. 7 Prins, " But What Was the Disease?" 164. " Colonial medicine" as used in this study usually encompasses public health. 8 Ibid., 166. 9 See MacLeod, " Introduction," 5, on the consistently critical interpretations of colonial medicine in the *International Journal of Health Sciences*. This content downloaded on Fri, 4 Jan 2013 14: 02: 15 PM All use subject to JSTOR Terms and Conditions A TOOL OF EMPIRE 311 Feierman leans toward such imputation of guilt when he writes that " the cost of making working conditions healthy, the cost of feeding workers and their

retired workers, and of either controlling or suffering the families, of maintaining environmental effects of the production process" are among the social costs of production.<sup>10</sup> While not explicitly asserting that these social costs should have been anticipated and taken into account by colonial officials of the late 1800s and early of 1900s, he notes that "the potential African beneficiaries improved healthcare had this little influence in the colonial mother-country."<sup>11</sup> Supporting idea is the concept and of the welfare state and the proper relations between government capitalism that should follow therefrom. Needless to say, ideas about social security and unemployment benefits were just emerging slowly on the European scene by the late in 1800s and early 1900s. To assume their full acceptance the mother country, much less in the colonies, is to impose later values and programs upon an earlier age.<sup>12</sup> The ideal still held by many historians that the past must be understood through the intellect and emotions of those who lived in it, seems to be a principle often forgotten by those who condemn colonial medicine for its deliberate support flaws of staffing, financing, and of imperialism. Colonial medicine had innumerable humans from becoming ill. As Bruce put practice, it also saved lives and prevented Fetter concludes, "Critiques colonial rule and capitalism in Africa are certainly of but they need deny neither the germ theory of epidemic disease nor the justified, from their ineffectiveness of investments in health facilities nor wrench materials torical context."<sup>13</sup> Does bad colonial conduct in the economic sphere necessarily exclude good intentions toward African health?"<sup>14</sup> Continuing his appeal for balance in evaluating colonial medicine, Fetter writes: "Since about 1905 the combined powers of

medical technology, private hygiene, and public health have made it possible to reduce mortality and morbidity from infectious diseases, wherever money is spent wisely and in sufficient quantity.... The tragedy of colonial medicine was that there was never enough of it." "Struggles for Control," 93. 11 Ibid., 123. 12 Arthur Marwick, *The Nature of History*, 3d ed. (Chicago, 1989), 270-71, indicates that the term "welfare state" was not even used in English until the 1930s and that its meaning varied among countries. 13 Bruce Fetter, "Pitfalls in the Application of Demographic Insights to African History," *History in Africa* 19 (1992), 304. John V. Pickstone, "Introduction," in *Medical Innovations in Historical Perspective*, ed. Pickstone (New York, 1992), 15, after stressing the responsibility of historians to be true to the "perceptions and judgements of the historical actors," warns them "not to 'read back' later knowledge and assume that our actors in the past 'must have known'" what later generations see as truth. 14 Bruce Fetter, "Pease Porridge in a Pot: The Social Basis of Health and Healing in Africa," *History in Africa* 20 (1993), 49. 15 Ibid., 44. 10 Feierman, This content downloaded on Fri, 4 Jan 2013 14: 02: 15 PM All use subject to JSTOR Terms and Conditions 312 SPENCER H. BROWN as and recriminations, inferences to motive prompted by Overgeneralizations, an author's ideology are unprofitable the avenues for understanding varied roles of colonial medicine. If colonial medicine sometimes erred in its efforts to improve health among indigenes, one need only compare its actions to those of European In medicine in the metropole to gain valuable perspective. her study of "the intersection between the rising tide. of eugenic thought in early twentieth century Britain and ... 'social medicine' or 'social hygiene,'" Greta Jones

concludes: The influence of social hygiene was possible precisely because it was easily health reform. The public into integrated the discourse of nineteenth-century health reformer of the nineteenth century urged the poor to be thrifty, far seeing, hard working as well as physically and mentally healthy. At the same time, the public health reformer those among the working class whom no admonition, advice, discipline, or instruction seemed able to save from unemployment, immorality, and ill health. These concepts easily dovetailed with the type of social Darwinism which divided the nation into the fit and the unfit and ... attributed existence of the residuum largely to heredity. 16 Social Darwinism was thought to provide scientific justification for social management and appropriate techniques for achieving it. " By 1900 these techniques and included birth control, segregation, sterilisation, the use of legislative measures the state to alter the relative birth rates of the fit and unfit." 7 by of The substitution " Africans" for " the unfit" in Jones's conclusion suggests that, in its missteps and abuses of power, colonial medicine's practitioners gestures were following the general example derived from their own education and set for associated with Racism and the attitudes medicine's practitioners. them by European and as it can often be equated with class consciousness and its attitudes, Brantlinger a critic of colonial medicine, has correctly others have noted.' 8 As MacLeod, with more general study of the state and its citizens and their medical practitioners, emphasises 16 Greta Jones, *Social Hygiene in Twentieth Century Britain* (London, 1986), 160. For a with 8 Times (London, 1999). Parker's parallels Chapter has interesting from Ancient to Modern in Britain's colonial experiences Africa, esp. 128-29,



146. 17 Jones, *Social Hygiene*, 160. Anthony S. Wohl, *Endangered Lives: Public Health in western Europe, especially Britain*, see Dorothy Parker, *Health, Civilization and the State: Health that public Victorian Britain* (Cambridge, Mass., 1983), 332, 334-35, notes that some argued British human thus weakening health measures allowed more of the poor to live and reproduce, that was stock. The social Darwinists' position generally the poor and weak should die. 18 Patrick The and "Victorians Africans: Genealogy of the Myth of the Dark Brantlinger, are *Critical Inquiry* 12 (1985), 166-203, esp. 166, 181, 194, where "savages" equated Continent, "class system." or as often functions a displaced surrogate class" and "racism with the "working Lives, 77-79, 319, states that the poor were looked upon by many as animals Wohl, *Endangered* to could be likened that of colonial peoples. See slum clearance forced and that their plight amidst also Roy Lewis and Yvonne Foy, *Painting Africa White: The Human Side of British Colonialism* (New York, 1971), 57; H. Alan C. Cairns, *Prelude to Imperialism: British Reactions to Central* This content downloaded on Fri, 4 Jan 2013 14: 02: 15 PM All use subject to JSTOR Terms and Conditions A TOOL OF EMPIRE 313 observed, "European medicine fostered a powerful discourse of authority and progress, committed to the extension of 'expert' control over otherwise intractable social systems." 9 Bynum, too, recognizes this need for perspective when he attributes the mortality decline of 1850-1900 to "some combination of socioeconomic and the improvement social intervention," latter resulting from "scientific medicine ... [having] received the sanction of the state and doctors ... [having] become inextricably linked to existing social and welfare movements.... " 20 It is within this broader historical context of

scientific medicine that colonial medicine must be evaluated. In an insightful discussion of the state of colonial medicine studies, Megan Vaughan urges those interested in either the medical or social/political aspects of colonial medicine to pursue a middle path. Few of us, I think, would wish to argue the case for seeing colonial medicine simply as a direct and oppressive arm of the colonial state (though there are occasional instances when it looks just like this). On the other hand, neither would many of us wish to reinstate the kind of triumphalist history of imperial and colonial medicine which came before. The study of colonial medicine has been one of those areas which has illuminated most clearly the limits of colonial power: in Africa at least, colonial medics were simply too thin on the ground and their instruments blunt to be viewed either as agents of oppression or as liberators from disease, and studies of African demography confirm this view.... colonial medicine was less important either in controlling disease than we might once have or troling supposed. 21 In pursuing this middle path, Vaughan encourages studies of scientific medicine that examine its practice in detail, rather than focusing upon its underlying theory:" the to African Society, 1840-1890 (London, 1965), 92-93, refers Livingstone's frequent comparison of Africans with the English poor; and Douglas A. Lorimer, *Colour, Class and the Victorians: English Attitudes to the Negro in the Mid-Nineteenth Century* (New York, 1978), 153. 19 MacLeod, in 6. " Introduction," Similarly, Hilary Marland, *her Medicine and Society in and as 1780-1870* (Cambridge, Wakefield Huddersfield, 1987), 172, viewed medicine a tool both of colonialism and of capitalism and the state. See also Shula Marks, " What Is Colonial about

Colonial Medicine? And What Has Happened Imperialism Health?" *Social History of and to Medicine* 10, 2 (1997), 206-207, 211. 20 Bynum, *Science and the Practice*, 226. He observes that just as "travelers and or rites they missionaries" themid-1800s Africa often recoiled of the in "from cannibalism puberty witnessed savages," "early in so statisticians often repelled the sloth, drunkenness, were sexual by and 66. of promiscuity, fiscal irresponsibility the unwashed," 21 Megan Vaughan, *of and Issues in the Social History and Anthropology* "Healing Curing: Medicine in Africa," *Social History of Medicine* 7 (1994), 288. A comparable evaluation of colonial medicine can be found in Rita Headrick, *Colonialism, Health and Illness in French Equatorial Africa, 1885-1935*, ed. Daniel R. Headrick (Atlanta, 1994); see esp. xvii, 412. This content downloaded on Fri, 4 Jan 2013 14: 02: 15 PM All use subject to JSTOR Terms and Conditions 314 SPENCER H. BROWN practice of scientific medicine in its various forms needs to be specified with the same attention detail as are those of its African counterparts." 22 to What follows is an attempt provides such a detailed study of the practice of colonial medicine in Lagos from 1861 to 1905. Throughout, effort is made to an this practice within the broader context of European medicine in the British place also, we will present the metropole, specifically England and Wales. 23 Throughout British medical establishment Lagos as realistically possible, noting both successes and failures. Finally, the degree to which the colonial medicine practiced in Lagos through 1905 was a tool of empire will be considered. The General Hospitals, New and Old "The attempt to make the towns and villages of West Africa healthy under the existing system is a Sisyphean task, because of no comprehensive grasp of the many-sidedness of

sanitation and the relation of each to one another, no very definite object in view, no special organization the purpose, and no continuity." 24 For This was the judgment of a medical expert, William John Ritchie Simpson, in his 1908 report to the Colonial Office. Simpson then held an M. D. and a Diploma in Public Health and was a professor of hygiene at King's College, University of London, and a lecturer in tropical hygiene at the London School of Tropical Medicine. He had formerly been the health officer in Calcutta. Although he felt that sanitary reform would be more difficult to implement in Lagos than in either Freetown or Accra, because of the low-lying island site on which Lagos had grown, he asserted that the town was "already the most progressive and advanced on the coast." 25 One reason for this conclusion was the new Lagos Colonial Hospital, begun in late 1894 and operational by 1896. 26 It was "the best on the Coast" and compared with 22 Vaughan, "Healing and Curing," 291. 23 Scotland and Ireland are usually excluded from the data cited for Britain, though data just for London are sometimes provided. 24 William J. R. Simpson, Report by Professor W. J. Simpson on Sanitary Matters in Various West African Colonies and the Outbreak of Plague in the Gold Coast (London, 1909), 20. 25 Ibid., 69; and Spencer H. Brown, "Public Health in Lagos, 1850-1900: Perceptions, Patterns, and Perspectives," International Journal of African Historical Studies 25, 2 (1992), 337. For an evaluation of Simpson's life, see R. A. Baker and R. A. Bayliss, "William John Ritchie Simpson (1855-1931), Public Health and Tropical Medicine," Medical History 31 (1987), 450-65. 26 Lagos Blue Book (hereafter LBB), 1896, "Hospital Return" section. Apart from those related to budget, most subsequent references are to this section of the Blue Books cited. Accra in the

British colony of the Gold Coast did not secure a new hospital until 1916, and that was reserved for Europeans only. A new hospital for Africans was not built until 1923. K. David Patterson's account of hospital and clinic development, especially good for the early 1900s, is This content downloaded on Fri, 4 Jan 2013 14: 02: 15 PM All use subject to JSTOR Terms and Conditions A TOOL OF EMPIRE 315 paredwell with " any hospitalfor natives" in the Britishcolonies he had visited. It possessed an operatingtheater " well up to the most modern scientific requirements." 27It was also ideally sited along the Lagos Lagoon to receive the onshore breezes fromthe Bight of Benin. Its 12 buildingswere distributed over the 350 feet from the Marinaalong the shore to BroadStreetto the northeastand over the 500 feet between PrisonStreetto the northwestand Regis Ain6 Streetto the southeast. These 4 acres (1. 6 hectares)of prime land in what was increasinglythe European of quarter Lagos had been bought in the early 1890s from the Frenchtradingfirm of Regis Aine. 28 The core of the hospitalconsistedof four buildingsfor Africanpatientsand one for Europeanpatients, of the paviliondesign then consideredmost healthfulin as EnglandandWales. 29The surgerywas separatefrom these five structures, were the laboratory chemicalandbacteriological and for the nurses'quarters, the analysis, two smallerbuildings, each with its own compound builtas asylums for female wall, andmale mentalpatients. Some of the open land on the hospitalgrounds was used for gardening. the 12 buildingsin the hospitalcomplex, only the housing for the Of nurses, the firstof whomarrivedin 1898, evoked criticismfrom Simpson European sinceournurseswere now compelledto live in a house intended two. 30 for Each of

the four buildings for African patients had a single story built 7 feet from the ground and supported by 22 iron pillars. There was a large single ward with beds for 16 patients, thus permitting the hospital to treat up to 64 African patients at any given time. The wards were 45 feet in length, 24 feet in width, and 13 feet to the 5 ventilators along each length of the hip roof. The roof's four surfaces sloped upward for another 8 feet to their summit. There they were capped by that another ventilator ran above the ward for 23 of the 34 feet of ridge. Each patient thus had over 68 square feet of floor space and well over 800 cubic feet of air space air from the additional up to the peak of from the height of the side ventilators, apart found in "Health in Urban Ghana: The Case of Accra, 1900-1940," *Social Science and Medicine* 13B (1979), 251-68, esp. 257. 27 Simpson, Report, 82. 28 Nigerian Archives, Central Secretariat Office (hereafter NCS), 1/7, 4, Carter to Secretary of State, 11 Nov. 1891; and Lagos maps of December 1885 (revised June 1887) and May 1908 issued by the colonial government. 29 The popularity of the pavilion design is discussed in Brian Abel-Smith, *The Hospitals, 1800-1948: A Study in Social Administration in England and Wales* (Cambridge, Mass., 1964), 154-55; John Woodward, *To Do the Sick No Harm: A Study of the British Voluntary Hospital System to 1875* (London, 1974), 113-14; and Grace Golden, "Building a Hospital of Air: The Victorian Pavilions of St. Thomas' Hospital, London," *Bulletin of the History of Medicine* 49 (1975), 512-13. 30 Simpson, Report, 82-83; and Michael J. C. Echeruo, "The Lagos Scene in the 19th Century," *Presence Africaine* NS 82 (1972), 87. This content downloaded on Fri, 4 Jan 2013 14: 02: 15 PM All use subject to JSTOR Terms and Conditions 316 SPENCER H. BROWN the roof. 31 Eight large windows,

four per length, opened like doors and thus also air Each building had a lavatory, earthclosets, and a storetwo promoted circulation. room at one end of the floor, with a nurse's room and a light isolation ward at the other end. An 8-foot wide verandah along both lengths of the building; narrower ran verandahs were along the widths. Three stairways led up to each ward from the ground. 32 The single building for European patients consisted of three separate wards, divided by two interior walls with doors, designed to hold four beds on each end and two beds in the middle. The overall dimensions of these wards were 59 by 24 feet and 14 feet to the 5 ventilators along each length of the hip roof. At its summit, 8 feet higher, a 50-foot ventilator rested on the 59-foot ridge above the wards. The internal ward measurements gave to each patient an average of 140 square feet of more than floor space and over 1,900 cubic feet of air space to the side ventilators, the 10 beds was placed double that afforded to each African patient. 33 Each of lengthwise beside a window that was 7 by 3.5 feet and was divided vertically like from the French windows. During heavy and blowing rain, these could be shuttered outside along the 8-foot wide verandahs ran the length of the building, or during that dry weather they could be opened completely into the wards themselves. The cross ventilation from ocean breezes was consequently quite good, as Simpson had remarked the African wards. At one end of the wards were a bathroom, of lavatory, and an office. Across the hall at the other end were a pantry and an ice room. All of the whereas the African ward had screen over windows, doors, and ventilators, European can wards were unscreened. 34 This first story also rested upon iron pillars, 13 feet high, to accommodate the ground floor that housed a general office, a

storeroom, a healthoffice, a drugs storeroom, and the office of the medical officer (M. O.) of Lagos. A 9-foot wide verandah along bothgroundlengths, while one almost5 feet wide ranalong both ran widths. The totaldimensionswere 97 by 44 feet. 35 This new colonial hospital had been in full operationfor about a decade withthe cleanlinessof the wardsand when Simpsonvisitedit, andhe was impressed in the admirable level of maintenance each buildinghe visited. The cross-ventilation 31 W. J. R. Simpson, Principles of Hygiene As Applied to Tropical and Sub-Tropical feet that Climates(London, 1908), 320, recommended eachpatientshouldhave80-100 square of spaceandthatthereshouldbe no morethan12bedsperward. 32 Simpson, Report, 82, and Lagos Fig. 4, Hospital Native Ward. of 33 Golden," Building Hospital," a 524, statesthatin the planning St. ThomasHospital, have 1, 900 cubicfeet of space, should that reasonable eachpatient openedin 1871, it was thought for Nightingale argued evenmore. though Florence 34 Simpson, Report, 82, and Lagos Fig. 3, EuropeanHospital Ward, Upper Floor plan. 35 Simpson, Report, Lagos Fig. 3, EuropeanHospital Ward, Ground Floor plan. This content downloaded on Fri, 4 Jan 2013 14: 02: 15 PM All use subject to JSTOR Terms and Conditions A TOOL OF EMPIRE 317 resultingfrom the design of the wardswith their many large French windows and theirsiting with lengthat rightanglesto the prevailing onshore winds southwesterly was an importantconsiderationin Simpson's favorableevaluationof the hospital complex. He judged good ventilationan absolute necessity for health in the tropics. 36Planned inspections, be they militaryor civil, can result in quite erroneous conclusionsas to the conditionof the inspecteddduringnormaldays of activity. It is unlikely, however, that Simpson was seriously misled in his



evaluation, given his of experience as a colonial medical health officer in Calcutta and as a teacher years of public health and hygiene in London. He nevertheless undoubtedly saw the hospital and its staff at their best since his visit was known to them in advance. The old colonial hospital had been a converted West Indian Regiment army in 1867 shortly after it was built. 37 was located on 2 acres (0.8 hectares) of land about 500 feet farther to the southeast along the Marina from the eventual site of the new hospital. The building was considered a registered property, removed from the lagoon shore, by over 500 feet, and was situated just south of the Lagos Race Track near its grandstand. The building reverted to its military function between October 1873 and March 1874, during the Ashanti War fought in the Gold Coast. The hospital was moved to the Oil Mills building during that period. Having reoccupied the structure, colonial hospital remained there from 1874 to 1895. A dwarf wall was built around the large compound in 1880-1881, along with buildings for a laundry, kitchen, and a stable. Major improvements were made to the hospital itself during 1888 and 1889. 39 36 For Simpson's views on health in the tropics, see his *The Maintenance of Health in the Tropics*, 2nd ed. (New York, 1917), esp. 37-38, 40, and *Principles of Hygiene*, esp. 305, 311, 320. 37 Patterson, "Health in Urban Ghana," 257, indicates that the first hospital in Accra was opened in 1882, with 40-46 beds for Africans and a smaller number for Europeans. For an evaluation of army surgeons stationed in West Africa, see Spencer H. Brown, "British Army Surgeons Commissioned 1840-1909 with West Indian/West African Service: A Prosopographical Evaluation," *Medical History* 37 (1993), 411-31. For details on the lives of two of these surgeons in

Lagos, see Brown's "Colonialism on the Cheap: A Tale of Two English Army Surgeons in Lagos, Samuel Rowe and Frank Simpson, 1862-1882," *International Journal of African Historical Studies* 27, 3 (1994), 551-88. 38

There is reference to a "temporary" hospital in the 1895-96 budget; this may have been one of the wards later to become a part of the new hospital complex. 39 NCS, 1/1, 4, Lees to Berkeley, 6 Oct. 1873; Strahan to Governor-in-Chief, 12 May 1874; and Lees to Strahan, 14 June 1875. See also 1/1, 9, Griffith to Rowe, 31 Dec. 1881; and 1/7, 4, Carter to Secretary of State, confidential, 9 Nov. 1891. See also LBB, 1880, 1881; and Lagos government maps, 1887 and 1908. So extensive were the 1888-1889 repairs that P. Amaury Talbot, *The Peoples of Southern Nigeria: A Sketch of Their History, Ethnology and Languages* [1926] (London, 1969), I, Historical Notes, 124, states that the colonial hospital was "rebuilt." This content downloaded on Fri, 4 Jan 2013 14: 02: 15 PM All use subject to JSTOR Terms and Conditions

318 SPENCER H. BROWN There were two stories to the structure. The first had a hip roof whose sloping ceilings met 18 feet above the floor that housed three wards: one with 8 beds for European ship captains, one with 8 beds for European merchant sailors, and one with 16 beds for Africans (referred to as "natives")- usually from the Sierra Leonean or Brazilian immigrant communities of Lagos. The cramped ground floor, with horizontal ceilings just over 6 feet high, could contain two 8-bed wards for ordinary Africans not considered prominent enough for beds on the first floor. With 32 beds for Africans and an estimated population of 35, 000 in Lagos in 1867, there would have been 0. 91 beds per thousand of population. This compares with 0. 73 beds per thousand all voluntary general, teaching, and

special in England and Wales in 1861. Comparable hospitals figures for 1896 for the new colonial hospital of 64 beds for Africans would have been 1.28 beds per thousand with an estimated population of 50,000. In England and Wales in 1891, there were 1.02 beds per thousand for all types of voluntary hospitals. (Public medical institutions are not included in the England and Wales estimates.) London alone in 1861 had 1.63 beds per thousand voluntary in hospitals, while in 1891 the figure was 1.71 per thousand. 40 The captains' ward measured 21 feet in length, that for sailors 18 feet, and that for prominent Africans 49 feet, for a total length of 88 feet and uniform width of 24 feet. Each captain thus had an average of 63 square feet of floor space; sailors had 54 square feet, and prominent Africans had 73 square feet per bed. With some 13 feet of uniform ceiling height per bed, each sailor had 700 cubic feet of air, each African 950. 41 captain over 800, and each prominent The ground floor had a dispensary, office, storeroom, bathroom, and quarters for the assistant colonial surgeon, in addition to the two wards for Africans. Each ward was 24 feet in length, thus occupying just over half of the total length of the building. Various reported in the Blue Books, the widths were generally 17 or 19 feet through 1884. Africans in Native Ward 1 and Native Ward 2, as they were called, usually had 50 square feet per bed. With a ceiling 6-7 feet in height, the cubic feet per bed was only 300. 42 40 Robert A. Pinker, *English Hospital Statistics, 1861-1938* (London, 1966), 68-70, Table and p. 84, Table 15; and NCS, 1/8, 17, Glover to Kennedy, 18 May 1871; 1/8, 25, F. 10, Simpson to Berkeley, 15 Jan. 1873, enclosure in Berkeley to Hennessy, 15 Jan. 1873; LBB, 1871-1895. Viewed differently, with the population of Lagos around 40,000 in the mid-1880s, there would then have

been 1 bed per 1, 250 residents. For the 1880s Francis B. Smith, *The People's Health, 1830-1910* (New York, 1979), 251, states that England had 1 bed per 980 residents, while the ratio for Wales was 1: 2, 340 and for Scotland 1: 930. He deems these ratios reasonable for the 1880s. 41 LBB, 1871, 1872, 1874-1884. 42 Ibid. This content downloaded on Fri, 4 Jan 2013 14: 02: 15 PM All use subject to JSTOR Terms and Conditions A TOOL OF EMPIRE 319 From 1885 through 1890, the first floor retained the three wards for captains, sailors, and prominent Africans, but the number of beds reserved for captains was reduced from 8 to 6 in 1885 and to 4 in 1889. Those for sailors were reduced from 8 to 6 in 1885, while the number for prominent Africans was increased from 16 to 19 in 1885 and to 20 in 1889. Since ward dimensions remained essentially the same, captains and sailors enjoyed more area and volume of space per bed, whereas Africans experienced reductions. The ground floor during this period generally retained 860 square feet of ward space. The number of beds was reduced in 1889, however, from 16 to 12, thus the square feet per bed actually rose from 50 to 70 and the cubic feet per bed from 300 to 500. The wards on the ground floor were also now specified for Kru seaman and African females, so it is probable that Lagosian or males, whether prominent or not, were now assigned to the African ward on the first floor. 43 The final year of the old colonial hospital began in 1891. The ward on the first floor remained the same in size. Captains still had 4 beds, sailors also now had 4 and African males 20, and these proportions continued through 1895, the old hospital's last full year of operation. The average square feet per bed thus ranged from 130 for captains to 60 for African males. The ground floor

devoted to African patients remained at 860 square feet for 6 Kru seamen and 6 African females, each. Two separate wards were built in having 70 square feet and 500 cubic respectively. In 1891, each 21 by 17 by 10 feet, for male and female paupers. These structures remained as part of the old colonial hospital through 1895. Each building constituted a ward for its 6 beds, thus each patient had about 60 square feet and 600 cubic feet of space, comparable to the space per patient in the ground wards of the main hospital. 44 From 1871 through 1895 the total number of beds in the old hospital hovered around 50, from 48 in 1871 to 52 in 1891. The proportion of beds reserved for Europeans, significantly further reduced this percentage to 13.5. Throughout the entire period the importance to the city of sea trade for Lagos is obvious, and it was only with the opening of the new hospital in 1896 that the terms "Captains' Ward" and "Sailors' Ward" were dropped, to be replaced by a letter of the alphabet to designate the European building in the new hospital complex. 45 43 Ibid., 1885-1890. 44 Two similar buildings of thatch and bamboo, with beds for a total of 16 African females, were built and used for 1872 only. 45 LBB, 1871, 1885, 1891, 1896. Simpson, Report, 8, recommended that quarantine regulations for ships should "hamper trade and commerce as little as possible compatible with safety," adding that, although deck passengers were most likely to carry disease, any lengthy detention of sick passengers would "disorganize labour, commerce, and the economic conditions of the country." This content downloaded on Fri, 4 Jan 2013 14:02:15 PM All use subject to JSTOR Terms and Conditions 320 SPENCER H. BROWN on Expenditures of the Medical Establishment The expenditures of the

medicalestablishment 1896 totaled? 8, 304 13s 9d, with on in ? 5, 600 9s 9d for salariesand allowances, ? 342 5s for transportation horse, and by ? 2, 361 19s for services, supplies, andprovisions. The yearbefore, the old hospital's last, total expenditureswere ? 5, 939 1ls 8d. Both totals are gargantuan compared with that of 1862, the first year for medical data in a Lagos Blue Book. (Lagos became a Britishcolony in August 1861, though the first governordid not arrive until January 1862.) Total medical expendituresamountedto ? 160 3s 9d in that year, all but? 1 7s 2d going for personalsalariesandallowances. 46 Table 1 is a compilation dataderivedfrom the " Net Revenueand Expenof diture" and the " ComparativeYearly Statementof the Colonial Expenditure" sections of the annualBlue Book. These were handwritten, except for 1879 and and 1880, until 1883, thereafter again being printed. Both the handwritten printed books areat timesdifficultto read, the recordingcategorieschange, and some years are missing from the Public RecordOffice's microfilmholdings. There are, nevertheless, a minimumof 36 years of datafor all and a maximumof 39 years of data for some categoriesof analysisduringthe 42 yearsconsideredin Table 1. 47 In the 1860s, the averageannualexpenditureon the medical establishment was ? 581. Of this averagetotal,? 481 went towardsalaries/allowances, is, 82. 8 that percentof the medicalbudget. The rangein annualtotals was from ? 160 in 1862 to ? 1, 377 in 1869. The establishmentof the first colonial hospital in 1867 largely explains the increase in total medical expenditureduring the 1860s, while also amountdevotedto services, supplies, andprovisions. 48 accountingfor the increasing 46 LBB, 1862, 1895, 1896. 47 Institutional data are subject to

many variables, some considered later, but it is worth noting the general skepticism expressed by others. For example, Mary H. Kingsley, *Travels in WestAfrica*, 3d ed. (New York, 1965), 33, asserted that death statistics were difficult to secure in British colonies " because Government reports are as a general rule very badly prepared, and dodge giving important details like this with an almost diabolical ingenuity." Smith, *People's Health*, 250, stressed the irregularities in British hospital record keeping, including in some cases the counting of patients as " new" every 35-40 days. Anne Hardy, " Death Is the Cure of All Diseases: Using the General Register Office Cause of Death Statistics for 1837-1920," *Social History of Medicine* 7 (1994), 472-92, evaluates the various problems associated with using General Register Office data, noting on p. 472 that because several factors are usually involved in a death, " this diversity has exercised medical statisticians, who are aware that registered causes of death often bear only an approximation to the truth." 48 LBB, 1862, 1863, 1865-1869. See Brown, " History of the People of Lagos," 357-58, for salaries and allowances drawn by the earliest colonial surgeons, Henry Eales and Frank Simpson. This content downloaded on Fri, 4 Jan 2013 14: 02: 15 PM All use subject to JSTOR Terms and Conditions A TOOL OF EMPIRE 321 Table 1 Lagos Medical Establishment Average Annual Expenditures by Decade, 1862-1903 (in pounds sterling)

Decade (years of data)	Personal Salaries and Allowances	Services, Supplies, Provisions	Total Recurrent Personal & Services	Exceptional Total Recurrent and Exceptional
1862-69 (7)	331	151	581	211
1870-79 (9)	1, 172	180	1, 352	631
1880-89 (7)	1, 274	171	1, 445	1, 418
1890-99 (10)	4, 313	270	4, 583	2, 526
1900-03 (3)	9, 564	382	9, 946	13, 418

Personal Other 151 180 171 270 382 Services, Supplies, Provisions 100a 1, 227 1, 007b 1, 737 3, 472 Total Recurrent Personal & Services 581 2, 579 2, 526 6, 321 13, 418 Exceptional Total Recurrent and Exceptional 211 192

374 3, 119 2, 713 792 2, 771 2, 900 9, 440 16, 131 Notes:

Annual averages have been rounded. a Year of data are 8. b Year of data are 9.

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JSTOR Terms and Conditions 322 SPENCER H. BROWN The

average annual expenditures medical purposes during the 1870s and for 1880s were essentially the same, £ 2, 579 and £ 2, 526. The distribution

between salaries/allowances and services during the 1870s marked the only decade in which these were almost equal, 52. 4 percent and 47. 6

percent respectively. The inauguration of a government smallpox vaccination

program in 1872, for which the government paid 1s for each successful

vaccination until 1877, accounts for much of this. In data, the government

equalization. 1873, for example, the first year for vaccination

Griffith reduced the amount paid per spent £ 106. In 1877,

although Administrator vaccination to 6d, as of 15 October, the total

program had cost £ 1, 140. 49 With the modified vaccination of program

during the 1880s, the average percentage the medical budget allocated for salaries/allowances rose to 60. 1 per year, that is, £ 1, 519 with £ 1, 007 for

services. compared With the transition to the new hospital in the 1890s,

average total annual expenditures rose to £ 6, 321. The

average annual figure for salaries/allowances £ 4, 584 (72. 5 percent) while

that for services was £ 1, 737 (27. 5 percent). This basic distribution

continued into the early 1900s, though the total annual average more than

doubled, reaching £ 13, 418 for the years 1901-1903. The percentages were

74. 1 for salaries/allowances and 25. 9 for services. For comparison, in 1891,

salaries/wages accounted for 26. 9 percent of expenditures London



voluntary hospitals; provincial voluntary hospitals were allocating 24.2 percent of all expenditures toward salaries/wages. By 1911 the two figures stood at 30.9 and 25.4 respectively. It is important to remember, however, that salaries of doctors were usually not included in the London data but were in that for Lagos. With actual expenditures rising from £4,169 for the seven years during the when the medical establishment in its infancy in Lagos, to £40,253 during the 1860s, during the initial three years of the 1900-1909 decade, it seems evident that the British colonial government was committed to major investment in the medical establishment. From the average annual expenditure of £581 during the 1860s, there was an increase of over 400 percent to the annual averages of £2,579 in the 1870s and £2,526 in the 1880s. From this temporary budgetary plateau, annual expenditures further increased 250 percent to £6,321 in the 1890s and another 200 percent to £13,418 in 1901-03. Given an average of 50 beds in the old colonial hospital, a crude estimate of average ordinary/recurrent expenditures per bed can be secured. For the 1870s it was £51.6 (decimal pounds, not shillings) per bed. For the 1880s £50.5 was spent per bed, while for the 1890s it was £126.4 for the 50-bed old hospital and £85.4 for 49 LBB, 1870-1874, 1876-1884, 1887, 1888; Brown, "Colonialism on the Cheap," 580-83. 50 Pinker, *English Hospital Statistics*, 157, Table 34; and LBB, 1890-1899, 1901-1903. The Blue Book shifted from a calendar year to a fiscal year in 1901 with the result that the data for 1900 are limited. This content downloaded on Fri, 4 Jan 2013 14:02:15 PM All use subject to JSTOR Terms and Conditions A TOOL OF EMPIRE 323 the 74-bed new hospital. By the early 1900s it had risen to £181.3 per bed. London voluntary hospitals in

1891 were expending? 74. 5 of ordinary expenditures bed, per provincial hospitals ? 45. 3. As late as 1921, these two figures had risen only to ? 215. 3 for Londonand? 127. 9 for provincialhospitals. 51 Viewed from a different perspective, during the period 1862-1869 the medical department ranked an average of 7th among an average of 13 government in departments (excluding the administrator's) budgetary allocation, the 46th percentile. During the 1890s, with an average of 21 budget departments, medical ranked 5th on average, at the 76th percentile. For the years 1901-1903 the medical department's budget ranked 3rd among an average of 27 departments, 89th percentile. 52 Amid competing claims for limited budgetary resources, even from the 1860s British administrators realized the importance a well-funded medical department, of as the earlier analysis of salaries and services and these percentile confirm. rankings Recurrent for operating expenditures the main hospital and its staff were but commitment the colonial government made toward the health part of the budgetary of Lagos residents. Prior to the formation of a Public Works Department (PWD) in 1876, money for public works and building had been allocated separately project, by the work being overseen by the surveyor or other government official. From 1876 and for on, most expenditures physical improvement, maintenance, new construction were itemized under the PWD. Land and building purchases were also distinct whose exceptional expenses budget items apart from the medical establishment, included the purchase of the army barracks that became the first colonial hospital and the land upon which the second colonial hospital was built in the 1890s. The cost of building, repairing, and maintaining

structures associated with the general hospital were also separate budget entries prior to 1876. The same was true for the expenses associated with the smallpox (or "contagious diseases" as of 1885) hospital south of Lagos-then in pital, first mentioned 1871 and located on the barrier moved to a new building along Five Cowrie Creek in 1874, closer to the main hospital. 53 Table 2 provides summary data by decade of the exceptional expenses related to the medical establishment Lagos. The most striking investment in to ? 19, 641 required build the new colonial hospital in the 1890s, with an additional ? 768 needed for maintenance during the early 1900s (including ? 311 for the roofs in 1902). Considering adverse effect of a tropical climate and environment upon manmade structures, especially those of wood or vegetable fibers, it is likely that 51 Pinker, English Hospital Statistics, 162, Table B. 52 LBB, 1862-1869, 1890-1899, 1901-1903. 53 LBB, 1871, 1874, 1876, 1891, 1894-1896. Although the second smallpox hospital on Five Cowrie Creek was simply built at an initial cost of ? 65, it may nevertheless have had certain health advantages over the hulk of the warship Dreadnaught that was anchored at Greenwich and was being used as a smallpox hospital in 1871. See Abel-Smith, Hospitals, plate facing p. 114. This content downloaded on Fri, 4 Jan 2013 14: 02: 15 PM All use subject to JSTOR Terms and Conditions 324 SPENCER H. BROWN needed repairs were seldom promptly made during the 1860s through the 1880s. An annual average of ? 211 for repairs and maintenance during the 1860s seems unusually low, even without a colonial hospital until 1867. The annual average of ? E192 the 1870s, with a hospital, tends to confirm the probability that repair was common among medical/health structures.

situation may have improved during the 1880s when the annual average for repairs/maintenance reached almost £ 400 for the same physical plant. With a new colonial hospital, a new mental (then essentially termed "lunatic") asylum, and a new leper asylum, all built during the 1890s, and the beginning of the colonial hospitals established outside Lagos (at Ikorodu, and with medical services leaped to an costs associated Ibadan, Epe), the exceptional annual average of £ 3, 119, falling only slightly to £ 2, 713 during 1901-1903 because of additional investment in Epe, Ibadan, and Ebute Meta, as well as in the Lagos mental asylum. 54 The annual average of recurrent and exceptional medical expenditures was £ 792 during the 1860s, increasing to £ 2, 771 in the 1870s and £ 2, 900 in the 1880s in (see Table 1). The average annual total investment in the health of Lagos rocketed to £ 9, 440 during the 1890s and continued rising to £ 16, 131 during the early 1900s. Of these annual averages in recurrent exceptional medical expenses, the percentage devoted to salaries ranged around 50 during the 1870s through the 1890s and never rose much above 60 during the 1860s and early years of the 1900s. The overwhelming portion of the salaries, of course, went to the European staff. 55 In 1871 and 1872, for example, there was only one full-time day nurse and one part-time day nurse, both African males. No other employees were reported for these years. From 1873 through 1879, there were 5 male day nurses and 1 female day nurse employed, plus generally 4 workers who did no nursing—again, all Africans. 56 The number of full-time day nurses reached 6 males and 2 females in 1881, declining to 5 and 1 in 1889. The number of workers, however, rose from 5 in 1881 to 13 in 1889. 57 54 LBB, 1862-1903. 55 See Adelola Adeloye,

AfricanPioneersof ModernMedicine: NigerianDoctors of the of and Nineteenth (Ibadan, 1985), 55-56, for 1891-1892 salaries both European African Century on doctors. See Brown," Colonialism the Cheap," 565-66, 579, for detailson the salariesand with West AfricanMedical indeedwhencompared perksdrawnby FrankSimpson--handsome Staff salaries in 1909, n. 47, 565. Ralph Schram, A History of the Nigerian Health Services (Ibadan, 1971), 115, indicates that as of 1897 there was a chief medical officer, a senior assistant medical (3 officer, and12colonialsurgeons of whomwereAfrican). 56 NCS, 1/1, 6, Moloney to Lees, 24 Apr. 1879; 1/1, 7, Moloney to Griffith, 5 Mar. 1881; and Moloney to Rowe, 25 Mar. 1881. 57 LBB, 1871-1879, 1881-1889. This content downloaded on Fri, 4 Jan 2013 14: 02: 15 PM All use subject to JSTOR Terms and Conditions A TOOL OF EMPIRE 325 Table 2 Exceptional Expenditures on Hospitals and Other Health Facilities, 1862-1903 Decade (yearsof data) Rents, colonial surgeon, dispensary Old ColonialHospital SmallpoxHospitala Jail Hospital Sanitoriumb New Coklial Hospital Hospital Temporary LeperAsylum LunaticAsylum Lagos Hospitalsoutside Total ? s Annual Average ? s 1862-69 (7) 436 1, 042 1870-79 (10) 293 1, 109 471 45 1880-89 (9) 1890-99 (10) 1900-03 (3) 922 2, 414 27 432 19, 641 6, 392 1, 895 1, 879 755c 4, 246 3, 119d 31, 188 3, 119 8, 140 2, 713 768 194 7 1, 478 211 1, 918 192 3, 363 374 Notes: Annualaverageshavebeenrounded. a ContagiousDiseases Hospitalas of 1885 b Located nearthe lighthousealong the shore of the Bight of Benin, near the mouthof the Lagos Lagoon c Ikoroduin 1897, Ibadanin 1899, andEpe in 1899 d Epe (? 2, 154), Ibadan (? 679), andEbutaMetta(f286) This content downloaded on Fri, 4 Jan 2013 14: 02: 15 PM All use subject to JSTOR Terms and Conditions 326 SPENCER H.

BROWN By the 1880s, the annual salary for a nurse was between £24 and £30. For comparison, nurses in London during the mid-1800s received from £15 12s to £24 14s annually. Provincial nurses at Radcliffe Infirmary received only £6 10s per year. As of 1866, 53 nurses in 11 London workhouses earned an average of £20 18s, the range being from £12 to £30. As late as 1890, after the reforms of Florence Nightingale associated with training nurses had improved their quality, probationers received only £10 the first year, £15 the second, and £20 the third, thereafter receiving increases of £1 per year to a maximum of £26. (Sisters and head nurses had in base salaries ranging from £30 to £60 per year.) To these annual salaries additional sums were often allocated for board and lodging; nevertheless salaries for nurses there seem roughly comparable to those in many areas of Britain during the time of this study. 58 During the 1880s there were 5.0 male and 1.6 female nurses on average each assisted by 7.1 other workers (see Table 3). During the 1890s, male nurses year, averaged 7.0 and female nurses 2.8, assisted by 4.1 male and 1.2 female apprentice nurses, all helped by 17.0 workers. By the early 1900s, the average of male nurses continued at 7.0, while that of female nurses rose to 4.2. Male apprentice nurses on to to increased, average, 7.8, as did female apprentices 2.8. The average number of workers increased to 24.7. Included among these were the categories of clerk, steward, and cook, gatekeeper, washwoman, washman, dispenser, messenger, carrier, laborer. Positions for warden, storeman, and watchman were added in 1899. The laborers were the most numerous, ranging from 4 in 1892 to 10 or more from 1898 on. During the 1880s, there were generally 2 clerks, 2 dispensers, 3

<https://assignbuster.com/board-of-trustees-boston-university/>

first female employee was hired in 1896. f Years of data are 14. This content downloaded on Fri, 4 Jan 2013 14: 02: 15 PM All use subject to JSTOR Terms and Conditions 328 SPENCER H. BROWN Throughout the period studied, and reflecting the cultures of Briton and African, men far outnumbered women on the medical and support staffs. Among 2. 5 regular nurses the ratio was approximately to 1. 0 over a 35-year period. The ratio for apprentice in nurses, for the 14 years following their introduction 1891, was 5. 7 males to 1. 9 females, or 3: 1. Among other employees the proportion male to of female was 95 percent and 5 percent, or 19: 1. 60 Patients Utilizing the Medical Establishment If the colonial government Lagos had fully committed in itself to a large and modern medical establishment by the 1890s, as argued above, to what extent did it get its money's worth and to what extent did the various communities of Lagos benefit from that investment? As Table 4 indicates, it is possible to examine the flow of patients in the main hospital from the 1870s to 1905. 61 During the 35 years for which data exist, 20, 970 patients were admitted to the main hospital, an average of almost 600 per year. By the 1890s well over 700 were being admitted annually and almost 800 during the early 1900s. 62 During four years of the 1880s, 24, 778 outpatients were treated at the hospital, and during eight years of the 1890s 42, 270 were treated. During the same eight years, the Ereko dispensary handled 33, 714 outpatients. 63 contagious diseases hospital had 1, 120 patients during nine years of the 1890s and 458 for the first six years of the 1900s. The average number of for and 5, 587 outpatients the main patients per year of data was thus 599 inpatients while the contagious diseases hospital treated 105 and the Ereko dispensary hospital,



sary treated 4, 214. 64 With respect to the outpatient services, there can be little doubt of their importance the general Lagosian from 1883 through 1897 (the years on record). With the main hospital's 5, 587 annual average and Ereko dispensary's 4, 214 annual over 9, 800 persons were presumably benefiting from the British colonial average, health service to its subjects. The estimated of government's population Lagos pertinent years.

61 Although patients can be analyzed as a group, as in the flow of patients and the diseases of patients, many have noted that patients as human individuals are remarkably absent from most studies of hospitals and of the practice of medicine in general. We know almost nothing of the treatment administered to patients. See, for example, Lindsay Granshaw, "Introduction," Lindsay in Granshaw and Roy Porter, eds., *The Hospital in History* (London, 1989), 1-2; and Woodward, *Do the Sick No Harm*, xii. 62 MacLeod, "Introduction," 1-2, states that European medicine was generally reserved for Europeans for three generations in colonial areas, but this is inaccurate for European medicine as practiced in Lagos. 63 Ereko was chosen as the site of the dispensary because it was located far from the colonial hospital at the extreme northwestern edge of the island, near the densest concentration of indigenous Lagosians. 64 LBB, 1870-1905. 60 Table 3 and LBB, This content downloaded on Fri, 4 Jan 2013 14: 02: 15 PM All use subject to JSTOR Terms and Conditions A TOOL OF EMPIRE 329 Table 4 Annual Average Admissions, Discharges, Deaths of Lagos Hospital Patients by Decade, 1870-1905

Decade (years of data)	No. in Hospital, Beginning of Year	No. Admitted during Year	Cured	Relieved	Not Improved	Died
1870-79	(9) 21	402	345	4	5	52
1880-89	(10) 24	530	419	53	13	46
1890-99	(10) 35					

729 369 206 28 88 1900-05 (6) 25 792 556 122 22 96 Total (35) 26 599 409  
 96 16 68 Note: Annual averages have been rounded. during the  
 period ranged from 35, 000 to 50, 000, ignoring nonresidents who visited Lagos  
 daily in large numbers for personal or business reasons. If the lower estimate is  
 used and multiple visits by the same individuals not considered (no data exist  
 are on revisits), then 28. 0 percent of the Lagosians could  
 have received outpatient help. The higher population estimate would result in a  
 still significant 19. 6 percent of the residents probably so benefiting. 65  
 With respect to inpatients, degree of benefit is less clearly evident, especially  
 when compared with the bed capacity of the main hospitals.  
 Throughout the 1870s, for example, though just over 400 patients on  
 average were admitted to the hospital each year, the daily average of  
 patients in hospital ranged from 12 in 1875 to 29 in 1872. Considering that the  
 hospital usually had a total of 48 beds for patients during that decade (32 for  
 Africans), the impression is one of underuse of facilities. During the 1880s an  
 average of 530 patients were admitted each year with the daily average in  
 hospital ranging from 24 for four of the years to 37 in 1884. each year, the  
 daily average During the 1890s, with some 700 patients being admitted 65 LBB,  
 1883-1897. See Brown, " Public Health," for some of the effects of the  
 population increase upon public health in Lagos. This content downloaded on  
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 330 SPENCER H. BROWN age in hospital ranged from 25 in 1899 to 42 in 1891,  
 the low occurring in the new hospital and the high in the old hospital, 74 beds  
 as compared with 48 beds. 66 During each year, yet in the first six years of the  
 1900s, almost 800 patients were admitted the daily

average occupancy ranged from a low of 25 in 1903 to a high of 47 in 1905. 67 Averages are not reality, however, and there can be little doubt that the main hospitals were often crowded, with insufficient beds for patients. During the 1870s, for example, the average patient stay was 37.6 days for those who eventually died and 45.6 days for those who were discharged (see Table 5). These respective averages were 42.1 and 51.3 during the 1880s, dropping to 29.3 and 38.7 during the 1890s and declining further 21.8 and 35.8 during the early 1900s. 68 It is possible to calculate the average annual patient-days and compare them with the maximum patient-days possible for a hospital with 48 beds and 74 beds. The old colonial hospital (48 beds x 365 days) had a maximum of 17,520 patient-days a year. During the 1870s (see Tables 4 and 5), with 349 patients staying 45.6 days prior to discharge, and 5 patients remaining undischarged the hospital for 32 days, and 52 for patients dying after 37.6 days in the hospital, the total of patient-days the average year of the 1870s was 18,038, exceeding the maximum capacity by over 500 patient-days. This average annual usage rose to 27,492 patient-days during the 1880s, dropping to 26,639 during the 1890s. Fortunately, the new hospital that was fully operational in 1898, with its 74 beds, had a higher maximum of patient-days, namely 27,010. The new hospital thus apparently matched the initial demand for beds for patients. By the early 1900s, however, the average annual number of patient-days had reached 28,010, exceeding the new increased capacity by 1,000, the approximately same deficit experienced the old hospital during the 1870s, but by well below the 10,000 deficit of the 1880s and 1890s prior to the new hospital being opened. 66 Pinker, English

Hospital Statistics, 58, Table 8. The average size of general voluntary hospitals in England and Wales was 51 beds in 1861, 39 in 1891, and 41 in 1911. 67 LBB, 1870-1905. 68 Woodward, Do the Sick No Harm, 137-41, discusses the use of average-stay data as an indicator of a hospital's efficiency. See also Pinker, English Hospital Statistics, 110-11, Tables 23, 26, 28. The average stay of patients in the voluntary hospitals of England and Wales in 1861 was 36. 2 days while in 1891 it was 28. 4 days. For London voluntary hospitals alone, the average stay was 33. 3 days in 1861 and 25. 3 for 1891. London public hospitals had a much longer average stay in 1891 of 63. 7 days. This content downloaded on Fri, 4 Jan 2013 14: 02: 15 PM All use subject to JSTOR Terms and Conditions A TOOL OF EMPIRE 331 Table 5 Hospital Days by Patients, by Category, by Decade, 1870-1905 Decade (years of data) Days Spent by Those Who Died Total 1870-79 339 421 293 131 1, 184 Annual Average 38 42 29 22 34 Days Spent by Those Who Were Discharged Total 410 513 387 215 1, 525 Annual Average 46 51 39 36 44 Days Spent by Those Remaining at the End of the Year Total 286 1, 079 656 446 2, 467 Annual Average 32 108 66 74 70 (9) 1880-89 (10) 1890-99 (10) 1900-05 (6) Total (35) Note: Annual averages have been rounded. The data with respect to inpatient usage of the two hospitals thus seem inconsistent. The average daily number of patients, year by year, would seem to indicate lack of full bed usage. The patient-day totals, however, calculated by category of patient (cured/relieved, improved, died) and the days spent in hospital and category total by these categories, seem to have more specificity and are probably more accurate as to how much the hospital was used by the residents of Lagos. Although European and

African patients are not distinguished in the data, with such excesses of capacity in patient-days and since 32 of the 48 beds available in the old and 64 of the 74 beds in the new hospital were reserved for Africans, it seems reasonable to conclude that both hospitals were much used by resident Lagosians who were to indigenous or immigrant the city. 69 69 K. David Patterson and Gerald W. Hartwig, "The Disease Factor: An Introductory Overview," in Hartwig and Patterson, eds., *Disease in African History: An Introductory Survey and Case Studies* (Durham, N. C., 1978), 17, argue non-usage of hospitals by Africans; as does the *Lagos Observer*, 13 and 20 Oct. 1888, 10 and 17 Nov. 1888. Abel-Smith, *Hospitals*, 152, asserts the same of the British, indicating the general dread of hospitals that prevailed "among the vast majority of the population" during the 1870s and 1880s. This content downloaded on Fri, 4 Jan 2013 14: 02: 15 PM All use subject to JSTOR Terms and Conditions 332 SPENCER H. BROWN Diseases Encountered the Medical Establishment by The colonial government's investment in its medical establishment appears to have been justified in terms of the number of people who received treatment, certainly as inpatients. What of the quality of the treatment? outpatients of for can be said about the treatment outpatients lack of data. Data are available with respect to inpatients for the years 1871 to 1905, casting light on the categories of rate diseases in Lagos and the mortality of each (see Table 6). 70 Some conclusions can concerning the quality of treatment thus be reached. An examination of the 13 categories of disease ranked first by frequency and then by mortality prompts two tentative generalizations: the number of (1) diseases is low when compared with those readily found during this time "

tropical" climates and (2) the 6 deadliest diseases belong to period among people in temperate areas. This "temperate" group--not to the dread tropical fevers and other ailments, ulcers/abscesses and ated with the West Coast of Africa. 71 Of the 13 categories, fevers were the most numerous. Both can be associated with, but are not limited to, the tropics. 72 the remaining categories, only guinea worm is unarguably tropical, Of and it ranked eleventh in frequency. Digestive/dysentery (third in frequency) and (ninth) are usually thought of as tropical in distribution, but parasites/hookworm climates during the second half of the both were far more common in temperate than they now are. 73 1800s in Europe and the Americas It has been asserted that doctors trained in Europe had limited ability in treating tropical diseases and that even Europeans often utilized African doctors, 70 Abel-Smith, Hospitals, ix, asserts that "little is known about what hospitals [in England and Wales] actually did for particular patients and diseases, about the cost of implementing new developments in medicine, the number of staff to operate them or the amount of floor space allocated to different purposes." See also n. 61 above. 71 Woodward, Do the