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• THE
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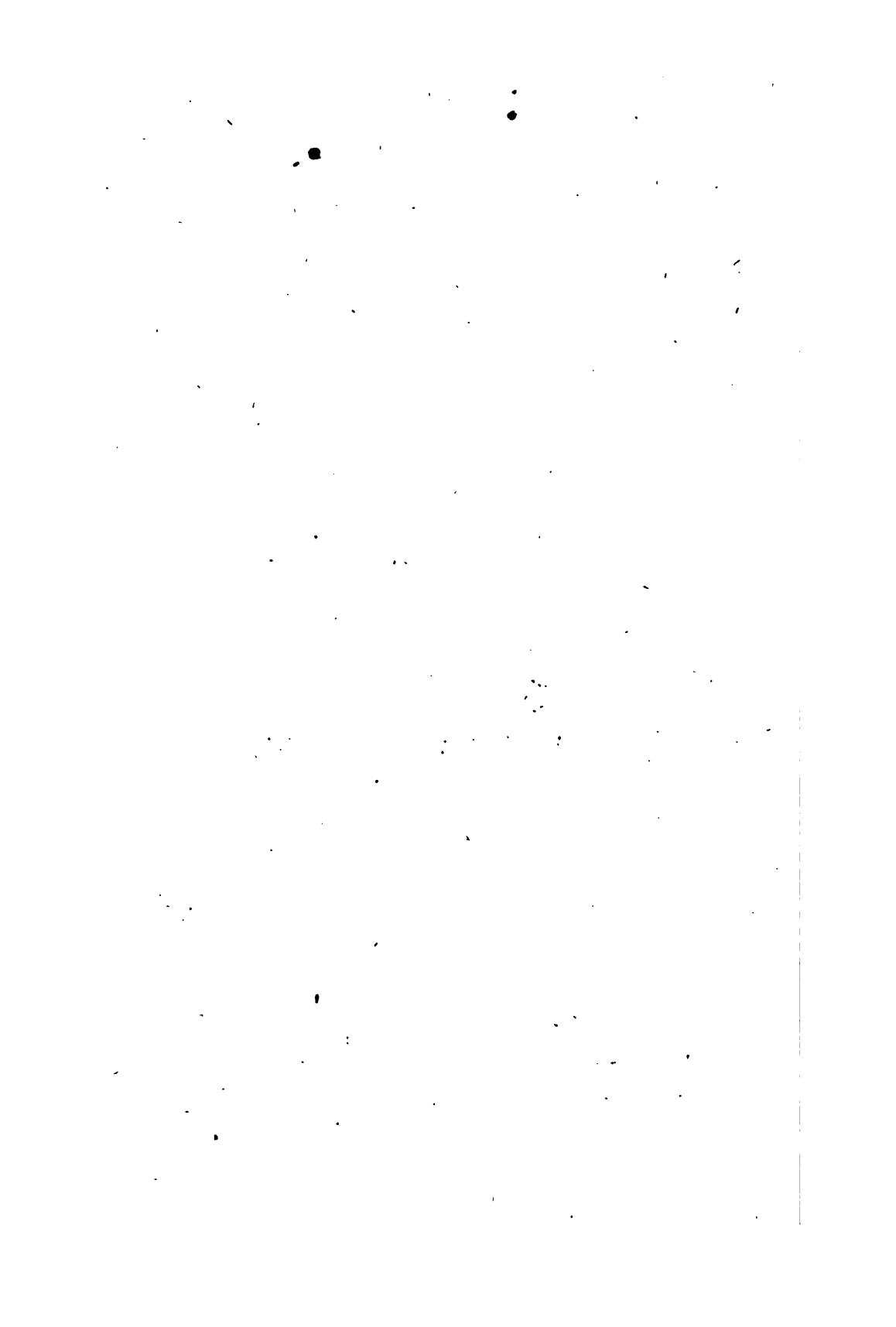
LITERARY MISCELLANY.

VOLUME XIV,

*In tenui labor ; at tenuis non gloria, si quem
Nuzmina læva sinunt, auditque vocatus Apollo.* VIRG.

EDINBURGH:
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1791,







GLAMES-CASTLE.

Macintosh

THE

Edinburgh Magazine,

OR

LITERARY MISCELLANY,

FOR JULY 1791.

With a View of GLAMES CASTLE.

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State of the BAROMETER in inches and decimals, and of Farenheit's THERMOMETER in the open air, taken in the morning before sun-rise, and at noon; and the quantity of rain-water fallen, in inches and decimals, from June 30th 1791, to the 30th of July, near the foot of Arthur's Seat.

		Thermom.		Barom.	Rain.	Weather.
		M.	N.			
June	30	56	66	30.2	—	Clear
July	1	55	63	29.51	—	Ditto
	2	57	62	29.5	0.05	Showers
	3	52	61	29.5	0.225	Rain
	4	50	56	29.0375	—	Cloudy
	5	45	54	29.9	0.13	Rain, Stormy
	6	50	60	29.6	—	Clear
	7	53	60	29.7	—	Ditto
	8	54	62	29.775	—	Ditto
	9	50	61	29.675	—	Ditto
	10	48	65	29.475	—	Ditto
	11	50	67	29.65	—	Ditto
	12	48	70	29.7	—	Ditto
	13	50	68	29.775	—	Ditto
	14	52	71	29.775	—	Ditto
	15	55	77	30.025	—	Ditto
	16	56	67	29.675	—	Ditto
	17	56	67	29.785	—	Ditto
	18	55	59	29.6375	0.18	Rain
	19	55	67	29.8125	—	Clear
	20	57	68	29.6325	0.04	Showers
	21	50	64	29.125	—	Clear
	22	52	60	29.2	0.16	Rain
	23	56	63	29.4	0.05	Showers
	24	50	68	29.625	—	Clear
	25	56	64	29.2	0.17	Rain
	26	50	62	29.15	0.16	Ditto
	27	50	63	29.475	—	Clear
	28	52	64	29.55	—	Ditto
	29	54	67	29.2	0.12	Rain
	30	52	63	29.4	0.1	Rain

Quantity of Rain, 1.385

Days.	Thermometer.	Days.	Barom.
July 15.	77 greatest height at noon.	15.	30.025 greatest elevation.
5.	45 least ditto, morning.	4.	29.0375 least ditto.

THE
EDINBURGH MAGAZINE,
OR,
LITERARY MISCELLANY.

VIEWS IN SCOTLAND.

GLAMES CASTLE,

IN the county of Forfar, is the seat of the Earl of Strathmore. It is famous in our history for the murder of Malcom II. by the hands of assassins in a passage still shewn to strangers. It was formerly a royal residence, and on the accession of Robert II. was bestowed on his favourite Sir John Lyon. The ancient buildings were of great extent, consisting of two long courts divided by buildings; in each was a square tower and gate-way beneath; and in the third another tower, which constitutes the present house, the rest being totally destroyed. This received many alterations in 1656 by Patrick Lord Glames, and some modern improvements by the late Earl of Strathmore.

Buffon's Natural History of the Canary Bird: (Continued from Page 446, Vol. XIII.)

TO the particular remarks we have already made, which are all important, I must add a general and very interesting observation which may throw some light on the generation of animals, and on the developement of their different parts. It has been constantly observed in mixing Canary-birds either with their own or with other species, that the mongrels proceeding from them resemble the cock in the head, the tail, and legs; and the hen in the other parts of the body. The same observation may be made with respect to the mules of quadrupeds; those from the Jack-ass and mare, have the body as large as the

mother, and acquire the long ears, tail, and skinny legs of the ass. It would seem therefore, that, in the intimate union of those fluids by which generation is accomplished, the organic molecules of the female, occupy the center of that living sphere which increases in every direction, and that the molecules furnished by the male, surround those of the female in such manner that the external coat and the extremities of the body belong more to the father than to the mother. Several mongrels which I obtained from a goat and a ewe, instead of wool, were all covered with the strong hair of their father.

In the human species it may likewise be observed, that in general, the son resembles his father more than his mother, in the legs, the feet, the hands, the hand writing, the quantity and colour of the hair, the quality of the skin, and size of the head; and in mulattoes, proceeding from a white man and a negro woman, the colour is not so black as in those that spring from a negro man and a white woman. All this seems to prove, that in the local deposition of the organic molecules, furnished by both sexes, those of the male rise above, and envelope those of the female, and as it were form the nucleus of the being which is to be organized; and that notwithstanding the intimate penetration and intermixture of these molecules, more masculine ones remain on the surface and most feminine ones within; this is natural, as the former go in quest of the latter; whence it follows, that in the development of the body, the limbs ought to take after the father more than the mother, and the body to take after the mother more than the father.

Now as in general the beauty of the species is not brought to perfection, nor maintained except by crossing the breed; and as the stature, the strength, and vigour of the body depend almost entirely on the proportion of the limbs, it is only by the males that the breed of men and animals can be exalted or improved. Large and beautiful mares with little puny horses, will never produce any thing but ill made foals; whereas the noble stallion, with an indifferent mare, will always produce fine horses; and the more beautiful, the more remote and distinct the father and mother have been. It is the same in

sheep, for only rams of a different race, can improve the breed; and the finest ewe, with a diminutive ram, will never bring any but indifferent lambs. This subject is important; and as many people amuse themselves in the breeding of Canary-birds, which does not consume much time, it would not be difficult to institute a number of experiments on the mixture of different birds, and on the ultimate products of these mixtures, so as to ascertain the truth of the doctrine I have here been supporting.

In the lower animals as well as in man, even in our small birds, the diversity of character, or if you will, of moral qualities often injures the consonance of physical qualities. If any thing could prove that the disposition is a good or bad impression given by nature, which education cannot alter, it would be the instance of our Canary-birds. "Almost every one of them says, M. Hervieux, differs from another in disposition. There are some cocks that are always melancholy and even sullen, singing seldom, and then in a dismal strain; they are long in learning, and learn at last but imperfectly what you teach them, and the little they know they very soon forget. These are often so uncleanly, that their feet and tail are generally dirty; they do not please the female, whom they never regale with their song, even when her young first appear, though indeed these are seldom much better than their father. There are others so wicked that they kill the hen they are put to, and there is no other way of taming them, than by giving them two females who join for their common defence; and when they have once vanquished by force they conquer afterwards by love*." There are

* It sometimes happens, that these ill-natured males have other qualities, which repair in some measure their defects, such as a most melodious song, a beautiful plumage, and great tenacity. If therefore you would have a breed from them, you must take two hens that are vigorous, and a year older than the cock; put these hens for a few months into the same cage, that they may know each other well, and then they will not be jealous or fight when put to the cock. A month before hatching time, put them both into the same

are others so barbarous as to break and eat the eggs when the hen has laid them; or if this unnatural father allows her to hatch, the young are hardly excluded from the shell, than he seizes them with his bill, drags them from the nest, and kills them *. Some are so wild, savage, and ungovernable, that they will allow themselves neither to be touched nor caressed; these must be left at liberty, and cannot be treated like the others: if they are meddled with in the least they will not breed; their eggs must not be touched or taken away, and they will not hatch if they are not suffered to pair and build as they please. Lastly, there are some of an indolent disposition; such for example are the grey ones; these never build, and the person that tends them must make a nest for them. All these tempers are very distinct, and very different from that of our Canary-birds, which are always gay, always singing, tame, agreeable, good mates, attentive fa-

thers, and of so gentle a disposition and so happy a temper, that they are susceptible of every good impression, and endowed with the best inclinations: they charm incessantly the hen with their song; they soothe her in the distressful assiduity of hatching; they invite her to quit her place to them, and actually sit on the eggs several hours every day: they join with her in feeding the young, and, lastly, they are docile, and learn whatever we choose to teach them. It is by these alone that we must form an opinion of the species; and I have only mentioned the others, to demonstrate that the temper and disposition, even in animals, proceed from nature, and not from education.

This bad disposition, which makes them break their eggs and kill the nestlings, often proceeds from their temperament and from the impetuosity of their love; it is to enjoy the female that they drive her from the nest, and destroy the tender objects of her affection,

same cage, and at the proper season, introduce the male, who will instantly endeavour to beat the two hens, especially for a few days at first; but they, standing upon their defence, will soon gain the absolute command of him; so that seeing he can gain nothing by force, he will begin to grow tame and enamoured. These forced marriages sometimes succeed better than others from which much more has been expected, and which often produce nothing. In order to preserve the brood, you must take away the eggs as the hen lays them, and substitute others of ivory; and when they are all laid, the cock must be removed, the eggs replaced, and the hen left to hatch them. The cock is to be kept in a cage, in the same room, while the hen is sitting on her eggs and feeding the young, but as soon as you take away the young to feed them with a stick, you must relieve the cock, and restore him to the female.

Traité des Serins des Canaries.

* There are some cocks of a weakly habit, careless of love, and always sickly after pairing. These should never be used for breeding, for I have observed, that their issue always resembles them. There are others so petulant, that they beat the hen off the nest, and prevent her from sitting; these are the strongest birds, the best singers, and often the most beautiful and familiar; others break the eggs and kill the young, that they may no longer enjoy the female. Others have a remarkable predilection, and marked preference for certain females. A cock placed among twenty hens, will single out one or two, which he will constantly attend and make love to, without minding the rest. These cocks are of a good natural temper, which they communicate to their progeny. Others do not touch themselves to any female, but remain sterile and inactive. The same difference of temper and manners is found among the hens. The jonquil-coloured hens are the gentlest; the agates are capricious, and often quit their young to give themselves to the male: the hen spangled birds are constant to their eggs, and good to their young; but the cock spangled birds are the most ardent of their species, and must be provided with two or even three hens, otherwise they will not suffer the hen to sit, and they will break the eggs. Those that are entirely jonquil-coloured are nearly of the same disposition, and require two or three females. The cock agates are the weakest, and the hens often die when sitting.

affection. Accordingly the best means of making these birds hatch, is not to separate them, and to put them in different cages. It is better to put them into a room well exposed to the sun, and to the east, in winter, where there are many hens and a few cocks: here they enjoy themselves more and multiply better: when a hen sits, the cock finds him another mate, and does not disturb her. Besides, the cocks have many quarrels among themselves from jealousy; and when they see any one so ardent as to torment the female, and attempting to break the eggs, they beat him sufficiently to deaden his desires.

When they are about to build, you must furnish them with lint, the hair of oxen or stags, which has not been employed in other uses, with moss and very small and dry straw. Goldfinches and Siskins, if put with hen Canary-birds, when mule birds are wanted, prefer small straw and moss, but the Canary-birds like better to use the hair and lint: these must be cut very small, for fear the threads should entangle the feet of the hen, and cause her to pull the eggs from the nest as she rises from it.

In feeding them, you must place in the room a hopper pierced all round so as to admit their head, filled with a portion of the following composition; three quarts of rape-seed, two of oats, two of millet and of hemp-seed; every twelve or thirteen days the hopper is to be filled, taking care that these seeds are clean and well winnowed. This food is proper as long as they have only eggs, but the evening before the young are to be excluded, they must have a dry cake kneaded without salt, which may be left till it is eaten up, and then you may give them eggs boiled hard; a single hard egg if there are but two cocks and four hens; two eggs if there are four cocks and eight hens, and so in proportion. They must

have no green thing while they are breeding, which would weaken the young too much; but in order to vary their food a little, and cheer them with a new mess, give them, every third day, on a plate, instead of the dry cake, a bit of white bread dipt in water and pressed with the hand; this bread not being so substantial a food as the cake, will prevent their growing too fat while hatching: it will likewise be proper to give them, at the same time, some poppy seeds, but only once in two days for fear of heating them too much; sugared biscuit generally produces this effect, which is followed by another still more hurtful; for when they are fed on biscuit they often lay addle eggs, or bring weak and sickly young. While they have young boil their rape seed to deprive it of its acrimony. "A long experience, says father Bougot, has taught me, that this food is that which best agrees with them, notwithstanding what all authors have said, who have written expressly on the subject."

After the eggs are all laid, give them plantane and lettuce seed to purge them, taking away however the young; for this food would weaken them, and must be given only for two days to the parent birds. When you wish to rear Canary-birds with the stick, you must not, according to the directions of most bird-catchers, leave them with the mother to the eleventh or twelfth day; it is better to take away the young after the eighth day; take them away in the nest, and leave nothing but the case. The food of the nestlings must be previously prepared; it is a paste composed of boiled rape seed, a yolk of an egg and crumb of the cake mixed and kneaded with a little water, which is to be given them every two hours. This paste must not be too liquid; and for fear of its growing sour, it must be renewed every day till the young can feed themselves.

Proofs to ascertain that America was first discovered by the ancient Britons.*

FROM the testimonies of travellers and historians, there are strong reasons to believe that the ancient Britons landed on the Continent of America nearly 300 years before Behaim or Columbus; so that if a first discovery gives a right of possession, the whole Continent belongs to the ancient Britons.

I cannot, in Giraldus, find any thing upon the subject. He flourished about the time when this supposed discovery was made; that is, during the reigns of Henry the II. Richard the I. and John, kings of England.

The first account that I can find of the discovery of America by the Britons is in an history of Wales written by Caradoc of Llancarvan, Glamorganshire, in the British language, translated into English by Humphry Llwyd, and published by Dr David Povel in the year 1584.

This narrative bears the strongest semblance of truth, for it is plain, natural, and simple. It says, that on the death of Owen Gwynedd, Prince of North Wales, about the year 1169, several of his children contended for his dominions; that Madog, one of his sons, perceiving his native country engaged, or on the eve of being engaged, in a civil war, thought it best to try his fortune in some foreign climes. Leaving North Wales in a very unsettled state, he sailed with a few ships which he had fitted up and manned for that purpose to the westward, leaving Ireland to the north. He came at length to an unknown country, where most things appeared to him new and uncustomary, and the manners of the natives far different from what he had seen in Europe.—Madog having viewed the fertility and pleasantness of the country, left the

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most part of those he had taken with him behind, (Sir Thomas Herbert says that the number he left behind was 120,) and returned to North Wales. Upon his arrival, he described to his friends what a fair and extensive land he had met with, void of any inhabitants, whilst they employed themselves, and all their skill to supplant one another, for only a ragged portion of rocks and mountains. Accordingly, having prevailed with considerable numbers to accompany him to that country, he sailed back with ten ships, and bid adieu to his native land.

The next account I have met with of this event is in Hakluyt.

“After the death of Owen Gwynedd, his sonnes fell at debate who should inherit after him, for the eldest sonne born in matrimony, Edward or Jorwerth Drwidion (Drwyndwn) was counted unmeet to govern because of the meime upon his face, and Howel that took upon him the rule, was a base sonne, begotten upon an Irish woman. Therefore David, another sonne, gathered all the power he could, and came against Howel, and fighting with him, slew him, and afterwards enjoyed quietly the whole lands of North Wales, until his brother Jorwerth's sonne came to age.

Madoc, another of Owen Gwyneth's sonnes, left the land in contention betwixt his brethren, and prepared certain ships with men and munition, and sought adventures by seas, sailing west, and leaving the coast of Ireland so far north, that he came to a land unknown, where he saw many strange things.

This land must needs be some parts of the countrey of which the Spaniards affirm themselves to be the first finders since Hanno's time: whereupon it is manifest that that country

was

* From “An Inquiry concerning the First Discovery of America, by the Europeans; by John Williams, L. L. D.”

was by Britons discovered long before Columbus led any Spaniards thither.

Of the voyage and return of this Madoc, there be many fables framed, as the common people do use in distance of place and length of time, rather to augment than to diminish, but sure it is, there he was. And after he had returned home, and declared the pleasant and fruitful countries that he had seen, without inhabitants; and upon the contrary, for what barren and wild ground his brethren and nephews did murder one another, he prepared a number of ships, and got with him such men and women as were desirous to live in quietness, and taking leave of his friends, took his journey thitherwards again.

Therefore it is supposed that he and his people inhabited part of those countries; for it appeareth by Francis Lopez de Gomara that in Acuzamil, and other places, the people honoured the Cross. Whereby it may be gathered that Christians had been there before the coming of the Spaniards; but because this people were not many, they followed the manner of the land which they came to, and the language they found there.

This Madoc arriving in that western country, unto the which he came in the year 1170, left most of his people there, and returning back for more of his own nation, acquaintance, and friends, to inhabit that fair and large country, went thither again with ten sails, as I find noted by Gurtun Owen. I am of opinion that the land whereunto he came was some part of the West Indies."

Another writer who alludes to Madoc's voyage is the author of a book entitled "a brief description of the whole world," edit. 5th.—London, Printed for John Murrort, 1620.

"I am not ignorant that some who make too much of vain shews, and of the British antiquities; have given out to the world, and written some things

to that purpose, that Arthur, some time King of Britain, had both knowledge of those parts (the New World) and some dominion in them; for they find (as some report) that King Arthur had under his government many islands and great countries towards the north and west, which one of some special note hath interpreted to signify America, and the northern parts thereof, and thereupon have gone about to entitle the Queen of England (Elizabeth) to be the Sovereigne of these provinces by right of descent from King Arthur. But the wisdom of our state has been such as to neglect that opinion, imagining it to be grounded upon fabulous foundations, as many things are that are ascribed of King Arthur. Only this doth convey some shew with it; that, now some hundred years, there was a knight of Wales, who, with shipping, and some pretty company, did go to discover these parts, whereof, as there is some record of reasonable credit amongst the monuments of Wales, so there is nothing which giveth pregnant shew thereunto, that in the late navigations of some of our Menas Norwibegs, and some other northern parts of America, they found some tokens of civility and Christian religion; but especially they do meet with some words of the Welsh language, as that a bird with a white head should be called Penguin, and other such like; yet because we have now invincible certainty thereof, and if any thing were done, it was only in the northern and worse part, and the intercourse between Wales and those parts in the space of 700 years, was not continued, but quite silenced, we may go forward with that opinion (that these Western Indies were no way known to former ages."

The next account of Prince Madoc's adventures I have met with is in Hornius De Originibus Americenis. Hagæ-Comitis, 1652. What he hath advanced is much the same,

and

and contains little more, as he himself says, than extracts from Llwyd, Haklayt, and Powell.

In the Gentleman's Magazine, Vol. X. for the year 1740. p. 103, &c. the following narrative is inserted:

"These prefates may certify all persons whatever, that in the year 1660, being an inhabitant of Virginia, and Chaplain to Major General Bennet of Mansoman County, the said Major Bennet and Sir William Berkeley sent two ships to Port Royal, now-called South Carolina, which is sixty leagues to the southward of Cape fair, and I was sent therewith to be their Ministers. Upon the 8th of April we set out from Virginia, and arrived at the harbour's mouth of Port Royal the 19th of the same month, where we waited for the rest of the fleet that was to sail from Barbadoes and Bermuda with one Mr West, who was to be Deputy Governor of the said place. As soon as the fleet came in, the smallest vessels that were with us sailed up the river to a place called the Oyster Point. There I continued about 8 months, all which time being almost starved for want of provisions; I and five more travelled thro' the Wilderness; till we came to the Tuscorara country. There the Tuscorara Indians took us prisoners, because we told them that we were bound to Roanock. That night they carried us to their town, and shut us up close to our old small dread. The next day they entered into a consultation about us, which, as yet it was over; their interpreter told us that we must prepare ourselves to die next morning. Whereupon being very much dejected and speaking to this effect in the British tongue, "Have I escaped so many dangers, and must I now be knocked on the head like a dog;" then presently an Indian came to me, which afterwards appeared to bea War Captain belonging to the Sachem of the Doegs, (whose original I find must needs be from the

old Britons) and took me up by the middle, and told me in the British tongue, I should not die, and thereupon went to the Emperor of Tuscorara, and agreed for my ransom, and the men that were with me. They then welcomed us to their town, and entertained us very civilly and cordially four months; during which time I had the opportunity of conversing with them familiarly in the British language, and did preach to them three times a week in the same language; and they would confer with me about any thing that was difficult therein; and at our departure, they abundantly supplied us with whatever was necessary to our support and well-doing. They are settled upon Pontigo River, not far from Cape Atros. This is a brief recital of my travels, among the Doeg Indians. Morgan Jones, the son of John Jones of Bala-leg, near Newport, in the county of Monmouth. I am ready to conduct any Welshman, or others to the country. New York, March 10, 1685-6.

This letter was sent or given to Dr Thomas Lloyd of Pennsylvania, by whom it was transmitted to Charles Llwyd Esq. of Dôl y frân in Montgomeryshire; and afterwards to Dr Robert Plott by Edward Llwyd, a. n. Keeper of the Ashmolean Museum in Oxford.

A letter written by Charles Lloyd, Esq. of Dôl y frân, in Montgomeryshire, published in 1777, by the Rev. N. Owen, junr. A. M. in a pamphlet entitled, "British Remains," strongly confirms Mr Jones's narrative, and of consequence, the truth of Madog's voyages. Mr Lloyd says, in a letter, that he had been informed by a friend, that one Stedman of Breconshire, about 30 years before the date of his letter, was on the coast of America in a Dutch bottom, and being about to land for refreshment, the natives kept them off by force, till at last this Stedman told his fellow Dutch seamen that he understood

understood what the natives spoke. The Dutch bade him speak to them, and they were thereupon very courteous; they supplied them with the best things they had, and told Stedman, that they came from a country called Gwynedd, (North Wales) in Prydain (Prydain) fawr, Great Britain. It is supposed by Mr Lloyd that this place was situated between Virginia and Florida. It is farther said by this Gentleman, that one Oliver Humphreys, a merchant, who died, not long before the date of this letter, told him, that when he lived at Surinam, he spoke with an English privateer or Pirate, who being near Florida a careening his vessel, had learnt, as he thought, the Indian language, which his friend said was perfect Welsh. "My brother, Mr Lloyd adds, having heard this, (Mr Jones's adventures) and meeting with this Jones at New York, desired him to write it, with his own hand, in his house; and to please me and my cousin Thomas Price (of Llanvyllin) he sent me the original. This Jones lived within 12 miles of New York, and was contemporary with me and my brother at Oxford. He was of Jesus College, and called then Senior Jones by way of distinction."

The flight of Jones this gentleman supposes to have taken place about the time of Bacon's Rebellion in Virginia, and that he was with the Indians about the year 1659.

The date of Mr Lloyd's letter is Dolobran, 8m 14 D, 4.

To these evidences must be added what the authors of the universal history have said:

"That the Welsh contributed towards the peopling of America is intimated by some good authors, and ought to be considered as a notion supported by something more than bare conjectures. Powel, in his history of Wales, informs us that a war happening in that country for the succession, upon the death of Owen

Gwyneth, A. D. 1170, and a bastard having carried it from his lawful sons, one of the latter, called Madoc, put to sea for new discoveries, and sailing West from Spain, he discovered a new world of wonderful beauty and fertility. But finding this uninhabited, upon his return, he carried thither a great number of people from Wales. To this delightful country he made three voyages, according to Hakluyt. The places he discovered seem to be Virginia, New England, and the adjacent countries. In confirmation of this, Peter Martyr says that the natives of Virginia and Guatimala celebrated the memory of one Madoc as a great and ancient hero, and hence it came to pass that modern travellers have found several old British words among the inhabitants of North America; *Mateo Zunga* and *Mat Inga* as being in use among the Guatimalians, in which there is a plain allusion to Madoc, and that with the D softened into T, according to the Welsh manner of pronunciation. Nay, Bishop Nicolson seems to believe that the Welsh language makes a considerable part of several of the American tongues. According to a famous British antiquary, the Spaniards borrowed their double L. (LL) from the people of Mexico, who received it from the Welsh; and the Dutch brought a bird with a white head from the Straights of Magellan, called by the natives Penguin, which word in the Old British (and in modern British) signifies "white head;" and therefore seems originally to have come from Wales. This must be allowed an additional argument, to omit others that occur in favour of Madoc's three American expeditions."

Mr Charles Beatty, a missionary from New York, accompanied by a Mr Duffield, visited some inland parts of North America in the year 1766. If I rightly understand his journal, he travelled about 400 or 500 miles, to the

the South West of New York. During his tour he met with several persons who had been among the Indians from their youth, or who had been taken captives by them, and lived with them several years. Among others one Benjamin Sutton, who had visited different nations, and had lived many years with them. His account, in Mr Beatty's words, was as follows :

“ He, (Benjamin Sutton) informed us, when he was with the Chactaw nation, or tribes of Indians at the Mississippi, he went to an Indian town a very considerable distance from New Orleans, whose inhabitants were of different complexions; not so tawny as those of the other Indians, and who spoke Welsh. He said he saw a book among them, which he supposed was a Welsh Bible, which they carefully kept wrapped up in a skin, but they could not read it, and that he heard some of these Indians afterwards in the lower Shawanaugh town speak Welsh with one Lewis a Welsh-man, captive there. This Welsh tribe now live on the West-side of the Mississippi river, a great way above New Orleans.

Levi Hicks—as being among the Indians from his youth, told us he had been, when attending an embassy to a town of Indians, on the West-side of the Mississippi river, who talked Welsh, (as he was told, for he did not understand them); and, our interpreter Joseph saw some Indians whom he supposed to be of the same tribe, who talked Welsh, for he told us some of the words they said, which he knew to be Welsh, as he had been acquainted with some Welsh people.

Correspondent hereto, I have been informed that many years ago, a clergyman went from Britain to Virginia, and having lived some time there, went from thence to South Carolina; but either because the climate

did not agree with him, or for some other reason, resolved to return to Virginia, and accordingly set out by land, accompanied by some other persons; but travelling thro' the back parts of the country which was very thinly inhabited, supposing, very probably, this was the nearest way, he fell in with a party of Indian warriors going to attack the inhabitants of Virginia, against whom they had declared war.

The Indians, upon examining the clergyman, and finding that he was going to Virginia, looked upon him and his companions as belonging to Virginia, and therefore took them all prisoners, and let them know they must die. The clergyman in preparation for another world went to prayer, and being a Welsh-man, prayed in the Welsh language, possibly because this language was most familiar to him, or to prevent the Indians understanding him. One or more of the party of the Indians was much surprised to hear him pray in their language. Upon this they spoke to him, and finding that he could understand their speech, they got the sentence of death reversed; and this happy circumstance was the means of saving his life.

They took him back with them into their country, where he found a tribe whose native language was Welsh, though the dialect was a little different from his own, which he soon came to understand. They shewed him a book, which he found to be the bible, but which they could not read; and 'tis I mistake not, his ability to read it tended to raise their regard for him.

He stayed among them some time, and endeavoured to instruct them in the Christian Religion. He at length proposed to go back to his own country, and return to them with some other teachers, who would be able to instruct them in their own language;

to which proposal they consenting, he accordingly set out from thence, and arrived in Britain, with full intention to return to them with some of his countrymen, in order to teach these Indians Christianity. But I was acquainted that, not long after his arrival, he was taken sick, and died, which put an end to his schemes.

Sutton farther told us that among the Delaware tribe of Indians he observed their women to follow exactly the custom of the Jewish women, in keeping separate from the rest seven days at certain times as prescribed in the Mosaic Law; that from some old men among them he had heard the following traditions: that of old time their people were divided by a river, nine parts in ten passing over the river, and one part tarrying behind; that they knew not for certainty how they came first to this continent, but account thus for their coming into these parts near where they are now settled; that a king of their nation, when they formerly lived far to the west, left his kingdom to his two sons; that the one son making war upon the other, the latter thereupon determined to depart and seek some new habitation; that accordingly he set out, accompanied by a number of his people, and that after wandering to and fro for the space of 40 years, they at length came to Delaware river, where they settled, 370 years ago. The way, he says, they keep an account of this, is by putting on a black bead of *swampum* every year since, on a belt they have for that purpose.

He farther added, that the king of that country from whence they came, some years ago, when the French were in possession of Fort Duquesne, sent out some of his people, in order if possible, to find out that part of their nation that departed to seek a new country, and that these men, after seeking six years, came at length to the pickt town on the Oubache river, and there happened to meet with a

Delaware Indian, named Jack, *after* the English, whose language they could understand; and that by him they were conducted to the Delaware towns, where they tarried one year; and returned; that the French sent a white man with them properly furnished to bring back an account of their country who, the Indians said, could not return in less than 14 years, for they lived a great way towards the Sun setting. It is now, Sutton says; about 10 or 12 years since they went away. He added, that the Delawares observe the feast of first fruits, or the green corn feast.

The following is an account given by Captain Isaac Stewart, taken from his own mouth, in March 1782, and inserted in the Public Advertiser, Oct. 8th, 1785.

"I was taken prisoner about 50 miles to the Westward of Fort Pitt, about 18 years ago, by the Indians, and was carried by them to the *Wa-bah*, with many more white men who were executed with circumstances of horrid barbarity. It was my good fortune to call forth the sympathy of what is called the good woman of the town, who was permitted to redeem me from the flames, by giving, as my ransom, a horse.

After remaining two years in bondage among the Indians, a Spaniard came to the Nation, having been sent from Mexico on discoveries. He made application to the chiefs for redeeming me and another white man, who was in a like situation, named John Davy (David) which they complied with. And we took our departure in company with the Spaniard to the Westward, crossing the Mississippi near Rouge or Red River, up which we travelled 700 miles, when we came to a nation of Indians, remarkably White, and whose hair was of a reddish colour, at least mostly so. They lived on the banks of a small river, which is called the River *Pack*. In the morning of the day after our arrival,

arrival, the Welsh man informed me that he was determined to remain with them, giving as a reason, that he understood their language, it being very little different from the Welsh. My curiosity was excited very much by this information, and I went with my companion to the chief men of the town, who informed him (in a language that I had no knowledge of, and which had no affinity to that of other Indian tongues that I ever heard) that their forefathers of this nation came from a foreign country, and landed on the east side of the Mississippi, describing particularly the country now called

Florida, and that on the Spaniards taking possession of Mexico, they fled to their then abode. And as a proof of the truth of what he advanced, he brought forth rolls of parchment, which were carefully tied up in oxen skins, on which were large characters written with blue ink. The characters I did not understand, and the Welshman being unacquainted with letters even of his own language, I was not able to know the meaning of the writing. They are a bold, hardy, and intrepid people, very warlike, and the women beautiful when compared with other Indians.

Miscellaneous Extracts from Sir John Sinclair's Statistical Account of Scotland.

PARISH OF LINTON.

Diseases.

A Man called William Badie, or Beatie, a shoemaker, died a few weeks ago in Linton. About 16 or 17 years since, being afflicted with stomach complaints, contracted by drinking cold water when overheated in harvest, he was advised to swallow stones to help digestion, after the manner of birds with muscular stomachs. He was ever after afflicted with violent stomach complaints, and frequent vomitings, with a long train of nervous symptoms. He never suspected that the stones had lodged in his stomach, till happening to be seized with a vomiting lying across a bed, with his head and body reclined downwards, and supporting himself with his hands on the floor, several stones came up. The man was of decent character, and from his own, and his neighbours reports, there is no doubt of the fact. The largest stone was the size of a finger end. He threw up 13, which, being the Devil's dozen, might probably be the number swallowed. Lastly, his surgeon made him vomit in an inclined position, and he threw up

sand, which probably had fallen from his victuals into some sack formed in the stomach by the weight of the stones. The stones must have been lodged in his stomach for about 16 years.

Poor.

In 1782—3, people were sometimes discovered living on nettles, or potatoes, without meal, and were relieved; particularly one poor householder, a day-labourer, who was reported to the minister as sick and starving. He was found exhausted with hunger; and said, that he felt an *o'ercaasting at his heart, and his lights were ay ready to lose the fluff.* Some Port wine, and a supply of meat, put him in heart, and made him fit for work. The people lived then mostly on very wholesome white pease, brought from Leith.

PARISH OF TINWALD.

Eminent Men.

The famous Paterson, who, it is said, planned the Darien scheme, the Bank of England, &c. was born at Skipmyre, a farm in the old parish of Traillstap, about the year 1660. He does

does not seem to have been an obscure Scotchman, as a certain writer styles him; he more than once represented Dumfries, &c. in the Scotch Parliament. The same house gave birth to his grand nephew, Dr James Mounsfey, first physician for many years to the Empress of Russia. The widow, who now enjoys the farm, is sister to Dr John Rogerfon, who succeeded Dr Mounsfey as first physician to the Empress.

PARISH OF CROSSMICHAEL.

Longevity.

THE people live not in towns or villages, and most of them are employed in agriculture, which is favourable at once to health, longevity, and morals. Within these 20 years, at least 12 persons have died in the lower parts of Galloway, from 100 to 115 years old. William Marshall, a tinker in this place, is now 118. He might pass for a man of 60. His faculties are unimpaired, and he walks through the country with ease.

Productions.

The Galloway cattle have one characteristic which naturalists may think incredible; they are almost all without horns! Dr Samuel Johnson, in his journey to the Western Islands, (London edition, 1775, p. 186), has the following notable passage: "Of their black cattle, some are without horns, called by the Scots, *bumbie cows*, as we call a bee a *humble bee* that wants a sting. Whether this difference be specific or accidental, though we enquired *with great diligence*, we could not be informed. "We are not very sure that the bull is ever without horns, though we have been told that such bulls there are. What is produced by putting a horned and an unhorned male and female together, no man has ever tried, who thought the result worthy of observation." Though it may savour of arrogance, the high authority quoted must be flatly contra-

dicted. There is not within the bounds of this parish a single bull, nor a male of any other species, except a few goats and rams, with horns. The experiment the philosopher wished for has been tried a thousand times, and the result has been observed to be a *calves*, sometimes with, and sometimes without horns, but never, as the Doctor most probably expected, an *unicorn*.

PARISH OF PARTON IN THE STEWARTRY OF KIRKCUDBRIGHT.

A few years ago, a man died above 90, who, about 8 months before his death, got a complete set of new teeth, which he employed till near his last breath to excellent purpose. He was four times married, had children by all his wives, and at the baptism of his last child, which happened not a year before his death, with an air of complacency expressed his thankfulness to his Maker for having "at last sent him the *old score*," i. e. 21.

PARISH OF CRANOND.

Eminent Men.

Of persons meriting to be particularly mentioned, the most distinguished eminent men, who were either natives of, or resident proprietors in the parish, are, 1st, John Elphinston, second Lord Balmerinoch, a nobleman noted for his spirited opposition to the tyrannical proceedings of Charles I. for which he narrowly escaped losing his head, and for being the best friend that the Covenanters ever had, as he spent a great fortune in support of their cause. 2d, Sir Thomas Hope of Grantoun, well known as one of the ablest and most successful lawyers at the Scottish bar, to whose unremitting exertions, and sound advice, the firm establishment of the Presbyterian mode of worship in this kingdom is in a great measure owing. 3d, Sir William Hope of Grantoun, his grandson, who was distinguished for superior proficiency in all the fashionable accomplish-

ishments of the times in which he lived, particularly for great skill in fencing, on which he published a celebrated treatise. 4th, That fine scholar, and pleasant companion, but crafty and slippery statesman, George Mackenzie, first Earl of Cromarty, whose numerous works are well known. 5th, John Law of Laurieston, Comptroller General of the finances in France, one of the most extraordinary characters that this or any other country has produced, to whose great merit and abilities sufficient justice has not yet been done. 6th, Geo. Cleghorn, an eminent physician in Dublin, the first person that established what could, with any degree of propriety, be called an anatomical school in Ireland. 7th, William Cleghorn, who was associated with his uncle George, just now mentioned, as Professor of Anatomy in Trinity College, Dublin, but died soon afterwards in 1783, at the age of 28, universally regretted.

PARISH OF HOLYWOOD IN DUMFRIES-SHIRE.

Antiquities.

THE Abbey of Holywood stood in the site of a part of the present church-yard. About half of the head of the cross of this abbey was standing in the year 1779, when it served for the parish church. These remains, however, were then pulled down, and the materials used, in part, for building the present new church. The vestiges of the old abbey are sufficiently evident in the church-yard; and the adjoining farm retains the name of Abbey. The present church has two fine toned bells, taken out of the old building; one of which, by an inscription and date on it, appears to have been consecrated by the Abbot John Wrich, in the year 1154. From undoubted records, this abbey belonged to the monks of the order of Premontré, which was instituted in the diocese of Loon in France, in the year 1120,

and was so called, because, as the monks say, the place was "*divina revelatione pramonstratum.*"

PARISH OF DALMENY.

Minerals.

There may be mentioned a singular basaltic rock upon the south side of Dundas-hill, 250 yards long, and generally about 60 or 70 feet high.— This rock is almost perpendicular in its front, and consists of light bluish granite, of a very close and fine texture: the masses are in an irregular columnar state, separated by channels or furrows; but many well defined regular prisms are to be observed. At the foot of the steep, and almost perpendicular bank on which this rock lies, is a morass of about 9 acres of shell marl. But what is chiefly remarkable and valuable as a mineral in this parish, is the vast bed of free-stone upon the sea-coast. A quarry of this excellent stone has been wrought to the extent of three acres a little to the west of the borough of Queensferry; and, besides supplying the demands of the neighbourhood, great quantities of it were privately exported for building the fortifications and quay of Dunkirk. All the fine stone carvings of Earl Fife's elegant house at Banff were executed here upon the spot, and sent thither in cases by sea. A large baptismal font, 5 feet in diameter, intended for the Continent, with its bottom uppermost, and covered with sea-weed and shell fish, lies opposite to this quarry a good way within the sea mark; and which the antiquary might fancy to be one of the remains of some Popish church once standing there, that had been overwhelmed by the sea. Grindstones are manufactured at this quarry, and annually exported to the countries on the Baltic. It is said, that here and elsewhere on the coast in this parish, there is such a quantity of free-stone, that scarcely any demand could exhaust it.

Eminent

Eminent Men.

THE late William Wilkie, D. D. born in the village of Echlin in this parish, Oct. 5. 1721, and educated at the school of Dalmeny. After revolving the history of ancient families in this and other parishes, many of which are fallen into decline, and may perhaps pass into oblivion, it may be observed, that the memory of a man of genius and learning is less subject to perish. The *Epigiad* will probably be always admired. Without speaking of the happy choice of the subject, and of the merit of many of the characters in that epic poem, it may be enough to say, that the episode of Hercules, taken by itself, is sufficient to entitle the poet to perpetual fame. Dr Wilkie was distinguished for a singular compass of knowledge, and chiefly for an originality of genius. In his youth he cultivated a small farm, and struggled long and hard with penury. He was afterwards minister of Ratho; and lastly professor of Natural Philosophy in the University of St Andrews, where he died in 1773, in his 52d year.

PARISH OF SORBE.

Cattle, Wool, &c.

THE black cattle of this parish and neighbourhood are of the best quality. Lord Galloway thinks he has improved the size and shape of the original breed, by introducing Westmorland bulls. His Lordship gave new life to a spirit of emulation among the breeders, by a premium of a very handsome silver cup, which he bestowed every year on the person who produced the best four year old ox or cow. With respect to Galloway cattle in general, those in the mairs differ only from those in the improved part of the country in their size. The last description of cattle weigh when fat 50, the first about 40 stone. Most of the cattle are without horns, and are preferred to such as have them; because they are supposed to be deeper

in the forequarter, are in less danger of being gored by each other, and are more compact in their shape. The prevailing colours are black and brown; white is not esteemed. They are even in the back, square and deep in the rib, and short in the leg; and so healthy, that they fatten sooner than any other: They coit in the country, when

One year old	-	L. 2	10	0
Two years old	-	5	10	0
Three ditto	-	7	0	0
Four ditto	-	8	8	0

They used to be sent to the English markets when four years old; but now too many of them are sent sooner.— This county sends many thousands to these markets every year; and this parish breeds annually between five and six hundred. They are about twenty-eight days in travelling to the Norfolk markets, and cost about 18s. per head driving and feeding. When they have finished their journey, it is supposed they have lost, through fatigue, above one-eighth of their weight. To this add the losses occasioned by diseases, by freights, heats, bad water, lameness, and other causes. Such losses affect not only the proprietors of droves, but also the public, by advancing the price of beef. Here the unfriendly operation of the salt-laws appears in a very clear light. Were it not for them, the vast herds of cattle produced by this truly fertile country might be slaughtered and salted at home for the use of his Majesty's navy, trading vessels, &c.

Some of the most ancient breed of Galloway horses are among the mountainous and less improved parts of the country. They are said to be very hardy, easily maintained, and high spirited. This breed is well attended to in Cumberland, where it is much improved by crosses with English horses. A larger breed is preferred here, as being more fit for the purposes of draught and agriculture. Through the attention of the noblemen and gentry,

gentry, this neighbourhood has a breed of horses fit for the saddle, and carriages of every kind. The colours of horses are various; but the dark bay, with black legs and feet, is preferred. Their shape is generally good. They were originally galloways; and said to have sprung from a Spanish breed, which came ashore on this coast when one of the vessels of the Armada was wrecked upon it, after sailing round by the Pentland Firth.

PARISH OF ROTHESAY.

Miscellaneous Observations.

During the last war, there were a number of seamen from the parish in the navy service; and, had the prize-money due to them been properly accounted for, it is believed that prize-warrants would have been unnecessary here; but as matters are at present managed, nothing but compulsion will induce them to enter into the navy service. Many of them, to whom prize-money is due, can get no account of; nor even find out the agent in whose hands it is. Would it not answer the purposes of government equally well, were the management of prizes put into the hands of the pay-office, and government become accountable for it, as well as their wages; and, instead of obliging the seamen to employ agents and attorneys, at a great expence and risk, might not the inspector of the pay-office correspond with the ministers of the different parishes to which the seamen belong, (which he is even at present sometimes obliged to do), and the situation and circumstances of each seaman's right and claim being, in the course of the correspondence, ascertained, payment might be had at the nearest bank, or an order given upon the nearest customhouse, without either risk or expence? By adopting some measure of this kind, the ministers of the parishes where there are

sea-faring people would have much less trouble than they frequently have by the present mode of management, and would at the same time have the satisfaction of seeing justice done to a set of brave fellows, who have risked their lives in the service of their country.

UNITED PARISHES OF HOUSTON AND KILLALLAN.

Antiquities.

ABOUT 20 years ago, when the country people in this parish were digging for stones to inclose their farms, they met with several chests or coffins of flag stones, set on their edges, sides, and ends, and covered with the same sort of stones above; in which were many human bones of a large size, and several skulls in some of them. In one was found many trinkets of a jet black substance, some round, others round and oblong, and others of a diamond shape, &c. all perforated. Probably they were a necklace. There was a thin piece, about two inches broad at one end, and perforated with many holes, but narrow at the other; the broad end, full of holes, seemed to be designed for suspending many trinkets, as an ornament on the breast. The ground where these stone coffins were found was a little raised, with a mixture of small stones and earth, in the form of a barrow or tumulus.

But whether these stone coffins were older than the Roman government in this country, or later, or upon what occasion so many people were buried there in that manner, and several in one stone chest, is not known. It seems to have been the consequence of a battle or skirmish between two hostile parties; which was the case not 200 years ago, between families, through most parts of Scotland, who often met their enemy, with their vassals and dependants, and slaughtered one another.

*Opinion of Dr Johnson on the Subject of Vicious Intrusion.**

BEFORE leaving London this year, I consulted the Dr upon a question purely of Scotch law. It was held of old, and continued for a long period, to be an established principle in that law, that whoever intermeddled with the effects of a person deceased, without the interposition of legal authority to guard against embezzlement, should be subjected to pay all the debts of the deceased, as having been guilty of what was technically called *vicious intrusion*. The Court of Session had gradually relaxed the strictness of this principle, where the interference proved had been inconsiderable. In a case † which came before that Court the preceding winter, I had laboured to persuade the Judges to return to the ancient law. It was my own sincere opinion, that they ought to adhere to it; but I had exhausted all my powers of reasoning in vain. Johnson thought as I did; and in order to assist me in my application to the Court for a revision and alteration of the judgment, he dictated to me the following argument:

“This, we are told, is a law which has its force only from the long practice of the Court; and may, therefore, be suspended or modified as the Court shall think proper.

“Concerning the power of the Court to make or to suspend a law, we have no intention to inquire. It is sufficient for our purpose that every just law is dictated by reason; and that the practice of every legal Court is regulated by equity. It is the quality of reason to be invariable and constant; and of equity, to give to one man what, in the same case, is given to another. The advantage which humanity derives from law is this, that the law gives every man a rule of action, and prescribes a mode of con-

duct which shall entitle him to the support and protection of society. That the law may be a rule of action it is necessary that it be known; —it is necessary that it be permanent and stable. The law is the measure of civil right; but if the measure be changeable, the extent of the thing measured never can be settled.

“To permit a law to be modified at discretion, is to leave the community without law. It is to withdraw the direction of that public wisdom, by which the deficiencies of private understanding are to be supplied. It is to suffer the rash and ignorant to act at discretion, and then to depend for the legality of that action on the sentence of the Judge. He that is thus governed, lives not by law, but by opinion: not by a certain rule to which he can apply his intention before he acts, but by an uncertain and variable opinion, which he can never know but after he has committed the act on which that opinion shall be passed. He lives by a law (if a law it be,) which he can never know before he has offended it. To this case may be justly applied that important principle, *misera est servitus ubi jus est aut incognitum aut vagum*. If intrusion be not criminal till it exceeds a certain point, and that point be unsettled, and consequently different in different minds, the right of intrusion, and the right of the Creditor arising from it, are all *jura vaga*, and, by consequence, are *jura incognita*; and the result can be no other than a *misera servitus*, an uncertainty concerning the event of action, a servile dependance on private opinion.

“It may be urged, and with great plausibility, that there may be intrusion without fraud; which, how-

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* From Boswell's Life of Johnson.

† Wilson against Smith and Armour.

ever true, will by no means justify an occasional and arbitrary relaxation of the law. The end of law is protection as well as vengeance. Indeed vengeance is never used but to strengthen protection. That society only is well governed where life is freed from danger and from suspicion; where possession is so sheltered by salutary prohibitions, that violation is prevented more frequently than punished. Such a prohibition was this, while it operated with its original force. The creditor of the deceased was not only without loss, but without fear. He was not to seek a remedy for any injury suffered; for injury was warded off.

“As the law has been sometimes administered, it lays us open to wounds, because it is imagined to have the power of healing. To punish fraud when it is detected, is the proper act of vindictive justice; but to prevent frauds, and make punishment unnecessary, is the great employment of legislative wisdom. To permit intromission, and to punish fraud, is to make law no better than a pitfall. To tread upon the brink is safe; but to come a step further is destruction. But, surely, it is better to inclose the gulf, and hinder all access, than by encouraging us to advance a little, to entice us afterwards a little further, and let us perceive our folly only by our destruction.

“As law supplies the weak with adventurous strength, it likewise enlightens the ignorant with extrinsic understanding. Law teaches us to know when we commit injury, and when we suffer it. It fixes certain marks upon actions, by which we are admonished to do or to forbear them. *Qui sine temperat in licitis*, says one of the fathers, *nunquam cadet in illicita*: He who never intromits at all, will never intromit with fraudulent intentions.

“The relaxation of the law against vicious intromission has been very favourably represented by a great mas-

ter of jurisprudence, whose words have been exhibited with unnecessary pomp, and seem to be considered as irresistibly decisive. The great moment of his authority makes it necessary to examine his position. ‘Some ages ago, (says he,) before the ferocity of the inhabitants of this part of the island was subdued, the utmost severity of the civil law was necessary, to restrain individuals from plundering each other. Thus, the man who intermeddled irregularly with the moveables of a person deceased, was subjected to all the debts of the deceased without limitation. This makes a branch of the law of Scotland known by the name of *vicious intromission*; and so rigidly was this regulation applied in our Courts of Law, that the most trifling moveable abstracted *malâ fide*, subjected the intermeddler to the foregoing consequences, which proved in many instances a most rigorous punishment. But this severity was necessary, in order to subdue the undisciplined nature of our people. It is extremely remarkable, that in proportion to our improvement in manners, this regulation has been gradually softened, and applied by our sovereign Court with a sparing hand.’

“I find myself under a necessity of observing, that this learned and judicious writer has not accurately distinguished the deficiencies and demands of the different conditions of human life, which, from a degree of savageness and independence, in which all laws are vain, passes or may pass, by innumerable gradations, to a state of reciprocal benignity, in which laws shall be no longer necessary. Men are first wild and unsocial, living each man to himself, taking from the weak, and losing to the strong. In their first coalitions of society, much of this original savageness is retained. Of general happiness, the product of general confidence, there is yet no thought. Men continue to prosecute their own advantages by the nearest way;

way; and the utmost severity of the civil law is necessary to restrain individuals from plundering each other. The restraints then necessary, are restraints from plunder, from acts of public violence, and undisguised oppression. The ferocity of our ancestors, as of all other nations, produced not fraud but rapine. They had not yet learned to cheat, and attempted only to rob. As manners grow more polished, with the knowledge of good, men attain likewise dexterity in evil. Open rapine becomes less frequent, and violence gives way to cunning. Those who before invaded pastures and stormed houses, now begin to enrich themselves by unequal contracts and fraudulent intromissions. It is not against the violence of ferocity, but the circumventions of deceit, that this law was framed; and I am afraid the increase of commerce, and the incessant struggle for riches which commerce excites, give us no prospect of an end speedily to be expected of artifice and fraud. It therefore seems to be no very conclusive reasoning, which connects those two propositions;—“the nation is become less ferocious, and therefore the laws against fraud and *coven* shall be relaxed.”

“Whatever reason may have influenced the Judges to a relaxation of the law, it was not that the nation was grown less fierce; and, I am afraid, it cannot be affirmed that it is grown less fraudulent.

“Since this law has been represented as rigorously and unreasonably penal, it seems not improper to consider what are the conditions and qualities that make the justice or propriety of a penal law.

“To make a penal law reasonable and just, two conditions are necessary, and two proper. It is necessary that the law should be adequate to its end; that, if it be observed, it shall prevent the evil against which it is directed. It is, secondly, necessary that the end of the law be of such importance, as to deserve the security of a

penal law sanction. The other conditions of a penal law, which though not absolutely necessary, are to a very high degree fit, are, that to the moral violation of the law there are many temptations, and that of the physical observance there is great facility.

“All these conditions apparently concur to justify the law which we are now considering. Its end is the security of property; and property very often of great value. The method by which it effects the security is efficacious, because it admits, in its original rigour, no gradations of injury; but keeps guilt and innocence apart, by a distinct and definite limitation. He that intromits is criminal; he that intromits not, is innocent. Of the two secondary considerations it cannot be denied that both are in our favour. The temptation to intromit is frequent and strong; so strong and so frequent, as to require the utmost activity of justice, and vigilance of caution, to withstand its prevalence; and the method by which a man may entitle himself to legal intromission is so open and so facile, that to neglect it is a proof of fraudulent intention: for why should a man omit to do (but for reasons which he will not confess,) that which he can do so easily, and that which he knows to be required by the law? If temptation were rare, a penal law might be deemed unnecessary. If the duty enjoined by the law were of difficult performance, omission, though it could not be justified, might be pitied. But in the present case, neither equity nor compassion operate against it. A useful, a necessary law is broken, not only without a reasonable motive, but with all the inducements to obedience that can be derived from safety and facility.

“I therefore return to my original position, that a law, to have its effect, must be permanent and stable. It may be said, in the language of the schools, *Lex non recipit majus et minus*;—we may have a law, or we may have no law, but we cannot have half

law. We must either have a rule of action, or be permitted to act by discretion and by chance. Deviations from the law must be uniformly punished, or no man can be certain when he shall be safe.

“That from the rigour of the original institution this Court has sometimes departed, cannot be denied. But, as it is evident that such devia-

tions, as they make law uncertain, make life unsafe, I hope, that of departing from it there will now be an end; that the wisdom of our ancestors will be treated with due reverence; and that consistent and steady decisions will furnish the people with a rule of action, and leave fraud and fraudulent intromission no future hope of impunity or escape.”

Memoirs of James Boswell, Esq. From the European Magazine.

JAMES BOSWELL, Esq. was born at Edinburgh on the 29th of October, N. S. 1740, being the eldest son of Alexander Boswell, Esq. an eminent Judge in the Supreme Courts of Session and Justiciary in Scotland, by the title of Lord Auchinleck, from the Barony of that name in Ayrshire, which has been the property of the family for almost three centuries. His mother was Mis Euphemia Erskine, descended in the line of Alva from the noble house of Mar, a lady of distinguished piety.

He received his early education at the school of Mr James Mundell, in Edinburgh, a teacher of great reputation; amongst whose scholars were, Mr Hay Canpbell now Lord President of the Court of Session, and many others who do honour to his memory. He went through the regular course of the College of Edinburgh, where he formed an intimacy with Mr Temple, of Allardeen in Northumberland, some time Rector of Mamhead in Devonshire, and now Vicar of St Gluvias in Cornwall; an intimacy which has continued without interruption, and has probably contributed to keep alive that love of literature and of English manners which has ever marked Mr Boswell's character. He very early began to shew a propensity to distinguish himself in literary composition, in which he was

encouraged by the late Lord Somerville, to whose memory he pays a grateful tribute. While he was at Edinburgh College, Lady Houston, sister of the late Lord Cathcart, put under his care a comedy, entitled, “*The Coquettes; or, The Gallant in the Closet*”; with a strict injunction that its author should be concealed. Mr Boswell, who was then very fond of the drama, and associated much with the players, got this comedy brought upon the stage, and wrote the prologue to it, which was spoken by Mr Parsons. But it was not successful, being in truth *damned* the third night, and not unjustly; for it was found to be chiefly a translation of one of the bad plays of Thomas Corneille. Such, however, was the fidelity of Mr Boswell, that although from his attending the rehearsals, and other circumstances, he was generally supposed to be the author of it himself, and consequently had the laugh and sneer of his country against him, he never mentioned by whom it was written, nor was it known till the discovery was made by the lady herself.

Having studied civil law for some time at Edinburgh, Mr Boswell went for one winter to continue it at the University of Glasgow, where he also attended the lectures of Dr Adam Smith on moral philosophy and rhetoric.

At this early period he was flattered by being held forth as a patron of Literature; for Mr Francis Gentleman published at the elegant presses of the *Foulis's* the tragedy of *Oroonoko*, altered from Southerne, and inscribed it to him in a poetical epistle, concluding thus in the person of his Muse:

But where with honest pleasure she can find,
Sense, taste, religion, and good-nature join'd,
'There gladly will she raise her feeble voice,
Nor fear to tell that BOSWELL is her choice.

He had acquired, from reading and conversation, an almost enthusiastic notion of the felicity of London, which he visited, for the first time, early in the year 1760, and his ardent expectations were not disappointed. He had already given some specimens of a talent for writing in several occasional essays, both in prose and verse, without a name, and he soon obtained the acquaintance of many of the wits of the metropolis, having the late Mr Derrick as his introducer into "many-colour'd life." or, as he has pleasantly expressed it, his *governor*. But his views of the world were chiefly opened by the late Alexander Earl of Eglington, one of the most amiable and accomplished noblemen of his time, who being of the same country, and from his earliest years acquainted with the family of Auchinleck, insisted that young Boswell should have an apartment of his house, and introduced him into the circles of the great, the gay, and the ingenious. He in particular carried him to Newmarket, the history of which Mr Boswell related in a poem written upon the spot, entitled, "*The Cub at Newmarket, a Tale*;" which he published next year in quarto, with a dedication to Edward Duke of York, to whom the author had been allowed to read it in manuscript, and had been honoured with his Royal Highness's approbation.

Captivated with the variety and animation of the metropolis, Mr Boswell was now earnest to have a commission as an Officer of the Guards; but his father prevailed with him to return to Scotland, and take some time to consider of it. Wishing that his son should apply to the law, which his family had done for two generations with great advantage, Lord Auchinleck took the trouble himself to give him a regular course of instruction in that science; a circumstance of singular benefit, and of which Mr Boswell has ever expressed a strong and grateful sense. Mr Boswell at this time, but still without putting his name, only the initials, contributed several pieces to "*A Collection of Poems by Gentlemen of Scotland*," published by Mr Alexander Donaldson. Several of these were particularly distinguished in "*The Critical Review*." In one of them he pleasantly draws his own character. It appears that he was very intimate with the Reverend Edward Colquet, one of the ministers of the Church of England Chapel at Edinburgh, a man who had lived much in the world, and, with other qualities, was eminent for gay sociality. Mr Boswell thus speaks of him:

And he owns that Ned Colquet the priest
May to something of humour pretend;
And he swears that he is not in jest,
When he calls this same Colquet his friend,

We cannot but observe, that there are traits in it which time has not yet altered. As for instance:

Boswell does women adore,
And never once means to deceive;
He's in love with at least half a score,
If they're serious he smiles in his sleeve.

And that egotism and self-applause which he is still displaying, yet it would seem with a conscious smile:

— Boswell

—Boswell is modest enough,
Himself not quite Phœbus he thinks.

And

He has all the bright fancy of youth,
With the judgment of forty and five.
In short, to declare the plain truth,
There is no better fellow alive.

Having an uncommon desire for the company of men distinguished for talents and literature, he was fortunate enough to get himself received into that of those who were considerably his superiors in age; such as Lord Elibank, Lord Kaimes, Sir David Dalrymple, Dr Robertson, Dr Blair, Mr David Hume, Dr Carlyle, Mr Andrew Stuart, and others; and was admitted a member of the *Select Society* of Edinburgh. He then passed his trials as a Civilian before a Committee of the Faculty of Advocates. Persisting, however, in his fondness for the Guards, or rather, in truth, for the metropolis, he again repaired to London, in the end of the year 1762, recommended to the late Duke of Queensberry, the patron of Gay, who, he believed, was to obtain for him what he wished; but, perhaps from a secret understanding with Lord Auchinleck, it was delayed from time to time, till, in summer 1763, a compromise was made, that if he would relinquish his favourite project, and resume the study of the civil law, for one winter, at Utrecht, he should afterwards have the indulgence of travelling upon the Continent; provided that on his return he should become an advocate at the Scotch Bar.

This year he, for the first time, appeared as an author with his name, in a little volume of "Letters between the Honourable Andrew Erskine and James Boswell," Esq. a publication in which he and his friend, a brother of the Earl of Kelly, indulged themselves in a vein of singular and sometimes extravagant humour. During his residence in London at this time, Mr Boswell cultivated the

acquaintance of literary men, and particularly obtained that of Dr SAMUEL JOHNSON, from which so much instruction and entertainment has been derived.

He fulfilled his additional winter's study of civil law at Utrecht, in which that of Holland was intermixed, under the very able German professor Trotz, and made excursions to other parts of the Seven Provinces, particularly the Hague, where he had this great advantage of being treated with all the kindness of relationship by M. Van Sommelsdyck, one of the nobles of Holland, from whose family he had the honour of being descended; a daughter of that illustrious house having married Alexander Earl of Kincardine, whose daughter, Lady Elizabeth Bruce, was Mr Boswell's grandmother by the father's side.

He then accompanied the late Earl Marischal of Scotland into Germany; and, being well recommended, passed some time at many of the Courts; proceeded through Switzerland to Geneva; visited Rousseau and Voltaire; crossed the Alps into Italy, and not only saw the parts of that delightful country which are commonly surveyed in the course of what is called the *Grand Tour*, but others worthy of a classical traveller's curiosity. During a part of the time which he passed in Italy he had the happiness of being along with Lord Mountstuart, to whose merits he has done justice in a Latin Dedication of his *Theses Juridicæ*. Nor was it a circumstance of small moment in the pleasant and social scale that he met at Turin, Rome, and Naples, the celebrated John Wilkes, Esq; with whom he had always maintained an acquaintance upon the most liberal terms, and with whom he enjoyed many classical scenes with peculiar relish.

But Mr Boswell's travels were principally marked by his visiting the island of Corfica, the internal part of which no native of Britain had ever seen.

seen. Undismayed by the reports of danger which were circulated, he penetrated into its wildest districts, and was amply rewarded by the knowledge which he acquired, and by obtaining the acquaintance of its illustrious Chief General Paoli.

On this account he was celebrated by Miss Aitken, now Mrs Barbauld, in her poem called *Corfica*, by the late Edward Burnaby Green, Esq; in "*Corfica, an Ode*;" and by Capel Lofft, Esq; in his "*Praises of Poetry*."

When Mr Boswell was at Paris, in January 1766, where he intended to pass the winter, he received accounts of the death of his mother, which obliged him to hasten home to his father. In his way, however, through London, he had an interview with Mr Pitt, afterwards Earl of Chatham, with whom he corresponded concerning the affairs of Corfica. Some of the particulars of this interview, all of which he committed to writing, he has been heard to mention in a very interesting manner. Soon after his return to Scotland, he was admitted an Advocate in the Court of Session, and practised there for some years with good success.

In 1767, the great *Douglas Cause* being an object of universal attention and interest, Mr Boswell generously volunteered in favour of Mr Douglas, against whose filiation the Court of Session had decided by the casting vote of the Lord President Dundas. With a labour of which few are capable, he compressed the substance of the immense volumes of proofs and arguments into an octavo pamphlet, which he published with the title of "*The Essence of the Douglas Cause*;" and as it was thus made intelligible without a tedious study, we may ascribe to this pamphlet a great share of the popularity on Mr Douglas's side, which was of infinite consequence when a division of the House of Lords upon an appeal was

apprehended; not to mention that its effect was said to be considerable in a certain important quarter. He also took care to keep the newspapers and other publications incessantly warm with various writings, both in prose and verse, all tending to touch the heart and rouse the parental and sympathetic feelings. His aid upon this occasion was acknowledged in some very well written letters by the "worthy Queensberry." It is well known that the hard decree was reversed, and that he, whom Mr Boswell thus supported, now enjoys the large property of his family, and has also been raised to the Peerage.

In 1768 Mr Boswell published "*An Account of Corfica, with the Journal of a Tour to that Island, and Memoirs of Pascal Paoli*," in one vol. 8vo. This work is universally known, it having not only passed through several editions in English, but been translated into Dutch, German, Italian, and twice into French. Even the stern Johnson, we find, thus praises it in a letter to the Author: "Your Journal is in a very high degree curious and delightful. You express images which operated strongly upon yourself, and you have impressed them with great force upon your readers. I know not whether I could name any narrative by which curiosity is better excited or better gratified."

In the following winter Mr Boswell, ever ready to take the part of the injured, was (though personally unknown to him) solicited by the late David Ross, Esq; to favour him with a Prologue for the opening a Theatre Royal at Edinburgh, for which Mr Ross had obtained his Majesty's patent, but found a violent and oppressive party formed in opposition to him. Mr Boswell complied, and produced what one of Mr Ross's great patrons, the Earl of Mansfield, well characterised as "a very good copy of verses, very conciliating."

The effect of it, aided by friends properly

properly planted in different parts of the Theatre, was instantaneous and effectual; the tide was turned, the loudest plaudits were given, and Mr Ross was allowed ever after to enjoy his talent with all its advantages.

In the year 1769, Mr Boswell made a visit to Ireland, where he spent six or seven weeks, chiefly at Dublin, and enjoyed the society of Lord Charlemont, Dr Leland, Mr Flood, Dr Macbride, and other eminent persons of that kingdom, not forgetting the celebrated George Faulkner, the social though laughable friend of Dean Swift and Lord Chesterfield. Fortunately for him, Viscount (now Marquis) Townshend was then Lord Lieutenant, and the congeniality of their dispositions united them in the most pleasant manner.

Mr Boswell had a very near relation (daughter of his granduncle General Cochrane, whose brother afterwards succeeded to the Earldom of Dundonald) who was married to Robert Sibthorpe, Esq; a gentleman of great consequence in the county of Down. This served as an introduction to much good society. But he was still more obliged in that respect to the Lady who accompanied him in his expedition, Miss Peggy Montgomerie, daughter of David Montgomerie, Esq; of Lanishaw, a branch of the noble House of Eglintoun, and representative, as heir of line, of the ancient Peerage of Lyle. She was his cousin-german, and they had, from their earliest years, lived in the most intimate and unreserved friendship. His love of the fair sex has been already mentioned, and she was the constant, prudent and delicate, *confidante* of his *égarements du cœur et de l'esprit*. Her very numerous and respectable relations in Ireland shewed him every mark of attention, so that he quitted that country with sincere regret. This was the occasion of Mr Boswell's resolving at last to engage himself in that connection to which he

had always declared himself averse.— In short, he determined to become a married man. For having experienced for a considerable time, without intermission, how agreeable a companion his cousin was, and how much her excellent judgment and more sedate manners contributed to his happiness, he proposed to her that they should be companions for life, requesting that she would do him the favour to accept of him with all his faults, with which she was perfectly acquainted; and though he had uniformly protested, that a large fortune was an indispensable requisite if he should ever marry, he was willing to wave that, in consideration of her peculiar merit. She, with a frankness of character for which she was remarkable, accepted of his offer; and this he has ever been heard to say was the most fortunate circumstance in his life.

Their marriage, it was agreed, should not take place till late in the year, that he might first have an opportunity of revisiting his friends in London, to arrange various particulars. In this interval occurred the jubilee in honour of Shakespeare, at Stratford upon Avon. Thither Mr Boswell repaired, with all the enthusiasm of a poetical mind, and at the masquerade appeared in the character of an armed Corsican Chief; in which character there is in the London Magazine of that year a whole length print of him, from a drawing by Waite. This exhibition is recorded in the Preface to the French Translation of Shakespeare.

On the 25th November 1769 he was married to Miss Montgomerie, a woman who contributed greatly to his happiness. With admirable sense, affection, and generosity of heart, she possessed no common share of wit and pleasantry. One of her *bons mots* is mentioned in Mr Boswell's Life of Dr Johnson. Thinking that the rough Philosopher had too much influence over her husband, she said, with some

warmth, "I have seen many a bear led by a man, but I never before saw a man led by a bear." Once, when Mr Boswell was mounted upon a horse which he had brought pretty low by *riding the county* (as it is called) for an election, and was boasting that he was a horse of *blood*, "I hope so," said she, "for I am sure he has no *steth*." Mr Boswell has a collection of her good sayings under the title of *Uxoriana*.

He continued at the Scotch bar, with occasional, and indeed generally annual visits to London, for many years, as his father was averse to his settling in the metropolis. But *there* his heart was fixed, and we shall see that he in time yielded to his inclination.

In 1781, when Mr Burke was in power, that celebrated Gentleman shewed his sense of Mr Boswell's merit in the warmest manner, observing, "We must do something for you for our own sakes," and recommended him to General Conway for a vacant place, by a letter in which his character was drawn in glowing colours. The place was not obtained; but Mr Boswell declared that he valued the letter more.

In 1782, by the death of my Lord, his father, he succeeded to the estate of Auchinleck.

In 1783, when the extraordinary *Coalition* of heterogeneous parties took place, and Mr Fox's East-India Bill had been thrown out, and the country was in a ferment as to the monarchical part of our Constitution, Mr Boswell was very active and very successful in obtaining Addresses to his Majesty, and published "A Letter to the People of Scotland on the present State of the Nation," which had much effect, and of which Mr Pitt, then and still Prime Minister, thus expressed himself, in a Letter to Mr Boswell: "I have observed with great pleasure your zealous and able exertions in the

cause of the public in the work which you were so good as to transmit to me."

In 1785, an attempt having been made to diminish the number of the fifteen Lords of Session in Scotland, Mr Boswell considering this as a violation of the Articles of the Union, and besides a very pernicious measure, wrote on this occasion another "Letter to the People of Scotland;" which was so persuasive and forcible, that many of the counties of North Britain assembled, and entered into such resolutions against the scheme, that it was given up.

In 1785 Mr Boswell published a "Journal of a Tour to the Hebrides with Samuel Johnson, LL. D.;" a work so well known, and so successful, that it is unnecessary to say any thing of it.

He had at an early period entered himself as a student of the Inner Temple, and from time to time kept his terms; and having no longer the fear of displeasing his father, he determined to try his fortune in Westminster-hall, and was called to the bar in Hilary Term 1786. The following winter he removed his family to London.

His ambition in resolving to try his fortune in the great world of London, was thus sanctioned by a letter to him from Dr Samuel Johnson, which exhibits at once a cautious and encouraging view of it.

"I remember, and intreat you to remember, that *virtus est vitium fugere*; the first approach to riches is security from poverty. The condition upon which you have my consent to settle in London is, that your expence never exceeds your annual income. Fixing this basis of security you cannot be hurt, and you may be very much advanced. The loss of your Scottish business, which is all you can lose, is not to be reckoned as any equivalent to the hopes and possibilities that open here upon you. If you succeed,

succeed, the question of prudence is at an end; every body will think that does right which ends happily; and though your expectations, of which I would not advise you to talk too much, should not be totally answered, you can hardly fail to get friends who will do for you all that your present situation allows you to hope: and if after a few years you should return to Scotland, you will return with a mind supplied by various conversations, and many opportunities of enquiry, with much knowledge and materials for reflection and instruction."

Mr Boswell had not been long at the English bar when he was elected Recorder of the ancient city of Carlisle, and soon after his learned and respectable countryman Dr John Douglas was appointed Bishop of the Diocese. These two promotions gave occasion to the following epigram:

- "Of old, ere wife Concord united this Isle,
 "Our neighbours of Scotland were foes at
 "Carlisle;
 "But now what a change have we here on
 "the border,
 "When Douglas is Bishop, and Boswell
 "Recorder."

Finding this Recordership, at so great a distance from London, attended with many inconveniencies, Mr Boswell, after holding it for about two years, resigned it.

It was generally supposed that Mr Boswell would have had a seat in Parliament; and indeed his not being amongst the Representatives of the Commons, is one of those strange things which occasionally happen in the complex operations of our mixed Government. That he has not been brought into Parliament (as the phrase is) by some of our great men, is not to be wondered at, when we peruse his public declaration in his "Letter to the People of Scotland" in 1785. "Though ambitious, I am uncorrupted; and I envy not high situations

which are attained by the want of public virtue in men born without it, or by the prostitution of public virtue in men born with it. Though power, and wealth, and magnificence, may at first dazzle, and are, I think, most desirable; no wise man will, upon sober reflection, envy a situation which he feels he could not enjoy. My friend (my *Mecenas Atavis edite regibus*) Lord Mount Stuart flattered me once very highly without intending it.— "I would do any thing for you (said he) but bring you into Parliament; for I could not be sure but you might oppose me in something the very next day."—His Lordship judged well. Though I should consider, with much attention, the opinion of such a friend before taking my resolution;—most certainly I should oppose him in any measure which I was satisfied ought to be opposed. I cannot exist with pleasure, if I have not an honest independence of mind and of conduct; for though no man loves good eating and drinking, simply considered, better than I do—I prefer the broiled blade-bone of mutton and humble port of "downright Shippen" to all the luxury of all the statesmen who play the political game all thorough."

He offered himself as a candidate, at the last General Election, to represent Ayrshire, his own country, of which his is one of the oldest families, and where he has a very extensive and a very fine place, of part of which there is a view and description in Grose's "Antiquities of Scotland." But the power of the Minister for Scotland was exerted for another person, and some of those whose support he might reasonably have expected could not withstand its influence; he therefore declined giving his friends the trouble of appearing for him; but has declared his resolution to persevere on the next vacancy.

Upon all occasions he has avowed himself to be a steady Royalist; nay, has had the courage to assume the
 title

title of *Tory*, protesting, that since his present most gracious Majesty's generous plan of annihilating the distinction of political parties has been frustrated, and there are some who keep up the cant appellation of *Whigs*, the true friends to the Constitution in Church and State should meet them with the opposite name, as *Tories*. Mr Boswell, however, in the pamphlet just quoted, thus liberally writes: "I can drink, I can laugh, I can converse, in perfect good humour, with Whigs, with Republicans, with Dissenters, with Independents, with Quakers, with Moravians, with Jews. They can do me no harm. My mind is made up. My principles are fixed. But I would vote with Tories, and pray with a Dean and Chapter.

In 1789 Mr Boswell experienced a most severe affliction in the loss of his valuable wife, who died at Aychintee on the 4th of June that year, leaving him five children; two sons, Alexander, now at Eton, and James, at Westminster School; and three daughters, Veronica, Euphemia, and Elizabeth. This melancholy event affected him very much; for it deprived him of the woman he loved, and the friend he could trust. He had recourse to piety for relief; but his expression of what he felt was, "There is a wound

which never can be entirely healed. I may have many gratifications, but I fear the comfort of life is over."

He however did not resign himself to unavailing grief, but endeavoured to dissipate his melancholy by occupation and amusement in the Metropolis, in which he enjoys perhaps as extensive and varied an acquaintance as any man of his time. We find him at length extremely gay, and occasionally exercising his poetical talents. At the last Lord Mayor's Day's festal board he sung with great applause a State Ballad of his own composition, entitled, "*The Grocer of London*," in praise of Mr Pitt's conduct in the dispute with Spain, a Convention being just then announced. He is generally believed to be the Author of a Poem of some length, entitled, "*No Abolition of Slavery*; or, *The Universal Empire of Love*," which came out while the Slave Trade Bill was depending in Parliament. But his attention to the business of Westminster-Hall has been chiefly interrupted by his great literary work, in which he was engaged for many years, "*The Life of Dr Johnson*," which he has at last published, in two volumes quarto, and which has been received by the world with extraordinary approbation.

Mr Forsyth's Discovery for curing Diseases and Injuries in Trees.

IN consequence of an address of the House of Commons to his Majesty, and of an examination made respecting the efficacy of a composition discovered by William Forsyth, for curing injuries and defects in trees, his Majesty has been pleased to grant a reward to Mr Forsyth, for disclosing the method of making and using that Composition; and the following directions for that purpose are published accordingly.

TAKE one bushel of fresh cowdung; half a bushel of lime rubbish of old buildings (that from the ceilings of rooms is preferable;) half a bushel of wood-ashes; and a sixteenth part of a bushel of pit or river sand. The three last articles are to be sifted fine before they are mixed, then work them well together with a spade, and afterwards with a wooden beater, until the stuff is very

ery smooth, like fine plaister used for the ceilings of rooms. The composition being thus made, care must be taken to prepare the tree properly for application by cutting away all the dead, decayed, and injured part till you come to the fresh sound wood, leaving the surface of the wood very smooth, and rounding off the edges of the bark with a draw-knife, or other instrument, perfectly smooth, which must be particularly attended to. Then lay on the plaister about one-eighth of an inch thick, all over the part where the wood or bark has been cut away, finishing of the edges as thin as possible. Then take a quantity of dry powder of wood-ashes, mixed with a sixth part of the same quantity of the ashes of burnt bones; put it into a tin-box, with holes in the top, and shake the powder on the surface of the plaister, till the whole is covered over with it, letting it remain for half an hour, to absorb the moisture; then apply more powder, rubbing it on gently with the hand, and repeating the application of the powder, till the whole plaister becomes a very smooth surface. All trees cut

down near the ground should have the surface made quite smooth, rounding it off in a small degree, as before mentioned; and the dry powder directed to be used afterwards should have an equal quantity of powder of alabaster mixed with it, in order the better to resist the dripping of trees and heavy rains. If any of the composition be left for a future occasion, it should be kept in a tub, or other vessel, and urine of any kind poured on it, so as to cover the surface; otherwise the atmosphere will greatly hurt the efficacy of the application. Where lime-rubbish of old buildings cannot be easily got, take powder chalks, or common lime, after being slaked a month at least. As the growth of the tree will gradually affect the plaister, by raising up its edges next the bark, care should be taken, where that happens, to rub it over with the finger when occasion may require (which is best done when moistened by rain,) that the plaister may be kept whole, to prevent the hair and wet from penetrating into the wound.

WILLIAM FORSYTH.

*Account of the principal Articles imported from India by the Romans.**

IN every age, it has been a commerce of luxury, rather than of necessity, which has been carried on between Europe and India. Its elegant manufactures, spices, and precious stones, are neither objects of desire to nations of simple manners, nor are such nations possessed of wealth sufficient to purchase them. But at the time the Romans became masters of the Indian trade, they were not only (as I have already observed) in that stage of society, when men are eager to obtain

every thing that can render the enjoyment of life more exquisite, or add to its splendour, but they had acquired all the fantastic tastes formed by the caprice and extravagance of wealth.— They were of consequence highly delighted with those new objects of gratification with which India supplied them in such abundance. The productions of that country, natural as well as artificial, seem to have been much the same in that age as in the present. But the taste of the Romans

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* From "Dr Robertson's Historical Disquisition concerning Ancient India."

in luxury differed in many respects from that of modern times, and of course their demands from India differed considerably from ours.

In order to convey an idea of their demands as complete as possible, I shall in the first place make some observations on the three great articles of general importation from India.—

1. Spices and aromatics. 2. Precious stones and pearls. 3. Silk. And then I shall give some account (as far as I can venture to do it from authentic information) of the assortment of cargoes, both outward and homeward bound, for the vessels fitted out at Benenice for different ports of India.

I. Spices and aromatics. From the mode of religious worship in the heathen world; from the incredible number of their deities, and of the temples consecrated to them; the consecration of frankincense and other aromatics which were used in every sacred function, must have been very great. But the vanity of men occasioned a greater consumption of these fragrant substances than their piety. It was the custom of the Romans to burn the bodies of their dead, and they deemed it a display of magnificence, to cover, not only the body but the funeral pile on which it was laid, with the most costly spices. At the funeral of Sylla, two hundred and ten burthens of spices were strewed upon the pile. Nero is reported to have burnt a quantity of cinnamon and cassia at the funeral of Poppœa, greater than the countries from which it was imported produced in one year. We consume in heaps these precious substances with the carcases of the dead (says Pliny): We offer them to the gods only in grains. It was not from India, I am aware, but from Arabia, that aromatics were first imported into Europe; and some of them, particularly frankincense, were productions of that country. But the Arabians were accustomed, together with spices of native growth, to fur-

nish foreign merchants with others of higher value, which they brought from India, and the regions beyond it. The commercial intercourse of the Arabians with the eastern parts of Asia, was not only early (as has been already observed) but considerable. By means of their trading caravans, they conveyed into their own country all the valuable productions of the East, among which spices held a chief place. In every ancient account of Indian commodities, spices and aromatics of various kinds form a principal article. Some authors assert that the greater part of those purchased in Arabia were not the growth of that country, but brought from India. That this assertion was well founded appears from what has been observed in modern times. The frankincense of Arabia, though reckoned the peculiar and most precious production of the country, is much inferior in quality to that imported into it from the east; and it is chiefly with the latter, that the Arabians at present supply the extensive demands of various provinces of Asia for this commodity. It is upon good authority, then, that I have mentioned the importation of spices as one of the most considerable branches of ancient commerce with India.

II. Precious stones, together with which pearls may be classed, seem to be the article next in value imported by the Romans from the east. As these have no pretension to be of any real use, their value arises entirely from their beauty and their rarity, and even when estimated most moderately is always high. But among nations far advanced in luxury, when they are deemed not only ornaments but marks of distinction, the vain and the opulent vie so eagerly with one another for the possession of them, that they rise in price to an exorbitant and almost incredible height. Diamonds, though the art of cutting them was imperfectly known to the ancients, held as high place in estimation among

among them as well as among us. The comparative value of other precious stones varied according to the diversity of tastes and the caprice of fashion. The immense number of them mentioned by Pliny, and the laborious care with which he describes and arranges them, will astonish, I should suppose, the most skilful lapidary or jeweller of modern times, and shews the high request in which they were held by the Romans.

But among all the articles of luxury, the Romans seem to have given the preference to pearls. Persons of every rank purchased them with eagerness; they were worn on every part of dress; and there is such a difference, both in size and in value, among pearls, that while such as were large and of superior lustre, adorned the wealthy and the great, smaller ones, and of inferior quality, gratified the vanity of persons in more humble stations of life. Julius Cæsar presented Servilia, the mother of Brutus, with a pearl, for which he paid forty-eight thousand four hundred and fifty-seven pounds. The famous pearl earrings of Cleopatra were in value one hundred and sixty-one thousand four hundred and fifty-eight pounds. Precious stones, it is true, as well as pearls, were found not only in India, but in many different countries, and all were ranked in order to gratify the pride of Rome. India, however, furnished the chief part, and its productions were allowed to be most abundant, diversified, and valuable.

III. Another production of India in great demand at Rome was silk; and when we recollect the variety of elegant fabrics into which it may be formed, and how much these have added to the splendour of dress and furniture, we cannot wonder at its being held in such estimation by a luxurious people. The price it bore was exorbitant; but it was deemed a dress too expensive and too delicate for men, and was appropriated wholly to women of

eminent rank and opulence. This, however, did not render the demand for it less eager, especially after the example of the dissolute Elagabalus introduced the use of it among the other sex, and accustomed men to the disgrace (as the severity of ancient ideas accounted it) of wearing this effeminate garb. Two circumstances concerning the traffic of silk among the Romans merit observation. Contrary to what usually takes place in the operations of trade, the more general use of that commodity seems not to have increased the quantity imported, in such proportion as to answer the growing demand for it, and the price of silk was not reduced during the course of two hundred and fifty years from the time of its being first known in Rome. In the reign of Aurelian, it still continued to be valued at its weight in gold. This, it is probable, was owing to the mode in which that commodity was procured by the merchants of Alexandria. They had no direct intercourse with China, the only country in which the silk-worm was then reared, and its labour rendered an article of commerce. All the silk which they purchased in the different parts of India which they frequented, was brought thither in ships of the country; and either from some defect of skill in managing the silk-worm, the produce of its ingenious industry among the Chinese was scanty, or the intermediate dealers found greater advantage in furnishing the market of Alexandria with a small quantity at an high price, than to lower its value by increasing the quantity. The other circumstance which I had in view is more extraordinary, and affords a striking proof of the imperfect communication of the ancients with remote nations, and of the slender knowledge which they had of their natural productions or arts. Much as the manufactures of silk were admired, and often as silk is mentioned by the Greek and Roman authors, they had not for several

several centuries, after the use of it became common, any certain knowledge, either of the countries to which they were indebted for this favourite article of elegance, or of the manner in which it was produced. By some, silk was supposed to be a fine down, adhering to the leaves of certain trees or flowers; others imagined it to be a delicate species of wool or cotton; and even those who had learned that it was the work of an insect, threw, by their descriptions, that they had no distinct idea of the manner in which it was formed. It was in consequence of an event that happened in the sixth century of the Christian æra, of which I shall hereafter take notice, that the real nature of silk became known in Europe.

The other commodities usually imported from India, will be mentioned in the account which I now proceed to give, of the cargoes sent out and brought home in the ships employed in that trade. For this we are indebted to the circumnavigation of the Erythrean sea, ascribed to Arrian, a curious though short treatise, less known than it deserves to be, and which enters into some details concerning commerce, to which there is nothing similar in any ancient writer. The first place in India, in which the ships from Egypt, while they followed the ancient course of navigation, were accustomed to trade, was Patala in the river Indus. They imported into it woollen cloth of a slight fabric, linen in chequer work, some precious stones, and some aromatics unknown in India, coral, storax, glass vessels of different kinds, some wrought silver, money, and wine. In return for these, they received spices of various kinds, sapphires, and other gems, silk stuffs, silk thread, cotton cloths, and black pepper. But a far more considerable emporium on the same coast was Barygaza, and on that account the author, whom I follow here, describes its situation, and the

mode of approaching it, with great minuteness and accuracy. Its situation corresponds entirely with that of Baroach, on the great river Nerbuddah, down the stream of which, or by land-carriage, from the great city of Tagara across high mountains, all the productions of the interior country were conveyed to it. The articles of importation and exportation in this great mart were extensive and various. Besides these already mentioned, our author enumerates, among the former, Italian, Greek, and Arabian wines, brass, tin, lead, girdles, or sashes of curious texture, melilot, white glass, red arsenic, black lead, gold and silver coin. Among the exports he mentions the onyx, and other gems, ivory, myrrh, various fabrics of cotton, both plain and ornamented with flowers, and long pepper. At Musiris, the next emporium of note on that coast, the articles imported were much the same as at Barygaza; but as it lay nearer to the eastern parts of India, and seems to have had much communication with them, the commodities exported from it were more numerous and more valuable. He specifies particularly pearls in great abundance and of extraordinary beauty, a variety of silk stuffs, rich perfumes, tortoiseshell, different kinds of transparent gems, especially diamonds, and pepper in large quantities, and of the best quality.

The justness of the account given by this author of the articles imported from India, is confirmed by a Roman law in which the Indian commodities subject to the payment of duties are enumerated. By comparing these two accounts, we may form an idea, tolerably exact, of the nature and extent of the trade with India in ancient times.

As the state of society and manners among the natives of India, in the earliest period in which they are known, nearly resembled what we observe among their descendants in the present age, their wants and demands

were of course much the same. The ingenuity of their own artists was so able to supply these, that they stood in need of foreign manufactures or productions, except some of the useful metals, which their own country did not furnish in sufficient quantity; and then, as now, it was mostly with gold and silver that the luxuries of the East were purchased. In two particulars, however, our importations from India differ greatly from those of the ancients. The dress, both of the Greeks and Romans, was almost entirely woollen, which, by their frequent use of the warm bath, was rendered abundantly comfortable. Their champion of linen and cotton clothes is much inferior to that of modern times, when these are worn by persons every rank of life. Accordingly, a great branch of modern importation from that part of India with which the ancients were acquainted, is in *regards*; comprehending, under the mercantile term, the immense variety of fabrics, which Indian ingenuity has formed of cotton. But, as

far as I have observed, we have no authority that will justify us in stating the ancient importation of these to be in any degree considerable.

In modern times, though it continues still to be chiefly a commerce of luxury that is carried on with India, yet, together with the articles that minister to it, we import, to a considerable extent, various commodities, which are to be considered merely as the materials of our domestic manufactures. Such are the cotton-wool of Indostan, the silk of China, and the salt-petre of Bengal. But in the accounts of ancient importations from India, raw silk and silk-thread excepted, I find nothing mentioned that could serve as the materials of any home-manufacture. The navigation of the ancients never having extended to China, the quantity of unwrought silk with which they were supplied, by means of the Indian traders, appears to have been so scanty, that the manufacture of it could not make an addition of any moment to their domestic industry.

marks on the Mode in which the Ancients conducted their Discoveries, and the Confidence their Accounts of them are entitled to†.

THE art of delineating maps, exhibiting either the figure of the globe earth, as far as it had been explored, or that of particular countries, known to the ancients; and without the use of them to assist the imagination, it was impossible to have formed a distinct idea either of the one or the other. Some of these maps are mentioned by Herodotus, and by nearly Greek writers. But none prior to those which were formed in order to illustrate the geography of Ptolemy, have reached our eyes, in consequence of which it is

very difficult to conceive what was the relative situation of the different places mentioned by the ancient geographers, unless when it is precisely ascertained by measurement. As soon, however, as the mode of marking the situation of each place, by specifying its longitude and latitude, was introduced, and came to be generally adopted, every position could be described in compendious and scientific terms. But still the accuracy of this new method, and the improvement which geography derived from it, depends upon the mode in which the ancients

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cients estimated the latitude and longitude of places.

Though the ancients proceeded in determining the latitude and longitude of places upon the same principles with the moderns, yet it was by means of instruments very inferior in their construction to those now used, and without the same minute attention to every circumstance that may affect the accuracy of an observation, an attention of which long experience only can demonstrate the necessity. In order to ascertain the latitude of any place, the ancients observed the meridian altitude of the sun, either by means of the shadow of a perpendicular gnomon, or by means of an altrolabe, from which it was easy to compute how many degrees and minutes the place of observation was distant from the Equator. When neither of these methods could be employed, they inferred the latitude of any place from the best accounts which they could procure of the length of its longest day.

With respect to determining the longitude of any place, they were much more at a loss, as there was only one set of celestial phenomena to which they could have recourse. These were the eclipses of the moon (for those of the sun were not so well understood as to be subservient to the purposes of geography;) the difference between the time at which an eclipse was observed to begin or to end at two different places, gave immediately the difference between the meridians of those places. But the difficulty of making these observations with accuracy, and the impossibility of repeating them often, rendered them of so little use in geography, that the ancients in determining longitudes were obliged, for the most part, to have recourse to actual surveys, or to the vague information which was to be obtained from the reckonings of sailors, or the itineraries of travellers.

But though the ancients, by means

of the operations which I have mentioned, could determine the position of places with a considerable degree of accuracy at land, it is very uncertain whether or not they had any proper mode of determining this at sea. The navigators of antiquity seem rarely to have had recourse to astronomical observation. They had no instruments suited to a moveable and unsteady observatory; and though, by their practice of landing frequently, they might, in some measure, have supplied that defect, yet no ancient author, as far as I know, has given an account of any astronomical observation made by them during the course of their voyages. It seems to be evident from Ptolemy, who employs some chapters in shewing how geography may be improved, and its errors may be rectified, from the reports of navigators, that all their calculations were founded solely upon reckoning, and were not the result of observation. Even after all the improvements which the moderns have made in the science of navigation, this mode of computing by reckoning is known to be so loose and uncertain, that, from it alone, no conclusion can be deduced with any great degree of precision. Among the ancients, this inaccuracy must have been greatly augmented, as they were accustomed in their voyages, instead of steering a direct course which might have been more easily measured, to a circuitous navigation along the coast; and were unacquainted with the compass, or any other instrument by which its bearings might have been ascertained.

We find accordingly the position of many places which we may suppose to have been determined at sea, fixed with little exactness. When, in consequence of an active trade, the parts of any country were much frequented, the reckonings of different navigators may have served in some measure to correct each other, and may have enabled geographers to form their conclusions with a nearer approximation to

to truth. But in remote countries, which have neither been the seat of military operations, nor explored by caravans travelling frequently through them, every thing is more vague and undefined, and the resemblance between the ancient descriptions of them, and their actual figure, is often so faint that it can hardly be traced. The latitude of places too, as might be expected, was in general much more accurately known by the ancients than their longitude. The observations by which the former was determined are simple, made with ease, and are not liable to much error. The other cannot be ascertained precisely, without more complex operations, and the use of instruments much more perfect than any that the ancients seem to have possessed. Among the vast number of places, the position of which is fixed by Ptolemy, I know not if he approaches as near to truth in the longitude of any one, as he has done in fixing the latitude of the three cities which I formerly mentioned as a striking, tho' not singular, instance of his exactness*.

These observations induce me to adhere to an opinion, which I proposed in another place, that the Greeks and Romans, in their commercial intercourse with India, were seldom led, either by curiosity or the love of gain, to visit the more eastern parts of it. A variety of particulars occur to confirm this opinion. Though Ptolemy bestows the appellation of *Emporia* on several places situated on the coast, which stretches from the eastern mouth of the Ganges to the extremity of the Golden Chersonesus, it is uncertain, as I formerly observed, whether, from his having given them this name, we are to consider them as harbours frequented by ships from Egypt, or merely by vessels of the country. Beyond the Golden Chersonesus, it is remarkable that he mentions one *Em-*

porium only, which plainly indicates the intercourse with this region of India to have been very inconsiderable. Had voyages from the Arabian Gulf to those countries of India been as frequent as to have entitled Ptolemy to specify so minutely the longitude and latitude of the great number of places which he mentions, he must, in consequence of this, have acquired such information as would have prevented several great errors into which he has fallen. Had it been usual to double Cape Comorin, and to sail up the Bay of Bengal to the mouth of the Ganges, some of the ancient geographers would not have been so uncertain, and others so widely mistaken, with respect to the situation and magnitude of the island of Ceylon. If the merchants of Alexandria had often visited the ports of the Golden Chersonesus, and of the Great Bay, Ptolemy's descriptions of them must have been rendered more correspondent to their real form, nor could he have believed several places to lie beyond the line, which are in truth some degrees on this side of it.

But though the navigation of the ancients may not have extended to the farther India, we are certain that various commodities of that country were imported into Egypt, and thence were conveyed to Rome, and to other parts of the empire. From circumstances which I have already enumerated, we are warranted in concluding, that these were brought in vessels of the country to Eufiris, and to the other ports on the Malabar coast, which were, at that period, the staples of trade with Egypt. In a country of such extent as India, where the natural productions are various, and greatly diversified by art and industry, an active domestic commerce, both by sea and by land, must have early taken place among its different provinces. Of this

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* Nagara, (the modern Attok) Maracanda, (Samarcand) and Sera Metropolis, (Kandahar.)

we have some hints in ancient authors; and where the sources of information are so few and so scanty, we must rest satisfied with hints. Among the different classes, or casts, into which the people of India were divided, merchants are mentioned as one, from which we may conclude trade to have been one of the established occupations of men in that country. From the Author of the Circumnavigation of the Erythrean Sea, we learn that the inhabitants of the Coromandel coast traded in vessels of their own with those of Malabar; that the interior trade of Barygaza was considerable; and that there was, at all seasons, a number of country ships to be found in the harbour of Musiris. By Strabo we are informed, that the most valuable productions of Taprobane were carried to different *Emporia* of India. In this way the traders from Egypt might be supplied with them, and thus could finish their voyages within the year, which must have been protracted much longer if they had extended as far towards the east as is generally supposed.

From all this it appears to be probable, that Ptolemy derived the information concerning the eastern parts of India, upon which he founds his calculations, not so much from any direct and regular intercourse between Egypt and these countries, as from the reports of a few adventurers, whom an enterprising spirit, or the love of gain, prompted to proceed beyond the usual limits of navigation.

Though, from the age of Ptolemy, the trade with India continued to be carried on in its former channel, and both Rome, the ancient capital of the empire, and Constantinople, the new seat of government, were supplied with the precious commodities of that country by the merchants of Alexandria, yet, until the reign of the emperor Justinian, we have no new information concerning the intercourse with

the East by sea, or the progress which was made in the discovery of its remote regions. Under Justinian, Cosmas, an Egyptian merchant, in the course of his traffic, made some voyages to India, whence he acquired the surname of Indicoopleustes; but afterwards, by a transition not uncommon in that superstitious age, he renounced all the concerns of this life, and assumed the monastic character. In the solitude and leisure of a cell, he composed several works, one of which, dignified by him with the name of *Christian Topography*, has reached us. The main design of it is to combat the opinion of those philosophers, who assert the earth to be of a spherical figure, and to prove that it is an oblong plane, of twelve thousand miles in length from east to west, and of six thousand miles in breadth from north to south, surrounded by high walls, covered by the firmament as with a canopy or vault: that the vicissitude of day and night was occasioned by a mountain of prodigious height, situated in the extremities of the north, round which the sun moved; that when it appeared on one side of this mountain, the earth was illuminated, when concealed on the other side, the earth was left involved in darkness. But amidst those wild reveries, more suited to the credulity of his new profession, than to the sound sense characteristic of that in which he was formerly engaged, Cosmas seems to relate what he himself had observed in his travels, or what he had learned from others, with great simplicity and regard for truth.

He appears to have been well acquainted with the west coast of the Indian peninsula, and names several places situated upon it; he describes it as the chief seat of the pepper trade, and mentions Male, in particular, as one of the most frequented ports on that account. From Male, it is probable that this side of the Continent has derived its modern name of Malabar; and

and the cluster of islands contiguous to it, that of the Maldives. From him too we learn, that the island of Taprobane, which he supposes to lie at an equal distance from the Persian Gulf on the west, and the country of the Sinæ on the east, had become, in consequence of this commodious situation, a great staple of trade; that into it were imported the silk of the Sinæ, and the precious species of the Eastern countries, which were conveyed thence to all parts of India, to Persia, and to the Arabian Gulf. To this island he gives the name of Sielediba, the same with that of Selendib, or Serendib, by which it is still known all over the East.

To Cosmas we are also indebted for the first information of a new rival to the Romans in trade having appeared in the Indian seas. The Persians, after having overturned the empire of the Parthians, and re-established the line of their ancient monarchs, seem to have surmounted entirely the aversion of their ancestors to maritime exertion, and made early and vigorous efforts in order to acquire a share in the lucrative commerce with India.—All its considerable ports were frequented by traders from Persia, who, in return for some productions of their own country in request among the Indians, received the precious commodities which they conveyed up the Persian Gulf, and by means of the great rivers, Euphrates and Tigris, distributed them through every province of their empire. As the voyage from Persia to India was much shorter than that from Egypt, and attended with less expence and danger, the intercourse between the two countries increased rapidly. A circumstance is mentioned by Cosmas which is a striking proof of this. In most of the cities of any note in India he found Christian churches established, in which the functions of religion were performed by priests ordained by the archbishop of Seleucia, the capital of

the Persian empire, and who continued subject to his jurisdiction. India appears to have been more thoroughly explored at this period, than it was in the age of Ptolemy, and a greater number of strangers seem to have been settled there. It is remarkable, however, that, according to the account of Cosmas, none of these strangers were accustomed to visit the eastern regions of Asia, but rested satisfied with receiving their silks, their spices, and other valuable productions, as they were imported into Ceylon, and conveyed thence to the various marts of India.

The frequency of open hostilities between the emperors of Constantinople and the monarchs of Persia, together with the increasing rivalship of their subjects in the trade with India, gave rise to an event which produced a considerable change in the nature of that commerce. As the use of silk, both in dress and furniture, became gradually more general in the court of the Greek emperors, who imitated and surpassed the sovereigns of Asia in splendour and magnificence; and as China, in which, according to the concurring testimony of Oriental writers, the culture of silk was originally known, still continued to be the only country which produced that valuable commodity; the Persians, improving the advantages which their situation gave them over the merchants from the Arabian Gulf, supplanted them in all the marts of India to which silk was brought by sea from the east.—Having it likewise in their power to molest or to cut off the caravans, which, in order to procure a supply for the Greek empire, travelled by land to China, through the northern provinces of the kingdom, they entirely engrossed that branch of commerce. Constantinople was obliged to depend on a rival power for an article which luxury viewed and desired as essential to elegance. The Persians, with the usual rapacity of monopolists, raised the price of silk to such an exorbitant height,

height, that Justinian, eager not only to obtain a full and certain supply of a commodity which was become of indispensable use, but solicitous to deliver the commerce of his subjects from the exactions of his enemies, endeavoured, by means of his ally, the Christian monarch of Abyssinia, to wrest some portion of the silk trade from the Persians. In this attempt he failed; but when he least expected it, he, by an unforeseen event, attained, in some measure, the object which he had in view. Two Persian monks having been employed as missionaries in some of the Christian churches, which were established (as we are informed by Cosmas) in different parts of India, had penetrated into the country of the Seres, or China. There they observed the labours of the silk-worm, and became acquainted with all the arts of man in working up its productions into such a variety of elegant fabrics.—The prospect of gain, or perhaps an indignant zeal, excited by seeing this lucrative branch of commerce engrossed by unbelieving nations, prompted them to repair to Constantinople.—There they explained to the emperor the origin of silk, as well as the various modes of preparing and manufac-

turing it, mysteries hitherto unknown, or very imperfectly understood in Europe; and encouraged by his liberal promises, they undertook to bring to the capital a sufficient number of those wonderful insects, to whose labours man is so much indebted. This they accomplished by conveying the eggs of the silk-worm in a hollow cane. They were hatched by the heat of a dung-hill, fed with the leaves of a wild mulberry tree, and they multiplied and worked in the same manner as in those climates where they first became objects of human attention and care.—Vast numbers of these insects were soon reared in different parts of Greece, particularly in the Peloponnesus. Sicily afterwards undertook to breed silk-worms with equal success, and was imitated, from time to time, in several towns of Italy. In all these places extensive manufactures were established, and carried on, with silk of domestic production. The demand for silk from the east diminished of course, the subjects of the Greek emperors were no longer obliged to have recourse to the Persians for a supply of it, and a considerable change took place in the nature of the commercial intercourse between Europe and India.

Account of the present State of the Fur Trade of Hudson's Bay §.

TWENTY years ago the Governor of York Fort, which was the Company's principal establishment in the Bay, annually sent home at least thirty thousand skins, and maintained no more than twenty-five men, at very low wages; at present that place has upwards of one hundred men at it, who have increased salaries, and it sends home no more than twenty thousand skins, upon an average, from itself and four subordinate settlements;

and these are procured at an expence, which a few years back would have been looked upon as next to an annihilation of their commercial existence.

It is an incontrovertible fact, that since the French have evacuated Canada, the fur trade from the inland parts of Hudson's Bay has been carried on to a greater extent than ever it was before; for the Company, who till then confined themselves to the seashore, knew nothing of the numerous nations

§ From "Umsreville's present State of Hudson's Bay."

stations inland; and these again knew as little of them: that the Company, notwithstanding they had obliged themselves by their charter to explore the whole of their territories, confined themselves within a small circle. They consequently did not exert their influence to procure peltries, or to augment the consumption of British manufactures, by any other methods than through the channel of a very few Indians, comparatively speaking. These Indians however, brought down enough to enrich a few individuals, whose interest it was to prevent too great an influx of furs, which would not only lower the price at market, but probably open the eyes of an injured commercial people. In the days I am alluding to, the port of York Fort was surrounded with nations of Indians entirely unknown to the traders of the Company; and they would have remained in the same state of ignorance to this day, had they not been awakened from their reveries by the unfathomable perseverance of a few Canadian merchants, who found them out, through obstacles and impediments attended with more danger and personal hazard than a voyage to Japan.

Since that time their affairs have undergone a material change in these parts. The Canada merchants annually send into the interior country, for the Indian trade, about forty large canoes of about four tons burthen each, a considerable part of which goods are conveyed to those Indians who used to send their furs down to Hudson's Bay by the Indian carriers, which did not amount to half the quantity at present procured. So that by this interference of the Canada traders, it is evident that many more peltries are procured and imported into England, and a greater quantity of its manufactures consumed than heretofore; and when it is further considered, that these goods are of a very inferior quality, which perhaps would hardly find

a sale elsewhere, this extension of the trade will appear an object not very inconsiderable.

By the prosecution of this commerce from Canada, the Hudson's Bay Company found themselves effectually supplanted on the sea-shore, the natives being supplied inland with every convenience for war and domestic uses. This induced the Company in the year 1773, to begin their inland voyages, so that the Canadians from Canada and the Europeans from Hudson's Bay met together, not at all to the ulterior advantage of the natives, who by this means became degenerated and debauched, through the excessive use of spirituous liquors imported by these rivals in commerce.

It however must be owned, that the Hudson's Bay traders have ingratiated themselves more into the esteem and confidence of the natives than the Canadians. The advantage of trade is evidently on their side; their men, whose honesty is incorruptible, being more to be depended upon. In proportion to the goods imported, the Company export a greater quantity of furs, and these in better preservation, and consequently more valuable. Their unseasonable parsimony has hitherto been proved very favourable to their Canadian opponents; as the accumulated expences attending so distant an undertaking would overbalance the profits of the latter, if the exertions of the Company were adequate to the value of the prize contended for.

The Hudson's Bay servants being thus more in possession of the esteem of the natives, they will always have the preference of trade as long as this conduct continues. Another great advantage in their favour is, that the principal articles of their trading goods are of a superior quality to those imported from Canada. I would not by this insinuation infer, that the goods sent inland from Canada are not good enough for the Indian trade; no, I well know that the worst article imported

ported is good enough; but while they have to contend with people who send goods of a superior kind, they evidently lie under a disadvantage; and it is my opinion, that it would be for the interest of the Canada merchants to supply goods of an equal if not superior quality to their adversaries, at every post where they have these formidable rivals to oppose them.

The great imprudence, and bad way of living of the Canadian traders have been an invincible bar to the emolument of their employers. Many of these people, who have been the greatest part of their lives on this inland service among savages, being devoid of every social and benevolent tie, are become slaves to every vice which can corrupt and debase the human mind; such as quarrelling, drunkenness, deception, &c. From a confirmed habit in bad courses of this nature, they are held in abhorrence and disgust, even by the Indians, who finding themselves frequently deceived by specious promises, never intended to be performed, imagine the whole fraternity to be impregnated with the same failing, and accordingly hold the generality of the Canadian traders in detestation and contempt.

On the contrary, the servants of the Hudson's Bay Company, imported principally from the Orkney Isles, are a close, prudent, quiet people, strictly faithful to their employers, and sordidly avaricious. When these people are scattered about the country in small parties among the Indians, the general

tenor of their behaviour is conducted with so much propriety, as not only to make themselves esteemed by the natives, and to procure their protection; but they also employ their time in endeavouring to enrich themselves and their principals, by their diligence and unwearied assiduity. By this prudent demeanor among the Indians, notwithstanding they have annually exposed themselves to all the dangers incident to the trade, for sixteen years past, they have not sustained the loss of a man; and the principal advantage of the Company over the Canadian traders, is more to be attributed to the laudable efforts of their servants, than even to the superior quality of their goods, while the Canadian servants are so far from being actuated by the same principles, that very few of them can be trusted with a small assortment of goods, to be laid out for their masters profit, but it is ten to one that he is defrauded of the whole by commerce with Indian women, or some other species of speculation. By this and various other means, which lower them in the eyes of the natives, as before observed, they are become obnoxious to the Indians, their faith is not to be relied on, nor their honesty considered in; so that scarce a year elapses, without one or more of them falling victims to their own imprudence, at a time when fatal experience should teach them, that a conduct guided by caution and discretion ought to be the invariable and uniform rule of their behaviour.

On the impossibility of rendering the French Constitution similar to the British.

NOTHING has been asserted Burke than the facility with which it is with more confidence by Mr fragments of the long subverted liberty

From Macintosh's Vindicia Gallie.

ry of France might have been formed into a British Constitution. But of this general position he has neither explained the mode, nor defined the limitations. Nothing is more favourable to the popularity of a work than these lofty generalities which are light enough to pass into vulgar currency, and to become the maxims of a popular creed. Touched by definition, they become too simple and precise for eloquence, too cold and abstract for popularity. But exhibited as they are by Mr Burke, they gratify the pride and indolence of the people, who are thus taught to speak what gains applause without any effort of intellect, and imposes silence without any labour of confutation; what may be acquired without being studied, and uttered without being understood. Of this nature are these vague and confident assertions, which, without furnishing any definite idea, afford a ready jargon for vulgar prejudice, flattering to national vanity, and sanctioned by a distinguished name. It is necessary to enquire with more precision in what manner France could have assimilated the remains of her ancient Constitution to that of the English Legislature. Three modes only seem conceivable. The preservation of the three orders distinct. The union of the clergy and nobility in one upper chamber, or some mode of selecting from these two Orders a body like the House of Lords in England. Unless the insinuations of Mr Burke point to one or other of those schemes, I cannot divine their meaning. The first mode (the three orders sitting in separate houses with equal privileges) would neither have been congenial in spirit nor similar in form to the constitution of England. To convert the convocation into an integrant and co-ordinate member of our legislature, would give it some semblance of this structure. But it would be a faint one. It would be necessary to arm our cler-

gy with an immense mass of property, rendered still more formidable by the concentration of great portions in the hands of a few, to constitute it in effect the same body with the nobility, by granting them the monopoly of great benefices, and to bestow on this clerico-military aristocracy, in its two shapes of priesthood and nobility, two separate and independent voices in Legislation. This double body, from its necessary dependence on the king, must necessarily have in both forms become the organ of his voice. The monarch would thus possess three negatives, one avowed and refused, two latent and in perpetual activity on the single voice which impotent and illusive formality had yielded on the the third estate. Such and much more must the parliament of England become before it could in any respect resemble the division of the French Legislature according to those ancient orders which formed the Gothic assemblies of Europe. So monstrous did the arrangement appear, that even under the reign of Despotism, the second plan was proposed by M. Calonne—that the clergy and nobility should form an Upper House to exercise conjointly with the king and the commons the legislative authority. It admits however of the clearest proof that such a constitution would have been diametrically opposite in its spirit and principles to the English government. This will at once be evident from the different description of the body of nobles in France and England. In England they are a small body, united to the mass of the people by innumerable points of contact, receiving from it perpetual new infusions, and returning to it, undistinguished and unprivileged, the majority of their children. In France they formed an immense insulated cast, separated from society by every barrier that prejudice or policy could raise, receiving few plebeian accessions, and precluded by

by the idelible character of nobility, the equal patrimony of all their children, from the possibility of their most remote descendants being restored to the general mass. The nobles of England are a *Senate* of 200. The noblesse of France were a *tribe* of 200,000. Nobility is in England only hereditary, so far as its professed object, the support of a hereditary senate, demands. It is therefore descendible only to one heir. Nobility in France was as widely inheritable as its real purpose, the maintainance of a privileged cast, prescribed. It was therefore necessarily descendible to all male children.

There are other points of contrast still more important. The Noblesse of France were at once formidable from their immense body of property, and dependant from the indigence of their Patrician rabble of cadets, whom honour inspired with servility and servility excluded from the path to independence. They in fact possessed so large a portion of the landed property, as to be justly, and almost exclusively considered as the landed interest of the kingdom. To this formidable property was added the revenues of the church, monopolized by their children. The younger branches of these opulent families had in general no patrimony but their honours and their sword. They were therefore reduced to seek fortune and distinction in military dependence on the Crown. If they were generous, the habits of military service devoted them from loyalty; if they were prudent, the hope of military promotion devoted them from interest to the king.—How immense therefore and irresistible would the Royal influence have been in elections, where the majority of the voters were the servants and creatures of the Crown? What would be thought in England of a House of Lords, which, while it represented or contained the whole landed interest of the kingdom, should

necessarily have a majority of its members septennially or triennially nominated by the King? Yet it would still yield to the French Upper House of M. Calonne; for the monied and commercial interests of England, which would continue to be represented by the Commons, are important and formidable, but in France they are comparably insignificant. It would have been a government where the Aristocracy could have been strong only against the people, impotent against the crown. This second arrangement then is equally repugnant to the theory of the British constitution as the first. There remains only some mode of selection of a body from amidst the nobility and clergy to form an Upper House, and to this there are insuperable objections. Had the right of thus forming a branch of the legislature by a single act of prerogative been given to the king, it must have strengthened his influence to a degree terrible at any period, but fatal in the moment of political reform. Had any mode of election by the provinces, or the legislature, been adopted, or if they had been vested with any control on the nomination of the crown, the new dignity would have been sought with an activity of corruption and intrigue, of which, in such a national convulsion, it is impossible to estimate the danger. No general principle of selection, such as that of opulence or antiquity, would have remedied the evil, for the excluded and degraded nobles would feel the principle, that nobility is the equal and inalienable patrimony of all. By the abolition of nobility, no nobleman was degraded, for to degrade is to lower from a rank that continues to exist in society. No man can be degraded when the rank he possessed no longer exists. But had the rank of nobility remained in the mode of which we have been speaking, the great body of the nobles would indeed, in a proper and penal sense, have been degraded.

graced, the new dignity of their prizes far more fatal than sequestration; their peers would have kept of an indignity that is at least broken the memory of what they once by division, and impartially inflicted on the greatest and most obscure.

Memoirs of the Life of Dr Robert Henry, Author of the History of Great Britain, written on a new Plan.

DR ROBERT HENRY was the son of James Henry farmer at Birtown in the parish of St Ninian's, north Britain, and of Jean Galloway daughter of ——— Galloway of Burnside meadow in Stirlingshire. He was born on the 18th of February 1718; and having early resolved to devote himself to a literary profession, was educated first under a Mr John Nicolson at the parish-school of St Ninian's, and for some time at the grammar-school of Stirling. He completed his course of academical study at the university of Edinburgh, and afterwards became master of the grammar-school of Annan. He was licentiate to preach on the 27th of March 1746, and was the first licentiate of the presbytery of Annan after its erection into a separate presbytery. Soon after, he received a call from a congregation of Presbyterian dissenters at Carnegie, where he was ordained in Nov. 1748. In this station he remained 2 years, and on the 13th of August 1750 became pastor of a dissenting congregation in Berwick upon Tweed. Here he married, in 1763, Ann Bullock, daughter of Thomas Bullock surgeon in Berwick; by whom he had no children, but with whom he enjoyed to the end of his life a large share of domestic happiness. He was removed from Berwick to be one of the ministers of Edinburgh in November 1768; was minister of the church of the New Grey Friars from that time till November 1776; and then became colleague-minister

in the old church, and remained in that station till his death. The degree of Doctor in Divinity was conferred on him by the university of Edinburgh in 1770; and in 1774 he was unanimously chosen moderator of the general assembly of the church of Scotland, and is the only person on record who obtained that distinction the first time he was a member of assembly.

From these facts, which contain the outlines of Dr Henry's life, few events can be expected to suit the purpose of the biographer. Though he must have been always distinguished among his private friends, till he was translated to Edinburgh, he had few opportunities of being known to the public. The composition of sermons must have occupied a chief part of his time during his residence at Carlisle, as his industry in that station is known to have rendered his labours in this department easy to him during the rest of his life. But even there he found leisure for other studies; and the knowledge of classical literature, in which he eminently excelled, soon enabled him to acquire an extent of information which qualified him for something more important than he had hitherto in his view.

Soon after his removal to Berwick, he published a scheme for raising a fund for the benefit of the widows and orphans of Protestant dissenting ministers in the north of England. This idea was probably suggested by the prosperity of the fund which had, at-

most 30 years before, been established for a provision to ministers widows, &c. in Scotland. But the situations of the clergy of Scotland were very different from the circumstances of dissenting ministers in England. Annuities and provisions were to be secured to the families of dissenters, without subjecting the individuals (as in Scotland) to a proportional annual contribution, and without such means of creating a fund as could be the subject of an act of parliament to secure the annual payments. The acuteness and activity of Dr Henry surmounted these difficulties; and chiefly by his exertions, this useful and benevolent institution commenced about the year 1762. The management was entrusted to him for several years; and its success has exceeded the most sanguine expectations which were formed of it. The plan itself, now sufficiently known, it is unnecessary to explain minutely. But it is mentioned here, because Dr Henry was accustomed in the last years of his life to speak of this institution with peculiar affection, and to reflect on its progress and utility with that kind of satisfaction which a good man can only receive from "the labour of love and of good works."

It was probably about the year 1763 that he first conceived the idea of his *History of Great Britain*; a work already established in the public opinion; and which will certainly be regarded by posterity, not only as a book which has greatly enlarged the sphere of history, and gratifies our curiosity on a variety of subjects which fall not within the limits prescribed by preceding historians, but as one of the most accurate and authentic repositories of historical information which this country has produced. The plan adopted by Dr Henry, which is indisputably his own, and its peculiar advantages, are sufficiently explained in its general preface. In every pe-

riod, it arranges, under separate heads or chapters, the civil and military history of Great Britain; the history of religion; the history of our constitution, government, laws, and courts of Justice; the history of learning, of learned men, and of the chief seminaries of learning; the history of arts; the history of commerce, of shipping, of money or coin, and of the price of commodities; and the history of manners, virtues, vices, customs, language, dress, diet, and amusements. Under these seven heads, which extend the province of an historian greatly beyond its usual limits, every thing curious or interesting in the history of any country may be comprehended. But it certainly required more than a common share of literary courage to attempt, on so large a scale, a subject so intricate and extensive as the history of Britain from the invasion of Julius Cæsar. That Dr Henry neither over-rated his powers nor his industry, could only have been proved by the success and reputation of his works.

But he soon found that his residence at Berwick was an insuperable obstacle to the minute researches which the execution of his plan required. His situation there excluded him from the means of consulting the original authorities; and though he attempted to find access to them by means of his literary friends, and with their assistance made some progress in his work, his information was notwithstanding so incomplete, that he found it impossible to prosecute his plan to his own satisfaction, and was at last compelled to relinquish it.

By the friendship of Gilbert Laurie, Esq; late Lord Provost of Edinburgh, and one of his majesty's commissioners of excise in Scotland, who had married the sister of Mrs Henry, he was removed to Edinburgh in 1768; and it is to this event that the public are indebted for his prosecution of the *History*

History of Great Britain. His access to the public libraries, and the means of supplying the materials which these did not afford him, were from that time used with so much diligence and perseverance, that the first volume of his History in quarto was published in 1771, and the second in 1774, the third in 1777, the fourth in 1781, and the fifth (which brings down the History to the accession of Henry VII.) in 1785. The subject of these volumes comprehends the most intricate and obscure periods of our history; and when we consider the scanty and scattered materials which Dr Henry has digested, and the accurate and minute information which he has given us under every chapter of his work, we must have a high opinion both of the learning and industry of the author, and of the vigour and activity of his mind: especially when it is added, that he employed no amanuensis, but completed the manuscript with his own hand; and that, excepting the first volume, the whole book, such as it is, was printed from the original copy. Whatever corrections were made on it, were inserted by interlineations, or in revising the proof-sheets. He found it necessary, indeed, to confine himself to a first copy, from an unfortunate tremor in his hand, which made writing extremely inconvenient, which obliged him to write with his paper on a book placed on his knee instead of a table, and which unhappily increased to such a degree, that in the last years of his life he was often unable to take his victuals without assistance. An attempt which he made after the publication of the fifth volume to employ an amanuensis did not succeed. Never having been accustomed to dictate his compositions, he found it impossible to acquire a new habit; and though he persevered but a few days in the attempt, it had a sensible effect on his health, which he never afterwards recovered.—An author has no right to

claim indulgence, and is still less entitled to credit from the public for any thing which can be ascribed to negligence in committing his manuscripts to the press; but considering the difficulties which Dr Henry surmounted, and the accurate researches and information which distinguish his history, the circumstances which have been mentioned are far from being uninteresting, and must add considerably to the opinion formed of his merit among men who are judges of what he has done. He did not profess to study the ornaments of language; but his arrangement is uniformly regular and natural, and his style simple and perspicuous. More than this he has not attempted, and this cannot be denied him. He believed that the time which might be spent in polishing or rounding a sentence was more usefully employed in investigating and ascertaining a fact: and as a book of facts and solid information, supported by authentick documents, his history will stand a comparison with any other history of the same period.

But Dr Henry had other difficulties to surmount than those which related to the composition of his work. Not having been able to transact with the booksellers to his satisfaction, the five volumes were originally published at the risk of the author. When the first volume appeared, it was censured with an unexampled acrimony and perseverance. Magazines, reviews, and even newspapers, were filled with abusive remarks and invectives, in which both the author and the book were treated with contempt and scurrility. When an author has once submitted his works to the public, he has no right to complain of the *just* severity of criticism. But Dr Henry had to contend with the inveterate scorn of malignity. In compliance with the usual custom, he had permitted a sermon to be published which he had preached before the Society in Scot-

land for Propagating Christian knowledge in 1773; a composition containing plain good sense on a common subject, from which he expected no reputation. This was eagerly seized on by the adversaries of his History, and torn to pieces with a virulence and asperity which no want of merit in the sermon could justify or explain. An anonymous letter had appeared in a newspaper to vindicate the History, from some of the unjust censures which had been published, and asserting from the real merit and accuracy of the book, the author's title to the approbation of the public. An answer appeared in the course of the following week, charging him, in terms equally confident and indecent, with having written this letter in his own praise. The efforts of malignity seldom fail to defeat their purpose, and to recoil on those who direct them. Dr Henry had many friends, and till lately had not discovered that he had any enemies. But the author of the anonymous vindication was unknown to him, till the learned and respectable Dr Macqueen, from the indignation excited by the confident petulance of the answer, informed him that the letter had been written by him. These anecdotes are still remembered. The abuse of the History, which began in Scotland, was renewed in some of the periodical publications in South Britain; though it is justice to add (without meaning to refer to the candid observations of English critics,) that in both kingdoms the asperity originated in the same quarter, and that paragraphs and criticisms written at Edinburgh were printed in London. The same spirit appeared in strictures published on the second and third volumes; but by this time it had in a great measure lost the attention of the public. The malevolence was sufficiently understood, and had long before become fatal to the circulation of the periodical paper from which it originally pro-

ceeded. The book, though printed for the author, had sold beyond his most sanguine expectations; and had received both praise and patronage from men of the first literary characters in the kingdom: and though, from the alarm which had been raised, the booksellers did not venture to purchase the property till after the publication of the fifth volume, the work was established in the opinion of the public, and at last rewarded the author with a high degree of celebrity, which he happily lived to enjoy.

In an article relating to Dr Henry's life, not to have mentioned the opposition which his History encountered, would have been both affectation and injustice. The facts are sufficiently remembered, and are unfortunately too recent to be more minutely explained. That they contributed at first to retard the sale of the work is undeniable, and may be told without regret now that its reputation is established. The book has raised itself to eminence as a History of Great Britain by its own merits; and the means employed to obstruct its progress have only served to embellish its success.

Dr Henry was no doubt encouraged from the first by the decided approbation of some of his literary friends, who were allowed to be the most competent judges of his subject; and in particular by one of the most eminent historians of the present age, whose history of the same period justly possesses the highest reputation. The following character of the first and second volumes was drawn up by that gentleman, and is well entitled to be inserted in a narrative of Dr Henry's life. "Those who profess a high esteem for the first volume of Dr Henry's history, I may venture to say, are almost as numerous as those who have perused it, provided they be competent judges of a work of that nature, and are acquainted with the difficulties which attend such an under-

dertaking. Many of those who had been so well pleased with the first were impatient to see the second volume, which advances into a field more delicate and interesting; but the Doctor hath shown the maturity of his judgment, as in all the rest, so particularly in giving no performance to the public that might appear crude or hasty, or composed before he had fully collected and digested the materials. I venture with great sincerity to recommend this volume to the perusal of every curious reader who desires to know the state of Great Britain in a period which has hitherto been regarded as very obscure, ill supplied with writers, and not possessed of a single one that deserves the appellation of a good one. It is wonderful what an instructive, and even entertaining, book he Doctor has been able to compose from such unpromising materials: *Tantum series juncturaque pollet*. When we see those barbarous ages delineated by so able a pen, we admire the oddness and singularity of the manners, customs, and opinions, of the times, and seem to be introduced into a new world; but we are still more surprised, as well as interested, when we reflect that those strange personages were the ancestors of the present inhabitants of this island.—The object of an antiquary hath been commonly distinguished from that of an historian; for though the latter should enter into the province of the former, it is thought that it should only be *quanto basta*, that is, so far as is necessary, without comprehending all the minute disquisitions which gave such supreme pleasure to the mere antiquary. Our learned author hath fully reconciled these two characters. His historical narratives are as full as those of some times seem to demand, and at the same time his enquiries of the antiquarian kind omit nothing which can be an object of doubt or curiosity. The one as well as the other is deli-

vered with great perspicuity, and no less propriety, which are the true ornaments of this kind of writing. All superfluous embellishments are avoided; and the reader will hardly find in our language any performance that unites together so perfectly the two great points of entertainment and instruction.—The gentleman who wrote this character died before the publication of the third volume.—The progress of his work introduced Dr Henry to more extensive patronage, and in particular to the notice and esteem of the earl of Mansfield. That venerable nobleman, who is so well entitled to the gratitude and admiration of his country, thought the merit of Dr Henry's history so considerable, that, without any solicitation, after the publication of the fourth volume he applied personally to his Majesty to bestow on the author some mark of his royal favour. In consequence of this, Dr Henry was informed by a letter from Lord Stormont, then secretary of state, of his Majesty's intention to confer on him an annual pension for life of 100 l. "considering his distinguished talents, and great literary merit, and the importance of the very useful and laborious work in which he was so successfully engaged, as titles to his royal countenance and favour." The warrant was issued on the 29th of May 1781; and his right to the pension commenced from the 5th of April preceding. This pension he enjoyed till his death, and always considered it as imposing a new obligation to persevere steadily in the prosecution of his work. From the earl of Mansfield he received many other testimonies of esteem both as a man and as an author, which he was often heard to mention with the most affectionate gratitude. The octavo edition of his history, published in 1788, was inscribed to his Lordship. The quarto edition had been dedicated to the king.

The property of the work had hitherto

therto remained with himself. But in April 1786, when an octavo edition was intended, he conveyed the property to Messrs Cadell and Strahan; reserving to himself what still remained unsold of the quarto edition, which did not then exceed eighty-one complete sets. A few copies were afterwards printed of the volumes of which the first impression was exhausted, to make up additional sets: and before the end of 1786, he sold the whole to Messrs Cadell and Strahan. By the first transaction he was to receive 1000*l.* and by the second betwixt 300*l.* and 400*l.* about 1400*l.* in all. These sums may not be absolutely exact, as they are set down from memory; but there cannot be a mistake of any consequence on the one side or the other.—Dr Henry had kept very accurate accounts of the sales from the time of the original publication; and after his last transaction with Messrs Cadell and Strahan, he found that his real profits had amounted in whole to about 3300 pounds: a striking proof of the intrinsic merit of a work which had forced its way to the public esteem unprotected by the interest of the booksellers, and in spite of the malignant opposition with which the first volumes had to struggle.

The prosecution of his history had been Dr Henry's favourite object for almost 30 years of his life. He had naturally a sound constitution, and a more equal and larger portion of animal spirits than is commonly possessed by literary men. But from the year 1785 his bodily strength was sensibly impaired. Notwithstanding this, he persisted steadily in preparing his sixth volume, which brings down the history to the accession of Edward VI. and has left it in the hands of his executors almost completed. Scarcely any

thing remains unfinished but the two short chapters on arts and manners; and even for these he has left materials and authorities so distinctly collected, that there can be no great difficulty in supplying what is wanting. It is hoped that this volume may be ready for publication some time in the winter or spring 1792; and that it will be found intitled to the same favorable reception from the public which has been given to the former volumes. It was written under the disadvantages of bad health and great weakness of body. The tremulous motion of his hand had increased so as to render writing much more difficult to him than it had ever been: but the vigour of his mind and his ardour were unimpaired; and, independent of the general character of his works, the posthumous volume will be a lasting monument of the strength of his faculties, and of the literary industry and perseverance which ended only with his life.

Dr Henry's original plan extended from the invasion of Britain by the Romans to the present times. And men of literary curiosity must regret that he has not lived to complete his design; but he has certainly finished the most difficult parts of his subject. The periods after the accession of Edward VI. afforded materials more ample, better digested, and much more within the reach of common readers.

Till the summer of 1790 he was able to pursue his studies, though not without interruptions. But at that time he lost his health entirely; and, with a constitution quite worn out, died on the 24th of November of that year, in the 73^d year of his age.—He was buried in the church-yard of Folsom, where it is projected to erect a monument to his memory.

An Interesting Dialogue between the late Dr Johnson, and Mrs Knowles the Quaker.

Mrs K. **T**HY friend Jenny H— desires her kind respects to thee, Doctor.

Dr J. To me!—tell me not of her! I hate the odious wench for her apostasy: and it is you, Madam, who have seduced her from the Christian Religion.

Mrs K. This is a heavy charge, indeed. I must beg leave to be heard in my own defence: and I entreat the attention of the present learned and candid company, desiring they will judge how far I am able to clear myself of so cruel an accusation.

Dr J. (*much disturbed at this unexpected challenge*) said, You are a woman, and I give you quarter.

Mrs K. I will not take quarter. There is no sex in souls; and in the present cause I fear not even Dr Johnson himself.

(*“Bravo!” was repeated by the company, and silence ensued.*)

Dr J. Well then, Madam, I persist in my charge, that you have seduced Miss H— from the Christian Religion.

Mrs K. If thou really knewst what were the principles of the Friends, thou wouldst not say she had departed from Christianity. But, waving that discussion for the present, I will take the liberty to observe, that she had an undoubted right to examine and to change her educational tenets whenever she supposed she had found them erroneous: as an accountable creature, it was her duty so to do.

Dr J. Pshaw! pshaw!—an accountable creature!—girls accountable creatures!—It was her duty to remain with the Church wherein she was educated; she had no business to leave it.

Mrs K. What! not for that which she apprehended to be better? According to this rule, Doctor, hadst

thou been born in Turkey, it had been thy duty to have remained a Mahometan, notwithstanding Christian evidence might have wrought in thy mind the clearest conviction; and if so, then let me ask, how would thy conscience have answered for such obstinacy at the great and last tribunal?

Dr J. My conscience would not have been answerable.

Mrs K. Whose then would?

Dr J. Why the State's, to be sure. In adhering to the Religion of the State as by law established, our implicit obedience therein becomes our duty.

Mrs K. A Nation or State, having a conscience, is a doctrine entirely new to me, and, indeed, a very curious piece of intelligence; for I have always understood that a Government, or State, is a creature of time only; beyond which it dissolves, and becomes a nonentity. Now, Gentlemen, can your imaginations body forth this monstrous individual, or being, called a State, composed of millions of people? Can you behold it stalking forth into the next world, loaded with its mighty conscience, there to be rewarded, or punished, for the faith, opinions, and conduct, of its constituent machines called men? Surely the teeming brain of Poetry never held up to the fancy so wondrous a personage!

Dr J. (*when the laugh occasioned by this personification was subsided, very angrily replied.*) I regard not what you say as to that matter. I hate the arrogance of the wench, in supposing herself a more competent judge of religion than those who educated her. She imitated you, no doubt; but she ought not to have presumed to determine for herself in so important an affair.

Mrs K. True, Doctor; I grant it, if, as thou seemest to imply, a weoch of 20 years be not a moral agent.

Dr J. I doubt it would be difficult to prove those deserve that character who turn Quakers.

Mrs K. This severe retort, Doctor, induces me charitably to hope thou must be totally unacquainted with the principles of the people against whom thou art so exceedingly prejudiced, and that thou supposest us a set of Infidels or Deists.

Dr J. Certainly, I do think you little better than Deists.

Mrs K. This is indeed strange; 'tis passing strange, that a man of such universal reading and research has not thought it at least expedient to look into the cause of dissent of a society so long established, and so conspicuously singular!

Dr J. Not I, indeed! I have not read Barclay's Apology; and for this plain reason—I never thought it worth my while. You are upstart Sectaries, perhaps the best subdued by a silent contempt.

Mrs K. This reminds me of the language of the Rabbies of old, when their Hierarchy was alarmed by the increasing influence, force, and simplicity, of dawning truth, in their high day of worldly dominion. We meekly trust, our principles stand on the same solid foundation of simple truth, and we invite the acutest investigation. The reason thou givest for not having read Barclay's Apology is surely a very improper one for a man whom the world looks up to as a Moral Philosopher of the first rank; a teacher from whom they think they have a right to expect much information. To this expecting, enquiring world, how can Dr Johnson acquit himself for remaining unacquainted with a book translated into five or six different languages, and which has been admitted into the libraries of almost every Court and University in Christendom!

(Here the Doctor grew very angry, still more so at the space of time the Gentlemen insisted on allowing his antagonist wherein to make her defence; and his impatience excited one of the company, in a whisper, to say, "I never saw this mighty lion so chafed before!")

The Doctor again repeated, that he did not think the Quakers deserved the name of Christians.

Mrs K. Give me leave then to endeavour to convince thee of thy error, which I will do by making before thee, and this respectable company, a confession of our faith. Creeds, or confessions of faith, are admitted by all to be the standard whereby we judge of every denomination of professors.

(To this, every one present agreed; and even the Doctor grumbled out his assent.)

Mrs K. Well then, I take upon me to declare, that the people called Quakers do verily believe in the Holy Scriptures, and rejoice with the most full and reverential acceptance of the divine history of facts, as recorded in the New Testament. That we, consequently, fully believe those historical articles summed up in what is called the Apostles Creed, with these two exceptions only, to wit, our Saviour's descent into Hell, and the resurrection of the body. These mysteries we humbly leave just as they stand in the holy text, there being, from that ground, no authority for such assertion as is drawn up in the Creed. And now, Doctor, canst thou still deny to us the honourable title of Christians?

Dr J. Well!—I must own I did not at all suppose you had so much to say for yourselves. However, I cannot forgive that little slut, for presuming to take upon herself as she has done.

Mrs K. I hope, Doctor, thou wilt not remain unforgiving; and that you will renew your friendship, and joyfully

fully meet at last in those bright regions where Pride and Prejudice can never enter!

Dr J. Meet her! I never desire to meet fools any where.

(*This sarcastic turn of wit was so*

pleasantly received, that the Doctor joined in the laugh; his spleen was dissipated; he took his coffee, and became, for the remainder of the evening, very chearful and entertaining.)

On the Pleasures of elegant Society; from the Loiterer, a periodical Work.

WHEN, in composing a loiterer, or in following any other studies, I have insensibly fallen into more intense thought than is congenial to my system, I find certain and immediate relief in the conversation of a few friends, whom many successive years have gradually placed at my side, and in whom commanding talents are so tempered by complying manners, that if at any time I feel more than ordinary self-complacency, it is when I reflect that I have been able to draw round me such a circle: living in rivalry without enmity, and familiarity without distaste, we mutually derive from conversation assistance in study, and delight in relaxation.

Most of my readers of both sexes have also their little circles, in which they enjoy the satisfaction of talking and being talked to; and however they may be divided which affords most pleasure, there are few but will agree, that little can exist where they are precluded from both. I am inclined to believe that the most convertible are, if not the most happy, yet the least unhappy members of society; for grief, fear, and anxiety, are abstracted and silent; but joy, hope, and contentment, have an ear open to every tale, and a tongue ready to fill every pause.

Perhaps the pleasure of conversation is often exclusive of any actual wit or sense contained in it; for who but has listened with pleasure to the bewitching sayings of a pretty woman, and thought her periods sufficiently round-

ed by a sweet and voluble utterance, and sufficiently pointed by a piercing eye?

But though conversation may be generally a source of pleasure, and rarely of pain, it not unfrequently wearies and offends by impertinence. In many instances, indeed, the company can stifle or promote a topic, silence or encourage a speaker, at will; but where superiority, by age or fortune, sanctions prolixity or insipidity, the remedy is not always practicable, and if one man will expose himself, the rest must submit to look on. I shall therefore recall to my readers a few characters, which probably every one of them has met and condemned, in which he who is free from their errors may see his danger and avoid it; and he who has inadvertently fallen into them may perceive his folly and reform. And it is certainly more desirable that a man should discover his own want of wisdom, than that others should be reduced to the necessity of informing him that he is a fool.

In the circles of men, few characters are more frequent than one who fastens on some stranger who happens to have visited or to reside in his neighbourhood, with whom he runs over a catalogue of names, and a register of minute circumstances, unintelligible to others, and unimportant to himself. Enumerating every person with whom he has dined or danced, he details their concerns without interest, and characterises them without discrimination. Unwearied in inquiries,

ries,

ries, not prompted by desire of rejoicing with the fortunate or condoling with the wretched, he listens to the relation of calamity without pain, of good fortune without pleasure. Whether the objects of his inquiry be sinking into poverty, or rising into wealth, whether sick, dying, or dead, he hears their story with the same vacant composure of muscle, the same complacent nod of apprehension. Happy is the company when the fortunate lapse of a letter in the recollection of a name, or some confusion in ascertaining a particular day or place, suspends his volubility.

Equally frequent and wearisome is the man who is in the opposite extreme. As the conversation of the one is more copious than fluent, that of the other is more fluent than copious: the one bewilders himself among a thousand different persons and things, the other confines himself to a very few favourite topics. It is sometimes amusing to observe with what dexterity he conducts the discourse round to his darling subjects, and with what delight he expatiates on the well-known ground, I have an old and respectable acquaintance somewhat of this description; and when he falls into these harangues, he sometimes brings so lively to my recollection the place and time in which I first heard them, that I almost doubt whether all which has intervened is not a dream, and half persuade myself that I am several years younger, and in quite a different part of the kingdom, than I afterwards find I really am. But let me be just to his merits. One sometimes is indisposed to talk or listen, yet neither affects silence or solitude; at strict seasons, what hours of indistinguishable luxury have I passed in the conversation of my friend!

Another leading personage is one who sits mute while the conversation continues general, and scarcely seems to exist till he has turned it against some unfortunate individual: unable

to shine by his own light, he seeks relief in the darkness of another. One of this character is found in most small societies, and two or three in every common room. He may be easily distinguished; for when he enters the company, argument is relinquished and laughter subsides, and a general silence of expectation and apprehension prevails, till it appears who is to be singled out for the evening's persecution. When once the spirit of raillery is conjured up, every one becomes interested in fixing it in its circle, and the whole evening wastes away in the distresses of one man, and the ungenerous triumph of the rest: and while all are actuated by one illiberal feeling, and unite in one fruitless purpose, no mutual courtesies refine the manners, no collision of sentiments strengthens the taste, no interchange of information enriches the mind.

But of all impertinents he is the most insufferable who talks from books 'in great swaths.' He is positive in his assertions, because he believes he has read them, and angry if they are controverted, because he has not a single idea by which he can maintain them. In what inextricable confusion have I seen such a man involve himself and all around him, by having turned over two leaves together, or overlooked a comma in a critical place. Such a character generally possesses a feeble intellect, which entirely bends under the weight of studies which, with violence to nature, he pertinaciously imposes on himself. You may track him through all the labyrinth of his reading by the thread of his conversation: his mind is a shallow stream, where every accession of rubbish appears above the surface.

Disgusted at the frequent recurrence of such characters among men, we fly to female circles. In women we persuade ourselves trifling will lose its insipidity, ignorance its arrogance, and mirth its licentiousness. A little experience teaches us that the conversation

verfeable

verseable qualifications of both sexes are very equally poised.

In most companies we observe a lady who draws her chair close to one of her own sex, with whom she discusses all those important topics which transfer the burden of entertainment from the brain, which is susceptible of every exertion, to the tongue, which is proof against all fatigue. While she thus breaks the current of conversation, she wonders at its want of fluency, and by the significant glances which she casts around her at every pause, silently reproves an inattention in the men which she seems studious to provoke. At length she retires from the company full of complaints of its insipidity, forgetting, that to one who mixes not in the discourse, sense will often seem dull, and wit pointless; and that they who bring indifference into society, will depart with disgust.

Another character equally frequent is one who, after the customary forms of salutation, addresses herself to none, and if any man addresses her, inclines to him with frigid composure of feature and averted eye. Not content to withhold by her silence the contributions due from herself to the general fund of amusement, by her prying looks and intent posture she becomes a restraint upon others. Not a compliment passes on one side, or an acknowledgment on the other, but that at her return home she details it to a maiden aunt or a younger sister, with a vivacity and volubility, an *hundredth part* of which, seasonably exerted, would make her one of the most agreeable companions in the world.

But above all in folly is she whom the weak of both sexes term a *sensible woman*. To compliment her is an impeachment of her understanding; to argue with her, an insult to her charms. If a man contradict her, she openly affronts him; if he assents, she secretly despises him. She is fastidious to show her judgment, and sarcastic to exercise her wit. If the company be gay, she is all gravity and reserve; if

serious, all vivacity and levity; she is invariably careful never to join in the prevailing topic, at which she is ever disposed to sneer, as too superficial, or too profound.—If a character of this description be of an age verging on thirty, and yet of the sisterhood of virgins (which not unfrequently happens) she becomes particularly troublesome to the men, whose company she avowedly affects, declaiming on the inanity of her own sex; a preference, for which the one feels little gratitude, and the other little concern.—Such a character is generally a very extensive and excursive reader. Her favourite volume is a thin folio, which takes up much room and contains little matter. One subject is not more *difficult* to her than another, except as it employs a greater number of pages; and if a sentence be but fairly printed, she seldom finds any *obscurity*.—There is a very literary lady, esteemed a great ornament to our family, who often lays down Reid and Horstley, and runs over the Loiterer without the least remission of the wisdom which, on these occasions, she summons into her countenance. Under the pressure of most of the mortifications of life, I preserve a tolerable balance of temper; but I confess this circumstance sometimes sways me entirely from my wonted equability.

But to return to my subject.—A thousand other improprieties might be pointed out, which ought to be avoided by all who wish to excel in conversation. One man cuts you short in the middle of your speech by contradiction; another, which is still more vexatious, by assent. One discourteously your brightest sallies with provoking gravity; another has always a laugh ready to approve your gravest remarks. Most of these errors may be considered as the effect of affectation: and perhaps one general maxim may be sufficient to direct us in conversation.—We may study to conceal our defects—let us leave our excellencies to display themselves.

Account of Roslin Chapel.

THE Chapel or College of Roslin, in some old writs Roskelyo*, in the shire of Mid-Lothian, about four miles southward from Edinburgh, is situated on a rising ground, called the College-Hill, charmingly beautified with wood, water, and rocks, the Esk gliding along the west and south foot of the hill.

The church-yard is surrounded with a good wall of stone and lime; on the north side of which you enter by a door, whose pilasters and architrave are adorned with sculpture of flower-work: on the middle of the architrave is placed a stone cut into an equilateral triangle, on which are carvings resembling net-work; no doubt there have been other ornamental stones placed on each side of this triangle, and perhaps on the top of it, which is a little flat, as there are some such stones, resembling pieces of lesser pillars or spires, lying at the foot of this entry into the church-yard.

The Chapel, of old called *The Chapel amidst the Woods*, is all of free-stone, and one of the most curious pieces of old Gothic workmanship in Europe, having on the north side twelve turrets, or spires, seven lower arising on the face of the outer wall, and five higher arising from the top of said wall, and placed exactly behind an equal number of the lower: the other two of which are placed nigh, and at the east end of the wall, making up the north part of the outside of the altar. The lower and higher spires are united by two short segments of an arch; a longer segment passing from each higher spire to the top of the inner wall: upon each of these spires, both lower and higher, there are several niches for statues; but there are no statues in them now. However

the pedestals are still extant, curiously cut out into antique and grotesque figures in basso-relievo.

There are five large arched windows below in the outer wall, with a pillar or column rising in the middle of each, and waving to the top of the arch in various shapes, some circular, others semicircular, &c. so that not one waving on the top of a pillar is like another. All these windows are prettily carved even on the outside, particularly on the arches, with foliage, &c. having niches on the jambs, in which probably there have been statues of old, the pedestals of which are still remaining.

There are five lesser arched windows above, reaching almost to the top of the inner wall, which appear to have had no pillar in the middle of each. The roof between the outer and inner wall, formerly leaded, now slated, with a slop to make the rain run the better off; covers the greatest part of these higher windows, and spoils the symmetry of the fabric.

On the east end, or altar, there are five lower spires, with niches for statues, all adequate to those of the same model on the north side, with four large windows, a pillar raised in the middle of each, as in the windows below in the north side, but differing from these in the various wavings on the tops of the arches, as well as from each other. The pedestals on which the statues have been placed, are all curiously wrought off in sculpture of antique and grotesque figures in basso-relievo, varying from one another, and from those on the north side.

The south side is exactly the same with the north, as to the number and proportion of spires and windows, in the many ornaments of which still the

same

* A Gaelic word, signifying a hill in a glen.

same wild agreeable variety is most carefully observed.

There are spouts at proper distances for letting the rain down from the roofs, cut into various shapes, as the body of a lion the head of an old man, &c.

On the west gable is a very plain ordinary bell-house, with places for two bells, and an iron cross still entire at the top of it. There have been two other iron crosses, one on each corner of this gable, of which the erect parts are only now remaining: the transverse pieces being quite worn away by the injuries of the weather.

The high roof is arched, and well covered with flag-stones. The entry into this grand and sacred structure is by two doors, one on the south, the other on the north side; and no person can enter into it, without being struck with reverential awe at its august appearance.

The height of the Chapel within, from the floor to the top of the high arched roof, is 40 feet, 8 inches.—Breadth 34 feet, 8 inches.—Length 68 feet.

At the south-east corner you go down four steps to a flat, having on each hand a plain square nich in the wall; from which flat you descend twenty steps more, into a subterraneous chapel, which has been likewise the sacristy and vestry, whose height cannot be so exactly ascertained, as the floor is not laid with flag-stones, but is very uneven with rubbish and stones; however, with the utmost exactness that can be observed, it is in height 15 feet, 2 inches.—Breadth 14 feet.—Length 36 feet.

This sacristy is only subterraneous at the entry, or west end of the east gable, being all above ground, occasioned by the sudden declivity of the rising ground. There is only one window in it, which is in the east wall, and is arched and large, but without any pillar in the middle of it. Here,

no doubt, there has been an altar, tho' there be no vestige of one now:—

When looking towards this window, on your right hand, i. e. on the south side of the window, there is an escutcheon-couped Carrivness and Ruston: the second part couped of three. In the first part three stars or sculllets: in the second three flowers de-luce: in the third a heart.—In a direct line with the said escutcheon, on the north side of the window, is a ragged cross very distinct.—It has had a lofty arched door, now shut up with stone and lime, on the south wall, by which one could enter into the vestry, without going into the large chapel above ground.—It has two square niches in each side wall, wherein, I suppose, the sacred vessels have been kept; but, particularly, in the north wall there is a large arched opening, like a press, in which the iron hinges, or hooks of a door, are still to be discerned; in this I suppose the clerical vestments have been laid up. There has been another like arched opening in the south wall, which is now filled up with stone and lime. In the south-east corner there is a font, with a little square nich close by the east side of it.—The arched roof of the sacristy is pretty plain, having only six ragged lines cut a-cross from side to side in basso-relievo, and one on the top, from end to end, in the same way, and crossing the former ones at right angles.

On the top of the entry, which is an arch, down to the sacristy, is the high altar, 2 feet 7 inches, by two steps up from the south end of the large altar, with a beautiful font above it in the south wall. Part of the floor of the high altar is demolished. On the high altar, upon the east wall, is built something like a seat, about two feet high, which, perhaps, may have been a prothesis or side-altar table.

The low or large altar is only one step up, though perhaps more of old, from the floor of the chapel, of six inches

inches and an half. It is in breadth, 11 feet, 3 inches.—Length, 26 feet, 10 inches and an half.

The roof of the altar, composed of four double arches, not being so high as that of the chapel by one half, the height of it, from the floor to the tops of the double arches within, is fifteen feet.

There are seven pillars, or columns, on the north side from end to end, including the pillar on the west wall, which is cut in basso-relievo; and as many, on the south side.—There are likewise two pillars exactly in the middle of the chapel, proceeding from the step up to the altar westward.

The height of each pillar, including base and capital, is the exact fourth of the whole height of the chapel, from the floor to the top of the high arched roof.

Each range of pillars, from the opposite wall to the centre of the colonnade, or range, is distant eight feet two inches; from the centre of each of the two pillars in the middle, proceeding from the face of the altar westward, to the centre of the pillars on each hand, north and south, nine feet two inches; diameter of the sust or shaft of each pillar, at the middle point between base and capital, is two feet four inches; therefore the circumference must be seven feet.

The three pillars on the face of the altar have, opposite to them on the east wall, or back of the altar, three smaller pillars cut out in basso-relievo; and each range of pillars from east to west has, on the opposite wall, an equal number of smaller pillars, cut out in the same way, each large pillar being united to its smaller opposite by an architrave; excepting the three columns on the fore part of the altar, which are united to their smaller opposites by an arch, as all the large ones are from east to west, except some few which shall be remarked as we go along.—Every one of the three smaller pillars on the back of the altar has a

nich on each side of its capital, into which a statue has been placed—At the back of the altar, on the east wall, are three risings like seats, each of them about two feet high, which perhaps may have been for many protheses, or side-altar tables; and who knows but that the large altar may have been divided into three equal parts, as so many different altars?—There are three little arched niches in the east wall, or back of the altar, apparently for sacred vessels to stand in; the bottom of each of them being almost in a line with the tops of the above risings, like seats.

All the ornaments are in basso-relievo, or cut out of the solid stone, as not one of the statues in niches, either within or without, is now to be seen.

Each architrave is united to the opposite architrave by a broad arch, every one of which arches is carved in like manner as the roof of the sacristy; and these arches, from architrave to architrave, form the roof between the outer and the inner wall, both on the north and south sides.

All the capitals of the pillars are prettily cut out into flower-work, foliage, or chaplets.

The principal pillar, placed at the adjoining corner of the low and high altar, just as you go down to the sacristy, on your left hand, is commonly called the Apprentice's Pillar, but by Slezer, in his *Theatrum Scotia*, fol. p. 63, London 1693, the Prince's Pillar, I suppose from the princely founder.

At the north-west corner, is the tomb of George Earl of Caithness, which (though somewhat defaced by the mob in 1688) hath this inscription, in capitals, still very legible: HIC JACET NOBILIS AC POTENS DOMENVS GEORGIVS QVONDAM COMES CATHANENSIS DOMENVS SINCLAR JUSTICIARIVS HEREDITARIVS DIOCESIS CATHANENSIS QVI OBIIT EDINBURGI 9 DIE MENSIS SEPTEMBRIS ANNO DOMINI 1582.

Above

Above this inscription is his coat of arms, surmounted with an Earl's coronet, with a spread eagle on the top of the coronet; field, two lions rampant, and two ships; supporters, two griffins; motto, in capitals, COME WITH THY VEER TO GOD. On the top of the tomb there is a pine-apple.

In the west gable there has been a very large arched window, now entirely filled up with stone and lime.— Opposite to this window, straight up from the second pillar down from the face of the altar, is another large arched window, out of which one could look over the roof of the altar. This window is likewise filled up with stone and lime, except a small part at top. On each pilaster of this last window there are two niches for statues, almost as big as the life.

Straight up from the capital of each large pillar, in the middle area of the chapel, half way up to the top of the high roof, is a niche for a statue.

Round the whole chapel within, is a belt or line of a vast variety of wreathing-work in basso relievo, proceeding in an horizontal and perpendicular way, the better to humour the lozes of the windows, but it is arched over the tops of two doors.

The inside of the high arched roof is all cut out into squares of various figures in flower-work, particularly roses, foliage, &c.

The west gable is extended farther than the side walls of the chapel 26 feet south, and as many north; and on the east side of each extension there are two pillars equi-distant from one another, and from each corner, which have been intended to run up to turrets or spires; from all which, it plainly appears that a much larger building has been designed to the west, of which the present chapel would have only been the choir. And indeed the marks of the west gable are very plain, from whence the side walls were to have been advanced, whose foundations have been discovered in ploughing up the ground, a good way

westward. These marks are about 91 feet distant from each other, and a small part of the north wall, about 3 feet from the west gable, is actually built.

On the outside of this gable you see three large doors; all filled up with stone and lime, whose lintels and some of the jams are cut out into foliage and flower-work; and others of the jams are figured into pillars, with flowered capitals; the south pilaster of the south door, and the north pilaster of the north door, running up, each from its flowered capital, into small gentee pillars, equally high in their capitals with the tops of the inner-side wall of the chapel.

There are several foms curiously ornamented, on the outside of the west wall; particularly two, one on the north, the other on the south of the three doors; each of which is inclosed within two very pretty little flowered pillars or spires, ending in top with pieces of sculpture resembling small flowered vases.

WILLIAM ST CLARE, Prince of Orkney, Duke of Holdcnbourg, Earl of Caithness, &c. Baron of Roslin, &c. the seventh of the name from the days of Malcolm Kenmore; and descended of noble parents in France, founded this curious chapel or college, for a provost, six prebendaries, and two singing boys, in 1446, and dedicated it to St Matthew the Apostle and Evangelist.

The sacristy or vestry was founded by his first Lady, Dame Elizabeth Douglass, formerly Countess of Buchan, and daughter of Archibald, the second of that name.

Prince William endowed the chapel with the church lands of Pentland, four acres of meadow near that town, with the kips, and eight fowms grass in the town of Pentland.—A successor of his, also William of Roslin, endowed it by his charter of February 5th 1523, with some portions of land near the chapel, for dwelling-houses, gardens, &c. to the provost and prebendaries. And yet, such is the stability

bility of human affairs, just forty-eight years after this last endowment, 1571, February 26th, we find the provost and prebendaries resigning, as by force and violence, all, and every one of the several donations, into secular hands unalienably; and withal complaining, that for many years before, their revenues had been violently detained from them; insomuch that they had received little or no benefit from them. To this deed of resignation, or charter, as it is actually called, the seal of the chapter of this collegiate church was appended, being St Matthew in a kirk, red upon white wax; as also the feat of the then Sir William St Clair of Roslin being a ragged cross, red upon white wax. *Hay's MS. Memoirs, vol. II. p. 350.*

In the charter of February 5th 1523, four altars are particularly named; first, that of St Matthew; second, that of the Virgin-Mother; third, that of St Andrew; and, fourth, that of St Peter: which two last, perhaps, have been lesser altars placed at two of the pillars; or, rather, I am inclined to think, as formerly hinted, that the large altar has been divided into two or three; which, with the high altar, and that of the blessed Virgin, which has been, I suppose, in the sacristy, though there be no vestige of it now, made four or five in all.

That this noble design might be executed according to taste, and with the greater splendor, the Prince invited the most accomplished artificers, masons, carpenters, smiths, &c. from foreign parts: and that they might be the more conveniently lodged, for carrying on the work with the greater ease and dispatch, he ordered them to build the village or town of Roslin, where it now is, nigh to the chapel, the old one being half a mile distant from its present situation, and he gave each of them a house and lands, in proportion to character. Besides, he gave to the master-mason forty pounds, and to every other mason

ten pounds yearly; and rewarded the other workmen with such wages as their labours entitled them to.

About that time the town of Roslin, being next to Edinburgh and Haddington in all Lothian, became very populous, by the great concourse of all ranks and degrees of visitors, that resorted to this Prince, at his palace, or castle of Roslin, for he kept a great court, and was royally served at his own table, in vessels of gold and silver; Lord Dirleton being his master-household, Lord Borthwick his cup-bearer, and Lord Fleming his carver; in absence they had deputies to attend, viz. Stewart, Laird of Drumlanrig, Twedie, Laird of Drumperlane, and Sandilands, Laird of Calder. He had his halls, and other apartments, richly adorned with embroidered hangings. He flourished in the reigns of James I. and II.

His Princess, Elizabeth Douglas, already mentioned, was served by seventy-five gentlewomen, whereof fifty-three were daughters of noblemen, all cloathed in velvet and silks, with their chains of gold, and other ornaments; and was attended by two-hundred riding gentlemen in all her journeys; And if it happened to be dark when she went to Edinburgh, where her lodgings were, at the foot of Blackfriars-wynd, eighty lighted torches were carried before her. In dignity she was next to the Queen.

The village of Roslin was erected into a burgh of barony by King James II. at Stirling, June 13th 1456, with a weekly market on Saturday; a yearly fair on the feast of St Simon and Jude, a market cross; &c. The same is confirmed by King James VI. January 16th 1622, and by King Charles I. May 6th 1640.

The Princely Founder and Endower of this Chapel died about 1484, before the Chapel was finished; which was done by his eldest son of the second marriage, Sir Oliver St Clair of Roslin, whose mother was Lady Marjory

Sutherland, descended of the d-royal, her great grand mother Bruce being younger daughter King Robert Bruce. So that the King of this glorious edifice, wearing of a crowned head, though the crown of a subject has employed at least forty years; and it is a pity we cannot now come to the knowledge of the total expence, which must have been a very great sum in those days. The father was alive for certain in 1476, as we find him granting charters on September the 9th of that year, to his son the foresaid Sir Oliver.

Review of Boswell's Life of Dr Johnson: (Concluded from our last.)

our last we endeavoured to give our readers a general view of the character and talents of Dr Johnson, of this history of his life by Mr Boswell. We proceed now to give an account of both, a little more in detail.

The present work does not seem essentially different from those formerly published on the same subject, in the narrative of Johnson's birth, childhood, education, or introduction into the world. We may except the important circumstance of the present Biographer's setting the world right as to the Epitaph on the Duck, one of a kind of eleven, which he trod to death when a child of about three years old;

Here lies good master duck,
That Samuel Johnson trod on;
If it had liv'd 'twould been good luck,
For then there had been an odd one.

Which Sir John Hawkins and Mr Boswell had attributed to the child himself; but which Mr Boswell, with regard to the Lady's sagacity, gives as the true author, the father. Mr Boswell is a good deal more particular than his predecessors, in his account of Johnson's life and employments after his arrival in London, where he earned a scanty and precarious subsistence, by writing chiefly for the Editor of the *Gentleman's*

Magazine. There is something curious and interesting in this detail of early authorship; whoever recollects the avidity with which, in the latter days of his celebrity, his company was sought, will read with a very peculiar feeling the subscription to one of his letters to Cave.

"Your's, *impransus*,
SAM. JOHNSON."

There is, we believe, scarce a great or a rich man so unfeeling as not to wish that Johnson had found at his table the dinner which he was that day obliged to go without.

Johnson, however, looked for no patron but the booksellers, whose interest was equally concerned with his own, in the production and success of his works; and amidst the difficulties and distresses of his situation, he preserved a degree of patience, fortitude, and independence which men of genius and of letters have too often failed to possess. His letter to Lord Chesterfield, on the subject of his Dictionary, now first published, affords an example equally of the manliness of his feelings, and of his power of expressing them.

To the Right Hon. the Earl of CHESTERFIELD

"MY LORD,
Feb. 1755.
I have been lately informed, by the proprietor of the *World*, that two papers, in which my Dictionary is recommended

recommended to the public, were written by your Lordship. To be so distinguished, is an honour which, being very little accustomed to favours from the great, I know not well how to receive, or in what terms to acknowledge.

“ When, upon some slight encouragement, I first visited your Lordship, I was overpowered, like the rest of mankind, by the enchantment of your address; and could not forbear to wish that I might boast myself *Le vainqueur du vainqueur de la terre*; that I might obtain that regard for which I saw the world contending; but I found my attendance so little encouraged, that neither pride nor modesty would suffer me to continue it. When I had once addressed your Lordship in public, I had exhausted all the art of pleasing which a retired and uncourtly scholar can possess. I had done all that I could; and no man is well pleased to have his all neglected, be it ever so little.

“ Seven years, my Lord, have now past, since I waited in your outward rooms, or was repulsed from your door; during which time I have been pushing on my work through difficulties, of which it is useless to complain, and have brought it, at last, to the verge of publication, without one act of assistance, one word of encouragement, or one smile of favour. Such treatment I did not expect, for I never had a patron before.

“ The shepherd in Virgil grew at last acquainted with love, and found him a native of the rocks.

“ Is not a patron, my Lord, one who looks with unconcern on a man struggling for life in the water, and, when he has reached ground, encumbers him with help? The notice which you have been pleased to take of my labours, had it been early, had been kind; but it has been delayed till I am indifferent, and cannot enjoy it; till I am solitary; and cannot impart it; till I am known; and do not want

it. I hope it is no very cynical apathy, not to confess obligations where no benefit has been received, or to be unwilling that the public should consider me as owing that to a Patron which Providence has enabled me to do for myself.

“ Having carried on my work thus far with so little obligation to any favourer of learning, I shall not be disappointed though I should conclude it, if less be possible, with less; for I have been long wakened from that dream of hope, in which I once boasted myself with so much exultation,

“ My Lord,

“ Your Lordship's most humble,

“ Most obedient servant,

“ SAM. JOHNSON.”

In tracing the earlier part of Johnson's literary life, one cannot but take notice of the ease and facility with which he wrote. He could apply his mind to any subject which the occasion of the moment required, and the thoughts which its consideration prompted he had always more than enough of words to express. If there was not always genius or feeling in his compositions, there was at least a considerable share of sense and acuteness, and in this business-sort of composition he had one advantage over those who write from the voluntary inspiration of particular moments, that ‘ whenever he sat doggedly down to write,’ as he expressed it, he could write. The multiplicity of his performances, the extent of his manufacture (for the phrase may well be allowed to this case), will surprise the reader. He wrote, like a special pleader of the Inns of Court, whatever he was see'd to write; Sermons for Clergymen, Dedications for Authors, Prefaces and Accounts of New Works for Booksellers. His favourite maxim always was, that none but blockheads ever wrote from any other motive than that of getting money; its absurdity and injustice are allowed even by Mr Boswell;

Boswell; but his friend never gave himself the trouble to consider them. Johnson, indeed, had in every thing the true confidence of a bigot; he determined from his own creed, and had no scruples about its inconsistency with reason or with justice.

The plan of this work, when it comes down to the periods of the writer's acquaintance with the subject of it, is to give a journal or diary of Johnson's life, as far as Mr Boswell had an opportunity of witnessing it.—He traces him through every hour of his time, and every word of his conversation.

The following will serve as a specimen of this manner which Mr Boswell, with considerable self-approbation and applause (*Vid.* his Preface) has adopted:

"On Thursday, April 9 I called on him to beg he would go and dine with me at the Mitre tavern. He had resolved not to dine at all this day. I know not for what reason: and I was so unwilling to be deprived of his company, that I was content to submit to suffer a want, which was at first some what painful, but he soon made me forget it; and a man is always pleased with himself when he finds his intellectual inclinations predominant.

"He observed, that to reason too philosophically on the nature of prayer, was very unprofitable.

"Talking of ghosts, he said, he knew one friend, who was an honest man and a sensible man, who told him he had seen a ghost, old Mr Edward Cave the printer at St John's Gate. He said, Mr Cave did not like to talk of it, but seemed to be in great horror whenever it was mentioned. *Boswell*, 'Pray, Sir, what did he say was the appearance?' *Johnson*. 'Why, Sir, something of a shadowy being.

"I mentioned witches, and asked him what they properly meant? *Johnson*. 'Why, Sir, they properly mean those who make use of the aid of evil

spirits." *Boswell*. "There is no doubt, Sir, a general report and belief of their having existed." *Johnson*. "Sir you have not only the general report and belief, but you have many voluntary solemn confessions." He did not affirm any thing positively upon a subject which it is the fashion of the times to laugh at as a matter of absurd credulity: He only seemed willing, as a candid inquirer after truth, however strange and inexplicable, to shew that he understood what might be urged for it.

"On Friday, April 10. I dined with him at General Oglethorpe's, where we found Dr Goldsmith.

"Armorial bearings having been mentioned, Johnson said, they were as ancient as the siege of Thebes, which he proved by a passage in one of the tragedies of Euripides.

"The General told us, that when he was a very young man, I think only fifteen, serving under Prince Eugene of Savoy, he was sitting in a company at table with a Prince of Wirtemberg. The Prince took up a glass of wine, and, by a slip, made some of it fly in Oglethorpe's face. Here was a nice dilemma. To have challenged him instantly, might have fixed a quarrelsome character upon the young soldier:—to have taken no notice of it might have been considered as cowardice. Oglethorpe, therefore, keeping his eye upon the Prince, and smiling all the time, as if he took what his Highness had done in jest, said, "*Mon Prince*."—(I forget the French word he used, the purport however was.) "That's a good joke; but we do it much better in England;" and threw a whole glass of wine in the Prince's face. An old General who sat by, said, "*Il a bien fait, mon Prince, vous l'avez commence*;" and thus all ended in good humour.

"Dr Johnson said, "Pray, General, give us an account of the siege of Bender." Upon which the General, pouring

Pouring a little wine upon the table, described every thing with a wet finger: "Here were we; here were the Turks," &c. &c. Johnson listened with the closest attention."

From this conversation, which we have selected merely from its being of a manageable length, our readers may form a pretty fair idea both of the execution of this work, and of that sort of picture which it exhibits of its subject.

But they would hardly suppose, without our telling them, that amongst the *memorabilia* of Johnson in these vols. are several papers written by him, in causes depending before the Court of Session in Scotland, in which Mr Boswell was counsel. For Johnson was a writing machine, whose powers could act on any given subject, without being at all disturbed by want either of the knowledge or inclination which other people might think necessary for treating it. Most readers, we believe, will be of the same mind, with regard to those legal arguments of the Dr's, with our good Judges of the Court of Session, one of whom, Mr Boswell says, told him, that giving in such papers to them was "casting pearls before swine." 'Tis with a peculiar *naiveté* that Mr Boswell introduces this story, by saying, that he tells it from his regard for the good law precept "*suum cuique tributo*," Give every one his due.

This dramatic method of writing may easily account for the size of the book, and the many unnecessary and unimportant pages which it contains. Nor do we think a view of a character thus exhibited a favourable or a fair one. Who is so blameless in conduct, so equal in temper, so guarded in expression, as not to do and say many little things which are faulty and ludicrous? Of all men, perhaps, Johnson was the most unfit for this over-curious exposure of his life and conversation. With a constitution

both of body and mind, distempered, nervous, and irritable: always open on the side of that vanity which the club of admirers with whom he lived tended so much to strengthen and increase, and unrestrained by the nicer decorums of society, which early good company alone can teach, his weaknesses had every incitement to their growth, and were not repressed like those of other men, by the fear of offending, or the desire of conciliating those around him.

In the life of Johnson there is another circumstance which renders this mode of relating it rather unfair to others as well as to him. His conversation was almost always polemical; he and his friends met in their symposium, like gladiators of old in the *Arena*; not for an amicable communication of sentiment, but to exercise their wit and their eloquence in perpetual contest. The victory was almost always Johnson's; but, in relating his victories, Mr B. must, at the same time, record the defeats of his opponents, which to some of them may not be a pleasant recollection.

Mr Boswell, however, to do him justice, is perfectly disinterested and impartial. He relates with equal fidelity the buffetings and chastisements he received himself, as those which were inflicted on any of the other gentlemen and ladies who shared in the *delights* of Johnson's company and conversation. In their various journeys and adventures in England and Scotland, poor Mr B. experienced somewhat of the fate of another equally factitious squire and companion.— He received stripes like *Sancho*, but they were not laid on by himself; like *Sancho's*, however, they were to have their reward; they were to be recorded in a *book*, and to be transmitted, (as *Don Quixote* says, for a consolation to his faithful attendant) along with the fame of his illustrious master, to distant posterity.

Mr

Mr Boswell does not seem always to perceive the effect which his narrative will be likely to produce on its readers, in his commendations of Johnson, either as an author or a man. For we do not suspect him of irony when he quotes the following example, (p. 162.) 'of that wonderful perspicuity with which Johnson has expressed abstract scientific notions?' 'When the radical idea branches out into parallel ramifications, how can a consecutive series be formed of senses in their own nature collateral.' He certainly is serious when he tells us, that it has been of late the fashion to depreciate the style of Addison in comparison with that of Johnson. What idea does Mr Boswell annex to the word *Fashion*? In this instance, he probably means by it the opinion of three or four of Dr Johnson's London encomiasts. During the life of the Doctor the word *Fashion* probably meant in Mr Boswell's Vocabulary the opinion of that great man alone. At that period, he might have said it was the fashion to prefer *Goldsmith* as an historian to *Robertson*, to hold *Gray* a dull poet, who had only written eight good lines in his life, *Swift* a silly and common-place writer, and *Fielding* a blockhead and a barren fellow. That vanity which, in the beginning of this account, we observed to be the leading weakness in Johnson's character, produced, in one of its worst modifications, this absurdity in his criticisms. He could allow mediocrity its proportionate praise; but excellence, in whatever department of literature, seldom had his willing suffrage. Even Mrs Montague, who had done much to conciliate the favour of literary men, because her "Essay on Shakespeare" was a popular performance, did not escape him; and Mr Boswell, who declares himself one of the admirers of that essay, faithfully records all the contemptuous abuse which Johnson poured out against it. In this manner, indeed, he often gives his illustrious

friends opinion, qualified with a declaration of his own dissent from it; following the model of the amiable Mrs *Candour* in the School for Scandal, 'Every body says so, to be sure; but for my part I don't believe a word on't.'

To all these criticisms on the present performance, there is, however, a short and easy answer: Mr Boswell had kept a journal of Dr Johnson's conversation, and he gives it to the world, 'with all its imperfections on its head.' He mentions a very proper advice which Mr Colman gave him on his introducing the subject of belief in the *second sight*. 'Dr Johnson, said his biographer, is only willing to believe, I do believe. The evidence is enough for me, though not for his great mind. What will not fill a quart bottle will fill a pint bottle. I am filled with belief.'—'Then cork it,' replied Colman. But Mr Boswell is no churl of his liquor, such as it is; he pours it out, froth and dregs and all; and whoever has money, and inclination for the purchase, may procure these two large bottles of it. Double bottles, Mr Boswell somewhere informs his readers, are in Scotland called *Magnum Bonum*. The *Magnum*, in the present case, every body must allow; the *Bonum* some fastidious readers may be inclined to dispute.

A Tour through Italy; containing full directions for travelling in that interesting country; with ample catalogues of every thing that is curious in architecture, painting, sculpture, &c. By T. Martyn, F. R. S.—— Kearsley, London, 1791.

The title of this book expresses sufficiently its contents. It does not profess to describe the manners or customs of the inhabitants of Italy, but to give a distinct and accurate account of the objects which are best worth the traveller's attention.

The Hirschberg Tailor; a Tale.

[TO understand the following tale, which is extracted from the "Popular Tales of the Germans," it is necessary to premise, that Number-Nip is a cant name given to a spirit supposed to haunt the giant mountains in Silesia. This spirit having been crossed in love, retired for a long time from the world, but at last returned to those mountains with an intention of wreaking his vengeance on the human race. Our extract represents him apostrophising mankind at the moment of his return.]

"VILE earthworm!" the spirit cried, as he lifted up his eyes, and beheld from the lofty pinnacle of the rock the spires of churches and cloisters rising from the bosom of many a city; "thou still crawlest, I see, in the vale below. Thy craft and cunning has once made mock of me: now thou shalt pay for thy triumph; I will pinch and plague thee, till thou quake at the mention of the mountain spirit."

He had scarce uttered these words, when his ear was struck with the sound of human voices at a distance. Three young companions were chatting as they crossed the mountain; the boldest of them crying out incessantly, "Number-Nip, come down! Number-Nip, thou thief, that scalest helpless girls!" The scandalous chronicle had faithfully preserved the love-affair of the spirit; and as it had passed from mouth to mouth, it had gained, as is usually the case, a number of false additions: every traveller that passed the mountain entertained his fellow with the particulars. A thousand stories of apparitions had been invented, to the great terror and dismay of the faint-hearted wanderer, though they were totally groundless; and the free-thinkers, wits, and philosophers, who in broad day-light, and in a large company, have no faith in ghosts, and even presume to make merry at their expense, were accustomed, either from the desire of shewing their courage, or in mere wantonness, to invoke the Gnome by his nick-name, and make very free with his conduct. It had never been known that any of these insults had been revenged by the patient and long-suffering spirit; and no wonder, for he could not hear a word of them in the depths of the earth where he held his residence. He was now so much the more struck at hearing the whole reproachful tale so comprehensively repeated; and down he came roaring like a whirlwind through the gloomy forest of firs, with a full intention to strangle the poor wretch on the spot, for making so free with his history, though it was entirely without any design to give offence: but he seasonably bethought himself, that so exemplary and so a correction would raise a great alarm and out-ry in the country, which might de-

ter travellers from passing the mountain, whence he would lose all opportunity of playing his projected pranks upon mankind. He therefore suffered the insolent bawler and his companions to pass quietly along for the present, with a firm resolution, however, not to suffer him to be at the trouble of calling upon him in vain.

At the next cross road our merry-maker parted from his messmates, and for this time arrived at Hirschberg with a sound skin: but an irrisible attendant followed him to his inn, that he might know where to find him again in due season. Number-Nip returned upon his footsteps to the mountain, thinking all the while upon the means of gratifying his revenge. On the road he chanced to meet a rich Israelite, travelling also towards Hirschberg; whom he immediately determined to employ as the instrument of his vengeance. He therefore joined the Jew in the shape of the wafton spark that had insulted him. Number-Nip entered into a friendly conversation with the stranger; and, in the mean time, took an opportunity to lead him insensibly out of the way. When they found themselves entangled among the thickets, the Jew was alarmed at feeling himself seized by the beard, which the ruffian pitiously tore, threw him on the ground, tied his hands and feet, and robbed him of a purse full of gold and jewels. The foot-pad having moreover, by way of a farewell benediction, bestowed a shower of blows and kicks upon him, went his way, leaving the poor plundered Jew in utter despair of his life, and actually half dead among the brambles.

When Aaron had a little recovered from his fright, and perceived that there was yet life remaining in him, he began to whine and to call aloud for help, for he was afraid of being starved to death in that remote wilderness. His outcries soon brought to the spot where he lay a respectable grave-looking personage, in appearance a burges of some of the neighbouring towns. Having enquired into the cause of his distress, and how he came to lie bound so far out of the road, he kindly took the cords from his hands and feet, and performed all the offices of humanity which the good Samaritan, in the gospel, shewed to the man who had fallen among thieves. He recruited his spirits with an exhilarating cordial, which he, by good luck, happened to have in his pocket, accompanied him back to the highway as obligingly as the angel did young Tobias, till he had brought him to the door of the inn at Hirschberg; where, after giving him a piece of money for his immediate necessities, he took his leave. How was the Jew thunder-struck at seeing, on his entrance, the very ruffian who had robbed and

and bound him sitting at table in the kitchen, as cool and unconcerned as if his conscience had been burthened with no crime! He had before him a pint of the country wine, and was cracking his jokes with a set of jovial companions: beside him lay the very wallet in which he had seen his purse stolen. The astonished descendant of Abraham was doubtful at first, whether he should trust his eyes; he therefore slipped into a corner, and held a counsel with himself in what manner he should proceed to recover his rightful property. He thought he could not possibly have mistaken the person; so he passed out unobserved at the door, and carried his information straight to the bailiff of the town.

The Hirschberg corporation had, in those days, the character of administering justice speedily—whenever there was a prospect of the fees being well and duly paid. But whenever it was a case of mere duty and conscience, then dame Justice went her snail's pace at Hirschberg as at other places. The experienced Israelite was well apprised of both her paces: he therefore bent the magistrate's attention, who hesitated to take the information, towards the shining *corpus delicti*; the golden prospect very soon worked out a warrant of apprehension. The beadles having well armed themselves with prongs and clubs, surrounded the inn, seized the innocent culprit, and carried him before the rails of the council-chamber, where the sapient fathers of the borough had, in the-mean time, assembled.—“Who art thou?” demanded the grave bailiff as the criminal entered; “and whence comest thou?” He answered openly and untrifled, “I am an honest tailor by trade; my name is Benedick: I come from Liebenaw, and work journey-work here with my master.”

“Hast thou not fallen upon this Jew in the wood, with a design to murder him; and dost thou not maltreat him, and take his purse?”

“I never beheld this Jew with my eyes before: I have neither struck, nor bound, nor robbed him of his purse; I am an honest handicraftsman, and no highway robber.”

“How canst thou prove thy honesty?”

“By the contents of my wallet, and the testimony of my clear conscience.”

“Open thy wallet, and let us see what it contains.”

Benedick set about opening his package in great confidence, being well assured that it contained nothing but his own honestly-acquired property. But as he was turning over his linen, behold something jingled like gold amongst the things that were emptied out. The beadles snatched at it with great eagerness; and after poring among

Benedick's sundries, they drew forth an heavy purse, which the overjoyed Jew immediately claimed as his property; after the dues of justice—understand—should be deducted. The poor culprit was thunderstruck at the discovery: he was ready to drop down with fear; he turned pale about the nose; his lips quivered, his knees trembled, and he was unable to utter a word in his defence. The magistrate's brow lowered more and more; and the darkness of his countenance prognosticated a severe sentence.

“How now, villain! hast thou still confidence to deny the robbery?”

“Mercy! good Mr Bailiff,” cried the weeping criminal, as he dropped on his knee, and lifted up his hands; “I call all the saints in heaven to witness that I am innocent of the robbery: God knows how the Jew's purse came into my wallet—God above only knows it.”

“All denial is now in vain, thou art clearly convicted,” proceeded the bailiff; the purse is a sufficient proof of thy guilt: therefore give satisfaction to God and the magistracy, and freely confess, before the rack comes to extort an acknowledgment of thy crime.”

Benedick, quite overpowered by these suspicious circumstances, could only make protestations of his innocence: but he piped to the deaf; he was put down for an hardened raganussin, that wanted but to swear his neck out of the halter. The inquisitorial machinery was called in to persuade him, by the rhetoric of iron arguments, to do honour to God and the magistracy, by confessing away his own life. At the terrible appearance of the new orator, the calmness proceeding from his purity of conscience deserted the poor tailor: he started back at the idea of the sufferings that awaited him. As the officer was going to fix the thumb-screws, having considered that the operation would render him ever afterwards unfit to brandish the needle with alreth, he thought it better to slip the pain altogether, rather than be a ruined man for life: so he fathered the crime of which his heart was innocent. The trial was brought to a speedy issue, the convict was unanimously sentenced, without prorogation of the court, to be hanged; and, to keep up the credit of a speedy administration of justice, as well as for the sake of saving the cost of maintenance, the sentence was ordered to be executed early next morning.

The crowd of spectators, whom a trial for life and death had assembled, all applauded the sentence of the court as just and upright; yet none were observed to commend the integrity of the judges so loudly as the tender-hearted Samaritan, who had forced his way among the rest into court. He could not sufficiently express his admiration of the love of justice, which distinguished the worshipful

ful council of Hirschberg. In fact, no one was more nearly interested in the issue of the affair than this same philanthropist, for it was he whose invisible hand stuffed the Jew's purse into the tailor's knapsack, and he was in fact no other than Number-Nip himself. Early next morning he perched in the form of a raven on the gallows, in expectation of the cart that was to convey thither the victim of his vengeance: he already felt a raven's desire to pick out the eyes of the convict—but for this time he waited for his prey in vain. A pious brother, who set a very different value on the efficacy of a death-bed repentance from some of our modern divines, and who was zealous to embalm every malefactor he prepared for death with the spice of holiness, found in the un instructed Benedict so rough and unhewn a log, that he thought it impossible, in the short space allotted for the business of prayer and admonition, to carve a decent saint out of it. He therefore solicited a respite of three days, and obtained it, though not without great difficulty, by appealing to the piety of the magistracy, and holding forth severe denunciations of the displeasure of mother church, if it should be refused. Number-Nip, hearing of this delay, flew away to his mountain, there to abide the term of the respite.

During the interval, he amused himself by traversing his woods according to custom: in one of his excursions he espied a youthful damsel sitting under a spreading beech. Her chin was sunk in melancholy on her bosom, and she supported her head with her snow-white arm: her dress was not costly, but it was clean, and the cut was in the town fashion. From time to time she wiped away a tear that stole down her cheek, and deep sighs issued from her heaving bosom. The Gnome had formerly felt the powerful influence of a virgin's tears: he was again so touched with them, as to make the first deviation from the rule he had laid down to himself, viz. to plague and pinch every descendant of Adam, whom ill fortune should lead to cross the mountain: he even acknowledged the sentiment of compassion to be a kindly feeling, and was irresistibly bent upon consoling the afflicted beauty. He put on the appearance of a reputable burgher, and advancing towards her, enquired, "Why art thou sitting here alone, my girl, in this melancholy mood? Do not hide the occasion of thy sorrow from me, that I may consider if there be any method of relieving it."

The maiden, who had been quite absorbed in grief, started on hearing a voice so near her, and lifted up her downcast face. Ah! what a languishing pair of blue eyes peeped that moment from under her hat! truly their mild dewy light was enough to

melt an heart of steel. In each a bright tear-drop sparkled like a diamond; the whole of the damsel's lovely face was deeply expressive of affliction, which served but to heighten the soft charms of her Madonna features. Seeing that it was a respectable looking person who addressed her, she opened her rosy mouth, and said, "Why should you trouble yourself to enquire about my sorrow, good Sir, since there is no help for me? I am an unhappy guilty girl, no better than a murderer's: for have I not murdered the man of my heart? But I will never cease to rue my fault: sighs and tears shall be my portion, till my burning heart put an end to my grief."

The grave personage looked amazed. "Thou a murderer's! with that heavenly face, dost thou carry hell in thy heart? impossible!—Mankind are indeed capable of all deceit and wickedness, that I well know; but here I am puzzled."

"I will solve the riddle," returned the afflicted maiden, "if you have any desire to have an explanation."

"Say on!"

"I had for a play-fellow, from my youth up, the son of a virtuous widow, my neighbour. He chose me for his sweetheart as he grew older—he was so good and kind, so honest and faithful, loved me so constantly and dearly, that he stole away my heart, and I vowed everlasting fidelity to him: Alas, like a snake, I have poisoned the bosom of the dear youth! I have made him forget the good lessons of his virtuous mother, and put him upon a deed, for which he has forfeited his life to the law!"

"Thou!" cried the Gnome emphatically.

"Yes, Sir, I am his murderer's! I instigated him to commit an highway robbery: he plundered a knavish Jew; the gentlemen of Hirschberg have apprehended, convicted, and condemned him; and to-morrow, alas! he is to suffer."

"And hast thou been guilty of this crime?" cried the astonished sprite.

"Yes! Sir, I feel his young blood lying upon my conscience."

"How so?"

"He went upon the tramp beyond the mountain; at setting out, as he had his arms clasped round my neck, and was bidding me farewell, My dearest girl, he said, remember and be true to me: when the apples are in blossom the third season from this, and the swallow is loaded with a burden of straws for her nest, expect me back to fetch thee home, that I may make thee my youthful bride—and such I promised you to be by a solemn oath. Now when the apples were in blossom, and the swallow was building her nest the third time, back came Benedict, reminded me of

my

nise, and would fain make me his bride. But I laughed and sneered as heedless girls often serve their nrs. Thy wife, said I, I cannot be; has room but for one, and thou hast roof nor hearth; get thyself first ring crowns, and then come and bid me, fighting deeply, while the old in his eyes, does thy heart lust with and riches? then thou art no sincere and tender girl. Didst thou the bargain in my hand the time press to be true to me? and what more than that self-same hand to thee? whence comes thy pride? Ah! Clara, I understand thee. Her rival has stolen away thy heart. Is it thus thou repayest me, faith? For these three years have I lived that this good hour would come. I every hour till the moment I set forth thee home. How light and all love and joy make my feet as I to mountains! and now dost thou?—He begged and prayed, but I my resolution. My heart does not see, Benedick, I only withhold my the present. Go abroad, get myself, then come back, and I will be bed with thee with all my heart. He replied he, much chagrined, if thy resolution, I will go into the world, where I will run, leap, beg, scrape, and hoard; and never see thee again till I have the trash I am to buy thee. Farewell! I said.—In this manner did I torture my sick. He went away in great vexation his good angel forsook him, so good that was not right, and which sorely abhorred."

"And did the venerable person shook in great apparent concern; and after a considerable pause exclaimed, with a sul countenance, "Surprising this!" turned towards the young woman; "hy," said he, "dost thou fill the world with thy lamentation, which can help thee nor thy sweetheart." "As on my way to Hirschberg; as I long sorrow fell heavy upon my I stopped under this tree."

"What wilt thou do at Hirschberg?"

"I cast myself at the judge's feet, beseeches with my outcries, and invite the citizens of the town to help me to emigrate. The magistrates may take the innocent, and spare his life; so not succeed in saving my loved one from death, I will cheerfully die."

"He was so moved at this speech,

that he renounced all thoughts of vengeance from that moment, and determined to restore her guiltless sweetheart to the inconsolable daniel. "Dry up thy tears," said he, in a sympathizing voice, "and let thy sorrow pass away. Thy lover shall be as free as the birds of the air before the sun goes to rest. Listen and be attentive.—Tomorrow, at the first crowing of the cock, when thou hearest a tapping at thy window, make haste, open the chamber-door, for it will be Benedick that knocks. Take care thou dost not make him mad again by thy caprice. Know also that it was not he who committed the crime of which thou supposest him guilty; nor can any blame be imputed to thee, for he did not suffer himself to be instigated by thy capriciousness to this foul crime."

The girl, in astonishment at this information, looked her comforter full in the face: and not being able to discern the wrinkle of scorn or deceit, she placed confidence in his words; her clouded brow cleared up, and in a tone of doubting gladness she returned, "Good Sir, if you be not mocking me, and it be even as you say, you must either be a peer, or my sweetheart's good angel, since you know every thing so exactly."

"His good angel!" returned the Gnome, a good deal disconcerted at the idea; "no, in truth that I am not! but his good angel I will be, as thou shalt find. I am a burgher of Hirschberg, when the poor criminal was condemned I sat at council; but his innocence has since been brought to light; fear not for his safety, I will go and take off his fetters, for I have much authority in the town. Be of good cheer therefore, and return home in peace." The daniel arose, and obeyed, though fear and hope still struggled in her soul.

During the three days of respite, the reverend father Greyfrock had wrestled hard to bring the delinquent into an orthodox frame of mind: he was anxious to snatch his soul from the jaws of hell, to which, in his opinion, it had been pledged from the hour of his birth: for honest Benedick was an ignorant layman; he understood better by half how to handle the needle and sheery than the rosary. He perpetually confounded the Salutation and the Lord's Prayer; and of the Belief he knew not a syllable.—The zealous monk was at incredible pains before he could teach him the latter—the task required two full days. When he made him repeat, and the memory of the poor sinner did not play him false, a thought of earthly things, and an half-uttered sigh, "Ah, poor Clara!" would come across the lesson in the middle. In religious polity, the holy brother therefore found it advisable to make hell piping hot for the lost sheep.

sheep; and so well did he succeed in the fiery representation, that Benedick broke out into a deadly cold sweat, and to the pious joy of his missionary, Clara in his anguish was clean obliterated from his thoughts. But the idea of hellish torments that hung over his head pursued him incessantly—goat-footed devils with huge horns, busy thrusting stark-naked squadrons of damned souls into the monstrous crater of the infernal volcano with long poles and hooks, continually danced before his eyes! The zealous friar himself was a little touched with his spiritual pupil's mental horrors; and he thought it no violation of ecclesiastical prudence, to drop the curtain over the infernal scene and diabolical performers: he however heated the smelting furnaces of Purgatory so much the hotter; and poor Benedick was but little comforted by the exchange.

"Thy crime," said he, "my son, is indeed grievous; do not however despair, the flames of purgatory will purify thee from the stain. Oh! well is thee, and happy is it for thee that thy offence was not committed against a true believer; for then thou wouldest be forced to remain for a thousand years up to the neck in the boiling brimstone pool. But as thou hast only robbed a perverse and rejected Jew, an hundred years will make thee as bright as refined silver; and I will say so many masses for thy soul, that thou shalt not sink below the wait in the unextinguishable lava."

Now although Benedick was perfectly conscious of his innocence, yet had he such firm faith in the power of his confessor's key to bind and unbind, that he placed no dependence upon the re-hearing of his cause in the world to come; and fear of the rack deterred him from the thought of appealing in this world. He therefore had no resource but in supplication: he sued for mercy at the hands of his spiritual Rhadamanthus, and endeavoured to negotiate away as much of the torments of purgatory as possible. By these entreaties the rigid penitentiary was propitiated so as to sink him only knee-deep in the fire bath: and thus the affair rested, for in spite of all his lamentations, the priest refused to abate an hair's breadth more.

The inexorable inflictor of penance now fade the inconsolable delinquent good night for the last time; and as he was going out at the goal door, Number-Nipin an invisible form met him. He had not yet fixed upon any plan for emancipating the criminal:—which he wished to accomplish in such a manner as not to spoil the satisfaction felt by the Hirschberg aldermen, in exercising an act of their antiquated criminal jurisdiction; their prompt execution of justice had indeed brought them into good repute with him.

At that instant, a scheme exactly suited to his taste suggested itself. He slipped after the friar into the monastery, took a gown out of the spiritual wardrobe, and proceeded in the similitude of brother Greyfrock to the prison, which was respectfully opened to him by the keeper.

"The good of thy precious soul," said he to the prisoner, "has brought me back, tho' I had but just quitted thee. If thou hast any thing lying on thy conscience, unfold it, that I may comfort thee." "My reverend father," replied Benedick, "my conscience does not give me any uneasiness: but the thought of your purgatory squeezes my heart together, as though it was set between the thumb-screws." Friend Number-Nip had very imperfect and confused notions of the doctrines of the church; therefore he might easily be excused his *mal-a-propos* question, "How so?" "Alas!" replied Benedick, "think of wading so long in the fiery pool, up to the knees; Alas! father, the very idea distracts me!" "Why, fool!" returned Number-Nip, "then if thou thinkest the bath too warm for thee, keep out of it." Benedick, confounded at this reply, stared the priest so hard in the face, that he concluded he had made some egregious blunder; so he cut the conversation short—"Well, well, we will talk of this hereafter:—but dost thou ever think of Clara? dost thou still love her enough to make her thy bride? If thou hast any commands to her before thy departure hence, entrust them to me." Benedick was still more confounded at his sweetheart's name; the thoughts of Clara, which he had conscientiously been labouring to stifle, revived with so much vehemence, especially when the question was about his farewell message, that he began to sob and blubber aloud, without being able to utter a single syllable in reply. This heart-breaking scene affected the compassionate priest so much, that he resolved to finish it abruptly: "Poor Benedick," said he, "appease thy sorrow, and content thyself, thou shalt not die; I have learned that thou art innocent of the robbery, and that thou hast not defiled thy conscience with any crime! I am therefore come to break thy bonds, and release thee out of prison." Then drawing a key out of his pocket—"Let us see if it will fit." The experiment succeeded: the unfettered Benedick stood at liberty before him, the irons fell from his hands and feet. Then the benevolent priest exchanged clothes with him, and said, "Go quietly out, imitate the reverend pace of a monk as thou passest by the sentinel and along the streets; but when thou hast passed Weichbild, guard thy loins tight, and step briskly forward to the mountains; and see thou do not stop to fetch breath till thou stand before Clara's door in Liebenaw. There tap gently at the win-

dew:

by Clara is waiting for thee with expectation."

Good Benedick, conceiving all that to be a dream, rubbed his eyes, and his arms and legs, in order to be whether he was awake: when he convinced there was no illusion, he dropped at his deliverer's feet, and clasped his arms round his neck, and in his extacy of joy that his tongue was in his office. The benevolent priest at thrust him out by main force, and moreover a crust of bread and a cushion to eat by the way. The wretched convict crossed the threshold of the mansion with trembling knees, and fled on under lively apprehensions of detection: but his reverend gown dis- tinguished a favoury smell of piety, that the monks were incapable of winding the do- cument it covered.

During these transactions Clara was sitting in her chamber, hearkening to every gust of wind, and looking out at the tread of the foot that passed. She often imagined the wind thrirred at the window-shutter, or the door jingled; she leaped twenty times, and looked with a palpitating heart through the latch-hole—but in vain. The neighbouring cocks were rattling their feathers, and uttering their cry to proclaim the dawning day. The bell at the monastery had begun to ring, and thus, but to her the sound was of a bell. The watchman had blown his horn the last time, and called the snoring house maids to their early task. Clara's mind dim for want of oil, her apprehensions were increasing every instant, so she overlooked the favourable omen, appeared in the shape of a rose at the spring wick. She was seated on her knees, weeping and sighing bitterly, "Benedick! ah, what a sorrowful day, and mine is now dawning!"—She ran hastily to the window; but, alas! the clouds Hirschberg was blood red: clouds hung over the horizon, like so many shrouds and tatters of crape. Her trunk back at this ominous prospect; she lay down helpless on the floor, and a silence prevailed around her.

Then there came three gentle taps against her window, just as if it hailed. A thrill of joy ran along her frame at this found—up she sprang, uttering a loud cry; then a voice whispered through the latch-hole, "Sweet-heart! Clara! My love! art thou awake?" She darted like an arrow to the door: "Ah! Benedick, is it thee or thy ghost?" But seeing father Greyfrock enter instead of Benedick, she sunk backwards, and swooned away in despair. Benedick flung his faithful arm around her; and the kiss of love, the sovereign remedy against all hysterical fits, soon brought her to her senses.

As soon as the dumb scene of wonder, and the first glad effusions of the heart, were over, Benedick related his wonderful deliverance out of the dreary dungeon: but his tongue clave to the roof of his mouth from thirst and weariness. Clara went to fetch him a draught of fresh water: and when he had quenched his thirst, he felt hungry. She had nothing to offer him but salt and bread, the panacea of lovers, with which our faithful pair had hastily vowed to live content all the days of their lives. But Benedick, in spite of his vow, betought him of his pig's pudding. Clara went to fetch it, he secretly wondered at its prodigious weight, for it was heavier than a horse-shoe: as he broke it asunder, behold—a shower of gold tumbled out; whereupon a shuddering fit came upon Clara; she feared it was a relick of the Jew's plunder, and began to suspect Benedick was not so clear as the reverend burgher had represented him on the mountain. But the guileless journeyman protested that it was not so—'And probably,' he said, 'the pious friar had secretly lent him the sum for a marriage portion.' Clara believed his words. Then gratefully blessed their generous benefactor. They quitted their native town, and journeyed to Prague; where Benedick lived long and happy with Clara, his wife, as a reputable tradesman, and was blessed with a numerous progeny. The horror of the gallows was so deeply impressed upon his mind, that he never wronged his customers, strictly forbearing to cabbage a sherd, contrary to the established custom of his brethren of the goose.

Poetry.

RIENDSHIP, an Ode, by Dr Johnson.
 FRIENDSHIP, peculiar boon of heav'n,
 The noble mind's delight and pride,
 In angels only given,
 All the lower world deny'd.
 Unknown among the blest,
 Not of thousand wild desires,
 Rage and the human breast
 Moments alike with raging fires,

With bright, but oft destructive, gleams,
 Alike o'er all his lightnings fly;
 Thy lambent glories only beam
 Around the favourites of the sky.
 Thy gentle flows of guiltless joys
 On fools and villains ne'er descend;
 In vain for thee the tyrant sighs,
 And hugs a flatterer for a friend.

D. G. G. G.

Directress of the brave and just,
O guide us through life's darksome way!
And let the tortures of mistrust
On selfish bosoms only prey.

Nor shall thine ardours cease to glow,
When souls to blissful climes remove:
What rais'd our virtue here below,
Shall aid our happiness above.

COMMEMORATION SONG.

O 'ER the vine-cover'd hills and gay re-
gions of France
See the day-star of Liberty rise;
Thro' the clouds of detraction, unwearied,
advance,

And hold its new course thro' the skies.
An effulgence so mild, with a lustre so
bright,

All Europe, with wonder, surveys;
And from desarts of darkness, and dungeons
of night.

Contented for a share of the blaze.

Let Burke, like a bat, from its splendor re-
tire,

A splendor too strong for his eyes;
Let pedants, and fools, his effusions admire,
Intrapt in his cobwebs, like flies;
Shall Phrensy, and Sophistry, hope to pre-
vail

Where Reason opposes her weight;
When the welfare of millions is hung in
the scale,

And the balance yet trembles with fate?

Ah! who 'midst the horrors of night would
abide,

That can taste the pure breezes of morn;
Or who that has drank of the crystalline
tide,

To the feculent flood wou'd return?
When the bosom of beauty the throbbing
heart meets,

Ah who can the transport decline?
Or who that has tasted of Liberty's sweets,
The prize, but with life, wou'd resign?

—But 'tis over—high Heaven the decision
approves—

Oppression has struggled in vain:
To the Hell she has form'd Superstition
removes;

And Tyranny bites his own chain.
In the records of Time a new era unfolds—
All nature exults in its birth—

His Creation, benign, the CREATOR be-
holds,

And gives a New Charter to Earth.

O catch its high import, ye winds, as ye
blow!

O beat it, ye waves, as ye roll!
From regions that feel the Sun's vertical
glow,

To the farthest extremes of the Pole.
Equal Rights, Equal Laws, to the nations
around,

Peace and Friendship, its precepts impart;
And wherever the footsteps of Man shall
be found,
May he bind the decree on his heart.

O D E,

By PETER PINNAR, Esq.

“MAN may be happy, if he will:”
I've said it often, and I think so
still;

Doctrine to make the Million stare!
Know then, each mortal is an actual Jove;
Can brew what weather he shall most ap-
prove,

Or wind, or calm, or foul, or fair.

But here's the mischief—Man's an ass, I
say:

Too fond of thunder, lightning, storm, and
rain,

He hides the charming, chearful ray
That spreads a smile o'er hill and plain!
Dark, he must court the scull, and spade,
and shroud—

The mistress of his soul must be a Cloud!

Who told him that he must be cur'd on
earth?

The God of Nature?—No such thing.
Heav'n's whisper'd him the moment of his
birth,

“Don't cry, my lad, but dance and sing;
“Don't be too wise, and be an ape—
“In colours let thy soul be dress'd, not
“crape.

“Roses shall smooth Life's journey, and a-
“dorn;

“Yet, mind me—if, thro' want of grace,
“Thou meantst to sing the blessing in my
“face—

“Thou hast full leave to tread upon a
“thorn.

Yet some there are, of men I think the
worst,

Poor imps! unhappy if they can't be cur'd;
For ever brooding over Mis'ry's eggs,
As tho' Life's pleasure were a deadly sin;
Mousing forever for a gin
To catch their happiness by the legs.

Ev'n at a dinner, some will be unable'd,
However good the viands, and well dress'd;
They always come to table with a fowl,
Squint with a face of verjuice o'er each
dish,

Fault the poor flesh, and quarrel with the
fish,

Cause cook and wife, and, leathing, eat and
growl.

A cart load, lo! their stomachs steal,
Yet swear they cannot make a meal.
I like not the blue-devil-hunting crew!
I hate to drop the discommodated jaw!
O let me Nature's simple smile pursue,
And pick ev'n pleasure from a straw!

THE

Monthly Register

For JULY 1791.

FOREIGN INTELLIGENCE.

FRANCE.

History of the Flight and Capture of the KING.

FOR a considerable time the *Sieur* Bouille had been soliciting the King to quit Paris, where he fancied that imaginary dangers surrounded him with terror and inquiet, and he promised him in the departments where he commanded a public force, a peace and liberty of which he affected to believe he was deprived in the capital. The King resisted long: at length he yielded—and from that moment preparations were made for his departure.

On the 11th of June, the King, accompanied by the Queen alone, went at five o'clock to the house of Madame Rochereuil, one of the ladies in her service whose apartment communicated to a corridor by a staircase, and by a staircase also to the apartment of M. de Villequier. The Queen, after examining this apartment, and its communication with others, told Madame de Rochereuil, that she meant to employ her as one of the ladies of her bedchamber.

The King then desired to be conducted to the apartment of M. de Villequier, the door of which opened to the Prince's Court. He called for the key of this door. Madame de Rochereuil answered, that since the departure of M. de Villequier the door was always open, and the door at the bottom of the staircase, leading to the antichamber, only was shut.

On the 13th the King ordered the *Sieur* Renard, Inspector of the Buildings, to cause the key of the door of M. de Villequier's anti-chamber, and the key of the door of the little staircase leading from the apartments of Madame de Rochereuil, to be brought to him; which was done.

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On the 17th the *Sieur* Dumoutier, formerly of the Body Guard, walking in the garden of the Thuilleries, was accosted by a person unknown, who desired him to follow him to receive the King's orders. He followed this person, who introduced him to the King's chamber. The King ordered him to tell the *Sieurs* Maldan and Vallory, two of his former companions, to provide themselves with couriers dresses of a yellow colour. The King then directed him to walk on the quay of the Pont-Royal, and that there a person would make himself known to him, and communicate his further orders. The *Sieur* Dumoutier, after speaking to his two companions of the King's orders, did with them as he was directed, by a person also unknown.

On the 20th the *Sieur* Vallory went on horseback to Bondy, to bespeak post-horses for the King. The *Sieur* Dumoutier went the same day to the gate of St Martin, where there was a berlin with four horses. The *Sieur* de Maldan repaired to the Court of the Palace, at eleven at night, on the 20th, and was conducted into a closet, where he was shut up till midnight. A carriage with two horses drew up at eleven o'clock in the Prince's Court. A chaise from the hotel of Count Fersen, Colonel of the Royal Swedish Regiment, one of the principal agents in this enterprize, waited on the quay of Voltaire, at the extremity of the Pont-Royal. No change was made in the economy of the Royal household, the usual orders were given, and all retired to bed at the usual hour.

At half an hour past eleven, the Queen went into her daughter's chamber, and ordered the Lady of her Bedchamber to dress Madame Royale and conduct her to the Dauphin's apartment. Madame de Tourzel, who had received orders from the king in the course of the day,

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at the same time told Madame de Neuville, Lady of the Bed-chamber to the Dauphin, to dress him, and Madame Royale being come, went with her, the Dauphin, Madame Brugnier and Madame de Neuville to an apartment where they found the King, the Queen, Madame Elizabeth, and two persons unknown. One of these persons was directed to conduct Madame Brugnier, and Madame de Neuville, to the carriage at the Pont-Royal, whence they repaired to Clayes, according to their orders. The other conducted Madame de Tourzel, with the Dauphin, and Madame Royal, by the little stair-case to the Prince's Court, where a carriage was waiting for them. The carriage stopped at the end of the Caroussel, to wait for the rest of the Royal Family. Madame Elizabeth and the Queen arrived alone, and on foot, and were handed into the carriage by the driver. The King followed, attended by the Sieur Maldan, who got up behind the carriage, which then took the road to Bondy.

At the gate of St Martin, the Royal Family took a more convenient carriage, which was waiting for them. The same coachman was directed to drive them to Bondy, where the Sieur Vallory put the post horses he had provided to the carriage. At Clayes, the carriage with the Ladies of the Bed-chamber joined them, and the whole party proceeded to Varennes without any interruption.

They alighted several times at the different stages, conversed with those whom they met, and shewed the greatest appearance of security and confidence.

On Tuesday the 21st, at eleven o'clock at night, the post-master of Clermont came to M. late Marquis de Villec, now President of the district of that place. He told him that a courier had just passed who put three louis into his hand, and ordered eleven horses.

During his surprise at this generosity, a large voiture, very carefully shut up, arrived, and while he was harnessing the horses, a voice called out to him, "How far is it from here to Verdun?" "Three posts; this Foutte, and Varennes." M. de Damas went to the man who rode first, drew him on one side, and conversed with him in a very low voice. This air of mystery induced the postmaster to suppose that the voiture contained some persons of consequence.

The Municipality were therefore immediately informed of it, and the President went to assemble the Directory.

M. de Damas had ordered his dragoons to mount, whom the citizens had observed with some uneasiness in the course of the day, preparing their portmanteaus as for a journey. These dragoons were to flow in bringing out their horses, that the National Guard had time to assemble in arms; a circumstance which, though improbable, is confirmed by several persons, and which at the time very clearly shewed their unwillingness to obey their Colonel.

When the latter had placed himself at their head, the Guard opposed their departure. "Sir," said the Mayor to him, "Your precipitate conduct alarms the citizens; they say, that you are to protect the escape of the Queen. If this is true, we will oppose your departure; if it is not, you may go at day-break, which will be time enough. Then, addressing himself to the soldiers, "Friends," said he, "the safety of France is in your hands: Will you either kill your brethren in arms, or suffer them to fire upon you? We are about three hundred, resolved not to suffer you to pass."

The dragoons shewed some symptoms of irresolution. M. de Damas advanced in great anger; said, that they were not to receive commands from the Municipality; that he had superior orders; and shewed those from M. de Bouille, directing him to repair to Varennes. He ordered the dragoons to march. The Mayor presented his musket, "B——, if you advance one step, I will kill you."

M. de Damas ordered his men to dismount, made a feint of returning to his inn, and set off immediately by another road for Varennes, accompanied by two of his officers. In the mean time, the municipal officers had taken secure measures, had sounded the Tocin, possessed themselves of the passages, and cut down some small bridges.

One of the National Guard had fled with the utmost haste to Varennes, in order to give the alarm, and was surprised to find the King himself arrested. Dronet, the postmaster of St Monseigneur, had conceived some suspicions, in consequence of which, he set out immediately for Varennes. He communicated these suspicions to the landlord of the Golden Arms, the inn at which their Majesties had stopped, and persuaded him to detain the voiture.

He placed himself at the entrance of a passage which separates the upper from the lower town, and through which the carriage must go. It appeared he took

aim at the postilion, and ordered him to stop: "We are patriots," said the man, "let us pass." "Patriots or devils, shall not pass here: if you make one step I shall fire into the carriage."

The King bade the postilion dismount, and the innkeeper led the carriage back as quietly as possible. A messenger was dispatched to Vancourt, a neighbouring village, the inhabitants of which are a hardy race, chiefly nail-makers, and much accustomed to hunt in the neighbouring woods, so that every man had a gun. They possessed themselves of a bridge, which was not guarded by the hussars of Layon, quartered near it, and the National Guard, who fled to arms in an instant, filled the avenues to the bridge, and the quay of a rivulet, which was almost dry.

One Lauce, the *procureur-syndic*, said to a corps which he had got together, of about 50 ill-armed citizens "Neither you, nor I, are soldiers; but I think that, in case of an attack, four should stand in front, and a perpetual fire should be kept up by firing in divisions, each four retiring immediately after a discharge, and loading in the rear." They had two small field-pieces, but no cartridges, or ball for them.

After these dispositions Lauce, went to find the King, who still thought himself unknown. "Sir," said he, "As you may be detained here some time, accept of a more convenient lodging; permit me to conduct you to my house."

"But why may I not go? here is a great deal of tumult about a stranger; besides, you may see that I have a right to proceed." The King then shewed a passport signed Louis and Montmorin, for the Baronness de Korff, who was going to Frankfort, with two children, a valet-de-chambre, and two women. "Sir," said the man, "We are hear constantly upon our guard; we apprehend an incursion of the enemy; you hear the Tocsin; you cannot be safe before day."

The King, without discovering the least uneasiness, thanked M. de Lauce for his attentions; the Queen, and Madame Elizabeth, leaned upon his arm; the King took his children by the hand, and thus they proceeded to the house of the Sieur Lauce, who is a tallow-chandler, passed through his shop, and climbed into a small room above it. The King, with an air of content, asked for something to drink, and his host brought him some Burgundy, with some cheese.

His Majesty drank, begged his host to inform him concerning the situation of the town, said, that he had never tasted better liquor, and began a very familiar conversation with him. He interrogated him as to his office, the number of priests in the place, and asked where the Mayor was? "At the National Assembly." At these words the King, for the first time, shewed some indignation. "Have you a club here?"—"No, Sir."—"So much the better; these wretched clubs have destroyed France."

During this conversation, the King shewed some sort of restlessness and uneasiness, as if he was in a state of constant expectation. The Queen, at times, said a few words indistinctly. M. Lauce went out frequently, at the request of the King, to prevent a tumult, and assure the people that it was only a common traveller. Whenever he left the room, the King said, "Come back as soon as possible; I want you, your conversation is very acceptable." Once he said, "have you a bridge here?" Yes, Sir, but it is so encumbered with carriages, that you cannot pass it."—"Very well, then I can go over the ford."—"That is worse. I have already said, that we were in fear of the Austrians, and I have been obliged to fill the bed of the river with wolf-traps and spikes, so that no horse can pass it."—"But cannot you clear the bridge?"—Yes, I will go and give orders." In the mean time, the hussars had arrived at the bridge, and wished to pass it; but the peasants kept a good countenance, and prevented them. They retired without firing a musquet.

M. Lauce, who had amused the King, in order to give the National Guard time to arrive; perceiving now *that it rained men* (this is the expression) thought it time to tell his Majesty it was day-night, and that he must prepare to return to Paris.

Finding it impossible to dissemble any longer, the King threw himself in the arms of the Procureur of the community, and said, "I am your King, placed in the capital amid poignards and bayonets: I come to seek in the provinces, in the midst of my faithful subjects, the liberty and peace which you enjoy. I can remain no longer in Paris but at the risk of my life—my family's too," and he embraced those who stood around him. In vain they pressed him with tears in their eyes to return to the capital. The idea of danger, with which he was im-

Pressed deterred him. The Queen shared his fear, and in spite of the prayers of the citizens of Varennes, who represented to him the danger that he was bringing on the kingdom, he persisted in desiring to go to Montmedi, protesting that he did not mean to quit the kingdom, and that the National Guard might attend him.

In the mean time, twenty-five dragoons were traversing the place; and it is uncertain what part the hussars, who were making evolutions under the command of the Sieur Douglas would take. The cannon were placed at the extremities of the street, so as to place the detachment between two fires. The Sieur Douglas perceived the insufficiency of his force, and was going to bring a re-inforcement. The Major of the National Guard stopped him, and his aid-de-camp attempting to force a passage, made a blow at the the Major with his sabre, which he avoided, and discharged a pistol at the assailant, which wounded him in the shoulder. The aid-de-camp retreated. This took place in the sight of the hussars, who stood motionless, and immediately demanded an officer of the National Guard to head them. In an instant, "Live the King, the Nation, and the National Assembly!" resounded from all quarters.

A deputation of the National Assembly went to Varennes; upon the road they took what information they could collect—they took, at the same time, necessary measures, that the greatest order, the greatest tranquillity and safety, might accompany the return of the King.

They learnt that he was at Chalons, where a numerous body of the National Guard was assembled from the neighbouring departments. Desirous that the respect due to the Royal dignity should be constantly maintained, they gave orders that the troops of all descriptions should assemble wherever they should think necessary.

They stopped at Dormans, where they were informed that the King had quitted Chalons in his way to Epernay, but they learnt the alarming news that he was pursued—other accounts said, that without being pursued, endeavours were making to intercept his return and carry off his person.

In consequence of this, M. Damas, who accompanied them, took all the precautions necessary, that every such attempt might be repelled.

He placed considerable forces at every post, and they proceeded with the greatest rapidity to elude pursuit, very improbable, doubtless, but which it was prudent to guard against, as possible.

They met the King between Dormant and Epernay. They found in the carriage with the King, the Dauphin, the Queen, Madame Royal, daughter of the King, Madame Elizabeth, and Madame Tourlet, Governais to the Dauphin. They found upon the coach-box three persons, who told them their names were Valori, Dumotier, and Maldan, who had been all *Gardes du Corps*. They were dressed as Couriers.

There was a second carriage, in which were two women, who said their names were Madame Brigny, and Madame Fourville, the one *Fille de Chambre* to Madame Royal, and the other to the Dauphin.

One of them read to the King, the decree authorising their mission. The King answered in a very few words, and testified much sensibility on account of the precautions taken by the National Assembly for his safety, and for the maintenance of the Royal dignity. He besides said, he never had any intention of passing the limits of his kingdom.

The Royal family passed the night at Dormans, from whence they proceeded very slowly, many of the National Guard being on foot, to Meaux.

They wrote from Meaux to the President of the National Assembly, the Mayor, and the Commander of the National Guard at Paris, to intreat them to take the necessary measures to secure the public tranquillity upon the King's arrival, and to send a body of National Guards to guard the avenues upon his approach. When they joined the Royal Family, they addressed a proclamation to all the administrative bodies, in order to provide for the safety of the King's person. Every where they were received with the expressions of the greatest zeal and attachment to the public interest: every where prevailed the greatest tranquillity and order, united with the firmest courage.

They departed from Meaux at half past six. The number of the National Guards successively increased, not only of horsemen but of infantry. Their progress was obstructed by the immense concourse of citizens upon the road as they passed; so that they did not arrive in Paris till seven o'clock, where they placed
the

oyal Family; as well as the three *du Corps*, in the Palace of the *Arcis*, under the care of the Comant General."

On the 26th, the National Assembly decided, that three Commissioners should be appointed to hear the declarations of the King and Queen, to be taken separately, to be laid before the Assembly as a foundation for further proceedings. The following is that made by the

"I think it necessary, respecting the matter with which you are charged, to say to you; that I do not understand the King to interrogatories; but I will do, since the National Assembly has so ordered it, make public the motives which induced me to quit Paris;—They are the threats and outrages committed against my family and myself, and which have been circulated in different parts of the kingdom: and all these insults have remained unpunished. I thence thought it was neither safe nor proper for me to remain any longer in Paris; but, in leaving the capital, I never had an intention of going out of the kingdom. I conceived, on this subject, any agreement, or treaty, with the neighbouring Powers, either with my family, or with the French malcontents in foreign countries. My plan was to retire to Mont-medi; for which I had, previously, ordered apartments to be prepared for me there. As my town is well fortified, I thought I could not choose a better place for the residence of my family. Being near the frontier, I should have been more at hand to oppose every invasion of France which might be attempted. I should have been able to go, with more facility, to those places where my presence might be necessary. Another powerful motive for my retreat was, to put an end to the persecution of my not being at liberty. If my intention had been to go into any foreign country, I should not have published my memorial before my departure. I could have done it after I passed the frontier. Besides, should a knowledge of my intentions be desired in that particular, let the same memorial be consulted to the end of which will be seen how very much pleasure I promise to the Kings to join them again. As a corroboration of this, I had in my baggage only 12,000 livres in gold, and several in assignats. I declare, therefore, that I was not advised to this step by any person, and that I alone projected

and executed it. I informed Monsieur de it only on the evening of my departure; and it was agreed between us, that we should not pursue the same route. I gave orders to the three persons who were found with me to follow me:—the same evening one of them received my orders. The passport which I had with me was necessary to facilitate my journey, and the route for Franckfort was not even kept. I have made no other protestation than the memorial which I left behind me, and which has been published, in which there is no attack against the principles of the Constitution, but only against the form—the decrees not having been passed together, I could not do so with regard of their propriety. I experienced in my journey, that the public opinion was decidedly in favour of the Constitution. I did not believe that I could with certainty come at a knowledge of this fact at Paris. Convinced how much it was necessary to give force to the established powers, as soon as I knew the general will, I did not hesitate to make those sacrifices, which the welfare of the people, always the object of my wishes, required of me.

(Signed) LOUIS."

The above declaration was dictated by his Majesty, and committed to writing by one of the Commissioners. After the King had read it, and before signing it, he recollected having omitted to say "That the Government of his children was not informed of the journey till the moment of their departure."

Declaration of the QUEEN.

"I declare, that the King being desirous of quitting Paris with his children, nothing in nature could have dissuaded me from following him; for, that I never will consent to quit him, my whole conduct for these two years past has given sufficient proofs. I was confirmed in my determination to follow him, from the confidence and persuasion which I had, that he would never quit the kingdom. Had he been so inclined, all my influence would have been exerted to prevent him. The Government of my daughter, who had been indisposed for five weeks, did not receive orders to depart till the evening preceding.—She had not even taken any clothes with her.—I was obliged to lend her some.—She was absolutely ignorant of our destination. The three courtiers neither knew the destination nor the object of our journey.—They were supplied, from time to time,

with

with money upon the road, and received our orders as we proceeded. The two *femmes de chambre* did not receive orders till the moment of our departure.—One of them, whose husband was in the palace, had not an opportunity of seeing him. Monsieur and Madame separated from us, and took the road to Mons, only to avoid embarrassment, and to prevent delay from the want of horses upon the road.—They were to rejoin us in France. We went out of the palace by passing through the apartment of M. Villequier; and, that we might not be perceived, we went separately, and at some distance of time from each other.

(Signed) MARIE-ANTOINETTE."

July 5. The National Assembly was thrown into some confusion by M. de Foucauld, who wished to present a remonstrance relating, as was supposed, to the detention of the King, in order to prevent which, the sitting was precipitately broken up by the President.

The following is a copy of what he had to present:—

DECLARATION.

"Three months have scarcely elapsed since we Deputies undersigned, made known to our Constituents, our protest against a decree, which attacked the sacred principle of the inviolability of the King's person. The zeal with which many of us defended it on the 28th of March, the conviction which we entertained that it was impossible to violate with impunity this principle essential to all Monarchy, are too well justified by the afflicting spectacle of which we have the misfortune to be witness.

"The King and the Royal Family conducted as prisoners, by authority of the decrees of the National Assembly; the Monarch guarded in his palace by soldiers, not subject to his command; the Royal Family entrusted to a guard over whom the King has no authority; the right of directing the education of the Presumptive Heir to the Throne taken from him, who, both as King and Father, had the most undoubted right, and the strongest obligation to direct it; in fine, the Monarch, whose inviolability was declared even by the new constitution, suspended by a decree from the exercise of his authority; such is the afflicting spectacle, which we and all good Frenchmen lament, and such are the too obvious and too fatal consequences of the first violation offered to this sacred and fundamental principle.

"And we ought to declare it, since we are compelled to refer to the decree itself against which we have protested, and against which we still protest, there is none of those measures which were not before prescribed by the constitution, in the name of which they are taken. The sacred person of the King was declared inviolable: one only case was provided for, in which, contrary to all the principles essential to Monarchy, it was supposed that that inviolability might cease. This case has not yet occurred; nevertheless, the King is dragged as a criminal into his own capital, made a prisoner in his own palace, and despoiled of his own prerogative. Thus, after having infringed the inviolability of the King by decrees, they annul them in order completely to destroy it.

"Amidst these outrages offered to the Monarch, to his august family, and in their persons to the whole nation, what has become of the Monarchy? The decrees of the National Assembly have centered in themselves all the Royal power: the seal of the State has been deposited on their table; the decrees are rendered executory without requiring sanction: they give direct orders to all the agents of the executive power; they impose, in their own name, oaths, in which Frenchmen do not even find the name of their King: Commissioners, who have received their mission from them alone, traversed the provinces, in order to receive oaths which they exact, and give directions to the army; thus, at the moment at which the inviolability of the King was annulled, Monarchy was destroyed; the appearance of royalty no longer existed; a Republican Interim has succeeded.

"Far from all those, who are acquainted with the rules of our conduct (and, we believe, there are very few Frenchmen who do not rightly appreciate them,) be the idea that we could concur in such decrees. They are not less unpleasant to our feelings, than repugnant to our principles. Never have we more severely felt the rigour of our duty, never have we more lamented the fatal consequences resulting from the mission with which we were charged, than when forced to remain witnesses of acts, which we regarded as culpable attempts; while those who are most frequently our organ, become timid, for the first time condemned themselves to silence that they might not involve the sacred cause in that unpopularity which has so ingeniously been contrived

contrived to be thrown upon our party. Without doubt, if we were guided by common rules, if we yielded to the horror with which we are inspired by the idea of being thought to approve, by our presence, decrees, to which we are averse, we would fly without delay; we would, without hesitation, separate from an Assembly, who have been able to break through principles, which they had been forced to preserve. But in circumstances so singular, we can neither assume common rules, nor our own sentiments as the basis of our own conduct. When our principles, our honour, may perhaps, in the opinion of a great number, command us to fly, motives more imperious still exact of us a painful sacrifice, that of remaining in a situation where we preserve the hope of preventing greater evils.

"Before the calamitous epoch at which we are arrived, we could at least grasp the shadow of Monarchy, we fought upon the wreck; the hope of preserving it justified our conduct. Now, the last blow has been given to monarchy; but, in addition to that great motive, we were bound by other duties. The Monarch exists; he is captive; it is for the King's sake that we ought to rally our strength; it is for him, it is for his family, it is for the precious blood of the Bourbons that we ought to remain at the post, where we can watch over a deposit so valuable.

"We will discharge then this sacred duty, which alone ought to be our excuse, and we will prove, that in our hearts the Monarch and monarchy can never be separated.

"But while we comply with this urgent duty, let not our Constituents expect to hear us come forward upon any other subject. While one interest only can force us to sit along with those who have raised a mis-shapen republic upon the ruins of monarchy; it is to that interest alone that we are wholly devoted. From this moment the most profound silence, on whatever shall not relate to this subject, shall express our deep regret, and at the same time our invariable opposition to every decree that may be passed.

"In fine, let our constituents turn their attention to the circumstances in which we are placed; if, in the present moment, we have not gloried in marching foremost in the path of honour, our situation now imposes both with regard to them and to ourselves, duties which

do not go beyond ourselves alone. For us, honour lies no longer in the common track; our sole object is the triumph of the sacred cause with which we are entrusted; but let them be before-hand assured, that whatever may happen, to whatever extremities we may be reduced, nothing will efface from our hearts the unalterable oath, which irrevocably binds us to the Monarch and to monarchy.

"After these considerations, which appear to us founded upon the true interest of the nation, and the eternal advantage of the people, essentially dependant on monarchy, we declare to all Frenchmen;

"That, after having constantly opposed all those decrees which, in attacking Royalty, either in its essence, or in its privileges, have prepared the people to receive without indignation, as without examination, the anti-monarchical principles, to which these days of anarchy have given birth:

"That, after having defended till the last moment, Monarchy undermined in its foundations;

"That, after having seen its ruin completed by the deliberations of the National Assembly; for to attack the person of the Monarch, is to annul Monarchy, to suspend Monarchy, is, in fine, to destroy it;

"Nothing can authorise us any longer to take part in deliberations, which become in our eyes guilty of a crime, which we do not wish to participate:

"But that Monarchy existing always in the person of the Monarch, from whom it is inseparable; that his misfortunes and those of his august family, imposing upon us a stronger obligation always to surround his august person, and defend it from the application of principles which we condemn; we place our sole honour, our most sacred duty, in defending, with all our might—with all our zeal for the blood of the Bourbons—with all our attachment to the principles which our Constituents have transmitted to us, the interests of the King and the Royal Family, and their indefeasible rights;

"That in consequence we shall continue, from the sole motive of not abandoning the interests of the person of the King and the Royal Family, to assist at the deliberations of the National Assembly; but being neither able to avow their principles, or recognize the legality of their decrees, we will henceforth take no part in deliberations which have not

for their object the only interests which it now remains for us to defend.

PARIS June 29. 1791."

To the above are added the signatures of two hundred and ninety Members of the National Assembly, the first being that of the Abbe Mury. Some of them insert additions or restrictions before their names, as is sometimes done to a protest in the House of Lords, and all the Noblesse insert their titles.

M. Cazales and M. Clermont Tonnerre are not among the subscribers.

When the King quitted Paris he left behind him a proclamation addressed "To all the French," stating his reasons for withdrawing from the capital. To this an answer was published by the National Assembly, from which the following passages are extracted:

"France would be free, and she shall be so. It is intended to make the Revolution recede, but it recedes not. It is the effect of your will, and nothing can retard its progress. It is necessary to accommodate the law to the state of the kingdom. The King, in the Constitution, exercises the power of the Royal function over the decrees of the Legislative body; he is the head of the Executive Power, and, in that capacity, causes the laws to be executed by his Minister.

"If he quits his post, *although carried off against his will*, the Representatives of the Nation have the right to supply his place. The National Assembly has, in consequence, decreed, That the Seal of State, and the signature of the Ministers of Justice, shall be added to all its decrees, to give them the character of laws. As no order of the King would have been executed, without being countersigned by the responsible Minister, nothing was necessary but a simple delegation by the Assembly to authorize him to sign the orders, and those only issued by them. In this circumstance they have been directed by the constitutional law relative to a Regency, which authorizes them to perform the functions of the Executive Power until the nomination of a Regent.

"By these measures your Representatives have insured order in the interior part of the kingdom; and to repulse any attack from without, they add to the army a reinforcement of three hundred thousand National Guards.

"Frenchmen! we have no fear in recalling to your memories the famous day of the 20th of June 1790—that day, on which the Chief of the Executive Power, the first public functionary of the nation,

dared to dictate his absolute will to your Representatives, charged by your orders to form a Constitution. The National Assembly lamented the disorders committed on the 5th of October, and ordered the prosecution of the persons guilty of them; but, because it was difficult to discover some rioters amongst such a multitude of people, they are said to have approved all their crimes—The Nation is, however, more just. It has not reproached Louis XVI. with the violences that have occurred under his reign, and those of his ancestors!

"They are not afraid to call to your recollection the Fesleration of July. What are the statements of the persons who have dictated the letter of the King with respect to this august act? That the first public functionary was obliged to put himself at the head of the Representatives of the Nation, in the midst of the deputies of all the kingdom. He took a solemn oath to maintain the Constitution. If the King does not hereafter declare, that his good faith has been surprised by seditious persons, he has, of course, *announced his own perjury to the whole world!*

"The King is said to have experienced some inconveniences in his residence at Paris, and not to have found the same pleasures as formerly; by which it is implied, no doubt, that a nation ought to regenerate itself without any agitation, without disturbing, for an instant, the pleasures and indulgences of Courts. As to the address of congratulation and adherence to your decrees, these, they say, are the work of the factious—Yes—no doubt—of Twenty-six millions of the factious!

"It was necessary to re-constitute all the powers, because all the powers were corrupted, and because the alarming debts accumulated by the despotism and the disorders of government, would have overwhelmed the nation. But does not Royalty exist for the people? and if a great Nation obliges itself to maintain it, is it not solely because it is believed to be useful? The constitution has left to the King this glorious prerogative; and has confirmed to him the only authority which he should desire to exercise. Would not your representatives have been culpable, if they had sacrificed twenty-six millions to the interest of one man?

"The decrees upon the subject of peace and war have taken from the King and his Ministers the power of sacrificing the people to the caprice of Courts; and the definitive ratifications of treaties is reserved to the Representatives of the Nation. The loss of a prerogative is complained of. What prerogative? That of not being obliged to consult

felt the National will, when the blood and the fortunes of citizens were to be sacrificed. Who can know the wish and the interests of the Nation better than the Legislative Body? It is wished to make war with impunity; but have we not had, under the ancient government, sufficient experience of the terrible effects produced by the ambition of Ministers?

" Frenchmen! all the powers are organized; all the public functionaries are at their posts; the National Assembly watches over the safety of the state; may you be firm and tranquil! One danger alone threatens us. You have to guard against the suspension of your labourers—against the delay in the payment of duties—against any inflammatory measures, which commence in anarchy, and end in civil war. It is to these dangers that the National Assembly calls the attention of citizens. In this crisis, all private animosities and private interests should disappear.

" Those who would preserve their liberty should see that tranquil finances which appals tyrants. May the factious, who hope to see every thing overturned, find order maintained, and the constitution confirmed, and rendered more dear to Frenchmen, by the attacks made upon it! The capital may be an example to the rest of France. The departure of the King excited no disorders there; but to the confusion of the malevolent, the utmost tranquillity prevails in it. To reduce the territory of this empire to the yoke, it will be necessary to destroy the whole nation! despotism, if it pleases, may make such an attempt—it will either fail, or at the conclusion of its triumph, will find only ruins!"

July 15. The National Assembly passed a decree, acknowledging the inviolability of the King's person. This decree has caused great murmurings, and many factious meetings and mobs in Paris, in so much that martial law has been proclaimed, and a number of the rioters have been killed by the National Guards. The sentiments of these malcontents may be known from the following petition, which certain Commissioners from the Jacobins were employed, on the 19th, in persuading the multitude to sign. No less, it is said, than 40,000 names have been subscribed to it—

PETITION to the NATIONAL ASSEMBLY.

" The undersigned Frenchmen, members of the Sovereign, considering that in questions involving the safety of the people, it is their right to declare their sentiments, in order to enlighten and direct their representatives; there never was any question of more importance than that which relates to the King's flight; that the decree of the 15th of July appoints no measures to be pursued

with regard to Louis XVI.; that, in order to obey this decree, it is necessary quickly to decide the fate of that individual; that his own conduct ought to afford the basis of this decision; that Louis XVI. after having accepted the Royal functions, and sworn to defend the constitution, deserted the post entrusted to him; protested by a written declaration, signed with his own hand, against this very constitution; attempted by his flight and his direction to deprive of effect the Executive Power, and to overturn the constitution, in conjunction with persons at present accused of that attempt: that his perjury, his flight, his protest, without recurring to the other criminal acts by which they were preceded, accompanied, and followed, amount to a formal abdication of the constitutional crown entrusted to him: that the National Assembly have so decided in possessing themselves of the Executive Power, suspending the powers of the King and detaining him in arrest; that fresh promises on the part of Louis XVI. to observe the constitution cannot afford to the nation a sufficient security against a new perjury, and a new conspiracy.

" Considering likewise, that it would be as degrading to the majesty of the offended nation, as injurious to its interests, henceforth to entrust the reins of empire to a fugitive, loaded with the complicated guilt of perjury and treason:

" Demanding formally and specially that the National Assembly receive in the name of the nation, the abdication made on the 21st July by Louis XVI. of the crown; which had been delegated to him:

" Declaring (the said undersigned,) that they will never acknowledge Louis XVI. nor any other as King—at least, till the majority of the nation express a wish contrary to that of this petition."

ENGLAND.

BIRMINGHAM, JULY 14.

It having been known that a number of gentlemen were to meet to celebrate the anniversary of the French Revolution, a number of riotous persons assembled, and after the company had dispersed, began to break the windows, and afterwards to set fire to the houses of those whom they supposed friends to the French Revolution, and in particular to those of the dissenters. The most terrible outrages were committed, which lasted several days, till some parties of military arrived in the town, and the people became quiet. Dr Priestley, Mr Taylor of Moseley Hall, Mr Humphreys, Mr Ryland, &c. were the principal sufferers. The damage done is estimated at 400,000*l*. Five or six of the rioters lost their lives by the falling of Mr Ryland's house while they were drinking in the cellars. Dr Priestley escaped

escaped the fury of the mob, and arrived in London on Monday the 18th, whence he wrote the following

Address to the Inhabitants of the Town of
BIRMINGHAM.

My late Townsmen and Neighbours,

AFTER living with you eleven years, in which you had uniform experience of my peaceful behaviour, in the attention to the quiet studies of my profession, and those of philosophy, I was far from expecting the injuries which I and my friends have lately received from you. But you have been misled. By hearing the dissenters, and particularly the Unitarian dissenters, continually railed at, as enemies to the present Government in Church and State, you have been led to consider any injury done to us as a meritorious thing; and not having been better informed, the means were not attended to. When the *object* was right, you thought the *means* could not be wrong. By the discourses of your teachers, and the exclamations of your superiors in general, drinking confusion and damnation to us (which is well known to have been their frequent practice), your bigotry has been excited to the highest pitch, and nothing having been said to you to moderate your passions, but every thing to inflame them; hence, without any consideration on your part, or on theirs, who ought to have known, and taught you better—you were prepared for every species of outrage; thinking that whatever you could do to spite and injure us, was for the support of Government, and especially the Church. In *destroying us*, you have been led to think, *you did God* and your country the most substantial service.

Happily the minds of Englishmen have a horror at *murder*, and therefore you did not, I hope, think of *that*; though, by your clamorous demanding of *us* at the Hotel, it is probable that, at that time, some of you intended me some personal injury. But what is the value of life, when every thing is done to make it wretched? In many cases, there would be greater merrv in dispatching the inhabitants, than in burning their houses. However, I infinitely prefer what I feel from *the spoiling of my goods*, to the disposition of those who have misled you.

You have destroyed the most truly valuable and useful apparatus of philosophical instruments that perhaps any individual, in this or any other country, was ever possessed of, in my use of which I annually spent large sums, with no pecuniary view whatever, but only in the advancement of science, for the benefit of my country and of mankind. You have destroyed a library corresponding to that apparatus, which no money can purchase, except in a long course of time. But what I feel far more, you have

destroyed manuscripts, which have been the result of the laborious study of many years, and which I shall never be able to recompose; and this has been done to one who never did, or imagined you any harm.

I know nothing more of the *band-bill*, which is said to have enraged you so much, than any of yourselves, and I disapprove of it as much; though it has been made the ostensible handle of doing infinitely more mischief than any thing of that nature could possibly have done. In the celebration of the French Revolution, at which I did not attend, the company assembled on the occasion only expressed their joy in the emancipation of a neighbouring nation from tyranny, without intimating a desire of any thing more than such an improvement of our own Constitution, as all sober citizens, of every persuasion, have long wished for.—And though, in answer to the gross and unprovoked calumnies of Mr Madan and others, I publicly vindicated my principles as a Dissenter, it was only with plain and sober argument, and with perfect good humour. We are better instructed in the mild and forbearing spirit of Christianity, than ever to think of having recourse to *violence*; and can you think such conduct as yours any recommendation of your religious principles, in preference to ours?

You are still more mistaken, if you imagine that this conduct of yours has any tendency to serve your cause, or to prejudice ours. It is nothing but *reason* and *argument* that can ever support any system of religion. Answer our arguments, and your business is done; but your having recourse to *violence*, is only a proof that you have nothing better to produce. Should you destroy myself as well as my house, library, and apparatus, ten more persons, of equal or superior spirit and ability, would instantly rise up. If those ten were destroyed, an hundred would appear; and believe me, that the Church of England, which you now think you are supporting, has received a greater blow by this conduct of yours, than I and all my friends have ever aimed at it.

Besides, to abuse those who have no power of making resistance is equally cowardly and brutal, peculiarly unworthy of Englishmen, to say nothing of Christianity, which teaches us to do as we would be done by.—In this business we are the sheep, and you the wolves. We will preserve our character, and hope you will change yours. At all events, we return you blessings for curses; and pray that you may soon return to that industry, and those sober manners, for which the inhabitants of Birmingham were formerly distinguished. I am,

Your sincere well-wisher,

London, July 19. }

1791. }

J. PRIESTLEY.

The

The following are a correct list of the houses destroyed:—

Dwelling houses burned.

Dr Prieſley's, Fair-Hill.
Mr John Ryland's, Birmingham,
J. Taylor's, Eſq. Brodbeckſay,
William Ruffel's, Eſq. on the Lon'on road,
Moſley-Hall, ſome miles from Birmingham,

Mr Hobſon's, near Moſley,
Mr Harwood's, Moſley,
Mr Hutton's, near Waſhford Heath,
Mr Cox's, Woodſtock.

Meeting-Houſes burned.

New Meeting, Birmingham,
Old Meeting, ditto,
A Meeting, King's Heath.

Houſes gutted.

Mr Hutton's, Birmingham,
Mr George Humphrey's, Spark-Brook,
Mr Hawke's, Moſley.

Some little injury at Hay-Hall; a few windows broken, and ſome ſmall damage done elſewhere.

The French Revolution was celebrated at London, Edinburgh, and the other principal towns, both in England and Scotland, without any diſturbance.

The following addreſs has been read in all the Catholic Chapels in London:

To all the FAITHFUL, CLERGY, and LAITY of the LONDON DISTRICT.

“ Dear Brethren,

“ At length the day is arrived, when I may congratulate with you on the greateſt of bleſſings—the free exerciſe of our holy religion.

“ A humane and generous legiſlature has ſeen the oppreſſion under which we have laboured, and, by an act worthy of its enlightened wiſdom, has redreſſed the grievances of which we complained.

“ As our emancipation from the preſſure of penal laws muſt awaken every feeling of a grateful mind, haſten to correſpond on your part with the benignity of Government. Haſten to give our gracious Sovereign that teſt of loyalty which the legiſlature calls for, and to diſclaim every principle dangerous to ſociety and civil liberty, which has been erroneouſly imputed to you.

“ Continue to perform a uniform virtuous line of conduct; giving no offence to any man, that our miniſtry be not blamed. Provide things good, not only in the ſight of God, but alſo in the ſight of all men, and let a univerſal benevolence ever characterize you in the eyes of your fellow-citizens.

“ Though you be not admitted to an equal participation of rights, continue to ſhew yourſelves deſerving of that favour; and continue to implore the divine bleſſing on your King and country. For the reſt, brethren, rejoice, be perfect, be of one mind; have peace; and the God of peace and of love ſhall be with you.

J. CENTURIEN, V. A.

London, June 14. 1791.

July 13. The firſt General Court of the Sierra Leona Company was held at the London Tavern. Sir John Call was voted into the chair, and after confirming ſome preliminary bye laws, which had previously been agreed upon by a Committee, they proceeded to the choice of the following thirteen Directors:—Granville Sharp, Eſq.—Henry Thornton, Eſq.—John Kingſton, Eſq.—William Wilberforce, Eſq.—Sir Charles Middleton, Bart.—Philip Sanſom, Eſq.—Joſ. Hardcaſtle, Eſq.—Vickeris Taylor, Eſq.—William Sandford, Eſq.—George Erniſt Woolff, Eſq.—The Rev. Thomas Clarkſon—Samuel Parker, Eſq.—and Mr Tho. Eldred.

S C O T L A N D.

Extraſt of a Letter from Lerwick, Shetland, 20th June.

“ Such a fortnight of weather I never remember; almoſt a conſtant ſtorm; ſo much ſo, that there has been no intercourſe with the North Iſles. There is the moſt melancholy accounts from the fiſhing boats; a certainty of the loſs of eight boats and their crews; many other boats loſt; ſeveral people have been waſhed overboard by the ſea, and taken up. Mr Sanderson has loſt three boats and their crews, and half of another boat and crew; Mr Bruce of Urie, one; Mr Edmonſton, one; Mr Chyne, one; and another North Maving boat. The accounts we have are, that there are 54 men drowned, and above 150 fatherleſs children left. God help them! Their proſpects are deplorable. The ſeverity of the weather and northerly wind has deſtroyed every foot of vegetation in the country, and very ſoon there will not be a ſtone-weight of meal to ſell in Lerwick.”

For the unhappy widows and orphans of theſe unfortunate people, ſubſcriptions were ſet on foot, and ſeveral liberal collections made in Edinburgh and other places.

EDINBURGH.

Bridewell and Houſe of Correction.

This day, July 4. in terms of an act paſſed laſt Seſſion of Parliament, a meeting of the Freeholders of the County took place within the Parliament Houſe, in order to elect

16 & 17: Justices of the Peace to be Commissioners along with others mentioned in the act, for building and maintaining a Bridewell and House of Correction for the City and County of Edinburgh, and for executing such of the powers as are entrusted to, or directed to be executed by them, when the following Gentlemen were chosen :

Andrew Wauchope of Niddry, Esq;
John Wauchope of Edmonston, Esq;
Mr Baron Cockburn,
James Rocheid of Inverleith, Esq;
James Clerk of Bonnington, Esq;
Captain James Durham,
Robert Trotter of Bush, Esq;

These Commissioners, agreeable to the act of Parliament, are to continue in office till the Michaelmas meeting of Freeholders 1792, when a new election is to take place, and those then chosen continue for two years. New elections are appointed to be made at the Michaelmas meeting at the end of every second year; but, at every such election, not more than five of the Commissioners of the former are to be re-elected; and, in case of the death or resignation of any one or more of the Commissioners, the Freeholders are authorized to meet, and supply such vacancy or vacancies.

The Commissioners named in the act are :

The Lord Provost of the City of Edinburgh,
The Members in Parliament for the City and County of Edinburgh,
The four Bailies of Edinburgh,
The Dean of Guild of Edinburgh,
The Convener of the Trades of Edinburgh,
The Admiral of Leith,
The Baron Bailie of Canongate,
The Baron Bailie of Portburgh,
The first resident Bailie of Leith,
The first resident Bailie of Canongate,
The Sheriff depute of the County of Edinburgh; and,
The Sheriff-substitute of the County of Edinburgh, all for the time being.

The Commissioners, thus appointed and elected, any nine or more of whom are declared to be a quorum, are appointed to meet annually in the Parliament House, upon the first Monday of July, to elect a Preses, who is to have his own, as well as a casting or decisive vote, in case of an equality; and thereafter they are authorized to elect six of their number as a Committee to continue for one year, which Committee is to have the same powers as are vested in the whole Commissioners, provided that two of the six are Justices appointed Commissioners by the Freeholders of the county of Edinburgh.

This day, July 4, at one o'clock, a meeting of the Commissioners accordingly took place, in terms of the Act of Parliament,

when they unanimously made choice of the Right Hon. James Stirling, Lord Provost, to be their preses, and John Gray, Esq. one of the principal City Clerks, to be their Clerk.

The Meeting, afterwards, upon the motion of the Lord Advocate, adjourned to the Council Chamber, where they made choice of the following Committee to manage the business till the first Monday of July next, viz.

The Lord Provost,
David Milne, Esq. First Bailie,
Donald Smith, Esq. Dean of Guild,
Mr Alexander Reid, Convener,
Mr Baron Cockburn,
James Rocheid of Inverleith, Esq.
Mr Sheriff Pringle.

The following are the appointments for the ensuing Autumn Circuits :

North—LORD JUSTICE CLERK and LORD HENDERLAND.

Perth,	Wednesday,	7th Sept.
Inverness,	Wednesday,	14th Sept.
Aberdeen,	Wednesday,	21st Sept.

South—LORDS ESKGROVE and SWINTON.

Ayr,	Friday,	9th Sept.
Dumfries,	Thursday,	15th Sept.
Jedburgh,	Wednesday,	21st Sept.

West—LORDS HAILES and STONEFIELD.

Stirling,	Saturday,	10th Sept.
Inveraray,	Thursday,	15th Sept.
Glasgow,	Tuesday,	20th Sept.

HIGHLAND SOCIETY OF SCOTLAND.

Edinburgh, July 8.

A General Meeting of this Society, agreeable to their charter, was held here, when, after a ballot, as required by the laws of the Society, before proceeding to other business, the following new Members were duly elected, and admitted, viz.

Most Hon. the Marquis of Huntly,
The Rt. Hon. Earl of Hopetoun,
Sir John Belfches of Fetercairn, Bart.
Hector Macneil, Esq. of Ugadale,
Allan Cameron, Esq. of Erracht.
John Graeme, Esq. Clerk to the Signet,
Calin Lander, Esq. Surgeon in Edinburgh,
Lauchlin Macraivich, Esq. of Dunardry,
Neill Macgibbon, Esq. Stronefican.

And on motion,

Sir Thomas Blacket, was unanimously elected an Honorary Member.

The proceedings of the Committee of Managers and Directors since last General Meeting were taken under consideration of the Meeting, and in general approved of; and some particularly so for their unreserved attention to the objects recommended by the

the Society, as contained in the advertisements made by the Directors, offering Premiums for the Introduction of Manufactures, improving the breed of Black Cattle, for encouraging proprietors to establish and build Inland Towns and Villages in the Highlands of Scotland, and to the Authors of Essays of Merit and useful Communications on the subject of the Fisheries, and other articles connected with the plan of this institution, and also for promoting of Agriculture, and for improvements in the mode of manufacturing and making Kelp.

The Meeting also approved of the Report of the Committee of Directors as to the purchase which they have made of a Hall on the South Bridge for their meetings, to which they have been encouraged by the exertions of the Directors in carrying forward the plan of this institution, and thereby promoting the prosperity of the Society.

It gave much satisfaction also, to learn by a letter from Mr Nicholson younger of Lochend, to Sir John Sinclair of Ulbster, one of the Vice Presidents, that the premiums for the production of fine-wool'd Shetland tops, at the exhibition to be soon held there, have excited a spirit of exertion and emulation among all ranks; so that the intention of this Society, by their offer of premiums for improving the fleece in these islands, so remarkable for fine wool, will, it is hoped, have the desired effect, and tend greatly to the public benefit, as well as to the private advantage of that part of the country.

SHEEP-SHEARING FESTIVAL.

FRIDAY, July 1.

This festival was held at Newhall's inn near the Queensferry. About 30 ladies and 70 gentlemen of rank were present, who were received, as they arrived, by Sir John Sinclair, the Chairman of the Society for the improvement of British wool. The company began to assemble about one o'clock, and were conducted to a grass plot in a garden belonging to Mr Dundas of Duddingfloc, adjoining to the inn. In the centre of the green a pole was erected, with cross branches, on which were suspended specimens of various kinds of wool, and in particular, some dressed skins of the Shetland breed of sheep, with the wool adhering, which were greatly admired. Latin inscriptions appeared on a tablet fixed at the top of the pole, applicable to the occasion of the meeting. There were sheep of various breeds and countries collected in the garden, and on the neighbouring banks, viz. Spanish, English, Scots, and Shetland; and to add to this group, Mr Dundas of Dundas sent there some sheep from Abyssinia. The sheep-shearing began about two

o'clock, which Mr Cully's clipper performed, and was much praised. The wool of the various breeds was exhibited, with labels denoting the kind and peculiarities of its texture. During the sheep-shearing, a band of music attended, and played a great variety of favourite Scots airs adapted to the occasion.

The ladies were in general dressed in white muslin, with flowers and various coloured ribbons, and each bore a shepherd's crook decorated with taste and fancy. The day being favourable, the appearance of the green, of so much beauty and elegance, afforded a spectacle at once pleasing and entertaining: and here none was more distinguished than the venerable patriotic Countess Dowager of Dundonald, whose hat was decorated with a bandeau of wool from her own flock, and dyed by herself, of various beautiful vivid colours, which had a fine effect. Several of the gentlemen were presented by her ladyship with cockades, and other ornaments of this material. The gentlemen were dressed variously, as taste and fancy suggested.—Some of them appeared in cloth made from their own flocks, with crooks on their buttons, &c. and some of the ladies in gowns of their own spinning.

A little after four o'clock, the company left the garden, and sat down to an elegant entertainment in a large room adjoining to the inn. The first toast, given by Sir John Sinclair, who was in the chair, was, "the Royal Shepherd of Great Britain, and success to his flock." A signal was then made to the Hind frigate, which lay at anchor at a little distance, and a round of twenty-one guns was fired in honour of so popular a toast. A number of other loyal and patriotic toasts were afterwards given, and the *amor patriæ* appeared to glow so much in every breast, that no assemblage could have exhibited more harmony and happiness than appeared on this occasion. After tea and coffee, the ball was opened by the Countess of Hopetoun and Sir John Sinclair, and continued till near twelve, when the company separated, highly pleased with the day's entertainment. Their country is much indebted to the Noblemen and Gentlemen for promoting so very important objects; and in this instance of the festival they have pleasantly united the *dulce cum utili*.

It is impossible to give the names of all the respectable and distinguished characters who were present on the occasion; but we may mention a few, viz. the Marquis of Huntly, the Earls of Morton and Buchan, the Dowager Countess of Dundonald, the Earl and Countess of Hopetoun, Lady Hope, Lord and Lady Elibank, Lord Macdonald, and the Hon. Mr Macdonald; the Hon. Captain and Mrs Cochran, Mr Heron, and

Lady

Lady Elizabeth Heron; Hon. Lieut. Murray, the Lord Chief Baron, his Lady and family; the Lord Provost of Edinburgh, Sir Thomas Blacket and family; Sir Gilbert Elliot, Sir John Inglis and family; Sir Michael Malcolm, Sir John Henderson, Sir James and Lady Foulis; Sir William Ramsay, Sir John and Lady Sinclair; Lady Clerk, Mark Pringle, Esq; M. P. Mr and Mrs Bellches; Capt. and Mrs Mackay; Mr Ramsay of Barnton; Mr Akew of Pallinburn, &c. Sir Thos Blacket, Mr Akew, &c. came from England to attend this pleasing festival, which we are happy to find is to be celebrated annually hereafter.

CHAMBER OF COMMERCE.

July 11. This day came on the election of Chairman, Directors, and Office Bearers of the Chamber of Commerce here for the ensuing year, when the following gentlemen were unanimously chosen:—

William Ramsay, Esq, of Barnton, Chairman.

Neil McVicar, Esq. Senior Deputy Chairman.

‡ Robert Allan, Esq. Junior Deputy Chairman.

‡ George Kinnear, Treasurer.
William Creech, Secretary.

AUDITORS OF ACCOUNTS

Mess. Andrew Bonar,

John Hay,
William Simpson,
James Rennie,

‡ David Ramsay.

Robert Walker, Chaplain.

Robert Cameron, Clerk.

DIRECTORS.

Mess. George Hay,
Thomas Williamson,
John Sligo,
James Dickson,
Charles Robertson,
John Hutton, Leith,
Thomas Elder,
Sir John Henderson,
George Leslie,
William Creech,
John Hutton, Edinburgh,
William Sibbald,
Archibald Geddes,
James Morrison, jun.
J. Stirling, Lord. Provost.
William Caddel,
Alexander Somervail,
James Donaldson,
John Scougal,
John Horner,
Francis Sharp,
‡ David Steuart,

Mess. ‡ Robert Young,
‡ Charles Kerr,
‡ John Robertson.
‡ George Sinclair,
‡ J. Learmouth, jun,
‡ Thomas Gladstones,
‡ George Brown,
‡ Robert Anderson.

Those marked thus ‡ are newly elected, the others continued.

EDINBURGH RACES.

July 18. The City of Edinburgh's Plate of L. 50 was won by Mr Spence's bay mare Gipsy—An excellent race.

19. His Majesty's Purse of One Hundred Guineas was gained by Mr Baird of Newbyth's b. filly Louisa.—This race afforded excellent sport.

20. The Noblemen and Gentlemen's Subscription Purse of Fifty Guineas won by Mr Fowler's grey horse Windleston.

21. The Hunter's Purse of Fifty Guineas won by Sir Archibald Hope's bay horse Arnison.

— A Sweepstakes of Twenty-five Guineas won by Mr Hamilton of Wislaw's Star.

— A Hack Race won by Mr Drydale's grey mare.

22. The Noblemen and Gentlemen's Subscription Purse of Fifty Guineas won by the Duke of Hamilton's bay colt Spanker.

— The Lady's Subscription Purse of Fifty Guineas won by Mr Fowler's Windleston.

23. The Vintners and Innkeepers Subscription Purse of Fifty Guineas won by Mr Baird's horse Rautler.

Glasgow, July 22.

Tuesday last, between two and three o'clock afternoon, we had a heavy rain, which lasted about fifteen minutes, and inundated many parts of the city to such a degree, that for some time there was no passing along the pavement. Soon after the rain, the expanse became amazingly clear, and the sun shone uncommonly bright, attended with great heat. About that time an appearance was seen in the heavens, resembling a serpent, flying in the direction of from west to east. The horizon being perfectly clear in that direction, it was visible for some minutes, and then seemed to part in a great many pieces. Before its separation, it was to appearance at least two hundred yards long, and its motion resembled that of a ship's pendant displayed at the mast-head in a gale of wind.

COURT OF SESSION.

LOCHMABEN CAUSE.

The Court of Session, some time ago, settled the costs given against the defenders in the process of reduction of the election of Magistrates of Lochmaben, at Michaelmas 1790. The account came to about 400*l.* sterling, but was restricted to 300*l.*

Upon this occasion Lord Swinton lamented the form of our proceedings in taking evidence in writing upon commission in cases of this kind, both in regard of the heavy expence which it drew upon the parties, and in regard to the loss of time which it occasioned to them and others concerned.

He observed, that in this case the printed proof, consisting of the deposition of no fewer than seventy-eight witnesses, filled about two hundred quarto pages of print, altho' all that was material to the issue of the cause might have been confined to the evidence of eight or nine witnesses, and comprised in less than twenty pages: That these witnesses were brought all the way from Lochmaben and neighbourhood (about sixty miles) to Edinburgh to be examined; and it appeared from the account produced, that the taking the proof had lasted a whole month, though taken before the Sheriff, a gentleman of unquestionable ability: That it had taken three days in hearing in the Court of Session, besides the time spent by the Judges in reading the papers at home; and it might be fairly computed upon the whole, that this cause alone had truly cost above twenty-four days or four weeks judicial work; and near four score labourers, tradesmen, and manufacturers, brought from their employment, and kept so long idle in Edinburgh. What a loss was this to the people in particular, and to the trade and manufacture of this part of the kingdom in general, besides about 800*l.* costs to the parties, merely for law proceedings!

He next stated a comparison of the proceedings in this case with the method of proceeding by juries in our neighbouring kingdom, where a trial of such a kind at the Assizes, in place of four weeks, would not have stood above six weeks, including the time of taking the proof, by examining perhaps eight or nine witnesses in presence of the jury, and where the total expence of both sides would not have exceeded 50*l.* The first he averred, viz. relative to the time, from his own observation, having had occasion to be present at the last Spring Assizes in York. The second, with respect to the costs, he gave upon the concurring information of eminent persons in the law, of whom he was curious to make the enquiry,

and who uniformly assured him, that, at an average, the causes there tried cost 30*l.* to the plaintiff, and 20*l.* to the defendant, including the expence of the ordinary preliminary steps in Westminster Hall.

His Lordship concluded with observing, that if the Scots Judges were ten times longer lived than the English Judges, and Scots litigants ten times richer than litigants in England, there might be some reason for so much waste of time and money here; but as it was well known such was not the case, it was matter worthy consideration to provide some remedy for so clamant an evil.

N. B. Upon these remarks made by the learned Judge, comparing the cost of the law in Scotland with those in England, we have to observe, that from an authentic account we had of the Assizes above alluded to, there were sixty causes tried in one week by Mr Justice Buller, including the taking of the proof in all of them, which, at 50*l.* each, would amount to 3000*l.* made by the law in the fourth part of the time spent judicially upon the Lochmaben cause. From whence we draw this conclusion, that the practitioners of the law would be no losers by shortening the time, and lessening the expence spent in law proceedings.

Edinburgh, July 19.

The Annual Competition for Prizes given by the Highland Society of London, to the three best performers on the bagpipe, was held in the Circus on Tuesday last, in presence of a Committee of Judges and Directors, appointed by the Highland Society of Scotland, and a very numerous and genteel assembly who honoured the competition with their attendance.

The first prize, being a pipe, with 40 merks in money, was adjudged to Donald M'Craw in Applecross, and delivered to him by the Preses of the Committee, in presence of the audience, with general applause.

The Committee met on Wednesday to determine the other two prizes, when the second being 30 merks, was given to John M'Gregor from Breadalbane; and the third, being also 30 merks, was given to Duncan Stuart, piper to the Rt. Hon. Lord Mountstuart; and by order of the Committee, the money arising from the sale of tickets, was distributed among the other competitors, and the dancers of Highland reels.

Mr Bisset, an ingenious artist of Birmingham (originally from this country) had painted some emblematic ornaments for the room where the Revolutionists dined, which were greatly admired. The central piece was a finely-executed medallion of his Majesty, encircled with a Glory, on each side of which

which was an alabaster obelisk; one exhibiting Gallic Liberty breaking the bands of Despotism, and the other representing British Liberty in its present enjoyment. Such, however, was the misrepresentation of the mob, that the paintings were said to be, "A Figure of Liberty trampling on a Crown, and a King without a Head!"—His Majesty having expressed a desire to see these paintings, they have been sent up to London for his inspection.

MARRIAGES.

June 30. Mr James Bruce, Accountant of Excise, to Miss Glog, daughter of Mr John Glog, merchant in Edinburgh.

July 1. Mr Hotchkiss writer, to Miss Gardner, daughter of the late Richard Gardner, Esq. of the Customs.

William Reynell, Esq. of Ireland, to Miss Montgomery, daughter of the late Sir William Montgomery, of Macbeehill, Bart.

7. James Cleghorn Professor of Anatomy in Dublin, to Miss Agnes Home, daughter of the late Mr Alexander Home, coach-maker.

16. Archibald Fletcher, Esq. advocate, to Miss Eliza Davidson of Tadmester.

BIRTHS.

July 1. Mrs Christie of Durie, delivered of a son.

5. The wife of a labouring man at Laurifoon, of two boys and a girl, all doing well.

23. Mrs Riddel of Ardnamurchan, of a daughter.

26. Mrs Patrick Crichton of a son.

DEATHS.

June 1. Lieutenant-Colonel David Muirhead of the East India Company's service.

2. Dr James Gillespie, Principal of St Mary's College, St Andrews.

5. Lieutenant Colonel David Hepburn.

14. Major Charles Edmonstone.

20. Sir Francis Elliot of Stobs, Bart.

22. Miss Agnes Stewart of Ballechin.

26. The Countess Dowager of Aberdeen. Sir David Murray, Bart.

29. Mrs Gardner, wife of Dr Gardner.

30. The Rev. Duncan McFarlane of Drymen, aged 84.

July 1. Mrs Janet Clark widow of Mr William Alston, writer to the signet.

6. John Lord Doune, son to the Earl of Moray.

7. After a short illness, the Rev. Dr Thomas Blacklock, a name well known in the learned world, and which will long survive him. He was an extraordinary person. Though totally deprived of sight from his

early infancy, and unassisted by the advantages of fortune, his genius, notwithstanding these unfavourable circumstances, shone out in various productions both in verse and prose. He was an excellent classical scholar, and well versed in most of the other branches of literature. As a poet, a philosopher, and a divine, a great share of merit will not be denied him by those who are acquainted with his writings. His poetical works are marked with such an elegance and force of diction, such a glow and propriety of description, and such an ardour of sentiment, as affect the feelings of every reader of taste, and have accordingly been admired by the best judges in Great Britain. His muse was ever the friend of virtue, for he himself was the friend of human kind. The whole of his private life was an amiable example of unaffected piety towards God, and undisturbed good-will to men. His conversation was animated, entertaining, and instructive. His wit, of which he possessed no small share, often gave pleasure, but never pain. "*Actus ille solibus occidit*"—Such was the mildness of his temper, the benevolence of his heart, and the elegance of his mind, that it was impossible to know him and not love him; and it may truly be said, that he never lost a friend, nor made a foe.

The following lines, extracted from his own poems, occasioned by the death of an intimate friend, may be applied, with much truth, to himself.

"Him Nature with no common case design'd:—

"O! with what ardour did his piercing view

"Through every maze of Nature Truth pursue;

"Sacred to Virtue and the Muse, his breast

"With Heaven's own loveliest image was imprest:

"Like Heaven's eternal goodness, unconfin'd,

"His soul, with one fond wish, embrac'd Mankind."

Miss Mary Millar, daughter of John Millar of Millhugh, Professor of Law at Glasgow.

July 10. Patrick Kerr, Esq. of Abbotrude, writer to the signet.

13. The Rev. Thomas Sharp, minister of Corstorphine.

19. Mrs Threipland, daughter of the late Sir David Threipland of Fingask.

Mrs Ogilvy, widow of Mr James Ogilvy, senior, Leith.

20. Dr Campbell of Smiddygreen.

25. John Mitchelson, Esq. of Middleton.

Mr Patrick Crawford, late merchant in Edinburgh.

THE
Edinburgh Magazine,
 OR
 LITERARY MISCELLANY,
 FOR AUGUST 1791.

With a View of KILCHURN, OR KILCHAIRN CASTLE*.

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VOL. XIV. No. 85.			State

Kilchurn, or Kilchairn Castle, is a magnificent pile, now in ruins, seated on a low point of the southern border of Lochaw; it belongs to the Earl of Breadalbane. It was built by Sir Colin Campbell, Lord of Lochaw, who died aged 80 in 1480. His success was greatly to it. Within are some remains of apartments, elegant and of no great antiquity. The view from it of the rich vale, bounded by vast mountains, is fine. See another View of it in our Magazine for October 1785.

An Account of the complete detail given of the French Constitution, four additional pages are given with this Magazine.

State of the BAROMETER in inches and decimals, and of Fahrenheit's THERMOMETER in the open air, taken in the morning before sun-rise, and at noon; and the quantity of rain-water fallen, in inches and decimals, from July 31st 1791, to the 30th of August, near the foot of Arthur's Seat.

	Thermom.		Barom.	Rain.	Weather.
	M.	N.			
July 31	55	64	29.475	—	Clear
August 1	55	71	29.675	—	Ditto
2	58	62	29.9	0.05	Small Showers
3	53	60	30.	—	Clear
4	53	62	29.825	—	Ditto
5	55	65	29.9	—	Ditto
6	55	67	29.75	—	Ditto
7	53	58	29.8	—	Ditto
8	52	61	29.95	—	Cloudy
9	50	71	29.925	—	Clear
10	50	65	29.875	—	Ditto
11	45	58	29.75	—	Ditto
12	52	69	29.95	0.07	Showers
13	54	69	29.85	—	Clear
14	56	72	29.87	0.035	Small Showers
15	59	72	29.775	0.75	Clear
16	60	60	29.775	1.173	Rain
17	56	54	29.7	—	Ditto
18	53	62	30.2	—	Clear
19	48	63	30.3	—	Ditto
20	48	68	30.325	—	Ditto
21	50	62	30.05	—	Ditto
22	50	66	29.8275	—	Ditto
23	58	65	29.65	—	Ditto
24	60	64	29.535	0.2	Rain
25	55	60	29.4	0.075	Ditto
26	51	63	29.6	—	Clear
27	55	60	29.3	0.425	Rain
28	52	61	29.4	0.32	Ditto
29	54	57	29.6125	0.065	Showers
30	48	60	29.8	0.15	Rain

Quantity of Rain, 3.315

Days. Thermometer. Days. Barom.

{ 14. 72 greatest height at noon. 20. 30.325 greatest elevation.
 15. 45 least ditto, morning. 27. 29.3 least ditto.
 21. 45 least ditto, morning.

Wilson's *Natural History of the Canary-Bird*. [Concluded from p. 8.]

E brood of birds in a state of captivity is not so constant, but is perhaps more numerous than it would be in a state of native freedom; for there are hens who will lay four and even five times a year, four, five, six, and sometimes seven eggs at a time: in general they have two broods, and the moult is their having more. There are, however, that hatch while they moult, provided they begin to sit at that time. Birds of the same sex do not all begin to moult at the same time. The weakest are the first to undergo that change; the strongest often a month later. The laying of jonquil Canary-birds is tedious and generally more fatal than that of the others. The hens of these jonquil birds lay only three, with three eggs each time: the coloured ones, both cock and hen, are too delicate, and their brood seldom prospers; the cream coloured hen has some repugnance at pairing with the other; in a large aviary, the hen generally chooses one of a different colour. In general, the white goes through the whole process with equal success; they pair, build, and hatch, all and better than any of the others, and the white spangled birds likewise the strongest of all. Notwithstanding these differences in disposition, temperament, and variety of these birds, the time of incubation in all is the same: all of them sit thirteen days, and when it

happens a day less or more, it is owing to some accidental circumstance; cold retards the exclusion of the young, and heat accelerates it. Accordingly it sometimes happens, that the first sitting in April lasts thirteen days and a half or fourteen days, if the air is at that time cold; on the contrary, the third hatching, which happens during the great heats of July or August, lasts only twelve days, or twelve days and a half. The bad eggs ought to be separated from the good; but in order to know them certainly, you should wait till they have been sat upon for eight or nine days; then take each egg by the two ends for fear of breaking them, and hold them against the sun or a lighted candle; those that are clear must be rejected, it would only fatigue the hen to leave them with her. In thus detaching the clear eggs, of three nests we may make only two; and the third hen being at liberty will proceed again to lay*. It is a practice much recommended by bird-fanciers to take away the eggs as the hen lays them, substituting an ivory one in their place, that the whole may be hatched in one day. When the last egg is laid, the ivory ones are removed and the others replaced. In general, the time of laying is in the morning, about six or seven o'clock: it is said, that when this happens an hour later, it is owing to the hen's being sick; the egg being thus laid in regular succession, it is easy to take them away

M 2

the

In giving the eggs of one hen to others, we must be sure that they are all good; in spangled birds that get clear or bad eggs, with of themselves throw them out of it; and when this is so deep that they cannot effect it, they never leave striking with their bill till they are broken, which spoils the other eggs, injures the hen, and makes the whole become abortive: the females of the other varieties will sit clear eggs.

Father Buga.

The eggs are all laid at the same hour except the last, which is some hours, and sometimes a day later. This last egg is always smaller than the rest, and I have been told that the bird it contains is always a cock. I wish the fact were well ascertained.

the moment they are laid. However, this practice is more adapted to our own convenience than to that of the bird, and is contrary to the economy of nature; it makes the mother part with a great deal of heat unnecessarily, and burdens her at once with five or six young, which incommode her more than they give her pleasure; while, when she sees them come successively one after the other, her pleasures are multiplied, and her strength and courage supported: accordingly, very intelligent bird-fanciers have assured me, that the natural way has always succeeded better with them than the above-mentioned practice.

Indeed I must say that, in general, too subtle practices, and the scrupulous cares which our writers advise us to bestow on the rearing of birds, are more hurtful than useful. We must, as much as possible, imitate nature in every thing. In their native spot Canary birds haunt the banks of little rivulets, or of moist ravines; we must not therefore suffer them to want water, either to drink or to bathe in. As they are natives of a very mild climate, we must defend them from the rigor of winter; but as they seem now long naturalised with us, they are accustomed to our cold weather, for we may keep them in a room without fire, and even with the window open, guarded however with a net-work to prevent their escape. I have known many bird-fanciers who have assured me, that, by treating them thus hardily, they lose fewer than by keeping them in warm rooms. It is the same with

regard to their food; it may be rendered more simple, and perhaps the birds will be better for it*. One circumstance it is particularly necessary to attend to, and that is, to beware of pairing them too soon in the season: in general, it is the custom to permit their union towards the 20th or 25th of March, whereas the 12th or 15th of April is a more proper time; for when they are put together while the weather is still cold, they grow indifferent for one another; and, if the hen happens to lay eggs, she leaves them if the weather does not grow warm; thus we lose a whole hatching by seeking to have it too early.

The young birds are different from the old ones, not only in colour but in other qualities. A young Canary-Bird of the year, observed on the 13th of September 1772, had the head, the neck, the back, and the quill-feathers blackish, except the four first feathers of the right wing, which were whitish; the rump, the coverts of the wings, the tail, which was still not quite formed, and the under part of the body, were also of a whitish colour, and there were not as yet any feathers on the belly from the *sternum* to the *anus*. This young bird had its lower mandible entering within the upper, which was pretty thick and a little hooked. As the bird advances in age, the disposition and shades of the colour change; the old are distinguished from the young birds by strength, colour, and song.—The old ones have always the strongest and most vivid colours, their feet are rougher, inclining to black if they are

* I have learnt, from the fatal experience of trusting to the directions of others, to confine my treatment to the following: I have given them for food, rape-seed and millet; water every other day in Winter, and once or twice a-day in Summer; groundsel when it is to be had once a month; chick-weed in moulting time; instead of sugar, bruised oats and Turkey corn; but particularly great cleanness is necessary.

Tradé par M. Bateau.

I must here remark a small error: It is generally agreed, that Canary-Birds must by no means have groundsel while they are moulting; for that food is too cooling, and prolongs the season of their indisposition. The other directions given by Mr Bateau appear to be well founded.

of the grey race; and the nails thicker and longer than those of the young. The female sometimes resembles the male, that it is not so distinguished by the difference at first; however, the colours of the male are always the brightest, his head is thicker and longer, the temples are of an orange colour, and under the tail a flame-coloured yellow, which is much lower than in the female; his legs are also longer, and he begins to moult almost as soon as he can feed. It is true that there are hens which likewise begin thus early; but all these marks together, we are at no loss to distinguish, even at the first moulting, the cock from the hen. After that time there is no uncertainty, for the cock declares himself by his song. A very quick exertion of the voice in all animals a strong indication of love; and as love, of all internal passions, is that which agitates them most, and transports them most fully, they do not fail to express their desire. Birds by their song, the horse by neighing, the dog by growling, all announce their desire. The ardour of the male's desire is by no means so strong and conspicuous in the female as it is in the male; and accordingly she expresses it but seldom by her voice;—the hen Canary-Bird is nothing more than a gentle note of tender passion, a sign of consent, which does not escape her till she has long listened and suffered herself to be won by the constant prayer of the male, who exerts himself to inspire her with the passion which he feels. But when her desires are once excited, it is a necessity for gratifying them, and if she often falls sick and dies. It is seldom that Canary-Birds kept up in a chamber fall sick and die: sometimes a few cocks eat themselves and die: if the hen grows sick while she is sitting, her eggs must be taken away and given

to another; for though she should get better soon, she will not return to her nest. The first symptom of sickness, especially in the cock, is melancholy: whenever he is observed to lose his natural gaiety, he must be put in a separate cage and placed in the sun in the same room with the hen. If his feathers appear rough, you must look if he has not a pimple above the tail;—when the suppuration here is fit to be opened, the bird often performs it himself with his bill; but if it goes on too slowly, it must be opened with a large needle, and the wound anointed with saliva, without mixing any salt with it, which would smart it too much. The next day, you may let him loose, and observe, by his behaviour and eagerness for the hen, whether he is cured or not. If not, you must take him again, and with a small quill blow a little white wine under his wings, put him in the sun, and next day when you let him loose judge as before of the state of his health; if melancholy and disgust for the female continue after these remedies, all hope of cure is vain; he must be put into a separate cage, and another male given to the hen similar to the one she has lost, or if that cannot be, one of the same variety with herself: there is generally most sympathy between those which resemble each other, except in the case of cream-coloured varieties which prefer the females of any other colour. But care must be taken that the new male be not a novice, but already acquainted with the duties of a parent. When the female falls sick she must have the same treatment with the male.

The most general cause of sickness is too abundant or too rich food:—when these birds are made to breed in a cage or closter, they often eat too much, or select the succulent food designed for the young; hence the consequences are either repletion or inflammation. By keeping them in a room this inconvenience is in a great measure prevented; because being a-

mong a great number, they hinder one another from eating to excess. A cock who eats for a long time is sure to be beaten by the other males; and the same is the case with the hens; these quarrels give them exercise, temperance, and occupation from necessity: it is chiefly on this account that they are seldom or never sickly in a chamber during the breeding time; it is only after hatching that infirmities and diseases attack them. The greater part have the pimple we mentioned above, and afterwards all of them are subject to moulting. Some support pretty well this change of state, and do not fail to sing a short while every day; but most of them lose their voice, and some of them even die. When the hens have attained the age of six or seven years, many of them die in moulting; the cocks support this species of disease more easily, and exist three or four years longer. However, as moulting is a natural effect rather than an accidental disease, these Birds would have no need of remedies, or would find such for themselves had they been reared by their parents in a state of nature and liberty. But being under restraint, fed by us and made more delicate, moulting, which to birds at freedom is only an indisposition, a less perfect state of health, becomes to those in captivity a serious and often fatal malady, for which indeed there are but few remedies*. It remains only to say that moulting is the less dangerous, if it happens early, that is, in a good season of the year. Young Canary-Birds moult early in the year, about six weeks after they are hatched: they become melancholy, appear rough, and put their head under the wing. Their down falls in

this first moulting; and in the second the following year, the large feathers, even those of the wings and tail, fall likewise. The young birds of the last brood, which have not been hatched till September or later, suffer accordingly much more in moulting than those which were hatched in the spring. Cold weather is very unfriendly to this state, and they would all die were they not kept in a temperate, or rather warm place. While this function is going on, that is, for six weeks or two months, nature labours to produce new feathers; and the organic molecules which had been previously employed in forming the seminal fluid, are now engaged in this new production; accordingly, when moulting, birds neither breed nor pair; for the superflux of life is wanting, which every being must have before it can convey it to others.

The most fatal and most common disease that the young Canary-Birds especially are subject to, is that called the surfeit, in which their bowels seem to descend to the extremity of the body. The intestines are seen through the skin, in a state of inflammation, redness, and distension; the feathers on the part fall off; the birds grow emaciated, give over eating, tho' they sit perpetually beside their meat, and die in a few days. The cause of this disease is the too great quantity, or too succulent quality of the food. All medicines are fruitless; diet alone can save a few out of the number of birds thus affected. They must be put into separate cages, and nothing given to them but water and lettuce-*seed*: this food is cooling and purgative, it tempers the ardour which consumes them, and sometimes causes evacua-
tions

* At moulting time put a bit of steel, not iron, into their water, changing it three times a week: give them no other medicine, only put a little more hemp-*seed* than usual among their meat during this critical period. *Not of Father Baugat.* Observe that steel is preferable to iron, only that you may be sure there is no rust, which would do more harm than good.

that save their lives. In fine, we observe, that this disease proceeds wholly from our method of rearing these birds, for it is seldom that bred by the parent birds are ever cured with it. We ought therefore particularly cautious of over-feeding them when we bring them up to the stick: boiled rape seed, a roundel without sugar or biscuit in general rather too little or too much food, is the most approved method.

When the Canary-bird utters a faint frequent cry, which seems to issue from the bottom of his stomach, he is said to be asthmatic: he is also subject to a sort of extinction of voice, especially after moulting: the asthma is cured by administering plantain seed and biscuit soaked in white wine: the extinction of voice by good food such as yolks of eggs mixed with crumb of bread; and for drink, wine of liquorice; that is, water in which liquorice root has been steeped and oiled.

Canary Birds are frequently affected with ulcers in the mouth; these proceed likewise from too abundant or succulent food, which often produces inflammation in the throat and lungs, and must be cured by cooling diet such as lettuce-feed with water, which some bruised melon-seeds have been put.

These birds are likewise infested with a sort of lice and the scab, owing to the slovenly manner in which they are kept. Therefore care should be taken to keep them always very clean, and to give them water to bathe in; never putting them into cages of old wood, but covering these but with new wood, where there have been no moths, and dusting and washing the seeds and giving them for food. These same cares must be bestowed on them when we would have them neat and healthy; they would be so if they were in a state of liberty; but confined and ill seen to, they are, like all

prisoners, subject to the evils of captivity. Of all those we have mentioned, none seem to be natural except moulting. There are even some of those birds which, in this wretched state of captivity, are never sick, custom seeming to have made it to them a second nature. In general, the fault of their temperament is excess of heat, and therefore they constantly need water. When wild, they are found near rivulets or moist places: bathing is necessary for them at all seasons; for if a plateful of snow is put into their cage, they will lie down in it and turn themselves upon it with signs of pleasure, even in time of the greatest cold: this fact proves sufficiently, that it is more noxious than useful to keep them in very warm places.

But there is another disease to which the Canary-bird, as well as others, such as the Gold-Finch, are subject to, especially in confinement; I mean the Epilepsy. The yellow Canary-Birds are most liable to this falling-sickness, which seizes them in a moment, even when they are singing the loudest. It is said they ought not to be touched or taken up when they fall, but that we ought merely to observe if they have voided a drop of blood at the bill, in which case they will come to themselves and recover in a little space their sense and life; that touching them before would make the drop fall too soon, and would occasion their death. I wish the truth of this account were well ascertained, for some facts in it appear to me doubtful. This much is certain, that when they survive the first fit, they often live as long after it as if they had never been attacked by it. I believe, however, that they might all be cured by giving them a slight wound in the feet, for in this way Parrots are often cured of the epilepsy.

How many evils attend upon slavery! In a state of freedom would these birds be asthmatic, scabby, or epileptic?

tic? Would they be liable to inflammations, to imposthumes, to ulcers? and is not the most direful of all diseases, that arising from ungratified love, common to every being in captivity? Females especially, being more deeply tender, more delicately susceptible, are more subject to it than males. It is remarked, that the hen Canary-Bird often grows sickly at the beginning of Spring, before she has got a mate; she fades, pines, and dies in a few days. The vain emotions and ungratified desires which then seize her suddenly, are the cause of her languor, when she hears so many males singing around her whom she cannot approach. The cock, though the cause of the desire and the most ardent in appearance, resists better than the female the evils of celibacy; he seldom dies of privation, but often of excess.

Upon the whole, the physical temperament of the hen Canary-Bird is like that of the females of other birds. She can lay eggs without any communication with the male, but they are addle, and the heat of incubation corrupts instead of vivifying them.—It has been observed, that hens seldom lay eggs if they are totally sequestered,

and neither hear nor see the male; but when they are excited by the sight of him, or by his song, they lay much more frequently: such effect have objects, even at a distance, on the powers of sentient beings: I cannot better conclude this subject than by extracting the following remarks of a letter from the Honourable Daines Barrington to M. Maty on the singing of birds:

“ Most people who keep Canary-Birds, do not know they sing chiefly either the Tit-Lark or the Nightingale’s notes.

“ Nothing however can be more marked than the note of a Nightingale, called its *Jug*, which most of the Canary-Birds brought from the Tyrol commonly have, as well as several Nightingale strokes, or particular passages in the song of that bird.

“ I have mentioned the superior knowledge in the inhabitants of London, because I am convinced, that if others are consulted in relation to the singing of birds, they will only mislead, instead of giving any material or useful information.”

Anecdote of Mons. Dangeau, the French Grammarian.

THIS gentleman flourished towards the end of last century, and was a member of the French academy. He was a very skilful grammarian, and applied himself chiefly to the cultivation and improvement of the French language. His mind was so engrossed with the particular object of his studies, that he disregarded every other pursuit as of inferior importance; and his inattention in company, in consequence of the abstraction of his thoughts from every thing but his favourite subject, exposed him sometimes

to very ludicrous situations, and to a smile from those around him, in which, however, he was very ready to join. He happened one day to be in a mixed company where the conversation turned on the miseries of war, and the calamities likely to happen in consequence of that in which the French nation was then engaged. “Likely to happen!” says Dangeau. “Happen what will, I have in my common-place book no less than two thousand French verbs all well conjugated.”

Continuation

PARISH OF BATHGATE.

Alterations in the Manner of Living.

A Great alteration in the manner of living has taken place in this parish within the last 40 years. About 1750, there were not above 10 families who used tea, and now, perhaps, there is not above twice that number who do not use it. Butcher meat was then not more used than tea: scarcely any cattle or sheep were killed, except at Martinmas, when some families used to salt a whole, or others only a part of an ox or cow, to serve for provision*; but now there is a regular flesh market twice a week, and almost every family, who can afford it, eats flesh constantly. A much greater quantity of wheaten bread is now consumed in the parish in a month, than was in a twelve-month forty years ago. The alteration in dress since 1750 is also remarkable. When the good man and his sons went to kirk, market, wedding, or burial, they were clothed in a home-span suit of freezeed cloth, called *kelt*, pladden hose, with a blue or brown bonnet; and the good wife and her daughters were dressed in gowns and petticoats of their own spinning, with a cloth cloak and hood of the same, or a tartan or red plaid. But now, the former, when they go abroad, wear suits of English cloth, good hats, &c.; and the latter the finest printed cottons, and sometimes silk gowns, silk caps, and bonnets, of different shapes, sizes, and colours, white stockings, cloth shoes, &c.

PARISH OF STRANRAER.

Trade.

The farmers generally export their
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corn, which produces very serious consequences to the inhabitants, as they are obliged to purchase meal at the discretionary price of the seller. To remedy this fore evil, about twenty years ago, a number of mechanics, countenanced by many of the more respectable and wealthy inhabitants, formed themselves into an association, whose object was to purchase meal, to be distributed weekly to the subscribers only. Each subscriber, at his entry, originally paid five shillings, (now seven shillings and sixpence), and thirteen pence a-year. It is governed by a deacon, as he is called, and twelve assessors, chosen annually. This institution has produced very good effects. The subscribers, and the poor in general, are regularly supplied at a price rather below the rate of the country. Their stock is now about L. 140 Sterling.

PARISH OF DALTING, IN SHETLAND.

Diseases.

Convulsion fits, of a very extraordinary kind, seem peculiar to this country. The patient is first seized with something like fainting, and immediately after utters wild cries and shrieks, the sound of which, at whatever distance, immediately puts all who are subject to the disorder in the same situation. It most commonly attacks them when the church is crowded; and often interrupts the service in this, and many other churches in the country. On a sacramental occasion, 50 or 60 are sometimes carried out of the church, and laid in the church-yard, where they struggle and roar with all their strength for five or ten minutes, and then rise up without recollecting a single

* This practice is sometimes still continued.

single circumstance that had happened them, or being in the least hurt or fatigued with the violent exertions they had made during the fit. One observation occurs on this disorder, that during the late scarce years it was very uncommon; and during the two last years of plenty it has appeared more frequently.

Cattle, &c.

The winter of 1784 was very severe, and cut off a great number of sheep and horned cattle in every part of these islands. An account was taken, at the desire of the minister, in this parish, and the return was 4506 sheep, and 427 black cattle, dead in the course of the winter, besides horses, of which no accurate account could be obtained. This, joined to a year of as great scarcity as the country had experienced, was very hard on the poor tenants; and they have not yet recovered the loss. In that winter, the sheep were often dug out of the snow, after continuing under it for 20 days; during all which time they had no food, but ate the wool from the backs of each other. Some that died after they were taken out were opened, and a hard ball of wool was found in their stomach. The general poverty of the inhabitants; their being obliged to be from home during the fishing season; the smallness of their farms, and the precarious tenure by which they hold them; all conspire to keep them in a state of indigence. Every man, from the age of 18 to 70, must attend the fishing from the 1st June to the 14th August. None are left at home but a wife, with perhaps a number of young children, who require all her attention. Every thing in the farming line must consequently go to wreck,

Population.

There are very few batchelors. The people, in general, marry young. A young lad, when he comes to the age of 18 or 19 years, goes to the

summer fishery for a fee of L. 16 to L. 26 Scots. Sometimes the fees are as high as L. 28 Scots for 10 summer weeks. When they have been one season at the fishing, they generally consider themselves as men. They are encouraged to marriage by their landlords, in order to prevent them leaving the country; and the consequences commonly are, that they find themselves involved in debt and large families in a few years. There is a set of very old regulations, called *Country Acts*; by one of which it is enacted, that no pair shall marry unless they be possessed of L. 40 Scots of free gear. This regulation, as well as all the rest, is now not enforced; though all of them appear to have been well calculated for the good police of the country. It is said that these regulations were approved and confirmed by the parliament of Scotland, in the reign of Queen Mary, or of James VI.

There has been no emigration from the parish during the time of the present incumbent: but, almost every year, a great number of young lads engage with the Greenland ships, which touch at Briffay Sound on their outward passage in the month of March and April. They receive from 30 s. to 40 s. a-month. Many of these men are landed on the island when the ships return from Greenland; but many go at last into the navy. It is a fact well ascertained, that in the year 1763, there were 900 Shetland men paid off. What number remained in the fleet after the peace it is impossible to say.

PARISH OF LUNAN.

Church.

One of the ministers, Mr Alexander Pedie, who died in 1713, bequeathed some plate for the Lord's Supper in the church of Lunan, on this singular condition, that any Episcopal congregation within seven miles of Lunan requiring

quiring them should have the use of them for that purpose. There is a marble monument erected in the church to his memory, for upholding which his widow bequeathed an annuity of L. 4 Scots, payable to the kirk-session.

PARISH OF AUCHTERDERNAM.

General Character of the People.

THE inhabitants are very regular in their attendance on public worship. Formerly they were fond of long church services, and considered it as a point of duty to continue long in religious exercises. Perhaps the services, though shorter than before, are still too long for answering the ends of devotion and spiritual edification. The people are not illiterate. In common with the rest of Scotland, the vulgar are, for their station, literate, perhaps, beyond all other nations. Puritanic and abstruse divinity comes in for a sufficient share in their little stock of books; and it is perhaps peculiar to them, as a people, that they endeavour to form opinions, by reading, as well as by frequent conversation, on some very metaphysical points connected with religion; and on the deeper doctrines of Christianity. They likewise read a variety of other books unconnected with such subjects. The parochial schools are by no means supplied with such enlightened teachers as those that were formerly instrumental in diffusing knowledge. No one of good education and ability now accepts of this reduced pittance, where the situation is not favourable for procuring lucrative scholars; and the village teacher, brought in by the subscription of needy people, is a still more unqualified person. In such cases, the people do not propose seeking out the best, but the cheapest. The consequence will be, that the poorer districts of the country, and the poor classes of the people, must become more ignorant.

Although the parish consists wholly of the poorer ranks of society, newspapers are generally read and attended to: The desire for them increases; and the reading of them seems to be attended with advantage. With regard to the intellectual character of the people: They are deficient in imagination, vivacity, humour, &c. their apprehension and judgment are very good, and they make a decent figure in the common professions of life. With respect to their moral and religious character, they have all a profusion of religion; but, in the points where their situation more immediately leads to temptation, they too frequently and even habitually contradict their profession. Their civil character is excellent: they seem in some degree capable of reflecting on the advantages of government; and they obey it peaceably, and on principle. They could, however, be easily stirred up to sedition in matters of religion. There is one Burgher meeting in this parish. The religious toleration granted seems to answer, in this district, the full ends of good government and public utility: it could hardly stand on a better footing. Secession now begins to diminish; and the bitterness of contending sects is greatly subsiding: this partly proceeds from the novelty being over; partly from the great variety of sects which have taken place; and partly, it is hoped, from more enlightened views of true religion. As to holidays for recreation or merry-making, the people have only one in the year, called Handfel-Monday; and even the manner in which this is employed shews the sober mindedness of the people. Instead of meeting in large assemblies for diversions, each family collects its own kindred from the different parts of the district, provides a feast, and spends the time in eating, drinking, and conversation. The holidays, besides Sabbaths, for religious services, in the Establishment, are three days in the year; among the

Seceders six. The people have scarcely any sports after they are grown up; among the infinite advantages of the Reformation, this seems to have been one disadvantage attending it, that, owing to the gloomy rigour of some of the leading churches, mirth and vice have, in their apprehension, been confounded together. Some of the sectaries punish attendance on penny weddings, and public dancing, with a reproof from the pulpit, in the presence of the congregation: so that the people must either dance by themselves or let it alone. This censure, in several congregations, is falling into disuse. There are a few persons, called *sinkers*, and *borners*, half-resident, and half-itinerant, who are feared and suspected by the community. Two of them were banished within these six years. Strangers complain of the pronunciation in this district being crawling, and that it impresses them with a belief that the person speaking is sour and ill tempered. The inhabitants are improving in their mode of living and dress. Intemperance from spirituous liquors is by no means frequent among them; but, unluckily, the use of whisky is increasing, and that of beer diminishing. The blue bonnet, a national badge, is disappearing rapidly. The prevalent colour of the men's dress is blue.

PARISH OF GAMRIE.

Population.

In this parish, many instances of longevity might be mentioned. It is only a few years since a fisherman in Macduff died at the age of 209; and there are living at present several persons 90 years old and upwards. Mr Wilson (the minister) is in his 97th year; and last autumn, at the conclusion of the harvest, the age of him, and the two servants that assisted in taking in his crop, amounted in all to 257; and it is worthy remarking that one of these has been his servant 50 years. Mr

Wilson was the first that introduced turnips and potatoes into the parish. He had a few of them in his garden, which the people in coming to the church used to look at as a great curiosity; and it was thought, at that time, that none but a gardener could raise them. It was long before the method of hoeing came to be thought of. Being sown thick, and hand-weeded, they came to no size. Another singularity deserves notice, viz. that, when he came to Gamrie, there was not a watch in church except the laird's and the minister's.

UNITED PARISHES OF LISMORE AND APPIN.

Miscellaneous Observations.

The people in this parish are, in general, laborious and industrious. Crimes of an enormous nature are hardly known here. No instance of suicide, or of murder, has occurred for 25 years past. The common people are less addicted to drinking than they were 20 years ago. All ranks are remarkable for their charity to the poor. In severe seasons, many of them double their attention to relieve the wants of the needy. No inhabitant of these extensive parishes has been executed or banished for 25 years past. One or two persons, guilty of some irregularities, voluntarily banished themselves. There has been no instance of child-murder in the parish in the memory of man. This is a crime hardly known in the west Highlands. The people in this part are much less fluctuating in their religious opinions than they are to the southward.

A man of singular frame was born in Appin. He was the stoutest or thickest man in Britain, or even perhaps in Europe, at the time. His name was Carrachaek. He was a soldier in the 42d regiment, and died above 30 years ago. He was said to be not above six feet high; but was

so singular for the stoutness of his make, that his portrait, as large as the life, was painted, by order of the King, and placed in the Tower of London as a curiosity. He was not

ed for the mildness of his disposition. He could carry on his back, with ease, a cwt. more than the strongest porter in Dublin.

*Of the ancient and high civilization of the Inhabitants of India *.*

[The elegant and learned author proposes to prove the early and high civilization of the inhabitants of India; 1st, by taking a view of their rank and situation as individuals; 2d, of their civil policy; 3d, of their laws and judicial proceedings; 4th, of their useful and elegant arts; 5th, of their sciences; and, 6th, of their religious institutions. From the first and fifth of these heads, the following observations are extracted.]

PROOFS FROM THE DISTINCTION OF RANKS.

FROM the most ancient accounts of India we learn, that the distinction of ranks and separation of professions were completely established there. This is one of the most undoubted proofs of a society considerably advanced in its progress. Arts in the early stages of social life are so few, and so simple, that each man is sufficiently master of them all, to gratify every demand of his own limited desires. A savage can form his bow, point his arrows, rear his hut, and hollow his canoe, without calling in the aid of any hand more skilful than his own. But when time has augmented the wants of men, the productions of art become so complicated in their structure, or so curious in their fabric, that a particular course of education is requisite towards forming the artist to ingenuity in contri-

vance and expertness in execution. In proportion as refinement spreads, the distinction of professions increases, and they branch out into more numerous and minute subdivisions. Prior to the records of authentic history, and even before the most remote era to which their own traditions pretend to reach, this separation of professions had not only taken place among the natives of India, but the perpetuity of it was secured by an institution which must be considered as the fundamental article in the system of their policy. The whole body of the people was divided into four orders or casts. The members of the first, deemed the most sacred, had it for their province, to study the principles of religion; to perform its functions; and to cultivate the sciences. They were the priests, the instructors, and philosophers of the nation. The members of the second order were entrusted with the government and defence of the state. In peace they were its rulers and magistrates, in war they were the soldiers who fought its battles. The third was composed of husbandmen and merchants; and the fourth of artisans, labourers, and servants. None of these can ever quit his own cast, or be admitted into another. The station of every individual is unalterably fixed; his destiny is irrevocable; and the walk of life is marked out, from which he never deviates. This line of separation is not only established by civil authority, but confirmed and sanctioned by religion;

* From "Dr Robertson's Dissertation concerning Ancient Indh."

gion; and each order or cast is said to have proceeded from the Divinity in such a different manner, that to mingle and confound them would be deemed an act of most daring impiety. Nor is it between the four different tribes alone that such insuperable barriers are fixed; the members of each cast adhere invariably to the profession of their forefathers. From generation to generation, the same families have followed, and will always continue to follow, one uniform line of life.

Such arbitrary arrangements of the various members which compose a community, seems, at first view, to be adverse to improvement either in science or in arts; and by forming around the different orders of men, artificial barriers, which it would be impious to pass, tends to circumscribe the operations of the human mind within a narrower sphere than nature has allotted to them. When every man is at full liberty to direct his efforts towards those objects and that end which the impulse of his own mind prompts him to prefer, he may be expected to attain that high degree of eminence to which the uncontrolled exertions of genius and industry naturally conduct. The regulations of Indian policy, with respect to the different orders of men, must necessarily, at some times, check genius in its career, and confine to the functions of an inferior cast, talents fitted to shine in an higher sphere. But the arrangements of civil government are made, not for what is extraordinary, but for what is common; not for the few, but for the many. The object of the first Indian legislators was to employ the most effectual means of providing for the subsistence, the security, and happiness of all the members of the community over which they presided. With this view they set apart certain races of men for each of the various professions and arts ne-

cessary to the support of a well-ordered society, and appointed the exercise of them to be transmitted from father to son in succession. This system, though extremely repugnant to the ideas which we, by being placed in a very different state of society, have formed, will be found, upon attentive inspection, better adapted to attain the end in view, than a careless observer is, on a first view, apt to imagine. The human mind bends to the law of necessity, and is accustomed, not only to accommodate itself to the restraints which the condition of its nature, or the institutions of its country, impose, but to acquiesce in them. From his entrance into life, an Indian knows the station allotted to him, and the functions to which he is destined by his birth. The objects which relate to these are the first that present themselves to his view. They occupy his thoughts, or employ his hands; and, from his earliest years, he is trained to the habit of doing with ease and pleasure that which he must continue through life to do. To this may be ascribed that high degree of perfection conspicuous in many of the Indian manufactures; and though veneration for the practices of their ancestors may check the spirit of invention, yet by adhering to these, they acquire such an expertness and delicacy of hand, that Europeans, with all the advantages of superior science, and the aid of more complete instruments, have never been able to equal the exquisite execution of their workmanship. While this high improvement of their more curious manufactures excited the admiration, and attracted the commerce, of other nations, the separation of professions in India, and the early distribution of the people into classes, attached to particular kinds of labour, secured such abundance of the more common and useful commodities, as not only supplied their own wants, but ministered to those of the countries around them.

his early division of the people into castes, we must likewise ascribe a similar division in the state of India; the nature of its institutions, and the immutability in the manners of its inhabitants. What now is in India was there, and is likely to continue: neither the ferociousness and illiberal fanaticism of the Median conquerors, nor the avarice of its European masters, have produced any considerable alteration. The same distinctions of condition and rank, the same arrangements in domestic society remain, the same maxims of religion are held in veneration, and the same sciences are cultivated. Hence, in all the trade with India has been carried on; gold and silver have uniformly been carried thither in order to purchase the same commodities which it now supplies all nations, and from the age of Pliny to the present times, it has been almost considered and execrated as a barren soil which swallows up the wealth of other countries, that flows incessantly towards it, and from which it returns. According to the accounts which I have given of the commodities recently imported from India, they appear to have consisted of nearly the same articles with those of the present times in our own times; and the difference we may observe in the sciences seems to have arisen, not from any diversity in the nature of the commodities which the Indians sell for sale, as from a variety in the customs of the nations which demand them.

OF THE EARLY CIVILIZATION OF INDIA, FROM THE STATE OF THE SCIENCES.

The attainments of the Indians in science, furnish an additional proof of their early civilization. By every account who has visited India in ancient or modern times, its inhabitants,

either in transactions of private business, or in the conduct of political affairs, have been deemed not inferior to the people of any nation in sagacity, acuteness of understanding, or address. From the application of such talents to the cultivation of science, an extraordinary degree of proficiency might have been expected. The Indians were, accordingly, early celebrated on that account, and some of the most eminent of the Greek philosophers travelled into India, that, by conversing with the sages of that country, they might acquire some portion of the knowledge for which they were distinguished. The accounts, however, which we receive from the Greeks and Romans, of the sciences which attracted the attention of the Indian philosophers, or of the discoveries which they had made in them, are very imperfect. To the researches of a few intelligent persons, who have visited India during the course of the three last centuries, we are indebted for more ample and authentic information. But from the reluctance with which the Brahmins communicate their sciences to strangers, and the inability of Europeans to acquire much knowledge of them, while, like the mysteries of their religion, they were concealed from vulgar eyes in an unknown tongue, this information was acquired slowly and with great difficulty. The same observation, however, which I made concerning our knowledge of the state of the fine arts among the people of India, is applicable to that of their progress in science, and the present age is the first furnished with sufficient evidence upon which to found a decisive judgment with respect to either.

Science, when viewed as disjoined from religion, the consideration of which I reserve for another head, is employed in contemplating either the operations of the understanding, the exercise of our moral powers, or the nature and qualities of external ob-

jects. The first is denominated logic; the second ethics; the third physics, or the knowledge of nature. With respect to the early progress in cultivating each of these sciences in India, we are in possession of facts which merit attention.

But, prior to the consideration of them, it is proper to examine the ideas of the Brahmins with respect to mind itself, for if these were not just, all their theories concerning its operations must have been erroneous and fanciful. The distinction between matter and spirit appears to have been early known by the philosophers of India, and to the latter they ascribed many powers, of which they deemed the former to be incapable; and when we recollect how inadequate our conceptions are of every object that does not fall under the cognizance of the senses, we may affirm (if allowance be made for a peculiar notion of the Hindoos which shall be afterwards explained) that no description of the human soul is more suited to the dignity of its nature than that given by the author of the Mahabarat, 'Some,' says he, 'regard the soul as a wonder, others hear of it with astonishment, but no one knoweth it. The weapon divideth it not; the fire burneth it not; the water corrupteth it not; the wind drieth it not away; for it is invisible, incorruptible, incorruptible; it is eternal, universal, permanent, immovable; it is invisible, inconceivable, and unalterable.' After this view of the sentiments of the Brahmins concerning mind itself, we may proceed to consider their ideas with respect to each of the sciences, in that tripartite arrangement which I mentioned.

1st, Logic and Metaphysics. On no subject has the human understanding been more exercised than in analysing its own operations. The various powers of the mind have been examined and defined. The origin and progress of our ideas have been traced; and proper rules have been prescribed,

of proceeding from the observation of facts to the establishment of principles, or from the knowledge of principles to form arrangements of science. The philosophers of ancient Greece were highly celebrated for their proficiency in these abstruse speculations; and, in their discussions and arrangements, discovered such depth of thought, and acuteness of discernment, that their systems of Logic, particularly that of the Peripatetic School, have been deemed most distinguished efforts of human reason.

But since we became acquainted, in some degree, with the literature and science of the Hindoos, we find that as soon as men arrive at that stage in social life, when they can turn their attention to speculative inquiries, the human mind will, in every region of the earth, display nearly the same powers, and proceed in its investigations and discoveries by nearly similar steps. From Abul Fazel's compendium of the philosophy of the Hindoos, the knowledge of which he acquired, as he informs us, by associating intimately with the most learned men of the nation; from the specimen of their logical discussions contained in that portion of the Shafter published by Colonel Dow, and from many passages in the Baghvat-Geeta, it appears that the same speculations which occupied the philosophers of Greece had engaged the attention of the Indian Brahmins; and the theories of the former, either concerning the qualities of external objects, or the nature of our own ideas, were not more ingenious than those of the latter. To define with accuracy, to distinguish with acuteness, and to reason with subtlety, are characteristics of both; and in both, the same excess of refinement, in attempting to analyse those operations of mind which the faculties of man were not formed to comprehend, led sometimes to the most false and dangerous conclusions. That sceptical philosophy, which denies the existence

presence of the material world, and affords nothing to be real but our own ideas, seems to have been known in India as well as in Europe; and the sages of the east, as they were indebted to philosophy for the knowledge of many important truths; were not more exempt than those of the west from its delusions and errors.

2d, Ethics. This science, which has for its object to ascertain what distinguishes virtue from vice, to investigate what motives should prompt men to act, and to prescribe rules for the conduct of life, as it is of all others the most interesting, seems to have deeply engaged the attention of the Brahmans. Their sentiments with respect to these points were various, and, like the philosophers of Greece, the Brahmans were divided into sects, distinguished by maxims and tenets often diametrically opposite. That sect with whose opinions we are, fortunately, best acquainted, had established a system of morals, founded on principles the most generous and dignified which unassisted reason is capable of discovering. Man, they taught, was formed, not for speculation or indolence, but for action. He is born, not for himself alone, but for his fellow men. The happiness of the society of which he is a member, the good of mankind, are his ultimate and highest objects.— In choosing what to prefer or reject, the justness and propriety of his choice are the only considerations to which he should attend. The events which may follow his actions are not in his own power, and whether they be prosperous or adverse, as long as he is satisfied with the purity of the motives which induced him to act, he can enjoy that approbation of his own mind, which constitutes genuine happiness, independent of the power of fortune or the opinions of other men. “Man (says the author of the Mahabarat) enjoyeth not freedom from action. Every man is involuntarily urged to act by those principles which are
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“ inherent in his nature. He who
“ restraineth his active faculties, and
“ fixeth down with his mind attentive
“ to the objects of his senses, may be
“ called one of an astray'd soul. The
“ man is praised, who, having sub-
“ dued all his passions, performeth
“ with his active faculties all the func-
“ tions of life unconcerned about the
“ event. Let the motive be in the
“ dead, and not in the event. — Be
“ not one whose motive for action is
“ the hope of reward. Let not thy
“ life be spent in inaction. Depend
“ upon application, perform thy duty,
“ abandon all thought of the conse-
“ quence, and make the event equal,
“ whether it terminate in good or in
“ evil; for such an equality is called
“ *Tog* (*i. e.* attention to what is spi-
“ ritual.) Seek an asylum then in
“ wisdom alone; for the miserable and
“ unhappy are so on account of the
“ event of things. Men who are en-
“ dued with true wisdom are unmin-
“ dful of good or evil in this world.—
“ Study then to obtain this applica-
“ tion of thy understanding, for such
“ application in business is a precious
“ art. Wise men who have aban-
“ doned all thought of the fruit which
“ is produced from their actions, are
“ freed from the chains of birth; and
“ go to the regions of eternal happi-
“ ness.”

From these, and other passages which I might have quoted, we learn that the distinguishing doctrines of the Stoical School were taught in India many ages before the birth of Zeno, and inculcated with a persuasive earnestness nearly resembling that of Epictetus; and it is not without astonishment that we find the tenets of this manly active philosophy, which seem to be formed on'y for men of the most vigorous spirit, prescribed as the rule of conduct to a race of people more eminent for the gentleness of their disposition than for the elevation of their minds.

3d, Physics. In all the sciences which

parchus. It is a method of this superior kind, founded on principles, and on an analysis of the motions of the sun and moon, which guides the calculations of the Brahmins, and they never employ any of the grosser estimations, which were the pride of the first astronomers in Egypt and Chaldæa.

The Brahmins of the present times are guided in their calculations by these principles, though they do not now understand them; they know only the use of the tables which are in their possession, but are unacquainted with the method of their construction. The Brahmin who visited M. le Gentil at Pondicherry, and instructed him in the use of the Indian tables, had no knowledge of the principles of his art, and discovered no curiosity concerning the nature of M. le Gentil's observations, or about the instruments which he employed. He was equally ignorant with respect to the authors of these tables; and whatever is to be learnt concerning the time or place of their construction, must be deduced from the tables themselves. One set of these tables (as was formerly observed) profess to be as old as the beginning of the Calyougham, or to go back to the year 3102 before the Christian æra; but as nothing (it may be supposed) is easier than for an astronomer to give to his tables what date he pleases, and, by calculating backwards, to establish an epoch of any assigned antiquity, the pretensions of the Indian astronomy to so remote an origin are not to be admitted without examination.

That examination has accordingly been instituted by M. Bailly, and the result of his inquiries is asserted to be, that the astronomy of India is founded on observations which cannot be of a much later date than the period above mentioned. For the Indian tables represent the state of the heavens at that period with astonishing exactness; and there is between them and the calculations of our modern astronomy

such a conformity, with respect to those ages, as could result from nothing, but from the authors of the former having accurately copied from nature, and having delineated truly the face of the heavens in the age wherein they lived. In order to give some idea of the high degree of accuracy in the Indian tables, I shall select a few instances of it, out of many that might be produced. The place of the sun for the astronomical epoch at the beginning of the Calyougham, as stated in the tables of Tirvalore, is only forty-seven minutes greater than by the tables of M. de la Caille, when corrected by the calculations of M. de la Grange. The place of the moon, in the same tables, for the same epoch, is only thirty-seven minutes different from the tables of Mayer. The tables of Ptolemy, for that epoch, are erroneous no less than ten degrees with respect to the place of the sun, and eleven degrees with respect to that of the moon. The acceleration of the moon's motion, reckoning from the beginning of the Calyougham to the present time, agrees, in the Indian tables, with those of Mayer to a single minute. The inequality of the sun's motion, and the obliquity of the ecliptic, which were both greater in former ages than they are now, as represented in the tables of Tirvalore, are almost of the precise quantity that the theory of gravitation assigns to them three thousand years before the Christian æra. It is accordingly for those very remote ages (about 5000 years distant from the present) that their astronomy is most accurate, and the nearer we come down to our own times, the conformity of its results with ours diminishes. It seems reasonable to suppose, that the time when its rules are most accurate, is the time when these observations were made on which these rules are founded.

In support of this conclusion, M. Bailly maintains, that none of all the astronomical

astronomical systems of Greece or Persia, or of Tartary, from some of which it might be suspected that the Indian tables were copied, can be made to agree with them, especially when we calculate for very remote ages. The superior perfection of the Indian tables becomes always more conspicuous as we go farther back into antiquity. This shews, likewise, how difficult it is to construct any astronomical tables, which will agree with the state of the heavens for a period so remote from the time when the tables were constructed, as four or five thousand years. It is only from astronomy in its most advanced state, such as it has attained in modern Europe, that such accuracy is to be expected.

When an estimate is endeavoured to be made of the geometrical skill necessary for the construction of the Indian tables and rules, it is found to be very considerable; and, beside the knowledge of elementary geometry, it must have required plain and spherical trigonometry, or something equivalent to them, together with certain methods of approximating to the values of geometrical magnitudes, which seem to rise very far above the elements of any of those sciences. Some of these last mark also very clearly (although this has not been observed by M. Bailly) that the places to which these tables are adapted, must be situated between the Tropics, because they are altogether inapplicable at a greater distance from the Equator.

From this long induction, the conclusion which seems obviously to result is, that the Indian astronomy is founded upon observations which were made at a very early period; and when we consider the exact agreement of the places which they assign to the sun and moon, and other heavenly bodies, at that epoch, with those deduced from the tables of De la Caille and Mayer, it strongly

confirms the truth of the position which I have been endeavouring to establish, concerning the early and high state of civilization in India.

Before I quit this subject, there is one circumstance which merits particular attention. All the knowledge which we have hitherto acquired of the principles and conclusions of Indian astronomy is derived from the southern part of the Carnatic, and the tables are adapted to places situated between the meridian of Cape Comorin and that which passes through the eastern part of Ceylon. The Brahmins in the Carnatic acknowledge that their science of astronomy was derived from the North, and that their method of calculation is denominated *Fukiam*, or *New*, to distinguish it from the *Siddantam*, or ancient method established at Benares, which they allow to be much more perfect; and we learn from Abul Fazel, that all the astronomers of Iadostan rely entirely upon the precepts contained in a book called *Soory Sudhant*, composed in a very remote period. It is manifestly from this book that the method to which the Brahmins of the South gave the name of *Siddantam* is taken. Benares has been from time immemorial the Athens of India, the residence of the most learned Brahmins, and the seat both of science and literature. There, it is highly probable, whatever remains of the ancient astronomical knowledge and discoveries of the Brahmins is still preserved. In an enlightened age and nation, and during a reign distinguished by a succession of the most splendid and successful undertakings to extend the knowledge of nature, it is an object worthy of public attention, to take measures for obtaining possession of all that time has spared of the philosophy and inventions of the most early and most highly civilized people of the East. It is with peculiar advantages Great Britain may engage in this laudible

laudable undertaking. Benares is subject to its dominion; the confidence of the Brahmins has been so far gained as to render them communicative; some of our countrymen are acquainted with that sacred language in which the mysteries both of religion and of science are recorded; movement and activity has been given to a spirit of inquiry throughout all the British establishments in India; persons who visited that country with other views, though engaged in occupations of a very different kind, are now carrying on scientific and literary researches

with ardour and success. Nothing seems now to be wanting, but that those entrusted with the administration of the British empire in India, should enable some person, capable, by his talents and liberality of sentiment, of investigating and explaining the more abstruse parts of Indian philosophy, to devote his whole time to that important object. Thus Great Britain may have the glory of exploring fully that extensive field of unknown science, which the Academicians of France had the merit of first opening to the people of Europe.

A Short Exhortation given by the Right Reverend Father, John M'Donnel, Archbishop of St Andrews, at Torwood near Falkirk, on the 17th January 1746, before the Young Chevalier and Army, from Psalm lxxxii. 1, 2.

“ Give the king thy judgment, O Lord; and thy righteousness unto the king's son: he shall judge the people with righteousness, and the poor with judgment.”

MY dear gentlemen, soldiers, and loyal auditory, these are the words of the kingly prophet; free the vehemence of his inspired spirit, he ardently prays to the all-seeing eye for judgment and righteousness, and that the same may descend to his son to govern his people, which was obtained: for, my dear sauls, be assured, there is nothing a just man and servant of God asks from his great Creator but he obtains it. Its proved so; for no greater blessings could mortals have but his son and successor enjoyed; he had wisdom, riches, and all other worldly grandeur; he had trophies in war, and subdued all the enemies of God by his select people. Now, my dear sauls, and loyal soldiers, these words of God and his holy prophet were spoke and verified for the instruction of succeeding ages to the end of the world, and may now be applied to our present cause. We are

here to fight the battle of God against his enemies, under the command of the king's son; he is the heir, and no doubt has the hereditary right of the crown of his ancestors: you see him there in his Royal Person, not coveting the right of any other, but endeavouring to recover his own, usurped from his royal family many years past, and by the blessing of God he'll do it, and say as the royal prophet expresseth it in the 118th Psalm, ver. 7. “ The Lord taketh my part with them that helpeth me, therefore I shall see my desire upon my enemies.” My dear sauls, you see that God has raised his most Christian Majesty, and Catholic Majesty, two of the greatest monarchs in the world, to be his help: you, my dear fellow-subjects and loyal hearts, are bound by God and nature to help your true and undoubted Prince to his ane: O now, my brave and heroic soldiers, let your courage and valour be known at command, in asserting the right of your native and hereditary Prince; he is no alien precariously brought over from the German continent, and placed by a rebellious and miserable folk on the

the throne of his most royal ancestors, contrary to the laws of God and nations: all the princes of Europe know this usurpation to be every ways contrary to God, and an open violation of the laws of monarchical right; they take it to be the most heinous act that can be committed by any civilized people on the globe of the earth; and those miserable folk, guilty of still persevering in their sins, will be brought very soon to condign punishment; their sins are come to a height, and their many abominations, made obvious to the kenne'd earth: they martyred their king, banished his royal issue, abjured his lawful heir, and bid L. 100,000 for his head; nay, they a' cryed out like the perverse and oblurate Jews, Crucify him, crucify him. O height of villany and wickedness of heart! But, my dear auditory, God forbid it, who is the protector and shield of the royal head, and will lead his royal standard on in the battle to crush and cut his enemies.—He is now, my dear fellow subjects, and brave soldiers, your Joshua and captain, under God; he will favour the justice of his cause, which God well kenns.—We find in the holy writ, that the sun stood still until Joshua, the captain of God, cut the enemies of God by the order and decrees of Heaven: the same God that was the leader and conductor of his holy captain, is the conductor and leader of your captain, and will give you your trophies against those miscreants and excommunicated dogs who war against you, after a little while; but you must have a little patience; and bear, little fatigues with your royal captain who shews you a magnificent example. Now I will name some of the brave Scots that never failed to shew their valour and courage upon a' occasions: the great Robert de Bruce's family, the ancient blood of Hamilton and Douglas, the famous Gordons, undaunted Grahams, heroick Lesleys, brave

Lindsays, and Ramsays, stout Dundasses, and Dalrymples; now the brave offspring of Fergus M'Roy antient king of Ireland and true King of Scots, long before the Incarnation of our blessed Saviour, asserters of monarchy and champions of God; such as M'Donnells, M'Ronnells, M'Cleans, M'Kivers, M'Kenzie's, M'Gregors, M'Farlanes, M'Phersons, the famous M'Dowalls and M'Intiers. A' you faithful Irish, select English ancient Welsh, and undaunted French, that hear me, join hearts and hands together, handle your weely weapons, sharp-edged swords and targets, and bring your ane true Prince to his primitive, or die can by can. You see you have the voice of the select of God, the good humble and meek, brave and just, now even the very populace cry out The King and the King's undoubted heir; which is according to the word of God, in the second book of Kings ver. 12. in the following words, "And he brought the King's son, and put the crown upon him, and gave him the testimony, and made him King, and anointed him, and clapt their hands and said, God save the King:" O my dear souls, you see how these words of God are now coming in, and hear farther what it says in the second of Chronicles, ver. 12. "Behold, God himself is with us, for our captain and his priests, with sound of trumpet to cry alarm against you:" and so it is, my dear bairns of God, the ordinance of the Almighty power of heaven and earth is to be observed by his anointed, and they are sounding trumpets in God's revealed orthodox faith. Now the time is come to assert his right, until the heir restore the grieved and wronged subjects to their primitive rights and liberties, propagate God's holy religion and church, and crush its enemies: you see and may be well assured, that those against him are the spawn of regicides, and king-killers, who

who descended from the Oliverian bell-hounds, their guilt is in their faces, and their date of being is at hand.— Now, my dears, keep close to command, and observe what the gospel saith;—*Sis fidelis usque ad mortem, et dabo tibi coronam vitæ*—Be you faithful unto death, and you shall have the crown of life; and that we may have that, let us a' implore the Almighty God upon our knees to grant us

that; and after that, a' that is pleased to join me, let us invoke the intercession of the glorious Mother of God, who will, no doubt, obtain what she asks from our dear Saviour Jesus Christ, her dear Son, that he would be pleased to prosper our royal captain, direct our steps, and forward our good designs, to the glory of God and the benefit of our King and country. *Amen. Amen.*

Of the Philosophers who have believed in a Plurality of Worlds, and of such as have adopted that Idea; by M. Gerard.

THOUGH the plurality of worlds is not a philosophical dogma altogether proved, yet the opinion should appear the more probable, as it has, for its foundation, first, that principle of truth that nature does nothing in vain; and, secondly, astronomical observations which cannot be refuted.

The ancients, deprived of the advantages of the telescope, supplied the defect with an extraordinary perspicacity of mind. They discovered, with the eyes of genius, what our instruments have brought within our view. They knew the path we have taken in order to establish the doctrine of a multitude of worlds, and they have deduced, from the same principle, the consequences which the moderns have drawn. We cannot have a greater or more sublime idea, nor one more worthy of the greatness of the Deity, than their notions of the destination of the planets, and of the multiplicity of stars that adorn the firmament: the sages of antiquity considered them as so many suns, round which planets similar to those in our solar system revolved: they went still farther; they maintained that these planets were inhabited by beings, the nature of whom they did not define, but who, they said, yielded neither in beauty nor in size to ourselves.

Orpheus is the most ancient author whose opinion on this subject has been preserved. Proclus, in his commentary on Timæus, quotes three verses of this philosophical poet, in which he expressly says that "the moon is a world like ours, which has its mountains, its vallies, &c. Pythagoras, who followed Orpheus in many of his opinions, also taught that "the moon is a world similar to our own, inhabited by animals whose nature he did not determine;" although he believed them larger and more beautiful than those that inhabit our globe, and not subject to the same infirmities. The sentiment of Democritus, as related by Stobæus, on the nature of the moon and the cause of the spots we observe on her disc, which he believed to be "nothing but shades formed by the great height of the mountains he supposed to be in the moon," as well as the question agitated by Plutarch on the same subject, further prove our assertion. Lastly, Aristotle, Epicurus, and Heraclitus believed in the plurality of worlds; as did Thales, Anaximenes, Alcinous the Platonist, Xenophanes, Anaxagoras, Xenophon, Lucian, &c. Origen explained the opinion of Democritus on the existence of an innumerable quantity of worlds, some of which were inhabited by animals,

imals; but others had neither animals nor plants. This was the doctrine which furnished Alexander the Great with the idea, which has been preserved as an evidence of his ambition, when he wept that he had only one world to subdue:

The magnificence and fecundity of nature shine in all her works. The hand of the Almighty, which laid the foundations of the universe, which suspended from the arch of heaven millions of globes of light, which gave them the first impulse, which created planets similar to that we inhabit, could it have been unable to people those orbs as it has peopled ours? We have stronger reasons than the ancients had for believing that the moon is inhabited. All the modern observations tend to persuade us that the moon has an atmosphere, that some parts are lighter and more elevated than others, and that those places which reflect the light less strongly, and present a surface at all times equally smooth, are vast seas: from all which it has been concluded, that in the moon there are mountains, the height of which has even been measured geometrically.

The celebrated Galileo determined, that the highest of these inequalities exceeded the height of any of the mountains of the earth. The total eclipses of the sun, the aid of the telescope, the assertions of the most illustrious astronomers, especially of Cassini, the man of our world, says Fontenelle, to whom the heavens were best known, all concur in persuading us, that since there is in the moon, as in our earth, an atmosphere, mountains, seas and rivers, we must conclude that there will also be rain, snow, and all the other meteors which are the consequence of these suppositions; nor is it less to be concluded, according to our ideas of the wisdom of God, that he has there placed beings, of whatever nature they may be, to inhabit that planet, that all those things, all that accumulation of phe-

nomena may not be useless; for we will not suppose that nature, or the Supreme Architect of the universe can have made any thing in vain.

Among the moderns, those who have thought that because the moon is furnished with hills and vallies, fogs, forests, seas, and honces, it must therefore be an inhabited or a habitable country, are Father Marfenius, Gilbert, Cassendi, &c. Kepler was also of opinion that the moon was inhabited. Hevelius, in his ingenious description of that planet (*Selenographia*) has divided it into provinces.

Cyrano de Bergerac's *Histoire comique* of the empire of the moon is well known. It would appear from the burlesque, inflated, and singular style of that work, that the spirit of the author had made frequent journeys to the country he describes. It is evident, however, notwithstanding the fooleries in which he indulges, that he was well acquainted with the principles of Descartes, and that, had age ripened his talents, he would have been capable of something better.

Superstition and enthusiasm, which mingle in all religions, do not injure the truths they are sometimes connected with. Father Kircher has transported himself in idea into all the planets, and has given us the description of their inhabitants according to the fancies of his own brilliant imagination. Thus, according to those fancies, there are for example in Saturn, melancholy old men, walking with the pace of a tortoise, clothed in mournful habits, armed with smoking torches, and whose countenances are pale and forbidding. In Venus, on the contrary, there are young people of the most enchanting shape and beauty, some dancing to the sound of lyres and cymbals, others scattering flowers and perfumes. The author explains the reason of this difference in the inhabitants of the two planets; and his reasons, which are not wanting, are as solid as his visions. Persons who have

time to spare, or to throw away, may find, in the *Iter extaticum* of that famous Jesuit, a description of the inhabitants of the other planets. It is very extraordinary that this book should have had so great a reputation as to make it go through several editions; this is still more surprising, when we consider the following extravagant questions which it contains. 'Would it be proper to make use of the wine that is produced in Jupiter in the sacrifice of the Mass?' 'Could we venture to make use of the water found in the moon, in the sacrament of baptism?' &c.

After what we have here said, it is evident that Fontenelle was not the first who imagined that each planet, from the Moon to Saturn, was a world inhabited like our earth. In doing him this honour, the learned authors of the Encyclopædia have been mistaken. But it is true, that the ingenious academician, in his *Discourse on the Plurality of Worlds*, has developed, in the most pleasing manner, a doctrine nursed in the cradle of philosophy; and that his pencil, guided by the Graces, has given innumerable attractions to a subject little susceptible of them. Those who have advanced that Huyghens's Treatise on the plurality of worlds formed the groundwork of Fontenelle's on the same subject, are not less deceived; for this work appeared twelve years before that of Huyghens. But however that may be, the general reason by which Fontenelle supports the doctrine already established by other observers since Pythagoras, is, that the planets are bodies similar to our earth; that our earth itself is a planet, and consequently, since this last is inhabited, the others must be so too.

"Let us suppose, says he, that there is no intercourse between Paris and St Denis, and that an honest citizen of Paris, who has never been out of his native city, shall be placed on the turrets of Notre Dame, and shall see

St Denis at a distance. If he shall be asked whether he supposes St Denis to be inhabited like Paris, he will boldly answer, "No; for I see people in Paris, but I see none in St Denis, nor ever heard of any." Should it be represented to him, that indeed when one is on the turrets of Notre Dame no inhabitants are seen at St Denis, but that the distance alone is the cause of this; for that in other respects it resembles Paris; it has steeples, houses, and walls, and consequently may have inhabitants; all this will not persuade our citizen; he will still maintain that there are no inhabitants in St Denis, because he does not see them."

This work is deservedly the most celebrated performance of Fontenelle. We see him there as he really was, a clear and profound philosopher, a sprightly, elegant, and polite wit.—This book, says Voltaire, gave the first example of the delicate art of bestowing graces even on philosophy: but it was a dangerous example, because the true garb of philosophy is order, perspicuity, and especially truth: and that, since the appearance of this ingenious work, men have but too often endeavoured to substitute for these, points and fallies of wit, and false ornaments. What alone will hinder it from being placed by posterity in the list of our classic works, is its being founded in part on the chimerical vortices of Descartes, of whom Fontenelle was all his life a great admirer, and defended till his death the errors he had adopted in his infancy.

"Among those who have loudly condemned the reveries of Father Kircher we must distinguish Huyghens. This learned man, however, also believed that the planets are inhabited, and for the following reasons: As water is the principle of all things, it must exist in the planets; and if it does exist, by the assistance of the heat of the sun it must produce plants and trees.—But these productions would be vain and

and useless, were there not men in the planets; they must therefore be inhabited: and following out this consequence, the author shews that these inhabitants must be similar to those on our earth. Accordingly he peoples these worlds with fools and wits, with rogues and honest men; and in order to restrain these different characters within just bounds, he supposes there must be laws and judges. Thus Huyghens supports the same system with Fontenelle, with this difference, that he finds in the planetary inhabitants the greatest analogy with us, and ascribes to them the same arts and acquirements.

Wolfius not only declared himself a zealous partizan of the plurality of worlds, but supposed he had good reasons for determining even the stature of the astræan inhabitants. Those that possess Jupiter, says he, must be giants of thirteen feet $\frac{3}{10}$ high, which was nearly the stature of Og, king of Bathan, whose bed, according to Moses, was nine cubits long and four broad. Benjamin Martin likewise adopted the hypothesis of Fontenelle. M. Savarico thinks the doctrine possible; but, adds he, simple conjectures, however ingenious they may be, advance but little the knowledge of nature, and philosophers are content with probabilities when facts are wanting. Since the invention of the telescope these conjectures have been fortified. Dutens thinks the doctrine so probable, that no sound mind can reject it. I shall now mention such learned men as have not admitted the plurality of worlds, and solve the difficulties which have been proposed against the system.

Although it appears that Aristotle had embraced the opinion of Democritus on this subject, yet the Peripatetics maintained that the moon could not be a world, because it contained no animals, that they could not exist there except by generation or corruption; that the moon is incorruptible, that it has always enjoyed a constant

and stable position, and that no change has been observed in it from the beginning of the world to the present time. But Hevelius answers, that our earth, however corruptible it may appear to us, has endured as long as the moon; that there may have been corruption imperceptible to us from its distance, happening only in its smallest parts, or on its surface like that on our earth, which we could not perceive were we as distant from it as we are from the moon. He adds many other reasons, which he confirms by discoveries he says he has made by means of a telescope of his own invention, which has shewn him that the luminous and dark places, the large and the small appearances in the moon, have a just correspondence with our seas, rivers, lakes, plains, mountains, forests.

Plutarch, after having explained the opinion of a plurality of worlds generally taught by the ancient Greek philosophers, says, that he was far from condemning it, and he thought it very probable, that there was a vast, though determinate number of worlds like ours. It appears from a passage of the same author, that, in his time, the question was agitated, whether in the moon there were exhalations and vapours, which, rising from its surface, caused rain, and other meteors. Plutarch seems to incline to those who maintained the negative; he thought the moon would be so heated, by the constant endurance of the sun's rays on its surface, that the whole moisture would be evaporated, and nothing left to suffice for new vapours, whence he concludes, that there were neither rain, nor clouds, nor wind, consequently neither animals nor plants. The same reason is still alledged by those moderns, who oppose the opinion of the moon's being people; though the only necessary consequence to be drawn from those difficulties should be, that the beings living on that planet are different from those

those on ours, and that their constitutions are accommodated to the climate, and to the nature of the place destined for them.

M. de la Hire, from his observations, concluded that those spots on the moon, which have been supposed seas, are only large portions, the soil of which is naturally darker. But if there be no seas in the moon, there can be no atmosphere, at least no sensible one; and he endeavours to explain that ring of light, which appears in the solar eclipses without supposing an atmosphere. It should follow from this, according to la Hire, that as there are no vapours, nor rain in the moon, there can be neither plants nor men.

The most universal scholar in Europe, who held in his hands the chain of all human acquirements, the illustrious Leibnitz, has diverted himself with our present subject, and thus explains himself: "If the communication with those planetary men, who, according to Huyghens, are the most like ourselves, were open, it would deserve the consideration of a general council, whether we should extend the propagation of the faith beyond our own earth. Many, no doubt, would insist that the reasonable animals of those countries, not being of the race of Adam, have no right to the redemption of Jesus Christ; but others would perhaps say, that we are not sufficiently certain, neither where Adam always was, nor what has become of all his posterity, for there have been even divines, who have supposed that the moon was the seat of paradise, and therefore that it would be the safest way to baptise those doubtful men conditionally, that is, if they were susceptible of it: but I must doubt, if they would ever be priests of the Roman church, because their consecration would always be doubtful, and people would be exposed, in the opinion of that church, to

the danger of idolatry. Luckily for us the nature of things exempts us from the embarrassment."

In another place, having mentioned Huyghens, Fontenelle, and the ingenious fiction of Kepler, on the state of the moon, our philosopher adds: "It will perhaps be said, that it is just in the empire of the moon as it is here. It is true, that we judge otherwise of moons, (which are only satellites,) than we do of primary planets. An Englishman, a man of wit, has given a pleasant description of Spaniard, whom some birds of passage transported to the moon; not to mention Cyrano, who afterwards went to find this same Spaniard. Some men of genius, wishing to draw a fine picture of another world, convey the souls of the blessed from world to world, and we find in them a part of what men of genius can conceive. But whatever their conceptions may be, I am afraid, considering the great distance between us and such geniuses, and until these glasses are discovered which Descartes makes us hope for, that are to shew us parts in the moon no larger than houses, we shall not be able to determine what are the contents of a world different from ours."

The Abbé Paulian considers a plurality of worlds as a chimera and the work of Fontenelle as a romance, to which, however, he in some respects does justice. He cites the passage of the Parisian on the turrets of Notre Dame, and says, that this is the foundation on which the author builds his opinion of the moon's being peopled.

I think, adds he, that this is to prove a proposition, as a man would do who does not care whether he is believed or not. But Fontenelle knew that comparisons are not reasons, and it is not on this foundation alone that he has reared his structure.

The difficulties urged against the doctrine of the planets being peopled may be reduced to the following; 1st,

It

It is doubted if several of the planets, and among others the moon, be furnished with an atmosphere; and, in this case, it is not to be conceived how living beings could breathe there or exist: 2d, We observe in several planets, for instance in Jupiter, &c. distinct and considerable changes on their surface; but an inhabited planet ought to remain uniform: 3d, Comets are certainly planets, but it is difficult to believe that comets are inhabited, on account of the extreme difference which the people there would experience in the heat of the sun; being sometimes burnt, and sometimes frozen. The comet of 1680, for instance, passed almost close upon the sun, and then went off in such manner that it will not perhaps return for five hundred and seventy-five years. What living beings could support such prodigious heat at one time, and such intense cold at another? 4, Theological objections.

To these conjectures it has been answered; 1st, That the atmosphere of the planets is confirmed by a great many astronomical observations, according to which the spots, the belts of Jupiter, &c. have been considered as long seas of water, or some other fluid matter, and that the dark spots of the same planet are sufficient ground for believing that the surface consists of land and water like our earth: 2d, The different distances of the planets, while they occasion too

much heat and light on some, and too much darkness and cold in others, do not make it impossible for these bodies to be peopled worlds, as the structure and different organs of sense, in their different inhabitants, are no doubt adapted and appropriated to the different constitutions and temperature of the place they inhabit, by the same wise and powerful being who has accommodated our bodies to the earth we live on: 3d, Fontenelle has sheltered himself from the objections of divines, by declaring that he did not place men there, but creatures quite different from men. But, after all, why should the opinions of Huyghens be contrary to scripture? we are told indeed, that all men are descended from Adam, meaning all the men on our globe; other men may inhabit other worlds, and descend from other progenitors than Adam. Shall the insect that creeps on a point of the surface of this earth dare to prescribe limits to the plastic hand of nature? 4th, The doctrine of a plurality of worlds, founded on the most solid observations and reasonings of astronomy, is rendered the more probable as it gives us the most sublime idea we can conceive of the deity, and tends to demonstrate his power and glory. It is therefore with reason that all modern philosophers acknowledge as many solar systems, more or less like ours, as there are fixed stars.

Interesting Observations on some Common Improperities in Writing the English Language: (Part of the Preface to Switt's Works :) By Mr Sheridan.

AS the living speech has never engaged our attention, the whole being employed about the written language, many barbarous words, of uncouth sound, are still retained, notwithstanding there are others of the same import more pleasing to the ear. Such as—

Whilst		While
amongst	For	among
betwixt		between
amidst		amid.

No final sound can be more disagreeable than that of *ff*, as it is only the sudden stop of a hiss.

Downwards

Downwards Downward
forwards For forward
towards toward.

What occasion is there for continuing the final *s* in these words?

Further—farther.

Why is this anomaly suffered to remain, when we have the regular degrees of comparison in—Far, farther, farthest?

Beside—besides.

These two words being of a similar sound, are very improperly used promiscuously, the one for the other. When employed as a preposition, the word *beside* should always be used; when as an adverb, *besides*. The first signifies, *over and above*; the last, *moreover*: as in the following sentences. Beside (*over and above*) what has been advanced upon this subject, it may lead us to enquire, &c.

Besides, (*moreover*) what has been advanced upon this subject, may lead us to enquire, &c.

It is always an imperfection in a language to have the same individual word belong to different parts of speech; but when there are two words differently pronounced, and differently spelt, used promiscuously for each other, both in point of meaning, and in discharging the different offices of preposition and adverb, it favours much of barbarism, as it is so easy to allot their peculiar province to each. When I find that the word *beside*—should be always used as the preposition, and—*besides*—as the adverb, the choice was not made at random. In its prepositional state, it must be closely united to the following word; in its adverbial, it should always have a pause after it. Now the word *beside*—not loaded with the final *s*, is rendered more apt to run glibly into the following word: and the word *besides*, always preceding a pause, has,

by the addition of the *s*, a stronger sound to rest upon.

Like—likely.

These two words also, from a similitude of sound, though of such different meanings, are used promiscuously. Like—should be confined to similitude,—Likely—to probability.

No-ways—nowise.

No-ways—is a vulgar corruption from no-wise, and yet has got into general use, even among our best writers. The terminating—*wife*—signifies manner; as—*likewise*—in like manner—*otherwise*—in a different manner. It should be always written—*nowise*, in no manner.

From whence—whence.

The preposition—*from*—in the use of this phrase, is for the most part redundant, as it is generally included in the word whence. Thus—*whence* come you? signifies—*from* what place come you? *Whence* it follows—*from* which it follows.

No—not

The particle—*no*—is often substituted in the place of—*not*; as—I care not whether you believe me or *no*. To shew the absurdity of this, it will be only necessary to add the words after—*no*—which are understood—*as* thus—I care not whether you believe me, or *no* believe me—instead of do not believe me. The adverbs *no* and *yes*, are particles expressive of the simple dissent or assent of the speaker, and can never be connected with any following word; and we might with as much propriety say—I care not whether you do not believe me or *yes*—as make use of its opposite—*no*—in that manner. This vulgarism has taken its rise from the same cause before-mentioned, the similarity of sound between *no* and *not*.

Never

Never so—ever so.

This is a strange solecism in language. *Never* so, signifies *not* ever so. Let us substitute the one for the other, and the absurdity will be apparent. Thus, when we say—I will do it, let him be *never* so angry—how contrary to the intention would it appear, should the phrase be changed to—let him not be *ever* so angry. Or if we use the same word in a phrase of like import—I will do it *however* angry he may be—how glaring would the absurdity appear, should any one say—*how*ever angry he may be.

I *had* rather.

This phrase is strangely ungrammatical; *rather*—means—more willingly. Now let us substitute the one in the place of the other—as I *had* more *willingly* go than stay,—and its impropriety would be manifest. The adverb—*rather*—is expressive of an act of the will, and therefore should be joined to the verb—to *will*—and not to the auxiliary—to *have*. Instead of I *had* rather—it should be—I *would* rather.

A—an.

In the use of this article, it has been laid down as a rule, that it should be written—*a*—before a consonant, and—*an*—before a vowel; but by not attending to the exceptions to this rule, the article *an* has been very improperly placed before words of a certain class, which ought to be preceded by the vowel singly. All words beginning with *u*, when the accent is on it, or when the vowel is sounded separately from any other letter, should have *a*, not *an*, before them. As, a *mute*, a *universe*, a *useful* project, &c. For the vowel *u*, in this case, has not a simple sound, but is pronounced exactly in the same manner as the diphthongs commencing with *y*; nor should it be placed before words commencing

with *u*, when sounded exactly in the same manner: if we write—*a youth*, we should also write—*a use*.

In like manner—*an*—never precedes words commencing with *w*, nor should it therefore the vowel *o*, when it forms the same sound. Thus the word, *one*, has the same sound as if written, *won*, and yet it has been the custom to write—such *an* one. In both cases contrary to the usage of speech.

When words begin with the letter *b*, they are preceded sometimes by *a*, sometimes by *an*; and this by an invariable rule in speaking. When the *b*, or aspirate, is sounded, the article *a* is used; as, *a house*, *a horse*: when the *b* is mute, *an* is employed; as, *an hour*, *an honour*; pronounced as if written *an our*, *an onnor*. And yet in all books published of late years, the article *an* precedes all words beginning with *b*, alike—as *an house*, *an horse*, &c. Surely the printers ought to reform this abuse, when they have such an obvious rule to guide them. They have nothing to do but to follow the established mode of speech, whereof printing ought, as nearly as possible, to be the transcript.

I have also taken the liberty of changing throughout an affected use of the third person singular in verbs, by employing the termination *eth*, long since become obsolete, as, *loveth*, *readeth*, *writeth*, instead of—*loves*, *reads*, *writes*. This habit seems to have been caught from Swift's professional use of the church-service, the bible, sermons, &c.; for in the early editions of his first publications, it had not obtained; nor indeed in any of the others has it uniformly prevailed, as not only in the same page, but even the same sentence, the different modes are frequently to be found; and the terminating *er*, is, out of all proportion, oftener used than that of *eth*; which would not have been the case, had it been the effect of judgment, or

of choice. Now, as this singularity is not to be met with, in any of the polished writers from the days of Charles the second to this hour, I thought it should no longer have the sanction of so distinguished a name, by the casual use of it here and there in his works; especially as the change was much for the better, and founded upon good taste. None of the elements of speech have a less agreeable sound to the ear, than that of *esh*; it is a dead obtuse sound, formed of the thickened breath, without any mixture of the voice; resembling the noise made by an angry goose, from which indeed it was borrowed; and is more disagreeable than the hissing *s*, which has at least more of sharpness and spirit in it. On this account, as well as some other causes arising from the genius of our tongue, not necessary to be explained here, it has been long disused by our best writers; but

as it yet remains in the translation of the Bible, and in the Common Prayer-book, it may be still employed, even to advantage, in sermons, and works of divinity; as it borrows a kind of solemnity, and somewhat of a sanctified air, from being found only in those sacred writings; on which account, I have suffered it to remain in such of Swift's Works as may be class'd under those heads.

Those who are advocates for the change of *s* into *esh*, assign as a reason for it, that in so doing we avoid the frequent repetition of that hissing letter, objected to our language as an imperfection. But in this, as in many other instances where sound is concerned, they judge by the eye, not the ear; for the letter *s*, after every consonant in our language, except *t*, loses its own power, and assumes that of *z*, one of our most pleasing sounds.

Circumstances which should determine the Situation of a Highland Fishing Village, in answer to Queries by the Highland Society in Scotland.*

TO answer one of the requisitions of the Society's advertisement, we shall state, *what in our opinion are the circumstances, which should determine the situation of a village on the coasts of the Highlands.*

The first thing, therefore, in our judgment, which should determine the preference in favours of any one place as the stance of a fishing village, upon the coasts of the West Highlands, is, that such place, or its vicinity, shall be noted, by long experience, as the principal resort of fish (particularly of herring, upon that part of the coast).—This consideration ought to outweigh every other one; and though other places might possess all other requisites for the stance of a village, yet, if not

in the neighbourhood of a good fishing ground, a village, in the present state of the Highland coast, should not be built there, but at the best fishing place, provided it be not impracticable, from the face of the country, (which is the case at some places on the West coast) to set down a village, and accommodate the settlers with even small gardens there.

Next, if there are two or more places, remarkable for the greatest resort of herrings upon that part of the coast, surely the preference should be given to that place where there is the greatest quantity of arable, or at least improveable, level land.

Again, if there are two or more places upon any one part of the coast, equally

* From "Observations on the Scotch Fisheries." By P. White, Esq.

equally noted for these two advantages, the preference, no doubt, should be given to the one from which a road to communicate with the Low-country could be cheapest made. Oeconomy is highly necessary: and therefore preference should be given to the cheapest road, though longest, provided the difference of distance be not attended with any considerable disadvantage to the inhabitants of the proposed village. It is almost needless to explain here how the longest road may be cheapest. Every gentleman of the Society knows that the Highland country is incumbered with rocks, and intersected by many rivulets, and that a mile of road in some places, will cost more money than to make twenty in other places. But from what we have said, it must not be inferred, that we propose placing the villages at a distance from the Low-country, rather than near it.— This is the farthest thing imaginable from our meaning. What we urge is, that a cheap long road, would probably be more convenient for the funds destined to the encouragement of the Fishery, than a short, but expensive one: If any place upon the West coast is found possessed of the two first qualifications we have mentioned, and from whence a road could be made, cheaper than from any other part possessed of like qualifications, the shortness of the road would enhance the value of the situation, and it ought immediately to be made choice of for the site of a village.

Next, if there are two or more places upon that part of the coast, which shall be equally in possession of all the local advantages we have mentioned, we would prefer the one for building our village upon, which should be known to be best frequented by haddocks, and other small fish; because these would afford some subsistence to the inhabitants of the village, when the herring-fishing should happen in any one year to fail.

Lastly, we reckon the neighbour-

hood of peat-moss in one place, and not in another, if both are equally possessed of the local advantages already mentioned, a good reason for preferring the place where moss is found, to the other, for building a fishing village upon.

Should all these local advantages meet, in any situation upon the Highland coast, we may safely pronounce, that such situation is the very place proper for building the proposed village upon. To the great credit of the advisers of the measure of building there, the village of Ullapool will be found to be possessed of all these advantages. It is not only the best situation for a village, upon the northern district of the west coast, but (if we are not misinformed) it is the very best, from at least Toppermorry all along the whole range of the West coast, to the North-eastermost point of this part of the united kingdom.— Ullapool is in the very centre of the best fishing grounds for herrings in Scotland: there is a fine flat of land there, most of it arable, and the rest very improveable. The making a road from it to the Low-country, will be cheaper and easier than from any other part of the North-West coast we know. In the bay of Ullapool, (a smooth land-locked corner of Lochroom) some of the finest haddocks and other kinds of fish are to be found at almost all seasons of the year, within two or three hundred yards of the doors of the residents there; and there is, in the hills at the back of the level land at Ullapool, moss inexhaustible. If, therefore, the village of Ullapool does not thrive, there must be very small hopes, that one built upon any other part of the West coast will succeed.

In what we have said respecting the circumstances which should weigh principally in setting down a village upon the West Highland coast, we apprehend our reasons for the estimation in which we have held each circumstance, and the consequent priority of order

order we have placed it in, are obvious, without any farther explanation; but our making so small account of moss, for the necessary article of fuel, as to consider it as the *last* and *least* object, to be taken into the reckoning, in selecting a situation for a village, may require to be accounted for.

The Society is not to be informed, that the climate of the whole of the West coast of Scotland is boisterous, and subject to great rains. This circumstance is very unfavourable to the gaining of peats: the making of fuel from moss is one of the hardest pieces of work the Highlanders have to encounter. They dig their peats to-day: some days after they lift them from the ground to dry; next day a hurricane of wind and rain throws them all down: they are set up again, and again share the same fate. By this time the season is gone, and the poor people are obliged to put the peats in a wet state up into stacks. Thus their time is consumed, their bodies toiled, and, after all, their purpose is not at-

tained; for the peats stacked wet will not burn, and they are consequently in great misery, with smoke and cold, through the winter. For these reasons, we look upon the neighbourhood of moss to be the very *least* consideration in chusing the stance of a village. Coals may be furnished to the inhabitants of such village perhaps cheaper (every thing considered) than peats, though they should even have the moss at their doors. But, at any rate, it would be extremely proper in the Joint-stock Company, in the present infancy of their village, to lay in a stock of coals at Ullapool. Were a considerable fishing to strike up there, during the time the people were at work with their peats, (which very often happens) they would be reduced to the dilemma, of either losing the fishing, or starving with cold through the winter; both these inconveniencies would be prevented, by the Company having on hand a quantity of coals, ready to answer such an emergency,

Observations on the Proceedings of the Joint-Stock Company at Tobermory and Ullapool: By the Same.

THE author left that country some years ago, and before the undertakings were begun at Ullapool. From the information he has received, he finds that very considerable buildings are already erected there; a pier, an inn, a place of worship, and a school-house; besides, a number of small houses for fishers and tradesmen, have been erected by individuals, aided, as we are informed, by the funds of the Company. Too much praise cannot be bestowed upon those persons, who set on foot and encouraged this plan, of civilizing and improving that neglected corner of our native country. When we reflect upon the noble motives by which these persons were

actuated, it is exceeding difficult to find fault with any thing which has been done under their directions, or to touch upon any thing unpleasant to them. Candour, however, and our professed desire of giving our undig- nified opinion, obliges us to observe, that it were to be wished the Company had proceeded more slowly in the laying out its money, and done some of its works upon a smaller scale, particularly the inn at Ullapool, which is most unnecessarily large. Probably it would have been better, had the Company economised as much as it could, in order that it might be the better enabled to advance the considerable sums which will be

wanted

wanted for that absolutely necessary measure, of making and keeping up roads of communication between their villages and the low-countries.

The establishment of some useful manufacture in the villages, and the making of these roads, we look upon as the principal considerations in the whole business of these new erections, *far as the Highlands is concerned.*

The failure of the fishing upon that coast for a tract of years, (as has been formerly known to have happened) would have the effect to draw off all the adventurers in the fishing upon a large scale, who had settled there. The only thing, therefore, which would be left as an inducement to the lower order of people to remain at the villages, would be the manufacture mentioned, and the facility with which they could communicate with the Low-country. The poor people who remained, would be thus enabled to carry on some little trade; and, by maintaining their hold, prevent all which the Company shall do from being totally lost, which would otherwise inevitably happen, if the herrings should abandon the West coast for any considerable space of time: these fish have been known to disappear upon that coast, for upwards of twenty years. Thus, roads would be a great benefit to the villages, in case of the worst happening. If the villages are prosperous, roads would infinitely increase their prosperity, by putting it in the power of the better fishers in these hamlets, to convey their fish fresh to the towns in the Low-country, where they would fetch great prices. Upon the subject of the manufacture proper to be introduced into the fishing villages, we shall reserve ourselves, until we come to speak of the improvements which the inferior parts of the Highlands will admit of; because the kind of manufacture proper to be established there, and the manner of conducting

it, will equally apply to the Coasts of the Highlands.

It is a melancholy consideration, when one reflects, that in a country, famous throughout the world for the wisdom and liberality of its civil polity, the maxims which that polity should dictate, are, in the case we are now speaking of, so much departed from, that the settling and civilizing the remote parts of the Empire, is not done under the direction, or at the expence, of the Government of the country, but is laid upon the shoulders of individuals, who, anxious for the public welfare, do it voluntarily out of their own estates, rather than fruitlessly apply for the aid of the State. A Frenchman, or a Swiss, would hardly give credit to this relation. In these countries, even when one of them was shackled under an arbitrary monarchy, works, the carrying on of which would bring advantage to the whole community, were done at the expence of that community. Some French authors have, with great success, shown in their writings, that the settling remote parts in a kingdom, and opening communications between these and the more civilized parts, ought to be the business of every well-ordered State.

But if our Governours are so torpid, as not to trouble themselves about such public services as that we are now speaking of, but to allow the charge of doing it to fall upon the virtuous individuals, whose zeal and anxiety for their country has led them to take the business upon themselves, yet surely they will, for very shame, now that they see so much done, give their consent, that the expence of making these necessary roads, shall be defrayed out of the public purse. This is an event devoutly to be wished for; and the Society, and all the friends of the Fisheries, and of the Highlands, should use their best endeavours to bring it about. It would
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relieve the Joint-stock Company of a very heavy burden, and lighten the *hops*, which it is not impossible may arise, when the Company shall come to balance accounts with these establishments it shall have fostered.

It will cost the minister very little trouble to do this favour to the Company, and this duty to his country.

The best way for him to do it, would be to lay a small tax upon the ton of every vessel employed in the herring-fisheries in Scotland, for the special purpose of making and maintaining these roads; the Company, or a committee of it, to be the trustees, under the act imposing the tax, for seeing the money duly applied. No body would grumble at this tax. A shilling a ton upon the *busses* might produce about 800*l.* per annum, upon the credit of which, the Company might borrow 6000*l.* or 7000*l.*; a sum, it is apprehended, sufficient to make the roads at present needed. The roads once made, the tax might be mitigated, except so much as was necessary to keep them in repair. It would be bad policy, in the present state of that country, to propose a turnpike upon these roads. We are sensible, that the sum above mentioned is not sufficient to make the roads in question, and also the bridges which would be requisite upon these roads; but the making the roads is the first thing to be done; which, if found of utility, there will then be encouragement to build bridges. It may be objected, that a tax upon the *busses* would be improper; but as it would be but a small one, and as the owners of the *busses* would be much benefited by these roads, it may be supposed they would think the payment of the tax no hardship. At present, when a *hull* has caught as many herrings as will load her, she departs for her port; and, let the fish be ever so plenty, she can derive no farther benefit from them; but if the roads in question are once made, the *busses*

will find sale for such herrings as they may catch, after they have made their cargoes; for not only the country people, but strangers from the Lowlands, will buy their surplus herrings, when they can take them away in carts, which at present they cannot do. Besides this, by means of good roads from the western fishing-grounds, to Inverness, &c. any *buss* which may come by a misfortune, can be supplied with sails, cordage, &c. from these places, instead of being obliged to go to her port (at the distance perhaps of an hundred miles) for that purpose, by which delay she might lose the fishing for that season.

We have already disclosed our sentiments, that in the present scarcity of market for British herrings, by unnecessarily pushing the Fishery, and lavishing encouragements upon it, an evil may arise to the country instead of a good: for this reason, we think the Joint-stock Company should proceed in their buildings with cautious steps. We do not say that they have already built enow of houses at their two said villages, but our sincere belief is, that it would neither be for the Company's own interest, nor for that of the Community, to proceed very much farther, until more markets are secured for British herrings. A town in a fertile country may be supported alone by the residence of *gentry* in it, a retail trade, and public *hospitals*; but, in the Highlands, it is a manufacture or fishery which must support any appearance of a collected society; therefore, instead of expending money upon buildings, which may never be inhabited, or which, if inhabited, will only help to fill the market with a commodity in no great request, we should humbly incline to think the Company should very soon suspend its operations, until the effects of the experiments it is now making shall be a little known. At the same time, we are under no difficulty in saying, that we think the best application of the Company's

pany's funds now, would be, first, to encourage some Dutch emigrants to settle at the two villages, for the purpose of teaching the people there the true method of preserving herrings: and, secondly, (if no aid can be obtained from Government) to apply part of these funds to the making and upholding proper roads between the said villages and the Low-lands. In the present state of the fishing trade, these two measures, in our opinion, are what the Company should direct its principal attention to.

Having said thus much regarding what the Joint-Stock Company have with the most laudable intentions done for this country, it falls next to be considered, by what encouragements the settlements already established by the Company, may be best preserved during their infancy, and until full time is given to make a fair experiment of their utility.

We shall not hesitate to say, that, in our opinion, the sooner these villages are left to uphold themselves by their own exertions and industry, the better for the Company and the community. Encouragements do not always produce the good effects they aim at, especially when bestowed by public bodies; although encouragements engage the sober and industrious, they are also baits for the needy, the desperate, and the idle. That industry depends as much, if not more, upon the spirit and disposition of the people, as upon the encouragements held out to them, is fairly exemplified in the history of the town of Stornaway, already mentioned, which has thriven and grown rich, although for a considerable time, and till of late, in the hands of even severity and exactness. At the same time that we say this, we are clearly of opinion, that all the individuals who are already invited, or whom it would be prudent hereafter to invite to these villages, should have liberal inducements held out to them, to remain or settle there.

The offering a house and garden to a settler *gratis*, may be an inducement to a wretch who rather intends to beg than work, and he will be glad of the offer without any farther encouragement; but if the Company wish for industrious men, it must not only offer them a free house and garden, but also a boat, nets, &c. upon credit. Even this is not enough: The accomplishment of the Company's purpose (viz. keeping the settlers in the villages) will never be brought about, unless it shall find a market at their doors for the fish caught by their settlers. We do not mean by this, that the Company should claim the pre-emption of all fish so caught; on the contrary, the settlers should be encouraged by the Company obliging itself to take from off their hands all such fish as they cannot dispose of, and that, not at an under, but at a medium price. Thus, the Company must for some time be the purchasers of fish: It must do more; for, with the price so given by the Company, to a settler for his fish, he cannot, in the present state of the villages and the country, procure the necessaries of life; therefore the Company, to effect its purpose, must engage itself to supply, at moderate prices, the settlers, at all times, for a certain period of years, with meal, butter, cheese, salt-beef, shoes, linen, ready-made fisher-jackets, &c. and coals, if demanded. Coals, it will be absolutely necessary the Company should provide, for reasons we have given. Without such encouragements are granted to the villagers for some time, we are of opinion the settlements will only languish, and at last die. It is almost needless here to observe, that the Company, in its mercantile capacity, must provide buildings for sheltering, and also materials for curing such fish as may be so offered by the settlers, as well as store-houses, for the articles of consumption we have mentioned. The Company should not however engage itself to these

these conditions long. If the fishery succeeds, and British herrings shall open a market for themselves, by the improvements which may be hereafter made in curing them, the consequent prosperity of the villages will open resources to the settlers for supplying themselves, upon perhaps better terms than the Company could afford. Upon the whole, we are of opinion, that the Company, while it on the one hand, for the reasons we have urged, proceeds with caution, in not bringing too great a number of people into its villages, it should, at the same time, on the other hand, grant due encouragement to those persons it may be proper to bring there, to induce them to come to, and remain in these settlements.— This last is a measure absolutely necessary, being the only chance for effecting the Company's purpose in any degree at all.

But there is a great difficulty remains, viz. What is to become of such

of the settlers as live alone by fishing; if, unhappily (as has often been experienced,) the herrings should desert the coast for some years running. In such a case, it would be impossible for the company to purchase their continuance at the village, at the dear rate of subsisting them upon the Company's credit all that time, in prospect of being paid by the after fishings of such settlers: even doing so for one or two years, would be too great a risk for the Company to run. We own this is a very great dilemma.

The difficulty here stated, has often employed the thoughts of the author of this paper; he has considered it with great attention, and, after the maturest deliberation, he can only think of one thing, which would provide against it: unfortunately, it is almost impossible to procure it: its name is, *The Liberality of the Government of Great Britain, to that part of the Kingdom called Scotland.*

To the PRINTER.

SIR,

I HAVE sent you a translation of a most excellent letter to Queen Elizabeth; written in Latin by the celebrated John Fox, the martyrologist. The original itself is but little known; and I believe a translation of it was never attempted, at least for the public eye. I am of opinion that the author carried his ideas of toleration as far as any Divine of the age in which it was written. At that time Mr Locke had not unfolded his principles, nor settled its extent. At that time too, the Rev. Mr David Williams had not published his letter on "Intellectual Liberty:" and scorning what Lord Nugent once called Mr. Locke's "mingled ray," had not then blazed forth in the full unclouded splendour of meridian liberty!

The following letter was occasion-

ed by the condemnation of two Dutch persons to the flames, for maintaining Arianism and other absurd and heretical opinions.

A letter from John Fox to Queen Elizabeth; from the Latin.

"Most serene and happy Princess; most illustrious Sovereign: the honour of your country, and the ornament of the age!

"AS nothing was more distant from my intention than this intrusion on Majesty, so I must confess that nothing ever affected me more sensibly than the silence which I have hitherto maintained, but which the necessity of duty now impels me to relinquish.

"I know not by what infelicity it hath

kath happened, that which was the least object of my hope or my ambition, should at this moment press with such resistless influence on my mind. I, who hitherto have walked on in his without molesting or intruding myself on any one, am now necessitated, even in violation of the modesty of my nature, to be importunate with Majesty itself:—urged to this step, indeed, not by any views of self-interest, but purely by the calamities of others; which, lest they should rise to a still higher degree, afford me an additional motive to deprecate the severity of judgment.

“ I have been informed, that with us there are some strangers—Hollanders, if I mistake not:—of both sexes, who were lately cited to the bar for maintaining pernicious doctrines. Some of them have been lately reduced from their errors, and have made the best atonement in their power for them, by a public act of penitence. The major part of these sectaries have been banished from this country; which in my opinion, was the most prudent step that could be taken. But I am inform'd that one or two are doomed to the last extreme of punishment; and (unless your Royal clemency should interpose) are to be devoted to the flames.

“ In this business, two objects principally strike me: the first respects the malignity of their errors; the second, the severity of their punishment. With regard to their errors, I can conceive of none more absurd and contemptible; and I presume that every person of common understanding must despise them as much as I do. For my own part, judging from the opinions themselves, I should have imagin'd that they were too ridiculous and inconsistent to have gained the belief of any Christian whatever. But such is the lot of frail humanity, that if, being destitute of the light of the Divine Spirit, we are left to ourselves, even for the smallest portion of time,

we know not into what delusions we may be precipitated. But I thank God, with the warmest gratitude, that not one person of our country, that I can find, hath been infected with this heretical frenzy. Fanaticism, like this, though it ought by no means to be encouraged in a state, yet ought always to be checked and suppressed, by rational methods of correction.

“ Truly, Madam, the fires of the stake, raging with the most combustible ingredients, have rather a tendency to throw a cloud over the underlandings, than to lay a proper restraint on the wills of the erroneous. They suit rather the rigid practice of Rome, than the gentle spirit of the gospel. In Rome, indeed, they had their origin: Pope Innocent the Third was the first who gave this example of cruelty to succeeding Pontiffs, for never, till his time, had any one dared to transport the brazen bull of *Perillus* from a tyrant's court to the Church of Christ. I do not say this from a delight in, or an indifference to, what is pernicious to Religion or the State, or to encourage the errors of any person.— But I value the lives of men—for I am a man myself. I would show some indulgence to these unhappy delinquents; not that they may persist in heresy, but that they may live to renounce it. Indeed my benevolence is not limited to my fellow-creatures; the very brutes share in my good will, and I would gladly extend my succour to the most abject of animals. For such is the tenderness of my disposition,—perhaps I may be thought vain in thus speaking of myself, but I feel it to be a truth, that I can scarcely pass by a public butchery, where the cattle are slaughtered, without feeling a secret uneasiness of mind. Hence I cannot enough admire the clemency of God, who commanded that the beasts which were devoted to sacrifice, should first be slain at the foot of the altar before they were committed to the fire. This instance of the Di-

vine clemency teaches us, that even in the most just and necessary punishments, rigour should not be carried to its utmost extreme; but that mercy should always temper the stroke of justice.

“ Since it is only allowed me to address the throne as a supplicant in the name of Jesus, to implore the Royal mercy for the wretched, I would presume to plead that authority (and what cannot *that* effect? (which Divine goodness hath conferred upon your Majesty for the protection of the lives of multitudes; and would make use of it as an argument in behalf of the poor delinquents—that you would in mercy spare them, or at least change their sentence, and soften the horrors of the punishment to which they have been condemned. There is exile or imprisonment. There are

chains and ignominious marks of public opprobrium and contempt. But the flames of Smithfield!—oh! suffer them not, after having been extinguished so long, under the auspices of your gentle reign, to be enkindled afresh.

“ If this request of mine cannot be granted (which yet I would offer to your Majesty in every possible form of supplication) yet, at least, let the maternal tenderness of the Royal breast indulge *this* wish,—that the execution of these unhappy creatures may be suspended for a month or two; that, in the mean time, we may wait to see whether the mercy of Heaven will reclaim them from their dangerous errors; lest, with the destruction of their bodies, their immortal souls should perish also.”

Description of Mount Carmel*.

ON ascending that part of Mount Carmel which projects into the sea like a promontory, one finds on the left a garden, surrounded by very weak walls, which conducts to two remarkable grottoes cut out of the rock with the chisel. These grottoes are held in great veneration by the Mahometans, who consider them as the ancient habitation of the prophet Elias. They have converted them into a mosque, under the title of El Rader; in which service is performed by a dervise, or Turkish monk, who with his family lives in a neighbouring cottage.

On coming out of these grottoes, the ascent is by a very steep and narrow path, which in some places is cut out of the rock in the manner of steps; and a little below the summit is situated a solitary convent of Carmelite

monks. The structure of this peaceful retreat, we are told, excites equal respect and admiration. It is indeed for its whole extent almost entirely to the hand of nature, which seems to have constructed it in favour of rural and sequestered virtue. The small apartments and cells destined for the use of travellers, are so many convenient grottoes, suited to the necessities of life. A grotto serves likewise as a chapel to this sacred place. It contains two altars, the principal of which is consecrated to the Virgin, and the other to St Elias. On the whole declivity of Mount Carmel, which divides the grottoes El-Rader from the convent, there may be seen a great number of cisterns, destined formerly for receiving the rain water. Some paces from the convent there is a solitary grotto, which the Orientals

* From “ Mariti’s Travels through Cyprus, &c.”

are persuaded was the habitation of the prophet Elisha, whose name it still bears. On the summit of the mountain are the ruins of an ancient edifice, which have hung over the cells of these Carmelites. They are as thick as the walls of a fortress. The first time that the traveller visited Mount Carmel, he found them much higher than he did at his return. He was told by the monks, that they had demolished about nine feet in the height of them, to prevent their falling on the cells, and burying them; which might have happened by the fury of the winds, that blow there sometimes with great violence. It seems as if St Elias inhabited successively every part of Mount Carmel, since the greater part of the grottoes, fountains, and fields, are still called by his name.

After travelling five miles, there commences a valley, on descending into which, one is struck with a view of a vast space cut out in the rock, which was destined for receiving horses, and is capable of containing a dozen. A neighbouring fountain, which winds through the valley, threw itself into a canal cut also out of the live rock, and turned the wheels of a mill at a little distance from the sea. The canal and the mill are now both destroyed; and no use is made of this beautiful stream, which loses itself in the neighbouring waves. A little lower, is a second spring, of equally pure water, to which the good Cenobites have resort when the summer heats dry up the cistern of the convent.

The traveller next enters a field called the field of Cucumbers; so named, because it contains a great number of round stones, the inner part of which, consisting of a sparry substance, has a great resemblance to the pulp of a cucumber. Oriental superstition considers this *lusus nature* as occasioned by a malediction of the prophet Elijah; who, not being able to obtain

from the proprietor one of those cucumbers to refresh him, denounced that they should be changed into stones. Abundance of the same kind of stones may be found in all the mountains of Syria.

At the distance of eight miles from the promontory, advancing towards the east, one arrives at a certain part of the mountain, called by the Arabs Mansur, and by the Europeans the place of sacrifice, in remembrance of what was done there by the prophet Elijah. The transaction alluded to, is his drawing down the fire from heaven on his sacrifice, to convince the people of Israel of the existence of the true God, while the prophets of Baal found their invocations attended with no effect. In the neighbourhood are forty grottoes all connected together; the now-deserted residence of the ancient anchorets of Mount Carmel.

Mount Carmel was anciently distinguished by the abundance of its productions, and the excellence of its fruits; but this favoured spot is at present covered with nothing but forests. It must, however, be naturally fertile, since various plants grow on it without cultivation; such as sage, wormwood, rue, hyssop, lavender, and parsley. It produces likewise many flowers, among which are hyacinths, lilies, anemones, tulips, and ranunculuses. This place, is extremely agreeable, and above all to the sportsman, on account of the number of fowls and quadrupeds with which it abounds. Among the latter are some tygers. On this mountain there was formerly a fortress called Ecbatana. Pliny tells us that it was afterwards called Carmel, as well as the promontory on which it was built. These solitary places were once the favourite haunt of Pythagoras, who resorted to them for meditation; and Vespasian came hither to consult the oracle, which, according to Tacitus, had only one altar, without a statue or temple.

temple. It may easily be perceived, that this celebrated mountain had formerly on its summit several magnifi-

cent edifices, the remains of which give still an idea of their ancient grandeur.

Account of Nazareth, Tiberias, and Mount Tabor; by the Same.

NAZARETH, a city of Galilee, so famous among the christians, is situated in 35 degrees of east longitude, and in 32 degrees of north latitude. It held the third rank among the metropolitan cities dependent on the patriarch of Jerusalem. At present, it forms a part of the domains of the chief of Acre. The ancient city, destroyed by fanaticism, was, after its ravages, nothing but a miserable hamlet, consisting of a few Arab huts. Under the protection of Daher Omar, however, it has recovered from its humiliation, and now makes a far superior appearance. The houses are built of beautiful stone. In the eastern part there is a handsome church dedicated to the Virgin, which was formerly destroyed by the Saracens, and rebuilt by the zeal of the Cœnobites. The building consists of three naves, divided by two rows of stone pilasters. That in the middle contains the principal altar, the ascent to which is by two magnificent staircases, formed with great skill by one of the monks belonging to the convent. Under the altar is a remarkable grotto, called the Chapel of the Annunciation. It is descended by steps of beautiful marble, which are cut with much taste. In this place, according to tradition, the angel appeared to the Virgin, and announced to her the future birth of our Saviour. Two beautiful columns of oriental granite strike the eye of the observer in the entrance. They appear to have been constructed both to support and ornament the grotto. The altar of this subterranean chapel is extremely

elegant; and the different kinds of marble with which it is ornamented, receive an additional lustre from the combined light of several silver lamps presented by christian princes. On solemn festivals, the walls and the pilasters are ornamented with various pieces of tapestry, representing the mysteries of the Virgin; a superb present from the house of Austria. In the western part of the city stands a christian church; built, as is said, on the site of the ancient synagogue where Jesus showed the Jews the accomplishment of the prophecies in his person. This place served a long time as a shelter for stocks; but at present it is in good repair. In the neighbourhood may be seen a fountain of excellent water, which is, however, esteemed by the people on another account. They conjecture that it was contiguous to the habitation of the Virgin, and that it was used by her. At some distance is a large stone, of a round form, called Christ's table. It is pretended that he came hither more than once with his disciples to eat. The inhabitants of Nazareth pay it a kind of worship, by burning perfumes and incense around it.

At the distance of a mile from the city, on the southern side, is a mountain which the Arabs call Seio, and the Nazarines 'the mountain of the precipice'; because the Jews wished to precipitate the Messiah from it. On the summit is found a small grotto, cut out in the rock, in the form of a tabernacle, to recall to remembrance the miraculous power manifested by the Son of God in escaping from the hands of the impious. There was formerly

formerly upon this mountain a celebrated monastery, which is now destroyed by time. Some cisterns, half in ruins, are the only memorials of its ancient existence. Opposite to this, and separated from it by a rivulet, stands another mountain, at about the distance of a gun-shot. This stream was so much swelled by the winter rain, that it overflowed all the neighbourhood, and even part of the plains of Galilee. Three miles from Nazareth, towards the southwest, stood the ancient city of Saffre, Jasse, or Saffre, of the tribe of Zebulon. Nothing now remains of it but a few rude stones. At a little distance is a delightful eminence, the sides of which are covered with vines. On the summit is a small village, with a rural altar, to which the fathers of Nazareth come to celebrate the festival of the apostles.

The city of Tiberias lies at the foot of a mountain. The neighbourhood of this place is very badly cultivated, and abounds with wild animals, both birds and quadrupeds; among the latter of which are a great many antelopes, a species of small goats. The city of Tiberias was one of the most considerable in Decapolis. It was built by Herod Antipa, tetrarch of Galilee, who named it Tiberias, in honour of Tiberius the emperor. Situated towards the southern part of the lake of Genezareth, is extended its walls for three miles towards the south, and in breadth occupied all that space which lies between the same lake and the mountains. At present, it is much less than formerly, being no more than a mile in circumference. It is of a square form, with two gates, one of which looks to the west, and the other towards the south. Its external appearance is very melancholy; the walls being built of brown iron-coloured stones, like those, our author observes, which the poets say surround the palace of Pluto. The dismal idea is still more increased by the appear-

ance of the interior part, where nothing is to be seen but misery and desolation. On one side are ruins half buried in the earth; and on the other, some shattered edifices, converted into a kind of huts. The aspects of the inhabitants correspond to that of the place; and they seem to live in extreme poverty. Before the year 1759, when this city was destroyed by an earthquake, it contained some beautiful edifices and ancient churches worthy of attention. To the west of the city, on the borders of the lake is a large church, which escaped the effects of that calamity. This religious place serves as an hospital for strangers, who are received in a very hospitable manner. The sea of Tiberias had different denominations at different periods. Sometimes it was called the sea of Galilee, and sometimes the lake of Genezareth; a name which was given to it from a city built between Bethsaida and Capernaum, belonging to the tribe of Naphtali. The excellent water of this lake, which is used by the inhabitants of Tiberias, flows from the sources of the Jor and the Dan, at the bottom of the Anti-Libanus, where stood Parades, called likewise Casarea. This lake is confounded afterwards with the river Jordan, and both discharge themselves into the dead sea. It is about eighteen miles in length from north to south, and its breadth about six miles. It is sometimes subject to great commotions, occasioned by a chain of mountains in the neighbourhood; where the winds meeting with opposition, recoil with violence upon the lake. It is rare to find here any boats or vessels, because its banks are barren and uncultivated. Several celebrated cities existed anciently on this coast; such as Capernaum, Bethsaida, Bethsan, Gadara, Tarichea, and Chorazin, of which nothing remains but shapeless ruins. This sea of Galilee is an object of veneration among the neighbouring christians, as being

much frequented by the apostles in their capacity of fishermen.

At the distance of a mile from Tiberias, on the north, there was formerly a town celebrated for the victories of Vespasian, and of which some vestiges may yet be seen. It was called Ammans, which signifies the Bath, on account of its hot springs, which are endowed with a medicinal quality.

Mount Tabor is distant from the sea of Tiberias about twelve miles, and is distinguished by different names; but, at present, it is called, in the Arabian language, Gibel-El-Tor. The situation of it is most delightful. Rising amidst the plains of Galilee, it exhibits to the eye a charming variety of prospects. On one side there are lakes, rivers and a part of the Mediterranean; and, on the other, a chain of little hills, with small valleys, shaded by natural groves, and enriched by the industry of the husbandmen with a number of useful productions. Here you behold an immensity of plains interspersed with hamlets, fortresses, and heaps of ruins; and there the eye delights to wander over the fields of Jezrael, or Mageddon, named by the Arabs Ebn-Aamer, which signifies the field of the sons of Aamer. A little farther you distinguish the mountains of Hetmon, Gilboa, Samaria, and Arabia the Stony. In short, you ex-

perience all those sensations, which are produced by a mixture and rapid succession of rural, gay, gloomy, and majestic objects. This is the sacred spot which was the scene of the transfiguration.

Mount Tabor has a perfect resemblance to a sugar loaf, and is covered with small trees from the top to the bottom. Its summit is inclosed by the remains of ancient walls. Within these is a plain of about two miles in circumference, on which, according to every appearance, no buildings were ever erected. Amongst the ruins of the churches may be distinguished three very beautiful tabernacles, which formed part of the ancient temple erected by St. Helen in memory of the transfiguration. In several places there are cisterns destined for the purpose of collecting the rain-water, because there are no springs on this mountain. Though the plain on the top be very much exposed to the severity of winter, it is often covered with odoriferous herbs even in the middle of that season. Great numbers of flocks and herds resort thither daily to feed on the rich pastures which abound in this place. It is no less frequented at present by multitudes of Oriental Christians, without distinction, whether Catholics or schismatics; and the fathers of the Holy Land likewise come thither annually to celebrate the transfiguration.

Of the fundamental Principles and Spirit of the Hindoo Religion.*

IF we abstract our minds from the abuses, and inquire into the spirit of the Hindoo religion, we shall find that it inculcates the belief in one God only, without beginning and without end; nor can any thing be more sublime than their idea of the Supreme Being.

In the dialogues between Krishna and Arjoon, Krishna says: "I am the creator of all things, and all things proceed from me. Those who are endued with spiritual wisdom know this, and worship me."

"I am the soul, which is in the bodies of all things. I am the beginning

* From "Sketches relating to the History, Religion, Learning, and Manners, of the Hindoos."

ning and the end. I am time; I am all-grasping death; and I am the resurrection. I am the seed of all things in nature, and there is not any thing animate or inanimate without me.

"I am the mystic figure Oom", the Reek, the Sam, and the Vayoor Veds. I am the witness, the comforter, the asylum, the friend. I am generation and dissolution: in me all things are repositied.

"The whole universe was spread abroad by me."

"The foolish are unacquainted with my supreme and divine nature. They are of vain hope, of vain endeavors, and void of reason; whilst those of true wisdom serve me in their hearts, undiverted by other gods.

"Those who worship other gods, worship me. I am in the sacrifice, in the spices, in the invocation, in the fire, and in the victim."

Arjoon says in reply: "Thou art the prime Creator—Eternal God!—Thou art the Supreme! By thee the universe was spread abroad! Thou art Vayoo, the god of the winds; Agnee, the god of fire; Varoon, the god of the oceans, &c.

"Reverence be unto thee; again and again reverence, O thou, who art all in all! Great is thy power, and great thy glory! Thou art the father of all things; wherefore I bow down, and with my body prostrate on the ground, crave thy mercy. Lord, worthy to be adored! bear with me as a father with a son; a friend with a friend; a lover with the beloved."

In speaking of serving the Deity, Krishna says:

"They who delighting in the welfare of all nature, serve me in my incorruptible, ineffable, and invisible form; omnipotent, incomprehensible, standing on high, fixed, and immove-

able, with subdued passions, and who are the same in all things, shall come unto me.

"Those whose minds are attached to my invisible nature, have the greater labour, because an invisible path is difficult to corporeal beings. Place thy heart on me, and penetrate me with thy understanding, and thou shalt hereafter enter unto me. But if thou shouldst be unable at once steadfastly to fix thy mind on me, endeavour to find me by means of constant practice.

"He, my servant, is dear to me, who is free from enmity; merciful, and exempt from pride and selfishness; who is the same in pain and pleasure; patient of wrongs; contented; and whose mind is fixed on me alone.

"He is my beloved, of whom mankind is not afraid, and who is not afraid of mankind; who is unsolicitous about events; to whom praise and blame are as one; who is of little speech; who is pleased with whatever cometh to pass; who has no particular home, and is of a steady mind."

In treating of good works, it is said:

"Both the desertion and practice of works, are the means of happiness. But of the two, the practice is to be distinguished above the desertion.

"The man, who performing the duties of life, and quitting all interest in them, placeth them upon Brahm, the Supreme, is not tainted with sin, but remaineth like the leaf of the lotus unaffected by the waters.

"Let not the motive be in the event: be not one of those, whose motive for action is in the hope of reward.

"Let not thy life be spent in inaction; perform thy duty, and abandon all thoughts of the consequence. The miserable and unhappy are to about the

* Oom is said to be a mystic word, or emblem, to signify the Deity, and to be composed of Sanskrit roots, or letters; the first of which stands for Creator; the second, Preserver; and third, Destroyer. It is forbidden to be pronounced, except with extreme reverence.

the events of things; but men, who are endued with true wisdom, are unmindful of them."

Notwithstanding that the Hindoos are separated into the Vishnou Bukht and Sheevah Bukht, and that a variety of sects are to be found over the whole peninsula, the chief articles of their religion are uniform. All believe in Brama, or the Supreme Being; in the immortality of the soul; in a future state of rewards and punishments; in the doctrine of the metempsychosis; and all acknowledge the Veds as containing the principles of their laws and religion. Nor ought we to wonder at the ichisms that have arisen in such a vast space of time, but rather be surprised that they have been so mild in their consequences; especially when we reflect on the numbers that arose among ourselves, and the dreadful

affects they produced in a period so much shorter.

Their rules of morality are most benevolent; and hospitality and charity are not only strongly inculcated, but I believe no where more universally practised than amongst the Hindoos.

"Hospitality is commanded to be exercised even towards an enemy, when he cometh into thine house: the tree doth not withdraw its shade even from the wood-cutter.

"Good men extend their charity unto the vilest animals. The moon doth not withhold her light even from the cottage of the Chandala. (*outcast.*)

"Is this one of us, or is he a stranger!—Such is the reasoning of the ungenerous; but to those, by whom liberality is practised, the whole world is but as one family."

On the Manners and Customs of the Hindoos.—From the same.

THE Hindoos are naturally cheerful, and are fond of conversation, of play, and of other amusements. They will spend almost the whole night in seeing dancing and hearing music; yet none dance but the women, whose profession it is, and who devote themselves to the pleasures and amusement of the public.

They are, nevertheless, extremely sober; they eat only twice a day, in the morning and evening. It has been observed, that none of the four casts are allowed to taste any intoxicating liquor, and even those who may eat meat do it sparingly.

Their food is prepared in earthen pots: instead of plates and dishes they use broad leaves, generally of the palm or plantane tree, neatly sewn together with a blade of dry grass, and which are thrown away and renewed at every meal. Like the inhabitants of most eastern countries, they use neither forks nor spoons, but only

the fingers of the right hand, and are scrupulously nice both before and after meals.

With them, modes and fashions are unknown; and their dresses, like their customs, are the same to-day that I suppose they were at the beginning of the Katy Young.—

The Hindoos are averse to many of those accomplishments in women that are so admired by Europeans. They say, they would be injurious to that simplicity of manners and decorum of behaviour which are requisite to render them estimable in their families: that, by too much engaging the mind, they would lead their attention away from their children and husband, and give them a distrelish to those cares to which they think providence has designed them: and, as they strictly adhere to this opinion, there are few Hindoo women to be found who can either read or write.

But

But the dancing women, who are the votaries of pleasure, are taught every qualification which they imagine may tend to captivate and entertain the other sex. They compose a separate class, live under the protection of government, and according to their own particular rules.

In the code of Gentoo laws and customs, it is said: "If a dancing girl commit a crime that renders her property liable to confiscation, the magistrate shall confiscate all her effects, except her cloths, jewels, and dwelling. In the same manner, to a soldier shall be left his implements of war; and to a man exercising any profession, the implements of that profession shall be exempted from the confiscation of the rest of his property."

The dancing women eat meat of any kind, except beef. They even drink spirituous liquors, which perhaps may have led the Greeks who accompanied Alexander to imagine that the other Hindoos did the same.

They appear in a variety of dresses. Beside those that have been already mentioned, they sometimes wear trousers, like the Persians: a jama of wrought muslin, or gold or silver tissue; the hair plaited and hanging down behind, with spiral curls on each side of the face; and to the gold or silver rings on the ankles, in some of their dances they attach small bells of the same metals. The figures of the Bacchantes, that are to be met with in antique paintings and bas-reliefs, may serve as exact representations of some of the dancing women in Hindostan.

No religious ceremony, or festival of any kind, is thought to be performed with requisite order and magnificence, unless accompanied by dancing; and every great temple has a set of dancers belonging to it.—

An abhorrence to the shedding of blood,—the offspring of nature, nursed by habit, and sanctified by religion,—the influence of the most re-

gular of climates, which lessens the wants of life, and renders men averse to labour, perhaps also the moderate use of animal food, and abstinence from spirituous liquors, contributed to render the Hindoos the mildest, and probably the most enervated, inhabitants of the globe. That they should possess patience and resignation under calamity, is perhaps not much to be wondered at, as the same causes that tend to damp exertion may produce these qualities; but beside these, we have numberless instances of firmness and active courage that occasion a considerable degree of surprise. The gentle and generally timid Hindoo, while under the influence of religion, or his ideas of duty and honour, will not only meet death with indifference, but embrace it by choice.

An Englishman, whilst on a hunting party, hastily struck a Peon, for improperly letting loose a grey-hound. The Peon happened to be a Rajahpout, which is the highest tribe of Hindoo soldiers. On receiving the blow, he started back with an appearance of horror and amazement, and drew his poignard. But again composing himself, and looking steadfastly at his master, he said, "I am your servant, I have long ate your bread;"—and having pronounced this he plunged the dagger into his bosom. In those few words he surely pathetically expressed, "The arm that has been nourished by you, shall not be employed to take away your life; but in sparing yours, I must give up my own, as I cannot survive my dishonour."

Some sepoy in the English service being condemned to death on account of a mutiny, it was ordered that they should be blown off from cannon in front of the army. Some of the offenders being grenadiers, on seeing others, who were led forth to suffer, they cried out, "As we have generally shown the way on services of danger, why should we be denied

denied that distinction now? They walked towards the guns with firmness and composure; requested to be spared the indignity of being tied; and, placing their breasts to the muzzles of the cannon, were shot away. Though several had been condemned, the behaviour of these men operated so strongly on the feelings of the commanding officer, that the rest were pardoned.

The Rajah of Ongole having been driven from his possessions, after some fruitless attempts, he resolved to make a last effort to recover them. He accordingly entered the province at the head of those who had still accompanied him, and was joined by many of his subjects. The English officer who commanded at Ongole for the Nabob of Arcot, marched to oppose him. They met: in the engagement the Rajah was killed by a musket shot; and most of his principal followers having also fallen, the rest were broken, and fled. The English commander, being informed that a relation of the Rajah was on the field wounded, went up to him with an interpreter, to offer him his protection and assistance. He found him lying on the ground, and speaking to an attendant, of whom he was enquiring whether the Rajah's body had been carried off. Being informed that it

had, without making any reply, he gave himself a wound with his poignard, of which he almost instantly expired.

When a Hindoo finds that life is near its end, he will talk of his dissolution with great composure; and if near to the Ganges, or any other sacred river, will desire to be carried out to expire on its bank; nor will he do any thing to preserve life, that may be in any way contrary to the rules of his cast or religion. One of the natives, who was employed in an eminent post at an English settlement, being prevailed on in a dangerous illness to receive a visit from an European doctor, it was found that by long abstinence, which in sickness the Hindoos often carry to excess, the stomach would no longer retain any thing. The disorder being of a putrid kind, the doctor wished to give the bark in strong wine; but the Hindoo positively refused to take it, notwithstanding many arguments that were used both by the doctor and the governor who accompanied him, and who had considerable degree of influence over the Hindoo. They promised that it should remain an inviolable secret; but he replied with great calmness, that he could not conceal it from himself, and a few days afterwards fell a victim to his perseverance.

Extracts from Burke's Letter to a Member of the National Assembly, in an Answer made to his Book.

ONE would think, that after an honest and necessary Revolution (if they had a mind that theirs should pass for such) your masters would have imitated the virtuous policy of those who have been at the head of revolutions of that glorious character. Burnet tells us, that nothing tended to reconcile the English nation to the government of King William so much as the care he

took to fill the vacant bishoprics with men who had attracted the public esteem by their learning, eloquence, and piety, and above all, by their known moderation in the state. With you, in your purifying Revolution, whom have you chosen to regulate the church? Mr Mirabeau is a fine speaker—and a fine writer,—and a fine—a very fine man;—but really nothing gave more surprize to every body

body here, than to find him the supreme head of your ecclesiastical affairs. The rest is of course. Your Assembly addresses a manifesto to France, in which they tell the people, with an insulting irony, that they have brought the church to its primitive condition. In one respect their declaration is undoubtedly true; for they have brought it to a state of poverty and persecution. What can be hoped for after this? Have not men (if they deserve the name) under this new hope and head of the church, been made bishops, for no other merit than having acted as instruments of atheism; for no other merit than having thrown the children's bread to dogs; and in order to gorge the whole gang of usurers, peolars, and insatiate Jew-discounters at the corners of streets, starved the poor of their christian flocks, and their own brother pastors? Have not such men been made bishops to administer in temples, in which (if the patriotic donations have not already stopped them of their vessels) the churchwardens ought to take security for the altar plate, and not so much as to trust the chalice in their sacrilegious hands, so long as Jews have chains on ecclesiastic plunder, to exchange for the silver stolen from churches?

I am told, that the very sons of such Jew-jobbers have been made bishops, persons not to be suspected of any sort of *Christian* superstition, fit colleagues to the holy prelate of Avignon; and bred at the feet of that Gamaliel. We know who it was that drove the money-changers out of the temple. We see too who it is that brings them in again. We have in London very respectable persons of the Jewish nation, whom we will keep: but we have of the same tribe others of a very different description, —housebreakers, and receivers of stolen goods, and forgers of paper currency, more than we can conveniently hang. These we can spare

to France, to fill the new episcopal thrones; men well versed in swearing; and who will scruple no oath which the fertile genius of any of your reformers can devise.

In matters so ridiculous, it is hard to be grave. On a view of their consequences it is almost inhuman to treat them lightly. To what a state of savage, stupid, servile insensibility must your people be reduced, who can endure such proceedings in their church, their state, and their judicature, even for a moment! But the deluded people of France are like other madmen, who, to a miracle, bear hunger, and thirst, and cold, and confinement, and the chains and lash of their keeper, whilst all the while they support themselves by the imagination that they are generals of armies, prophets, kings, and emperors. As to a change of mind in these men, who consider infamy as honour, degradation as preferment, bondage to low tyrants as liberty, and the practical scorn and contumely of their upstart masters, as marks of respect and homage, I look upon it as absolutely impracticable. These madmen, to be cured, must first, like other madmen, be subdued. The sound part of the community, which I take to be large, but by no means the largest part, has been taken by surprize, and is disjointed, terrified, and disarmed. That sound part of the community must first be put into a better condition, before it can do any thing in the way of deliberation or persuasion. This must be an act of power, as well as of wisdom; of power, in the hands of firm, determined patriots, who can distinguish the misled from traitors, who will regulate the state (if such should be their fortune) with a discriminating, manly, and provident mercy; men who are purged of the surfeit and indigestion of systems, if ever they have been admitted into the habit of their minds; men who will lay the foundation

tion of a real reform, in effacing every vestige of that philosophy which pretends to have made discoveries in the *terra australis* of morality; men who will fix the state upon these bases of morals and politics, which are our old, and immemorial, and, I hope, will be our eternal possession.

This power, to such men, must come from *without*. It may be given to you in pity; for surely no nation ever called so pathetically on the compassion of all its neighbours. It may be given by those neighbours on motives of safety to themselves. Never shall I think any country in Europe to be so secure, whilst there is established, in the very centre of it, a state (if so it may be called) founded on principles of anarchy, and which is, in reality, a college of armed fanatics, for the propagation of the principles of assassination, robbery, rebellion, fraud, faction, oppression, and impiety. Mahomet, hid, as for a time he was, in the bottom of the sands of Arabia, had his spirit and character been discovered, would have been an object of precaution to provident minds. What if he had erected his fanatic standard for the destruction of the Christian religion in *luce Asia*, in the midst of the then noon-day splendour of the then civilized world? The princes of Europe, in the beginning of this century, did well not to suffer the monarchy of France to swallow up the others. They ought not now, in my opinion, to suffer all the monarchies and commonwealths to be swallowed up in the gulph of this polluted anarchy. They may be tolerably safe at present, because the comparative power of France for the present is little. But times and occasions make dangers. Intestine troubles may arise in other countries. There is a power always on the watch, qualified and disposed to profit of every conjuncture, to establish its own principles and modes of mischief, wherever it can hope for success. What

mercy would these usurpers have on other sovereigns, and on other nations, when they treat their own king with such unparalleled indignities, and so cruelly oppress their own countrymen?

The king of Prussia, in concurrence with us, nobly interfered to save Holland from confusion. The same power, joined with the rescued Holland and with Great Britain, has put the emperor in the possession of the Netherlands; and secured, under that prince, from all arbitrary innovation, the ancient, hereditary constitution of those provinces. The chamber of Wetzlar has restored the bishop of Liege, unjustly dispossessed by the rebellion of his subjects. The king of Prussia was bound by no treaty, nor alliance of blood, nor had any particular reasons for thinking the emperor's government would be more mischievous or more oppressive to human nature than that of the Turk; yet on mere motives of policy, that prince has interposed with the threat of all his force, to snatch even the Turk from the pounces of the imperial eagle. If this is done in favour of a barbarous nation, with a barbarous neglect of police, fatal to the human race, in favour of a nation, by principle in eternal enmity with the Christian name; a nation which will not so much as give the salvation of peace (Salam) to any of us, nor make any pact with any christian nation beyond a truce;—if this be done in favour of the Turk, shall it be thought either impolitic, or unjust, or uncharitable, to employ the same power, to rescue from captivity a virtuous monarch (by the courtesy of Europe considered as Most Christian) who, after an intermission of 175 years, had called together the states of his kingdom, to reform abuses, to establish a free government, and to strengthen his throne; a monarch, who at the very outset, without force, even without solicitation, had given to his people
such

such a *Magna Carta* of privileges, as never was given by any king to any subjects?—Is it to be tamely borne by kings who love their subjects, or by subjects who love their kings, that this monarch, in the midst of these gracious acts, was insolently and cruelly torn from his palace, by a gang of traitors and assassins, and kept in close prison to this very hour, whilst his royal name and sacred character were used for the total ruin of those whom the laws had appointed him to protect?

The only offence of this unhappy monarch towards his people, was his

attempt, under a monarchy, to give them a free constitution. For this, by an example hitherto unheard of in the world, he has been deposed. It might well disgrace sovereigns to take part with a deposed tyrant. It would suppose in them a vicious sympathy. But not to make a common cause with a just prince, dethroned by traitors and rebels, who proscribe, plunder, confiscate, and in every way cruelly oppress their fellow citizens, in my opinion is to forget what is due to the honour, and to the rights of all virtuous and legal government.

An Historical Account of the Dignity of Emperor; With Memoirs of Leopold II. the present Emperor of Germany.

THE word Emperor (in Latin *Imperator*) signified among the ancient Romans, the general of an army, who, for some extraordinary success, had been complimented with this appellation. Thus Augustus, having obtained no less than twenty famous victories, was as often saluted with the title of emperor; and Titus was denominated emperor by his army, after the reduction of Jerusalem.

It came, afterward, to denominate an absolute monarch, or a supreme commander of an empire: In this sense, Julius Cæsar was called emperor; the title descended with the dignity, to Augustus, Tiberius, and Caligula; and, afterward, it became elective.

In strictness, the title of emperor cannot add any thing to the rights of sovereignty: its effect is only to give precedence and pre-eminence above other sovereigns; and as such, it raises those invested with it to the summit of human greatness.

The emperors pretend, however, that the imperial dignity is more eminent than the regal; but the founda-

tion of such prerogative does not appear. It is certain, that the greatest, most ancient, and absolute monarchs; as those of Babylon, Persia, Assyria, Egypt, Macedonia, &c. were called by the name of Kings, in all languages, both ancient and modern.

It is disputed, whether emperors have the power of conferring the regal title. It is true, they have sometimes taken upon them to erect kingdoms; and thus it is that Bohemia and Poland are said to have been raised to the dignity; thus, also, the emperor Charles the Bald, in the year 877, gave Provence to Eofon, putting the diadem on his head, and decreeing him to be called *king*. The emperor Leopold I: moreover, erected the ducal Prussia into a kingdom, in favour of the elector of Brandenburg; and though several of the kings of Europe refused, for some time, to acknowledge him in that capacity, yet, at last, by the treaty of Utrecht, in 1712, they all acquiesced in it.

In the east, the title and quality of emperor are more frequent than they are among us; thus, the sovereign princes

princes of China, Japan, Hindostan, Persia, &c. are all emperors of China, Japan, &c.

In the year 1723, the czar of Muscovy assumed the title of *Emperor of all the Russias*, and procured himself to be recognized as such by most of the princes and states of Europe.

The western Roman empire, which had terminated in the year 475, in the person of Augustulus, the last Roman Emperor, and which was succeeded by the reign of the Huns, the Ostrogoths, and the Lombards, was revived by Charlemagne, king of France, on Christmas day, in the year 800. This prince being then at Rome, Pope Leo III. crowned him emperor in St Peter's church, amid the acclamations of the clergy and the people. Nicephorus, who was, at that time, emperor of the east, consented to this coronation. After the death of Charlemagne, and of Louis le Debonnaire, his son and successor, the empire was divided between the four sons of the latter. Lothario the first, was emperor; Pepin, was king of Aquitaine; Louis, king of Germany; and Charles le Chauve (the Bald) king of France. This partition was the source of incessant feuds. The French kept the empire under eight emperors, till the year 912, when Louis III. the last prince of the line of Charlemagne, died, without issue male. Conrad, count of Franconia, the son-in-law of Louis, was then elected emperor. Thus, the empire went to the Germans, and became elective; for it had been hereditary under the French emperors, its founders. The emperor was chosen by the princes, the lords, and the deputies of cities till toward the end of the thirteenth century, when the number of the electors was fixed. Rodolphus, count of Hapsbourg, was elected emperor in the year 1273. He is the

head of the illustrious house of Austria, which is descended from the same stock as the house of Lorraine, reunited to it in the person of Francis, father of the present emperor. Charles VI. who died in 1740, was the last emperor of the house of Austria. He was succeeded by the elector of Bavaria, Charles VII. It was this unfortunate prince, whom Dr Johnson, in his 'Vanity of Human Wishes,' mentions as one of the many examples of splendid misery.

All times their scenes of pompous woes afford,

From Persia's tyrant * to Bavaria's lord.

† † † † †

The bold Bavarian in a luckless hour,

Trics the dread summits of Cæsarean power;

With unexpected legions bursts away,

And sees defenceless realms receive his sway;

Short sway! Fair Austria! spreads her mournful charms,

The queen †, the beauty, sets the world in arms;

From hill to hill the beacons rousing blaze,
Spreads wide the hopes of plunder and of praise;

The fierce Croatian, and the wild Hussar,
With all the sons of ravage, crowd the war:

The baffled prince in hono- 's flattering bloom

Of hasty greatness finds the fatal doom,

His foes derision, and his subjects blame,

And steals to death from anguish and from shame.

On the death of Charles VII. in 1745, Francis, grand duke of Tuscany, of the house of Lorraine, was elected emperor. He died in 1765, and was succeeded by his son Joseph II. the late emperor. The greatness of the house of Austria, one of the most powerful in the world, has been augmented, to an uncommon degree, by

* Xerxes.

† Maria Theresa, daughter of Charles VI.

by the splendor of its alliances. Leopold II. the present emperor, is not only chief of the empire, but sovereign of Hungary, Bohemia, Austria, the Low Countries, &c. His second son is grand duke of Tuscany; and his sisters are the queens of France and Naples, and the duchess of Parma.

The imperial prerogatives were formerly much more extensive than they are at present. At the close of the Saxon race, in the year 1024, they exercised the right of conferring all the ecclesiastical benefices in Germany; of receiving the revenues of them during a vacancy; of succeeding to the effects of intestate ecclesiastics; of confirming or annulling the elections of the popes; of assembling councils, and of appointing them to decide concerning the affairs of the church; of conferring the title of king on their vassals; of granting vacant fiefs; of receiving the revenues of the empire; of governing Italy as its proper sovereigns; of erecting free cities, and establishing fairs in them; of assembling the diets of the empire, and fixing the time of their duration; of coining money, and conferring the same privilege on the states of the empire; and of administering both high and low justice within the territories of the different states: but, in the year 1437, they were reduced to the right of conferring all dignities and titles, except the privilege of being a state of the empire; of *preces primariae*, or, of appointing once during their reign a dignitary in each chapter, or religious house; of granting dispensations with respect to the age of majority; of erecting cities, and conferring the privilege of coining money; of calling the meetings of the diet, and presiding in them.

To this some have added, 1st,—That all the princes and states of Germany are obliged to do them homage, and swear fidelity to them. 2d, That they or their generals have a right to command the forces of all the

princes and states of the empire, when united together. 3d, That they receive a kind of tribute from all the princes and states of the empire, for carrying on a war which concerns the whole empire, which is called the *Roman month*.—But, after all, there is not a foot of land, or territory, annexed to this title: for, ever since the reign of Charles IV. the emperors have depended entirely on their hereditary dominions as the only source of their power, and even of their subsistence.

The Kings of France, also, were anciently called emperors, at the time when they reigned with their sons, whom they associated to the crown. Thus, Hugh Capet, having associated his son Robert, took the title of emperor, and Robert that of king. King Robert is also called emperor of the French, by Helgau of Fleury. Louis le Gros, upon associating his son, did the same. The kings of England had likewise anciently the title of emperors, as appears from a charter of king Edgar; and the crown of England has been long ago declared in parliament to be an imperial crown.

The present head of the German empire is Leopold II. who was born on the fifth of May 1747, being the second son of the emperor Francis II, and of Maria Theresa, queen of Hungary and Bohemia, the celebrated daughter of the emperor Charles VI. He succeeded the emperor, his father, as grand duke of Tuscany in 1765, and was married, the next year, to Maria Louisa, daughter of Philip V. king of Spain. On the 20th of February 1790, on the death of his brother, the late emperor Joseph II. he succeeded to the hereditary dominions of the house of Austria, and relinquished the grand duchy of Tuscany to Ferdinand, his second son. On the 30th of September he was elected king of the Romans: he made his public entry into Frankfort on the 4th of October;

October; was crowned emperor on the 9th of that month, and king of Hungary, at Presbourg, on the 15th of November. He has a numerous family. His eldest son, the archduke Francis, is hereditary prince of Hungary and Bohemia, and was married, August 14, 1790, to Maria Theresa, eldest daughter of his Sicilian majesty. His second son, the grand duke of Tuscany, was married, the same day, to Maria Louisa, second daughter of his Sicilian majesty. The emperor has two sisters and one brother unmarried. His other sisters are Maria Amelia, married in 1769, to Ferdinand, duke of Parma, by whom she has a son and three daughters; Maria Caroline, married in 1768, to Ferdinand IV. king of the Two Sicilies, by whom she has seven children living; Maria Antonietta, born November 2, 1755, married April 19, 1770, to Louis, dauphin of France, now Louis XVI. king of the French, who was born August 23, 1754, and by whom she has a princess, born December 9, 1778, and the present dauphin, born March 27, 1785; she wife of the uncle of the present elector of Saxony; and a brother, Ferdinand, born in 1754, and married in 1771, to Maria Beatrix, daughter and heiress of the duke of Modena, by whom he has two sons and two daughters.

There is a striking resemblance of each other in all the branches of the Austrian family. The emperor Leopold has, in a remarkable degree, the thick lip, which has long been a distinguishing feature in that family. He is a handsome man; is rapid in his words and motions; and has more vivacity in his manner than either the late emperor, or his brother the archduke, who resides at Milan. Like them, he is good-humoured, condescending, and affable. The empress, when grand duchess of Tuscany, was

of a very domestic turn, and lived much in the country with her children.

M. Dupaty, in his Letters on Italy, has given an exalted character of Leopold, with some judicious reflections on his civil and criminal regulations. The edict, which contained these, was translated from the Italian, by the direction of the late excellent Mr. Howard, and printed to be given among his friends.—But how benevolent and humane soever were the intentions of this prince, he is treated by Mr Merry, in his ‘*Laurel of Liberty*’ as a consummate despot.—Since his accession, however, to the hereditary dominions of his ancestors, and to the Imperial dignity, it may be difficult, perhaps, to find any circumstance very censurable in his conduct. At the commencement of his reign, he found himself involved, with a diminished army, and an exhausted treasury, in an unsuccessful war against the Ottoman empire; and his subjects in the Low Countries, who had entirely thrown off their allegiance to the late emperor, his brother, refused, with great pertinacity, to acknowledge him for their sovereign. The readiness with which he consented that the objects in dispute between him and the Turks should be put into a train of final pacification, did not seem to bespeak a savage delight in war; and when he had reduced his Belgic subjects by force of arms, not one vindictive measure sullied the lustre of conquest. Neither confiscations, proscriptions, nor executions, were heard of. His clemency, on the contrary, would have done honour to a Titus; and the readiness with which he agreed to restore the violated constitution to its former state under Maria Theresa, bespoke the good man, the good prince, in a word—the Father of his People.

Account of Surville's Transactions in the St John the Baptist, at Port Pralin, a Harbour in the Islands of Arfacides, Lat. 7° S. Long. 153° 45' East of Paris.*

ON the 14th October 1769, at sun-rise, a rope was carried to the distance of 40 fathoms, in order to warp the vessel further up the harbour. As soon as the towing boats were at some small distance from the ship, several canoes came up to them, and, encouraged by the abundant marks of friendship they received, followed them when they returned to the vessel. Twelve of different sizes were counted, carrying from one man to twelve, but there was one much larger than any of the rest, containing 30 men, which was doubtless their admiral: it was 56 feet long, by 3 feet 8 inches broad. The Indians got into the boats and were suffered to examine them very attentively without any molestation. The sailors were then working at the capstan, and, with the usual sounds, encouraging their labour, and keeping themselves in time together; all these the savages repeated very distinctly. An air was played upon the fife, accompanied with the drum; this music they heard with a kind of transport; and soon after, suddenly recovering from their ecstacy, turned their canoes round with marks of the utmost delight, and threw up the water with their paddles in a kind of regular cadence. At last one of the Indians, who had got into the boats, encouraged by the kind treatment he had met with, ventured to go on board, and the reception he met with induced him to stay there: he walked about upon deck, and examined every thing he saw

with the utmost attention. His example was soon followed, and more than thirty Indians went on board one after another, with their arms: it was necessary to prevent more from following them, as there were many sick on board, and the number of savages would soon have exceeded that of the crew which was in health.

“ Though nothing was neglected to conciliate the friendship of these Indians, it was evident that they were not wholly free from apprehension; their manner, their looks, and the signs they made to each other, all bespoke distrust; and, on the least movement made in the vessel, they jumped into their canoes, or even into the sea. They had a wonderful adroitness in stealing whatever was within their reach, and it was not easy to persuade them to restore it. Some small presents were received from them, consisting of shells, and a kind of almond much resembling the *badams*. One of them seemed more particularly desirous to be useful than the rest; and Surville, in hopes of attaching and making a friend of him, distinguished him in the presents he made: this man gave him to understand, that he could point out a place at the head of the harbour, where he would find provisions, and might easily supply himself with water.

“ Towards noon, two armed boats were manned to visit the port, look for a watering-place, and procure every other information of the resources of

* From “ Discoveries by the French, in 1768 and 1769, to the south east of New Guinea.” This book endeavours to shew that the country lately discovered by Mr Shortland, of which there is an account in Phillip’s voyage to Botany Bay, is the southern part of the Archipelago, discovered by Surville in 1769, and called by him the Islands of Arfacides; and that these Arfacides are the isles of Solomon, discovered by Mendana in 1569.

of the country. Surville entrusted the command to *M. Labé*, his first officer, whose prudence was equal to his valour, and appointed his own nephew, *M. de Surville*, under him, to command one of the boats; the seamen in both boats were armed with fabres; and the soldiers with them had musquets, pistols, and ammunition.

"The savages appeared impatient that the boats should quit the ship; which they had hardly done, when they were followed by all the canoes. One of these, in which was the Indian who had offered his services to Surville, seemed to act as guide to the rest. On the stern of that vessel a man stood up, with bunches of flowers in his hands, which he held over his head, making various gestures in regular time. In the middle of the same canoe, a young man, standing up also, and leaning on a long spear, preserved the most grave deportment: tufts of flowers were stuck through his ears and nose, and his hair was powdered white with lime. As they passed along, they remarked great agitation among the Indians, who were coming and going from one canoe to another, talking together with great earnestness. They did not, however, pay much attention to these movements, which seemed to arise from the natural astonishment of savages on the arrival of new men, and their apprehension of the designs they might have. All this time many canoes were coming off from some of the islands that formed the harbour; and joining those which had set out from the ship.

"The boats were conducted into a very close part of the harbour, at the entrance of a narrow channel, covered on each side with bushes; and the natives expressed, that they would find fresh water at the head of this channel. Having observed the place, and remarked that there were not more than two or three feet of water, on a muddy bottom, *M. Labé* did not think it prudent to entangle his

boats in it, however the Indians might press him to do it; he therefore only put a corporal on shore with four soldiers, to discover and examine the spring which the savages promised. They were some time before they returned, and then reported, that having advanced a great way into the wood, they had found no water, but only marshes, in which they sank to their middles. *M. Labé* now began to suspect treachery on the part of the savages, who had wished to entangle his boats in the narrow channel, where they might easily have attacked them under cover of the bushes. He judged it best, however, to conceal his suspicions, and asked them to show him a place where he might find good water to drink: on this they seemed to dispute a little among themselves, and then made signs that he should follow them. The canoes and boats set out again, and went towards the eastern part, to the side of a mountain washed by the sea, and covered with wood; leaving to the left of them an assemblage of isles and islets, which excluded them from view of the vessel, whence they were now about three leagues distant; after having gone about six miles they landed. Several canoes had gone before the main party, and disembarked their people. A serjeant was now detached, with four soldiers, in search of water; and the savages who acted as guides conducted him to a place where some water flowed from a rock, but in so small a quantity that it was hardly sufficient to quench their thirst: there they were abandoned by their conductors; and it was with great difficulty that they got back to the boats, through crooked-paths full of thorny bushes. Before the return of the detachment, the Islanders employed every method they could contrive, to prevail on *M. Labé* to run his boats ashore; sometimes inviting his people to get out and gather coconuts, which were abundant in this part;

part; sometimes seizing the ropes, or the boats themselves, in order to draw them ashore and moor them to a tree; and the prudence of M. Labé, though it disconcerted their plan for a moment, could not prevent the treachery they had long meditated.

"More than two hundred and fifty islanders, armed with lances of seven or eight feet long, swords or clubs of wood, arrows, and stones, and some with shields, were assembled on the beach and observing the motions of the boats. When the five men, who had formed the detachment, set their feet on board to re-embark, the savages rushed upon them, wounded a soldier with a club, the serjeant with a lance, and several others in different ways; M. Labé himself received two arrows in his thighs, and a stone on his leg. They therefore fired upon the traitors; the first discharge stupefied them so, that they stood as if immoveable; it was the more severe, because, as they were all crowded together within one or two toises of the boats, every ball took place. Their stupefaction gave time for a second, which completely routed them; but it appeared that the death of their chief contributed principally to hasten their flight. M. Labé having distinguished him apart from the other combatants, lifting his hands to heaven, striking his breast, and encouraging the people by his voice, took aim at him and brought him to the ground. Their wounded they dragged away, or carried off; but they left thirty or forty dead upon the field of battle. The victors then went ashore, collected such of their arms as they found scattered about, and destroyed their canoes, only towing one away with them.

"Survillie was shooting on one of the islands, at the entrance of the harbour, when the boats returned on board; and he himself returned, as soon as he was informed of what had happened. He perceived five or six savages on an islet, and hoped to seize

them on shore; but when they were nearly taken, they had the address to launch their canoe into the water, and get into it. The boats were so well directed, that they intercepted these Indians; they fired upon them, and one was wounded, fell into the water, and got to shore; he was seen afterwards crawling upon his hands and knees into the wood; the others also betook themselves to swimming, and it was impossible to catch one. Survillie's intention was to seize one alive, to serve as a guide to a watering place: he wished also to impress these people with a great idea of his force, to deter them from an attempt against him, which, perhaps, they might have made with success, had they known to what a state of weakness the crew was reduced by sickness.

"Soon after, a canoe came out with two men, who examined the ship with great attention; and a stratagem was used to makethem come up to it, which succeeded. Two black sailors were sent in the canoe which had been seized; they were fitted out like the natives of the country; their bodies naked, their hair powdered white, and were armed like the savages, whose signs and manners they perfectly imitated. The Indian canoe was deceived by this artifice, and approached as near to the vessel as the other, in which were the blacks. Two boats were sent out to give chase; but as they would have escaped by the quickness of their motion, it was necessary to fire in order to stop them. One of the Indians was killed, and in falling into the sea, overset the canoe. The second endeavoured to swim to the nearest island, was overtaken before he got to land, and dived several times, but at length was caught. It was a young man of about fourteen or fifteen years old; he defended himself with the greatest courage; sometimes pretending to bite himself, and really biting those that held him. They tied him hand and foot, and carried him in-

to the ship: there he affected to be dead for more than an hour; but when he was set upright, and let himself fall on deck again, he took great care that his shoulder should come down before his head. At last, when he was tired of playing this game, he opened his eyes, and perceiving that the crew was eating, he asked for biscuit, ate some with a good appetite, and made many very expressive signs. Care was taken to bind and watch him, lest he should attempt to throw himself into the sea.

“The event of the day warned Surville to be upon his guard by night: and at one o'clock two canoes appeared, one of which carried but two men, the other eight or ten. They were fired at when they approached within shot of the ship; and from the cries which were heard from the larger, it was concluded, that some of the savages were wounded: they returned very hastily to land.

“The next day, the 15th, it was proposed to conduct the young prisoner to the neighbouring isles, that he might discover a watering place. He first pointed out the western island (*Isle St Jean*); but as soon as he was in the boat, he made signs to be carried to one of the eastern islands, which was afterwards named *Isle de l'Anquade* (Watering place Island).—After landing they lengthened the rope by which he was held, and suffered him to take his own way. He chose a pretty long one; and they discovered that, in the course of it, he had contrived to cut his hand-cuffs neatly through with a sharp shell; after which he was more narrowly watched. As he made signs that they were not far from water, Surville continued to follow him, though apprehensive that some unforeseen accident might favour his escape. He led them, in fact, to a small spring; but one of the soldiers having discovered a better place for watering, they fixed on that. The young savage was re-conducted to the

sea by a different way: and when he found they meant to put him on board again, he rolled himself on the beach, gave horrible shrieks, and, in his fury, even bit the sand. They hurried him on board lest his cries should collect the Islanders from the different parts of the Harbour, and they should be obliged to have recourse to the same means for repelling the attack, that they had been forced to use the day before to punish treachery.

“The precaution taken to fire upon all the canoes that appeared, even before they were within shot, kept the workmen unmolested: and after having formed a road to roll the barrels from the watering-place to the sea, they took in, at their leisure, as much water as was necessary for the ship's provision.

“This isle afforded fire-wood also, which was much wanted; and they cut one sort which seemed fit for dyeing, for on being put into water it produced a red colour; and, some of the bark being boiled, the decoction gave a tolerably pleasing red to pieces of callico that were dipped in it. Some trees were also cut down for spars; and there were others that seemed fit for making blocks.

“Other small resources were found in the island: several cabbage-palms were cut down for the sake of the cabbage, which was a great refreshment to the sailors; and on the reefs, rocks, and shelves, upon the coast, very good oysters, and other shell-fish, were collected; but the bottom was such that they could not draw the seine to supply the crew with fresh fish.

“They were obliged to work six days in taking in wood and water; because the channel, which separates the island where they watered from the more northern ones, was dry at low water, so that they were forced to wait for the tide, to pass from the island to the ship. There are not more than seven or eight feet in this channel in the highest tides.

Surville having found it impossible to procure any further advantages in this place, determined to put to sea, and fixed the 21st for his departure.

The port in which they had anchored was named *Port Praslin*; and the great island, or archipelago, to which it belongs, received the name of

Lands of the Arfacides. Before they quitted the harbour they left inscriptions to ascertain the arrival of the *St John the Baptist*, and cautions to the navigators who might touch there, to be on their guard against the treachery of the inhabitants.

*Account of the Productions at Port Praslin, and Description of the Manners and Character of the People.**

THE land all around the harbour, though under water at high tide, and marshy almost every where, is covered with tall forest trees of various kinds.

Among the trees which afford nourishment to man, are distinguished the cabbage-palm, which abounds there very much; the cocoa-nut tree, and many sorts of almonds. One of the latter bears a fruit as long as a date, and contains, within a moderately tender covering, an almond, which divides into two parts like an acorn: its colour is a deep pink, and it has the smell of a green artichoke; when divided, each part draws after it threads of an unctuous matter: it has no taste but a slight bitter; and the skin is about half a line thick. Another tree produces an almond, covered with a husk not unlike that of walnuts; and while this skin is tender, the savages eat them with lime; but when it grows riper, and has become hard and stringy, they pile them up together, that the outer coat may perish and drop off: the shell of this fruit is extremely hard, of an oblong shape, equally thick at both ends, and of an uneven surface. After breaking it off by strong blows of a hammer, an almond is at once enveloped in a thin brown skin, which very easily comes off; the nut is composed of an assemblage of white

irregular layers, which separate as soon as it is taken out of the skin; this almond eaten with bread, is of a very delicate flavour, resembling that of the walnut, but is very oily. It seems to be one of the ordinary foods of the people of Port Praslin, who, to preserve the nuts, form them into bunches, or clusters, of about a foot long, and seven or eight inches thick, connecting and interlacing them together with great art. It was supposed to be their sea provision, because many of those clusters were found among the booty taken that unfortunate day, on which it was found necessary to punish their treachery. The tree, on which this almond grows, is of the largest size.

Among other trees the wild coffee was observed; and they thought they had met with ebony. The *tacamahaca* was also found, and several resinous and gummy trees; the first produces the balsam, which bears the same name; on another is gathered a very clear transparent gum, without either taste or smell; a third produces a resinous matter of a blackish colour, and a balsamic odour; and its wood, on the least scratch of the bark, yields a similar smell.

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islander, named *Lova Sarega*, whom they took prisoner, and carried away with them, and kept for two years, learnt French with extreme facility; and from their conversations with him, about the interior parts of the country, they gained information, which, from his youth, and the education of nature, was, probably, true; excepting such fables as he had been taught in his infancy, for fables are the produce of all countries.

"The productions that *Lova* described, of which only a few had been actually seen, are the banana, the sugar-cane, the yam, the cocoa, the annise, and the almond, which the inhabitants esteem so much. He endeavoured also to describe a species of fruit which he could not find in Peru; but it was not possible to gain any satisfactory idea of it from his account. They eat turtles and their eggs, which are very abundant; and fish, which is also very plentiful on that coast: they also make great use of a plant called by them *Binao*, which serves for bread.

"The different kinds of spices used in Europe were shown to *Lova*; he knew nothing of that kind in his own country, but a very large tree, the bark of which has a taste much resembling that of cinnamon, to which, as was very natural, he preferred it: the inhabitants of Port Praslin use it as they do the betel, areca, and lime.

"The woods are peopled with prodigious numbers of cockatoos, jories, ring-doves, and a kind of blackbird, larger than those of Europe. They find also, in the marshes, curlews, stints, a sort of snipe, and another bird about the size of our duck, with an ash-coloured back, the breast, belly, and under part of the wings, a fine white: there are also salamanders, some of which were taken, and measured above five feet from the head to the end of the tail. No quadruped was seen on the islands which were visited; but *Lova Sarega* affirmed,

that the wild boar is very common in the woods of the main land. The islanders of Port Praslin were not unacquainted with fowls, for when they saw them in the ship, they immediately imitated their notes exactly; but they looked with astonishment at the ducks, appeared never to have seen them, and asked for some. They also very exactly imitated the cry of the kid and the grunting of a hog, and pointed to shew that some might be found in the islands up the harbour. Among the insects, M. de l'Horme particularly remarked a spider, whose head and fore parts are rather small, black, and sprinkled with white spots; its hinder part terminated by a fan-shaped tail, of a pleasing red, sprinkled with black spots; the body is long, cylindrical, and rounded at the end; the legs very long, and marked with black and white, nearly at equal intervals. He observed also ants of a prodigious size; and flies with black and grey legs, the extremities of the wings grey, and the body of a greyish black, like the middle sized brizes of Europe, which sting so cruelly in wet seasons. In the woods he met with a small snake, the size of a little finger, and about two feet and a half long; the back of a straw colour, regularly disposed in small squares, among which were some of a very clear grey, and the belly in cartilaginous scales of very pale yellow. This snake twice started at a soldier, who at length killed it with his bayonet. He saw also a toad, which he thought singular enough to describe a particular description: its back, along the whole length of the body, is sharp and sloped on each side, like a pent-house; at a small distance from the shoulders, the head, or snout, takes the form of a lance, equally sloped off like the back; and near the angle are placed the eyes, on a kind of scale, or cartilage; the feet have nothing in them uncommon, and the animal moves by bounds like the toads of Europe.

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The inhabitants of *Port Prælin* are of very ordinary stature, but they are strong and muscular. They do not seem to spring from the same origin, some being perfectly black, others only copper coloured: the former have woolly hair, very soft to the touch; their forehead is small, their eyes rather sunk, the lower part of the face sharp, and furnished with some little beard, and their whole figure has an expression of ferocity. They differ from the negroes in having neither the nose so flat, nor the lips so thick. Some of those who are copper-coloured have lank hair: but they do not all wear their hair in the same form; in general they cut it round the head to the ears: some keep it merely on the top of the head like a scull-cap, shave off the rest with a sharp stone, and only leave at the bottom a small circle of about an inch, which they suffer to grow only to the length of that at top: the greater part keep a little tuft upon the top of the head, and some divide it into several little queues, by means of a gum, which make the hair adhere together. There are few of them who do not powder their hair and their eye-brows with lime, which gives them the appearance of being dyed yellow when the powder has not been lately applied. Many also paint a white line over the eye brows from one temple to the other. The women, of whom only one or two were seen in the canoes which passed in sight of the ships, trace these lines along their cheeks also; and make others on their bosoms from one shoulder to the other.

Both men and women are absolutely naked, with merely a scanty scrap of matting tied at the waist. The men tattoo their faces, arms, and other parts of the body; and some of the designs thus executed are not unpleasing. The lobes of the ears are pierced by a hole, which in general is of most extraordinary size. The orna-

ments they wear are of different kinds; some have great rings of shell, or of a very white substance, that appears to be bone; others leaves of different trees, or flowers. The partition of the nose is also pierced; and the ornaments of different kinds, which they put through it, so lengthen the cartilage, that in some it descends to the edge of the upper lip: what they wear there is sometimes a wooden peg, and sometimes such rings as those in their ears. But the ornament which seems universal is the bracelet; the greater part wear it on the arm above the elbow, and it seems to be about an inch broad, and half an inch thick; it is made, as far as can be judged, of a shell which is hard, opaque, heavy, and superior in whiteness to the ivory of Senegal, the marble of Carrara; and under it hangs a circle of shell, artfully worked. They who have not the bracelet wear another sort on the wrist; this goes several times round, and is composed of small bones of fish, and other animals, strung upon a thread. Some of them also hang upon their neck a kind of comb, made of a white stone, upon which, according to *Lova Sareya*, they put a high value: and others were observed, who had a white shell, about the size of a pullet's egg, fixed upon the forehead by threads which went round the head. But there were other ornaments that particularly attracted the attention of our voyagers, which were those strings of beads worn by these savages as necklaces, as girdles, or hanging on their breasts, and composed of small bones like tooth: the surgeon of the ship affirmed, that many of them were actually human teeth, and that some of the strings were entirely made of them. It was thought fair to conclude from thence, that these people are cannibals: the answers on this subject, obtained from young *Lova*, though, he would never directly own it, and the fear he showed for the first months, lest he should

be killed and eaten, appear to confirm this suspicion; and the known ferocity of these islanders might be sufficient perhaps to change it to certainty.

The arms of these people are the bow and arrows, the spear, and a kind of clubs. The bow is made of a black elastic wood, moderately heavy; the string is composed of the filaments of the palmetto. The body of the arrow, which is above three feet long, by 14 lines in circumference, is a reed; the extremity is composed of three or four pieces joined together by a very hard mastia, and armed with a bone cut to a very sharp point: the bone commonly used for this purpose is one that is found in the tail of the *sea devil*. If these arrows are not poisoned, they are not the less dangerous; for some part of them most always stay behind in the wound. Their lances, some of which are about ten feet long, and two inches and a half round, others eight feet by one inch ten lines, are made of palmetto-wood painted black, and terminated in a square at the end, with which they strike: they are usually armed with a bone about six inches long; and the teeth cut in it are so disposed, that it cannot possibly be drawn out without tearing the flesh. The clubs are made of a very heavy hard wood; they vary in length, but are usually about thirty inches; and then they carry them fastened to a kind of fish, and hanging on the left side, as we wear a *couteau de chasse*: the shape of these clubs is a flat lozenge; and it is astonishing with what precision they fit and may a fish-bone on the two surfaces, which serves to mark the middle. To defend themselves from arrows, they have shields made of split rattan, woven together like our wicker work: one side has two handles or holders, through which the arm passes: when they are in their boats, they cover their backs or heads with them, and use them as umbrellas. Some of these

bucklers are ornamented at the four corners with tufts or tassels of red and yellow straw, made into a kind of ribband.

In the canoes that were seized, many utensils and implements were found, which these people employ in constructing their vessels; a hammer, made of a black conical stone, strongly fixed with twisted rattan, upon a handle of wood; and an adze, made of a piece of very hard shell, seemingly of the same kind as that used in bracelets: this shell is cut in the shape of a gun-flint, and fixed in a very solid manner, by means of rattan, to a piece of wood naturally bent into the shape of a pickaxe. Mother-of-pearl, which they find abundantly on the shore, serves them for knives, and the sharp edge of a flint supplies the place of a razor to shave their hair and beards. They make fishing-nets with the filaments of the bark of the palmetto; and those that they form for bags are worked with great art. In their canoes was found a kind of grease, of a balsamic odour, which was supposed at first to be an ointment, but *Lova Sariga*, having seen a candle lighted, gave them so understand that it was used for the same purpose; it was therefore tried, and the light it gave was clearer than that of our wax candles, and attended with an agreeable smell.

The canoes of these islanders are constructed with great good sense, and finished with much skill: they are not formed of a trunk of a tree, made hollow by stone instruments or fire, as those of many savage nations are, but are made of pieces put together. In the small canoes the planks are not more than a third of an inch in thickness, and in working them they form on the inside a kind of hoops, which at intervals are tied strongly with rattan to ribs of wood, bent in the shape of the boat, and serving as its frame; nor are these planks held together by any other means; the joints are stop-

ped with a black mastic, tolerably hard, which renders these frail vessels impenetrable to the water. The prow and stern are raised very high, apparently for the purpose of defending the warriors in them from arrows, by presenting either end to the enemy: and in general they are ornamented with pieces of mother of pearl, forming different designs, and applied with mastic. They are drawn ashore, or launched

out, in an instant: and the quickness of their motion is proportioned to their lightness: one was seen, which was 56 feet long by three feet and a half broad. Their oars or paddles are flat and large, the ends shaped like a myrtle leaf, the handle formed like that of a crutch, and the whole perfectly well worked; but they have neither sails nor outriggers.

Review of New Publications.

1. *A Treatise on the Plague, containing an Historical Journal, and medical Account of the Plague at Aleppo, in the Years 1760, 1761, and 1762: Also, Remarks on Quarantines, Lazarettos, and the Administration of Police in Times of Pestilence.* By Patrick Ruffel, M. D. F. R. S. formerly Physician to the British Factory at Aleppo. 4to. 583 pages. Price 1l. 7s. in boards. Robinsons. 1791.

AN inquiry into the nature of the plague, whether it be considered in a medical, philosophical, or political point of view, is certainly important; and it becomes still more so, when the many difficulties and almost insuperable obstacles which stand in the way of real information upon this disease, are considered. The author before us, however, from a long residence at Aleppo, where the disease so frequently occurs, has been enabled to view the many complicated forms of this most fatal malady; and his observations seem the result of cool reflection and accurate information. We must also further observe, that it is only by a cautious and diligent selection of facts, without having in view the support of any particular theory or hypothesis, that the bounds of medical science can be enlarged;

and it is chiefly in this way we think that the medical reader will be benefited by the work before us.

Dr R. divides his treatise into six books. In the first, he gives a summary account of the plague as it appeared in Egypt and Cyprus, and also of its progress in different parts of Syria, previous to its invading Aleppo; to which he subjoins an historical journal of it at Aleppo in the years 1760, 1761, 1762, with its progress in various parts under that government, &c.

In the second book, he enters upon his medical account of the plague.

In the third book, Dr R. enquires very minutely into the long controverted question, whether the plague be a contagious distemper or not; and after critically examining the various opinions of the different authors who have written in support of its not being a contagious disease, he concludes, from his own observations, and those of others who have actually practised in the plague, that it is indubitably communicated by contagion.

In the fourth book, he inquires into the nature of quarantines, and examines the principal objections which have been brought against them.

In the fifth book, he gives a general plan of the plague, which will be best understood from the work itself.

The

The last book is taken up with the administration of police in the different stages of the plague; and the author closes his work, by an appendix, containing a number of cases of the plague, an account of the weather in the pestilential season, and an index to the whole.

2. *Lindor and Adelaide, a moral Tale. In which are exhibited the Effects of the late French Revolution on the Peasantry of France. By the Author of "Observations on Dr Price's Revolution Sermon."* 12mo. pp. 358. 3s. 6d. Boards. Stockdale. 1791.

THIS tale abounds more in argument, (such as it is,) than in incident. The characters, which are few, are of two descriptions, of very opposite complexion and cast of features. The enemies to the Revolution are made, in every way, amiable. Their persons are handsome and attracting, their manners are artless and engaging, and their morals are pure. The favourites of the Revolution, on the contrary, are distorted in body, and corrupted in mind. They are rendered shocking by their vices, and disgusting by their ignorance. They have neither elegance of behaviour to vanish their defects of principle, nor sincerity of heart to atone for their vulgarity of deportment. They are made not only mean and despicable in themselves, but their very taste in externals is low and groveling.

The chief personage, in this little drama, is a *Prieur*, who is made to talk Lindor, a peasant, not only out of his love for the new liberty, but into such an imprudent zeal for the old slavery, that he wantonly provokes the brutish villagers, (such they are here represented,) all eager for the Revolution, to murder him in a tumult. To us, the *Prieur's* arguments appear very flimsy:—but we are not surprized that Lindor, blinded and pre-

possessed by his love of the charming Adelaide, who was entirely under the influence of the *Prieur*, should not detect the fallacy of reasoning drawn from sources, and expressed in language, far above the capacity of any peasant to comprehend.

Deficient, however, as this *argumentative* tale is, in sound reasoning, it is not destitute of good writing, nor of some interesting situations. The affecting agony, and the subsequent death, of poor Adelaide, on being witness to the last moments of her expiring and beloved Lindor, are, in particular, naturally conceived, and well described.

3. *The History and Antiquities of Claybrook, in the County of Leicester; including the Hamlets of Bitesby, Ulethorpe, Wibtoft and Little Wigton. By the Rev. A. Macaulay, A. M.* 8vo. pp. 140. 3s. sewed. Dilly. 1791.

To liberal and cultivated minds, the study of rational topography opens a wide field both of instruction and entertainment. It is the province of the topographer to trace the history of property; and the colour which the different modes of it have given to the complexion of the times. It is his province to connect ancient and modern institutions civil and ecclesiastical, and to compare their effects on character, manners, and customs; to add to the stock of biographical knowledge, to explore the curiosities of the animal, the vegetable, and mineral kingdoms; to illustrate the remains of genius in the fine arts; and to point out the monuments of ancient grandeur;—to preserve the remembrance of those spots which have been the scenes of remarkable events; and to mark the progress of population, agriculture, manufactures, and commerce. Thus the labours of the parochial antiquary may be rendered subservient to public utility and refined amusement,

amusement, and greatly facilitate and assist the researches of the naturalist, the biographer, and the historian.

Inquiries employed to such purposes will hardly be condemned "as inconsistent with a taste for polite literature;" since what is termed polite literature is in fact of little worth, if it does not, in some way or other, contribute to our real improvement, or rational entertainment.

This writer speaks with a little harshness concerning collections of parish-registers, genealogies, inscriptions, fac-similes, rusty-swords, armorial bearings, &c. yet we observe that he does not entirely overlook such subjects; nor do we perceive how a parochial history can be properly conducted without paying some attention to them. To dispose of them in an instructive and agreeable manner, is indeed the business of a man of taste and science; otherwise he may become, what this writer terms, "a mere antiquarian virtuoso, who aspires to no higher prize than that of collecting names, dates, and inscriptions," and whose employment is consequently trifling and insignificant.

The tract now before us, allowing for an abridgment of some few parts, has already appeared in the collections for Leicestershire, which Mr Nichols has so industriously gathered; but it is a distinct performance, which Mr Macaulay has executed with attention, and, we doubt not, will be acceptable to many readers.

4. *Aristarchus, or the Principles of Composition. Containing a methodical Arrangement of the Improperities frequent in Writing and Conversation, with select Rules for attaining to Purity and Elegance of Expression.* 8vo. pp. 432. 6s. 6d. Boards. Bourne, Patern-street.

THIS work is the production of the late ingenious and learned Dr
U Vol. XIV. No. 80.

Withers, whose eccentricities, and whole misfortunes, are equally known. It was originally published in numbers, which are now collected into a volume. The book carries with it indelible marks of its extraordinary author: full of speculation, which is sometimes ingenious, but more often visionary; replete with sentiments, which are frequently instructing, but not always accurate; and crowded with matter which is sometimes good, frequently unconnected with the subject, and seldom harmonizing with what precedes or follows it. Its good parts are either obscured by haste and negligence of composition, or rendered ludicrous by the flights and whimsies of the writer, while throughout the whole, notwithstanding the instances of levity, caprice, and obscurity, we trace a mind highly capable of thinking and judging rightly; equally able to detect faults, and to distinguish beauties.

At the end of the volume are added, Remarks on Dr Johnson's Dictionary, with proposals for a new English Dictionary. The remarks are shrewd, and often just: whether Dr Withers's performance would have been a great improvement on his original, it is needless now to inquire, as his progress has been stopped by the irresistible hand of death.--The present work is sold for the benefit of the author's family.

5. *Report of the Commissioners appointed to inquire into the State and Condition of the Woods, Forests, and Land Revenues, of the Crown, and to sell or alienate Fee Farms, and other unimprovable rents; to the Right Hon. the Lords Spiritual and Temporal, in pursuance of an order, dated the 1st day of April, 1796.* 8vo. pp. 28. 1s. Debret. 1796.

This Report is summed up in the following manner:

'We shall conclude this Report with

of New Publications.

of great importance; but they are attended with some difficulty, and require deliberate consideration.

6. *Illustrations of British History, Biography, and Manners, in the Reigns of Henry VI. Edward VI. Mary, Elizabeth, and James I. exhibited in a Series of original Papers selected from the Manuscripts of the noble Families of Howard, Talbot, and Cecil, &c. By Edmond Lodge, Esq; Pursuivant at Arms, and F. S. A. 3 Vols. 4to. 3s. Boards. Nicol. 1791.*

THE introduction to this interesting work offers some remarks upon the utility of such collections to history in particular; and Mr Lodge justly blames the neglect of original documents shewn by modern historians, who seem to regard style, which ought only to be considered as the dress of their productions, more than accuracy and authenticity. He then explains the sources from which these papers were drawn; namely, the Talbot collection, consisting of fifteen volumes, preserved in the library of the College of Arms; that of Howard, in the duke of Norfolk's possession; and that of Cecil, which came into the hands of the editor's father, as residuary legatee to a lady, and which the editor, conceiving to have been illicitly withdrawn from the proper repository, has now restored to the Marquis of Salisbury. An account of the Earls of Shrewsbury, who are conspicuous actors in this series of papers, closes the introduction.

These illustrations commence with the year 1513, and some letters occur of the years 1516, 1517, and 1536. But the continued series begins at the year 1542, and extends to 1618. At the commencement is given an explanation of the abbreviations and obscure terms, the papers being printed *literatim*.

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ing government and manners occur in the early part of this collection, and the editor's note supply much additional information.

7. *Observations on the present State of Music in London.* By William Jackson of Exeter. 8vo. 1s. Harrison. 1791.

OUR author's object is the general state of music in the metropolis, its excellencies and defects. 'Music, and not musicians, is his subject.' His observations appear to be dictated by professional knowledge as well as a refined and accurate taste. He is acquainted with equal force and justice the loss of melody in modern compositions, and adds some excellent remarks on the defects of vocal performances.

We recommend this little work to the attention of the profession, and musical readers in general.

8. *The present State of Hudson's Bay. Containing a full Description of that Settlement, and the adjacent Country; and likewise of the Fur Trade,*

&c. &c. By Edward Umfreville, 8vo. 4s. Boards. Stalker 1790.

MR UMFREVILLE informs us, in the title, that he was eleven years in the service of the Hudson's Bay company; and four years at the Canada fur-trade. He speaks like a man well acquainted with the subject; plain; unadorned, and honest. The company, in this narrative, are severely censured, as fierce, interested, and avaricious; opposing every attempt to improve, to increase, or to communicate the knowledge of the interior parts of the continent. We have some reason to believe that this has been the case, but it is no longer so; and the late establishment of a superior province of Canada, a measure highly politic and judicious, reflecting equal lustre on the spirit and discernment of the present administration, will entirely destroy every remaining spark of monopoly, if it should still exist. We have good authority for declaring, that the Hudson's Bay and the north-west Canada companies have but one view, and they will probably co-operate in one great design, a permanent establishment on the western coast, and a ready communication with the eastern.

Leander and Adelfa; a Tale *

ADELISA, possess'd of beauty, fortune, rank, and every elegant accomplishment; that genius and education could bestow, was withal so insupportably capricious, that she seem'd born to be the torment of every heart which suffer'd itself to be attracted by her charms. Though her coquetry was notorious to a proverb, such were her attentions, that very few upon whom she thought fit to practise them, had ever found resolution to resist their power. Of all the victims of her vanity, Leander seem'd to be that over whom she threw her charms with the greatest air of triumph; he

was indeed a conquest to boast of, for he had long and obstinately defend'd his heart, and for a time made as many reprisals upon the tender passions of his sex as she rais'd contributions upon his: her better star at length prevail'd; she beheld Leander in her power, and though her victory was accomplish'd, as the expense of more tender glances than she had ever bestow'd upon the whole sex collectively, yet it was a victory, which only piqued Adelfa to render his slavery the more intolerable for the trouble it had cost her to reduce him to it. After she had trifled with him and tortur'd him in every

* From the Observer, Vol. 5.

way that her ingenious malice could devise, and made such public display of her tyranny, as subjected him to the ridicule and contempt of all the men who had envied his success, and every woman who resented his neglect, Adélisa avowedly dismissed him as an object which could no longer furnish sport to her cruelty, and turned to other pursuits with a kind of indifference as to the choice of them, which seemed to have no other guide but mere caprice.

Leander was not wanting to himself in the efforts he now made to free himself from her chains; but it was in vain; the hand of beauty had wrapped them too closely about his heart, and love had rivetted them too securely, for reason, pride, or even the strongest struggles of resentment to throw them off; he continued to love, to hate, to execrate and adore her. His first resolution was to exile himself from her sight; this was a measure of absolute necessity, for he was not yet recovered enough to abide the chance of meeting her, and he had neither spirits nor inclination to start a fresh attachment by way of experiment upon her jealousy.— Fortune however befriended him in the very moment of despair, for no sooner was he out of her sight, than the coquettish Adélisa found something wanting, which had been so familiar to her, that Leander, though despised when present, when lost was regretted. In vain she culled her numerous admirers for some one to replace him; continually peevish and discontented, Adélisa became so intolerable to her lovers, that there seemed to be a spirit conjuring up amongst them, which threatened her with a general desertion. What was to be done? Her danger was alarming, it was imminent: she determined to recal Leander: she informed herself of his haunts, and threw herself in the way of a rencontre; but he avoided her:— chance brought them to an interview, and she began by rallying him for his apostacy: there was an anxiety under all this affected pleasantry, that she could not thoroughly conceal, and he did not fail to discover: He instantly determined upon the very wisest measure which deliberation could have formed; he combated her with her own weapons; he put himself apparently so much at his ease, and counterfeited his part so well, as effectually to deceive her: she had now a new task upon her hands, and the hardest as well as the most hazardous she had ever undertaken: she attempted to throw him off his guard by a pretended pity for his past sufferings, and a promise of kinder usage for the future: he denied that he had suffered any thing, and assured her that he never failed to be amused by her humours, which were perfectly agreeable to him at all times.— “Then it is plain,” replied she, “that you never thought of me as a wife; for

“such humours must be insupportable to a husband.”—“Pardon me,” cried Leander, “if ever I should be betrayed into the idle act of marriage, I must be in one of those very humours myself: defend me from the dull uniformity of domestic life! What can be so insipid as the tame strains of nuptial harmony everlastingly repeated? Whatever other varieties I may then debase myself of, let me at least find a variety of whim in the woman I am to be fettered to.”—“Upon my word,” exclaimed Adélisa, “you would almost persuade me that we were destined for each other.”— This she accompanied with one of those looks in which she was most expert, and which was calculated at once to inspire and to betray sensibility: Leander, not yet so certain of his observations as to confide in them, seemed to receive this overture as a raillery, and affecting a laugh, replied—“I do not think it is in the power of destiny herself to determine either of us; for if you was for one moment in the humour to promise yourself to me, I am certain in the next you would retract it; and if I was fool enough to believe you, I should well deserve to be punished for my credulity: Hymen will never yoke us to each other, nor to any body else; but if you are in the mind to make a very harmless experiment of the little faith I put in all such promises, here is my hand; ’tis fit the proposal should spring from my quarter and not yours; close with it as soon as you please, and laugh at me as much as you please, if I vent one murmur when you break the bargain.”—“Well then,” said Adélisa, “to punish you for the fascinations of your provoking challenge, and to convince you that I do not credit you for this pretended indifference to my treatment of you, here is my hand, and with it my promise; and now I give you warning, that if ever I do keep it, ’twill be only from the conviction that I shall torment you more by fulfilling it than by flying from it.”—“Fairly declared,” cried Leander, “and since my word is passed, I’ll stand to it; but take notice, if I was not perfectly secure of being jilted, I should think myself in a fair way to be the most egregious dupe in nature.”

In this strain of mutual raillery they proceeded to settle the most serious business of their lives, and whilst neither would venture upon a confession of their passion, each seemed to rely upon the other for a discovery of it. They now broke up their conference in the gayest spirits imaginable, and Leander, upon parting, offered to make a bet of half his fortune with Adélisa, that she did not stand to her engagement, at the same time naming a certain day as the period of no taking place.—“And what shall I gain,”

"Did she," in that case by half your fortune, "when I shall have a joint share in possession of the whole?"—"Talk not of fortune," cried Leander, giving loose to the rapture which he could no longer restrain, "my heart, my happiness, my life itself is your's."—So saying he caught her in his arms, pressed her eagerly in his embrace, and hastily departed.

No sooner was he out of her sight than he began to expostulate with himself upon his indiscretion: in the extasy of one unguarded moment he had blasted all his schemes, and by exposing his weakness armed her with fresh engines to torment him. In these reflections he passed the remainder of the night; in vain he strove to find some justification for his folly; he could not form his mind to believe that the tender looks she had bestowed upon him were any other than an experiment upon his heart to throw him from his guard and re-establish her tyranny. With these impressions he presented himself at her door next morning, and was immediately admitted; Adelisa was alone, and Leander immediately began by saying to her, "I am now come to receive at your hands the punishment, which a man who cannot keep his own secret richly deserves; I surrender myself to you, and I expect you will exert your utmost ingenuity in tormenting me; only remember that you cannot give a stab to my heart without wounding your own image, which envelops every part, and is too deeply impressed for even your cruelty totally to extirpate." At the conclusion of this speech, Adelisa's countenance became serious; she fixed her eyes upon the floor, and after a pause, without taking any notice of Leander, and as if she had been talking to herself in soliloquy, repeated in a murmuring tone—"Well, 'tis all over; but no matter."—"For the love of heaven," cried Leander in alarm, "what is all over?"—"All that is most delightful to woman," she replied, "all the luxury, which the vanity of my sex enjoys in tormenting your's:—Oh Leander! what charming projects of revenge had I contrived to punish your pretended indifference, and depend upon it, I would have executed them to the utmost rigour of the law of retaliation, had you not in one moment disarmed me of my malice by a fair confession of your love. Believe me, Leander, I never was a coquette but in self-defence; sincerity is my natural character; but how should a woman of any attractions be safe in such a character, when the whole circle of fashion abounds with artificial coxcombs, pretenders to sentiment and professors of seduction? When the whole world is in arms against innocence, what is to become of the naked children

of nature, if experience does not teach them the art of defence? If I have employed this art more particularly against you than others, why have I so done, but because I had more to apprehend from your insincerity than any other person's, and proportioned my defences to my danger? Between you and me, Leander, it has been more a contest of cunning than an affair of honour, and if you will call your own conduct into fair review, trust me you will find little reason to complain of mine. Naturally disposed to favour your attentions more than any other man's, it particularly behoved me to guard myself against propensities at once so pleasing and so suspicious. Let this suffice in justification of what is past; it now remains that I should explain to you the system I have laid down for the time to come: If ever I assume the character of a wife, I devote myself to all its duties; I bid farewell at once to all the vanities, the petulancies, the coquetries of what is falsely called a life of pleasure; the whole system must undergo a revolution, and be administered upon other principles and to other purposes: I know the world too well to commit myself to it, when I have more than my own conscience to account to, when I have not only truths, but the similitudes of truths to study; suspicions, jealousies, appearances to provide against; when I am no longer singly responsible on the score of error, but of example also: It is not therefore in the public display of an affluent fortune, in dress, equipage, entertainments, nor even in the fame of splendid charities my pleasures will be found; they will center in domestic occupations; in cultivating nature and the sons of nature, in benefiting the tenants and labourers of the soil that supplies us with the means of being useful; in living happily with my neighbours, in availing myself of those numberless opportunities, which a residence in the country affords of relieving the untold distresses of those, who suffer in secret, and are too humble or perhaps too proud to ask."—Here the enraptured Leander could no longer keep silence, but breaking forth into transports of love and admiration, gave a turn to the conversation, which it is no otherwise interesting to relate than as it proved the prelude to an union which speedily took place, and has made Leander and Adelisa the fondest and the worthiest couple in England.

From Adelisa's example I would willingly establish this conclusion, that the characters of young unmarried women, who are objects of admiration, are not to be decided upon by the appearances which they are sometimes tempted to assume upon the plea

of self-defence: I would not be understood by this to recommend disguise in any shape, or to justify those who resort to artifice upon the pretended necessity of the measure; but I am thoroughly disposed to believe, that the triflings and dissemblings of the young and fair do not so often flow from the real levity of their natures as they are thought to do: those in particular, whose situation throws them into the vortex of the fashion, have much that might be said in palliation of appearances. Many coquettes besides Adelia have become admirable wives and mothers, and how very many more might have approved themselves such, had they fallen into the hands of men of worth and good sense, is a conjecture, which leads to the most melancholy reflections. There is so little honourable love in the men of high life before marriage, and so much infidelity after it, that the husband is almost in every instance the corrupter of his wife. A woman (as she is called) of the world, is in many people's notions a proscribed animal; a silly idea prevails that she is to lead a husband into certain ruin and disgrace: parents in general seem agreed in exerting all their influence and authority for keeping her out of their families; in place of whom they frequently obtrude upon their sons some raw and inexperienced thing, whom they figure

to themselves as a creature of perfect innocence and simplicity, a wife who may be modelled to the wishes of her husband, whose manners are untainted by the vices of the age, and on whose purity, fidelity, and affection he may repose his happiness for the rest of his days. Alas! how grossly they misjudge their own true interests in the case: how dangerous is the situation of these children of the nursery at their first introduction into the world! Those only who are unacquainted with the delectableness of pleasure can be thoroughly intoxicated by it; it is the novelty which makes the danger; and surely it requires infinitely more judgment, stronger resolutions, and closer attentions to free the conduct of a young wife without experience, than would serve to detach the woman of the world from frivolous she is saturated with, and, by fixing her to your interests convert what you have thought a dissipated character into a domestic one.

The same remark applies to young men of private education: you keep them in absolute subjection till they marry, and then in a moment make them their own masters; from mere infancy you expect them to step at once into perfect manhood: the motives for the experiment may be virtuous, but the effects of it will be fatal.

Poetry.

BELLMAN'S RHYMES.

By Mr COWPER, Author of the TASK.

HE who sits from day to day,
Where the prison'd lark is hung,
Heedless of his loudest lay,
Hardly knows that he has sung.

Where the watchman in his round
Nightly lifts his voice on high,
None, accusom'd to the sound,
Wakes the fooner for his cry:

So, your versè-man, I, and clerk,
Yearly in my song proclaim
Death at hand—yourselfes his mark—
And the foe's unerring aim.

Duly at my time I come,
Publishing to all aloud—
“ Soon the grave must be your home,
“ And your only suit a shroud.”

But the monitory strain,
Oft repeated in your ears,
Seems to sound too much in vain,
Wins no notice, wakes no fears.

Can a truth, by all confess'd,
Of such magnitude and weight,
Grow, by being oft' impress'd,
Trivial as a parrot's prate?

Pleasure's call attention wins,
Hear it often as we may;
New as ever seem our sins,
Though committed ev'ry day;

Death and Judgment, Heaven and Hell—
These alone, so often heard,
No more move us than the bell
When some stranger is interr'd.

Oh! then, e'er the turf or tomb
Cover us from ev'ry eye,
Spirit of Instruction, come—
Make us learn that—WE MUST DIE!

ODE TO HYMEN.

By PETER PINDAR.

GOD of ten million charming things,
Of whom our Milton so divinely
sings,

Once

Once dove-tail'd to a devil of a wife—
Hymen, how comes it that I am so slight-
ed?
Why with thy myst'ries am I not delight-
ed,
Which I have try'd to peep on half my
life?

God of the down-clad chains, dispel the
mist—

O put me speedily upon thy list!
A civil list, like that of Kings, I'm told,
Enraging in swelling bags of glorious gold!

What have I done, to lose thy good opi-
nion?

Against thee was I ever known to rail?
And say, (abusing thus thy sweet domi-
nion)

"Curse me! if this boy's trap shall catch
my tail?"

No! No!—I praise thy knot with bellowing
breath,
Which, like Jack Ketch's, seldom slips till
death.

'Lo! 'midst the hollow-sounding vault of
Night,

Deep coughing by the taper's lonely light,
The hopeless Hecdic rolls his eye-balls,
sighing:

"Sleep on," he cries, and drops the ten-
d'rest tear;

Then kisses his wife's cherub cheek so
dear:

"Blest be thy slumber, Love! though I
am dying:

Ah! whilst thou sleepest with the sweetest
breath,

I pump, for life, the putrid well of death!
I feel of Fate's hard hand th' oppressive
pow'r;

I count the iron tongue of ev'ry hour,
That seems in Fancy's startled ear to say—
Soon must thou wander from thy wife a-
way."

"Dread sound! too solemn for the soul to
bear,

Mem'ring deep melancholy on my ear:
And fallen—ling'ring, as if loth to part,
And ease the terrors of my fainting heart.
Yet, though I pant for life, sleep thou, my
dove,

For well thy constancy deserves my love."

And lo! all young and beauteous, by his
side,

His soft, fresh-blooming, incense-breathing
bride,

Whose cheek the dream of rapt'rous
kisses warms,

Anticipates her Spouse's wish so good;
Feels Love's wild ardours tingling through
her blood;

And pants amidst a second husband's arms;
Now opens her eyes, and, turning round her
head,

"Wonders the filthy fellow is not
dead!"

THE SHORE,

A POEM.

WRITTEN AT THE SEA-SIDE.

I.

HOW pleasant is the varied view,
How fair the scene around,
When curling waves in foam edg'd blue,
Upon the rocks rebound.

When vessels scud with hoisted sails,
The gentle wafting breeze before,
To view them borne by western
gales,
How pleasing on the rocky shore,

II.

Whether at morn no zephyr plays
Upon the stilly plain,
When sol with bright effulgent blaze
Emerges from the main;

When the clear bosom of the tide,
The wherries moving lightly o'er,
From the smooth lake reflected glide,
—How calm, how sweet, the view on
shore.

III.

Or if gray twilight's mantle spread
The dark'ning scene bereave,
A chilling breeze the heaving head,
Soft ruffles of the wave:

If Cynthia, riding high above,
Her paly beams in silver pour,
Still, still the silver stene I love,
Still I'll behold it from the shore.

IV.

Or let rude Borcas' whistling blasts,
The swelling seas deform,
Let thunders tear the crashing masts,
Rage whirlwinds and the storm;

There's grandeur in the rising hiss,
And in the awful thunder's roar,
Yes—there's a pleasure ev'n in this,
And I will haunt, will love—the shore.

V.

But what loud screams now strike mine
ear,

Methinks I hear a yell,
The dying sea-man's cries I fear—
I haste—I know them well.

How

How sweet the joy again to life to
warm,
Or in soft tender sympathy deplore,
Or shelter from the batt'ring hail of
harm!
I'll dwell then ever, ever on the flow'r.

J. C. — r.

S O N G.

*Composed and sung by Mr JAMES BISSET;
Devise and Fancy-Painter in Birmingham,
Deputy Chairman of the Meeting held there
on Thursday the 14th day of July 1791, in
commemoration of the French Revolution.*

ONCE the Gods in full council, assembled
in Heaven,
The Britons determin'd a Gift should be
given.

This blessing so rare then, with Joy they
decree,
And Jove gave the Fiat,—ye Britons be
free!

The loud Trump of Fame far and near
spread the sound,
And Freedom descending, soon reach'd Brit-
ish Ground:
So pleas'd with the Spot she appear'd then
to be,
She vow'd that *Old England* should ever be
free.

The Rays of fair Freedom spread Glory
afar;
Our Ancestors hail'd her their chief leading
Star;
A temple of honour was rear'd in each
Heart,
And *Liberty Hall* set for Freedom apart.

Our Neighbours in France of our Freedom
aware,
And wishing such Blessings might fall to
their Share,
For Freedom petition! The Gods they a-
gree,
And whiter their Mandate,—that France
should be free.

The fourteenth of July was fix'd as the
day
When Millions their Homage to Freedom
should pay.
In the Annals of Fame then enroll'd may it
be,
Which witness'd a Nation made happy and
free.

With loud Acclamation let each raise his
Voice,
And give round the Word, " Sons of Free-
dom, rejoice!"

Let each loyal Briton than cheerfully sing,
The Blessings of Freedom, and long live the
King.

THE BEE AND THE BUTTERFLY.

By Mrs ROBINSON.

UPON a garden's perfume'd bed
With various gaudy colours spread,
Beneath the shelter of a Rose
A Butterfly had sought repose;
Faint, with the sultry beams of day,
Supine the beautiful insect lay.

" A Bee, impatient to devour
The nectar sweets of ev'ry flow'r,
Returning to her golden store,
A weight of fragrant treasure bore;
With envious eye she mark'd the shade
Where the poor Butterfly was laid,
And resting on the bending spray,
Thus murmur'd forth her droopy lay:

" Thou empty thing, whose merit lies
In the vain boast of orient dews;
Whose glittering form the slightest touch
Robs of its glori, and fades to death;
Who idly roav'st the summer day,
Flutt'ring a transient life away,
Unmindful of the chilling hour,
The nipping frost, the drenching snow'r;
Who heedless of " to-morrow's fate,"
Mak'st present bliss thy only care;
Is it for thee, the damask Rose
With such transcendent lustre glows?
Is it for such a giddy thing
Nature unveils the blushing spring?
Hence, from thy lurking place, and know,
'Tis not for thee her beauties glow."

The Butterfly, with decent pride,
In gentle accents, thus reply'd:
" 'Tis true, I flutter life away
In pastime, innocent and gay;
The Sun that decks the blushing spring
Gives lustre to my painted wing;
'Tis Nature bids each colour vie,
With rainbow tints of varying die;
I boast no skill, no subtle pow'r,
To steal the balm from ev'ry flow'r;
The Rose that only shelter'd me
Has pour'd a load of sweets on thee,
Of merit we have both our share,
Heav'n gave thee Art, and made me fair
And tho' thy cunning can despise
The humble worth of harmless flies;
Remember, envious, busy thing,
Thy honey'd form conceals a sting;
Enjoy thy garden, while I rest,
The sunny hill, the woodbine grove,
And far remov'd from care and thee,
Embrace my humble destiny;
While in some lone sequester'd bow'r
I'll live content beyond thy pow'r;
For where ill-nature holds her reign
Taste, Worth, and Beauty, plead in vain;
E'en Genius must to Pride submit,
When Envy wings the shaft of wit."

THE
Monthly Register
FOR AUGUST 1791.

FOREIGN INTELLIGENCE.

FRANCE.

NATIONAL ASSEMBLY.

PARIS, August 5.

M. THOURET, in the name of the Committees of Constitution and Revision, presented to the Assembly the report from the said Committee, intitled,
THE FRENCH CONSTITUTION.

The Report was read and applauded, and on the motion of M. la Fayette, the Committee of Constitution was ordered to prepare a plan for presenting the Constitutional Act to the most independent examination and free acceptance by the king.

HEAD I.

FUNDAMENTAL DISPOSITIONS, GUARANTEED BY THE CONSTITUTION.

The Constitution guarantees, as natural and civil rights,

I. That all citizens are admissible to places and employments without any distinction, but that of ability and virtue.

II. That all contributions shall be divided equally among all the citizens, in proportion to their means.

III. That the same crimes shall be subject to the same punishments, without any distinction of persons.

HEAD II.

OF THE DIVISION OF THE KINGDOM, AND THE STATE OF CITIZENS.

I. France is divided into eighty-three Departments, each Department into Districts, and each District into Cantons.

II. Those are French citizens who are born in France, of a French father;—who having been born in France of a foreign father, have fixed their residence

in the kingdom;—who having been born in a foreign country, of a French father, have returned to settle in France, and have taken the Civic Oath;—in fine, who having been born in a foreign country, being descended in whatever degree from a Frenchman or Frenchwoman, who have left their country from religious motives, come to reside in France, and take the Civic Oath.

III. Those who being born out of the kingdom, of foreign parents, reside in France, become French citizens after five years of continued residence in the kingdom; if, besides, they have acquired real property, or married a French woman, or formed a commercial establishment, and if they have taken the Civic Oath.

IV. The Legislative Power may, from important considerations, naturalize a foreigner, upon no other condition than that of residing in France, and taking the Civic Oath.

V. The Civic Oath is: "I swear to be faithful to the Nation, the Law, and the King; and to maintain, with all my power, the Constitution decreed by the Constituent National Assembly during the years 1789, 1790, and 1791."

VI. The right of French citizenship is lost;

1st, By naturalization in a foreign country;

2dly, By being condemned to penalties which involve the Civic Degradation, provided the person condemned be not reinstated;

3dly, By a sentence of contumacy, provided the sentence be not annulled.

4thly, By an initiation into any foreign order or body, which shall be supposed to require proofs of nobility.

VII. French citizens regarded in the light of those local relations, which arise out of their association in cities, and in certain

certain divisions of territory in the country form the *communities*.

The Legislative Power may fix the extent of the boundary of each community.

VIII. The citizens who compose each community have the right of choosing, according to the forms prescribed by the law, those among them who, under the name of *municipal officers*, are charged with the management of the particular affairs of the community. To the municipal officers may be delegated certain functions relative to the general interest of the state.

IX. The rules which the municipal officers shall be bound to follow in the exercise, both of the municipal functions, and of those which shall be delegated to them for the general interest, shall be fixed by the laws.

HEAD III.

OF THE PUBLIC POWERS.

I. The sovereignty is one, indivisible, and appertains to the nation: no section of the people can arrogate the exercise of it.

II. The nation, from which alone flow all the powers, cannot exercise them but by delegation.

The French Constitution is representative: the Representatives are the Legislative Body and the King.

III. The Legislative Power is delegated to a National Assembly, composed of temporary representatives, freely chosen by the people, to be exercised by this Assembly, with the sanction of the King in manner afterwards determined.

IV. The Government is monarchical; the executive power is delegated to the King, to be exercised under his authority, by ministers and other responsible agents, in manner afterwards determined.

V. The judicial power is delegated to judges, chosen for a time limited by the people.

CHAPTER I.

OF THE LEGISLATIVE NATIONAL ASSEMBLY.

I. The National Assembly, forming the Legislative Body, is permanent, and consists of one chamber only.

II. It shall be formed by new elections every two years.

Each period of two years shall form one Legislature.

III. The renewal of the Legislative Body shall be matter of full right.

IV. The Legislative Body shall not be dissolved by the King.

SECTION J.

NUMBER OF REPRESENTATIVES.—BASIS OF REPRESENTATION.

I. The number of representatives to the Legislative Body shall be seven hundred and forty-five, on account of the eighty-three Departments, of which the kingdom is composed; and independent of these that may be granted to the colonies.

II. The Representatives shall be distributed among the eighty-three Departments, according to the three proportions of land, of population, and the contribution direct.

III. Of the seven hundred and forty-five Representatives, two hundred and forty-seven are attached to the land. Of these each Department shall nominate three, except the Department of Paris, which shall nominate only one.

IV. Two hundred and forty-nine Representatives are attributed to the population. The total mass of the active population of the kingdom is divided into two hundred and ninety-four parts, and each Department nominates as many of the Deputies as it contains parts of the Population.

V. Two hundred and forty-nine Representatives are attached to the contribution direct. The sum-total of the direct contribution of the kingdom is likewise divided into two hundred and forty-nine parts, and each Department nominates as many Deputies as it pays parts of the contribution.

SECTION II.

PRIMARY ASSEMBLIES—NOMINATION OF ELECTORS.

I. In order to form a Legislative National Assembly, the active citizens shall convene in primary assemblies, in the cities and cantons.

II. To be an active citizen, it is necessary,

To be a Frenchman, or have become a Frenchman;

To have attained twenty-five years complete;

To have resided in the city or canton at least for the space of one year;

To pay in any part of the kingdom a direct contribution, at least equal to the value of three days labour, and to produce the acquittance;

Not

Not to be in a menial capacity, namely, that of a servant receiving wages ;

To be inscribed in the Municipality of the place of his residence in the list of the National Guards ;

To have taken the Civic Oath.

III. Every six years the Legislative Body shall fix the minimum and the maximum of the value of a day's labour, and the Administrators of the Departments shall determine the rate for every district.

IV. None shall exercise the rights of an active citizen in more than one place, nor employ another as his substitute.

V. None shall be excluded from the rights of an active citizen who are in a state of accusation. Those who, after having been in a state of failure or bankruptcy, shall not produce a general discharge from their creditors.

VI. The primary Assemblies shall name electors in the proportion of the number of active citizens residing in the city or canton ;

There shall be named one elector to the Assembly, or not, according as there shall happen to be present a hundred active citizens ;

There shall be named two, when there shall be present from one hundred and fifty-one to two hundred and fifty, and so on in this proportion.

VII. No man can be named elector, if along with the conditions necessary, in order to be an active citizen, he does not join that of paying a contribution direct of day's labour*.

SECTION III.

ELECTORAL ASSEMBLIES—NOMINATION OF REPRESENTATIVES.

I. The Electors named in each Department shall convene in order to chuse the number of Representatives, whose nomination shall belong to the Depart-

ment, and a number of Substitutes equal to the third of the Representatives.

II. The Representatives and Substitutes shall be chosen by an absolute majority of votes.

III. All active citizens, whatever be their state, profession, or contribution, may be chosen as Representatives of the nation.

IV. Excepting nevertheless the Ministers and other agents of the executive power, revokeable at pleasure, the Commissioners of the National Treasury, the Collectors and Receivers of the direct Contributions, those who superintend the collection and management of the indirect Contributions, and those who, under whatever denomination, held any employ in the Royal Household.

V. The exercise of the municipal, administrative, and judiciary functions, shall be incompatible with the function of a Representative of the nation during every period of the Legislature.

VI. The Members of the Legislative Body may be re-elected to the next Legislature, but not till after an interval of two years †.

VII. The Representatives named in the Departments shall not be Representatives of a particular Department, but of the whole nation ; and their freedom of opinion cannot be controlled by any instructions either of the primary Assemblies, or of the Electors.

SECTION IV.

SESSION AND REGULATION OF THE PRIMARY AND ELECTORAL ASSEMBLIES.

I. The functions of the primary and electoral Assemblies shall be limited merely to the right of chusing ; as soon as the election is over, they shall separate, and shall not meet again till they shall have been summoned.

II. No active citizen can enter or vote in

* The Committees of Constitution and of Revision are of opinion, that in order to preserve the purity of the National Representation, which in our Constitution is the first basis of Liberty, it is of importance to secure as much as possible the independence and enlightened spirit of the Electoral Assemblies, and to set no limits to the confidence reposed in them, and the freedom of choice to which they are entitled ; consequently they propose to the Assembly to suppress the condition of a mark of silver attached to the eligibility of the Members of the Legislative Body, and to augment the contribution required for Electors.

It follows, however, that the Electoral Bodies being formed previous to the regulation, their alterations shall have no influence in the choice of the next Legislature.

† The Committees of Constitution and Revision regard the limitation stipulated in this Article, as contrary to Liberty, and pernicious to the national interest.

in an Assembly, if he is armed or dressed in an uniform, unless he be in the service, in which case he may vote in uniform, but without arms.

III. No armed force can be introduced in the Meeting, except at the express desire of the Assembly, unless in the case of actual violence, when the order of the President shall be sufficient to call in the aid of the public force.

IV. Every two years there shall be drawn up in each district lists by cantons of the active citizens, and the list of each canton shall be published, and posted up two months before the meeting of the primary Assembly.

The protests which shall be made either against the right of citizens named in the list, or on the part of those who shall affirm that they are unjustly omitted, shall be carried to the tribunals in order to be there decided upon.

The list shall serve to regulate the admission of citizens in the next primary Assembly, in every point that shall have been ascertained by a sentence pronounced before the sitting of the Assembly.

V. The Electoral Assemblies have the right of verifying the quality and powers of those who shall present themselves there, and their decisions shall be provisionally executed, with a reserve for the sentence of the Legislative Body at the time of the verification of the powers of Deputies.

VI. In no case, and under no pretext, shall the King, or any agents named by him, interfere in questions relative to the regularity of the convocation, the sitting of the Assemblies, the form of elections, or the political rights of citizens.

SECTION V.

MEETING OF THE REPRESENTATIVES IN THE LEGISLATIVE NATIONAL ASSEMBLY.

I. The Representatives shall convene on the first Monday of May, in order to supply the place of the last Legislature.

II. They shall form themselves provisionally under the presidency of the eldest of their number, in order to verify the powers of the Representatives present.

III. As soon as these shall be verified, to the number of three hundred and seventy-three members, they shall constitute themselves under the title of Legislative National Assembly; they shall name a President, Vice-President, and

Secretaries, and enter upon the exercise of their functions.

IV. During the whole of the month of May, if the number of the Representatives present fall short of three hundred and seventy-three, the Assembly shall not perform any legislative act.

They may issue an arret, enjoining absent Members to attend their functions within fifteen days at farthest, under a penalty of 3000 livres if they do not produce an excuse which shall be deemed lawful by the Legislative Body.

V. On the last day of May, whatever be the number of Members present, they shall constitute themselves a Legislative National Assembly.

VI. The Representatives shall pronounce in a body, in the name of the French people, the oath, "to live free or die!"

They shall then individually take the oath to maintain, with all their power, the Constitution of the Kingdom, decreed by the Constituting National Assembly, during the years 1789, 1790, and 1791, to propose or assent to nothing in the course of the Legislature which may at all tend to infringe it, and to be in every respect faithful to the Nation, the Law, and the King.

VII. The Representatives of the Nation are inviolable. They cannot be examined, accused, or judged at any time with respect to what they may have said, written, or performed in the exercise of their functions as Representatives.

VIII. They may, for a criminal act, be seized as guilty of a flagrant crime, or in virtue of an order of arrest; but notice shall be given of it, without delay, to the Legislative Body, and the prosecution shall not be continued, till after the Legislative Body shall have decided that there is ground of accusation.

CHAPTER II.

OF THE ROYALTY, THE REGENCY, AND THE MINISTERS.

SECTION I.

OF THE ROYALTY AND THE KING.

The Royalty is indivisible, and delegated hereditarily to the race on the throne from male to male, by order of primogeniture, to the perpetual exclusion of women and their descendants.

Nothing is prejudged on the effect of renunciations in the race on the throne.

II. The

II. The person of the King is sacred and inviolable: his only title is King of the French. all prosecutions for debts, due by the Civil List, be brought, and judgments given and executed,

III. There is no authority in France superior to that of the Law. The King reigns only by it, and it is only in the name of the law that he can require obedience.

IV. The King, on his accession to the throne, or at the period of his majority, shall take to the nation, in the presence of the legislative body, the oath, "To employ all the power delegated to him, to maintain the constitution decreed by the constituent National Assembly in the years 1789, 1790, and 1791, and to cause the laws to be executed."

If the legislative body shall not be assembled, the King shall cause a proclamation to be issued, in which shall be expressed this oath, and a promise to repeat it as soon as the legislative body shall meet.

V. If the King refuse to take this oath, after an invitation by the legislative body, or if, after taking it, he shall retract, he shall be held to have abdicated the royalty.

VI. If the King put himself at the head of an army, and direct the forces of it against the nation, or if he do not oppose, by a formal act, any such enterprise undertaken in his name, he shall be held to have abdicated.

VII. If the King go out of the kingdom, and if, after being invited by a proclamation of the legislative body, he do not return, he shall be held to have abdicated.

VIII. After abdication, express or legal, the King shall be in the class of citizens, and may be accused and tried like them, for acts posterior to his abdication.

IX. The particular effects which the King possesses at his accession to the throne, are irrevocably united to the domain of the nation; he has the disposition of those he acquires on his own private account; if he has not disposed of them, they are in like manner united at the end of his reign.

X. The Nation makes provision for the splendour of the Throne by a Civil List, of which the Legislative Body shall fix the sum at the commencement of each reign, for the whole duration of that reign.

XI. The King shall appoint an Administrator of the Civil List, who shall institute civil suits in the name of the King, and against whom personally shall

SECTION II.

OF THE REGENCY.

I. The King is a minor till the age of eighteen complete; and during his minority there shall be a Regent of the kingdom.

II. The Regency belongs to the relation of the King, the next in degree according to the order of succession to the throne, who has attained the age of twenty-five; provided he be a Frenchman, resident in the kingdom, and no presumptive heir to any other Crown, and have previously taken the Civic Oath.

Women are excluded from the Regency.

III. The Regent exercises, till the King's majority, all the functions of Royalty, and is not personally responsible for the acts of his Administration.

IV. The Regent cannot begin the exercise of his functions till after taking to the Nation, in the presence of the Legislative Body, an oath, "To employ all the power delegated to the King, and of which the exercise is confided to him during the minority of the King, to maintain the Constitution decreed by the Constituent National Assembly in the years 1789, 1790, and 1791, and to cause the laws to be executed."

If the Legislative Body is not assembled, the Regent shall cause a proclamation to be issued, in which shall be expressed this oath, and a promise to repeat it as soon as the Legislative Body shall be met.

V. As long as the Regent is not entered on the exercise of his functions, the sanction of laws remains suspended; the Ministers continue to perform, under their responsibility, all the acts of the Executive Power.

VI. As soon as the Regent shall take the oath, the Legislative Body shall fix his allowance, which shall not be altered during his Regency.

VII. The Regency of the kingdom confers no right over the person of the minor King.

VIII. The care of the minor King shall be confided to his mother; and if she be married again, at the time of her son's accession to the throne, or if she marry again during the minority, the care

care of him shall be delegated by the Legislative Body.

For the care of the minor King, neither the Regent, nor his descendants, nor a woman can be chosen.

IX. In case of the King's mental incapacity notoriously admitted, legally proved, and declared by the Legislative Body, after three successive deliberations held monthly, there shall be a Regency as long as such incapacity continues.

SECTION III.

OF THE ROYAL FAMILY.

I. the presumptive heir shall bear the name of Prince Royal.

He cannot go out of the kingdom, without a decree of the Legislative Body, and the King's consent.

If he is gone out of it, and if, after being required by a proclamation of the Legislative Body, he do not return to France, he is held to have abdicated the right of succession to the throne.

II. If the presumptive heir is a minor, the relation, of full age, and next in order to the regency, is bound to reside within the kingdom.

In case of his going out of it, and not returning on the requisition of the Legislative Body, he shall be held to have abdicated his right to the Regency.

III. The mother of the minor King, having the care of him, or the guardian elect, if they go out of the kingdom, forfeit their charge:

If the mother of the presumptive heir, a minor, go out of the kingdom, she cannot, even after her return, have the care of her minor son become King, but by a decree of the Legislative Body.

IV. The other members of the family of the King are subject only to the laws common to all citizens.

V. A law shall be made to regulate the education of the minor King, and that of the minor heir presumptive.

VI. No *real apanage* (in land) shall be granted to the members of the Royal Family.

The younger sons of the King shall receive, at the age of twenty-five, or on their marriage, an annuity, the amount of which shall be fixed by the Legislative Body, and which shall terminate with the extinction of their male-heirs.

SECTION IV.

OF MINISTERS.

I. To the King alone belongs the choice and revocation of ministers.

II. No order of the King can be executed, if it be not signed by him, and countersigned by the minister or comptroller of the department.

III. The ministers are responsible for all the offences committed by them against the national safety and the Constitution—for every attack on individual property and liberty—for every abuse of the money allotted for the expences of their department.

IV. In no case can the written or verbal order of a King shelter a Minister from responsibility.

V. The Ministers are bound to present every year to the Legislative Body, at the opening of the session, the amount of the expences of their department, to give an account of the employment of the sums destined for that purpose, and to mention the abuses which may have crept into the different parts of the Government.

CHAPTER III.

OF THE EXERCISE OF THE LEGISLATIVE POWER.

SECTION I.

POWERS AND FUNCTIONS OF THE LEGISLATIVE NATIONAL ASSEMBLY.

I. The Constitution Delegate exclusively to the Legislative Body, the powers and functions following:

1. To propose and decree laws: The King can only invite the Legislative Body to take an object into consideration.

2. To fix the public expences.

3. To establish the public contributions, to determine the nature of them, the amount of each sort, and the mode of collection.

4. To make the distribution of them among the several departments of the kingdom, to watch over the application, and to demand an account of it.

5. To decree the creation or suppression of public offices.

6. To determine the quality, the impression, and the denomination of money.

7. To permit or prohibit the introduction of foreign troops into the French territories, and of foreign naval forces into the ports of the kingdom.

8. To vote annually, on the King's proposition, the number of men and ships, of which the sea and land forces shall be composed; the pay and the number of each

each rank; the rules of admission and promotion; the forms of enrollment and discharge; the formation of naval equipments; the admission of foreign troops, or naval forces into the French service, and the pensions to troops on being disbanded.

9. To regulate the administration and the alienation of the National Domains.

10. To prosecute before the high National Court, the ministers and principal agents of the executive power, on their responsibility.

To accuse and prosecute, before the same court, those who shall be charged with any offence or conspiracy against the general safety of the state or the constitution.

11. To establish the rules according to which marks of honour or decorations merely personal shall be granted to those who have done service to the state.

12. The Legislative Body has the sole right of decreeing posthumous honours to the memory of great men.

II. War cannot be resolved on but by a decree of the National Assembly, passed on the formal and necessary proposition of the King, and sanctioned by him:

In case of hostilities, imminent or commenced, of an ally to be supported, or a right to be maintained by force of arms the King shall give notification without delay to the Legislative Body, with an explanation of the reasons:

If the Legislative Body decide that war ought not to be made, the King shall instantly take measures to prevent or put a stop to hostilities, the Ministers being responsible for all delays;

If the Legislative Body find that the hostilities commenced are a culpable aggression on the part of Ministers, or any other agent of the Executive Power, the author of the aggression shall be prosecuted criminally:

During the whole course of war, the Legislative Body may require the King to negotiate peace, and the King is bound to yield to this requisition:

On the immediate conclusion of war, the Legislative Body shall fix the time within which the troops levied above the peace establishment shall be discharged, and the army reduced to its ordinary establishment.

III. It belongs to the Legislative Body to ratify treaties of peace, alliance, and commerce; and no treaty shall have effect, but by this ratification.

IV. The Legislative Body has the right of determining the place of its sittings, of continuing them as long as it shall think necessary, and of adjourning; at the commencement of each reign, if it is not sitting, it shall be bound to meet without delay:

It has the right of police in the place of its sitting, and to such extent around it as shall be determined:

It has the right of discipline over its members; but it can pronounce no heavier punishment than censure, arrest for eight days, or imprisonment for three:

It has the right of disposing, for its safety and the respect that is due to it of the forces, which shall be established by its consent, in the city where it shall hold its sittings.

V. The Executive Power cannot march, or quarter, or station, any troops of the line, within thirty-thousand toises of the Legislative Body, except on the requisition, or by the authority of that body.

SECTION II.

HOLDING OF THE SITTINGS, AND FORM OF DELIBERATING.

I. The deliberations of the Legislative Body shall be public, and the minutes of the sittings shall be printed.

II. The Legislative Body may, however, on any occasion, form itself into a general committee:

Fifty members shall have a right to demand it:

During the continuance of the general committee, the assistants shall retire, the chair of the President shall be vacant, order shall be maintained by the Vice-President.

The decrees cannot be passed, except in a public sitting.

III. No Legislative act can be debated and decreed, except in the following form:

IV. The plan of a decree shall be read thrice, at three intervals, the shortest of which cannot be less than eight days:

V. The discussion shall be open after every reading; nevertheless, after the first or second reading, the Legislative Body may declare that there is reason for adjournment, or that there is no room for deliberation—in this last case, the plan of the decree may be introduced again in the same session:

VI. After the third reading, the President shall be bound to propose to their deliberation;

deliberation; and the Legislative Body shall decide, whether they are qualified to pass a definitive decree, or would rather chuse to postpone their decision, in order to gather more ample information on the subject:

VII. The Legislative Body cannot deliberate, if the sitting do not consist of at least 200 members; and no decree shall be made, except by the absolute majority of votes:

VIII. No plan of a law which, after having been submitted to discussion, shall have been rejected after the third reading, can again be introduced the same session:

IX. The preamble of every definitive decree, shall announce, 1st, The dates of those three sittings, at which the plan of the decree was read; 2^d, The decree by which it shall have been appointed after the third reading to decide definitively.

X. The King shall refuse his sanction to decrees, whose preamble shall not attest the observance of the above forms; if any of those decrees be sanctioned, the ministers shall neither put to it the seal, nor promulgate it, and their responsibility in this respect shall continue six years:

XI. Excepting from those regulations, decrees recognised, and declared urgent by a previous deliberation of the Legislative Body; but they may be modified, or revoked, in the course of the same session.

SECTION III.

OF THE ROYAL SANCTION.

I. The Decrees of the Legislative Body are presented to the King, who may refuse them his assent.

II. In the case of a refusal of the Royal Assent, that refusal is only suspensive. When the two following Legislatures shall successively present the same decree in the same terms in which it was originally conceived, the King shall be deemed to have given his sanction.

III. The assent of the King is expressed to each decree, by the following formula, signed by the King; *The King consents; and will cause it to be executed:*

The suspensive refusal is thus expressed: *The King will examine.*

IV. The King is bound to express his assent or refusal to each decree within two months after it shall have been presented; after that period, his silence shall be deemed a refusal.

V. No Decree to which the King has refused his assent can be presented to him by the same Legislature.

VI. The Legislative Body cannot insert in Decrees relative to the establishment or continuation of Imposts, any regulation foreign to that subject, nor present, at the

same time, for sanction, other Decrees as inseparable.

VII. The Decree sanctioned by the King, and those which have been presented to him by three successive Legislatures alone have the force, and bear the name and title of Laws.

VIII. Excepting however from sanction those acts of the Legislative Body, which relate to its Constitution, as a deliberating Assembly;

Its interior Police:

The verification of the powers of the members present:

The injunctions to absent members:

The Convocation of the Primary Assemblies in case of delay:

The exercise of Constitutional Superintendance over the Administration:

Questions of eligibility or the validity of elections:

Excepting likewise from sanction, acts relative to the responsibility of Ministers; and all Decrees importing that there is ground of accusation.

SECTION IV.

CONNECTION OF THE LEGISLATIVE BODY WITH THE KING.

I. When the Legislative Body is definitively constituted, it shall send a Deputation to inform the King. The King may every year open the Session, and propose the objects, which, during its continuance, he thinks ought to be taken into consideration; this form, however, is not to be considered as necessary to the activity of the Legislative Body.

II. When the Legislative Body wishes to adjourn longer than fifteen days, it is bound to inform the King, by a Deputation, at least eight days previous to the adjournment.

III. Eight days, at least, before the end of each Session, the Legislative Body shall send a Deputation to the King, to announce to him the day on which it proposes to terminate its sitting: the King may come in order to close the Session.

IV. If the King finds it of importance to the welfare of the State, that the Session be continued, or that the adjournment be put off, or take place only for a shorter time, he may send a message to this effect, on which the Legislative Body is bound to deliberate.

V. The King shall convoke the Legislative Body during the interval of its Session, as often as the interest of the State shall appear to him to require it, as well as in those cases which the Legislative Body shall have foreseen and determined previous to their adjournment.

VI. Writings

VI. Whenever the King shall visit the place of meeting of the Legislative Body, he shall be received, and conducted back by a Deputation; he cannot be accompanied into the inner part of the Hall by any except Ministers.

VII. The President can in no case form part of a deputation.

VIII. The Legislative Body shall cease to be a Deliberating Body, whilst the King shall be present.

IX. The acts of correspondence of the King with the Legislative Body, shall be always countersigned by a Minister.

X. The Ministers of the King shall have admission into the Legislative National Assembly—they shall have a particular place; they shall be heard on all the subjects on which they demand a hearing, and as often as they shall be called upon to give explanations.

CHAPTER IV.

OF THE EXERCISE OF THE EXECUTIVE POWER.

I. The Supreme Executive power resides exclusively in the hands of the King :

The King is the Supreme Head of the general administration of the kingdom; the care of watching over the maintenance of public order and tranquility is entrusted to him :

The King is the Supreme Head of the land and sea forces :

To the King is delegated the care of watching over the exterior security of the kingdom, and of maintaining its rights and possessions.

II. The King names Ambassadors, and the other Agents of the Political Negotiations;

He bestows the command of armies and fleets, and the ranks of Marshal of France and Admirals ;

He names two thirds of the Rear-admirals, one-half of the Lieutenant-generals, Com-ma-rdants, Captains of ships, and Colonels of the National Gendarmic ;

He names a third of the Colonels and Lieutenant-colonels, and a sixth of the Lieutenants of Ships :

The whole in conformity to the laws with respect to promotion.

He appoints in the Civil Administration of the Marine, the Directors, the Comptrollers, the Treasurers of the Arsenal, the Masters of Works, the Under-masters of Civil Buildings, half of the Masters of Administration, and of the Under-masters of Construction ;

He appoints the Commissaries of the Tribunals ;

He appoints the Commissioners of the National Treasury, and the Superintendants

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in the chief of the management of contributions indirect ;

He superintends the coinage of money, and appoints the officers entrusted with this superintendance in the general commission and the mints ;

The effigy of the king is struck on all the coinage of the kingdom.

III. The King orders letters patent, brevets, and commissions to be delivered to all the public officers that ought to receive them.

IV. The King orders a list of pensions and gratifications to be made out, for the purpose of being presented to the Legislative Body each Session.

SECTION I.

OF THE PROMULGATION OF LAWS.

I. The executive power is entrusted with ordering the Seal of State to be put to Laws, and causing them to be promulgated.

II. Two copies of each law shall be made, both signed by the King, countersigned by the Minister of Justice, and sealed with the Seal of State ;

The one shall be deposited in the archives of the Seal, and the other shall be sent to the archives of the Legislative Body.

III. The promulgation of Laws shall be in these terms :

“ N, (the King's name) by the grace of God, and the constitutional law of the State, King of the French, to all present and to come, greeting. The National Assembly has decreed, and we will and ordain as follows :

[Here a literal copy of the Decree shall be inserted without any variation.]

“ We command and ordain to all Administrative Bodies and Courts of justice, to cause these presents to be transcribed on their registers, read, published, and posted up in their Departments and respective places of resort, and executed as a law of the realm ; in witness of which we have signed these presents, to which we have caused the Seal of the State to be put.”

IV. If the King is a minor, laws, proclamations, and other acts proceeding from the Royal authority during the Regency, shall be conceived in these terms :

“ N, (the name of the Regent) Regent of the kingdom, in the name of N, (the King's name) by the grace of God, and the constitutional law of the State, King of the French,” &c.

V. The Executive power is bound to send the laws to the Administrative bodies and Courts of Justice, to see that they are sent, and to answer for it to the Legislative Body.

VI. The Executive Power cannot make any

any law, not even provisional, but merely proclamations, conformable to the laws, to ordain or enforce the execution.

SECTION II.

OF THE INTERIOR ADMINISTRATION.

I. There is in each department a superior Administration, and in each district a subordinate Administration.

II. The Administrators have no character of representation;

They are agents chosen for a time by the people, to exercise, under their superintendance and the authority of the law, the administrative functions.

III. They can assume no authority over judicial proceedings, or over military dispositions and operations.

IV. It belongs to the Legislative Power to determine the extent and the rules of their functions.

V. The King has the right of annulling such acts of the Administrators of department, as are contrary to the law, or the orders transmitted to them:

He may, in case of obstinate disobedience, or of their endangering, by their acts, the safety or peace of the public, suspend them from their functions.

VI. The Administrators of Department have also the right of annulling the acts of Sub-Administrators of District, contrary to the laws or decrees of Administrators of Department, or to the orders which the latter shall have given or transmitted.—They may likewise, in case of an obstinate disobedience on the part of the Sub-Administrators, or if the latter endanger, by their acts, the public safety or tranquillity, suspend them from their functions, with the reserve of informing the King, who may remove or confirm the suspension.

VII. The King, if the administrators of department shall not use the power which is delegated to them in the article above, may directly annul the acts of Sub-Administrators, and suspend them in the same cases.

VIII. Whenever the King shall pronounce or confirm the suspension of Administrators, he shall inform the Legislative Body:

This Body may either remove or confirm the suspension, or even dissolve the culpable Administration; and, if there is ground, remit all the Administrators, or some of them to the criminal tribunals, or enforce against them the decree of accusation.

SECTION III.

OF EXTERIOR CONNECTIONS.

I. The King alone can interfere in foreign political connections, conduct negotiations, make preparations of war propor-

tioned to those of the neighbouring States, distribute the land and sea forces as he shall judge most suitable, and regulate their direction in case of war.

II. Every declaration of war shall be made in these terms: *By the King of the French in the name of the nation.*

III. It belongs to the King to resolve and sign with all foreign powers all treaties of peace, alliance, and commerce, and other conventions, which he shall judge necessary for the welfare of the State, with a reserve for the ratification of the Legislative Body.

CHAPTER V.

OF THE JUDICIAL POWER.

I. The Judicial Power can in no case be exercised either by the Legislative Body or the King.

II. Justice shall be gratuitously rendered by Judges chosen for a time by the people, instituted by letters patent of the King, and who cannot be deposed, except from a forfeiture duly judged, or suspended, except from an accusation admitted.

III. The Tribunals cannot either interfere in the exercise of the Legislative Power, or suspend the execution of the laws, or undertake the administrative functions, or cite before them the administrators on account of their functions.

IV. No citizen can be withdrawn from the Judges whom the law assigns to them by any commission, or by any other attributions or evocations than those which are determined by the laws.

V. The orders issued for executing the judgments of the Tribunals shall be conceived in these terms:

“ N, (the name of the King) by the Grace of God and by the constitutional law of the State, King of the French, to all present and to come, greeting: the Tribunal of _____ has passed the following judgment:

[Here shall follow a copy of the judgment.]

“ We charge and enjoin all officers upon the present demand, to put the same judgment into execution, to our Commissioners of the Tribunals to enforce the same, and to all the Commanders and Officers of the public force to be assisting with their force, when it shall be legally required, in witness of which, the present judgment has been sealed and signed by the President of the Tribunal, and by the Register.”

VI. There shall be one or more Judges of Peace in the Cantons and in the Cities. The number shall be determined by the Legislative power.

VII. It belongs to the Legislative Power to regulate the districts of Tribunals, and the number of Judges of which each Tribunal is all be composed.

VIII. In criminal matters, no citizen can be judged, except on an accusation received by Jurors, or decreed by the Legislative Body in the cases in which it belongs to it to prosecute the accusation :

After the accusation shall be admitted, the fact shall be examined, and declared by the Jurors :

The accuser shall have the privilege of refusing twenty :

The Jurors who declare the fact shall not be fewer than twelve :

The application of the law shall be made by all the Judges :

The process shall be public :

No man acquitted by a legal Jury can be apprehended or accused on account of the same fact.

IX. For the whole kingdom there shall be one tribunal of appeal, established near the Legislative Body. Its functions shall be to pronounce,

On appeals from the judgments of the tribunals ;

On appeals from the judgment of one tribunal to another on lawful cause of suspension ;

On the regulations of Judges, and exceptions to a whole tribunal.

X. The tribunal of appeal can never enter into an original examination of a case, but after annulling a judgment in a process, in which the forms have been violated, or shall contain an express contravention of law, it shall refer the merits of the case to the tribunal that ought to take cognizance of them.

XI. When, after two appeals, the judgment of the third tribunal shall be questioned in the same way as that of the former two, the case shall not be carried again to the tribunal of appeal, without being first submitted to the Legislative Body, which shall pass a decree declaratory of the law, to which the tribunal of appeal shall be bound to conform.

XII. The tribunal of appeal shall be bound to send every year to the bar of the Legislative Body, a deputation of eight of its members, to present a statement of the judgments given, with an abstract of the case annexed to each, and the text of the law, which was the ground of the decision.

XIII. A High National Court, composed of Members of the Tribunal of Appeal and High Jurors, shall take cognizance of the crimes of Ministers, and the principal Agents of the Executive Power, and of crimes which attack the general safety of the State, when the Legislative Body shall pass a decree of accusation :

It shall not assemble but on the proclamation of the Legislative Body.

XIV. The functions of the King's Commissioners in the Tribunals, shall be to require the observance of the law in the judgments to be given, and to cause them to be executed after they are passed :

They shall not be public accusers ; but they shall be heard on all accusations, and shall require, during process, regularity of forms, and before judgment the application of the law.

XV. The King's Commissioners in the Tribunals shall represent to the Director of the Jury, either officially or according to orders given them by the King,

Offences against the individual liberty of citizens, against the free circulation of provisions, and the collection of contributions ;

Offences by which the execution of orders given by the King, in the exercise of the functions delegated to him, shall be disturbed or impeded ; and opposition to the execution of judgments, and all executive acts proceeding from established powers.

XVI. The Minister of Justice shall represent to the Tribunal of Appeal, by means of the King's Commissioner, the acts by which the Judges have exceeded their jurisdiction :

The Tribunal shall annul these acts, and if they give ground for forfeiture, the fact shall be represented to the Legislative Body, which shall pass the decree of accusation, and refer the parties informed against to the High National Court.

HEAD IV.

OF THE PUBLIC FORCE.

I. The Public Force is instituted to defend the State against external enemies ; and to maintain internal order and the execution of the laws.

II. It is composed of the Land and Sea force ; of the troops specially destined for home service ; and, subsidiarily of the active citizens and their children of age to bear arms, registered in the roll of National Guards.

III. The National Guards do not form a military body, or an institution in the State ; they are the citizens themselves called to assist the public force.

IV. The citizens can never embody themselves, or act as national Guards, but by virtue of a requisition, or a legal authority :

They are subject in this quality to an organization, to be determined by the law :

They shall be distinguished in the whole kingdom by only one form of discipline, and one uniform.

V. Distinctions of rank and subordination subsist only relative to the service, and during its continuance.

VI. Officers are chosen for a time, and cannot again be chosen, till after a certain interval of service :

None shall command the National Guard of more than one district.

VII. All the parts of the public force employed for the safety of the State from foreign enemies, are under the command of the King.

VIII. No body or detachment of troops of the line can act in the internal parts of the kingdom without a legal order.

IX. No agent of the public force can be in the house of a citizen, if it is not in order to execute the instructions of Police and of Justice, or in cases formerly provided for by the Law.

X. The requisition of the public force in the internal part of the kingdom belongs to the civil officers, according to the regulations provided by the Legislative Power.

XI. When any department is in a state of commotion, the King shall issue, subject to the responsibility of Ministers, the necessary orders for the execution of laws, and the re-establishment of order; but with the reserve of informing the Legislative Body, if it is assembled, and of convoking it if it be not sitting.

XII. The public force is essentially obedient; no person in arms can deliberate.

HEAD V.

OF PUBLIC CONTRIBUTIONS.

I. Public Contributions shall be debated and fixed every year by the Legislative Body, and cannot continue in force longer than the last day of the following Session, if they are not expressly renewed.

II. The funds necessary to the discharge of the national debt, and the payment of the civil list, can under no pretext be refused or suspended.

III. The Administrators of Department, and Sub-administrators, can neither establish any Public Contribution, nor make any distribution beyond the time and the sums fixed by the Legislative Body, nor deliberate, or permit, without being authorized by it, any local loan to be charged to the citizens of the department.

IV. The Executive Power directs and superintends the collection and paying in of Contributions, and gives the necessary orders to this effect.

HEAD VI.

OF THE CONNECTION OF THE FRENCH NATION WITH FOREIGN NATIONS.

The French nation renounces the undertaking of any war with a view of making conquests, and will never employ its forces against the liberty of any people.

The Constitution no longer admits the *Droit d'Aubaine*.

Foreigners, whether settled in France or not, inherit the property of their parents whether foreigners or Frenchmen. They can contract, acquire, and receive property situated in France, and dispose of it, as well as any French citizen, in every mode authorized by the laws.

Foreigners in France are subject to the same criminal laws and regulations of police as French citizens: their persons, effects, industry, and religion, are equally protected by the law.

French colonies and possessions in Asia, Africa, and America, are not included in the present Constitution.

None of the Powers instituted by the Constitution have a right to change it in its form, or in its parts.

The Constituting National Assembly commits the deposit to the fidelity of the Legislative Body, of the King, and of the Judges, to the vigilance of fathers of families, to wives and to mothers, to the attachment of young citizens, to the courage of all Frenchmen.

With respect to the laws made by the National Assembly, which are not included in the act of Constitution, and those anterior laws which it has not altered, they shall be observed, so long as they shall not be revoked or modified by the Legislative Power.

Signed, the Members of the Committees of Constitution and Revision.

TARGET,
BRIOIS-BAUMEZ,
THOURET,
ADRIEN DU-PORT,
BARNAVE,
LE CHAPELIER,
ALEXANDER LAMETH,
TALLYRAND,
PERIGORD,
DEMEUNIER,
RABAUT,
EMMANUEL SIEYES,
PETHION,
BUZOT,

Note—M. STANISLAUS CLERMONT-TONNERRE absent by permission.

SPAIN.

STATE PAPER.

ADDRESSED TO ALL VICEROYS, GOVERNORS, &c.

ART. I. On the receipt of the Royal Rescript, which accompanies the present instruction, the means of putting it into execution shall be forthwith adopted, without any delay or excuse whatever. In cities where there are courts of justice or courts of chancery, and where, of consequence, the various quarters thereof are superintended and governed by particular Alcades (Judges and Governors); the criminal Alcades

cases shall verify, whether in the registered or matriculated lists, which it is their duty to make out, all strangers residing in the districts have been noticed, as well as their families, their names, their country, their religion, their employment, their destination, and the reason of their sojourning. There shall also be expressed, whether they have declared their unwillingness to continue to reside there domiciliated and subjects of his Majesty, or simply as travellers. In cases where these informations have not been taken, they shall be immediately ascertained.

Art. II. In cities where there are Alcaldes of Districts, but without a tribunal, the Corregidor, or chief Magistrate, shall, with the assistants of the Alcaldes, take the same information.

Art. III. In the other cities, towns, and villages of the kingdom, the Corregidores and Justices of the Peace shall take the same informations, availing themselves of the assistance of the notaries, the Alguazils (Sergeants or Bailiffs) and other confidential persons, in order to ascertain the number of the domiciliated.

Art. IV. These measures have been put in execution, foreigners of both sexes, who shall not be matriculated, shall formally declare whether or not they intend to remain domiciliated and subjects of his Majesty; and they shall sign their declarations.

Art. V. Foreigners who are alrpady, or willing to be domiciliated, must be Catholics, and take the following oath before the Tribunals:

"I swear to observe the Catholic Religion, to be faithful to it as well as to the King, whose subject I am, in submitting to the laws and customs of this kingdom; renouncing every right and privilege of foreigner, and every relation to, and union with, or dependence on the country in which I was born.—I promise not to avail myself of its protection, nor that of its Ambassadors, Ministers, or Consuls, under pain of the galleys, imprisonment, or expulsion from his Majesty's dominions, and confiscation of my property according to my transgression and quality."

The above oath being made and signed, shall be deposited in the archives of the Tribunal, to have recourse thereto in case of need.

Art. VI. Notice shall be given to those who shall declare themselves travellers, that they cannot exercise any liberal art or mechanic profession without being domiciliated.

Consequently foreigners can neither be physicians, surgeons, nor architects, unless they have an express licence from his Majesty.—Neither can they be mechanics *a la Ferro* (to sell by the ell or yard) nor retailers of any merchandise; nor peruke-makers or hair-dressers, nor haberdashers, tailors, shoemakers, nor even domestics.

Art. VII. Fifteen days shall be given to foreigners included in the preceding article, to quit Madrid, and two months to go out of the kingdom; or within the said term, they shall be compelled to become domiciliated, and take the oath required, submitting themselves to the pains and punishments already pronounced.—Those who wish to be regarded as foreigners, can neither appear nor remain at Madrid, without having obtained permission from the Office of the Principal Secretary of State.

Art. VIII. With regard to foreigners coming into the kingdom, his Majesty, desirous of maintaining the treaties which subsist with foreign Powers with respect to the commerce of their respective subjects in his kingdom, the permissions and passports by virtue of which these merchants enter the ports and commercial towns shall be examined; and they shall be prevented from coming any other way than that which shall be pointed out to them, except by express Royal permission.

The Vice-Roys, Captains-General, and Governors of the Frontiers, are in this respect, to specify in the passports of strangers, whether they are come to seek refuge, asylum, or hospitality; and point out the roads which they are to take in the interior parts of the kingdom, after they have sworn, provisionally, obedience and submission to the laws of the country.

Art. IX. In cities where there are manufactures established by order and for the account of his Majesty,—and in the other manufactures where there are overseers of workmen who do not profess the Catholic Religion, particular lists shall be made of these manufactures, containing details of the date and duration of their undertakings. These lists shall be remitted to the President of the Council of Castile, that the said workmen may be afterwards informed what they have to do;—but in the mean time, they shall not be molested.

Art. X. In the dispositions and principles determined by the Royal Edict, the Justices shall take care to include all strangers, and even those who are employed in the King's military household, and also those in civil employments.

Art. XI. The ceremony of matriculation, of the declaration, and of the oaths of strangers who are, or wish to be domiciliated, being perished, an account thereof shall be immediately

immediately given to the Tribonals, who shall transmit them to the Council, even before the lists may be complete.

ENGLAND.

STATE PAPER

DELIVERED BY THE MINISTERS OF LONDON AND BERLIN, TO COUNT OSTERMANN THE RUSSIAN MINISTER.

THE underwritten Ministers Plenipotentiaries of England and Prussia, presuming to infer, from the answer made by order of her Russian Majesty to the Representatives of the Courts of London and Berlin, on the 25th ult. that her Majesty is inclined to permit her Ministry to open a negotiation concerning the principles proposed in said representation, with respect to a defensive demarcation of the frontiers, both in favour of the Russian empire and the Porte, have determined to represent to the Court of Petersburg every thing relative to this object, as far as their instructions will allow, to concentrate it in one point of view, and to bring it under the eye of her Majesty without any ambiguity. They do not doubt but her Majesty will look upon their ardour, and this liberty, so little compatible with the common course of negotiating, as an unquestionable proof of the sincere desire of their Masters, in order to make their good offices and friendly intervention tend to a pacification, altogether speedy and advantageous to the Belligerent Powers.

The aforesaid Ministers, in consequence of the overture made by his Catholic Majesty and the Court of Denmark, and which does not seem to be rejected, or even disapproved by the Court of Russia, and pursuant to the proposition of inconveniencies, arising from an immediate contiguity of the frontiers, which is found in the above answers, are apt to think; that her Majesty may be prevailed upon to give her consent to it, in order to conclude the peace, on condition that the District of Oczakow, between the river Bog and as far as the river Niester, shall be declared neuter, and independent of either Power. This condition being exactly and faithfully observed by the contracting parties, will perhaps attain the end much better than any thing else, and procure the advantage of a reciprocal defensive demarcation of the frontiers; and two large rivers, besides an untilled waste tract of land of more than 200 *wossts*, which must first be got over before the troops of either of the Powers can come into each other's dominions, would at least free both states from all surpris; and the

eastern shores of the river Bog, fortified by the Russians, and the western ones of the river Niester by the Turks, would, with respect to this important business, answer the most sanguine expectations.

This is now the first point of an accommodation, which said Ministers, with consent of her Russian Majesty, will take upon them to propose to the Turks, as a basis of peace.

The second proposal in question would have a relation to the cession of Oczakow, and its immediate territory, with all sovereignty, with all privileges attached to it, whatsoever, and without any distinction, to Russia, leaving, however, to the Turks, on the east shore of the river Niester, a space more or less extended in measure, as, with more or less difficulty, one or other natural demarcation capable of being determined and fixed upon; such as, for instance, the sea Teli Gii, or any other, which then ought to be agreed upon, might be found out and well understood; however, that it ought to be at a sufficient distance for securing to the Turks the free navigation of the Niester. Nay, an engagement might even be made to persuade the Turks to grant the neutrality of that part of the ceded district which was to be met with between the new demarcation of the frontiers of Russia and this river.

The Allied Courts do not think they will be able to persuade the Porte to the conclusion of peace, if they leave Oczakow all fortified in the hands of Russia, unless this sacrifice, so dangerous for the Porte, would be compensated by the safety of both shores of the River Niester. And the above Ministers satter themselves, that her Imperial Majesty will have no objection to it.

If, nevertheless, her Imperial Majesty should have any objection to accede to these proposals, the above Ministers offer, as the last means, to propose to the Turks to make a cession to Russia of the District of Oczakow, from the Bog as far as the Niester, in full property and sovereignty, as a price for the peace, on condition that her Imperial Majesty will authorize them to give such assurances to the Porte, as will be able to quiet the minds of her subjects, to prevent her apprehensions, and to make her easy with respect to the consequences of such a division of her empire, by causing the Courts of London and Berlin to be responsible that her Majesty will level the fortresses of Oczakow, and not rebuild it; that she is to erect no other fortresses in that district, and that she will let the navigation of the Niester remain in perfect freedom.

The Courts of London and Berlin think they can propose to the Porte nothing but these conditions; but they desire her Imperial Majesty to choose out of these several

means of pacification, which are equitable, moderate and just.—They are now convinced her Majesty will doubtless find, that they have had the greatest consideration for her person, and the utmost attention to preserve the dignity of her Crown, the honour and glory of her Empire, and the interest of her subjects.

They freely submit to the judgment that all Europe shall pass on their candid intentions of re-establishing Peace and general tranquillity, on their impartiality and perfect disinterestedness, which are very evident in the steps they have taken.

As to the form of the business which remains to be settled, the above Ministers will readily comply with every thing her Majesty shall think proper relative thereto, provided the safety of the engagements for which they must hold themselves responsible to the Porte is preserved.

If it is true that the regular conferences are not opened till this day, it is no less true, that the Ministers of her Imperial Majesty, by familiar interviews and other means, were informed before about the proposals of peace which were about to be made.

It is thus to be presumed, that the resolution of her Majesty is greatly advanced, if not taken already, concerning this important business, and her final determination is expected with impatience at the Courts of London and Berlin.

The friendship and consideration her Majesty has for the Kings of England and Prussia, her great anxiety for the tranquillity of Europe; her affection for her subjects; her desire of restoring peace to them, and of avoiding the further effusion of human blood, pledge to the underwritten Ministers that they will soon be informed of her resolution, and that it will be favourable; the more so, as, conforming in every thing, her Majesty seems to demand only some other small compensations, which are fit to her known goodness and generosity,

CHARLES WHITWORTH.

WILLIAM FAWCENER.

COUNT GOLZ.

PETERSBURG, June 29.

ANSWER OF RUSSIA TO THE ABOVE NOTE.

The second Memorial delivered on the 29th of June by the Ministers Plenipotentiary of England and Prussia, being presented to her Imperial Majesty, her Ministry have received her Majesty's orders, and are now able to continue the amicable negotiations which are the object of said Memorial.

In the first place, her Majesty feels the greatest pleasure in expressing the satisfaction

she feels at the free and open turn the Ministers of their Majesties the Kings of Great Britain and Prussia have given to their negotiations, and the sincere desire of their Ministers to accelerate the desirable work of pacification between Russia and the Porte. An intention of this kind coincides so much with the wishes of her Imperial Majesty, that it will be promoted on her part to the extent for reasonable an intention demands; but if the supporting for such a considerable time the burden of the war, to which she has been provoked by the unjust attack of the Turks, has a greater influence than any other consideration, in bringing it to an end, she no less thinks herself entitled to determine, in her wisdom and moderation, the means and ways, in order to secure to her subjects, if not indemnifications proportionable to their claims, at least a certain and uninterrupted rest.

The claims her Imperial Majesty has set up in consequence of this, and which she has caused to be published at the Courts of London and Berlin, and those of all Europe, preface in reality only this harmless and equitable object.

All the neutral powers cannot but behold them in this light—and if there should be any, who have proposed modification on those claims, without either any deliberation with the Court of Russia, or its assent, this can only be through considerations, which did not proceed from the claims being inconsistent with strict justice and public interest, but merely from an apprehension of extending any further the troubles of war.

Such were doubtless the motives for the overtures made by the Court of Copenhagen to those of London and Berlin, but of which the Court of Russia was never officially informed, nor did it authorise the same to hold out the sacrifices which the said Court proposed.

But as the apprehensions seemed to be removed, by means of the friendly explanations, for which the two last mentioned Courts have laid the foundation, the Empress is so sure of the unanimous assent of all the powers to her proposals, that her Imperial Majesty finds herself necessitated, from very powerful motives relating to the management and the tranquillity of her own dominions, as well as those of all Europe in general, 'not in the least to shrink from the moderate and disinterested conditions she has hitherto proposed.' And—

Whereas three bases for a pacification, represented in the above Memorial of the 29th of June, are not all of equal importance, and the letter being the only one that in some measure approaches the known intention of her Imperial Majesty, we shall fix our attention only on it, and make our observations accordingly.

Answer of Russia.

The Allied Courts offer, as the last is, to propose to the Turks to make a treaty to Russia of the District of Oczakow from the Bog as far as the Dniester, all property and sovereignty, as a price for peace; on condition that her Imperial Majesty will authorise them to give such advances to the Porte, as will be able to reach the minds of her subjects, to prevent apprehensions, and to make her easy respect to the consequences of such a loss of her empire, by enabling the Courts of London and Berlin to be responsible that her Majesty will level the fortresses of Oczakow, and not rebuild it; that she erect no other fortresses in that district, but that she will let the navigation of the river remain in perfect freedom." Be that a clause of this kind contains an incompatibility with the principles of perfect sovereignty, according to what the two above Courts consent to note with the Porte for the cession of country in question, it does not answer the principles of perfect equality or reciprocal safety, which ought to be an indissoluble basis of this negotiation: for her Majesty is thereby to leave to the Turks a liberty of preserving along their shores, all their former fortresses, to repair, and to erect new ones, according to good pleasure.

Moreover, such a clause would destroy the chief object that is expected in this acquisition, and which consists in obtaining for Russia a safe and distinct frontier, and which necessity is felt by her Imperial Majesty so much the more, as the present war, as well as the preceding one, begun by the Turks. Besides, the erection of fortresses in general does not imply any design of attacking; this only betokens measures of precaution and defence, which will for this reason create no just fear of offensiveness; on the contrary, the more frontiers are separated by a demarcation, such as the fortresses of the Dniester, are fortified on either side, the more respective safety there will be for the preservation of a good harmony in the neighbourhood between the adjoining

Several other motives might be alledged, arising from the situation of the country, and the character of the neighbouring nations, which all concur in not suffering any advantage to be made which at the same time militate against the intention of the Allies and that of the mediating powers. In order to shew to them, in a visible manner, as much compliance as is consistent with the interests, her Majesty does not intend to give them the most solemn assurances, that not only she will not impede the navigation of the Dniester, but that,

on the contrary, she will favour it with her protection.

She is the more willing to do so, as during her reign she has laid it down as a constant rule, to encourage, by all possible means, the trade and navigation of all peaceable nations. However, her Majesty hopes, that these powers will be pleased to take upon themselves to make the Porte agree, in this respect, to the same rule, and to the same principles.

And in general, though her Majesty has no notion whether the Allied Courts are authorised by the Porte in a special manner to act, and make proposals in her name, she, however, is apt to guess, from their unremitting care and pains for establishing peace, that their intervention and remonstrances will have all the energy they deserve; on which account she flatters herself they will employ all their credit and influence at the Porte, in communicating to her the conviction of the equity and candour of the Empress's sentiments, which certainly neither aims at the destruction of the Ottoman Porte, nor the subversion of the general balance, but which, on the contrary, displays the most sincere desire of a general pacification, and putting a stop to a further effusion of human blood.

Nevertheless, if, contrary to all expectations, and in spite of the moderation and equity of the claims of the Empress, and in spite of the care of their Majesties the Kings of Great Britain and Prussia, in giving them a proper weight with the Porte, she should persevere in her unwarrantable obstinacy—in this case, her Imperial Majesty expects, from the equity and friendship of these sovereigns, that they will leave the care of finishing this war to the mere chance of events which it will bring on.

She thinks she has a right to expect this compliance on their part, the more, as her Majesty (far from having a mind to conceal, that the mitigations which she had made, in these preliminaries of peace, are mostly to be ascribed to that which she has the satisfaction to shew them on her part) shall on every occasion display the value she sets on the preservation of their friendship, and the desire she is inspired with to continue, without any alteration, the best harmony, and the most perfect good understanding.

Petersburgh, July 26, 1791.

The following letter was sent from Mr Burgess, one of the Under Secretaries of State, to Mr Taylor, of Lloyd's Coffee-house, for the information of the Under-writers:

SIR,

A letter has, this day, been written by
Lord

Lord Grenville, to the Governor of the Russian Company, to inform him, that from the accounts brought by Mr Lindfay, who arrived this morning, of the result of the negotiations at Petersburg, his Majesty's servants are of opinion, that there no longer exists any reason why the Russian merchants should not proceed in the usual course of their commerce, without any apprehension of interruption.

I am, Sir,

Your very obedient servant,
(Signed) J. B. BURGESS.

Whitehall, 14th August 1791.

35 m. past 6, P. M.

FROM THE LONDON GAZETTE.

WHITEHALL, Aug. 16.

Ministerial Notes have been delivered at St Petersburg by Mr Whitworth and Mr Fawkener and Count Goltze, on the part of his Majesty and of the King of Prussia, and by Count Ollerman, on the part of the Emperor of Russia, relative to the terms of pacification between Russia and the Porte.

In these Notes, the Ministers of his Majesty and the King of Prussia agree, on the part of their respective Sovereigns, that their Majesties will propose to the Porte to conclude a peace with Russia on the terms of the cession of the district of Ockzakow, from the Bog to the Dniester; her Imperial Majesty engaging not to disturb the free navigation of the latter river, but to favour and protect it; (to which condition the Porte is to be equally and reciprocally bound:— And her Imperial Majesty being also to restore to the Porte, at the conclusion of the peace, all other conquests whatever. The Minister of her Imperial Majesty agrees, on the part of his Sovereign, to make peace on these terms; and the Ministers of his Majesty and the King of Prussia agree, on the part of their respective Sovereigns, that, if the Porte should decline to enter into negotiation on this basis, their Majesties will leave the termination of the war to the course of those events to which it may lead.

The Court of Prussia will be extraordinarily splendid in the month of October. At a grand dinner, given lately at Monbijou, the Queen, after announcing the intended nuptials of the Duke of York and the Princess Frederica, gave notice, that, at the same time, would be celebrated the marriage of the Hereditary Prince of Orange with the second Princess of Prussia; and that of the Hereditary Prince of Dessau, with the daughter of Prince Ferdinand.

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EXTRAORDINARY SUICIDE.

AUGUST 17.

A little before one o'clock, as his Majesty was passing in his carriage through the Park to St James's, a Gentleman dressed in black, standing in the Green Park, close to the rails, within a few yards of Mr Copley's pavilion, just as the carriage came opposite where he stood, was observed to pull a paper hastily from his pocket, which he flung on the rails, addressed to the King, throw off his hat, discharge a pistol in his own bosom, and instantly fall. Though surrounded with people, collected to see the King pass, the rash act was so suddenly perpetrated, that no one suspected his fatal purpose till he had accomplished it. He expired immediately. In his left hand was a letter, addressed "To the Coroner who shall take an inquest on James Sutherland."

This unfortunate Gentleman was Judge Advocate at Minorca during the Government of General Murray, with whom he had a law-suit, which terminated in his favour. The General, however, got him subpoenaed and recalled home. This, and the failure of some application to Government, had greatly deranged his mind. He was very genteelly dressed, but had only two pence and some letters in his pockets; the letters were carried to the Secretary of State's Office. The body was conveyed to St Martin's Bone house.

In the letter addressed to the Coroner, a copy of the following letter was inclosed:

"TO THE KING.

"SIR,

"In the moment that my heart's blood is leaving it, I express my sorrow, that you have allowed yourself to be imposed upon, and that you should still persist in retaining such prejudices against me. With spirited and dutiful appeals, and humiliating supplications, I have addressed you and your Ministers. Allegiance and protection are constitutionally reciprocal; and as the former never was forsaken by me, I had a right to expect that you would afford the latter. The idea of a stake being driven through my body has not terror to make me wish that the act which I now perform should be considered in any other light but that of deliberate *resigning*.

"Instead of going abroad (the means of which were not left me), I have long intended to shoot myself. I did not merit degradation; my conscience told me I was entitled to honour, favour, and reward. I forgive General Murray, but cannot resist, even at this time, the wish I have to set your Majesty right with respect to myself. The subscription

joined extract will sufficiently explain to your Majesty my innocence. Parliament accepted the petition of General Murray, but repeatedly threw out mine; for the stern commands of prerogative were obliged to yield to the milder ones of influence.

“ Let me recommend, Sir, to you to collect the letters written by me to Mr Stephens of the Admiralty; you will there see the abuse of authority and irregularity of Gen. _____ I did not at that time know that none should reside in the island of Minorca but such as pleased the General. But I was willing to sacrifice every thing but justice and honour to keep him quiet. At his instance I filled up but one commission instead of two, for two privateers to cruise against the two fleets we were then at war with, by which I was some hundreds of pounds out of pocket.

“ I had long determined that my dissolution should take place in the same manner and on the same spot that I now fall. When my hard case shall be published, how will the world be shuddered to hear that humanity had deprived me of every resource but death.

“ Yet, in the midst of all my misfortunes, I subscribe myself your Majesty's loyal subject,

“ JAMES SUTHERLAND.

“ Written on the 13th, though dated the 17th of August, 1791, it being the day on which I intend to shoot myself in the Green Park, as the King passes to the Levee.”

Mr S. has left a wife, two daughters, and a son (a Lieutenant in the army). In his pocket, among other papers, was found a will, bequeathing all he did or might eventually possess, to his wife and daughters. As the deceased was a man of great probity, highly respected by all who knew him and against whom was never heard a syllable like an imputation of immorality, we hope the benignity of his present Majesty, and the willingness of the present Administration, to act liberally where liberality is due, will convince his family, that he had no real cause to despair of justice.

CHELMSFORD, August 5.

No affizes in the kingdom, I will venture to say, exceeded ours at this time. Donald Cameron, Esq. our worthy High Sheriff, made his procession on Monday into the county town, followed by sixteen carriages. Next day he was attended at dinner by about two hundred gentlemen, amongst whom were twelve East-India captains connected with him: Turtle, venison, and every other kind of the best sort were served up in abundance. The desert, consisting of ices, pine-apples, and other fruits of the season, was delicious; and the wines, which flowed

liberally, were of the choicest kinds—Madeira which had crossed the line twice, high-flavoured claret, &c. To see a branch of the ancient and respectable house of Lochiel established in this delightful country, was truly pleasing. An English gentleman sang “ Lochaber no more,” wonderfully well; and Mr Boswell, one of the counsel upon the circuit, who made one of this jovial company, gave the following toast, which was received with three times three cheers, and hearty acclamations: ‘ May there be a cordial, generous, and permanent union between the Highlands of Scotland and the ‘ Hundreds of Essex.’ Yesterday the same liberal hospitality was continued; and this day, when the affizes ended, the High Sheriff entertained a select party in the most agreeable manner.

Donald Cameron, Esq. the present High Sheriff of the county of Essex, is son of Archibald Cameron, of whom Mr Esdwell makes such honourable mention in his *Life of Dr Johnson*.

August 9.

Advices, which have been received this day, state, that the Russian General de Gudowitch has defeated a large body of Turks stationed near Anapa, and that he has even taken possession of the fortrefs, and made the garrison prisoners, which consisted of sixty thousand men. The magazines, and every thing else in the place, even the vessels in the port, have fallen into the hands of the conquerors. Some accounts state the number of the garrison at 14,000 men. Thus has this General completed the reduction of the Cuban, by seizing the only strong place of which the Ottoman forces were in possession.

WINDSOR, August 13.

The birth-day of his Royal Highness the Prince of Wales (which completed his twenty-ninth year), was celebrated here yesterday, with such marks of attention and respect, that while it bore a most honourable testimony to the loyal attachment of the people, afforded likewise a most pleasing proof of the concord subsisting between the branches of the Royal Family.

WORCESTER, August 11.

TRIAL OF THE BIRMINGHAM RIOTERS.

On Monday last the Affizes began here, before the Right Hon. Baron Eyre, and the Hon. Justice Heath; of which we have been favoured with the following account:

BARON EYRE'S CHARGE TO THE JURY.

“ About twelve o'clock, Baron Eyre, with Mr Justice Heath, entered the Court, and after swearing the Juries for the county and city

city of Worcester, opened the business by a most excellent charge. His Lordship apologized for having occasion to trouble the gentlemen of the county, which he should not have done, had not the late unfortunate riots in Birmingham rendered it necessary to say something respecting that dreadful event. He commented on several acts of Parliament, made for the preservation of the public peace and unity; and showed in what the late disturbances differed from the crime of high treason. He recommended to the Magistrates by all means in their power to suppress riotous proceedings on their first appearance, by venturing their persons; in procuring the means which the law authorizes for the defence of the respectable and orderly part of the inhabitants, by putting arms in the hands of responsible persons for their protection, and for the suppression of tumults. His Lordship declared, that every Englishman was in duty bound, at the hazard of his safety, or even personal injury, to protect his neighbour. His Lordship reprobated the treasonable and inflammatory land-bill, which he called a *sedition, scandalous, and abominable libel*, that not only attacked the Church and King, but every part of the Legislative Body.

"His Lordship observed, however, that he thought much of the mischief was owing to the assembling of those who met to celebrate the French Revolution on the 14th of July." That rumour had said the author of that vile and treasonable publication, was a partizan of the Established Church; but that could scarce, he observed, be credited—for who could say what part the lower ranks of people would take?—To celebrate the French Revolution, whilst participating of the blessings of the British Constitution, a constitution that has stood the test of ages, was certainly indiscreet—Men of every description, however, continued his Lordship, were under the protection of the laws of the land; and no provocation could justify the burning of houses, or wanton enormities of any kind.—A multitude assembled, and tumults once begun, easily lead to rapine and mischief, and dreadful sacrifices must follow to atone for the injury to individuals, and as examples to deter the populace from future acts of violence and outrage."

[It is impossible to do justice to the Baron's fine appeal to the human feelings.]

His Lordship was particularly pointed on the impropriety of publishing any article to inflame or keep animosity alive between parties, and before he concluded, warmly recommended every kind and conciliating endeavour to eradicate the unfriendly remembrance of the late unhappy violence.

August 12.

Early yesterday morning, Baron Eyre was in Court, for the special purpose of trying the rioters.

Robert Cook, after a fair and long trial, was capitally convicted, for riotously assembling with divers others, and feloniously demolishing the house of William Ruffell, Esq. at Showell Green.

Mary Cox was tried on the same charge but was acquitted.

Thomas Coley, charged with the like offence against the house of Thomas Cramer, was also acquitted.

At the Warwick Assizes, Francis Field, John Green, Bartholomew Fisher, and Wm Hands, received sentence of death for being concerned and active in the Birmingham riots.

A very high compliment has lately been paid by the Empress of Russia to Mr Fox. The Empress, on the back of a letter, or on a slip of paper, wrote a note in French, with a pencil, from her country palace, and sent it to her Secretary of State, at Peterburgh, in which she desired him to write to Woronzow (her Envoy Extraordinary, and Minister Plenipotentiary here in England,) and bid him procure her a bust of *Karl Fox* in white marble, which she intended to have put up in her gallery between the busts of Demosthenes and Cicero, as a mark of her esteem for a man whose eloquence and wisdom had prevented a war between Great Britain and Russia, which must have proved ruinous to both countries. The Russian Secretary of State waited upon the Empress, and submitted it to her consideration, whether the best thing she could do, would not be to suffer him to retrace with a pen the words written by her Majesty, and transmit the original note to Count Woronzow, at London. Her Majesty gave her Secretary of State leave to act as he thought proper. The pencil-writing was in consequence retraced in red ink, and the Empress's original note transmitted to Count de Woronzow, who sent it to Mr Fox as soon as he received it, in whose hands it now remains. The expression in the note is peculiarly elegant.

SCOTLAND,

HADDINGTON, August 2.

The General Quarter Sessions having this day heard a complaint at the instance of the Treasurer to the Trustees of the Turnpike-Roads, against one of the Tollgatherers of this county, for imposing upon a gentleman from London, and another from Manchester, by refusing a ticket, which each of them had paid for and obtained at the last Turnpike-

bar,

bar, and making them pay toll a second time, contrary to the instructions granted by the Trustees, they unanimously found the defender guilty, and fined him in twenty shillings Sterling; granted warrant summarily to imprison the defender in the tolbooth of Haddington until payment; and resolved, that every tollgatherer who shall be convicted of imposition for the future, shall be excluded from bidding for any of the tolls of this county in time coming.

The estate of Hatton, in Mid-Lothian, belonging to the Earl of Lauderdale, was lately sold to the commissioners for managing the estate of Miss Scott of Scotstarvet for eighty thousand guineas!

EDINBURGH.

August 6.

PUGILISM.

On Saturday last a boxing match took place in this city between two professors of the science. The one, a native of this city, and the other a black.

It lasted about an hour, when it terminated in favour of the black, his antagonist being severely hurt in the face and other parts of his body, and having had some of his ribs broken.

This is the first regular battle that has taken place, it is believed, in Scotland.

The inhabitant of this place, however, claimed the victory, on account of foul play.

PRINCE OF WALES' BIRTH-DAY.

August 12.

Being the anniversary of the birth of his Royal Highness George Prince of Wales, Prince and Steward of Scotland, when he entered into the 30th year of his age, in the morning the flag was displayed from the Castle, at noon the music bells were set a ringing, and the same was likewise observed as a holiday at the banks and other public offices.

MARRIAGES.

July 27. Lieut. William Frazer, of the 42d Regiment, to Miss Eliza Robertson of Kelfo.

Aug. Mr Archibald Mc'Brair, merchant, Glasgow, to Miss Elizabeth Millar.

Abraham Leslie, Esq; of Finrasie, to Miss Jean Leslie, of Edinburgh.

Alexander Ewing, Esq; of Nether Balloch, to Miss Lindsay, of Glasgow.

Mr William Wilkie, merchant in Haddington, to Miss Elizabeth McQueen, of Preston-kirk.

The Hon. John Campbell, of Stonesfield, one of the Senators of the College of Justice,

to Miss Lloyd, of Berth, in the county of Denbigh.

Arthur Nicholson, Esq; younger of Lochend, Shetland, to Miss Mary Innes, of Aberdeen.

Robert Baird of Newbyth, Esq; to Miss Hearby Gavin of Langton.

Robert Bogle, Esq; of Jamaica, to Miss Margaret Bogle, of Glasgow.

Mr Thomas Manners, writer to the Signet, to Miss Juliana Hope, of Edinburgh.

Mr William Scott Moncrieff, merchant in Glasgow, to Miss Elizabeth Hogg, of Edinburgh.

Mr Allan Dalziel, merchant in London, to Miss Jane Denholm, of Gulythill.

William Pagan, Esq; of the island of Dominica, to Miss Katherine Hart, of Edinburgh.

BIRTHS.

July 30. Mrs Falconer of Woodcot, delivered of a son.

Aug. 1. Mrs Maclean of Lochbry, of a son.

Mrs Edwards, of a son.

3. Mrs Nicholson of Carnoch, of a son.

6. The Lady of Sir Henry Hay Macdougall, Baronet, of a daughter.

8. Mrs Blair of Blair, of a daughter.

10. Mrs McNeil of Barra, of a daughter.

12. Mrs Neil Ferguson, of a son.

22. Mrs Dundas of Arncliffe, of a daughter.

DEATHS.

July 29. Mr. Andrew Honeyman, fifth son to Patrick Honeyman, Esq;

Alexander Farquharson of Balfour, Esq;

Miss Sarah Irving, daughter of the late George Irving of Newton, Esq;

31. James Gordon, Esq; of Ardmacallie.

Aug. 3. Mrs Margaret Alexander, wife of Mr James Reid, surgeon in Peebles.

6. Robert Waddell, Esq; of Crawhall.

7. The Rev. James Wilson, Minister of Camrie, in the 97th year of his age.

14. Miss Jean Gordon of Cluny.

— Dr David Wilson of Peterhead.

15. John Campbell, Esq; of Acheslade.

— Mrs Christian Edmondstone of Cambuswallace.

18. Mrs Home Rigg of Morton.

19. Lieut. John Guthrie of the Engineers in the service of the East India Company.

20. Mrs Jean Mitchelson, wife of Mr George Cairncross, agent for the Church.

21. Mr John Wood, late merchant in Edinburgh.

23. Miss Elizabeth Elphinston, daughter of Alexander Elphinston, Esq; advocate.

— Mrs McIlwrath, wife of William McIlwrath, Esq;

25. Mrs Maxwell, widow of the late Alexander Maxwell, merchant in Edinburgh.

28. Mrs Glendonwyn of Glendonwyn.





LOCH LOMOND.

THE

Edinburgh Magazine;

OR

LITERARY MISCELLANY,

FOR SEPTEMBER 1791.

With a View of Loch Lomond from the South:

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		Thermom.		Barom.	Rain.	Weather.
		M.	N.			
August	31	50	57	29.525	0.08	Showers.
Sept.	1	45	55	29.825	—	Clear
	2	47	51	29.425	0.415	Rain
	3	44	62	29.1	0.24	Ditto
	4	52	63	29.5	0.48	Ditto
	5	48	53	29.6125	0.05	Showers
	6	50	62	29.495	—	Clear
	7	50	64	29.85	—	Ditto
	8	50	64	30.05	—	Ditto
	9	56	73	29.95	—	Ditto
	10	54	77	29.9	—	Ditto
	11	55	66	30.025	—	Ditto
	12	55	60	30.025	0.075	Thick
	13	55	63	30.025	—	Ditto
	14	55	77	30.05	—	Ditto
	15	52	71	30.075	—	Ditto
	16	53	65	30.	—	Ditto
	17	43	58	29.675	—	Ditto
	18	52	55	29.6	0.015	Small Showers
	19	40	53	29.95	—	Clear
	20	50	63	29.825	—	Ditto
	21	52	62	30.	—	Ditto
	22	48	57	29.7	—	Ditto
	23	48	59	29.825	—	Ditto
	24	50	57	30.125	—	Cloudy
	25	46	55	30.2	—	Clear
	26	50	59	30.25	—	Ditto
	27	47	56	30.2125	—	Ditto
	28	48	56	30.23	—	Ditto
	29	45	55	30.175	—	Ditto

Quantity of Rain, 1.365

Days.	Thermometer.	Days.	Barom.
10.	77 greatest height at noon.	26.	30.25 greatest elevation.
14.	40 least ditto, morning.	3.	29.7 least ditto.

*Memoirs of the Life and Writings of Henry Home, Lord Kames, the celebrated Author of 'Elements of Criticism,' &c.**

HENRY HOME, Lord Kames, an eminent Scottish lawyer, and author of many celebrated works on various subjects, was descended of a very honourable and ancient family, and born in the year 1696. Lord Kames's grandfather, Henry Home, was a younger son of Sir John Home of Renton, who held the high office of lord justice clerk, or chief criminal judge of Scotland, in the year 1663. He received the estate of Kames from his uncle George, brother to the then lord justice clerk. The family of Renton is descended from that of the Earls of Home, the representatives of the ancient Princes of Northumberland, as appears from the records of the Lyon Office.

The county of Berwick in Scotland has the honour of having given birth to this great and useful member of society. In early youth he was lively, and eager in the acquisition of knowledge. He never attended a public school; but was instructed in the ancient and modern languages, as well as in several branches of mathematics, and the arts necessarily connected with that science, by Mr Wingate, a man of considerable parts and learning, who spent many years as preceptor or private tutor to Mr Home.

After studying with acuteness and diligence, at the university of Edinburgh, the civil law, and the municipal law of his own country, Mr Home early perceived that a knowledge of these alone is not sufficient to make an accomplished lawyer. An acquaintance with the forms and practical business of courts, and especially

of the supreme court, as a member of which he was to seek for fame and emolument, he considered as essentially necessary to qualify him to be a complete barrister. He accordingly attended for some time the chamber of a writer to the signet, where he had an opportunity of learning the styles of legal deeds, and the modes of conducting different species of business. This wise step, independently of his great genius and unwearied application, procured him, after his admission to the bar, peculiar respect from the court, and proportional employment in his profession of an advocate. Whoever peruses the law-papers composed by Mr Home when a young man, will perceive an uncommon elegance of style, beside great ingenuity of reasoning, and a thorough knowledge of the law and constitution of his country. These qualifications, together with the strength and vivacity of his natural abilities, soon raised him to be an ornament to the Scottish bar; and, on the 2d of February 1752, he was advanced to the bench as one of the judges of the Court of Session, under the title of Lord Kames *f.*

Before this period, however, notwithstanding the unavoidable labours of his profession, Mr Home had favoured the world with several useful and ingenious works. In the year 1728, he published 'Remarkable Decisions of the Court of Session from 1716 to 1728,' in one vol. folio.— In 1732 appeared 'Essays upon several subjects in law, viz. Jus tertii; Beneficium cedendarum actionum; Vinco Vincentem; and Prescription; 2 8vo.

* For this, and the Life of Dr Henry, in our Magazine for July, we are indebted to the Encyclopedia Britannica.

* The Lords of Session in Scotland, upon their appointment to that office, are immediately called *Lords*, and takes their title, as such, from their family estate; but they sign all their letters, &c. with their christian and surnames.

8vo. This first produce of his original genius, and of his extensive views, excited not only the attention, but the admiration of the judges, and of all the other members of the college of justice. This work was succeeded, in the year 1741, by 'Decisions of the Court of Session from its first institution to the year 1740, abridged and digested under proper heads, in form of a Dictionary,' 2 vols. folio: A very laborious work, and of the greatest utility to every practical lawyer. In 1747 appeared 'Essays upon several subjects concerning British Antiquities, viz. 1. Introduction of the feudal Law into Scotland. 2. Constitution of Parliament. 3. Honour, Dignity. 4. Succession, or Descent; with an Appendix upon hereditary and indefeasible Right,' composed in 1745, and published 1747, in 8vo. In a preface to this work, Lord Kames informs us, that in the years 1745 and 1746, when the nation was in great suspense and distraction, he retired to the country; and in order to banish as much as possible the uneasiness of his mind, he contrived the plan, and executed this ingenious performance.

Though not in the order of time, we shall continue the list of all our author's writings on law, before we proceed to his productions on other subjects. In 1757, he published 'The Statute Law of Scotland abridged, with historical notes,' 8vo.; a most useful and laborious work. In the year 1759, he presented to the public a new work under the title of 'Historical Law Tracts,' 8vo. It contains fourteen interesting tracts, viz. History of the Criminal Law:—History of Promises and Covenants:—History of Property:—History of Securities upon and for Payment of Debt:—History of the Privilege which a Heir-apparent in a feudal Holding has to continue the Possession of his Ancestor:—History of Regalities, and of the Privilege of repledging:—History of Courts:—History of Brievies.

—History of Process in Absence:—History of execution against moveables and Land for Payment of Debt:—History of Personal Execution for Payment of Debt:—History of Execution for obtaining Payment after the Death of the Debtor:—History of the limited and universal Representation of Heirs:—Old and new Extent. In 1760, he published, in folio, 'The Principles of Equity; a work which shows both the fertility of the author's genius and his indefatigable application. In 1766, he gave to the public another volume in folio of 'Remarkable Decisions of the Court of Session, from 1730 to 1752.' In 1777, appeared his 'Elucidations respecting the Common and Statute Law of Scotland,' 8vo. This book contains many curious and interesting remarks upon some intricate and dubious points which occur in the law of Scotland. In 1786, he published a volume in folio of 'Select Decisions of the Court of Session from 1752 to 1769.'

From this sketch of Lord Kames' compositions and collections with a view to improve and elucidate the laws of Scotland, the reader may form some idea of his great industry, and of his anxious desire to promote the honour and welfare of his country. It remains to be remarked, that in the supreme court there, the law-writings of Lord Kames are held in equal estimation, and quoted with equal respect, as those of Coke or Blackstone in the courts of England.

Lord Kames's mind was very much inclined to metaphysical disquisitions. When a young man, in order to improve himself in his favourite study, he corresponded with the famous Berkeley bishop of Cloyne, Dr Butler bishop of Durham, Dr Samuel Clarke, and many other ingenious and learned men both in Britain and Ireland. The letters of correspondence, we are happy to learn, have been carefully preserved by his son and heir

George

George Home Drummond, Esq; of Blair Drummond.

The year 1751 gave birth to the first fruits of his lordship's metaphysical studies, under the title of *Essays on the principles of Morality and Natural Religion*, in two parts. Though a small volume, it was replete with ingenuity and acute reasoning, excited general attention, and gave rise to much controversy. It contained, in more explicit terms than perhaps any other work of a religious theft then known in Scotland, the doctrine which has of late made so much noise under the appellation of *philosophical necessity*. The same thing had indeed been taught by Hobbes, by Collins, and by the celebrated David Hume; but as those authors either were professed infidels, or were supposed to be such, it excited, as coming from them, no wonder, and provoked for a time very hot indignation. But when a writer, who exhibited no symptoms of extravagant scepticism, who insinuated nothing against the truth of revelation in general, and who, inculcated with earnestness the great duties of morality and natural religion, advanced at the same time so uncommon a doctrine as that of *necessity*; a number of pens were immediately drawn against him, and for a while the work and its author were extremely obnoxious to a great part of the Scottish nation. On the other hand, there were some, and those not totally illiterate, who, confounding *necessity* with *predestination*, complimented Mr Home on his manly defence of the established faith; and though between these two schemes there is no sort of resemblance, except that the future happiness or misery of all men is, according to both, certainly foreknown and appointed by God, yet we remember that a professor in a dissenting academy so far mistook the one for the other, that he recommended to his pupils the *Essays*

on Morality and natural Religion, as containing a complete vindication of the doctrine of Calvin. For this mistake he was dismissed from his office, and excluded from the communion of the sect to which he belonged. Lord Kames, like many other great and good men, continued a Necessarian to the day of his death; but in a subsequent edition of the essays, he exhibited a remarkable proof of his candour and liberality of sentiment, by altering the expressions, which, contrary to his intention, had given such general offence.

In 1761, he published an *Introduction to the Art of Thinking*, 12mo. This small but valuable book was originally intended for the instruction of his own family. The plan of it is both curious, amusing, and highly calculated to catch the attention, and to improve the minds of youth. It consists of maxims collected from Rochefoucault and many other authors. To illustrate these maxims, and to give their spirit and meaning in the minds of young persons, his lordship has added to most of them beautiful stories, tables, and historical anecdotes.

In the department of Belles Lettres, his *Elements of Criticism* appeared in 1762, in 3 vols. 8vo. This valuable work is the first, and a most successful attempt, to show, that the art of criticism is founded on the principles of human nature. Such a plan, it might be thought, should have produced a dry and phlegmatic performance. Lord Kames, on the contrary, from the sprightliness of his manner of treating every subject he handled, has rendered the *Elements of Criticism* not only highly instructive, but one of the most entertaining books in our language. Before this work was published, Rollin's *Belles Lettres*, a dull performance, from which a student could derive little advantage, was universally recommended as a

standard; but, after the Elements of Criticism were presented to the public, Rollin instantly vanished, and gave place to greater genius and greater utility. With regard to real instruction and genuine taste in composition of every kind, a student, a gentleman, or scholar, can in no language find such a fertile field of information. Lord Kames accordingly had the happiness of seeing the good effects of his labours, and of enjoying for twenty years a reputation which he so justly merited.

A still farther proof of the genius and various pursuits of this active mind was given in the year 1772, when his lordship published a work in 8vo, under the title of 'The Gentleman Farmer, being an attempt to improve Agriculture by subjecting it to the test of rational principles.' Our limits do not permit us to give details: but, with regard to this book, we must inform the public, that all the intelligent farmers in Scotland uniformly declare, that, after perusing Young, Dickson, and a hundred other writers on agriculture, Lord Kames's Gentleman Farmer contains the best practical and rational information on the various articles of husbandry which can any where be obtained. As a practical farmer, Lord Kames has given many obvious proofs of his skill. After he succeeded, in right of his lady, to the ample estate of Blair-Drummond in the county of Perth, he formed a plan for turning a large moss, consisting of at least 1500 acres, into arable land. His lordship had the pleasure, before he died, to see the plan successfully, though only partially, executed. The same plan is now carrying on in a much more rapid manner by his son George Home Drummond, Esq.

In 1773, Lord Kames favoured the world with 'Sketches of the History of Man,' 2 vols. 4to. This work consists of a great variety of facts and

observations concerning the nature of man; the produce of much and profitable reading. In the course of his studies and reasonings, he had amassed a vast collection of materials. These, when considerably advanced in years, he digested under proper heads, and submitted them to the consideration of the public. He intended that this book should be equally intelligible to women as to men; and, to accomplish this end, when he had occasion to quote ancient or foreign books, he uniformly translated the passages. The Sketches contain much useful information; and, like all his lordship's other performances, are lively and entertaining.

We now come to Lord Kames's last work, to which he modestly gives the title of 'Loose Hints upon Education, chiefly concerning the Culture of the Heart.' It was published in 1781, in 8vo, when the venerable and astonishing author was in the 85th year of his age. Though his lordship chose to call them Loose Hints, the intelligent reader will perceive in this composition an uncommon activity of mind at an age so far advanced, beyond the usual period of human life, and an earnest desire to form the minds of youth to honour, to virtue, to industry, and to a veneration of the Deity.

Beside the books we have enumerated, Lord Kames published many temporary and fugitive pieces in different periodical works: In the 'Essays Physical and Literary,' published by a society of gentlemen in Edinburgh, we find compositions of his lordship On the Laws of Motion, On the Advantages of Shallow Ploughing, and on Evaporation; all of which exhibit evident marks of genius and originality of thinking.

How a man employed through life in public business, and in business of the first importance, could find leisure for so many different pursuits, and excel

etzel in them*, it is not easy for a meaner mind to form even a conception. Much, no doubt, is to be attributed to the superiority of his genius, but much must likewise have been the result of a proper distribution of his time. He rose early; when in the vigour of life, at four o'clock; in the age, at six; and studied all morning. When the court was sitting, the duties of his office employed him from eight or nine to twelve or one; after which, if the weather permitted, he walked for two hours with some literary friends, and then went home to dinner. While he was on the bench, and we believe when he was at the bar, he neither gave nor accepted invitations to dinner during the term or session; and if any friend came uninvited to dine with him, his lordship displayed his usual cheerfulness and hospitality, but always returned with his clerk as soon as he had drunk a very few glasses of wine, leaving his company to be entertained by his lady. The afternoon was spent, as the morning had been, in study. In the evening he went to the theatre or the concert, from which he returned to the society of some men of learning, with whom he sat late, and displayed such talents for conversation as are not often found. It is observed by a late celebrated author, that 'to read, write, and converse, in due proportions, is the business of a man of letters; and that he who hopes to look back hereafter with satisfaction upon past years, must learn to know the value of single minutes, and endeavour to let no particle of time fall to the ground.' It was by

practising these lessons that Lord Kames rose to literary eminence, in opposition to all the obstacles which the tumult of public business could place in his way.

To give a proper delineation of the public and private character of Lord Kames, would far exceed our limits. The writer of this article, however, who had the honour of an intimate acquaintance with this great and good man for more than twenty years, must be indulged in adding a few facts which fell under his own observation.

Lord Kames was remarkable for public spirit, to which he conjoined activity and great exertion. He for a long tract of time had the principal management of all the societies and boards for promoting the trade, fisheries, and manufactures, in Scotland. As conducive to those ends, he was a strenuous advocate for making and repairing turnpike roads through every part of the country. He had likewise a chief lead in the distribution and application of the funds arising from the estates in Scotland which had unfortunately been annexed to the crown. He was no less zealous in supporting, both with his writings and personal influence, literary associations. He was in some measure the parent of what was called the physical and literary society. This society was afterward incorporated into the Royal society of Edinburgh, which received a charter from the crown, and which is daily producing marks of genius, as well as works of real utility.

As a private and domestic gentleman, Lord Kames was admired by both

* Upon reflecting on the studiousness of Lord Kames's disposition, and his numerous literary productions the reader will naturally recal to his mind a striking similarity between his lordship and the laborious Pliny the elder. In a letter from Pliny the younger to Mæcer, the following passage occurs, which is equally applicable to both; *ne videtur tibi, recedanti quantum legerit, quædam scripsit, nec in officio utilis, nec in amicitia præcipuum fuisse?* which is thus translated by Melmoth: 'When you reflect on the books he has read, and the volumes he has written, are you not inclined to suspect, that he never was engaged in the affairs of the public, or the service of his prince?'

both sexes. The vivacity of his wit and of his animal spirits, even when advanced in years, rendered his company not only agreeable, but greatly solicited by the literati, and courted by ladies of the highest rank and accomplishments. He told very few stories; and rarely, if ever, repeated the same story to the same person. From the necessity of retailing anecdotes, the miserable refuge of those who, without genius, attempt to shine in conversation, the abundance of his own mind set him free; for his wit or his learning always suggested what the occasion required. He could with equal ease and readiness combat the opinions of a metaphysician, unravel the intricacies of law, talk with a farmer on improvements in agriculture, or estimate with a lady the merits of the dress in fashion. Instead of being jealous of rivals, the characteristic of little minds, Lord Kames fostered and encouraged every symptom of merit that he could discover in the scholar, or in the lowest mechanic. Before he succeeded to the estate of Blair-Drummond, his fortune was small. Notwithstanding this circumstance, he, in conjunction with Mrs Drummond, his respectable and accomplished spouse, did much more service to the indigent than most families of greater opulence. If the present necessity was pressing, they gave money. They did more: When they discovered that male or female petitioners were capable of performing any art or labour, both parties exerted themselves in procuring that species of work which the poor people could perform. In cases of this kind, which were very frequent, the lady took charge of the women and his lordship of the men. From what has been said concerning the various and numerous productions of his genius, it is obvious that there could be few

idle moments in his long protracted life. His mind was incessantly employed; either teeming with new ideas, or pursuing active and laborious occupations. At the same time, with all this intellectual ardour, one great feature in the character of Lord Kames, beside his literary talents and his public spirit, was a remarkable innocency of mind. He not only never indulged in detraction; but when any species of scandal was exhibited in his company, he either remained silent, or endeavoured to give a different turn to the conversation. As a natural consequence of this amiable disposition, he never meddled with politics, even when parties ran to independent lengths in this country; and what is still more remarkable, he never wrote a sentence, notwithstanding his numerous publications, without a direct and a manifest intention to benefit his fellow creatures. In his temper he was naturally warm, though kindly and affectionate. In the friendships he formed, he was ardent, zealous, and sincere. So far from being inclined to irreligion, as some ignorant bigots insinuated, few men possessed a more devout habit of thought. A constant sense of Deity, and a veneration for Providence, dwelt upon his mind. From this source arose that propensity which appears in all his writings, of investigating *final causes*, and tracing the wisdom of the Supreme Author of nature. But here we must stop. Lord Kames, to the great regret of the public, died on the 27th day of December 1782. As he had no unmarked disease but the debility necessarily resulting from extreme old age, a few days before his death he went to the court of session, addressed all the judges separately, told them he was speedily to depart, and took a solemn and an affectionate farewell.

Extract from a Memoir concerning the Existence and Situation of Solomon's Islands. Presented to the Royal Academy of Sciences, January 9th 1781; by M. Buache.

THE Voyages of modern navigators, at the same time that they have furnished so much knowledge of the South Sea, have given rise to doubts respecting the existence of *Solomon's Islands*; and several geographers have already been anxious to expunge them from their charts, and remove them to the class of fabulous lands. It was for some time rather usual to deny the existence of every country which was not found at the place assigned to it by the charts; while, on the other hand, all those lands which were found in tracts of sea where there were not any marked in the charts, were considered as new discoveries. The more enlightened navigators of the present time, when their researches prove unsuccessful, draw no other conclusion, than that the lands they are unable to find have been ill placed upon their geographical charts; and, before they give a new name to any island that does not appear there, consider attentively all those that appear in the same tracts and at the same latitudes. In the present case, to be qualified to deny the existence of *Solomon's Islands* with any reason, it would be necessary to have sought them in all the situations which different authors have assigned, which has not yet been done. I have examined this point of geography with attention; and it has appeared to me, that, to any one who has not made a vow of scepticism, the existence of these islands is sufficiently demonstrated by the accounts of *Mendana's* voyages. I have also thought that, with the knowledge we now have of the South Sea, we may be able to ascertain their position more precisely, and make them easier to be found by other navigators.

The circumstantial particulars of

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the discovery of *Solomon's Islands*, as related by *Figueroa*, cannot be regarded as romance; they contain nothing marvellous, nor inconsistent with things actually known, but a simple narrative of fact. The relation of *Mendana's* second voyage is alone sufficient to establish the reality of this discovery. We see from the first, that this voyage was not undertaken, like the former, to make discoveries at random, but to return to a place already known, and establish a colony in it: the fleet was, consequently, provided with every thing necessary for such an expedition; 368 persons, chiefly married, were embarked in it; their course was directed to the particular object in view; and they crossed the sea between the 8th and 12th degrees of south latitude, in consequence of their previous knowledge of the situation of the places. When they arrived at the island of *Santa-Cruz*, *Mendana* no sooner saw the inhabitants, than he declared to his crew, that these were the people he sought.

After the death of *Mendana*, his widow, who succeeded him in the command of the fleet, when they quitted *Santa-Cruz*, was desirous to seek the island of *St Christopher*, the most eastern of *Solomon's Islands*, and steered W. S. W. but after the second day, as this island did not appear, she changed her course and bore to the north for *Manilla*. It was, without doubt, upon *Mendana's* instructions that she directed this search; and by the short time she employed, it is evident how near that navigator had supposed them.

Mendana's chief Pilot, *Fernand Quiros*, could not bring himself to relinquish his commander's researches, and regretted the proposal of sailing for *Manilla*. He was convinced of

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the existence of Solomon's Islands, and from this moment the discovery of them became the reigning object of his wishes: he returned speedily to Peru, presented no less than eight memorials to the Viceroy, and employed his solicitations so effectually, that at length he obtained his desire. When he left Callao, the port of Lima, on December 21, 1605, he appointed the island of *Santa-Cruz* as the place of rendezvous for the vessels with him, which sufficiently points out the object of his voyage. Knowing the distance of this island from the coast of Peru, and desirous to employ his intermediate way to the best advantage, he did not take the direct course which he had gone with Mendana in his first voyage, but proceeded southwards as far as the 25th degree of latitude. After discovering a long chain of small islands, most of which have since been re-discovered, he returned to the latitude of *Santa-Cruz*. At *Taumago* he learned from the inhabitants, that they knew of many islands in their neighbourhood; and advancing again to the southward, discovered the land which he named *Tierra Austral del Espiritu Santo*. When he left this island he met with violent and contrary winds in the open sea, by which one of his ships was separated from him; he therefore resolved to steer up for the island of *Santa-Cruz*, where the rendezvous was appointed: but when he came into this latitude he was unable to find *Santa Cruz*, constantly losing way more and more, says Figueroa, by the force of the wind. Seeing how difficult it was to make this island, and thinking it would be impossible to beat back again, he gave up his design, and steered for Mexico.

Such are the principal considerations which move us to believe the existence of *Solomon's Islands*. If we observe further, that most of Mendana's and Quiros's discoveries have been confirmed by modern navigators, we cannot well doubt of this. But if these islands exist, why so many voy-

ages undertaken to find them? have these been fruitless? The answer to this objection will be found in that very situation of the islands which it is my present object to ascertain. We may observe, in the mean while, that Quiros could not find them because he could not make the island of *Santa-Cruz*, which he sought on the north-east of the *Tierra Austral*; whereas it is on the north-west of it, according to the observations of modern navigators. Carteret and Byron did not find them, because they made the search only in the places pointed out by modern charts. Byron observes, that having advanced to ten degrees west of the position assigned to them by the French chart of the South Sea, he thought it necessary to abandon the search: he adds, that this situation is not founded upon any authority; and that he much doubts whether the celebrated navigator who made the discovery, has left sufficient information for them ever to be found again. Carteret, in like manner observes, that he had advanced far beyond the situation attributed to them; and that, having arrived at the island of *Santa-Cruz*, which he re-discovered, he gave up the attempt.

If these navigators could have consulted the narratives of Mendana's voyages, it is probable they would not so hastily have relinquished their researches. These accounts give us, in the first place, the latitudes of many of the *Islands of Solomon*; and in this respect we know, that the errors to be apprehended are very inconsiderable, seldom more than half a degree: they give us, secondly, the distance of these islands, from the coast of Peru, by comparing which with the time of their intermediate way, particularly in Mendana's second voyage, which was in a more direct course, and on the same parallel with these islands, we may deduce their longitude, at least within a very few degrees. Before we undertake to ascertain this point, we must enquire why

why geographers are so little agreed about the position of these islands, and why there is the difference of more than a thousand leagues in the situations assigned by them.

The first charts which represent the Islands of Solomon all agree in placing them to the east of New Guinea, and at no great distance from it: they are thus situated on a chart published by Theodore de Bry, in 1596, the same year that Mendana arrived at Manilla, after his second expedition: the same position appears in a chart published by Wittet in 1597; in the charts belonging to Herrera's History of the West Indies; in an ancient Portuguese chart of the East Indies, inserted in Thevenot's curious collection of voyages; in the charts of Ortelius published in 1589: and, in general, in all the charts which preceded those of the *Arcano del Mare*, published by Robert Dudley in 1646.

Dudley then transposed the islands of Solomon to the situation of the *Marquesas de Mendoza*, marking but one group of the two sets of islands: On the chart where they appear, which is the 23d of Asia, he explains his opinion, and the authorities he consulted in the following note: "The Islands of Solomon, discovered by Alvarez de Mendana, in 1580, were found at 800 Spanish leagues west from Lima; nevertheless the ordinary charts place them at 1800 leagues, but very falsely."

Dudley's opinion was adopted by many geographers; and among others, by Delisle, as appears in his first charts, and on his terrestrial globe, published in 1700. Delisle was certainly induced, rather by the reputation of its author than by any profound reflection, to embrace this opinion; we find him renouncing it in 1714, when he published his southern hemisphere: he then placed the Islands of Solomon at 1635 Spanish leagues, and 205 degrees of longitude, east from the meridian of Ferro. Six

years after, when he published his *Map of the World*, and a *Memoir*† on the Situation and Extent of different Parts of the Earth, he approached still nearer to the position indicated in the early charts. He there places Solomon's Islands in 190 degrees of longitude; and in his *Memoir* he says, that he has determined the situation of the southern lands, and of the islands of the South Sea, by the journals of the discoveries, and by tracing their voyages. This method was the result of reflection, and accordingly has been most followed since 1720.

M. Belin had placed these islands in 195 degrees of longitude, on his chart of the known parts of the globe, as well as on that of the South Sea, published in 1741; and in his observations on the construction of the latter chart, we find his motives for so doing.

In 1756, he corrected his chart of the South Sea; and then removed the Islands of Solomon to 205 degrees, or ten degrees further eastward. His opinion was adopted by Mr Green in his great chart of America.

M. Danville had taken a mean between the positions adopted by other geographers, and had placed the Islands of Solomon at 200 degrees; but when he established the new discoveries in the South Sea, upon his *Map of the World*, he thought it necessary to suppress the old ones, and the Islands of Solomon no longer appear upon his map.

In 1767, M. Pingré, of the Royal Academy of Sciences, on the occasion of the transit of Venus, gave us some very interesting researches into the position of the islands in the South Sea, and placed the Islands of Solomon near 210 degrees.

We are also obliged to Mr Dalrymple for very curious researches concerning the ancient voyages in the South Sea, made by the Spanish and the Dutch. This learned man, well known, for the zeal with which he promotes

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promotes the progress of geography and navigation, and for his labours in those branches of science; has particularly studied every thing that relates to the Islands of Solomon, and has published a dissertation on the subject. He perceived that they ought to be placed near New Guinea, and a greater distance from Peru than was indicated in any of the charts; but his patriotic zeal betrayed him into an error of another kind; he has transposed the Islands of Solomon to the situation of those known by the name of New Britain, and situated between the 2d and the 6th degree of south latitude; whereas the observations made in Mendana's voyage place them between the 7th and the 12th degree.

By this summary we perceive how much geographers have differed about the situation of Solomon's Islands, and how many situations they have assigned for them. To attain the truth in a matter so obscure, the best way is to examine the original authors who were consulted by those geographers; and I will therefore briefly report what the chief of these have written on the subject.

Acosta, in his natural and moral History of the Indies (Book I. p. 6, and 15) says, at first, that the Islands of Solomon are 800 leagues from Peru; and in two other passages where he speaks again of those islands, he says, it is a well-founded opinion that they should be placed near New Guinea, or at least in the neighbourhood of a continent. He makes no mention of their latitude.

Herrera, in his description of the West Indies (ch. 27.) tells us, in like manner, that Solomon's Islands are 800 leagues from Peru; and further on he adds, that they are situated between the 7th and the 12th degree of south latitude, and 1500 leagues from the City of Kings, or Lima: he says, moreover, that they are probably contiguous to New Guinea.

Lopez Vaz (Purchas's Pilgrimes, Vol. IV. B. VII. Ch. II.) reports, that Mendana met with some islands in 11 degrees of south latitude, and 800 leagues from Lima; and eleven large islands between the 9th and 12th degree of south latitude.

Ovalle, in his History of Chili, says, that Solomon's Islands are about 7500 miles west from Peru, and that they extend from the 7th to the 12th degree of latitude.

Quiros, in one of the memorials he presented to the Viceroy of Peru, asserts that, according to the testimony of Mendana, the Islands of Solomon are 1500 leagues from the coast of Lima, and extend from the 7th to the 12th degree of latitude.

According to Figueroa, who has given the most circumstantial account of Mendana's discoveries, the distance from Lima to Candlemas Shoals, whence the islands of Solomon were first described, is about 1670 leagues; their latitude, between 7 and 12 degrees: and that from Lima to the Isle of Santa Cruz, is 1850 leagues.

Lastly, in a manuscript belonging to the Viceroy of Peru, which Richard Hawkins professes to have seen, Solomon's Islands are placed on the same parallel as Santa (9 degrees S.) and at the distance of about 2500 leagues west.

To the authority of all these Spanish authors we will join also that of Cornelius Witfiet of Louvain, who, in 1603, published a curious account of the West Indies. The expressions of this author are remarkable, and testify a considerable accuracy of information; "on the right, and near Guinea, are the islands of Solomon, of vast extent, and very numerous, discovered not long ago by Alvaro de Mendana. This navigator sailed from the port of Lima in Peru, in search of new and unknown lands; and after a voyage of three months, with regular winds from the south-east, fell in with these Islands, which he named

named the Islands of Solomon, rather casually and fancifully, than for any particular reason." In speaking of the charts inserted in his work, Wicliet informs us that; for the known parts of the globe, he has followed the common maps, but for every thing else he has had recourse to the newest charts and narratives.

Such are the principal authorities which can be cited to establish the position of Solomon's Islands. We find enormous differences in these, as well as on the maps, in the distance of these islands from the coast of Peru. There are even contradictions in the most respectable authors, as Acoita and Herrera; but by bringing these opinions together and comparing them with each other, it is easy to perceive which are the best founded and most deserving of confidence.

It is evident that the distance of 800 leagues, marked by Acoita, and adopted without examination by Herrera and Lopez Vaz, is a gross error, by which we cannot suffer ourselves to be misled. Acoita published his work in 1590, five years before Mendana's second voyage, and seems to be the first who mentioned the Islands of Solomon. The arrival of Admiral Drake in the South Sea, after the first voyage of Mendana, occasioned the establishment of a colony in these islands to be suspended for 28 years, lest the English should gain information of them. It is therefore probable that when Acoita spoke of them, he had but a very vague idea of their situation: and it is worthy of remark, that he makes no mention of their latitude, which all the other authors have reported uniformly.

In a letter from Quiros to Don Antonio Morga, Lieutenant General of the Philippine Islands, it appears that, after having given him an account of Mendana's second voyage, he begged him to keep it secret: "It is desirable says Quiros, that these islands should remain unknown, be-

cause, as they lie between Peru, New Spain, and the Philippines, the English, if they were informed of them, might make settlements there of dangerous consequence to Spain." It is therefore further probable that Mendana's journals would be kept secret a long time after his expeditions; and we may hence conclude that all the authors, except Quiros and Figueroa, spoke of the Islands of Solomon on very vague information or hearsay; which accounts for the differences and contradictions in their reports. Herrera, in particular, seems to have been ill informed, if we may judge by the immense extent he attributes to most of these islands. The same may be said of Lopez Vaz, who places Guadalcanar in 18 degrees south latitude, and of the author consulted by Robert Dudley, who says that these islands were discovered in 1580, instead of 1567.

Quiros reckons 1500 leagues from the coast of Peru to Solomon's Islands: Figueroa, from the first of Mendana's voyages, makes it 1610, and 1580 to the Island of Santa-Cruz, from the second voyage. We may now perceive the reason of these different reports. M. de B. ugainville has observed, in the narrative of his voyage round the world, that all the navigators who have crossed the South Sea have fallen in with New Guinea, much sooner than they ought by their reckoning; and that, consequently, they have given this sea a much smaller extent from east to west than in truth it has: this error he attributes to the effect of favourable winds and currents in that ocean, not taken into their account. Thus Mendana, in his first voyage, being as yet unacquainted with this effect of currents and winds, which bore him away perpetually to the west, must have estimated his way at much less than the truth; and his distance, computed at 1610 leagues, must be much less than it really was. The same may be

be said of the distance given by Quiros, who had crossed this sea but once when he drew up his memorials. The distance of 1850 leagues reckoned in Mendana's second voyage seems to be preferable, because the navigator was more experienced, his course was more direct, and the distance, moreover, perfectly agrees with that reported by Richard Hawkins, from a manuscript of the Viceroy of Peru. These 1850 leagues, reckoned at the proportion of 15 to a degree, as we find them in the memoirs of the early Spanish navigators, answer exactly to 2500 English leagues of 20 to a degree.

By adopting this distance, Solomon's Islands recover the place near New Guinea assigned to them by Acosta, Herrera, Wirsiet, and all the old charts; and this new agreement is a strong presumption in favour of the exactness of this position. If we consider next the tracks of the navigators who sought for these islands, we shall perceive that they must have been to the west of the island Santa-Cruz, and consequently near New Guinea. Figueroa informs us, that when Mendana was returning to these islands, in 1595, to found a colony, he sailed on exactly between the parallels wherein he knew them to be situated; that he carefully reconnoitred every land that he found in his way: and that he arrived at the island of Santa-Cruz without having fallen in with those which were the object of his voyage. Having put in at Santa-Cruz, he declared, from the colour of the natives, that these were of the nation he was seeking; and his widow, when she left this island, steered W. S. W. to seek for that of St. Christopher. Thus, in the opinion of Mendana, the Archipelago discovered by him in his first voyage, was west of Santa-Cruz. This was also the idea of Quiros, who, in 1606, when he set out in search of the same Archipelago, appointed Santa-Cruz

as the place of rendezvous for his vessels, in case of separation. The same consequence is deducible from the tracks of Byron and Carteret, who sought these islands in vain to the east of Santa-Cruz; the latter explored the 10th and 11th parallels for more than 700 leagues, and arrived at the island of Santa-Cruz without having discovered them.

From Carteret's route, the island of Santa-Cruz may be fixed at the longitude of $162^{\circ} 20'$ east of the meridian of Paris; and the extreme point of New Guinea was determined, by M. de Bougainville, to be $149^{\circ} 52'$. There remain, therefore, about 12 degrees and a half, or 247 leagues, between the island of Santa-Cruz and New Guinea; and as the Islands of Solomon form rather an extensive Archipelago, we may take the middle of this space, and fix 156 degrees of longitude for the middle of this Archipelago. In this situation we shall find that we are just 2400 French marine leagues from the coast of Peru, the exact distance assigned by Richard Hawkins and Figueroa. In this space, and at this longitude, there is actually a group of islands, seen by M. de Bougainville, in 1768, and Surville, in 1769, which appear to have all the characters of those of Solomon. M. de Bougainville saw the western part of them, in seven degrees south latitude; and what he reports of the inhabitants of Choiseul Bay, agrees with the description given by Mendana of the natives of the Archipelago discovered by him. M. de Surville was in sight of these lands for the space of 130 leagues, and from the 7th to the 11th degree of latitude: not finding them set down in any chart, he named them "The Lands of the Arfacides," from the barbarous character of the people in Port Praslin, where he had put in: and what he relates of them is equally conformable to the recital of Mendana. In the same sea, Carteret, in 1767, had discovered

covered two small islands, which he named Gower's and Simpson's Islands, but was far from imagining that they belonged to the Islands of Solomon, which he had sought so long, and therefore gave himself no trouble to examine them.

Till our navigators shall complete their discoveries in this interesting and little known portion of the globe,

I think I can with confidence assert that the Lands of the Arfacides, and Choiseul Bay, are parts of the Archipelago discovered by Mendana; and, consequently, that the Islands of Solomon are actually about 1850 Spanish leagues distant from the coast of Peru, and in the vicinity of New Guinea, as the early charts had indicated.

Extracts from a Pictureque Description of Switzerland: By the Marquis de Langle.

BUKENDORFF, BASIL, AND ITS ENVIRONS.

PHYSICIANS extol the baths of Bubendorff: I myself think that these baths are salutary, when one receives pleasure from using them. Cheerfulness may be accounted a Physician, on account of its excellence: it may be termed the *efflorescence* of the mind; and is as necessary to it as the blossoms and leaves are to trees and plants. Cheerfulness is a species of cosmetic—of virgin-milk, which wards off the ravages of age, and which preserves to the features, the skin, and the complexion, an air of freshness and juvenility.

Basil has been fortified. Its ramparts are decayed, and they still allow them to decay.—So much the better. Drawbridges, bastions, red coats, and fierce cocked hats*, inspire the mind with a certain degree of melancholy, tighten the breast, obstruct the perspiration, and tint every idea that arises with the colour of blood. The heart contracts itself, and occupies less space, on entering a fortified place. I love to see ramparts nodding towards their fall—I love open cities, drawbridges and bastions always portend misfortunes.

The Rhine runs through the middle of this place. It is at Basil that the Rhine becomes a river—becomes beautiful—becomes noble—and perhaps, even superior to its reputation.

In the circumference of a terrible long mile, Basil contains no more than twelve thousand inhabitants—and yet it is termed a capital! its streets resemble a desert, and the grass with which they are incumbered is a disgrace to the people.

The neighbourhood of this place is delightful in the summer, and more especially during the morning. It is in the morning that those scenes ought always to be visited; it is in the morning alone that they can be enjoyed; it is in the morning that nature is young—is fresh;—I had almost said, is a Virgin! At ten or eleven o'clock, at noon, the noise, the bustle, the rays of the sun, have already polluted her; the flowers no longer emitting sweet odors, by this time begin to hang down their heads: the *youthful hours of the day are vanished.*

How few are the pleasures of life! We murmur, complain, and do not enjoy even the little portion of them allotted to us. How delightful it is to contemplate the dawn of day!
How

* Des habits courts, de grands bonnets—has been thus familiarly translated. Trans.

How pleasant to enjoy the sweet perfumes of the morning! To rise early is productive of one of the most exquisite sensations in life; and yet the Sun generally appears above the horizon, without finding any one to admire his glory.

THE VIEW FROM THE VILLAGE OF WILD—TAVERNIER.

BUT if in all the universe there is an enchanted spot—a spot in which nature most delights to sport, it is surely that in the midst of which Wild is erected. From this town, two miles distant from Basle, one may perceive every object in the universe that is worthy of admiration. From the windows of its little church, you may, with a single glance of your eye, view Lorraine, Alsace, part of Switzerland, almost all the Marquisate of Baden, the Rhine, the Birs, the Buseck, vallies, hills, a number of villages; in fine, a horizon so adorned and so immense, that the most warm and picturesque imagination, can never be able to conceive such charming landscapes, or such a joyous perspective. What a pity that a gibbet, erected at about three thousand paces from the place where I stood, should have deformed this superb picture with its ghastly shadow!

“How proud I should be,” says Cicero, “how much glory should I not achieve, and how much my former associates would envy me, if the gods were to decree, that my consulship should become the epoch, when Rome was to see the crosses, the wheels, the pillory, and the other signals of execution, which disgrace our public places, disappear from within its walls!” What would the Roman Orator have said, if he had seen in the neighbourhood of Wild, a scaffold that stains and disfigures as it were, the richest and most ornamented spot on the whole surface of the globe?

Switzerland, in general, may be termed the country of fine prospects. After having for twenty years inha-

bited the most delicious climates in Asia;—after having inhaled all the perfumes of Timor, Aden and Straz;—after having trampled under his feet, the turquoise, the emerald, and the opal;—after having been cloyed with the delicate fruits and exquisite spices of the Moluccas, of the island of Ceylon, and of Arabia the Happy;—attracted and seduced by the recollection of the sweetness and variety of these scenes, Tavernier abandoned Persia, left the Indies, bid adieu to the Indus and the Ganges, and returned to end his days in Switzerland.

We are in great want of a general map of Switzerland:—We are in great want of a topographical description of an original—of a universal country—of a country, that in the space of seventy-five leagues, unites all the features—all the situations—all the peculiarities—all the varieties, scattered up and down, from one pole to the other. Rocks, glaciers, torrents, rivers, lakes, caverns—Nature, in all her forms, is to be found in Switzerland—and Switzerland, if one may hazard the expression, contains the whole world in miniature.

And for whom is this superb and magic gallery designed?—For whom are these grand and sublime pictures of nature intended? for whom this astonishing and rich creation?—For a cold, an insensible, phlegmatic people—for a people who do not feel for any thing, who do not imagine any thing, who never weep, and who are never affected—for a people incapable of lively emotions and strong passions—for a people who never were acquainted with the delirium, the enthusiasm of poetry and of painting; nor the transports, the delights, the agreeableness, the furies, the frantic and the fiery accents of an impassioned attachment.

We shall, no doubt, wait a long time for this chart, which we so much stand in need of. Besides, the difficulty of measuring a country intersected with chasms, mountains, and dells, whoever

whoever undertakes this task, will also have to subdue the suspicious temper of the natives.—The Swiss always look upon draughtsmen and surveyors, as so many spies in the pay of foreign countries. It has often happened that painters and other travellers have been stopped in the midst of their labours, and have with great difficulty escaped from the punishment due to traitors.

means of their pestilential vapours and unhealthy fogs, destroy a number of children annually, while yet in their cradle, and boys and girls in the flower of their age. Thus lately perished a charming young lady, whom I saw in passing through Anet; whom I felicitated myself with the hopes of seeing again; but who, alas! was a corpse on my return!

MANUFACTURES OF SWITZERLAND—
THE INHABITANTS DETEST AGRICULTURE.

The Economical Society of Berne have been occupied on this subject; the members have already laid a great number of plans before the council; but these are still to be considered as so many plans, for they remain as yet unexecuted.

THE Swiss carry on such an immense trade in printed callicos and ribbands, that they may be said to furnish half the world with top-knots, beads, cloaks and petticoats. Sully, the minister of Henry IV. looked on those men as fools, who pretended to an uncommon share of intrepidity, by having doubled the Cape of Good Hope;—Sully, who assigned to manufactures the last rank in political economy,—who preferred the most common fruit and pulse to all the scarce and costly productions that the Indies could boast of, has advised the Swiss to abandon their looms, and betake themselves to the plough. For want of labourers, one half of their country remains uncultivated; they, however, despise the earth, disdain its productions, and think that agriculture would dishonour them!

The cultivation of the earth has not always been despised in Switzerland; for their Historians recite the following anecdote with no small share of pride:

From thence proceeds the necessity of importing, at a great expence, from the Milanese, from France, from Alsace, from the circle of Saxonia, and the marquisate of Baden, corn, eatables, and provisions of all kinds, which the delicate hands of the inhabitants disdain to procure for themselves.

A Duke of Austria, while travelling on horseback from Rappelswyl to Wintherthur, happening to cross the fertile country of Kyburg, in the canton of Zurich, saw near to the high-road four noble horses harnessed to a plough; a youth, who possessed a charming person, directed their motions, while an old man, whose hair was whitened by age, opened the furrows. Surprised at the superiour air of the two labourers, no less than the beauty of the cattle, the Duke stopped, and turning towards the grand master of the household, said, “I have never seen such respectable peasants, or such fine horses before.” “Be not astonished, my Lord,” replies this officer, these are the *Baron du Luigi* and his son: behold, at the foot of yonder hill is the ancient castle belonging to their family; and if you are still in doubt, to-morrow you will see them come to do homage to you.”

From thence proceed those heaths, which seem to have no end—from thence those putrid and extensive marshes (among others, that of Anet, in the canton of Berne) which, by

Accordingly, on the next day, the Duke perceives the same labourers arrive on horseback at his court, attended by a numerous retinue of their vassals. After the Baron had paid the usual homage to his sovereign, he presented

his son to him, and entered into conversation. The Duke being unable to thistle his curiosity, seized on this opportunity to satisfy his impatience. "Was it you," says he, whom I saw yesterday near to the high-way, holding a plough superbly decorated?" "Yes, my Lord," replies the Baron: "next to a war undertaken for the defence of one's country; I know of no occupation more honourable for a gentleman, than that of cultivating his own estate; I therefore do this as an example to my son."

Thus thought, and thus acted the ancient Swiss, who, equalling the Romans in their courage, resembled them also in their taste for agriculture and a country life. The same hands that wielded the lance, or carried the banner, thought not themselves dishonoured by using the spade, and brightening the ploughshare. More than once, in the midst of the Alps, and at the foot of mount Jura, as well as on the banks of the Tiber, the General has been seen leaving his plough, to repel, at the head of his equals, the enemies of his country; and returning triumphant, he has been known to follow his suspended labours with additional ardour! One may see from thence, that a state may be as much indebted for its prosperity,

to CERES' scythe, as to BELLONA'S sword.

But it is more especially in an age when agriculture appears to be honoured:—in an age when Economical Societies are every where occupied in dissertations, in observations, &c.—in an age when the marshes of Aunis, of Flanders, and part of the waste lands about Bourdeaux, have been subjected to agriculture, and changed

either into pasture or corn lands:—in such an age, I say, it is not a little surprising, that the people of Berne do not endeavour to drain the marshes of Anet.

"If I were a Lieutenant of the Police:" (this singular exclamation is attributed to a sovereign who loved his people,) "If I were a Lieutenant of the Police, I would prohibit *cabralets* *." As for myself, were I at the head of the republic at Berne, that indigent and sterile country which surrounds and composes the marsh of Anet should be drained and dedicated to agriculture in the space of two years. There is no land, however barren it is, or however much it may be covered with briars and thorns, but the spade and the hoing-bill will make it wave with a golden harvest, or bloom with roses.

WILLIAM TELL.

THE most enthusiastic historian has infinitely less respect for his hero, than the Swiss have for the memory of William Tell, whom they regard as the deliverer of his country, and the founder of its republican liberty. There never has been any man in Switzerland, whom the artists of all kinds have taken such pains to immortalize in portraits, busts, medallions;—you every where, and in every shape, encounter the image of William Tell. The engraver, the painter, the sculptor, have multiplied his resemblance under a thousand allegories.

At every corner, in every street, and in almost every part of Switzerland, Tell is represented darting an arrow into the apple placed on his son's head. Many people, however, still dubious of the authenticity of this anecdote,

* Light low chairs, sometimes with one and sometimes with two horses, which the young nobility were used to drive in a furious manner along the streets of Paris and the environs, to the great danger of the foot-passengers. The suppression of this nuisance is one of the many evils that have been corrected by the late Revolution.

disclose, treat the whole as a fiction, and disbelieve the atrocity of Griser, the story of the hat, of the apple, and even the existence of William Tell himself.

Where is the nation, however, which does not furnish a numerous list of conquerors and of heroes, of whom the history and the existence is not supported by more authentic proofs, than the gods, the Demi-gods, the imaginary battles, and supposititious warriors of Linus, of Homer, and of Orpheus?

NATIONAL FESTIVAL IN HONOR OF SWISS PATRIOTISM.

WHATEVER may be the doubts in regard to the hero of Switzerland, they celebrate every year at Arth, in the canton of Scheverick, a national and patriotic festival in honor of William Tell. I have seen—I was present at, and was highly delighted with this festival.

Preceded by two heralds at arms of a gigantic size, and by warlike music, the cavalcade proceeds from the neighboring country to the town of Arth, where there is a theatre erected in the middle of the public square. The Genius of ancient Helvetia, carrying in one hand a shield emblazoned with the arms of the Thirteen Cantons, and in the other a lance surmounted by the Cap of Liberty, leads the procession, escorted by two warriors armed at all points, each wielding a battle-axe, and a troop of herdsmen dressed like the shepherds of the Alps, with leathern caps on their heads, and massy clubs over their shoulders; after them the captain of the cross-bowmen approaches, at the head of a company clad in green, and armed with bows: these are followed by William Tell and his son, and the three other patriots, Stauffacher, Melchtal and Furst. The domestics of Governor Griser succeed these, dressed in the fashion of

that age, and bearing a pike on which the hat of their master is placed.

Soon after the deputies of the Thirteen Cantons make their appearance, each preceded by a young man carrying a banner, and a herald dressed in the uniform of his profession. The cavalcade is closed by a company of twenty soldiers, six feet high, chosen from among the handsomest young men of the whole country.

The procession having arrived at the theatre, and the spectators being seated on benches elevated above each other, in the manner of the ancient amphitheatres, the Genius of Helvetia advances, and delivers an oration, of which the following is the translation:—

‘ O Helvetia, country of heroes!
‘ of all the nations scattered over the
‘ face of this globe, thine is the sole
‘ one that enjoyest completely the first
‘ of all earthly blessings—LIBERTY!
‘ From the summit of its Alps, it sees
‘ nothing but injustice armed to de-
‘ stroy the smiling labours of the pea-
‘ sant— sanguinary despotism sporting
‘ with the rights and with the lives
‘ of mankind; ambition, vengeance,
‘ and pride, desolating the most fer-
‘ tile countries;—and effeminacy, lux-
‘ ury, and debauchery, anticipating
‘ the effects of age!

‘ You alone, O my friends! You a-
‘ lone enjoy, without slaves and
‘ without masters, these possessions
‘ which you owe only to Heaven—
‘ to the intrepidity of your ancestors
‘ —and to your own industry. You
‘ are nourished with the milk, which
‘ the numerous herds that roam
‘ among your valleys furnish you with
‘ in abundance; you breathe a pure
‘ air, which strangers come in search
‘ of from afar, as a certain remedy for
‘ disease; you drink at the foot of
‘ your rocks, a beverage more refresh-
‘ ing than that presented in golden
‘ vessels at the banquets of Kings;
‘ you choose your own Magistrates
‘ from

among your own equals; you obey
 thoſe laws only which you your-
 ſelves have dictated. If any of
 you chooſes to appreciate the happi-
 neſs contained within the boundary
 of his little poſſeſſion, he ſhall find
 himſelf equal to the maſters of the
 world, and will neither envy their
 palaces, nor their flatterers.

On this occaſion, when gladneſs
 reigns in our mountains, ſome teſtify
 their joy by ſongs and by dancing,
 and others by banquets and by maſ-
 querades. As to us, we offer up
 a public and a ſolemn homage to our
 brave deliverers; we ſtir up in every
 boſom the love of Liberty, and we
 crown with garlands the face of our
 beloved country!

The cold and phlegmatic rules of
 art do not preſide at this ſpectacle;
 truth alone, without diſſimulation,
 without embellishment, reminds you
 of thoſe happy days, when faith,
 valor, and other rural virtues, were
 alone honored among us. Our
 poetry is ſimple, like that of our
 forefathers; it reminds us of the
 candor and the artleſſneſs of their
 energetic language; and as to our
 games, they are not agreeable but
 to real Helvetians—to thoſe moun-
 tainers, ſtill worthy of their ances-
 tors, becauſe they ſtrive to reſemble
 them. * * * * *

But above all things, O brave
 Helvetians, above all things, im-
 print upon your minds the remem-
 brance of thoſe great events which
 you this day ſolemnize. Salute then,
 theſe awful ſcenes—bleſs this fa-
 mous ſpot—this ſpot ſacred to liber-
 ty, on which you have ſo often trod
 without reflection—bathe in tears
 the ſtones which form the monu-
 ments of your forefathers glory! At
 every ſtep your country ſeems to cry
 to you—“Stop, you trample under
 your feet the unknown tomb of ſome
 hero.”

—Here is the ſolitary field of Rut-
 li, which formerly gave ſhelter to

your deliverers, when at a diſtance
 from the vigilant eye of their tyrant,
 they conſpired to break his iron
 yoke.—There is the ſacred plain,
 where the auſpicious arrow of Kin-
 nemberg fell.—On that ſide is the
 venerable chapel of William Tell; and
 you ſee below, the narrow bounda-
 ries of the field of battle, where
 Vinkchied, and ſo many of your ge-
 nerous anceſtors cemented the foun-
 dation of riſing liberty with their
 blood.

And what do the manes of ſo
 many heroes demand from you? O,
 my friends! O, my brothers! they
 demand that you ſhould follow their
 example—they demand, that you
 ſhould imitate their unbroken inte-
 grity, their noble ſimplicity, and
 their maſculine courage * * * * *—
 they demand, that you ſhould pre-
 ſerve the glory they acquired, ſpot-
 leſs, * * * * *
 * * * * *—they demand of you to
 tranſmit, without alteration, to your
 deſcendants, the precious inheri-
 tance of Liberty—and that you
 ſhould never do any thing unworthy
 of the glorious name of REPUBLI-
 CANS!

After this diſcourſe, which was re-
 ceived with univerſal applauſe, the
 play commenced, and when it was
 finiſhed the Genius of Helvetia ap-
 pears a ſecond time, and ſpeaks as
 follows:—

I doubt not, O Helvetians! but
 that the representation of the deeds
 of former times has at once intereſt-
 ed and affected you; may this ſcene
 remain impreſſed upon your minds,
 and preſerve in you the love of your
 country, and of all its ancient vir-
 tues!—You who are the youthful
 ſons of the ſhepherds of the moun-
 tains, ſee how the ſon of William
 Tell was made an inſtrument by
 Heaven, to preſerve the innocence
 of his father, and the honour of
 his country. Be courageous like
 that boy, who never turned a-
 way

' way his head, who never even
 ' shut his eyes, and exclaim with
 ' pride—' Although we are yet but
 ' children, we are nevertheless
 ' the descendants of ancient heroes;
 ' and underneath our little leathern
 ' caps, the generous blood of Switzer-
 ' land, even now, animates us to
 ' glory!' * * * * *
 ' Young bowmen—ye who still carry
 ' the arms of William Tell—ye who
 ' exercise them, that you may attain
 ' perfection, say with me:—If
 ' the enemy should come, we
 ' shall sharpen our arrows, we shall
 ' bend our bows; and when we are
 ' older, the ball launched from the
 ' fusee shall hereafter give a more
 ' certain death. * * * * *
 ' O ye robust warriors, who know
 ' that every Swiss is born a soldier,
 ' love always the noise of arms—en-
 ' courage no other than military
 ' games—in the time of peace be pru-
 ' dent enough to exercise yourselves
 ' in the feats of war; but resolve only
 ' to use your arms in the defence
 ' of your children, your laws, and
 ' your religion.
 ' And you, ye illustrious people,
 ' descended from these freemen, re-
 ' new in your hearts this universal
 ' confederation; cement it by the
 ' language of brotherhood and of
 ' peace: so that each canton may hold
 ' out an Helvetic hand to its neigh-
 ' bour; and its citizen may be rea-
 ' dy to serve his country at the ex-
 ' pence even of his life.
 ' O Switzerland! sheltered by the
 ' buckler of Heaven, amidst your
 ' scattered vallies, you hear at a dis-
 ' tance the feeble sound of devouring
 ' war! Your happiness consists in
 ' peace; sedulously then preserve that
 ' peace; it will avail you more than
 ' numerous armies of mercenaries,
 ' than fortresses beset with cannon,
 ' and treasures which but corrupt their
 ' possessors!

Anecdotes of Archery; by H. G. Oldfield.

AT the general distribution of fa-
 culties, the Omnipotent be-
 stowed the power of invention on the
 human race alone. Man being en-
 dowed with this blessing, has produ-
 ced many wonderful, but more useful
 discoveries. Derham somewhere ob-
 serves, that the use of things which
 mankind had the greatest occasion for,
 was found out long before others
 which are not so essential, or of per-
 nicious consequences—necessity is the
 great assistant of invention—the ad of
 nature is seldom wanting—and chance
 is frequently the parent of great disco-
 veries.

Archery is of so great antiquity,
 that at what time, and by whom first
 practised, is very uncertain; and whe-
 ther the instruments thereof were the
 contrivance of necessity on some sud-
 den emergency, or a discovery owing

to the pure effects of chance, is equal-
 ly doubtful.

No instrument has so generally ob-
 tained throughout the earth as the
 bow; very few nations but have some
 time or other used it even now in ma-
 ny places it is a common weapon.
 This general prevalence makes it
 doubtful whether more persons than
 one may not justly lay claim to the
 invention as their own; we find it in
 the further parts of Asia, and the
 most northern of Europe; in Africa
 it is also common. The first discover-
 ers found the bow and arrows among
 the Americans.

It is not improbable that Nimrod
 knew the use of the bow, considering
 he was a great hunter, and a man of
 war. We are certain that the later
 Patriarchs were not ignorant of it.

The Grecians were well acquaint-
 ed

ved with these weapons, and their bow was (says Montfaucon) shaped after the fashion of the letter Σ .

At the siege of Troy, the bow and arrow were in common use; the poets say that a Centaur was brought into the army who shot his arrows with such force as to pierce through two or three ranks.

It is not evident that the Romans, in the early part of the republic, had the bow. They made use of it however afterwards, though their archers were for the most part auxiliaries, yet they were not unacquainted with this exercise, as appears by the Emperor Commodus, who was uncommonly dexterous therein. They had matters at Rome to teach the art; among whom was T. Flavius Expeiditus, whose image Spon has given from a sepulchral bass relief, where he is called *Doflor Sagittorum*.

The Persians and Parthians were reckoned very expert bowmen; and Herodotus, speaking of the army of Xerxes, mentions the following nations who were armed with bows and quivers; viz. the Persians, Medes, Assyrians, Scythians, Parthians, Indians, and Arabs, whose arrows for the most part were of cane, pointed with some hard consistence.

The forms of the ancient bow are pretty much alike, they have generally two inflections or bendings, between which, in the place where the arrow is laid, is a right line: These sort of bows must be composed of three different pieces of wood to be of such a form, which of course would give it elasticity and a stronger spring.

The common weapons of the Indians are bows and arrows; Columbus found them among the Caribbs and West Indians. In his second voyage, meeting with a canoe with four men and one woman, who perceiving they could not baffle their pursuers, put themselves in a posture of defence, and the female shot an arrow with such force and dexterity, that it

actually went through a strong target; but the Spaniard's attempting to board them, overset the canoe, so that they betook themselves to swimming, and one of them used his bow in the water as well as if he had been on dry land. Guadaloupe, at the first discovery, was inhabited by women only; these amazons opposed the landing of the Spaniards with their bows and arrows.

Several of the Indian nations shot poisoned arrows, but to the honour of Indian humanity, the use of such horrible weapons was among the capital part of them chiefly. Sir Walter Raleigh met with some of these in his voyage up the country of Guiana; and Cavendish had one of his men killed with a poisoned arrow at Sierra Leona.

The Brazilians, when discovered by De Cabral, a Portuguese captain, used bows, which they shot so dexterously, as very seldom to miss their aim, and their arrows were pointed with fish bone that would penetrate the thickest boards. In Drake's voyage, the Brazilian bows are described of an ell in length.

De Gama, another Portuguese, found bows and arrows in the East Indian isles; they were also used in Calcutta, which he experienced to the loss of a number of his men.

When the renowned Sir Francis Drake was making his expedition by land to intercept the Spanish caravan loaded with treasure, falling short of provisions, and not daring to fire a gun lest he should hazard a discovery, the Symerons who accompanied him supplied him with food with their bows and arrows: these people consisted of such Indians who fled from the cruelty of their masters, the Spaniards, and forming themselves into a strong body, built a town in an advantageous place, and resisted the Spaniards by force of arms.

I find no mention of the bow among the Britons, and the Romans making

making but little use of it, such instruments were not common till the coming of the Saxons, who (according to Verstegan) first brought them into general use in this land, and they most like had the knowledge thereof from their ancestors, the Scythians, who are before mentioned as excellent archers.

Camden thus speaks of archery :

“ Amongst all the English artillery, archery challengeth the pre-eminency as peculiar to our nation, as the Sariffa was to the Macedonians, the Gesa to the old Gauls, the Framea to the Germans, the Mocharra to the Greeks ; first shewed to the English by Danes, brought in by the Normans, continued by their successors, to the great glory of England is achieving honourable victories.”

The bows used by the English were long bows and cross bows : the long bow consisted of a single piece of wood, commonly yew, four or five feet long, the string of sinews or guts of animals : the arrows used with these bows were about a yard long, of light wood, headed with iron, and trimmed with feathers.

The cross bow was of steel, passing through a stock of wood, upon which it was charged ; the arrows shot from these were short, and made of iron, with a pyramidical point. They sometimes shot stones from these instruments.

The bow was not confined to martial purposes alone, but it was also used in sporting ; for birding there was a particular kind of arrow, called a bird-bolt. We read that Godfrey of Bulhogue, broached three swallows upon his arrow at one shot, when he commanded in the Holy-land, which being a thing very remarkable, he took the three birds for his coat of arms.

I cannot discover that the English had any number of bowmen at the memorable battle of Hastings ; but the Normans we are told had a considerable number of excellent

archers, headed by Fitz Osbern. King Harold was wounded in the eye by an arrow from one of these Norman bows, and was soon after slain by some who considered his death as the most important fruit of their victory.

King William the conqueror was an admirable archer, and was so strong, that none but himself could bend the bow he used. There is this curious poetic charter relating to archery extant in several of our historians :

I William King,
In the third year of my reign,
Give to the Norman Hunter,
To me that art dear,
The Hop and the Hoptown,
And all the bounds up and down
Under the earth to Hell,
Above the earth to Heaven,
From me and mine,
To thee and thine,
As good and as fair,
As ever mine were :
To witness that this is sooth,
I bite the wax with my tooth,
Before Juggo, Maud and Margery,
And my youngest son Henry :
For a bow and a broad arrow,
When I come to hunt upon Yarrow.

At the glorious battle of Crecy, the French had among them a body of Genoese archers, who at that time were reckoned excellent in the use of the bow ; these having their bow-strings moistened with rain, their arrows fell short for want of the usual elasticity. It is also recorded that the English had many bowmen, and the victory was chiefly owing to their valour and care in keeping their weapons dry.

The English at the battle of Poitiers made good use of their arrows ; and many other battles have been gained by the skill and valour of the English archers.

At the battle of Hallidown Hill, the Scots had 10,000 men ; the Percies of Northumberland opposed them. Speed

Speed gives us this description of the battle: "The chief feat was wrought by the English archers, who first with their stiff, close, and cruel storms of arrows, made their enemies footmen break; and when the noble Douglas descended to the charge, with his choicest bands, himself being in a most rich and excellently tempered armour, and the rest singularly well appointed; the Lord Percie's archers making a retreat, did withal deliver their deadly arrows, *tam vividé, tam animosé, tam gravitér,* (saith our monk) so lively, so courageously, so grievously, that they ran through the men of arms, bored the helmets, pierced their very swords, beat their lances to the earth, and easily shot those who were more slightly armed, through and through. There were taken prisoners, the Earl of Douglas himself (who, notwithstanding his armour of the best proof, had five wounds and lost an eye,) Murdake Steward, Earl of Fife (elder son to Robert Duke of Albany,) George Earl of Angus, the Earls of Murray and Orkney, the Lords Montgomerie, Erskine, and Grange, with about fourscore Knights, besides Esquires and Gentlemen."

At the battle of Agincourt, King Henry commanded two hundred bowmen to plant themselves in a meadow secured by a ditch and under cover of bushes, having stakes pointed at each end to plant against the approaches of the horses. The rest of his army he ranged in array, placing the men at arms in the main body, and the archers on each side; the vanguard, consisting solely of archers, was led by the Duke of York. Before the battle began, the king spoke these words: "Worthy Soldiers, and faithful companions, we are now going into the field of honour, exert yourselves to the utmost, that ages may know what the bow, lance, axe, and sword, can do in the hands of valiant men." When he had done, the army gave a shout, and the archers in the

ambush darkened the air with their arrows, few of which were shot in vain; at the same time the main battle advancing, with such courage had the king's words inspired them, that though before they could scarcely bend their bows, they were now able to draw their yard-long arrows to the head. The French horse charged the archers, who fixed their stakes, and retiring behind them, were secure, and made terrible slaughter of their enemies, the greater part of whose troops turned their backs and fled. The battle was a short time maintained by the French general and leaders, who courageously died, like men, on their enemies points, rather than dishonourably retreat. Before evening the field was clear, and no enemy to be seen.

In the battle of Bosworth, between King Richard III. and the Earl of Richmond, afterwards King Henry the Seventh, there were bowmen on both sides, who were ranged in front, and began the battle; the Duke of Norfolk commanded those on the side of King Richard, and the Earl of Oxford was captain of the Earl's archers. In Bosworth field was found, not many years since, the stock of a cross bow curiously carved; the figure of which is engraved in the Gentleman's Magazine.

King Henry the Seventh instituted a band of archers to guard his person, under the title of Yeomen of the Guard. This band is at present established; but they are now armed with swords and a kind of halberds, instead of bows—Still, to keep up the memory of their predecessors skill, they annually practise shooting with bow and arrows.

A. D. 1513, James, King of Scotland, invaded the English borders. The Earl of Surry, Lieutenant in the north, advanced to meet him, with 26,000 men; under the Earl Sir Edward Stanley commanded a reserved band of three companies of archers.

The

The battle (which happened at Flooden field) was bloody, and terminated in the total defeat of the Scots; whose King, with the Archbishop of St Andrews, two Abbots, twelve Earls, and seventeen Lords, were slain in the battle.

The use of the bow has, since the invention of gunpowder, gradually decreased; but archery has lately been drawn from obscurity, by societies of the nobility and gentry, who honour the memory of their ancestors so far as to patronize a science by which they attain so much renown.

The first dawn of modern society of Archers was, upwards of twenty years ago, instituted under the title of Finsbury Archers, now obsolete; not more than two of the members are at present in being; one of which, Mr Constable, is at present considered as Father of Archers; and if numerous prize arrows, &c. won by him, ought to confer that title, it is undoubtedly his.

The late Sir Ashton Lever was the cause of the revival of the science, and the society of Toxophilites owe their origin to him. Many other institutions rose under different titles, as, the Hatfield Archers, under the patronage of Lady Salisbury; the Royal British Bowmen, which society shot for the prizes given by His Royal Highness the Prince of Wales, on the 3d of Sept. 1790. The ladies prize, a gold medallion, was won by Lady Cunliff; and the gentleman's, a silver bugle horn, was gained by R. Hesketh, Esq.

The Caledonian, or Edinburgh Archers (the most numerous of any society, being above nine hundred in number), at whose grand match in 1789 Lord Aylesford attended; and the fame of his dexterity was blown so high, that the Caledonian band dreaded the issue of the encounter. Mr Gray, the writer to the signet, who is an incomparable shot, won the prize.

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The Royal Company of Archers in the month of August 1790, shot on the banks of the Tweed for the ancient arrow belonging to the town of Peebles, when Lord Elibank gained the prize:

The Loyal Archers assembled on St George's day, at Lewisham, to contest for the prize, which was won by W. Foster, Esq.

The Yorkshire Archers, at their September meeting, shot for their medals; the gold medal was gained by W. Lee, Esq; and the two silver medals by J. Dixon, and J. P. Neville, Esqrs. The Countess of Mexbro presided as patroness, and Earl Fitzwilliam as patron.

The Bowmen of Chevy Chase are a society formed in Northumberland; the patron, the Duke of that county, who presented them with a silver arrow.

Other societies bear the following appellations:

Robert Keith Bowmen,
Robin Hood Bowmen,
John of Gaunt Bowmen,
Woodmen of Arden,
Woodmen of Hornsey,
Henault Foresters,
Surrey Archers,
Southampton Archers;
and several others, which I omit, not through design, but want of information.

The annual meeting of all the Archers in England is held on Blackheath.

The only books published on Archery (my friend informed me of) are, Wood's Bowman's Glory, and Ascam's Toxophilus; the former about a century ago, the latter near thirty years.

The manufactory for implements of Archery is at Leicester House, established by Mr Waring.

This extract from the rules and orders of one of the above societies will serve as a general description of their uniform.

“ That

“ That every member of this society shall provide himself a Uniform, and necessary accoutrements for shooting, which shall consist of a green coat, white waistcoat and breeches, with metal buttons, having the arrow and bugle horn engraved thereon, a black hat, green and white feathers, white stockings, half boots, a buff-coloured leather belt, with a pouch and green tassel, and black leather brace.

“ That no member be allowed to shoot at a General Meeting, unless he is dressed in his uniform and accoutrements complete, nor at any other meeting, unless in his uniform coat and waistcoat.

Instance of the Tyranny exercised by Henry the VIII. in a Letter to Sir Ralf Eure.

[THE following introduction is the postscript of a letter from the council to the Earl of Shrewsbury, lord lieutenant in the North of England.]

“ We send herewith a letter to be conveyed with diligence to the warden of the Middle Marches, by the contents whereof your lordship may perceive our proceedings with one Reed, an alderman of London, who repairth down thither to serve in those parts; praying your lordship, at his passing by you northwards, to make him as strange countenance as the letter appointeth him strange service for a man of that sort. *Signed* Thomas Wriothesly, cancel. Charles Suffolk, William Paget.”

“ Indorsed Copy of the Letter to Sir Ralf Eure.

“ After our right hearty commendations. Whereas the King's Highness being burthened, as you know, with the inestimable charge of his wars (which his grace hath prosperously followed the space almost of one whole year, and must perforce, for the necessary defence of the realm, therein continue, it is not known how long,) hath, for the maintenance thereof, required lately a contribution by way of benevolence of his highness's loving subjects; and began the execution

thereof, first, with us of his grace's council, whom his majesty, according unto our most bounded duties, found in such conformity as we trust was to his grace's contentation; and from us proceeding unto the citizens of London, found them also, upon such declaration as was made unto them of the necessity of the thing, as honestly inclined to the uttermost of their powers, as they saw the request to be grounded upon most reasonable causes. Only one there was, named Richard Reed, alderman of London, in the said city, who notwithstanding both such necessary persuasions and declarations as for the purpose at great length were shewed unto him, and the consent also and the conformity thereunto of all his company) stood alone in the refusal of the same, not only himself, upon a disobedient stomach, utterly denying to give therein to the accomplishment of his duty in that part, but thereby also giving example as much as in one man mightily to breed a like *dissormity*, in a great many of the rest. And forasmuch as for the defence of the realm and himself, and for the continuance of his quiet life, he would not find in his heart to disburse a little quantity of his substance, his majesty hath thought it much reason to cause him to do some service for his country with his body,

body, whereby he might somewhat be instructed of the difference between the sitting quietly in his house, and the travel and danger which others daily do sustain, whereby he hath been hitherto maintained in the same; and for this purpose his grace hath thought good to send him unto your school, as you shall perceive by such letters as he shall deliver unto you, there to serve as a soldier, and yet both he and his men, at his own charge, requiring you, not only as you shall have occasion, to send forth to any

place for the doing of any enterprize upon the enemies, to cause him to ride forth to the same, and to do in all things as other soldiers are appointed to do without respect, but also to bestow him in such a place in garrison as he may feel what pains other poor soldiers abide abroad in the king's service, and know the smart of his folly and sturdy disobedience. Finally, you must use him in all things after the sharp discipline military of the northern wars. And thus, &c.'

Reflections on the late Prospect of a War with Russia.

ALTHOUGH the late differences of Great Britain with Russia appear now likely to be determined, as reason and sound policy should dictate, without having recourse to the rash and fatal expedient of commencing hostilities,—yet, as these kingdoms have but lately and critically escaped, engaging in a war contrary to their clearest interests, as well as to every principle becoming a free and enlightened people,—a few observations on the avowed purpose, and probable consequences of the officious mediation of the allied Courts with Russia in favour of the Turkish Empire, cannot be uninteresting to any person of a liberal mind, and more especially to an Englishman, who feels for the honour of his country, and whose heart glows with enlarged and general benevolence. Little indeed need be advanced to prove the unpopularity of a war with Russia.—very respectable minority in the House of Commons on that important question, supported by numerous addresses from without, are a sufficient indication of the public opinion—while the absurdity and bad policy of such a measure are amply exposed by the unanswerable arguments which have been urged by its opponents. The ostensible, yet flimsy pretext of pre-

serving the balance of power in Europe, appears on examination to be a more political bugbear, calculated for the meridian of the English, whose purses are ever open for a minister who keeps their minds in terror and alarm. Russia is, and ever must be, a most useful ally, but can never be a dangerous rival to Great Britain. The insular situation of all her European dominions renders them unassailable by the most powerful land forces,—while her fleets, riding triumphant over the ocean, mock all idea of fear from the naval power of Europe if combined. Secure in her impregnable situation,—invulnerable on every side, and incapable of injury from external violence, her only motive for engaging in a war is, or ought to be, to vindicate her honour, or to protect and extend her commerce. But neither her commerce nor her honour now calls on her in their defence. Her friendship is sought, nay courted by Russia, and the interests of her commerce are manifestly opposed to a war in which much may be lost, and nothing can be gained. The strong remonstrances from many of the most respectable trading towns, who all declare the commerce with Russia to be more lucrative to England than that with any other nation in Europe, are decisive

of the question, and must raise the astonishment of every impartial person at that oblique and perverted policy, which thus rashly throws away solid and immediate advantages, and hazards an expensive complicated war, for remote, contingent, and imaginary benefits;—administering to the interested ambition of a foreign State, and regardless of the happiness and tranquillity of our own. But waving the peculiar situation of England, and considering the question on a larger scale, as it interests the other nations of Europe; this epidemic dread of the Russian power appears equally futile and absurd. Even should the successes of their arms finally terminate in the expulsion of the Turks from Europe, and the establishment of a Christian and civilized power in Constantinople, it is hard to divine in what manner the rest of Europe could be injured. Indeed, the causes of the general alarm, which the very apprehension of this event seems to excite, are difficult to ascertain. Were one Sovereign to reign over the united empires of Russia and European Turkey, his power would undoubtedly be too great, although perhaps not greater than that of the Sultan at present; but it could not long subsist entire.—Natural and moral causes would combine to decompose such an unwieldy mass formed of discordant parts. The most that could be apprehended would be, that the present Empress's two grandsons would share the dominion between them, with however great deductions, which the claims of all the neighbouring States, and perhaps some remote ones would occasion, from the territories of the Turks as at present established. But even were a grandson of the Empress to found a Monarchy at Constantinople over the whole of European Turkey, what is to be feared at the utmost, but a family compact, which, as the ties of consanguinity abated of their force, and partial interests created separate views, would gradually be-

come less firm, and could never separate with that unity of design, and energy of action, as to injure, much less endanger, other European powers. A striking instance of the force of this observation occurs in the history of this century; the alarm which was general on account of the House of Bourbon possessing both France and Spain, has proved visionary, and Europe now despises the formerly terrific phantom of universal Monarchy. But considering the question even in this point of view, surely the Christian Sovereign of Constantinople would be much less formidable than the Sultan, aided as he is, by the weak and population of his Asiatic territories, and supported by the whole force of the Barbary States, and numerous hords of Tartars. This vast mass of power, roused into exertion at some critical and favourable period, by fanaticism and religious zeal, by the memory of pristine conquests, and by the prospect of Paradise opened to all who die Martyrs to their faith, might perhaps be more than Europe could withstand.

Instead, therefore, of considering Russia as likely to become the oppressor, we should rather regard her as the defender of Europe, as its great bulwark against this truly formidable and tremendous force of the Turks, a barbarous, fierce, and bloody enemy, who have always surveyed it as their destined prey, and affected to permit it to exist only by sufferance. We should not lightly esteem the Ottoman Power, because it is at present from mismanagement inert and ineffective, nor praise the Turkish domination, because their haughty manners and barbarous insolence have been humbled by defeat. The same bigoted, rancorous hatred of Christians, the same fierce and savage manners, the same frantic zeal for extending their superstition (as it is said, their Sultan's motto expresses it) *domus totius impleat orbem*, remain in as full force as ever, or rather are from restraint be-

come more violent, as the fury of a wild beast is fiercer from confinement. In order to understand the genius and spirit of that barbarous empire, let us survey it, not at the time of humiliation, but of success: would our modern politicians, who feel so tremblingly alive for the balance of power but turn to the history of the rise and progress of this formidable people, they might find indeed an object of terror. When their vast armies overspread the finest provinces of Europe, desolation marked their course; their conquests have ever been attended by all the ravages of fire and sword: "Before them the land was as the garden of Eden, and behind them a desolate wilderness."—While their regular forces encountered armies, and destroyed cities, their savage Tartar allies, like a devouring fire, laid waste the country, levelled with the ground every monument of human art or industry; and, after the massacre of the husband and the father, carried the wretched mother and child into hopeless captivity; lo! those are the allies of our refined—our polished nation!—On the contrary, civilization and improvement attend the successes of the Russian arms; and the advancement of their power may be traced in the downfall of barbarism. It is an opinion of the celebrated Gibbons, and it well deserves the most serious consideration, that the progressive increase of the Russian dominion over the uncivilized Tartars, is to be estimated as one of the greatest blessings, of the most fortunate circumstances of the present age. By the gradual inroads of civilization on the wilds of Tartary, both on the side of China and of Russia, the savage and independent tribes are confined within comparatively narrow limits, and from that principally, among other favourable events, does he venture to felicitate Europe; on the improbability of her ever again undergoing the calamities which attended the downfall of the

Roman Empire from the interruption of Barbarians. How narrow then, how wretched this policy, that would, for some paltry illusive advantage, check the progressive improvement of mankind, and restrain the only power that can subdue the fierce and bloody Tartar, change the brute into a man, and cheer the desolate regions of Asia, with agriculture, with arts, in future perhaps with science—thus, as far as in us lies, confirming the reign of ignorance, of barbarism, and of misery.—But turning our eyes from the dreary wastes of Tartary, let us contemplate the condition of those wretched European provinces which have for some centuries groaned under the Ottoman yoke; whose situation is the best comment on, and amply unfolds the nature and principles of the government of the Turks. Their original conquests were not more destructive than is their pertinacity, established sway: their first invasion desolates, their confirmed power depresses and degrades, by severe and cruel bondage; their barbarous and exclusive maxims of policy preventing that assimilation, that incorporation of the conquering and the conquered, which in almost all other instances has at length blended them into one people; but these tyrants, after being possessed for centuries of that unhappy country, still oppress it with all the outrages and evils of recent conquest, and the present inhabitants feel the yoke of slavery as heavy as did their forefathers. Are these a people to be supported and protected by the civilized part of Europe? The same contracted policy which now prevents their overthrow originally contributed to their success; and if in the various and unforeseen revolution is of human affairs their discipline should arrive at equal perfection with ours, the immense momentum of their mighty empire, actuated as formerly by enthusiasm, and directed by prudence, might deluge

large the rest of Europe with blood, and subdue it to the law of Mahomet. Let no one imagine the tide of success is so turned against them, that it can never return, nor suppose that their appearing content with their present dominions arises from moderation. Let such as are, under so great a delusion turn to that most entertaining volume, the life of the great Sobieski King of Poland, they will there find that, though repeatedly defeated, they always rose again with fresh vigour; they will also meet a detail of such accumulated instances of savage, barbarity, oppression and cruelty, as are horrid in the extreme; and then how unjustly those persons arrogated the title of liberal minded, who support a power which inevitably and necessarily renders every country miserable which has the severe misfortune of falling under its yoke. They will find also that it is little more than one hundred years since the Turks besieged, and were on the very point of taking Vienna; the relief of which place forms the most splendid era of that hero's history.—Had Providence permitted that capital of Germany to fall under their dominion, his Prussian Majesty, instead of being their protector, might ere now have been their vassal;—that barrier once burst, how far the raging torrent might have flowed, no human wisdom can ascertain.

As the history of Sobieski shews the tremendous power and political tyranny, so the late Memoirs of the celebrated Tott unfold to us their civil and domestic oppression; and that as they render every country miserable which falls under their iron rod, so they themselves are equally wretched from their corrupt and baneful government, whose horrid policy blasts every opening bud of genius or merit, and sends the fatal bowstring to the most prudent statesman or gallant commander, if inevitable misfortune shall defeat his best laid plans, or boldest

enterprizes, or even without that pretence, if the intrigues of the Seraglio shall demand a victim, or the avarice of the Sultan require a wealthy criminal.

But in taking a review of the calamities which attend the establishment of the Turkish Government, (more especially over a country which has once been blessed with science and with freedom) one of the most affecting parts of the scene is the degraded situation of the female sex.—Woman, lovely woman, endowed with all the soft and tender sympathies, most admirably framed both in body and mind, to embellish the creation, to exalt society into rapture,—and soften friendship into love;—woman, the solace of our care, the soother of adversity, the enlivening companion, the steadfast unshaken friend, is there regarded solely as the object of brutal appetite.—The gross sensualist, stranger to all the delicate refinements of sentiment,—insensible to the exquisite delights of sincere and mutual affection,—perverts this first best gift of heaven by misuse;—and sinks the wife, the friend, the companion, into the slave.—To gratify his erring and depraved sense, he repairs, in order to procure a partner of his bed, a solace of his cares, a mother for his children, to—the PUBLIC MARKET.—Blush—blush—manhood; at the foul disgrace,—at the outrage thus offered to the charming, the helpless, the weeping maid; dragged from all the endearments of parental tenderness, by a band of savage Tartars, who thus provide the proud and lustful Turk with a succession of fresh victims, “meanly possessed of a mere lifeless violated form,”—torn, perhaps, from the arms of the virtuous and beloved youth on whom her innocent heart had bestowed its most ardent affections, with whom she fondly imagined scenes of pure and permanent felicity,—the partner of her choice, “with whose sweet converse blessed,” she hoped to pass the varied scenes of life,—torn from every early attachment,
and

and all the social ties which entwine around the heart, and become a part of our existence, by rude and unhal- lowed hands,—she is offered up a sac- rifice to brutal passion;—with a soul harrowed by all the phrenzy of despair, she is borne to the accursed Haram of a lewd, a cruel, and unfeeling man; perhaps no less an object of loathing and disgust as to his person, than of contempt and hatred with respect to his manners, his sentiments, and his character. There Hymen bears his torch inverted,—his saffron robe and crown of flowers exchanged for em- bloms of despair,—and his song of joy for sighs and tears, and bitter lamenta- tions. Is there then no saving hand to rescue innocence oppressed?—to snatch the shrieking victim from this temple of pollution? Alas none!— Our enlightened times have it seems discovered, that, to preserve liberty in the West of Europe, it is requisite that the East should suffer all the rigours of slavery,—that, to promote know- ledge amongst us, intellectual darkness should overshadow the original seat of arts and sciences,—from whence we, having borrowed them, thus repay our matters;—to confirm and diffuse the pure and holy religion of Christ, it is found proper that the gross supersti- tions and sensuality of Mahomet should reign triumphant over half the world, —probably from a pious care, that ours may shine the brighter from the contrast.

To enter here into an examination of their respective merits, were foreign to the purpose, and would open too wide a field for discussion,—those who wish to understand what Mahometan- ism truly is, may consult the elegant Sermons of Mr Whire of Oxford, com- posed expressly on that subject, and which display such a fund of erudi- tion, are so replete with sound reason- ing, and instructive entertaining infor- mation, and are clothed in the garb of such a truly harmonious and classical style, as raise them above commendation,—all that is, or can be intended

from these remarks, is to convey to those who have not much turned their thoughts to this subject, a slight idea of the manifold imperfections of the Turkish establishments, religious, ci- vil, and domestic;—the former are more striking to the world, the latter more affecting to the heart.—Amongst them, “relations dear, and all the charities of father, son, and brother,” if not unknown, are at least felt with diminished force. The affection of the husband and the father, divided and distracted amongst a multiplicity of objects, must of course sink to a mere vague obtuse sensation, which vi- brates feebly at the heart, and is in- capable of calling forth the finer and more vivid sentiments which arise from the social affections when concentrated to the focus of a family united in inter- ests, held together in the silken cords of delicate and mutual affection.

Whichever way we turn our eyes in the Turkish empire, cruelties and out- rages wound our feelings, and call forth our indignation.—One viola- tion of the rights of nature creates another. In order to retain securely the wretched females whom their lust has doomed to captivity, human nature itself is dishonoured by the mutilated wretches who are stationed as their guards. This enormous insult to manhood is necessarily connected with the tyranny exercised over the other sex; having transgressed the bounds of nature in collecting the victims of their base passions, they found that nature furnished them not with the means of detaining them;— from women they could hope for no- thing but deceit;—where no confi- dence is placed, no fidelity can be expected.—To men,—their luscious treasures were objects solely of envy and rivalry. They were therefore of course compelled to pass the bounds of nature, for beings in whom they could confide; and who, forced in youth from the bosom of their coun- try, deprived of all possibility of so-
cial

cial joys, and looking up to their tyrant for subsistence, are ready instruments to diffuse that misery which they so keenly feel. Can fancy picture a more gloomy terrific image than the establishment of such a family?—Well may we say *Præfectura illius domus seculū non mittit aulā;*—Family—did I say! A family is a scene of the purest, the most refined pleasures;—“there Love his golden shafts employs, there lights his constant lamp, and waves his purple wings.”—But, alas! ill does that endearing title besit such an household.—Can the joys, the delights, the blandishments of a family, cheer the abode of the tyrant and his slaves? Such endearments as pass between the commander of a galley, and the wretches at the oar,—between the goaler and his prisoners,—the executioner and the criminal,—such, and such only can be experienced within the dreary walls of a Turkish Haram,—which we may justly term “regions of sorrow, doleful shades, where peace can never dwell, hope never comes.”

Upon the whole, it appears manifest, that every impartial person who takes a general view of the state of Society among the Turks, who examines into the radical imperfections of their religion, laws, and policy,—and traces the innumerable vices, and gross corruption of their government throughout all their dominions, will be constrained to acknowledge that such a depraved, perverted system of affairs demands renovation.—Indeed such is the general wickedness of the inhabitants, that there cannot remain a doubt that a conquest of their country by a civilized and enlightened nation would not only prove a glorious emancipation to their Christian subjects, but would be even, for the Mahometans themselves, an happy change.—The enlightened and liberal manners of the present times would sufficiently secure them from the horrors of religious persecution, which was the characteristic and everlasting reproach of

the darker ages; and particularly of the famous Crusaders, who went, as Thompson strongly expresses it, “to destroy bigotry with the spirit of bigotry.”—But fanaticism is now no more; and though the Turkish Empire should be overthrown, the Turkish religion would not suffer persecution. Such an event may therefore be desired by the most liberal and unprejudiced mind; and such we may still hope this age will see, notwithstanding all the efforts of narrow and short-sighted policy.

Let us judge of the present from the past,—and by the light of experience decide this question.—Spain was for several centuries under the government of Moorish Kings. Although in their expulsion scenes of horrid persecution arose, yet those enormities took place from the spirit of the times, and are not again to be apprehended. But except in those circumstances (which every person of true Christianity must undoubtedly abhor and reprobate), let those who are most solicitous to preserve the Turkish Empire unbroken, declare whether it be not for the advantage of Europe, and the general interests of humanity, that Spain should be, as it is at present, in the hands of a Christian power, rather than of its former Masters. Although its government be arbitrary, no one surely will compare it with Turkish despotism: besides, being within the sphere and attraction of other Christian States, it may, most probably will, imbibe the spirit of reformation civil and religious matters. The sparks of freedom which already appear may ere long kindle a flame, before such superstition and tyranny will melt away. All this is within possibility,—nay, is highly probable; but had it remained under Mahometan government, such a change could not have been. In Christian countries liberty “may flourish or may fade,”—but in Mahometan ones it is an exotic,—it cannot exist,—on that it must perish. If attempted

tempted to be transplanted there, its root will ever fail, and all the beautiful verdure, and "blushing honours" of its head, shrink and wither at the touch of that pestilential air, where never did, nor ever can subsist, liberty, in any form, or under any

modification whatever. Those, therefore, who with the support of Mammetanism against Christianity, with the triumph of Falsehood over Truth, —of Bigotry over Liberty—of Barbarism over Civilization,—and of DESPOTISM OVER LIBERTY.

The Magnitude of the Trade of India by Land, illustrated by an Account of two Caravans which visit Mecca.*

IN order to give an adequate idea of the extensive circulation of Indian commodities by land carriage, it would be necessary to trace the route, and to estimate the number of the various caravans by which they are conveyed.— Could this be executed with accuracy, it would be a curious object of geographical research, as well as a valuable addition to commercial history. Though it is inconsistent with the brevity which I have uniformly studied in conducting this disquisition, to enter into a detail of so great length, it may be proper here, for illustrating this part of my subject, to take such a view of two caravans which visit Mecca, as may enable my readers to estimate more justly the magnitude of their commercial transactions. The first is the caravan which takes its departure from Cairo in Egypt, and the other from Damascus in Syria; and I select these, both because they are the most considerable, and because they are described by authors of undoubted credit, who had the best opportunities of receiving full information concerning them. The former is composed, not only of pilgrims from every part of Egypt, but of those which arrive from all the small Mahomedan states on the African coast of the Mediterranean, from the empire of Morocco and even from the Negroe kingdoms on the Atlantic. When assembled, the caravan

consists at least of fifty thousand persons, and the number of camels employed in carrying water, provisions; and merchandize, is still greater. The journey, which, in going from Cairo and returning thither, is not completed in less than a hundred days, is performed wholly by land; and as the route lies mostly thro' sandy deserts, or barren uninhabited wilds, which seldom afford any subsistence, and where often no sources of water can be found, the pilgrims always undergo much fatigue, and sometimes must endure incredible hardships. An early and good description of this caravan is published by Hakluyt, vol. ii. p. 202; &c. Maillet has entered into a minute and curious detail with regard to it; Description de l'Egypte, part ii. p. 212, &c. Pocock has given a route, together with the length of each day's march, which he received from a person who had been fourteen times at Mecca, vol. i. pp. 188, 261, &c.—The caravan from Damascus, composed of pilgrims from almost every province of the Turkish empire, is little inferior to the former in number, and the commerce which it carries on is hardly less valuable. Voyage de Volney, tom. ii. p. 251, &c. This pilgrimage was performed in the year 1741, by Khizeh Abdulkurream.

He gives the usual route from Damascus to Mecca, computed by hours,

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* From "The Notes to Dr Robertson's Historical Disquisition."

the common mode of reckoning a journey in the East through countries little frequented. According to the most moderate estimate, the distance between the two cities, by his account, must be above a thousand miles; a great part of the journey is through a desert, and the pilgrims not only endure much fatigue, but are often exposed to great danger from the wild Arabs. *Memoirs*, p. 114, &c. It is a singular proof of the predatory spirit of the Arabs, that although all their independent tribes are zealous Mahomedans, yet they make no scruple of plundering the caravans of pilgrims, while engaged in performing one of the most indispensable duties of their religion. Great as these caravans are, we must not suppose that all the pilgrims who visit Mecca belong to them; such considerable additions are received from the extensive dominions of Persia, from every province of Indostan, and the countries to the East of it, from Abyssinia, from various states on the Southern coast of Africa, and from all parts of Arabia, that, when the whole are assembled, they have been computed to amount to two hundred thousand. In some years the number is farther increased by small bands of pilgrims from several interior provinces of Africa; the names and situations of which are just beginning to be known in Europe. For this last fact we are indebted to the Association for promoting the Discovery of the Interior Parts of Africa, formed by some British gentlemen, upon principles so liberal, and with views so public-spirited, as do honour to themselves and to their country. *Proceedings*, &c. p. 174.

In the Report of the Committee of the Privy Council on the Slave Trade other particulars are contained; and it appears that the commerce carried on by caravans in the interior parts of Africa, is not only widely extended, but of considerable value. Besides the great caravan which proceeds to Cairo, and is joined by Mahomedan

pilgrims from every part of *Afr* there are caravans which have no object but commerce, which set out from Fez, Algiers, Tunis, Tripoli, and other states on the sea-coast, and penetrate far into the interior country.—Some of them take no less than fifty days to reach the place of their destination; and, as the medium of their rate of travelling may be estimated at about eighteen miles a-day, the extent of their journey may be easily computed. As both the time of their outset and their route are known, they are met by the people of all the countries through which they travel who trade with them. Indian goods of every kind form a considerable article in this traffic; in exchange for which the chief commodity they can give is Slaves. As the journeys of the caravans, which are purely commercial, do not commence at stated seasons, and their routes vary according to the convenience or fancy of the merchants of whom they are composed, a description cannot be given of them with the same degree of accuracy. But by attending to the accounts of some authors, and the occasional hints of others, sufficient information may be gathered, to satisfy us that the circulation of Eastern goods by these caravans is very extensive. The same intercourse which was anciently kept up by the provinces in the North-east of Asia with Indostan and China, still subsists. Among all the numerous tribes of Tartars, even of those which retain their pastoral manners in greatest purity, the demand for the productions of these two countries is very considerable. *Voyages de Pallas*, tom. i. p. 357, &c. tom. ii. p. 422. In order to supply them with these caravans set out annually from Boghar, (*Hackhuyt*, vol. i. p. 332.) Samarcand, Thibet, and several other places, and return with large cargoes of Indian and Chinese goods. But the trade carried on between Russia and China in this part of Asia is by far the most extensive

contribute to publish what is probable, was kept between them from the earliest period, but it increased greatly after the interior parts of Russia were rendered more accessible by the conquests of Zingis Khan and Tamerlane. The commercial nations of Europe were so well acquainted with the mode of carrying on this trade, that soon after the Portuguese had opened the communication with the East by the Cape of Good Hope, an attempt was made, in order to diminish the advantages which they derived from this discovery, to prevail on the Russians to convey India and Chinese commodities through the whole extent of their empire, partly by land-carriage, and partly by means of navigable rivers, to some port on the Baltic, from which they might be distributed through every part of Europe. Ramusio, *Raccolto da Viaggi*, vol. i. p. 374. B.

This scheme, too great for the monarch then on the throne of Russia to carry into execution, was rendered practicable by the conquests of Ivan Basilowitz, and the genius of Peter the Great. Though the capitals of the two empires were situated at the immense distance of six thousand three hundred and seventy-eight miles from each other, and the route lay for above four hundred miles through an uninhabited desert, (*Bell's Travels*, vol. iii. p. 167.) caravans travelled from the one to the other. But though it had been stipulated when this intercourse was established, that the number of persons in each caravan should not exceed two hundred, and though they were shut up within the walls of a Caravanserai during the short time they remained in Pekin, and were allowed to deal only with a few merchants, to whom a monopoly of the trade with them had been granted; yet, notwithstanding all these restraints and precautions, the jealous vigilance with which the Chinese government excludes foreigners from a free intercourse with its subjects

was alarmed, and the admission of the Russian caravans into the empire was soon prohibited. After various negotiations, an expedient was at length devised, by which the advantages of mutual commerce were secured, without infringing the cautious arrangements of Chinese policy. On the boundary of the two empires, two small towns were built almost contiguous, the one inhabited by Russians, the other by Chinese. To these all the marketable productions of their respective countries are brought by the subjects of each empire; and the furs, the lins and woollen cloth, the leather, the glass, &c. of Russia, are exchanged for the silk, the cotton, the tea, the rice, the toys, &c. of China. By some well-judged concessions of the sovereign now seated on the throne of Russia, whose enlarged mind is superior to the illiberal maxims of some of her predecessors, this trade is rendered so flourishing, that its amount annually is not less than eight hundred thousand pounds Sterling; and it is the only trade with China carried on almost entirely by barter. Mr Coxe, in his account of the Russian discoveries, has collected, with his usual attention and discernment, every thing relative to this branch of trade, the nature and extent of which were little known in Europe. Chap. ii. iii. iv. Nor is this the only place where Russia receives Chinese and Indian commodities. A considerable supply of both is brought by caravans of independent Tartars to Orenburg, on the river Jaik, *Voyage de Pallas*, tom. i. p. 355, &c. to Traitzkaia, on the river Our, and to other places which I might mention. I have entered into this long detail concerning the mode in which the productions in India and China are circulated through Russia, as it affords the most striking instances I know, of the great extent to which valuable commodities may be conveyed by land-carriage.

Letter from the late Bishop of Derry to Mrs. ^{Conn. every part of} ~~Sullivan~~ ^h ~~hav~~

MADAM,

March, 1718-19.

I Was ashamed to thank you for the honour of your letter, till I could assure you that I had executed your commands; and though my bookseller sent me word yesterday that those, then ordered, were gone from London, I would have deferred giving notice till another post, rather than have written in so great a hurry, unless my Lord had laid his positive commands on me to let you know this very evening, that he is extremely uneasy at not having heard from you for the last month. I beg you, therefore, Madam, to look on this as a letter from his Secretary, and expect that I pay the great debt of civility which I owe you, in a more careful and respectful manner, which I shall most certainly do very soon. But how great soever the hurry is in which I write, I cannot omit telling you the late accident at court, which is now the subject of all conversation. You have read, to be sure, the Beggar's opera: the success of it encouraged the poet to write a sequel to it, in which Macheath the highwayman is represented as advanced to be the treasurer of a gang of pirates, makes fashionable use of his trust, and is at last pulled to pieces: it is writ with spirit and satire, the wit is new, the humour gay, and the reflections pointed at high life. This alarmed the men in power; it was thought a reflection, or, if not designed, the party people would apply it; and therefore

it was discreetly forbid being acted; I say discreetly, for who can support the laugh against them? You will know that the 'Clouds' of Aristophanes occasioned the death of Socrates by its ridicule; and as much an advocate as I am for ministers, I cannot flatter them so much as to say, they have more innocence and virtue than that martyr for the religion of nature. This, to be sure, quite irritated the town; they would have their diversion, come what would of it; and tried every way to get the refusal recalled, but in vain. At the head of those solicitors appeared the Dutchess of Queensbury; she summoned all her beauty to her aid to support her favourite author Gay, a good-natured harmless creature, who meant no mortal injury, no not a statesman, though others might use, perhaps, his name to publish their own smartness in disguise. Her patronage was in vain; the play was not ever to be performed. But if not acted, they were resolved to print it; and try by subscriptions to make up his loss of a third day. The same lady, with charms that never before could beg in vain, entreats every toupee, and every patriot or politician, for the encouragement of a guinea; and her success was beyond her hope. She solicited the people at court with all the insolence of a fine face, and solicited not only in the court, but the very King and Queen themselves*, to contribute

* Gay, in a letter to Swift, dated March 18, 1728-29, says, You may undoubtedly have heard that the Dutchess took up my defence with the King and Queen in the cause of my play, and that she hath been forbid the court for interesting herself to increase my fortune, by the publication of it, without being acted. The Duke, too, hath given up his employment (which he would have done if the Dutchess had not met with this treatment,) upon account of ill usage from the ministers; but this halted him in what he had determined. The play is now almost printed with the music, words, and basses, engraved on thirty-one copperplates, which, by my friend's assistance, hath a probability to

Utility of the Larch Tree.

contribute to publish what they had before condemned. This was rightly resented; and the vice-chamberlain commanded to forbid her the court. He went with unwilling obedience, and performed, with the utmost civility, the uneasy duty, and with such good-breeding softened the message as to please and oblige, whilst he gave the offence. The lady, in all the haughtiness of conscious beauty, returned an answer; but, lest it should be mis-interpreted, delivered it in writing. She was surpris'd, but pleas'd at the message to her; she never came to the court for her own pleasure, but to pay civility to the King and Queen; and she doubted not but such unprecedented a proceeding would soon make the court as thin as their Majesties seem'd to wish it. If none were to appear there but those who would deceive and impose on them, and it was to be judg'd a crime to protect merit and innocence, she was not displeas'd at being forbid—it was to this effect. The next morning the Duke went and resign'd his post of Lord High Admiral of Scotland; and the Dutchess had near seven hundred of the first quality that day to comfort her in this disgrace at her levee. The

town takes part in this affair; the poets appear for their patroness, and wit is every day drawn in defence of the fair one. I have only just time to tell you the fact; you can, better than I, judge of the prudence of him who advis'd the King, and set his wit against a woman. The highest crime that could be committed less than treason, they say, could not have been punish'd severer; and others add, that supporting a satire on a Prime Minister, is the greatest that can be committed next to treason. I have writ this in so much haste, that I fear you will not be able to read it; but if you will pardon this fault, then I fear it will only encourage me to be guilty in the same way more frequently; but the oftener I offend, the oftener you will have an opportunity of exercising your goodness; and if I cannot give you pleasure from what I write, I shall by that; for no person ever practis'd a virtue but was happy when he did it.

I am, MADAM,

YOUR

Most obliged,

Most obedient, most humble servant,

T. RUNDLE.

Utility of the Larch.

LARCH, by experiments made, is found to be to the full as durable for naval purposes as the oak, and is therefore the best succedaneum for it. As I live within sight of the Malvern hills, I cannot help lamenting that they are not planted with Larch, which would thrive well.

The same may be said of many spots on the Cotswold hills on one side; and it may also of the Welch hills, on which oak would never grow to any size. How many hills in Surrey, Hampshire, Wiltshire, are too steep for the plough, and so dry in the summer as scarcely to afford a scanty

turn out greatly to my advantage. The Dutchess of Marlborough gave me a 100l. for one copy, and others have contributed very handsomely; but as my account is not yet settled, I cannot tell you particulars.

After a lapse of forty-eight years, Mr Colman, in 1777, produced, 'Polly' at the Haymarket Theatre, where it was acted eight times, and the same Dutchess of Queensbury was present at each representation. She survived but a few weeks.

scanty bite to a few sheep; yea, planted with Larch, might become useful ornaments to this country! When passing from London to Portsmouth, the brims of the Devil's Punch-bowl strike the eye as a spot which, thus planted, might become as pleasant an object as it is now disagreeable or frightful in dark or cloudy weather. This idea strikes more particularly, as being so near to the great naval repository.

The Larch is equally useful for many purposes in husbandry, and in domestic uses. For the latter it has one quality that renders it peculiarly desirable, viz. that it is the most susceptible of fire of any timber. Added to these useful purposes, it will not take up any grounds fit for the oak; for strong soils are the only ones on which it does not thrive.

These considerations tempt me to send you an account of an easy and expeditious way of raising them, not founded on theory, but on the practice of many years; a practice in which willows have been planted in some of the coldest situations in Scotland, where they are of a remarkably quick growth, and yet the wood is very fine grained. The planter has now many trees of his own planting which are six feet in circumference at the height of three feet from the ground. The Duke of Athol has now Larches, planted in 1743, which are upwards of eight feet in circumference.

The method of getting the seeds out of the cones is, not to gather them till about Candlemas, when they begin to drop off the trees. At the end of April, or beginning of May, sooner or later, as the weather serves, prepare some beds in a nursery, to which the sun has free access and lay the cones on that bed as thick as they lay clear of one another, and the sun will soon open them, and they will shed their seed. The owner should, from time to time, examine what quantity of seed they have shed; and

as soon as he finds that there is seed enough to fill the ground with plants, the cones should be carried off the ground, and set on them about a quarter of an inch thick of good mould. The cones may then be carried to another bed, and laid as before, and they will fill it with seed in good time to yield plants that season. If the cones are kept dry during the winter, more seed may, in the same manner, be procured next season.

When the plants are two years old, they may be planted in the autumn, or next spring; but the autumn is thought the best, particularly in dry soils; for, if the spring is dry, the ground will be so dry as to kill the plants. They are planted out with a narrow iron spade, with which a cross cut is made to receive the plant.

When the plants stand another year in the seed-bed, or have been a year in a nursery, they then push out to such a height, that it is necessary to dig small pits for them, which is the surest way. The young plants must be well fenced from cattle, especially sheep, which are very fond of them; and, when the head is cut off by any accident, it impairs the heart of the tree to the very root.

As they overtop almost every other tree, they are the more exposed to every high wind; other quick-growing trees should therefore be planted among them; or they may be planted in clumps, so as to protect one another.

Another advantage might attend the planting the dry eminences; that, when the young trees have grown up, the earth is so much shaded, that the dews and rain are not so soon exhaled by the sun and winds as in open situations. By this means the moisture penetrates deeper, till it meets with a substance impervious to water; it then descends on that substance till it again reaches the surface, and breaks out in springs. Thus water may be procured in such dry situations, where it may be much wanted for affording drink

drink to cattle and sheep feeding on the plainer grounds below. Some years ago mention was made, in the "Annals of Agriculture," of a method of making ponds in such dry situations, which must be of great advantage there. The want of water in extensive plains often obliges the inhabitants to build their houses in the neighbourhood of the nearest stream.

This distance may create great expense, both in the loss of time, and in the carriage of manure to, and the articles of growth from, such places. Farmers are not at all times sufficiently aware of the value of time thus lost; and, as it is the master's eye that makes the horse fat, so the master's eye may be much wanted in such distant spots. AGRICOLA.

Anecdotes of celebrated Trees*.

SOME of the noblest oaks in England were at least formerly found in Suffex. They required sometimes a score of oxen to draw them; and were carried in a sort of wain, which in that deep country is expressively called a *tugg*. Two or three years was not an uncommon space of time for a tree to spend in performing its journey to Chatham. One *tugg* carried the load but a little way, and left it for another *tugg* to take up. If the rains set in, it stirred no more that year; and sometimes no part of the next summer was dry enough for the *tugg* to proceed. So that the timber was generally pretty well seasoned before it arrived at the King's yard.—I suppose the same mode of carriage still continues.

If I chose to lengthen my catalogue of celebrated trees, I might produce an innumerable host of such as have been mentioned casually by historians, and travellers, in all ages; as the plane-tree hanging over the temple of Delphos, which Theophrastus supposes was as ancient as the times of Agamemnon—that also by which Socrates used to swear—the olive tree at Linturnum, planted by Scipio Africanus—the tilia of Bassi, under which the German emperors used to dine—the *malus medica* at the monastery of Fun-

di revered by Thomas Aquinas—the oak at Bruges, which Francis the first immured—the lime-tree in Sweden, which gave name to the family of the celebrated Linnæus—trees which Captain Cook found in the Western parts of California, measuring sixty feet in circumference, and rising to the height of one hundred and fifty feet without a single knot—solid trees, which have been scooped into canoes, capable of holding thirty or forty men; particularly one, on record, at Congo, which held two hundred. I might add also Arthur's table, in the town-hall of Winchester, which has been cut out of a tree of immense girth.—The Cheltenham oak might also be introduced, which, as near its roots as you can walk, exceeds twenty paces round—the Cawthorpe oak also, which at the ground exceeded twenty six yards—the Bently-oak in Holt-forest, which, at seven feet from the ground, was thirty-four feet in circumference—the Swilter-oak in Needwood-forest, which I believe was equal to any of them†. With an innumerable list of this kind I might swell my page; but I reject all such trees, as have either been only casually mentioned—or have had their value merely ascertained by a timber-merchant's rule.

The

* From "Gilpin's Remarks on Forest Scenery."

† Many of these trees are mentioned by Mr. Evelyn, and the rest are collected from the topographical remarks of travellers and historians.

The largest tree that ever was known to be brought into Britain, formed the main mast of the Royal Sovereign in Queen Anne's time. It was ninety feet long, and thirty-five inches in diameter.

Mr Evelin, from whom we have this account, mentions in the same place a still larger tree, which formed the keel of the Crown, a French ship of the last century. It was one hundred and twenty feet long.

The masts of our ships of war, at present, are never made of single trees. It is the method to lay two or three trees together, and fitting them tight to each other, to bind them close, at proper distances with pitched ropes. But a very noble fir was lately brought into England, which was not spliced in the common mode, but was converted, in its full dimensions, into the bowsprit of the Britannia, a new ship of one hundred and ten guns; in which capacity I have heard it serves at present. This fir was ninety-six feet in length.

The oaks of Chaucer are celebrated, in the annals of poetry, as the trees, under which

—the laughing sage
Carolled his moral song—

They grew in the park at Donnington-castle, near Newbery, where Chaucer spent his latter life in studious retirement.—The largest of these trees was called the *king's-oak*, and carried an erect stem of fifty feet before it broke into branches, and was cut into a beam five feet square.—The next in size was called the *queen's-oak*, and survived the calamities of the civil wars in King Charles' time; though Donnington-castle and the country around it were so often the scenes of action and desolation.—Its branches were very curious; they pushed out from the stem in several uncommon directions, imitating the horns of a ram rather than the branches of an oak. When it was felled, it yielded a beam forty feet long, with-

out knot or blemish, perfectly straight, four feet square at the but-end, and near a yard at the top.—The third of these oaks was called *Chaucer's*, of which we have no particulars; in general, only, we are told, that it was a noble tree, though inferior to either of the others. None of them, I should suppose from this account, was a tree of picturesque beauty. A straight stem, of forty or fifty feet, let its head be what it will, can hardly produce a picturesque form. When we admired the *stoue-pine*, we supposed its stem to take a sweeping line; and to be broken also with stumps, or decayed branches.

Close by the gate of the water-walk, at Magdalen college in Oxford, grew an oak, which perhaps stood there a sapling, when Alfred the Great founded the university. This period only includes a space of nine hundred years, which is no great age for an oak. It is a difficult matter indeed to ascertain the age of a tree. The age of a castle or abbey is the object of history, even a common house is recorded by the family that built it. All these objects arrive at maturity in their youth, if I may so speak. But the tree gradually completing its growth, is not worth recording in the early part of its existence. It is then only a common tree; and afterwards, when it becomes remarkable for its age, all memory of its youth is lost. This tree, however, can almost produce historical evidence for the age assigned to it. About five hundred years after the time of Alfred, William of Wainfleet, Dr Spokeley tells us, expressly ordered his college to be founded near the *great oak*; and an oak could not, I think, be less than five hundred years of age, to merit that title; together with the honour of fixing the site of a college.—When the magnificence of Cardinal Wolsey erected that handsome tower, which is so ornamental to the whole building, this tree might probably be in the meridian of its glory; or rather perhaps

perhaps it had attained a green old age. But it must have been manifestly in its decline, at that memorable era, when the tyranny of James gave the fellows of Magdalen so noble an opportunity of withstanding bigotry and superstition. It was afterwards much injured in Charles II's time, when the present walks were laid out. Its roots were disturbed; and from that period it declined fast, and became reduced by degrees to little more than a mere trunk. The oldest members of the university can scarce recollect it in better plight. But the faithful records of history have handed down its ancient dimensions. Thro' a space of sixteen yards, on every side from its trunk, it once flung its boughs, and under its magnificent pavilion could have sheltered with ease three thousand men, tho' in its decayed state it could for many years do little more than shelter some luckless individual, whom the driving shower had overtaken in his evening walk. In the summer of the year 1788 this magnificent ruin fell to the ground, alarming the college with its rushing sound. It then appeared how precariously it had stood for many years. Its grand tap-root was decayed; and it held hold of the earth only by two or three roots, of which none was more than a couple of inches in diameter.— From a part of its ruins a chair has been made for the president of the college, which will long continue its memory.

Near Workshop grew an oak, which in respect both to its own dignity, and the dignity of its situation, deserves honorable mention. In point of grandeur few trees equalled it. It overspread a space of ninety feet from the extremities of its opposite boughs.— These dimensions will produce an area capable, on mathematical calculation, of covering a squadron of two hundred and thirty-five horse. The dignity of its station was equal to the dignity of the tree itself. It stood on

a point, where Yorkshire, Nottinghamshire, and Derbyshire unite, and spread its shade over a portion of each. From the honourable station of thus fixing the boundaries of three large counties, it was equally respected thro' the domains of them all; and was known far and wide, by the honourable distinction of the *shire-oak*, by which appellation it was marked among cities, towns, and rivers, in all the larger maps of England.

In the garden at Tortworth, in Gloucestershire, an old family-seat, belonging to Lord Ducie, grows a Spanish chestnut of great age and dimensions. Traditional accounts suppose it to have been a boundary-tree in the time of King John; and I have met with other accounts, which place it in the same honourable station in the reign of King Stephen. How much older it may be we know not. Considerably older it probably was: for we rarely make boundary-trees of sapins and off-fets, which are liable to a thousand accidents, and are unable to maintain, with proper dignity, the station delegated to them. This tree is at present in hands which justly value and protect its age. It was barely included within the garden-wall, which bore hard upon it. Lord Ducie removed the incumbrance, and at the same time applied fresh earth to the roots of the tree, which seems to have enlivened it. So late as in the year 1788 it produced great quantities of chestnuts; which, though small, were sweet and well-flavoured.— In the great chestnut cause between Barrington and Ducarel this venerable tree was called upon as an evidence; and gave a very respectable testimony in favour of the chestnuts.

After mentioning this chestnut, which has been celebrated so much, I cannot forbear mentioning another, which is equally remarkable for having never been celebrated at all, tho' it is one of the largest trees that perhaps ever existed in England. If it had ever

ever been noticed merely for its bulk, I should have passed it over among other gigantic plants that had nothing else to boast; but as no historian or antiquarian, so far as I have heard, hath taken the least notice of it, I thought it right from this very circumstance to make up the omission, by giving it, at least, what little credit these papers could give. This chestnut grows at a place called Wimley, near Hitchin-priory in Hertfordshire. In the year 1789, at five feet above the ground, its girth was somewhat more than fourteen yards. Its trunk was hollow, and in part open; but its vegetation was still vigorous. On one side its vast arms, shooting up in various forms, some upright, and others oblique, were decayed, and peeled at the extremities; but issued from luxuriant foliage at their insertion in the trunk. On the other side, the foliage was still full, and hid all decay.

In a glade of Hainault forest in Essex, about a mile from Barkingside, stands an oak, which has been known through many centuries by the name of Fairlop. The tradition of the country traces it half way up the Christian era. It is still a noble tree, tho' it has now suffered greatly from the depredations of time. About a yard from the ground, where its rough fluted stem is thirty-six feet in circumference, it divides into eleven vast arms; yet not in the horizontal manner of an oak, but rather in that of a beech. Beneath its shade, which overspreads an area of three hundred feet in circuit, an annual fair has long been held on the 2d of July, and no booth is suffered to be erected beyond the extent of its boughs. But as their extremities are now become sapless, and age is yearly curtailing their length, the liberties of the fair seem to be in a very deplorable condition. The honour, however, is great. But honours are often accompanied with inconveniences; and Fairlop has suffered from its honourable distinctions,

In the feasting that attends a fair, fires are often necessary; and no places seemed so proper to make them in as the hollow cavities formed by the heaving roots of the tree. This practice has brought a speedier decay on Fairlop than it might otherwise have suffered.

Not far from Blanford, in Dorsetshire, stood very lately a tree, known by the name of Damory's oak. About five or six centuries ago it was probably in a state of maturity. At the ground its circumference was sixty-eight feet; and seventeen feet above the ground its diameter was four yards. As this vast trunk decayed, it became hollow, forming a cavity, which was fifteen feet wide, and seventeen feet high, capable of holding twenty men. During the civil wars, and till after the Restoration, this cave was regularly inhabited by an old man, who sold ale in it. In the violent storm in the year 1703 it suffered greatly, many of its noblest limbs having been torn from it. But it was still so grand a ruin, above forty years after, that some of its branches were seventy-five feet high; and extended seventy-two. In the year 1755, when it was fit for nothing but firewood, it was sold for fourteen pounds.

In Torwood, in the county of Strirling, upon a little knoll stand at this time the ruins of an oak, which is supposed to be the largest tree that ever grew in Scotland. The trunk of it is now wholly decayed and hollow; but it is evident, from what remains, that its diameter could not have been less than eleven or twelve feet. What its age may be is matter only of conjecture: but from some circumstances it is probably a tree of great antiquity. The little knoll it stands on, is surrounded by a swamp, over which a causeway leads to the tree, or rather to a circle which seems to have run round it. The vestiges of this circle, as well as the causeway, bear a plain resemblance to these works, which are commonly

commonly attributed to the Druids. So that it is probable this tree was a scene of worship belonging to those heathen priests. But the credit of it does not depend on the dubious vestiges of Druid antiquity. In a later scene of greater importance, (if tradition ever be the vehicle of truth) it bore a great share.—When that illustrious hero, WILLIAM WALLACE, roused the spirit of the Scots nation to oppose the tyranny of Edward, he often chose the solitude of Torwood as a place of rendezvous for his army.—Here he concealed his numbers and his designs, falling out suddenly on

the enemy's garrisons, and retreating as suddenly, when he feared to be overpowered. While his army lay in those woods, the oak which we are now commemorating was commonly his head-quarters. Here the hero generally slept; its hollow trunk being capacious enough to afford shelter, not only to himself, but to several of his officers. This tree has ever since been known by the name of *Wallace-tree*; by which name it may easily be found in Torwood to this day.

Among these celebrated trees we must not forget Hern's oak in Windfor forest. Shakespear tells us,

—————an old tale goes, that Hern the hunter,
Some time a keeper here in Windfor forest,
Doth all the winter time, at still of midnight,
Walk round about this oak with fagged horns;
And then he blasts the trees, destroys the cattle,
Makes the milch-cow yield blood, and shakes a chain
In hideous, dreadful manner—————

This tree, as far as we can pay credit to tradition and general opinion, still exists. In the little park at Windfor is a walk, known by the name of Queen Elizabeth's walk. It consists of elms, among which is a single oak taken into the row, as if particularly meant to be distinguished at the time when the walk was laid out. This tree is supposed to be Hern's oak. It is a large tree, measuring about twenty-four feet in circumference, and is still in great vigour; which I think chiefly injures its historical credit. For though it is evidently a tree in years, and might well have existed in the time of Elizabeth, it seems too strong and vigorous to have been a proper tree in that age for Hern the hunter to have danced round. Fairies, elves, and that generation of people, universally chose the most ancient and venerable trees they could find to gambol under: and the poet, who should describe them dancing, under a sapling, would shew little acquaintance with his subject. That this tree could

not be called a venerable tree two hundred years ago is evident, because it hardly can assume that character even now; and yet an oak, in a soil it likes, will continue so many years in a vigorous state, that we must not lay more stress on this argument than it will fairly bear. It may be added, however, in its favour, that a pit or ditch is still shewn near the tree, as Shakespear describes it; which may have been preserved with the same veneration as the tree itself.

There is an oak, in the grounds of Sir Gerrard Van Neck, at Heveningham, in Suffolk, which carries us likewise into the times of Elizabeth. But this tree brings its evidence with it—evidence which, if necessary, might carry it into Saxon times. It is now falling fast into the decline of years, and every year robs it more of its honours. But its trunk, which measures thirty-five feet in circumference, still retains its grandeur, though the ornaments of its boughs and foliage are much reduced. But the grandeur of the

the trunk consists only in appearance. It is a mere shell. In Queen Elizabeth's time it was hollow; and from this circumstance the tree derives the honour of being handed down to posterity. That Princess, who from her

earliest age loved masculine amusements, used often, it is said, in her youth, to take her stand in this tree, and shoot the deer as they passed.— From that time it has been known by the name of Queen Elizabeth's oak.

Directions for the Study of English History, in a Letter from a Gentleman of great Eminence to a Friend.

YOU will not expect to be sent to the authors, who are usually called Classical, for much information in the English History. Very little is met with in the Greek, and not a great deal in the Latin. Cæsar, Tacitus, and Suetonius, are the only ones worth mentioning on this subject.

Nor will you chuse to be referred to the Monkish writers. Jeffrey of Monmouth and his story of Brute are now generally given up. Some of them indeed, as William of Malmesbury, Matthew Paris, &c. have a more authentic character; but I suppose any one (except a professed antiquary) will be contented with them at second-hand in the modern historians. Carte has made the most and best use of them, which is the greatest merit of his book. Hume often puts their names in his margin; but I fear all he knew of them was through the *judicia* of other writers. He has some mistakes, which could not have happened had he really consulted the originals.

The first *planting* of every nation is necessarily obscure, and always lost in a pretended antiquity. It matters little to us whether our *Island* was first peopled by Trojans, Phœnicians, Scythians, Celts, or Gauls, who have all their respective advocates; and the famous Daniel de Foe makes his True born Englishman a compound of all nations under heaven. If you

chuse, however, to read about this matter, Sheringham de Anglorum Origine, 8vo, 1670, is the best book for the purpose. I may just mention, that some writers would cavil at the word *Island* just above, and insist that we were formerly joined to the French Continent.

Little real knowledge is to be picked up from our history before the conquest; yet it may not be amiss to have a general idea of the Druidical Government among the ancient Britons; of the invasion of the Romans under Julius Cæsar, and again in the time of Claudius; the struggles for liberty under Caractacus, Boadicea, &c.; the desertion of the Island by the Romans; the irruption of the Picts and Scots; the calling in of the Saxons as allies; who, after a time, turned their arms against the natives and conquered them (some few excepted), who secured themselves in the mountains of Wales; whence their descendants affect to call themselves Ancient Britons; the establishment of the Hierarchy, &c.; the union under King Egbert; the invasion and various fortunes of the Danes; and, lastly, the Normans under William the Conqueror.

The best authors for this period are Milton and Sir William Temple; the latter more pleasing, but the former more accurate. Milton's prose works are exceeding stiff and pedantic, and Sir William's as remarkably easy and

and genteel; but he should have attended more to the minutiae of names and dates.

As to the Religion of our ancestors, something of the Druids may be learned from *Schedius de Di. Germanis*, and an Essay in Tholand's Posthumous Works. Christianity seems to have been introduced, perhaps by some of the Romans, in the first century. Some indeed pretend that St Paul himself came over.

The Saxons brought their own gods with them, viz. the Sun, Moon, Tuifco, Woden, Thor, Friga, and Seater; and, in imitation of the Romans dedicated to them respectively the days of the week; and hence the names, which continue to our times. For this subject I would recommend Verstegan's "Restitution of decayed Intelligence."

From the Conquest our annals are more clear than those of any other nation in the world. This happens from the custom or obligation that every mitred Abbey was under to employ a Registry for all extraordinary events; and their notes were usually compared together at the end of every reign. Hence the great number of Monkish Historians.

It luckily happens that no party-spirit has biaffed the Historians in their accounts of our old Kings; and it therefore does not much signify what author is read. You would smile at my love of black letter were I to refer you to Hollinshed or Stowe; men, I assure you, by no means despicable, and much superior to Caxton, Fabian, Grafton, &c.; nor will you chuse to read chronicles in rhyme, as Robert of Gloucester and Harding. The most elegant old history we have is that by Samuel Daniel, a Poet of no mean rank. Though he wrote more than half a century before Milton, his style appears much more modern. His continuator Truffel is not so well spoken of. Daniel is very concise in his accounts before the

Conquest, but much fuller afterwards. He ends with Edward III. and Truffel with Richard III. This book is printed in Bishop Kennet's Collections; but the old editions are the best. The Bishop employed Oldmixon, a hero of the Dunciad, in the re-publication who, we are told, falsified it in many places.

If we are not content with general accounts of the subsequent reigns, it may not be amiss to look at their particular writers. Buck's History of Richard III. is remarkable from the pains he takes to clear his character against the scandal (as he calls it) of other Historians. Lord Bacon's florid History of Henry VII. comes next. You must know this King was a favourite with James the I. and as it was written to recover his favour, the author, you may suppose, has not been impartial. Lord Heibert's Henry the VIII. well deserves reading; he was a free-thinker and a free-writer; his information was good, and the era particularly interesting. The next work of importance (not quite forgetting Dr. (afterwards Sir John) Hayward's Edward the VI.) is Camden's Elizabeth, a performance worthy of its author. The story of Mary Queen of Scots may be more particularly learned from her countrymen Melville, Buchannan, &c.

The Stuarts have brought in a flood of histories, many high flying panegyrics, and many scandalous invectives. On James the I. Wilson, Swanson, Weldon, &c. and a late writer, one Harris, an Anabaptist Parson.

For Charles the I. appears our greatest Historian Lord Clarendon; on the other side Ludlow; who, however, is particularly severe on Cromwell. I omit Whitlock, Rushworth, Warwick, and a thousand others.

After the Restoration, Bishop Burnet's History of his Own Times will come in, and carry us to the end of
Queen

Queen Anne's reign; a curious work, but to be read with great caution, as the Bishop had strong prejudices. Salmon wrote an answer to it.

Rapin seems the next writer of much consequence. Voltaire, certainly a good judge of history, calls him our best Historian; but perhaps he was partial to his countryman. It is, however, a work of much accuracy, but barren of reflection, and consequently heavy in the reading. Carte, who emphatically titles himself an Englishman, wrote purposely against him on the Tory side of the question.

The later Historians, Hume, Smollet, &c. you know perhaps, as well as I do. Hume is certainly an admirable writer; his style bold, and his reflections shrewd and uncommon; but his religious and political notions have too often warped his judgment. (Mrs Macaulay has just now published against his account of the Stuarts, but I have not yet had an opportunity of reading her book). Smollet wants the dignity of history,

and takes every thing upon trust; but his books, at least the former volumes, are sufficiently pleasing. I have purposely omitted a multitude of writers; as Speed, Baker, Brady, Tyrrel, Echard, Guthrie, &c.

Collections of Letters and State Papers are of the utmost importance, if we pretend to exactness; such as a collection called the Cabala, Burleigh's, Sydney's, Thurloe's, &c.

The last observation I shall trouble you with is, that sometimes a single pamphlet will give us better the clue of a transaction than a volume in folio. Thus we learn from the Dutchess of Marlborough's Apology, that the peace of Utrecht was made by a quarrel among the women of the bed-chamber! Hence *Memoirs, Secret Histories, Political Papers, &c.* are not to be despised; always allowing sufficiently for the prejudice of party, and believing them no further than they are supported by collateral evidence.

Copy of a Letter from John Dunning, Esq. to a Gentleman of the Inner Temple, containing Directions to the Student.

Lincoln's Inn, March 3, 1779.

DEAR SIR,

THE habits of intercourse in which I have lived with your family, joined to the regard which I entertain for yourself, makes me solicitous, in compliance with your request, to give you some hints concerning the Study of the Law.

Our profession is generally ridiculed, as being dry and uninteresting; but a mind anxious for the discovery of truth and information will be amply gratified for the toil, in investigating the origin and progress of a jurisprudence, which has the good of the people for its basis, and the accumulated wisdom and experience of ages for its improvement. Nor is the

study itself so intricate as has been imagined; more especially since the labours of some modern writers have given it a more regular and scientific form. Without industry, however, it is impossible to arrive at any eminence in practice; and the man who shall be bold enough to attempt excellence by abilities alone, will soon find himself soiled by many who have inferior understandings, but better attainments. On the other hand, the most painful plodder can never arrive at celebrity by mere reading; a man calculated for success, must add to native genius an instinctive faculty in the discovery and retention of that knowledge only, which can be at once useful and productive.

I imagine that a considerable degree of learning is absolutely necessary. The elder authors frequently wrote in Latin, and the foreign jurists continue the practice to this day. Besides this, classical attainments contribute much to the refinement of the understanding, and the embellishment of the style. The utility of grammar, rhetoric, and logic, are known and felt by every one. Geometry will afford the most apposite examples of close and pointed reasoning; and geography is so very necessary in common life, that there is less credit in knowing, than dishonour in being unacquainted with it. But it is history, and more particularly that of his own country, which will occupy the attention and attract the regard of the great lawyer. A minute knowledge of the political revolutions and judicial decisions of our predecessors, whether in the more ancient or modern æras of our government, is equally useful and interesting. This will include a narrative of all the material alterations in the Common Law, and the reasons and exigencies on which they were founded.

I would always recommend a diligent attendance on the Courts of Justice, as by that means the practice of them (a circumstance of great moment) will be easily and naturally acquired. Besides this, a much stronger impression will be made on the mind by the statement of the case, and the pleadings of the counsel, than from a cold uninteresting detail of it in a report. But above all, a trial at bar, or a special argument, should never be neglected. As it is usual on these occasions to take notes, a knowledge of short-hand will give such facility to your labours, as to enable you to follow the most rapid speaker with certainty and precision. Com-

mon-place books are convenient and useful; and as they are generally lettered, a reference may be had to them in a moment. It is usual to acquire some insight into real business, under an eminent special pleader, previous to actual practice at the bar. This idea I beg leave strongly to second; and indeed I have known but a few great men who have not possessed this advantage. I here subjoin a list of books necessary for your perusal and instruction, to which I have added some remarks; and wishing that you may add to a successful practice that integrity which can alone make you worthy of it,

I remain, &c. &c.

JOHN DUNNING.

Read Hume's History of England, particularly observing the rise, progress, and declension of the feudal system. Minutely attend to the Saxon government that preceded it, and dwell on the reigns of Edward I.—Henry VI.—Henry VII.—Henry VIII.—James I.—Charles I. Charles II. and James II.

Blackstone. On the second reading turn to the references.

Mr Justice Wright's learned Treatise on Tenures.

Coke Littleton, especially every word of Fee-Simple, Fee-Tail, and Tenant in Tail.

Coke's Institutes; more particularly the Ist and IId; and Serjeant Hawkin's Compendium.

Coke's Reports—Plowden's Commentary.—Bacon's Abridgement; and First Principles of Equity.—Figgott on Fines.—Reports of Croke, Burrow Raymond, Saunders, Strange, and Peere Williams.—Paley's Maxims.—Lord Bacon's Elements of the Common Law.

Course of Study in Law recommended by Lord Mansfield to Mr. Drummond,

1774.

FOR general Ethics, which are the foundation of all Law, read Xenophon's Memorabilia, Tully's Offices, and Woolaston's Religion of Nature.— You may likewise look into Aristotle's Ethics, which you will not like; but it is one of those books, *qui a homine saluberrimi sunt, ne verba nobis dentur.*

For the law of nations, which is partly founded on the law of nature, and partly positive, read Grotius, and Puffendorf in Barbeyrac's translation, and Burlamaqui's *Droit Naturel*; as these authors treat the same subject in the hands, they may be read together and compared.

When you have laid this foundation, it will be time to look into those systems of positive law that have prevailed in their turn. You will begin, of course with the Roman Law; for the history of which read Gravina's elegant work *De Ortu et Progressu Juris Civilis*; then read and study Justinian's Institutes, without any

other comment than the short one by Vinnius. Long comments would only confound you, and make your head spin round. Dip occasionally into the pandects. After this, it will be proper to acquire a general idea of feudal law and the feudal system, which is so interwoven with almost every constitution in Europe, that without some knowledge of it, it is impossible to understand Modern History. Read Graig de Feudes, an admirable book for matter and method; and dip occasionally into the *Corpus Juris Feudalis*, whilst you are reading Gagnone's History of Naples, one of the ablest and most instructive books that ever was written. These writers are not sufficient to give you a thorough knowledge of the subject they treat of, but they will give you general notions, general leading principles, and lay the best foundation that can be laid for the study of any municipal law, such as the Law of England, Scotland, France, &c. &c.

Excerpt of a Letter from Mr. Burke to the Archbishop of Aix.

SIR,

IT is a great satisfaction to me that the generous victims of injustice and tyranny accept, in good part, the homage which I have offered to their virtue. It is a distinction which I would not have had occasion to merit from the clergy of France in the time of their credit and splendor. Your Church, the intelligence of which was the ornament of the Christian World in its prosperity, is now more brilliant, in the moment of its misfortunes, to the eyes who are capable of judging of it. Never did so

great a number of men display a constancy so inflexible, a disinterestedness so manifest, an humility so magnanimous—so much dignity in their patience, and so much elevation in the sentiment of honour. Ages have not furnished so many noble examples as France has produced in the space of two years. It is odious to search in antiquity for the merit we admire, and to be insensible to that which passes under our eyes. France is in a deplorable situation, both in its political and moral state; but it is

to be in the order of the general economy of the World, that when the greatest and most detestable vices domineer, the most eminent and distinguished virtues raise their heads more proudly. Such is not the time for mediocrity.

We may have some diversity in our opinions, but we have no difference in principles. There is but one kind of honour and virtue in the world. It consists in sacrificing every other consideration to the sentiments of our duty, of right, and of piety: It is this which the Clergy of France have done. I will not examine scrupulously, by what motives men like you have thought it your duty to support all that you have done. All that I see I am forced to admire. The rest is out of my reach—out, perhaps, of the reach of those who are better instructed than me. One thing I see distinctly, because the Bishops of France have proved it by their example; and that is, that they had made known to all the orders, and all the classes of citizens, the advantages which even religion can derive from the alliance of its own proper dignity, with the character which illustrious birth and the sentiment of honour gives to man.

It is with good reason that in France the Noblesse should be proud of the Clergy, and the Clergy of the Noblesse, although these two classes be for the present condemned to passive courage, which gives so much glory to the one and the other.

I shall present to the Bishop of St Paul de Leon your fine and affecting Address—perhaps he has already received it. I am sure that he will remain fixed. If I may judge from the little I have seen of him, he is a most estimable and a most amiable man. He has been received here by our high Clergy, and by many others, not certainly in the manner due to his rank and merit, but with a respect for the one and the other, with which

from his natural goodness, he seems to be satisfied.

I do not know if it is to the complaisance of your Lordship that I owe the Chefs-d'œuvres of ingenuity, intelligence, and superior eloquence, varied as the occasions require, in the dispersed discourses and letters which I from time to time receive. They are the works of a great statesman—of a great Prelate—and of a man versed in the science of Administration. We cannot be astonished that the State, the Clergy, the Finances, and the trade of the kingdom, should be ruined, when the author of these works, instead of having an important share in the Councils of his country, is persecuted and undone: The proscription of such men is enough to cover a whole people with eternal reproach: Those who persecute them have, by this one act, done more injury to their country in depriving it of their services, than a million of men of their own standard can ever repair, even when they shall be disposed to build upon the ruins they have made.

Maintain, Sir, the courage which you have hitherto shewn; and be persuaded, that though the World is not worthy of you and your colleagues, we are not all insensible of the honour which you do to our common nature.

I have the honour to be,
very truly, &c.

EDMUND BURKE.

ANSWER OF THE ARCHBISHOP OF AIX;
TO THE RIGHT HONOURABLE
EDMUND BURKE.

SIR,

August 7.

YOU have been pleased to address to me an opinion that does me honour, and I cannot conceal the impression that the suffrage of the man the most celebrated for talents, virtues, and success, has made on my heart: Give me leave, above all, to acknowledge, with an interest infinitely superior to all personal consideration, the eulogy

which you have made on the respectable Order of which I have the honour to partake the misfortunes. The first Orator of England has become the Defender of the Clergy of France. Yours is the voice that has so long directed and balanced the opinion of a nation, of which France ought rather to be the rival by its progress in intelligence, than by its political interests. Oh, that the dark clouds which overhang my country may not forever obscure the rays of light which the sciences, letters, and the arts bestow! We are in a time of trouble—we attend only to the noise of our discussions—we read only the productions of party—and how many wise men and enlightened citizens remain in silence! We can no longer judge for ourselves, and a foreign observer only can decide for us what ought to be the judgment of posterity.

When my colleagues, in addressing themselves to you, chose me for their organ, I was penetrated with their sentiments, and with those of the ministers of all ranks, whom nothing can separate from their consciences. I spoke for them with the feeling which they gave me; and the noble thoughts, the touching expressions, I can boldly say, were only the daily impressions which the knowledge of their virtues inspire. It is wanting to their glory that you should see them, as I have seen them, simple in their conduct, tranquil in their adversity, and content with having fulfilled their duty. The Church of France is the stranded bark which the waters have left after the tempest, and every one of us, in the shipwreck contemplates with astonishment those new heavens, and this new earth, which were unknown before.

By what destiny must it be, that, after having supported all my life those maxims of Christian Charity, of which the first ages of the Church gave us both lessons and examples, I see myself the victim of intolerance and persecution! It is in the eighth century—it is in a nation that

boasts of its philosophy—it is even in the moment that they announce the Revolution of Liberty, that they persecute those who practice what they believe in religion, and who wish to preserve the worship of their fathers! We read in the Constitution, that “No one ought to be disturbed for his religious opinions.”—We read the Laws concerning religion—oaths, deprivations, infamous penalties, and exile; and it is on the overthrow of their new Constitution that they found the Civil Constitution of the Clergy. What has become of all those natural laws which were to serve for the basis of all their laws? We are the men whom they wish to accuse with prejudices, who plead this day the Rights of Liberty.

The cause, Sir, that we have defended, is the noble, just, and holy cause of liberty, humanity, and religion. The Clergy of France have demonstrated what it was—persuasion without fanaticism—courage without excess—and resistance without trouble, and without insurrection.—We have suffered all kinds of loss—we have endured all sorts of rigour, and we remain tranquil and firm, because nothing is so unconquerable as the probity which supports itself on religion. Behold that of which they cannot judge in the world! They conceive that honour is the only sentiment which influences men of all conditions to the accomplishment of the most sacred duties. God forbid that I should weaken this noble instinct, which comes to the aid of reason, which rallies the warriors in the day of combat, and which can animate to the love of the public weal, when it does not mislead us in the pursuit!—

But you have better defined this simple and true sentiment, “which consists in the habitual impression of our duty, of right, and of piety.” This sentiment ought to be in general that of good Citizens, and there are no morals in a country where it is not acted upon. If they wish to destroy religion

eligion in France, it will be the first example of an Empire without religion; and no one has proved, Sir, with more eloquence than yourself, how much it imports to attach the principles of human society to something too high for man to outrage or destroy. They must consecrate by religion, respect for the laws; for what must the laws be, which an entire people obey only through constraint, and not by inclination? They will soon perceive that the force to which they yield is only the force which they give. This force will weaken of itself by general corruption, and the State is no more.

You have reason, Sir, to encourage us in the laborious career to which we are doomed. It is the writings of such men as you, which maintain in all nations a wholesome morality. We cannot help believing, that our fellow-citizens will, sooner or later, do us the justice which we receive from foreigners; and that we shall revive, in more peaceable times, the principles of religion and humanity.

I do not speak to you, Sir, of those other writings, in which I am desirous of shewing how useful would be the lights of a long and peaceable Administration. It does not belong to me to judge of the use which may be made of them, and it must not astonish us, that men are ungrateful for truths which come from us, who have no passion for Revolutions.

Accept, Sir, the testimonies of the veneration and attachment, which well-intentioned men ought to feel for the enlightened and virtuous of all countries.

I cannot tell you how sensible we have been to the attention which the Clergy of England have shewn towards one of our most virtuous and respectable Colleagues. You are equally just to his character in society, as to his principles and courage; and such are the regrets of his diocese, that they consider his absence as a public calamity.

I have the honour to be,
 &c. &c. &c.

LONDON, 15 July.

Extracts from Report to Sir John Sinclair of Ulster, Bart. Chairman of the Society for the Improvement of British Wool, of the State of Sheep Farming along the Eastern Coasts of Scotland, and the interior Parts of the Highlands: By Andrew Ker.

THE first sheep I met with were on the Lochnod hills; they seem to be a mixture between the black faced and white faced kinds, having mostly imperfectly white faces, and are, what we would reckon in the south, a bad kind of sheep.

As very few sheep in this part of the country are laid, or smeared, the wool is mostly sold white to the people in the neighbourhood for making blankets, and other country fabrics; the price about eighteen shillings a stone, consisting of twenty-four pounds English avoirdupoise.

From clipping time, in the end of

May, or beginning of June, till April, the sheep are folded every night, which I think a very bad practice, being both prejudicial to the sheep, by harrassing them, and injurious to the grass, which is trodden down by the throng.

I was informed that the widders will fatten to about ten pound weight per quarter; which I can hardly credit, as their fore-quarters seem very light and thin.

One of the principal objects to be kept in view in the improvement of sheep is to give additional weight to the fore-quarters. The propriety of

increasing the general weight of carcase is in most cases very questionable.

The only disorder to which the sheep in these parts are subject is called by the country people the *krasy*, which, so far as I could learn, is the same with the disease known under the name of *schinss* in Teviotdale.

The hogs are subject to this disease. They are afflicted with it from the end of October to the end of December, or until a good deal of frost or snow falls; after which time they are almost never troubled with it. They are generally seized very suddenly with a swelling of the whole body, and they die in a short time, after which the body is very much discoloured. There has been no cure yet found for this disease; but, I should think, if it were attended to when the disease first makes its appearance, by using a small quantity of tar, in the same manner as is given to black cattle when swelled with turnip or clover, a good effect might be produced; at least it is worth making a trial.

The method of herding the sheep in these parts is exceedingly improper, as they are constantly kept close together in hives, by which means they are never permitted to settle at their food. Sheep naturally spread; and this plan requires the herd to disturb them perpetually, on purpose to keep them together. This bad practice appears to proceed from their pastures being in common, which makes it necessary to herd them in these close hives, to prevent the sheep of the various tenants from mixing.

Their other practice of folding their sheep every night, from shearing time till the month of April following, is likewise very hurtful. It must be very prejudicial to fold sheep at night, even in the summer season, but much more so in the winter, as they are then exposed to every kind of weather, without having it in their power to seek for shelter, which they would do if they were left to their liberty.

It is the general practice in this part of the country to shear the sheep before they are washed.

I think this a very bad practice. Washing the fleece after it is shorn breaks the wool very much; nor do the sheep ever clip so well without washing as after that operation, which makes the wool rise from the back, and allows the shears to get in much more readily.

From Cupar I went to *Teat-moor*, in the parish of *Leuchars*, where I was informed of a peculiar breed of sheep. This moor, which is supposed to contain 3000 acres of land, is of a very sandy soil, and produces very little grass, but is covered with vast quantities of whins or furze, on which the sheep chiefly subsist. It is bounded on the east by the sea, by the Firth of Tay on the north, and by the river Eden on the south. The sheep on this moor are very small, and have mostly white faces, and long small upright horns like goats. Waxed fat, they weigh from four and a half to six pounds a quarter. They have very long wool in proportion to their size, and the fleece is very open at the top, but, upon examination, turns out much finer than could be supposed from their first appearance, for they look more like goats than sheep.

So far as I could learn, the same breed has been kept on these moors from time immemorial; for no person remembers any attempt having been made to change the breed, by crossing or otherwise. The people here have no particular modes of managing their sheep, any farther than this, that each takes care to keep his own little flock from straying out of his own farms. The whole moor keeps about 2000 head.

The farmers here always sell some of their ewes, with lambs at their feet, in the Cupar market; and for these they got, last year, from 7s. to 7s. 6d. They sell their wethers, at the same time, when two years old, for

about six a head. The wool is either sold at home to the country people, or in Ceres market, at from 13s. to 16s. a stone, which requires about twenty fleeces. The hoggs only are shorn; and both the white and fleeced wool sell at the same price.

I am of opinion that this breed might be greatly improved by means of a cross with the true bred south border ram, of a small size, but fine wool. This would increase the weight of the sheep, especially in their fore quarters, and would render the fleeces much closer at the top.

The Tent-moor sheep are also known by the name of the Scotch Dyke-breed; and it is said that the inhabitants in that neighbourhood are of Danish extraction, and still preserve some remains of their original customs and language.

It would be extremely difficult for any person to say what was the original breed of the sheep in Fife; as, except these on Tent-moor, they seem a mixture of almost every kind that can be thought of. There is no judging of the real value of the wool from the prices I have mentioned, as it is mostly sold to the poor people in the country, who are obliged to purchase it for making clothes, blankets, and stockings; and, besides that these people are no judges of the quality and price, they have no other market at hand where they could be supplied. On the whole, I should think that it sells for at least one third more than it is really worth, at least when compared with the price at which the wool of the southern parts of Scotland is commonly sold.

At Montrose, I learnt, that, about seven years ago, a small woollen manufacture was established by a company of gentlemen, who carried on business to the extent of about fifteen hundred pounds a year; but, in the space of about nine years, they gave it over, and the business has since been carried on by Mr Robert Miller, who

was formerly manager for the company. This gentleman intends to extend the business somewhat this year; and he says he is confident a woollen manufacture would answer there extremely well, if carried on by one who had sufficient capital to afford the same credit to the dealers that is given by the English manufacturers.

Mr Miller employs a small spinning machine for woollen yarn, which draws twenty-four threads at once, and which, he says, answers very well. By his books, which he was kind enough to show me, it appears, that, in the year 1788 he manufactured 1922 yards, in 1789 he made 3141 yards, and last year 3806 yards. The first of these years his manufacture consisted entirely of cloth; in the second year, besides cloth, he made a considerable quantity of flannel; and last year, mostly all cloth. He sells his goods to the dealers in Montrose, Edinburgh, Glasgow, and other towns. He makes broad cloths from three and sixpence, to seventeen shillings a yard; and narrow cloths from one shilling and twopence to six shillings. His flannels are from one shilling up to one shilling and twopence a yard. He is just now about to make trial of the manufacture of Kerley-mare, which he is in hopes will turn out to good account.

The wool which he principally employs comes from the south borders of Scotland, there being very little in the north fit for his purpose. He thinks that some of the best spinnets of worsted yarn in the kingdom are to be found on the side of the river Dee. They spin at the rate of from two shillings to two shillings and sixpence per spindle.

A manufactory of worsted hosiery is likewise carried on at Montrose, but to no great extent. At the weekly market of this place, which holds on Friday, there is some wool sold during the months of June and July; but

but it is of a kind which does not answer the purposes of the clothier.

The country, from Brechin to Montrose, is of an excellent soil, and is kept in very good order. The mode of husbandry is apparently very judicious. The linen manufacture also is very flourishing; there being, I was informed, at least nine millions of yards of linen made annually in the county of Angus.

I found myself very much disappointed on getting to Glen-Esk, or Loch-lee, as it is likewise called; where I had been made to expect wool of a very great fineness. So far from there being any particular breed of sheep in these parts, bearing wool of a very superior quality, I found that the sheep were mostly of the Linton or Tweed-dale breed.

The wool of the black faced, or Linton sheep, is mostly all fold white or unlaid, and gives from eight to ten shillings a stone, which requires eight or ten fleeces. The wool of the mixed grey faced breed gives a better price, about thirteen shillings; but then it requires sixteen or eighteen fleeces to make a stone. The markets are Brechin and Montrose.

There are about four or five score of goats kept in Glen-Esk, and I think, they might keep a great many more to advantage, as there are several hills where sheep cannot feed, being so exceedingly craggy.

The sheep in Glen Muick are much the same as these in Glen-Esk, being mostly of the Linton breed, bought in the spring and autumn, and sold, when four year old, to the Dundee, Perth, and Aberdeen butchers for thirteen or fourteen shillings a-head. The other sheep are a cross between a small breed, which they call the white sheep, and the Linton or Tweed-dale breed.

It is very common here to see the small tenants, who, I suppose, do not pay upon an average above seven or eight pounds a-year, ploughing upon five

level haughs with three galloways and four or six small oxen, and even some of them with ten kyles in a plough.

The cloth business is but in its infancy at Aberdeen, but is advancing fast. The wool is got from the south borders of Scotland and the north of England; as they find the wool which grows in the neighbourhood does not answer either for cloth or worsted stuffs.

From Aberdeen to Ellon there are very few or almost no sheep, and what are kept are of a mixed kind.

From Portferry to Elgin very few sheep are kept at present, owing to the improvement of the land, and the great quantity of trees planted. I should think the Bakewell or Leicestershire breed very fit for the coast side, where the ground is improved, as probably there always will be a ready market for combing wool to make worsted stuffs and stockings, in that neighbourhood. It is hardly to be credited how much the great proprietors on this coast, in particular the Duke of Gordon, Lord Fife, and Lord Findlater, might improve the value of their property, by introducing proper breeds of sheep, calculated either for the hilly, or the cultivated parts of their estates.

From Elgin to Nairn the sheep are all of the small kind, and very few are kept (not above forty score in all) as the land is mostly in tillage or planted. Several of the sheep on this part of the coast have very little wool, particularly before, probably owing to the poverty of their food. Mr Brodie of Brodie, about half way between Forres and Nairn, has begun to cross his sheep with a large tup, but the pasture seems *rather* calculated for a *small* breed.

From Tain I crossed over into Sutherland; the sheep kept upon the east coast in that country are very small, and of the same kind as those in the shires of Ross and Cromarty. They have the same pernicious custom there,

there, as they have almost universally to the north of the Frith of Forth, of housing the sheep at night. They sell their widders at, from six to eight shillings, and the ewes and lambs from four to six shillings a head. It would take a long time for a person to ascertain exactly what number of sheep is kept on that part of the coast, as there are between two and three hundred small tenants who keep from ten to twenty, and some about thirty sheep each, and only two or three who keep above five score. What wool is sold there they sell at twelve shillings a stone. It takes from eighteen to twenty fleeces to the stone.

The sheep in Caithness are in general of the same sort with those in Sutherland, and managed in the same manner. There has been no trial made in that county to improve the breed of sheep, except at Thurso Castle, where there are some sheep brought from England by Sir John Sinclair. These are of the Herefordshire breed, and have thriven well, and produce good wool.

I saw almost the whole of the county of Caithness, and I think there are very few places in it fit for keeping sheep, the ground being either in tillage or naturally very wet. The most likely places besides Sandside, are the hills of Yarrows, and the estates of Langwell and Lathron-wheel. The two former are the property of Sir John Sinclair of Ulster, the latter, of Mr Dunbar of Hemprigs.

From Bighouse I went to the west point of Sutherland, as far as Capewrath, where the land seems to be tolerably well calculated for sheep, but there are very few kept at present, and what they have are either of the small kind or a mixture of these with the black faced ones.

From Durness I crossed over, by the head of Lochnaver, to Colonel Baillie's of Rose-Hall, who has let a large sheep farm, which seems to answer very well.

The whole of that part of the country seems well calculated for sheep having plenty of heath, moss, and ling, with a mixture of fine grass; but notwithstanding these advantages, it has in general a great want of hay. Sheep, however, are hardly ever known to want hay in that neighbourhood, as the snow seldom lies long on the ground.

From Inverness to Aviemore the ground is very high, and almost entirely covered with heath. The sheep are very small, of the same kind with these I have so often mentioned.

Srathspay, on the whole, and particularly Sir James Grant's estates, seem to be well adapted for sheep farming.

From Aviemore to Pitmain the sheep and ground are much the same as between Inverness and Aviemore.— There is a place near Pitmain, called Glen Fislsey, where there were once very fine woolled sheep, but they are now quite adulterated, owing to the crossing with the black faced kind.— A few years ago, a gentleman from London applied to Mr McLean of Cluny, near Pitmain, to see if he could procure him a few of the old breed, but none could be found.

The widders in general sell for from 13s. to 16s. and the ewes from 7s. to 9s. the markets are chiefly Glasgow and Perth. The small kind of sheep sell from 7s. to 9s. and the ewes from 4s. to 6s. a head. The white wool unwashed sells for 10s. a stone, and the laid for 5s.

The whole of the ground from Pitmain to a few miles below Blair is Athol is much of the same quality, and the sheep and wool likewise, excepting a large flock belonging to the Duke of Athol, which are improved by a cross, some years ago, with a Cullsey tup.

The wool of these sheep last year sold at Aberdeen for about 12s. and 12s. 6d a stone.

The wool and sheep of the other farms in this part of the country are principally

principally of the black faced sort.— The wool went mostly to Yorkshire last year. I was informed by a person from the neighbourhood of Hawick, who has a farm between Dalwhinnie and Dalnacardoch, (which is capable of keeping between three and four thousand sheep), that the whole of that country will feed more stock than a stranger would imagine by looking at it; and it was asserted by people who have lived in that country for thirty or forty years, that they never remember any considerable quantity of snow lying above six or eight weeks at the utmost, and that they would imagine their sheep were in danger of being lost, if they were obliged to give them hay.

From all that I have seen in the North, and from my long knowledge both of the quality of the soil and pasture, the climate, and the nature of the sheep in the hills of Tiviotdale and Northumberland, I am convinced that in the Highlands where sheep can be kept at all, there is no part where the true bred white-faced sheep would not answer as well as either the small bodied or the coarse woolled kinds. The difference of profit between these sorts is greatly in favour of the south country white-faced sheep. Their wool is worth 20s. a stone when white,— which, on an average, requires only nine fleeces; and when soiled sells from 15s. 6d. to 16s. which requires seven and a half fleeces to the stone of twenty-four English pounds; while some of the other kinds take from twenty to twenty-four fleeces to the stone, which only sells for 15s. The carcase also of the white-faced sheep is greatly superior in weight, particularly in the fore quarter, which is a great object to the butcher. This valuable breed, so far as I know, or ever could learn, is only to be found on the range of hills which divide Scotland from England; and have deep kept there from time immemorial with-

out any change, except what has proceeded from constant attention to good crosses among themselves, by choosing the best rams, and the best breeding ewes with regard both to carcase and fineness of wool.

But it would be needless for any person to lay out money either in buying or in breeding sheep of a good kind, from these parts, without having shepherds to take the charge of them; as the people in the north are in general extremely ignorant in this important branch of husbandry.

I have now given a faithful account of every thing relative to the sheep of the north which occurred to me; and seemed worthy of notice, in the course of a journey of about 800 miles; which I took purposely to make enquiries on the subject. It has been my earnest wish to forward the patriotic views of the Society as much as lay in my power; and I shall feel myself much gratified, if my humble endeavours shall merit any share of its honourable approbation. At the same time, I must beg that my inexperience in writing may be considered as an apology for the many errors in this report; and I shall be happy to have it in my power to satisfy any farther inquiries that may be thought necessary. The short time allotted for my journey, through a vast tract of bad roads, and at an unfavourable season of the year, has likewise obliged me to be less minute in my inquiries than I could have wished. But, during the whole time spent on this expedition, I have never for a moment lost sight of the objects of inquiry which were pointed out to me, nor neglected any opportunity that occurred of procuring information.

The result of the whole survey is, that no time should be lost in changing, as rapidly and completely as possible, not only in the northern Highlands, but also in every part in Scotland, where sheep farming ought to prevail, the black-faced, and brook-faced breeds of sheep, for the real
white

State of Sheep Farming on the East Coast.

white faced Tiviotdale, or South border breed.

The white faced sheep are equally hardy with the black faced. I do not make this assertion merely as matter of opinion; for about three years ago, a fair trial was made between these two kinds of sheep on the Lammermoor hills, at Bere Cleugh, 7 miles east of Noron; and, notwithstanding that the black faced sheep were bred upon the farm, and the white faced sheep were brought from a great distance, and had to be perpetually herded to keep them on the ground, (which is a great injury to sheep by disturbing them, and preventing them from feeding) they proved better than the black faced ones in the course of a year. Last year I sold some of the same kind of white faced sheep, which were only wintered on the Lammermoor hills, when hogs, for 11s. 2d. each.

This important circumstance of the equal hardiness of the white faced breed being ascertained, there cannot remain a doubt of their superiority in all other respects. Their forequarters are considerably heavier, in proportion to the rest of the carcass, than those of the black or brooked faced sheep; and indeed the whole carcass is heavier, so that the stock, which can be sold off annually, is sure to bring a larger price. Their wool, too, is greatly superior, and will sell at a much higher price per stone. Besides, each fleece of the white faced kind is a good deal heavier, and consequently it keeps the animal warmer than either of the other kinds. I am convinced also, from all that I know or can learn on the subject, that the white faced sheep neither require a better pasture, nor more

parts of the Coquet and Reifers in Northumberland.

As no doubt can be entertained the propriety of extending the breeds of sheep through the different parts of Scotland, which are of supporting that very useful even necessary animal; it may be expected that I should propose such methods as are, in my best calculation, for that desirable purpose. There are, no doubt gentlemen in the Society better to draw up schemes for this end I am, especially with the facts I have furnished relative to the pasture, and climate of the through which I have gone in every; but the following hints of some service in the formation of such a plan.

There are two ways by which the end may possibly be accomplished.

1. By furnishing the breeders in the north with proper rams, the expense of the Society, and an inspection of proper persons appointed to the necessary stations for that purpose.
2. By encouraging the breeders to mix themselves with rams of the kind, to be pointed out by the Society, giving premiums according to the circumstances. I shall take notice both of these modes, and so far as I am able, the advantages and disadvantages attending each.

In the first place, the Society should purchase rams of the kind most proper for improving the stock of sheep in the north; and let out to hire to different breeders in certain districts, under the inspection of proper people chosen in the districts for that purpose, and such regulations as might be found conducive to the ends of the Society. By this plan, it would be required to know pretty nearly the number of ewes before hand in each district, that a convenient number of rams of the intended number of ewes,

These same bred white faced sheep are only to be got on the borders of Scotland and England, namely, in the parishes of Hutton, Oxnam, Maxbaird, and Jedburgh in the county of Roxburgh, and in the upper

principally of the black faced sort.— The wool went mostly to Yorkshire last year. I was informed by a person from the neighbourhood of Hawick, who has a farm between Dalwhinnie and Dalnacardoch, (which is capable of keeping between three and four thousand sheep), that the whole of that country will feed more stock than a stranger would imagine by looking at it; and it was asserted by people who have lived in that country for thirty or forty years, that they never remember any considerable quantity of snow lying above six or eight weeks at the utmost, and that they would imagine their sheep were in danger of being lost, if they were obliged to give them hay.

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very eligible. In this way the expenses to the Society might be more nearly ascertained, and impositions of various kinds more readily guarded against by proper regulations. The certain gain, which would occur to the farmer from the premiums, would be a much more effectual excitement to improvement, than the eventual and contingent profit, held forth to them in the former way; and thus their old prejudices might be removed by the force of self interest.

Should this way of proceeding be adopted by the Society, I would beg leave to suggest, that, in certain districts, chosen as much scattered as possible, and as numerous as the funds will admit of, annual premiums be offered to the farmer, in each of these districts, who shall provide himself with the greatest number of rams of the proper kind and age; and a lesser premium to the farmer who has the next greatest number. Each competitor to produce certificates from the person from whom he purchased his rams, of their age, when bought; of the number of ewes on his farm; of the rams being still in their possession, &c.

Were such premiums to be continued for a considerable number of years successively, there can hardly be a doubt, that they would quickly spread the improved breed all over the country.

Another set of premiums might be offered, after three or four years, to the farmers, in each of these districts, who shall produce the greatest number of brood ewes of the crossed breed, and of the best quality as to wool and carcase.

To promote the improvement of the breed of sheep, and render it more and more the interest of the farmer to attend to the increase of his stock, it would likewise be extremely necessary to institute fairs for wool and sheep in various parts of the country, and at different times of the year.

These are much needed in the north, as, excepting the precarious sale to the butchers in the small towns, there is no market of any consequence for sheep to the north of the Tay, except at Trinity moor, in the county of Angus, and two annual fairs in the county of Kincardine. Besides, the butchers are not the best purchasers for breeders, as, in general, on ground fitted for breeding sheep, it is impossible to make them fat enough for the butcher. The business of fattening belongs to an intermediate farmer on more cultivated land; who, by means of sown grass or turnips, or both, has it in his power to fatten sheep quickly, and consequently to produce a quick return for his outlay. Farmers, in general, are rather needy, from the pressure of their regular payments for rent. There are very few instances in Scotland of a farmer confining his views to such a quantity of land as he is fully able to stock, and having a sufficiency to wait for eventual profit at a distance of time. Every means therefore which brings a ready sale, and a quick return for their goods, must be of the most essential service to his interest.

In the countries, through which I have traveled, during my survey, perhaps the following places are best adapted for fairs to save the interest of sheep breeding, beginning with the north, viz. Tongue, Thurso, Wick, Langwell, Dornoch, Tain, Dingwall, Beaulie, Inverness, Aviemore, Dalwhinnie, Blair in Athol, Dunkeel, Perth, Kinross, Falkland, Leuchars, Forfar, Brechin, Abergeldie, Laverurie, Keith, Elgin, Forres, and Newton in Murray. At these places, or some of them according to circumstances; there ought to be fairs for sheep, and wool, established at the different seasons of the year, when these commodities are usually brought to market from the breeding country. The wool in the end of July; for lambs in the beginning of the same

month; and, for aged sheep, in the end of August or beginning of September. And they should be so contrived as to succeed each other regularly, so that either buyer or seller beginning at the North may try his market on his way home to the South. Gentlemen ought to be settled with, who will undertake to give the market ground free from duty on sheep or wool, and satisfy themselves with such dues as may be had from other commodities. It would not be amiss likewise to establish in the same places, an annual market for butter and cheese; for, as these are produced in sheep farms, every means ought to be employed to facilitate the sale of the articles produced by a new species of farming, or at least one which at present languishes, and deserves to be nourished by every possible means.

It would likewise be of no small moment to the breeders of sheep, that means were taken on to extirpate the race of foxes, eagles, and carrion crows or corbies, all of which are exceedingly hurtful to a breeding stock, and abound very much in many parts of the Highlands. The wise policy of our ancestors has most happily succeeded in totally destroying the race of wolves in our Island; and there is certainly very little difficulty in the attempt to extirpate the fox, eagle, and raven, for which similar means might be taken.

I cannot conclude without expressing my sincere wish, that the Society for the improvement of British wool, may meet with every possible success in the prosecution of the patriotic objects of its institution; which, indeed, the enlarged views of its members, together with the great advantages, both public and private, which must necessarily flow from their exertions, can scarcely fail to obtain.

To this report is subjoined an appendix, meant (*inoffensively we think*) to prove:

1st, That a peculiar breed of sheep, possessing qualities of the most valuable sort, actually subsists in the Shetland Isles at present.

2d, That that breed is of a hardy nature, and easily reared, and never would have been in danger of being lost, even from neglect alone, had not artificial means been employed to debase it.

3d, That the inhabitants are at this day active in trying to debase it, by selecting for rams only the very worst of the breed they have; and altho' in consequence of the hardness of the original breed they have not been able to effect an entire extirpation of it, they have already succeeded in greatly debasing it, and reducing the number.—The natives are so fond of the fine wool, that they are very loath to lose any of it; and, as they find that rams are apt to stray from the flock during the rutting season, so as to be often entirely lost, they take care to cut every ram lamb that carries a fine fleece; for, as wethers never wander, they are sure of thus keeping the fleece. In this manner, they debase the quality of their wool in general, for the sake of preserving a particular fleece; and realise the fable of the goose with the golden eggs.—This fact the writer of this abstract had from the best authority.

4th, That, therefore, nothing more seems to be wanting to recover the fine breed, but to select the best ewes and the best rams that remain, and keep them apart, for breeding from.

5th, That, before any profits or extensive use can be made of this wool in manufactures, which alone can make it a profitable article to the rearer, the practice of shearing the sheep must be introduced among them.

6th, That a premium be given to the person who shall present a certain number of shorn fleeces at a certain time, neatly done up, as is usual in wool countries.

Abridged Review of New Publications.

Essay on the Principles of Translation, 1790, pp. 260. 4s. Cuddeh and Creech.

IF the art of speech may be allowed to hold the first rank among the arts of human invention, as by enabling mankind to communicate their discoveries, it puts every individual in a situation to profit by the discoveries of his fellows, instead of being left to this solitary experience; and if the art of writing holds the second rank, as it perpetuates discoveries, and enables every age to profit by the discoveries of all that preceded it;—we may, in one view, assign the third place to the Art of Translation, the subject of this treatise,—an art which communicates to one nation the discoveries and improvements of another, and extends the bounds of literature and science, by exhibiting their actual progress in every corner of the world.

So far, however, as regards objects of science alone, the Art of Translation, however important and useful, yet is one of so simple a nature, as to require very little investigation. Accuracy and fidelity in rendering the words and phrases of one language into another are all the requisites for carrying it into practice; other qualifications, if at all taken into view, are of very inferior consideration. But in what regards the objects of taste and polite literature, the Art of Translation, while it retains its importance, becomes more complicated in its nature, and demands many superior requisites for its successful exercise. It is to this last species of translation that the author of the treatise before us has almost exclusively directed his attention, with a view to unfold its principles and establish its rules and precepts.

After an introduction mentioning the way of any treatise on this subject, sufficiently full and explicit, in

which, by the by, the very judicious essay of D’Alembert, in his *Mélanges de Littérature*, is spoken of more slightly than it seems to deserve, the author describes a good translation as follows: “That in which the merit of the original work is so completely transfused into another language, as to be as distinctly apprehended and as strongly felt by a native of the country to which that language belongs, as it is by those who speak the language of the original work.” From this description or definition, which appears to be extremely just and accurate, the three following Laws of Translation are deduced:

- “ 1. That the translation should give a complete transcript of the ideas of the original work.
- “ 2. That the title and manner of writing should be of the same character with that of the original.
- “ 3. That the translation should have all the ease of original composition.”

To these three judicious rules we apprehend nothing can be objected, except that the first does not extend far enough to secure the completion of what is said in the definition to constitute a good translation;—the transcript of the ideas of the original work ought not only to be complete, but faithful; equally removed from excess on the one hand, and deficiency on the other; a bad translator may mangle an author as effectually by making additions of his own, after all the ideas of the original work are completely transcribed, as he can do by stopping short before the sense of his author is fully exhibited.

In illustrating the first of these rules, the author of the essay begins with some very judicious remarks on the necessity of a perfect knowledge of the original language, and a competent acquaintance

acquaintance with the subject treated of. These he illustrates, by a number of well chosen examples from Volard, Melmoth, and particularly D'Alembert, in one or two of which I sh. how ever, we apprehend he blames the translator unjustly, D'Alembert having, in some of the passages condemned, come nearer the sense of the original than the author of the essay:—we allude in particular to the translation of the sentence "*dictatura ad tempus sumebantur*,"—where, from the context, we think it plain that the phrase *ad tempus* means "*occasionally*," and not "*for a limited time*;" the former being the only circumstance in which Tacitus meant to specify the distinction betwixt Dictatorships and the other offices mentioned in the sentence; in which view, D'Alembert's version, "*On croit au besoin des dictateurs passagers*," is faulty only in the addition of the superfluous word "*passagers*," which does not convey a different sense from the "*au besoin*," but serves as an unnecessary amplification of that idea.

The author next enters upon the discussion of the question, Whether it is allowable for a translator to add to or retrench the ideas of the original. He gives his opinion that it is, more peculiarly in poetical translations.—To a certain degree we should not greatly object to this liberty, tho', in every case, it ought to be used with a very sparing hand; but the essay has, in our opinion, given it an extension altogether unwarrantable in good taste and sound criticism. Roscommon, in his essay on translated verse, had prescribed as a general rule,

Your author always will the best advise,
Fall when he falls, and when he rises,
rise.

"Far from adopting," says the author, "the former part of this maxim, I conceive it to be the duty of a poetical

translator never to suffer his original to fall. He must maintain with him a perpetual contest of genius; he must attend him in his highest flights, and soar, if he can, beyond him; and when he perceives at any time a diminution of his powers, when he sees a drooping wing, he must raise him on his own pinions."—In contradiction to this direction we must observe, that if translators were to adopt the author's views, we might have imitations or paraphrases, but we certainly would not have translations. In a translation, we expect to find the original author presented to us as he is, not as the translator may suppose he ought to be; otherwise many of those allusions to circumstances and manners, which, to readers that enter into their spirit, often form the chief beauty, and to readers who study the character and genius of other times and other nations, form the most instructive part of the original work, will probably be altogether lost; it will become impossible to appreciate in any measure, from the translation, the real merits of the author, these being concealed under the labours of the translator; and, after all, there is the greatest probability, be the talents of the translator what they may, that where he fancies himself improving, he may appear to others only deforming the original work.—These remarks might be illustrated even by those passages, from Pope's version of the Iliad, which are produced in the essay, as proofs, of his superior excellence, as many of the translator's supposed improvements would, we apprehend, be justly called in question by one competent to decide on the merits of the original and the translations, in particular, we doubt if the night-piece, in the 24th Book of the Iliad, be "raised and improved" by Pope; he has indeed added some embellishments, but he has also

enfeebled the impression by several superfluous additions*. We mean not to insinuate that no liberty is to be allowed; no doubt, elegance requires that freedoms should be taken with the original; but we must add, the fewer the better, and far from directing a translator to maintain a contest of genius with his original, would advise him to keep as close to it as the nature of his language and the wished-for ease in composition will admit.

Upon the second General Rule for Translation the author observes, that "next in importance to a faithful translation of the sense and meaning of an author, is an assimilation of the style and manner of writing in the translation to that of the original.— A translator, therefore, must apply his attention to discover the true character of his author's style. He must ascertain with precision to what class it belongs; whether to that of the grave, the elevated, the easy, the lively, the florid and ornamented, or the simple and unaffected; and these characteristic qualities must be equally conspicuous in the translation as in the original. If a translator wants this discernment, let him be ever so thoroughly master of the sense of his author, he will present him through a distorting medium, or exhibit him often in a garb that is unsuitable to his character."

This observation is very happily illustrated in the 5th and 6th chapters of the work, where many well

chosen examples, both of its observance and failure, are given. This rule, however, it is justly remarked, demands the following limitations;—

1. "The imitation must be regulated by the nature or genius of the languages of the original and of the translation." 2. "The Latin and Greek languages admit of inversions which are inconsistent with the genius of the English." 3. "The English language is not incapable of an elliptical mode of expression, but it does not admit of it to the same degree as the Latin." Of these three rules, the two last of which are, in fact, only branches of the first, we have likewise some happy illustrations. And in the conclusion of his remarks on this 2d law of translation, the author examines the question, Whether a poem can be well translated into prose? The question is, in our opinion, justly answered in the negative.

The Third General Rule "that the translation should have all the ease of original composition," comes next to be considered. This, it is evident, is the most difficult of all the three. "When we consider," says the author, "those restraints within which a translator finds himself necessarily confined, with regard to the sentiments and manner of his original, it will soon appear that this last requisite includes the most difficult part of his task. To one who walks in trammels, it is not easy to exhibit an air of grace and freedom." It

* The prose translation of this passage in the essay is feebly and inadequately executed; the expressive epithets of *purpureo* and *auriferis* are altogether omitted, *bragiana* is weakly rendered by "opening to the sight," and *sanctus* "*avite*-*locutus*" is unaccountably translated by "every valley," by which a very picturesque circumstance in the original is quite lost. A similar remark may be made on the translation of Jupiter's speech to the Assembly of the Gods, in which the author seems in several places purposefully to have made use of mean and vulgar terms, with a view to debase the original below Mr Pope's translation.

† In the course of these illustrations we could not help smiling at the author's calling Mr Phœbus's translation of Homer a "valuable work, as containing a most perfect translation of the sense of his author," an eulogium that we doubt few will confirm who have compared it with the original.

“It is difficult, even for a capital painter, to preserve in a copy of a picture all the ease and spirit of the original; yet the painter employs precisely the same colours, and has no other care than faithfully to imitate the touch and manner of the picture that is before him: if the original is easy and graceful, the copy will have the same qualities, in proportion as the imitation is just and perfect. The translator’s task is very different: he uses not the same colours with the original, but is required to give his picture the same force and effect. He is not allowed to copy the touches of the original, yet is required, by touches of his own, to produce a perfect resemblance. The more he studies a scrupulous imitation, the less his copy will reflect the ease and spirit of the original. How then shall a translator accomplish this difficult union of ease with fidelity? To use a bold expression, he must adopt the very soul of his author, which must speak through his own organs.”

Illustrations in a similar manner with the foregoing are given of this rule, and a number of very just remarks are made on the translation of idiomatic phrases. Subsequent to these we have an agreeable dissertation on the best translations of Don Quixote, and a comparison of Swolter’s with that by Moutaux, in which proper justice is done to the latter.

In the last chapter of the essay, we meet with some excellent remarks on Voltaire; particularly his translations from Shakespeare and Hudibras, and the peculiar character of his wit. A French translation of Hudibras is mentioned, and specimens of it are given, from which it appears indeed to be executed in a very masterly manner, preserving the spirit and manner, as well as the sense, of a very difficult original.

Such is the plan pursued by the ingenious author of the essay, in investi-

gating the Laws of Translation: that he has in most instances succeeded very happily, we believe most of his readers will allow; and every lover of polite literature must own their obligations to him for his successful delineation of the principles of an agreeable and useful, though too much despised, art.

2. *Poems*, by J. Aikin, M. D. crown ed. 8vo. pp. 136. 3s. 6. boards.—Johnson. 1791.

In these elegant poems we have an example of the happy effect of the union of sound judgment, correct taste, and extensive knowledge, with poetical talents. While the author discovers, through the whole, that vigour of imagination, and delicacy of feeling, which are the soul of poetry, his good sense and nice perception of propriety exclude from his productions every thing puerile, extravagant, or incongruous; his diligent observation of nature adorns his poems with new and beautiful images; and his enlarged views and liberal spirit enrich them with just and noble sentiments. The volume contains pieces in many different classes of poetical composition, in each of which the author has acquitted himself successfully; every where uniting classical purity of language with harmony of versification.

3. *Debates in the General Assembly of the Church of Scotland, on taking into consideration an Overture from Edinburgh, respecting the Test Act.* 4s. 2s. 2d. 1790. To which is added a *Speech of Lord Lauchlan on ecclesiastical Conformity*, 1791. 8vo. pp. 81. 1s.—Pridden. 1791.

In these debates, the several questions relative to the Test Act are ably and candidly discussed. We see the

the supporters of the overture are solicitous for exempting the members of the Church of Scotland from the ope-

ration of the Test Act, they are particularly cautious not to blend their cause with the Dissenters in England.

Artful Villainy brought to Light : a Chinese Tale.

THERE was in the dynasty of Ming, in the small city Yungkia, of the district of Ouentecheou, in the province of Tchickiang, a scholar whose name was Ouang, and surname Kie, and whose title of honour was Ouenhua. He had married a lady called Licou, who alone possessed his whole affection; he had no other child but one daughter: thus the whole family consisted of three persons, besides slaves and domestics. Though he was not rich, yet he lived in a handsome manner, and study was his whole employment; he had not yet taken a degree, but he was in quest of that honour; and in order to attain it he lived in retirement, constantly taking up his time with books, and not suspending his labour on any account, unless now and then to visit two or three friends, who mutually communicated their productions to each other. As for the lady Licou, she was a model of virtue; she was witty, diligent, frugal, and industrious; and these two persons of so amiable a character lived together in a perfect union.

One afternoon, about the latter end of the spring, in charming weather, a friend or two came to draw him from his books, with a design to take a walk in the fields. Ouang, invited by the sweetness of the season, was willing to take a little diversion, and he and his company went and regaled themselves, drank several bumpers, and so parted.

Ouang coming near his own house, found two servants at the door, who were in a great passion with a man in the street: this latter lived at Hou-techeou, and was called Liu; he had a basket in his hand full of ginger, which he sold: the servants pretended he had made them pay too dear for the quantity he had given them: the dealer, on the other hand, said they would wrong him, if they withheld a single mite. Ouang having learned the cause of the disturbance, turned towards the dealer, and said, "You are very well paid; go about your business, and don't make such a noise as my ears." The dealer, who was a plain honest man, replied with his usual freedom, "It is not possible for us small traders to bear the heat loss; and it is very ill done in you, who ought to have a great and generous soul, to be so hard with us poor people." Ouang, who was a little heated with wine,

fell into a great passion at these words. "You rascal you," said he to him, "how dare you talk to me in this manner?" Upon this, without considering he was a man in years, he gave him a hearty push, and threw him down: the fall was violent, inasmuch that the poor wretch lay without sense or motion. To say the truth, one ought never to be in a passion, especially with people who get their livelihood by dealing in trifles: a mite or two can never be worth haggling about; and yet it is very common to see servants sheltering themselves under their masters, who are often brought into trouble by that means; but prudent persons give such strict orders, that all inconveniences of this kind are prevented.

It is very certain, Ouang should have been more moderate; for want of this, he committed a great fault, and he was severely punished for it, as will appear hereafter. As soon as ever he saw the stranger fall at his feet without motion, and almost without life, he was seized with extreme dread, which soon dissipated the fumes of wine: He went to his assistance, and cried out for help; they carried the man half dead into the hall: as he yet discovered no sign of life, they poured into him a little hot tea, which recovered him from the swoon. Then Ouang asked his pardon, and treated him with excellent wine, giving him something to eat, to renew his strength; after which he made him a present of a piece of stuff to make money of. This good treatment soon turned his resentment into joy, which he testified by a thousand thanks; after which he took his leave, and he made the best of his way to the side of a river, which it was necessary to pass before it was dark. If Ouang could possibly have foreseen what would happen, he would have urged the stranger to a longer stay, and maintained him for the two following months: this hospitality would have prevented the crosses which he afterwards met with: his conduct may afford a good lesson, which is expressed in this proverb, *We throw a gulf net with both hands, and catch a hundred misfortunes.* Ouang no sooner saw that he was gone, but he entered into the inner part of his house, and rejoiced with his wife that he was so soon got rid of so troublesome an affair: as it was night, the Lady Licou called her slaves, and ordered them

them to serve in supper: she began with giving her husband a draught of hot wine to recover him from his fright; he had already regained his spirits, and his heart was at rest, when he heard a sudden knocking at the door. He was seized with a new dread, and taking a lamp, went hastily to see what was the matter; he found a man called Tchou-se, master of the ferry-boat by which they crossed the river; he had in his hand a piece of stuff, and the merchant's basket. As soon as he perceived Ouang, he said with a wild look, What a dreadful affair you have fallen into! you are absolutely lost. What! a scholar like you to kill a poor trader! This was like a clap of thunder to the unfortunate Ouang: what is it that you say, replied he trembling? Don't you know what I mean, answered Tchou-se? I suppose you know this stuff and this basket. Yes, I do, said he; a dealer in ginger belonging to Hou-tcheou, came to my house, and had this piece of stuff of me to-day, and this basket in which he carried his ginger. How did they fall into your hands? It was almost night, said Tchou-se, when a man of Hou-tcheou, called Liu, wanted a passage in my boat; he was hardly got in before he complained of a violent pain in his breast, which reduced him to the last extremity; then telling me it was the effect of blows which you gave him, he put the basket and stuff into my hands: these will be a proof when you prosecute this affair, which I conjure you to do: for this reason, go to Hou-tcheou as soon as you can to acquaint my relations, and pray them to revenge my cause with the life of him who deprived me of mine: when those words were ended he expired; his body is still in the boat, which I have brought into your port at the entrance of the river: you may examine into the affair yourself, and so take proper measures for your safety. At this relation Ouang was so full of terror he could not speak one word, his heart was agitated like that of a fawn who is hemmed in on all sides, and seeks on all sides a passage to escape by. At length coming to himself, he endeavoured to dissemble the confusion he was in: what you relate, said he boldly, cannot possibly be: however he ordered a servant to go privately to the bark, and examine if what he had said was true: the servant returned very speedily, and assured him that the dead body was certainly there. Ouang was a man of an irresolute mind, and could not see very far into transactions; he goes back into the house, almost out of his wits, and told his wife what he had just heard; it is quite over with me, cried he, I am a lost man, the storm is ready to burst over my head, nor do I know any remedy for my misfortune, unless I can bribe the waterman to conceal

the body in some place or other while it continues dark. Upon this he takes a purse of silver, amounting to about twenty taels, and returning hastily to the waterman, Master, said he, I hope you will keep the secret, and I will intrust you with the whole affair: I must own I had a hand in this unfortunate business, but more thro' imprudence than malice: we are both natives of Ouen-tcheou, and I flatter myself that you will use me like a fellow citizen: would you ruin me for the love of a stranger; what advantage can you gain by it? is not it better to hush up this affair? if you will, my acknowledgment shall be proportionable to the benefit received from you; take then the corpse, and throw it into some by-place: the darkness of the night favours our design without its coming to the knowledge of any person whatever. What place can I chuse, replied the water-man? if by chance any should discover the mystery to-morrow, and there should be a search for the criminal, they will look upon me as an accomplice in the murder, and by doing you service I shall equally involve myself in this troublesome affair. You know very well, said Ouang, the sepulchre of my father is very near; and is a place not at all frequented; besides, the night is very dark, and there is no fear of meeting one soul by the way; be then so kind as to fetch the corpse from your boat. This is a likely method, replied the waterman, but what will you pay me for the service? Then Ouang took the purse and gave it to the waterman, who, finding by the weight that it was not very considerable, How! said he, with a scornful air, here is a murder in the case; and you think to get out of the scrape for so small a sum: It was my good fortune that conducted this man to my boat; heaven has given me an opportunity of changing my condition for a better, and you would put me off with so little; this business is worth at least a hundred taels. Ouang, who was very eager to get rid of the danger as soon as possible, durst not contradict him; he signified by a nod that he accepted the condition, and immediately went into the house, where he hastily took the remainder of his silver, together with habits, his wife's jewels, and such like things, and returned speedily to offer all to Tchou-se, telling him that what he brought amounted to about sixty taels, which was all that his circumstances would permit him to give, and he besought him to be contented therewith. In effect Tchou-se seemed to be mollified; I will not, said he, over-rate the misfortune, but as you are a man of letters, I hope hereafter you will have a regard for me. Ouang began to be revived from this moment, and became a little easy: he got a collection for the water-

man, and while it was preparing sent two slaves for shovels and mattocks; the name of one of the two was Hou; he was a brutal fellow, for which reason he had the surname of Hou the Tiger. The company set out soon after; and when they were come over against the sepulchre, they chose a place that was soft and easy to dig, where they made a grave and buried the carcase; after which they returned to the house. However, this labour took up the greater part of the night, and the day begun to break before they came home: after breakfast, the waterman took his leave. Ouang sent away his servants, and went into his wife's apartment to bewail their misfortune. Is it possible, cried he, that a man of my profession, and of so ancient a family, should be reduced to submit to a wretch to whom, upon any other occasion, I should not condescend to speak? At these words he shed a flood of tears. His wife endeavoured to mitigate his sorrow, saying, Instead of murmuring as you do, praise heaven that has protected you in this misfortune; compose yourself for rest as well as you can, for you have need of it after the troubles and fatigues of the night. Ouang followed her advice, and went to bed. As for the waterman, he sold his boat, and with the money the scholar had given him opened a shop, and applied himself to trade.

The common saying is true, that misfortunes ride post, and succeed one another: The daughter of Ouang whom I mentioned before, entered on her third year, when she was attacked with the small pox of a malignant sort; they prayed heartily for their only daughter, and procured the best physicians to come to her assistance: the parents spent days together, weeping by her bedside: at length they learnt that there was a physician in the city called Siu, greatly experienced in these distempers, and who had saved a great number of children that were given over. Ouang wrote a very pressing letter, and gave it to Hou the Tiger, his slave, charging him to make all possible haste; but Hou did not return home till noon at noon. The slave stopt at a public house, where he got drunk, and returning home told his master the physician was not at home, and that he waited for him all day to no purpose; which greatly augmented the father's grief. Some days thereafter the father discovered the trick by means of some of the domestics. At this news, Ouang being transported with anger, called the rest of his slaves: Be quick, said he, take this rascal, and lay him on the ground, and give him fifty hearty blows with a battoon, and be sure to lay them languidly on. When the correction was over he withdrew, full of grief, into his apartment. The slave got up with great

difficulty, greatly bruised with the strokes he had received, and crawled to his room as well as he could. There, full of rage, and debating with himself like a madman; Cruel maker, said he, you shall pay dear for your brutality. I'll be revenged for this. Then, after he had considered a moment, I need not go far, says he, to seek for an opportunity, it is near at hand, and I will not let it slip; as soon as my wounds are healed, you shall know what I can do, I shall teach you, according to the old proverb, Whether it is the bucket hung by the rope that goes down into the well, or whether it is the water out of the well falls into the bucket.

As Ouang was walking in his gallery, one day, he observed a company of officers enter, who put a cord about his neck, and carried him away to the Mandarin. In vain did he plead he was one of the learned, and deserved better treatment. When he came to the tribunal, he perceived his slave was become his accuser, and immediately conjectured it proceeded from revenge. The Mandarin accosted him thus, You are accused of having killed a merchant of Houtcheou; what do you say to the accusation? Sir, replied Ouang, you are the representative of righteous heaven, do not listen to the calumnies of this wretch. My accuser is one of my slaves whom I caught in a fault, and for which I severely corrected him, and in revenge he has formed a design to ruin me. Hou the tiger, striking his forehead against the ground, Sir, as you act in heaven's stead, I conjure you not to regard what this learned person has said, who has an excellent talent at counterfeiting. It is easy to clear up this matter's search, and you will find the bones of the murdered person in his sepulchre.

The Mandarin gave orders to search the sepulchre, and the bones were found. The crime is plain, says the Mandarin, and was going to put Ouang to the torture, when he made this defence: "It is plain there are the bones of a person murdered long ago, why did not my accuser appear against me sooner? He has procured this skeleton to fix the calumny upon me." But Hou replied, "It is true, this person was killed long ago, and I have connived at it too long.—" "I hoped my master would have corrected his passionate temper, but he is growing every day more brutal, and I was afraid I should have at last shared the same fate:—" "But let his servants and neighbours be sent for, and they will testify concerning this affair." They were accordingly ordered to appear, and they declared, that about a year ago, Ouang beat a dealer in ginger till he fainted away, but he came to himself again, and we know not what happened afterwards. This trick Ouang is, that he contradicted himself in his examination.

tion, and he was ordered to be bastinadoed. Immediately two lusty fellows belonging to the Tribunal seized the scholar, threw him down, and laid on him twenty strokes of the battoon. This had such an impression upon Ouang, whose constitution was tender and delicate, that he made no scruple of confessing whatever they pleased. The Mandarin said, it is no longer a doubt that you deserve to die, yet as no friends of the murdered person appear to demand justice, your execution shall be delayed for some time.—Ouang was conducted into a dungeon, and the slaves, returning home, acquainted their Lady with all the transactions. She fainted away for some time, and when she came to herself, she made the neighbourhood echo with her cries. Her grief being somewhat abated, she dressed herself in another habit, and set forward, with what silver she could command, with one of her slaves following her; she crossed the city, and came to the gate of the prison, where obtaining entrance, she gave her husband the money to distribute to the jailor and keepers, that they might treat him with more mildness during his confinement. For six months Ouang led this solitary life in a dungeon, which produced a distemper that was likely to baffle all the physicians art; and which filled his Lady's heart with grief. While she was wholly taken up with the distress and melancholy situation of her husband, the servants in the lower part of the house saw a man, advanced in years, enter, carrying a present, and asking for the master of the house. When they had looked at him a little, they ran all off crying, "A ghost! A ghost!" The stranger took hold of one of them by the arm as he was running off, and said, "Are you all mad, why do you mistake me for an apparition?" The lady, hearing the noise, came hastily out to see what was the matter. The good old man advanced, and made her obeisance, saying, you have doubtless forgot the old man of Honscheou called Liu, who dealt in ginger;—'tis I myself, and I shall always have a grateful remembrance of your husband's entertainment, and the present he made me of a piece of stuff. I have now brought some trifles from my own country, that I take the liberty to make you a present of. I cannot comprehend what could induce your people to take me for an apparition! One of the domestics who lay snug in a corner called out, "Madam, take heed what you do, for he has certainly assumed this fantastic body to embroil your affairs, and complete my master's destruction!" The Lady Licou silenced the servant, and addressing herself to the stranger, said, "As far as I can comprehend, there is no reason to believe you have risen from the dead; but my husband has suffered greedily on your account.—"

"The waterman Tcheou-se brought a dead body to our door, and produced the basket and the piece of stuff that we gave you, saying, that you had delivered it to him as a proof you was killed, by my husband. We prevailed on him by money to conceal it, and he assisted in burying the dead body. But about a year thereafter, Hou informed against his master at the tribunal, and by torture my husband was obliged to confess all, in consequence of which he was cast into a dungeon where he still lies."

At the Lady Licou's relation, Liu violently beat his breast. "Ah, madam," said he, "is it possible there should be a man under heaven capable of so black an action. When I left you last year, I went directly to the bark to cross the river.—The waterman seeing the piece of stuff in my hands, demanded where I had it.—Having no suspicion of his villainous design, I informed him, that being thrown down by your husband, and him some time senseless; I was afterwards kindly entertained, and received the piece of stuff as a present. He desired me to sell it to him, which I did; he desired likewise my bamboo basket, which I gave him for my passage, but could any one have guessed the horrid villainy intended?" "My good friend," replied the Lady, "I could not be certain before I spoke to you, that the accusation against my husband was a forgery; but where had he the dead body?" Liu, having considered a moment, said, "I now recollect, that while I was in the boat, I saw a dead body float near the bank of the river; which I suppose he has used for his diabolical purpose; but in this affair there is no time to lose."—The Lady took the present, ordered dinner, and set out for the Mandarin's palace, attended by her slaves, and followed by the old man.

She informed the Mandarin of all that had contributed to her husband's disgrace, and ended with saying, that this was the very dealer in ginger her husband was accused of killing. The Mandarin having heard her attentively, made Liu draw near in his turn to be examined. Liu related the beginning and end of the dispute in which he was hurt by the fall: he explained the manner in which he was prevailed upon to sell the piece of stuff, and gave entire satisfaction to all the questions that were asked him. "But (said the Mandarin) has not this woman prevailed upon you by money to give this evidence?" Liu, striking his forehead against the ground, immediately replied, "Such a trick is impracticable; I am a merchant of Hou-tcheou, and have traded in this city for several years; I am known by a great number of persons;—"

"how

how then can I carry on an imposture? if that which they have feigned concerning my death was true, do you think when I was ready to die, I should not have ordered the waterman to fetch some of my acquaintance to give them a commission to demand justice? was it likely that I should give this charge to a person unknown?— but if I had been really dead, would none of my relations at Hou-tcheou, when they found I was a long while absent, come and make an enquiry after me? If I had been killed, as has been said, would they not have carried my accusation to your tribunal? how then comes it to pass, that for a whole year together no body has appeared; and instead of one of my relations, a slave should take upon him to accuse his master? I returned to the city but this day, and therefore could be informed no sooner of this horrid scandal; in short, though I have contributed nothing to the misery of this unfortunate scholar, yet as I am in some sort the occasion of his suffering, 'twas not possible for me to see innocence oppressed without emotion; and this is the only motive that has brought me to your foot-stool: give orders, I beseech you, that enquiry may be made concerning what relates to me, for nothing can be more easy." "Since you are known here by many (replied the Mandarin) mention some, that I may examine." Liu mentioned to the number of ten, whose names the Mandarin took down, but fixed on the four last whom he sent for. When they entered the hall of audience, it was observable, that as soon as they perceived the old man Liu, they said one to another,—"Ah! here is our ancient friend Liu, of the city of Hou-tcheou; he is not dead then, as was given out." The Mandarin ordered them to draw nearer, that they might take the better notice of him. "Are our eyes enchanted? (added they) no; 'tis he himself; this is the dealer in ginger that was said to have been killed by the scholar Quang." The Mandarin gave orders to some of the officers to inform themselves secretly where the waterman Tcheou-se lived, and to assure him with false hopes, that he might come directly to the tribunal, without having the least suspicion of the business in hand. As for Hou the Tyger, who had given in the accusation, as he had a person bound for him, he was easy to be found: the order was given that they should both be brought into court in the afternoon; the officers replied with a shout that testified how readily they obeyed, and separated immediately to go to different parts of the city. In the mean time the Lady Licou, who had orders to be there with old Liu at the same hour, went to the prison, where she informed her husband of

all that had passed. This relation so transported him with joy, that one would have thought the most spirituous essence was poured upon his head, or the sweetest dew fallen upon his heart and the same moment his displeasure left him. "I was chiefly provoked (said he) at the vile slave, whom I looked upon as a monster, and did not believe there was a more wicked man to be found; but the villainy of the waterman far exceeds his: is it possible to carry wickedness to so great an excess? If this good old man had not appeared himself, I should never have known whether I had died for a real or a supposed crime; but at length the truth is manifest."

The Lady Licou did not fail to be at the audience with old Liu, whom she had handsomely regaled at her own house: they had by cunning prevailed upon Tcheou-se to be there, who, after he had quitted his boat, opened a shop, and was become a stuff-merchant; the officers of the tribunal had persuaded him that their master would make a good purchase, so that he entered the hall of audience with an air of satisfaction, however the justice of heaven was on the point of discovering itself. When he thought least of the matter, and was turning his head here and there in a confident manner, he perceived old Liu: in an instant, by an emotion of his mind which he could not command, his ears became as blood: old Liu called to him with a loud voice, Well, Mr Boatman, how have you done since the day that I sold you the piece of stuff and the bamboo basket? has the traffic been lucky? At these words Tcheou-se hung down his head and made no reply; but his countenance suddenly appeared like the branch of a tree that is withered by the sun: they introduced at the same time Hou the Tiger: this wretch, after he had betrayed his master, did not return back to his master's house, but lodged in another place as if he had ceased to be a slave, and was coming that day to the audience for the sake of diversion, and to see what was doing; the officers of the tribunal met him very luckily near the Mandarin's palace. We were looking for you, said they to him, because to-day sentence is to be passed on your master; the relations of the murdered person prosecuted the cause, and there is nobody wanting but you, who are the informer, to condemn him to the punishment his crime deserves.— Hou the Tiger, transported with joy, followed the officers and knelt down at the foot of the tribunal. When the Mandarin saw him, Dost thou know that man? said he, pointing to old Liu with his finger. Hou the Tyger, after he had beheld him a little earnestly, was immediately in such confusion and astonishment that he could not speak a word. The Mandarin perceiving the embarrassment

barrassment and concern of these two villains, took about a moment for consideration, then holding his hand towards Hou the Tyger, Thou dog of a slave, said he to him, what has thy master done to thee that thou shouldst contrive his ruin, with the waterman, and invent for black a calumny?— Nothing is more true, replied the slave, than my master has killed a man, nor was it a story of mine own invention. How, said the Mandarin, are you so obstinate as to continue in this falsehood? let the wretch be taken and put to the torture till he owns his crime. Hou the Tyger, in the midst of his torment, cried aloud, Alas! Sir, if you reproach me for conceiving a mortal hatred against my master, and becoming his accuser, I plead guilty; but if I am killed, I will never own that I have conspired with any person whatsoever to invent what is called a slander: Yes, my master having one day a dispute with Liu, struck him so hard that he fell down senseless; immediately they gave him something to drink, and he came to himself; then they regaled him and made him a present of a piece of stuff: Liu went from thence to cross the river, and the self same night, about the second watch, the boatman Tchou-se found a dead body in his boat as far as our door, and to make it evident that it was Liu, he shewed the piece of stuff and the bamboo basket, and there was not one of the domestics but what took it for fact; the money and the jewels which my master gave the waterman splot his mouth, and he promised to conceal the murder; I was one of those who helped to bury the corpse, and afterwards my master using me ill, I resolved to revenge myself, and accused him at this tribunal: as for this man that died, I swear I have not the least knowledge of him: nay, if I had not seen old Liu here, I should never have thought my master was falsely accused in having this murder laid to his charge. It is not in my power to tell what body it was, or whence it came; none but the waterman can give an account of it. This examination being taken by the Mandarin, he made Tchou-se draw near to be interrogated in his turn; this man made various pretences to disguise his crime; but Liu, who was present, immediately discovered his knavery, and the Mandarin put him to the torture, which quickly made him confess the truth. “I declare (says he) that the last year, in such a month and such a day, Liu came to me for a passage in my boat, holding in his hand a piece of stuff; I accidentally asked him who had made him that present, upon which he related the whole story, and at the same time there appearing a dead body near the bank, which was thrown by the current, it came into my head to make use of it to deceive Ouang; this made me purchase the piece

“of stuff and the bamboo basket; and as soon as Liu was landed, I took the corpse out of the water, put it into my boat, and rowed to Ouang’s door: contrary to all appearance he believed what I said concerning Liu’s death, and gave me a good sum not to divulge it, and I went with some of his servants to bury the body, who took it for the corpse of old Liu: there is nothing but what is true in this confusion that I have made, and I am ready to suffer any thing if the least particular is false.” All this, said the Mandarin, agrees with what I know already, but there is one article seems very dark: Is it possible that at that very instant a dead body should be found near the bank? Besides, is it credible that this corpse should resemble old Liu?— Without doubt thou hast killed this man in some other place, and thy design was to make Ouang pass for the author of the murder. “Ah! Sir, cried Tchou-se, if I had any thoughts of killing any body, could not I have killed Liu sooner than any other person, since he was alone with me in the boat in a dark night? What I have said is true; seeing a body float in the water I thought it would be easy to make use of it to deceive Ouang, for which reason I purchased the stuff and basket of Liu; but that which persuaded me most that I should succeed was, that I knew Ouang to be a fearful and credulous man, and I knew likewise that he had never seen Liu but this once, and that when it was night and by the light of a lamp; I procured the piece of stuff and the bamboo basket, that they might immediately bring to his mind the dealer in ginger.”

“These were the reasons that made me think the trick would succeed, and that he would fall into the snare that I had laid for him: As for the dead body I swear that I know nothing of it, and I make no doubt but the person fell accidentally into the river and was drowned, though I can say nothing certain as to this point.” Then old Liu, falling on his knees, said thus, “It is certainly true that when I passed over the river in his boat, there appeared a dead body floating in the water.” Upon which the Mandarin gave credit to what he had said, and committed all these depositions to writing. Tchou-se falling into tears, cried out, “Take pity, Sir, on this poor wretch who lies at your feet, for I had no other design by this artifice than to get a little money, without thinking of any further harm; therefore mitigate the punishment I beseech you.” The Mandarin raising his voice, “How audacious wretch! (said he) canst thou expect favour when thy passion for another person’s wealth has brought him within a hair’s breadth of destruction:

"destruction? This design was laid too deep to be the first trial of your skill, 'tis not unlikely that many others may have perished by such like contrivances. It is my duty to free the city from so dangerous a plague. As for Hou the Tyger, that unnatural slave, who forgetting the benefits he received from his master, has contrived his destruction, he deserves to be severely punished." At the same time, he ordered the executioners to take the two villains, and laying them on the ground, to give Hou the Tyger forty blows with the battoon, and to bastinado Tcheou-fe till he expired under the blows. They did not know that Hou the Tyger had just got over a dangerous disease, and consequently was not in a condition to undergo the punishment; but the justice of heaven would no longer suffer this treacherous slave, for he expired on the pavement before he had received his number of blows; Tcheou-fe did not die till he had received 70.

This done, the Mandarin sent for Ouang out of prison, and in full audience declared him innocent; besides, he ordered all the cloth that was in Tcheou-fe's shop, and had been bought with Ouang's money, to be delivered to him; the whole stock amounted to about a hundred taels. "According to the course of justice, (said the Mandarin) this ought to be confiscated, but as Ouang is a scholar that has greatly suffered, I compassionate the miserable condition to which he has been reduced; let every thing that is found at the thief's house be returned to him that it was extorted from." This was an act of goodness in the Mandarin. They went, according to order, and took up the dead body, in which they observed that his nails were still full of sand, which was a proof that he fell into the river off the bank and was drowned, endeavouring to get up it again: as none of his relations laid claim to him, the Mandarin ordered the officers to lay him in the common burying place of the poor. Ouang and his wife, together with old Liu, after returning their humble thanks to the Mandarin, returned to their house,

where they cared for the good old man who had taken so much pains to disprove the calumny, and shewed him all the kindness that could be expected from the sincerest gratitude.

From this time forward Ouang learnt to moderate the heat of his temper, and to restrain his natural impetuosity. If he met a poor man who asked an alms, or desired any service, he received him with an air of affability, and shewed his readiness to assist him; in short, he came to a resolution to labour in good earnest to attain his degrees, and to obliterate the remembrance of this fatal accident; he applied himself constantly to his books, had little commerce with the world, and lived in this manner for the space of ten years, after which he was raised to the degree of doctor. There is a great deal of reason to say, that magistrates and officers of justice are obliged to regard the life of a man more than a contemptible plant, and that they are highly culpable when they are as careless in examining a process, as if they assisted at the disputes of a company of children that are at play. Nothing ought to be done precipitately; as for example, in the cause of Ouang, the main point was to penetrate into the fetches and artifices of the waterman; if the dealer in ginger had not happily arrived at Quen-tcheou, and if thro' too much precipitation they had not waited for his arrival, the slave who had accused his master would not have thought he had slandered him; the wife would not have imagined her husband had been innocent of the murder, and the accused person himself, would not have known he had been unjustly oppressed; much less could the judge have had the least knowledge of the matter, for it was impossible for him to penetrate into things concealed with so great care. Let benevolent magistrates, as they ought, have the same compassion for the people, as the father has of his children, and they may learn from this story both in what manner they ought to conduct themselves, and what faults they should avoid.

P O E T R Y.

ODE TO THE NIGHTINGALE, by MRS ROBINSON.

SWEET Bird of Sorrow!—why complain,
In such soft melody of Song,
That Echo, am'rous of thy strain,
The long ring cadence doth prolong?

Ah! tell me, tell me, why,
Thy dulcet notes ascend the sky.
Or on the filmy vapours glide
Along the misty mountain's side!
And wherefore dost thou love to dwell,
In the dark wood and moss-grown cell,
Beside the willow margin'd stream—
Why dost thou court wan Cynthia's
beam?

Sweet

Sweet Songstresses—if thy wayward fate
Hath robb'd Thee of thy bosom's mate,
Oh, think not thy heart-piercing moan
Evap'rates on the breezy air.

Or that the plaintive song of Care
Steals from thy widow'd Breast alone.
Oft have I heard thy mournful Tale,
On the high Cliff, that o'er the Vale
Hangs its dark brow, whose awful shade
Spreads a deep gloom along the glade:
Led by its sound, I've wander'd far
Till crimson evening's flaming Star,
On Heav'n's vast dome resplendent hung,
And round ethereal vapours hung;
And oft I've sought th' Hygeian Maid,
In rosy dimpling smiles array'd,
Till forc'd with every Hope to part,
Reflless Pain subdued my Heart.

Oh then, far o'er the reflless deep
Forkorn my poignant pangs I bore,
Alone in foreign realms to weep,
Where Envy's voice could taunt me no
more.

I hop'd, by mingling with the gay,
To snatch the veil of grief away.
I hoped amid the joyous train
To break Affliction's ponderous chain;
Vain was the Hope—in vain I sought
The placid hour of careless thought,
Where Fashion wing'd her light career,
And sportive Pleasure danc'd along,
Oft have I shunn'd the blithesome throng,
To hide th' involuntary tear.

For e'en where rapt'rous transports
glow,
From the full Heart the conscious tear
will flow,

When to my downy couch remov'd,
Fancy recall'd my wearied mind
To scenes of Friendship left behind,
Scenes still regretted, still below'd!
Ah, then I felt the pang of Grief,
Grasp my warm Heart, and mock re-
lief;

My burning lids Sleep's balm defied,
And on my feverish lip imperfect murmurs
died.

Reflless and sad—I sought once more
A calm retreat on Britain's shore;
Deceitful Hope, e'en there I found
That soothing Friendship's precious
name
Was but a short-liv'd empty sound,
And Love a false delusive flame.

Then come sweet Bird, and with thy
strain,
Steal from my breast the thorn of pain;

Else! selace of my lonely hour,
In craggy caves and silent bow'rs,
When happy Mortals seek repose,
By night's pale lamp we'll chaunt our
woes,

And, as her chilling tears diffuse
O'er the white thorn their silv'ry dew,
I'll with the lucid boughs entwine

A weeping Wreath, which round my
Head

Shall by the waning Crescent strike,
And light us to our leafy bed,—
But ah! nor leafy beds nor bow'rs
Fring'd with soft May's enamell'd flow'rs,
Nor pearly leaves, nor Cynthia's beams,
Nor smiling Pleasure's shadowy dreams,
Sweet Bird, not e'en thy melting strains
Can calm the Heart, where Tyrant Sor-
row reigns.

STANZA.—By the same

WHEN fragrant gales and summer
show'rs;

Call'd forth the sweetly-scented flow'rs:
When ripen'd sheaves of golden grain,
Strew'd their rich treasures o'er the plain;
When the full grape did nectar yield,
In tepid drops of purple hue;
When the thick grove, and thirring field,
Drank the soft show'r and bloom'd re-
new;

O then my joyful heart did say,
"Sure this is Nature's Hap-py-day!"

But when the yellow leaf did fade,
And every gentle flow'r decay'd;
When whistling winds and dreaching
rain,

Swept with rude force the naked plain;
When o'er the desolated scene

I saw the drifted snow descend;
And sadness darken'd all the green,
And Nature's triumphs seem'd to end;
O! then, my mourning heart did say,
"Thus Youth shall vanish, Life decay."

When Beauty blooms, and Fortune
smiles,

And wealth the easy breast beguiles;
When pleasure from her downy wings,
Her soft bewitching accents sings:
Then Friends look kind—and sound the
heart

The brightest flames of passion smore,
False Flattery's soothing strokes impart
The warmest Friendship—foulest Love;
But when capricious Fortune flies,
Then Friendship fades;—and Passion
dies.

THE LAPLANDER'S LOVE-SONG.

From the SPECTATOR, N^o 146.*"Haft, my Rein-deer, and let us nimble go," &c.*

I.

ELA æge carpe viam; celeri, mi cerve,
volatu
Præcurrito vchto; est et amoris iter.
Ea æge nunc rapidos devincito fulguris
ignes;
Frigore pernicios gressibus instat a-
mor.

II.

Humida circumdant deserta, ac horrida
latè,
Et sol extremo porrigit orbe jubar;
Nec operit cœlum, nec irradicata super-
sunt
Carmine, quæ lestant ætæ longa via.

III.

At circumfusæ longè latèque paludes
Præcussidæ aristo mollis præta meo:
Humida, dum quaro vestigia cara puel-
læ,
Præ teneris præta est et ætæna palus:

IV.

Hæc, quam sollicito videantur pectore,
tarða
Tempora, dum gemitu, dum peramata
procul!
I, ventos celeri, mi cerve, evincito gressu;
Urgat impatiens ardor et usque pedes.

V.

Excipient duces tunc otia blanda labores,
Explebuntque animimum gaudia plena
tuam;
Pukherrimæ mecum miraberis ora puellæ
Et facile rissus, ingenitæque decus.

VI.

En dilecta tarat! species ni fallito cellos,
Et niveo motas pectore findit aquas;
Candidis amplectens iterum dum flumina
membriis,
O quando tales serus et ipse dabit!

VII.

Necquequant interea volvis erantus undas
Flumina, et abscondas molis membra
mibi;
Clarior ex ipso tactu sit splendida lym-
pha;
Laudis et astæ oculos auda puella meos.
Ed. Herald.

INSCRIPTION ON A COT AT THE LEA-
SOWES:—BY GRENSTONE.

O YOU that bathe in courtlye blisse,
Or toyle in Fortune's giddy sphere,
I, not too rashlye deem amyffe
Of him that bydes contented here.

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Not yett disdeigne the russet froaze.
That o'er each carelesse lymbe he syngs;
Nor yett deryde the beechen bowle,
In which he quaffes the lympid Springs;

Forgive him, if, at evc or dawne,
Devoids of wordlye cark, he stray;
Or all besyde some flowerye lawne
He waste his inoffensive daye.
So may he pardonne fraude and strife,
If such in courtlye haue he see;
For faul's there beene in busye life,
From, whych these peacefull glennes are
free.

*Eadem Versibus Iambicis Latinè red-
dita.*

VOS qui superbis cœtibus versamini,
Queis turba grata est aulica,
Queis blandè ridet fors amica, pauperis
Ne temnite incolam casæ.

Nec qua amicitur simplices artus togam
Fastidiosè spernite;
Nec faginum ridete poculum, sitim
Quo lympha pura expleverit.

Si vespere avio terat saltus pede,
Si mane foscidos agros,
Tu nec protervo scornate inculpaveris
Superbe, inoffensus gradus.

Atqui tibi ignoscât incola pauper casæ
Et vultu acerba jurgia,
Et taceat, insons ipse, forsân crimina
Que regias foedant domus.

A CHILD TO HIS SICK GRAND-FATHER.

GRAND-DAD they say you're old and
frail,
Your stock'd legs begin to fail:
Your nobbed Rick (that was my horse)
Can scarce support your bended corse;
While back to wall, you lean to sad,
I'm vex'd to see you, dad.

You us'd to smile, and stroke my head,
And tell me how good children did;
But now I wot not how it be,
You take me seldom on your knee;
Yet ne'ertheless I am right glad
To sit beside you, dad.

How lank and thin your beard hangs down!
Scant are the white hairs on your crown:
How wan and hallow are your cheeks!
Your brow is rough with crossing breaks;
But yet, for all his strength is fled,
I love my own old dad.

The

The housewives round their potions brew,
 And gossips come to ask for you :
 And for your weal each neighbour cares,
 And good men kneel, and say their pray'rs ;
 And ev'ry body looks so sad,
 When you are ailing, dad.

You will not die, and leave us then ?
 Rouse up, and be our dad again.
 When you are quiet laid in bed,
 We'll doff our shoes and softly tread ;
 And when you wake we'll aye be near,
 To fill old dad his cheer.

When thro' the house you shift your slaid,
 I'll lead you kindly by the hand :
 When dinner's set, I'll with you bide,
 And aye be serving by your side :
 And when the weary fire burns blue,
 I'll sit and talk with you.

I have, a tale both long and good,
 About a parlet and her brood ;
 And cunning greedy fox, that stole,
 By dead of midnight through a hole,
 Which fly to the hen-roost led—
 You love a story, dad ?

And then I have a wond'rous tale
 Of men all clad in coats of mail,
 With glit'ring swords—you nod, I think ?
 Your fixed eyes begin to wink :
 Down on your bosom sinks your head :
 You do not hear me, dad.

INSCRIBED TO THE MEMORY OF
 LAURA M. A. R. I. A.

For the Year 1851.

PASS lightly o'er this sod of verdant hue,
 O thou ! whose lonely path pursues
 the way !
 Perchance the gloom thy wearied footsteps
 drew,
 It's shun the sultry heat of graith day.

If contemplation to thy soul is dear,
 And sympathy e'er glitens in thine eye,
 Repose a while—and o'er this once-lov'd
 hier,
 Here, consecrate the tribute a of sigh.

For sure, the tarash'd lustre of a name,
 With infamy unqualified to mark,
 May check the penitence that would re-
 claim,
 Subduing more, repentant Virtue's spark.

If so, may gentler worth thy bosom share,
 For generous pity claims her own re-
 ward ;
 The blemish sacred honour scorns to spare,
 Forbear to weigh with scrupulous re-
 gard.

Think how the giddy scenes of fashion stole,
 And with beguiling witchcraft sought
 embrace :
 While love and tenderness usurp'd her soul.
 And mark'd the sad reverse of chill dis-
 grace.

Think too how fair, how beautiful she
 shone
 In blushing youth, to each admiring
 eye ;
 The emblem of a rose-bud newly blown,
 To tempt the spoilers' hand—then fade
 and die !

'Tis not the pomp ambition would attain,
 Nor ought indulgent wealth can e'er com-
 mand,
 Disarms the conscience of recurring pain,
 Or wrecks dire vengeance from th' aveng-
 ing hand :

Nor e'en th' enriching charms that grace
 the mind,
 Recall that peace which guilty joys at-
 fright ;
 Or these had calm'd the breast by grief re-
 fin'd,
 And dried those eyes, now clos'd in end-
 less night.

Yet not in vain did Heaven the boon be-
 stow—
 When the misguiding transports sick'ning
 Bed ;
 It taught her resignation to the blow,
 And spread contentment o'er the moun-
 tain's head.

Her artless lay in magic numbers stole,
 Kindling each breast with sympathetic
 fire ;
 There, melting ev'ry feeling of the soul,
 Compassion, taught to pity and admire.

Nor harshly censure, ye, whose happier fate
 Kind chance befriends, or spot virtuous
 shields ;
 Benevolence, with active joy elate,
 To misery her tend'rest influence yields.

What though I saw her when the mod'ist
 shade
 Of untried honour veil'd her youthful
 brow—
 The ripen'd peach by ev'ry breeze be-
 tray'd,
 Falls she devoted victim of her glow.

Here rest her sorrows in eternal sleep,
 Her failings warn the follies of the age ;
 If mark'd in Fate's dread book
 deprecate
 deep,
 May some " recording Angel" blot the
 page !

ATHELIN

Monthly Register

FOR SEPTEMBER 1791.

FOREIGN INTELLIGENCE.

EAST INDIA AFFAIRS.

Whitehall, Sept. 6.

THE letters from the East Indies, of which the following are copies and extracts, were received on Sunday last by the Hawke, one of the Company's ships;

Extract of a letter from the President and Council at Fort St George, in their political department, to the Court of Directors, dated April 14. 1791.

OUR last communication respecting the grand army advised your Honourable Court, that Lord Cornwallis had advanced as far as Vellore, and that he hoped to reach Bangalore on the 5th or 6th of March.

In pursuance of this intention the army moved, with all possible expedition, towards the Moglee Pass, and encamped on the table land of Mysore on the 1st of February, without any material difficulty, or the least interference on the part of the enemy.

Tipoo, in the mean time, remained near Gingee, apparently waiting the motions of Lord Cornwallis; but he no sooner discovered their object, than he relinquished all hope of carrying on the war in the Carnatic, and hastened through the Changannah pass, for the preservation of his own dominions.

After halting two days, for the purpose of muniting the intrenchments, &c. Lord Cornwallis marched forward in the direction of Bangalore. The forts of Molwagga, Colar, and Ouseotah, successively fell on the approach of our army. Forge and water were found in abundance on the line of march; and such was the confidence of the inhabitants, that they voluntarily supplied the camp with every article of provision.

In the morning of the 5th of March the enemy appeared, for the first time,

in force, a few miles on the left flank of the army. Parties of horse approached very near the line, and some guns were opened upon its rear, but at so considerable a distance that they neither retarded the progress nor did any material injury to the troops.

Lord Cornwallis encamped within sight of Bangalore in the evening of the 5th, and on the 7th in the morning the Pettah was carried by assault. It was a fortunate circumstance that a considerable quantity of dry forage was found in it, as Tipoo had destroyed all the villages around the fort, and the barren face of the country afforded an alarming prospect for the support of our cattle.

The successful attack which had been made on the Pettah, and the happy consequences attending it, gave us the greatest satisfaction; but at the same time we sincerely lament the loss sustained on that occasion, by the death of Lieutenant Colonel Moorhouse, whose military character was so much distinguished, and whose long, active, and zealous services to the Company deserved the highest applause.

In order to testify our sense of such conspicuous merits, we came to the following resolution, viz. "Government having received advice of the death of Lieutenant Colonel Moorhouse, who was killed in the assault of the Pettah of Bangalore the 7th instant.—Resolved, as a testimony of respect to the memory of an officer who served the Company many years with distinguished zeal, spirit, and ability, that his remains be, with the permission of the ministers and church wardens, publicly interred in the church of Fort St George, at the Company's expence, and a marble tablet fixed over his grave, with a suitable inscription, in commemoration of his merits:—Resolved, likewise, That a letter be written to Earl Cornwallis to inform him of

of this intention, and to request his Lordship will be pleased to direct, that the body of the late Lieutenant Colonel Moorhouse be removed to the Presidency so soon as the situation of affairs will permit."

We are assured your Honourable Court will be pleased to find that proper respect has been paid to the memory of one of the best officers that ever served the Company; and we are confident this public testimony will be gratefully received by the whole army.

Since the assault of the Pettah no official advices of the siege have reached us from Lord Cornwallis. But by means of the public Tappals dispatched from camp as opportunities offered, many private letters of undoubted authority have been received; and from these we learn, that the first batteries were opened on the 14th, and that the approaches were carried on with unremitting assiduity, and in the face of Tippon's whole army: That on the 21st at night, about eleven o'clock, the storm began, and was crowned with the most complete and brilliant success. The garrison gave way on all sides; and though the loss of the enemy on this occasion was considerable, we have the satisfaction to observe, that ours is stated at a very small number. The miscarriage of Lord Cornwallis's official advice of the capture of Bangalore, will justify our transmitting a private copy of the general orders issued to the army a day after his success; and we beg leave to conclude this account by tendering our sincerest congratulations to your Honourable Court on an event so glorious to your arms, and so important to your interests in this country.

We have been honoured with two letters from Lord Cornwallis since the fall of Bangalore, which we send as numbers in the packet, one dated the 27th of March, advising us, that as he had received information of the actual march of Rajah Feijowunt (the Nizam's General) with a considerable body of cavalry towards him, and being sensible of the great importance of securing the junction of this fort, and the probability that Tippon would use every means in his power to harass and obstruct their march, he had determined to move to the northward, in the direction in which the Rajah was expected; and that he was further induced to adopt this measure from the assurances which he had received that the friendly Buligars, in that part of the

country, had collected a large quantity of grain, and a great number of cattle, for the use of the army, within fifty miles of Bangalore.

His Lordship added, that he could not then form a precise judgment whether he should be able to attempt the reduction of Seringapatam before the rains, or whether he must limit his views to Oysore, and an establishment in that part of the Mysore country; but that he could assure us that nothing but absolute necessity should make him abandon his former plan: That, with a view to expedite the re-equipment of the heavy artillery, he had appointed Colonel Duff to command in Bangalore, into which place he had put the 70th regiment and three private battalions: That the quantity of military stores of all sorts found in it was astonishing; and that there was, in particular, more gunpowder than we could possibly have occasion for during the present war.

The second letter from Lord Cornwallis is dated the 2d instant, and advised us that he left his camp to the southward of Bangalore, on the 28th ult. and on that day fell in with the rear of the enemy's line of march at Elevaracora: That, although our infantry could not come up in time to gain any material advantage, his Lordship pursued him closely for several miles, and obliged him to relinquish the object which he appeared to have in view, of getting between our army and the corps of the Nizam's cavalry: That Tippon retired to Pelli-balaboram, leaving behind him one brass nine pounder, and that he had since moved towards Sheveganaga.

Lord Cornwallis, in his letter, complains of the inactivity of Rajah Feijowunt, to whom he had written, that if he heard of any more delays and excuses, he should proceed with his own troops to the execution of his future plan of operations.

The latter part of the letter is of so pleasing a nature that we shall give it in his Lordship's own words: "We have been most plentifully supplied with forage since we left Bangalore, notwithstanding the attempts of the enemy to burn it, and this day some Baspirees of this country brought to camp above four thousand bullocks, half of them loaded with rice, and the other half with peas, dolls, ether, and other Bazar articles."

Lord Cornwallis having received a letter from Tippon the 27th of March, making an overture for a separate accommodation

accommodation with us, replied, "That he could encourage no proposition that did not include our allies." Copies of the letter and the answer having been transmitted to us, we forward them as numbers in the packet.

A large force having been left to the southward at the time General Meadows moved from Tinchinopoly, Lord Cornwallis expressed to us his desire that it might be ordered to Amboor. Instructions were in consequence to that effect, and we have the pleasure to add, that the detachment reached its place of destination on the 23d ult. By a letter from Lieutenant Colonel Odhams, who commands it, dated the 6th instant, we are advised, that, in consequence of orders from Earl Cornwallis, he was to move from Amboor the next day, and to advance to the head of the Ghauts, where he was to take post until he heard further from his Lordship. This detachment, with the reinforcement sent from hence, consists of 700 Europeans, 4200 natives, and 250 cavalry.

General Abercromby, with the Bombay army, took possession of the Coorg Pass on the 27th of February. The advance under Lieutenant Colonel Hartley, strongly posted on the top, and the General was busily employed in sending up supplies; since that time (as we are informed by private advices) the second division of the 73d regiment, sent from hence in your ship the *Queen*, and the 24th Carabine battalion of native infantry, have joined, and rendered General Abercromby's force very respectable. The Coorg Pass is about 50 miles from Seringapatam.

HEAD QUARTERS.

Camp at Bangalore, March 22, 1797.

G. A. O.

Lord Cornwallis feels the most sensible gratification in congratulating the officers and soldiers of the army on the honourable issue of the fatigues and dangers which they underwent during the arduous siege.

Their alacrity and firmness in the execution of their various duties has perhaps never been exceeded; and he shall not only think it incumbent upon him to reward their meritorious conduct in the strongest colours, but he shall ever remember it with the sincerest sentiments of esteem and admiration.

The judicious arrangements which were made by Colonel Duff in the artil-

lery department, and his exertions, and those of the other officers and the soldiers of that corps in general, in the service of the batteries, are entitled to his Lordship's highest approbation; to which he desires to add, that he thinks himself much obliged to Lieutenant Colonel Geils for the able manner in which he directed the fire during the day of the 21st.

Lord Cornwallis is so well acquainted with the ardour that pervades the whole army, that he would have been happy if it had been practicable to have allowed every corps to have participated in the glory of the enterprise of last night; but it could be obvious to all, that, in forming a disposition for the assault, a certain portion of troops could only be employed.

The conduct of all the regiments which happened in their tour to be upon duty that evening did credit in every respect, to their spirit and discipline; but his Lordship desires to offer the tribute of his particular and warmest praise to the European grenadiers and light infantry of the army, and to the 36th, 72d, and 76th regiments, who led the attack, and carried the fortrefs, and who, by their behaviour on that occasion, furnished a conspicuous proof, that disciplined valour in soldiers, when directed by zeal and capacity in officers, is irresistible.

The activity and good conduct of Lieutenant Colonel Maxwell, in the command of the Pettah for several days previous to the assault of the fort, was, in every respect, highly commendable; but his Lordship desires that he will accept of his particular thanks for the judicious arrangements which he made for the assault which was committed to his direction, and for the gallantry which he displayed in the execution of them.

He likewise returns his warmest acknowledgements to Major General Skelley, who undertook the command of the corps that commenced the attack of the breach, who, by animating them by his own example, contributed essentially to our important success.

Lieutenant Colonel Stuart may be assured that Lord Cornwallis will ever retain the most grateful remembrance of the valuable and steady support which that officer affords him, by his military experience and constant exertions to promote the public service; and although his Lordship is unwilling to offend General Meadows's delicacy, by attempting to express his full sense of the able and friendly

friendly assistance which he uniformly experienced from him, he cannot avoid declaring, that it has made an impression on his mind that can never be effaced.

A true copy, from a private copy.

(Signed) W. C. JACKSON, Sec.

SECRET DEPARTMENT.

Sir CHARLES OAKLEY, *Barr. Senior Member, and Council of Fort St George.*

Gentlemen,

HAVING received the information from Lieutenant Stuart of the actual march of Rajah Feijewunt, and being sensible of the great importance of securing the junction of so considerable a body of cavalry, and of the probability that Tip-poo would use every means in his power to harass and obstruct their march, I have determined to move to the northward, in the direction in which they may be expected; and I am further induced to adopt this measure, from the assurances which I have received that the friendly Poligars in that part of the country have collected a large quantity of grain, and a great number of cattle, for the use of the army, within fifty miles of this place.

After the acquisition of Rajah Feijewunt's cavalry, I hope to cover so large a tract of country, as to prevent the distressing effects at least of a partial straggling, and ensure the march of Lieutenant Colonel Oldham's detachment from Anibgor, without being obliged to go to the head of the passes to meet him.

Whether I shall be able to attempt the reduction of Seringapatam before the rains, or whether I must limit my views to Oysore, and an establishment in this country, will depend on circumstances of which it is impossible for me at present to form a precise judgment; I can, however, most truly assure you, that nothing but absolute necessity shall make me abandon my former plan.

I have, with a view to expedite the re-equipment of the heavy artillery, appointed Colonel Duff to the command in Bangalore, into which place I have put the 70th regiment and three native battalions.

The quantity of military stores of all sorts that we have found in it is astonishing, and there is in particular more gun-

powder than we can possibly have occasion for during the present war.

I have the honour to be, Gentlemen, your most obedient humble servant,

(Signed)

CORNWALLIS.

Camp at Bangalore March 27. 1791.

A true copy.

GEORGE PARRY, *Acting Dep. Sec.*

SECRET DEPARTMENT.

Sir CHARLES OAKLEY, *Barr. Senior Member and Council.*

Gentlemen,

I LEFT my camp, to the southward of Bangalore, on the 28th ult. and that day fell in with the rear of the enemy's line of march at Elevationum; and although our infantry could not come up in time to gain any material advantage, we pursued them closely for several miles, and obliged them to relinquish the object which they appeared to have in view, of getting between our army and the corps of the Nizam's cavalry, which was expected to join us from Ganjecotah. Tip-poo retired to Podibalaberam, leaving behind him one brass mine pounder, which broke down, and he has since moved towards Sheveganga. In pursuance of the plan which I mentioned in my letter of the 27th ult. I came on, by the way of Dionelly, to this place, where I shall probably remain a few days, as our situation here is well calculated for preventing the enemy from disturbing the march of our allies. I am sorry, however, to add, that Rajah Feijewunt, on the pretence of the most absurd and ill-founded reports, has halted at Wimpilly, which is only eighteen coss on this side of Gunjecotah, and has declared that he will not proceed (unless he should receive positive orders for that purpose from his master) until I informed him that I will send a detachment to meet him at Chitombryppatt. The fall of Bangalore, and the march of our army to the northward, with the assurances I have given him that I will most attentively observe the movements of the enemy, will probably relieve him from his fears, and induce him to come forward, if he seriously intends to join us; but I have acquainted him, that, if I hear of any more delays and excuses, I will proceed with our own army.

cision of my future plan of operations. We have been most plentifully supplied with forage since we left Bangalore, notwithstanding the attempts of the enemy to burn it; and this day some Banjarres of this country brought to camp above 4000 bullocks, half of them loaded with rice, and the other half with grain, doll, gace, and other Buzar articles.

I have the honour to be, Gentlemen,
your very obedient humble servant,

(Signed) CORNWALLIS.

Camp at Chinabaleram,
April 2. 1791.

A true copy,

GEORGE PARRY, Acting Dep. Sec.

W. C. JACKSON, Esq. Secretary at Fort
St George.

SIR,

I AM directed by Lord Cornwallis to transmit to you copies of a letter received from Tippoo Sultan, and of his Lordship's answer to it.

His Lordship desires that copies of them in English and Persian, (for which purpose a Persian copy is also inclosed) be forwarded for the residents at Poonah and at Hydrabad. I am, Sir,

Your most humble servant,

(Signed) G. F. CHERRY, Persian Interpreter to the Governor General.

Camp near of Dronnilla,
March 29. 1791.

A true copy,

GEORGE PARRY, Acting Dep. Sec.

FROM TIPPOO SULTAN.

Received March 27. 1791.

SOME time ago your Lordship desired that several matters should be replied to in writing, and sent to you. I embrace this opportunity of writing, that in matters of great importance the secrets of the heart cannot be known but by the verbal communication of a person of consequence, nor can affairs be adjusted. Therefore, if your Lordship pleases, I will nominate a person of confidence, and vesting him with full authority, will send him in your presence, in order that by personal conversations our ancient friendship may gain daily strength. Your Lordship will consider me desirous of your

friendship, and must act in a manner that peace may take place between us, the disagreement existing be removed, and the happiness and quiet of mankind be established.

Dated 21d Rubany Saul Suty 1218
Mahomed, or the 20th Rejeb
1205 Hejery, 27th March 1791.

TO TIPPOO SULTAN.

Written March 27. 1791.

I HAVE received and have understood the contents of your letter (recapitulate that received the 17th of March 1791.)

The moderation which always marks the character of the British government, and my own personal disposition and feelings, unite in making me wish most earnestly for the restoration of the blessing of peace, as soon as a just reparation can be obtained for the injuries and losses that the Company and its allies have suffered.

If the two Circars alone were engaged in the present war, I should not object to receive the person of confidence whom you desire to send to me, and I should listen as favourably to your propositions as the duty of my station would admit; but so direct and expeditious a mode of negotiation is not now in my power; for when I found that, by your disregard to all my conciliatory offers, I must necessarily be forced to engage in a war, I entered into the most solemn treaties with Nizam Ally Khan and with the Peshwa, declaring that we would assist each other, and that no one of the powers would listen separately to any advances from the enemy, without submitting to the terms proposed to the general consideration and approbation of the different parties of the confederacy.

I cannot therefore, consistent with honour and good faith, receive, in the first instance, a person of confidence from you, for the purpose of adjusting the separate terms of peace between you and the Company; but if you should think proper to transmit to me, in writing, the propositions that you are willing to make; as a foundation upon which negotiations may be opened, for the restoration of peace and friendship between the Company, the Nizam, and the Peshwa, on one side, and your Circar on the other, I shall, on my part, give them the most serious consideration; and, after communication with the other members of the confederacy,

confederacy, I shall convey to you our joint sentiments upon them.

True copy,

(Signed) G. F. CHERRY, P. I.

True copies,

GEORGE PARRY, Asst. Dep. Sec.

FRANCE:

NATIONAL ASSEMBLY.

PARIS, August 29.

M. Chapellier, from the committee of Constitution, presented the

PLAN of a DECREE on the next ASSEMBLY of REVISION.

The National Assembly, after having fulfilled the mission given them by the French people, after having established a constitution, founded on the inalienable rights of men and citizens, and on the principles of reason and morality;

Considering, on the one part, that if the maxims which they have taken for the basis of their work bear the character of evidence, and if a general assent, the most solemn adherence of all parts of the empire, the rapid and scrupulous execution of the new laws, have left no doubt respecting the will of the nation to sanction and to follow the constitutional decrees made by its representatives, and respecting the general opinion that these laws attain the object of a great and happy regeneration;

Considering, that, if this union of sentiment, this spontaneous movement towards liberty, which have induced all the inhabitants of the empire to press, as it were, each before the other, to mix into one mass, their rights and their interests, to attach themselves to the same principles, and submit themselves to the same obligations, gives the National Assembly the right, and imposes on them the duty of impressing on their work the inviolable character of the general will, and of disposing of the whole public power to confirm and maintain it; having nevertheless had a struggle against all the passions and all the prejudices; having been obliged to substitute hastily a body of new institutions for a monstrous mass of decreed abuses; finally, having given, amid shocks of every sort, of dangers of every kind, of disorders too much exaggerated, but yet real and unfortunately inseparable from a revolution; having given a new form to a great empire, it

may be feared, that in these institutions some imperfections have glided, that experience alone can discover;

Considering, on the other part, that the nation has an inalienable right to review, reform, and change both the system of its constitutional laws, and even the act of its association;

That hence it is necessary, that at the same time that, for the benefit of all, the representatives of the nation require in its name obedience to the laws which they have decreed, and it has approved, they shall point out sure and prompt means of reforming them, and of providing for this end of all the aid of which the nation shall be capable, in the statutes, the knowledge, and the experience which these very laws are now to become the source and the object;

That it is only necessary that the forms by which the nation shall make known its opinion should be fixed in such a manner as not to lead to errors, and not to give to tumultuous movements, or hasty deliberations, the imposing character of the national will, and to fix a period at which this will shall be examined; a period which ought neither to be so distant as to make the nation suffer from any vicious parts of its social organization, nor so near as not to allow experience to give her salutary lessons, or the spirit of party, and the recollection of ancient prejudices, to take the place of reason and justice, by which all the citizens ought in future to be guided;

Finally, Considering that the fixing of this period, and the determination of protecting forms for the national will, ought, by directing all ideas to the common benefit and the perfecting of the social organization, have the happy effect of calming the agitations of the present time, and insensibly bringing back mens minds to the peaceable pursuit of the public good, has resolved and decreed as follows:—

SECTION I.

Of the FORMATION of the ASSEMBLY of REVISION.

I. In the year 1800, on the 1st of June, there shall be an Assembly of Revision, whose power shall be determined as hereinafter mentioned.

II. It shall be composed of two hundred and forty-nine elected in each department, of which one third shall be chosen in proportion to the territory, and two thirds in proportion to the actual population.

El. Te

III. To form the Assembly of Revision, the primary assemblies shall be convoked, and electors chosen for this purpose alone, in the same manner, and according to the same forms, as for the election of the Legislative Assemblies.

IV. The Legislative Body and the King are charged by the constitution to proclaim, three months at least before the 1st of June, the meeting of all the citizens in primary assemblies, and the place where the Assembly of Revision shall sit.

The place of meeting shall be at the distance of twenty miles at least from the place where the Legislative Body shall sit.

V. The constituting assembly once met, shall be free to remove to any part of the kingdom.

No body of troops can be established, or remain within less than thirty miles of it.

VI. The Assembly of Revision may either adopt in its deliberations the forms of the Legislative Assemblies, or frame others; provided they do not abridge the time of discussion.

Those who are their members of the Legislative Body cannot be chosen members of the constituting assembly.

SECTION II.

FUNCTIONS and RIGHTS of the CONSTITUTING NATIONAL ASSEMBLY.

I. The functions of the Assembly of Revision which shall be held in 1800, shall be to examine if the constituted powers, whose division is the fundamental basis of every constitution, and has been the sole object of the National Assembly of 1789, have reciprocally preserved the limits which have been prescribed to them; and to restore them, if any infringements have been made by either of the constituted powers.

II. The Assembly of Revision in 1800 shall have likewise the function to determine respecting the demands which, according to the form that shall be established, may be made by the petitions of citizens, by the Legislative Body, or by the King, for the purpose of reforming any part of the constitution.

SECTION III.

Forms by which the wishes of CITIZENS, and the demands of the LEGISLATIVE BODY and the KING shall be established.

I. No petition to change and reform
 K k VOL. XIV. No 311

any part of the constitution can be made before the first of January 1800.

II. After this period, every citizen who shall think that any part of the constitution ought to be reformed, shall be at liberty to express his wish by a petition, signed by himself and those who agree with him in opinion. This petition shall be deposited with the municipality of the residence of the petitioner, and shall be registered. It shall contain a precise statement of the parts of the constitution on which, according to the petitioners, the reform ought to take place.

III. When the number of petitioners on the same subject shall form the majority of the citizens who compose a community, and the municipal officers shall address their petition to the administration of the department.

IV. The administrators in each department shall verify the number of citizens who shall have demanded the reform of one or more points of the constitution, particularly marking out the objects, if there are more than one; and if the majority of active citizens of the department join in making this demand on one or more points, the intimation of their petition shall be sent by the administrators to the Legislative Body.

V. When petitions on the same subject shall have been made in more than forty-one departments, the Legislative Body shall review the proposal which shall have been addressed to it. Every department shall be counted in this review for the number of deputies which it sends for the Legislative Assembly, so that the calculation shall be established upon 745 unites.

VI. After that by the review it shall have been determined that the petition is formed by the absolute majority of citizens of the departments, the Legislative Body shall clearly and precisely establish the objects of the petitions: If they relate to several parts of the constitution, they shall be stated distinctly.

VII. The Legislative Body shall then give its opinion on the question, whether the object ought to be submitted to the examination of the Assembly of Revision.

VIII. The King shall equally declare his opinion, by sanctioning, or refusing to sanction, the decree of the Legislative Body, &c.

The assent of the King to a decree of the Legislative Body shall be expressed by the words: *The King consents.*

His refusal of sanction shall be expressed as follows: *The King will examine.*

The silence of the King, after two months from the day of the presentation of the decree, shall be reported assent.

IX. When the petition shall relate to several constitutional articles, the Legislative Body and the King shall proceed upon them distinctly, by declaring their opinion, so as to express their assent or opposition to each of the articles separately.

X. If the Legislative Body and the King concur with the petitioning citizens on the necessity of submitting to the Assembly of Revision an article of constitution, it shall be definitively determined that this article shall be presented to the Assembly of Revision.

XI. If the Legislature and the King concur to prevent the object, or any of the objects, or all the objects included in the petitions, from being taken into consideration by the Assembly of Revision, the petition, the decree of the Legislative Body, and the refusal of the King, shall be printed and published, and the whole shall be left to the public opinion during all the continuance of the Legislature which shall have declared its opinion.

XII. If the majority of the departments, reckoning them according to the regulations prescribed above, consist of three-fourths, or other wth of 538 votes, and if at least eighteen months after the Legislature and the King shall have published their opinion, the first wish of the citizens has not been retracted in more than ten departments on any or all of the objects included in their opinion, the Legislative Body shall be bound to declare, that the article, or the constitutional article, shall be presented to the Assembly of Revision, and the sanction of the King shall be deemed given.

XIII. If in more than ten departments the citizens have changed their opinion, and the absolute majority shall be nevertheless obtained, the Legislature next after that which has given its opinion, shall do so too as well as the King.

XIV. In case the Legislature and the King shall then concur with the petitioning citizens, the article shall be definitively decreed to be presented to the Assembly of Revision. In the contrary case, that the Legislature and the King, or either, shall wish to prevent the object of the petition from being submitted to the Assembly of Revision, the question

shall be referred to the next Legislature, which, if the majority always subsists, shall be bound to declare, that the article or articles shall be submitted to the Assembly of Revision.

In case the majority shall no longer exist, the petition shall be regarded as null.

XV. If from the principle immediately after the review of the petitions, the Legislative Body, or the King, do not concur with respect to their assent or opposition, and either discover an opinion contrary to the wish of the petitioners, the question shall be submitted to three successive Legislatures; or, if the majority of citizens who formed the petition always exist, the article shall be carried to the Assembly of Revision.

XVI. The Legislative Body and the King shall have the right of proposing articles to the Assembly of Revision according to the forms which shall be prescribed.

XVII. If two successive Legislatures concur with the King with respect to the articles to be proposed, they shall be definitively decreed to be submitted to the Assembly of Revision.

XVIII. If the King refuse his assent to the decree of the Legislature, his veto shall have the same effect and the same duration, as that which is to extend to the other acts of the Legislative Body. It shall cease when three successive Legislatures shall have presented the same wish, and the article shall be referred to the Assembly of Revision.

XIX. In case that the King shall propose to present to the Assembly of Revision one or more articles of the constitution, he shall make the proposal by a message, assigning the reason to the Legislative Body, which shall be bound to deliberate.

XX. If three successive Legislatures refuse to assent to the proposal of the King, it shall be regarded as null.

XXI. The petitions which shall be made shall not contain any protest, against the established order, nor any expression contrary to the provisional obedience due to the existing law; but whatever proposals of change or of reform they may contain, they can not be employed against those who shall have signed them as an exclusion from obtaining any place, public employment, or delegation conferred by the people.

XXII. The Assembly of Revision cannot, under any pretext, engage in any deliberations except what shall be submitted

mitted to them according to the forms above prescribed: The decrees which it shall pass on any other subject shall be null and of no effect.

It can neither engage in any arrangement in the legislative order, nor in any inspection of any part whatsoever of the administrative order. It shall have no other power than that of examining the articles which shall be submitted to it. It may, however, give all the necessary orders to secure its own entire liberty and perfect independence, and it shall have, as the legislative body, the police in the place of its meeting.

XXIII. It shall be perfectly free in its opinions; and whatever be the majority of petitions, whatever be the coincidence or opposition of the legislative body or the King, each of the members of the Assembly of Revision, shall be under no other obligation than that of voting according to his judgment and conscience, what he thinks most consonant to justice and general utility.

XXIV. The legislative body and the King shall name each four Commissioners; to remit to the Assembly of Revision at its opening the articles decreed to be the object of its labours.

XXV. As soon as their labours shall be finished, the Assembly of Revision shall give notice to the legislative body and the King.

It shall name twenty-four Commissioners to wait upon the legislative body, and in their presence, and that of the King, in a minute deposited in the archives, solemnly make upon the constitution the changes and reforms which shall have been decreed.

The Assembly of revision shall immediately separate.

XXVI. In the reforms which it may decree, it shall be regulated by the rights of men and of citizens, and those eternal principles of liberty and equality, which forms of government ought to secure, and which they cannot alter without being unjust and oppressive.

Sept. 3.

The National Assembly having spent some time in revising and amending the Constitution, now resolved that it was completed, and no farther change would take place in it. A Committee of 60 Members was accordingly appointed to present it that same day to the King. The deputation accordingly began its march in the evening, attended by flambeaux, between two files of National Guards, who kept great silence.—The deputation was received in the Council Chamber. The King was surrounded by all his Ministers, and a great number of other persons.

The Reporter of the Committee of Con-

stitution, M. Thourret, spoke as follows:

“The representatives of the nation present to your Majesty the constitutional code, which consecrates the unpreferable rights of the French people, which restores to the throne its true dignity, and which organizes the government of the empire.”

THE KING'S ANSWER.

“I receive the constitution presented to me by the National Assembly.—I will communicate my resolution to the National Assembly as soon as the examination of so important an object will render it possible.—I am determined to remain in Paris. I will give orders to the Commandant General of the national Parisian guard respecting the guard for my person.”

The deputation returned to the hall of the Assembly by the same way and in the same order by which they had left it, when M. Thourret gave an account to the members there of what he said to the King, and his Majesty's answer.

Sept. 14.

The Minister of Justice presented himself yesterday in the National Assembly, and delivered into the hands of the President a written message from his Majesty, containing his full and voluntary ratification of the terms on which he is again to resume the exercise of the Royal Authority.

Here follows an exact copy of the notification, as it was read amidst the plaudits of the audience, all of whom, the Patriots especially, seemed to rejoice at this auspicious circumstance.

GENTLEMEN,

“I have attentively examined the Constitutional Act, which you have presented for my acceptance. I accept it, and I shall cause it to be executed. This declaration alone might have been thought sufficient at any other period; but I owe it, at the present moment, to the interests of the Nation, and I owe it to myself, to disclose my motives.

“From the commencement of my reign I have been desirous to reform every kind of abuse, and, in all the Acts of my Government, I have been ambitious to take the public opinion as the rule of my conduct. Divers causes, among the number of which may be reckoned the situation of the Finances on my coming to the Throne, and the immense expences attendant on an honourable war, sustained without the increase of imposts, had occasioned a considerable disproportion between the Revenue and Expenditure of the State.

Struck with the magnitude of the evil,

I not only sought for the means of administering a remedy, but I also perceived the necessity of preventing its return. I accordingly conceived the project of placing the happiness of the People on a constitutional and a stable basis, and of subjecting to invariable rules, that authority of which I was the Oppositor. I accordingly called the Nation around me to execute this plan. During the course of all the events produced by the Revolution, my intentions never varied. After having reformed the ancient institutions, you began to replace them by the first essays of your political labours. I waited only for the completion of the Constitution to give my entire assent to it; I even favoured the component parts, before I could view them as one great whole; and if the disorders which have accompanied almost all the epochs of the Revolution, have often afflicted my heart, I still hoped that the Law would regain its proper impulse, when confided to new powers, and as the term of your labours approached, every day would add to that respect for it, without which the People can neither enjoy liberty nor happiness.

" I persisted for a long time in that hope, and my resolution never changed till the moment that it abandoned me." Whoever recollects the period when I left Paris, must know, although the Constitution was nearly achieved, that yet the authority of the Laws was becoming more feeble. The most exaggerated opinions alone obtained a hearing; the licentiousness of the Press was at its height; no power whatever was respected. I could no longer recognize the character of the general will in those Laws which I beheld without force and without execution. I then began to think, that if you presented the Constitution to me, I should not be able to believe that the interest of the people (the constant and only rule of my conduct) would permit me to accept it. I had but one sentiment; I formed but one project; I resolved to withdraw myself from all parties, and to make myself acquainted with the real wish of the Nation.

" The motives which then directed me, no longer exist at this moment; ever since, the inconveniences and the evils I complained of, have made on you the same impression they did on me. You have manifested your inclination to order; you have given your attention to the insubordination of the army; and you have felt the necessity of repressing the licentiousness of the Press. The revisi of your labours has placed among the number of regulations, several Articles, which are at first presented to me as Constitutional Laws. You have established legal forms for the revision of those Articles, which you have placed among the Consti-

tutional ones. In short, the voice of the people is to me no longer dubious; I perceived it to show itself at once, both by its adhesion to your proceedings, and by its attachment to the support of Monarchical Government.

" I accept therefore the Constitution.

" I undertake the engagement to maintain it within; to defend it from every attack from without; and to have it executed by every means it has put in my power.

" I declare that, now informed of the attachment which the great majority of the People has for it, I renounce the joint concurrence I had claimed in that work; and being only responsible to the Nation alone, no one else, when I renounce it, has a right to complain. (The left side of the Hall, and all the Galleries, here resounded with applauses.)

" I should nevertheless be wanting to truth, did I say that I had discovered in the means of executing and administering the Constitution, that energy which is necessary to impress the motion and to preserve unity in all the parts of so vast an Empire; but since opinions are at this day so divided in regard to these objects, I consent that experience alone shall become the sole arbiter.

" When I have made a faithful use of all the means which have been entrusted to me, no reproach can possibly be urged against me; and the Nation, whose interest alone ought to serve as a rule, will explain itself, by those means which the Constitution has reserved for its preservation. [Reiterated plaudits.]

" But, Gentlemen, for the support of Liberty, for the stability of the Constitution, for the individual happiness of all the French, there are certain interests which command us to re-unite all our efforts. These interests are, a respect for the Laws, the re-establishment of order, and the reunion of all the Citizens.

" Now that the Constitution is definitively settled, Frenchmen living under the same Laws ought to know no other enemies than those who infringe upon them; discord and anarchy, these are our worst foes. I shall combat them with all my power; it is necessary that you and your successors should second the with energy, and that without tyrannizing over the mind, the Law should protect all those who submit their actions to its direction.

" It is necessary that all those who, from the dread of troubles and of persecutions, have absented themselves from their Country, should be certain of finding safety and tranquillity on returning to its bosom.

" And for the extinction of the animosities, and lessening the evils that a great Revolution always produces; and on purpose, that the Law from this very day may

state its execution, let us consent to forget what is past. [The left hand side of the Houie, and Galleries, testified their satisfaction at this paragraph.] Let the accusations and the persecutions, commenced in consequence of the Revolution, now drop, and be buried in a general reconciliation.

"I speak not of those who have been determined by their attachment to me; can you yourselves think them guilty?"

"As for those who, by excesses, or by personal injuries, may have wounded the Laws in regard to me, I shall prove to them, by my clemency, that I am King of all the French. (Signea) "LOUIS."

"P. 8. I think, Gentlemen, that it is in the place where the Constitution has been formed, that I ought to pronounce my solemn acceptance of it; I shall in consequence repair to-morrow to the National Assembly."

M. la Fayette rose and said, "I should not do justice to the sentiments with which the Assembly has just received the King's recommendation of a general amnesty, were I to do any more than simply to move it in the form of a decree:

"The National Assembly, after hearing the King's message, by which he accepts the Constitutional Act, and adopting the sentiments expressed by the King on the relation of all persecutions relative to the events of the Revolution, decree as follows:

"First, All persons in arrest, or under accusation, on account of the King's departure, shall be instantly liberated, and all prosecutions against them shall cease.

"Second, The Committees of Constitution and Criminal Jurisprudence, shall present to-morrow, at the opening of the sitting, a decree to annul immediately all prosecutions relative to the events of the Revolution.

"A decree shall also be presented to-morrow to abolish the use of passports, and annul all the momentary impediments to the liberty which the Constitution assures to all French citizens, of going and coming, both out of and into the kingdom.

"A deputation of sixty Members shall instantly go and present the above decree to the King."

This was decreed by acclamation,

Paris, Sept. 14.

Agreeably to his intention expressed in his letter of yesterday, the King, this day, at twelve o'clock, repaired to the National Assembly, and personally confirmed his acceptance of the Constitution. The Hall, and all the avenues to it, through which the King passed, were crowded with people, who generally expressed the most lively

exultation. His Majesty seemed very sensibly affected by the acclamations of the crowd.

The ceremony was conducted with much regularity and order, and the effect was grand and impressive. A large detachment of National Guards escorted the King, and the procession moved between two lines of the same troops. His acceptance by the Assembly was announced by a general discharge from the Artillery of the National Guards.

When the King entered the hall, he was accompanied by all his officers, and the Assembly stood up. He seated himself beside the President, and addressed the Assembly in the following words:

"I come solemnly to consecrate my acceptance of the constitutional code. In consequence of which I swear (the members now sat down) to be faithful to the nation, and to the law—to employ all the power with which I am entrusted in maintaining the constitution decreed by the National Assembly, and to cause the laws to be executed."

The King sat down, and the hall resounded with applause, after which he proceeded:

"May this great and memorable epoch be that of the re-establishment of peace and union, and become the basis of the welfare of the people, and of the prosperity of the empire!"

The hall resounded for several minutes with applause, and shouts of *Vive le Roi!*

The President, on his legs.—Abuses of long standing, which had triumphed over the good intentions of the best of Kings, and had unceasingly braved the authority of the throne, had oppressed France.—The King remained sitting, and the President sat down.—Depository of the wishes, of the rights, and of the power of the people, the National Assembly has established, by the destruction of all abuses, the solid basis of public prosperity. Sure, what this Assembly has decreed, the national concurrence has ratified. The most complete execution of its decrees in all parts of the empire attests the general sentiment. It degrades the weak plans of those whom discontent has too long kept blind to their own interests. It promises to your Majesty, that your wishes for the welfare of the French will no longer be vain.

"The National Assembly has nothing more to desire on this ever-memorable day, in which you complete, in its bosom, by the most solemn engagement, the acceptance of *Constitutional Royalty*. It is the attachment of the French—it is their confidence, who confer upon you that pure and respectable title to the most desirable crown in the universe; and what secures it to you, Sir, is the unperishable authority of a constitution freely

freely decreed. It is the invincible force of a people who feel themselves worthy of liberty—it establishes the necessity which so great a nation will always have of an hereditary monarchy.

“When your Majesty, waiting from experience the lights which are about to be spread by the practical result of the constitution, promises to maintain it within, and to defend it from attack from without, the nation, trusting both to the justice of its rights, and to the conscientiousness of its force and courage, and to the loyalty of your co-operation, can entertain no apprehension of alarms from without, and is about to contribute, by its tranquil confidence, to the speedy success of its internal government.

“What ought to be great in your eyes, sire, dear to our hearts, and what will appear with lustre in our history, is the epoch of this regeneration; which gives to France, citizens—to the French, a country—to you, as a King, a new title of grandeur and glory—and to you again, as a man, a new source of enjoyment, and new sensations of happiness.”

The King did not appear in the *Cordons Bleus*.

The King, who is now as popular as a few weeks since saw him contemned, gave new matter to feed the frenzy of applause, by refusing to wear the *Bleu Ribband* when going to address the Assembly.—He said, he did not wish for any external mark, by which he might be distinguished from other citizens. His rejection of this ornament has been of use to his cause; when the minds of men are in a state of fermentation, objects trifling in themselves are frequently important in their consequences.

In the evening there were splendid illuminations all over Paris.

Substance of a Report on the Situation of the French Foreign Commerce, during the Revolution in 1789.

Presented to the National Assembly from the Committee of Agriculture and Commerce.

“GENTLEMEN,

“We shall consider the external commercial connexions of France under five divisions: 1st, Its connexions with Europe; 2^{dly}, Its connexions with our American Islands; 3^{dly}, Its connexions with the East Indies; 4^{thly}, Our Fisheries; 5^{thly}, The state of Navigation in the seas of Europe, and on our own coast.

1st, Of French Commerce in EUROPE.

“Under this first division, we include not only our connexions with Spain, Portugal, Italy, England, and the nations of the North, but likewise the United States of

America, the Levant, and States of Barbary.

“The importations from abroad into France, which amounted in 1788 to 302 millions, had a real advance in 1789 to 345 millions, but from a circumstance perfectly unconnected with the Revolution. The dearth of grain obliged us this last year to import in grain, flour, and pulse, to the amount of 73 millions, articles, which in the total of importations of 1788, are calculated only at 13 millions; so that without this dearth, our importations in 1789 would have been 17 millions less than in 1788.

“On the other hand, it appears that the articles of manufacture which we ostensibly received from abroad, amount only to 57 millions, whilst the same articles in 1788 stood the nation at a sum of 62 millions; we appear then to have paid a tax of 5 millions less to foreign industry, than during the year of the Revolution.

“The exportations of France to all the Powers or Countries of Europe, amounted in merchandise, in 1788, to a sum of 363 millions; this sum, for 1789, forms only 357 millions for the last-mentioned period of the Revolution. But this small diminution on a total of exportation of such extent is so much the less alarming, as it falls on a small rise in 1789 of certain articles, of which there is a staple in some parts of the kingdom, and which only produce very moderate profit of warehousing and commission.

2^{dly}, Of our Connexions with the ISLANDS of AMERICA.

“Our Commerce with the Islands of America, and the parts of Africa which are dependant on them, include on the one hand expeditions from France with merchandise of all sorts, and on the other the return into our ports in the production of America.

“Our expeditions, during the three years which precede the Revolution, amounted to 98 millions and in 1789 got no farther than 78. This deficit of 20 millions was equally a consequence of the dearth which distressed France in 1789. The Foreigners allowed to supply with provisions our Colonies, which we were unable entirely to furnish, took advantage of the facility of access to introduce, along with flour, other articles of commerce, in addition to those of France.

“As to the returns into our ports of the productions of America during the years 1786, 1787, 1788, they formed a medium of 100 millions, and in 1789 the sum total rose to 218 millions, holding out an increase of 28 millions in the year of the Revolution. Thus the advantages we still stand to balance the disadvantages in carrying on this branch of French Commerce.

3dly, *Of our out-fits for the EAST-INDIES.*

"In directing your attention, Gentlemen, to the out-fits destined for the East-Indies, which include our connexion with the Islands of France and Bourbon, and our establishments in India and in China, you will recollect that there were dispatched from France twenty-four thousand tons charged with sixteen millions in merchandise and piasters, for these latitudes, either on account of merchants, or those concerned in the ancient association, the French India Company. The medium of these out-fits, taken for 1786, 1787, 1788, amounted to the same number of twenty-four thousand tons; but the sum laid out in merchandise, piasters, and the expence of the expedition, formed 19 millions, three millions more than the value of the cargoes sent out during the year of the Revolution.

"This variation proceeded from the uncertainty which at this period those concerned in the Ancient India Company might be supposed to feel respecting the continuance of their privilege, a source of inquietude which they had laboured under since 1788, and which induced them to diminish their cargo.

4thly *Of the Fisheries.*

"The most important of the French Fisheries, and the only one of which your Committee could procure complete information, is the Cod fishery, on the coast of Newfoundland, in America. This particular branch of industry, which forms a school of sailors for the French Marine, has been less considerable in 1789 than the preceding years. In fact, instead of the annual medium of the three preceding years, which amounted to 48,000 tons employed in the Cod-fishery, in 1789 the number did not exceed 41,000.

The produce in money of this fishery appears equally considerable for this last period, and instead of 14 millions, which it had brought the three preceding years, procured only a sum of 12 millions. This diminution ought to be attributed to the collusion of the English and Free Americans, who contrived to disappoint the French fishers, by finding means to supply us with their fish, while they eluded the payment of the duty imposed on importation, in order to establish a preference in favour of the French fishery.

"But you have reason to hope, Gentlemen, that this disadvantage will quickly disappear, in consequence of the sage measure which you have adopted in decreasing on the demand of your Committee, the maintenance and increase of bounties, for this branch is important to your Commerce."

ENGLAND.

The King and Queen, with the Princesses Royal, Augusta and Elizabeth, have resided since the beginning of this month at Weymouth, for the convenience of sea bathing; in consequence of which that place has become the resort of all the fashionable world not before too deeply engaged. The King according to all accounts enjoys a most perfect state of health.

KING'S BATHING MACHINE.

The machine forms the figure of an oblong at its base, and is without lining, except the window curtains; it is painted white, with blue panels, and red cornice both inside and out. It forms a semicircle; on the upper extremity of the end next the sea is the British flag, elevated on a pole about ten feet long; and on the opposite end, the British crews; at the height of about two feet from the top, on the front, is fixed a painting of the King's arms.

Her Majesty often enjoys the sea air in the heat of the day, by having a bathing-machine drawn into the sea, and sitting at work or reading, with the Princesses, and their attendants, for three or four hours together—and we have the pleasure of hearing so much benefit has been received, that her Majesty has appeared several evenings on the walk with his Majesty and the Princesses, which she was not able to accomplish before.

NEW GOVERNMENT IN CANADA.

The patronage of this new settlement, as of every other colony, is divided between the Secretary of State for the Home Department, and the Treasury. The law offices, &c. are in the gift of the first; those belonging to the revenue, of the latter. In the present instance, however, Colonel Simcoe has been allowed to recommend certain persons, chiefly loyalists, whose claims are general, having, for their attachment to Great Britain, suffered both loss of property and personal proscription. The acquiescence and humanity of Government, in respect to this appointment, must receive the concurrent approbation of the public.

ENGLISH FUNDS AT AMSTERDAM.

By advices received from Holland, we learn, that the rate of the British Funds in Amsterdam is much higher than even here.

The Dutch have ever been esteemed to possess as much consummate wisdom in the application of their monies, as in the administration of their polity; it is therefore a matter of no small magnitude to the encouraging prosperity of this country, to find that this industrious people, as the last accounts

counts inform us, has raised the English Funds to the following rates, viz.

Bank Stock	-	205
India ditto	-	193
And Consols	-	90½

By late accounts from India there is great reason to believe, that 100 at least of the British prisoners taken last war are still alive in the service of Tipoo Sultan in different parts of his territories. Two seamen who escaped, came home in the Worcester. It does not appear that either they or their fellow-prisoners were mutilated, as has been reported. A rigorous enquiry into the fate of these unhappy men, and their relief from captivity, must undoubtedly be one of the most desirable consequences of our victories.

SCOTLAND.

EDINBURGH, SEPT. 5.

The following Gentlemen were chosen into the direction of the Company of Merchants of this city, for the ensuing year.

ROBERT YOUNG, Esq. MASTER.

ASSISTANTS.

Mess. Chas. Cowan	Sir Wm. Forbes, Bart.
David Miln	Mess. Ne. I Macvicar
Thos. Campbell	Rob Ramsay
Rob. Forrester	Jas. Mansfield
John Vernon	John Hutchison
Rob. Gourlay	John White

TREASURER,

Mr Walter Lothian.

Sept. 12. The University of Edinburgh conferred the degree of Doctor of Medicine upon the following gentlemen, after they had gone through the usual public and private trials:

	DISSERTATIONES INAUGURALES.
From JAMAICA.	<i>De Coactione Alimentorum.</i>
Mr J. J. Erskine.	
From St CROIX.	<i>De Variolis.</i>
Mr W. Macdougall.	
From ENGLAND.	<i>De Discrimine inter Scarlatinam & Cynanchum.</i>
Mr Ed. Bradley,	
	<i>De Tetano.</i>
Mr Jos. Clarke,	<i>De Hydrocephalo Acuto.</i>
Mr W. Okley,	<i>De Bleorrhœa & Venere Impura.</i>
Mr W. Lister,	
From IRELAND.	<i>De Arthrodynia.</i>
Mr R. D. Jackson.	<i>De Cyathide.</i>
Mr T. Johnson,	

MARRIAGES.

Aug. 27. Charles Hay, Esq. merchant in Dunbar, to Miss S'ag of Yorkhire.

Sept. 1. Capt. Robert N. Campbell of Hundleshope, to Miss Montgomery, eldest daughter of the Lord Chief Baron.

Sept. 5. John Lowden, Esq. of Cloak, to Miss Moore.

Dr George Moncreiff of Perth, to Miss Janet Lyon of Ogle.

— 12. Charles Granville Strutt Montcath, Esq. of Clofchurst, to Miss Ludvius Loughman of London.

Lieut. Robert Wright of the Artillery, to Miss Isabella Mabane.

— 19. George Monro, Esq. of Glasgow, to Miss Lilia Murdoch.

Mr John Robertson, manufacturer at Dalkeith, to Miss Jane Fair of Kelso.

BIRTHS.

Aug. 26. Mrs Gordon of Wardhouse delivered of a daughter.

29. Mrs Pringle at Ormiston of a son.

30. Mrs Cheape of Roslie of a daughter.

Sept. 9. Mrs Drummond of Stragath of a son.

21. Mrs Wemyss of Wemyss of a son.

DEATHS.

Aug. 20. Capt. Mark Kerr of the 9th regiment of dragoons.

22. William Willar of Starr, Esq.

28. Miss Douglas Trotter, youngest daughter of Thomas Trotter, Esq. of Morstonhall

29. Mrs Clerk, widow of the late Commissary Clerk.

31. Lady Dowager Abercrombie of Birkcubog.

Sept. 1. Mr William Stugh merchant in Leith.

4. Mr Thomas Crichton merchant in Dundee.

7. Mr John Scott late surgeon in the 10th reg. of dragoons.

8. Mr James Brodie, surgeon in Edinburgh.

9. Mrs Jean Erskine, daughter of the late John Erskine of Balgownie, Esq.

11. Hew Dalrymple, Esq. late of Nuthraw.

— Mr Patrick Baillie, Minister of Borrowstonness.

— Charles McDowal, Esq. of Crichton, late Sheriff of Renfrewshire.

12. Mrs Low of Ferry-bridge.

13. Mr Archibald McNah of Newton.

14. Mrs Jean Grant, daughter of the late Sir Archibald Grant of Monymusk.

16. Miss Catharine Bray.

17. Mr George Pittcairn, late merchant in Edinburgh.

— Mrs Jane Herriot of Ramornie.

19. Mr Nathaniel Duke of Little Knox.

— Mrs Shirriff, wife of Mr Alexander Sherff, merchant in Leith.

20. Lady Elizabeth Hay, sister to the late Earl of Kinnoul.

21. Mr Thomas Murdoch, an eminent Pistol-maker.

THE

Edinburgh Magazine,

OR

LITERARY MISCELLANY,

FOR OCTOBER 1791.

With a View of the OLD BRIDGE of AUCHINDINNY.

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State of the BAROMETER in inches and decimals, and of Fahrenheit's THERMOMETER in the open air, taken in the morning before sun-rise, and at noon; and the quantity of rain-water fallen, in inches and decimals, from Sept. 31st 1791, to the 30th of October, near the foot of Arthur's Seat.

		Thermom.		Barom.	Rain.	Weather.
		M.	N.			
Sept.	31	44	60	29.25	—	
Oct.	1	43	61	29.725	0.05	Showers
	2	45	57	29.875	—	Clear
	3	44	60	29.725	0.055	Showers
	4	45	56	29.525	0.07	Ditto
	5	52	62	29.5	0.06	Ditto
	6	48	57	29.375	—	Clear
	7	48	57	29.4	—	Ditto
	8	47	52	29.375	—	Ditto
	9	48	51	29.	0.49	Rain
	10	42	46	29.75	0.35	Ditto
	11	40	49	29.3	0.27	Ditto
	12	40	53	29.625	0.12	Ditto
	13	35	53	29.325	—	Clear
	14	44	50	29.2	0.125	Rain
	15	45	56	29.375	—	Clear
	16	48	51	29.45	0.22	Rain
	17	48	51	29.35	0.085	Ditto
	18	48	52	29.175	0.375	Ditto
	19	45	52	28.98125	—	Clear
	20	48	53	28.525	0.31	Rain
	21	46	51	28.4	0.025	Ditto
	22	42	44	29.35	1.075	Ditto
	23	33	52	29.7	—	Clear
	24	34	55	29.9	—	Ditto
	25	40	44	29.485	0.12	Rain
	26	35	46	29.9	0.15	Ditto
	27	36	50	30.325	0.06	Showers
	28	34	55	30.375	—	Clear
	29	33	57	30.4125	—	Ditto
	30	40	49	30.2	—	Cloudy

Quantity of Rain, 3.96

Days.	Thermometr.	Days.	Barom.
5.	62 greatest height at noon.	29.	30.4125 greatest elevation
29.	33 least ditto; morning.	21.	28.4 least ditto.

Extract of a Letter from the late King of Prussia to M. de Hertzberg on the Literature of Germany; its defects, and the means of remedying them: dated in 1780.

YOU are surpris'd, Sir, that I do not join my voice to your's in applauding the progress which, as you say, German literature is every day making. I love our common country as much as you do, and therefore I shall not praise her till she has merited my praise. That would be like proclaiming a man a conqueror before he has run half his course. I wait till he has gained the prize, and then my applause will be as sincere as it is deserved.

You know that in the Republic of letters, opinions are free. You see objects in one point of view, I in another: allow me to explain myself, and to lay before you my way of thinking on this subject, and my ideas of ancient and modern literature with respect to languages, science and taste.

I begin with Greece, which was the cradle of the fine arts. That nation spoke the most harmonious language that has ever exist'd. Her first Theologians, and her first historians, were poets; these were the men who gave the happy polish to their language; who invented a number of picturesque expressions, and who taught their successors to speak with grace, with politeness, and propriety.

From Athens I pass to Rome, and there I find a Republic struggling long with its neighbours, and fighting for glory and for empire. Every thing in that government was active and warlike; nor was it till after the destruction of its rival Carthage, that it acquired a taste for the sciences. Scipio Africanus, the friend of Lelius and of Polybius, was the first Roman who protected letters. Afterwards came the Gracchi, and then Anthony and Crassus, two celebrated orators. But the Latin language and Roman eloquence did not arrive at perfec-

tion till the times of Cicero and of Hortensius, and of those illustrious writers who dignified the Augustan age.

This short review points out to me the progress of letters. I see that an author cannot write well if the language he writes in is rude and unformed; and that, in every country, people begin with the necessary before they think of the agreeable. After the formation of the Roman Republic, it fought to acquire territory, which it cultivated; and when, after the Punic wars, it had taken a more stable form, a taste for the arts was introduced, eloquence and the Latin language were perfected. But I cannot help observing, that from the time of Scipio Africanus to the consulship of Cicero, there is an interval of one hundred and sixty years.

From this I conclude that proficiency in any thing is a work of time, and that the seed which we plant in the earth must take root, must shoot up, extend its branches, and acquire strength before it can produce flowers and fruit. Let me examine Germany by these rules, that I may appreciate without partiality our present situation: I divest my mind of every prejudice, that truth alone may be my informer. Here I find a semi-barbarous language, divided into as many different dialects as Germany contains Provinces. Each circle is persuaded that its own patois is the best. We have no work fortified with the national sanction which contains such a choice of words and phrases as constitutes the purity of language. What is written in Suabia is unintelligible at Ham-burg, and the style of Austria appears obscure in Saxony. It is therefore physically impossible for an author of genius to manage so rude a language

with any degree of superior dexterity. If we require a Phidias to execute a Cnidian Venus; if we give him a block of the purest marble, and furnish him with the best implements of his art, there is no doubt but he will succeed: but without tools there can be no artist. Perhaps it may be objected to me that the Grecian Republics had as many different idioms as we have; and that, even in our own day, the Provinces of Italy are distinguished by a style and pronunciation peculiar to each. These truths I do not deny; but let them not prevent me from tracing the progress of things in ancient Greece, as well as in modern Italy. The celebrated poets, orators, and historians of these countries, settled their language by their writings. The public, by tacit consent, adopted the style, the phrases, and the metaphors which these superior artists had employed in their works: these phrases became common, and gave richness, and elegance, and dignity to their respective languages.

Let us now throw our eyes upon our own country; I hear the people talking a jargon destitute of harmony, which every one varies according to his own caprice: I hear terms employed without selection; the most proper and most expressive words neglected, and the sense of things confounded by a multiplicity of epithets. I endeavour to discover our Homers and Virgils, our Anacreons, our Horaces, our Demostheneses, our Ciceros, our Thucydides, our Livys; but my labour is lost, for I can find none such. Let us be candid, then, and honestly confess, that hitherto the Belles Lettres have not prospered in our soil. Germany has had philosophers who sustain a comparison with the ancients, and who even surpass them in more than one department of philosophical discussion. As to the Belles Lettres, we must acknowledge our poverty. All that I can grant to you, without making myself a vile flatterer

of my compatriots, is to allow that we have had, in the insignificant walk of fable, a Gellert who has obtained a place beside Phædrus and Æsop: the poems of Canitz are tolerable, not on account of the diction, but because he imitates Horace, though faintly. I will not omit the Idylls of Gesner, which have found many admirers; however you will allow me to prefer to them the works of Catullus, Tibullus and Propertius. If I turn my eyes to the historians, I find only the history of Germany by Professor Maffeo, which may be cited as being least defective. Shall I give you my opinion freely on the merit of our orators? I can then only produce the celebrated Quant of Königsberg, who possessed the rare and singular talent of rendering his native tongue harmonious; and I must add to our shame, that his merit has neither been acknowledged nor famed. How can we expect that men should exert themselves to attain eminence in any particular walk, if reputation is not their reward? I shall add to these gentlemen an anonymous author, whose poems in black verse I once saw; their cadence and harmony depended on a happy alternation of Dactyles and Spondees; they were full of good sense, and my ear was agreeably flattered with a certain sonorous effect which I did not think our language susceptible of. I venture to presume that this is perhaps the kind of versification most adapted to our idiom, and far preferable to rhyme; it is probable, that if attempts were made to improve it they would succeed.

I do not talk to you of the German theatre. Melpomene has not been wooed but by ungainly suitors, she mounted on stilts, others floundering in the mud, and all of them, being ignorant of her laws, and incapable of touching the passions, or of interesting the heart, have been discarded from her altars. The lovers of Thalia have been more fortunate;

they

they have furnished us with at least one truly original comedy, I mean the *Pistone*: that piece is excellently constructed, and they are our own manners and our own foibles which it exposes. Had Moliere himself treated the same subject, he could not have succeeded better. I am sorry I cannot give you a more ample detail of our good productions: but I do not blame the nation on this account; it wants neither sense nor genius; but it has been kept back by causes which have prevented it from distinguishing itself as early as its neighbours. Let us go back, if you please, to the revival of letters, and compare the situation of Italy, of France, and of Germany, at the period of that remarkable revolution in the human mind.

You know that as to letters, Italy became once more their home, and that the house of Este, the Medici, and Pope Leo X. by the protection they afforded them, contributed to their advancement. While Italy was growing refined, Germany was agitated by the disputes of Theologians, who were divided into two factions, each of which signalized itself by its hatred for the other, its enthusiasm and fanaticism. At this time Francis I. undertook to share with Italy in the glory of contributing to the restoration of letters: but he wasted himself in vain attempts to transplant them into his native country; his labours were fruitless. The monarchy, exhausted by the payment of the king's ransom to Spain, was in a state of languor. The wars of the league which succeeded the death of Francis, prevented the people from applying themselves to the fine arts. It was not till towards the end of the reign of Louis XIII. when the wounds received in the civil wars had been cured under the administration of Cardinal Richelieu, and when the times favoured the attempt, that the project of Francis I. was resumed. The court encouraged learned and

ingenious men; the spirit of emulation arose; and soon afterwards, under Louis XIV. Paris yielded not to Florence nor to Rome. But what was then doing in Germany? At the very moment when Richelieu was gaining immortal honour by improving and refining his country, the war of thirty years was at its height. Germany was ravaged and pillaged by twenty different armies, which, sometimes advancing, and sometimes retreating, carried ruin and desolation in their train. The country was laid waste, the fields were uncultivated, the towns almost desert. Germany had but little time to breathe after the peace of Westphalia: sometimes she opposed the forces of the Ottoman empire, at that time very formidable: sometimes she was engaged in resisting the armies of France, who, in order to extend the empire of that nation, were attempting encroachments on the frontiers of Germany. Can we suppose, that while the Turks were besieging Vienna, while Melac was ravaging the Palatinate, while flames consumed towns and cities, when the asylum of death itself was violated by the unrestrained licence of the soldiery, who dragged from their tombs the bodies of the dead or for the sake of their trifling spoils;—can we suppose, that while unhappy mothers were saving themselves from the ruins of their country, and carrying their infants, worn away with famine in their arms;—can we suppose, I say, that at such a time men were making sonnets at Vienna, or epigrams at Munchim? The muses delight in tranquil abodes; they fly from places disturbed by disorder and alarms. It was not therefore till after the war of the succession that we began to repair what so many successive calamities had made us lose. Thus it is neither to the genius nor to the sense of the nation that we must attribute the little progress we have made; but we must refer it wholly to a train of disastrous circumstances, to

a suc-

a succession of wars that have ruined us and drained us both of money and men.

[After drawing a very flattering picture of the present political state of the German empire, the author goes on thus:]

Let us examine then what remains to be done, in order to extirpate from our fields those briars of ancient barbarism that still infest us, and to accelerate those desirable attainments to which our countrymen aspire. I have said it already, we must begin with polishing our language, which needs the file and the plane; it must be treated by able hands. Perspicuity is the first rule which those who either speak or write ought to prescribe to themselves, since their aim is to paint their thoughts, or to express their ideas by words. Of what use are the justest, the strongest, or the most brilliant thoughts, if they are not made intelligible? Many of our authors pride themselves in a diffuse style; they heap parenthesis upon parenthesis, and you often do not find, till you have got to the bottom of the whole page, the verb on which the meaning of the sentence depends: nothing injures perspicuity more than this method of construction: the style of such authors is prolix without being abundant, and one may as soon unriddle the enigma of the Sphynx as comprehend their thoughts. There is another cause which retards the progress of letters as much as the faults I attribute to our language and to the style of our authors: I mean the want of proper models to study from. Our nation has been accused of pedantry, because we have had a multitude of Commentators, dull and laborious on trifles. To do away this reproach, we begin to neglect the study of the learned languages, and, that we may not be thought pedants, we are becoming superficial.

[The author proceeds to examine defects of the German method of

instructing youth; gives his own opinion of the proper manner, and some directions for avoiding false taste, with examples of indistinct metaphors and faulty comparisons, two of the most curious of which examples we shall here record. The first of them Frederick pursueth in attributing to Professor Heineccius; though M. de Hertzberg maintains they are by a Professor Eberti at Franckfort, whose head had been turned by the reading of Spanish romances.] I remember, says the king, to have read in my youth the following beautiful passage in an epistle dedicatory by Professor Heineccius to a certain queen, "Ihro Majestat glanzen wie ein karfunkel am finger der jetzigen zeit." "Your Majesty sparkles like a carbuncle on the finger of the present time." When Professors speak in this style: what have we to expect from the pupils? A certain poet, who dedicated his works to I don't know what patron, expresses himself in the following manner. "Schieß, großer Gönner, schieß deine strahlen, arm dick, auf deinen knecht hernieder." "Shed, great Patron, shed the beams of thy bounty, as thick as my arm, upon thy slave." What say you to beams as thick as one's arm? Ought not one to have said to this poet, My good friend, learn to think before you pretend to write? [Having traced the progress of refinement in the languages of Italy, France, and England, the author concludes, that in like manner his country must owe the polishing of the German language to great poets and orators, not to philosophers. He then investigates the best means of extending the sphere, of science, and of rendering knowledge useful: in the course of which investigation he takes occasion to digress in the following manner.]

In order to judge of the taste that has hitherto prevailed in Germany, we have only to repair to the theatres.

There we shall see represented the

abominable

Some Account of Dr Joseph Priestley; from the European Magazine.

DR JOSEPH PRIESTLEY was born, if we are not misinformed, at Field-head, near Birstall, about seven miles from Leeds, in the year 1728 or 1729. His father was a merchant and manufacturer, and he received the early part of his education from the Rev. Mr Scott, a Dissenting Minister in the neighbourhood. The principles of the Sect to which he belonged, and in which he remained some years, were those of Calvin. These, however, he has totally renounced; and having published a narrative of what led him to the several changes of his opinions, we deem it the most proper to give it in his own words.

“ * Having been educated in the strictest principles of Calvinism, and having from my early years had a ferocious turn of mind, promoted, no doubt, by a weak and sickly constitution, I was very sincere and zealous in my belief of the doctrine of the Trinity; and this continued till I was about nineteen; and then I was as much shocked on hearing of any who denied the divinity of Christ (thinking it to be nothing less than impiety and blasphemy) as any of my opponents can be now; I therefore truly feel for them, and most sincerely excuse them.

“ About the age of twenty, being then in a regular course of theological studies, I saw reason to change my opinion, and became an Arian; and notwithstanding what appeared to me a fair and impartial study of the Scriptures, and though I had no bias on my mind arising from subscribed creeds and confessions of faith, &c. I continued in that persuasion fifteen or six-

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teen years; and yet in that time I was well acquainted with Dr Lardner, Dr Fleming, and several other zealous Socinians, especially my friend Mr Graham. The first theological tract of mine (which was on the doctrine of Atonement) was published at the particular request, and under the direction, of Dr Lardner; and he approving of the scheme which I had then formed, of giving a short view (which was all that I had then thought of) of the progress of the corruptions of Christianity, he gave me a few hints with respect to it. But still I continued till after his death indisposed to the Socinian hypothesis. After this, continuing my study of the Scriptures, with the help of his Letters on the Logos, I at length changed my opinion, and became what is called a Socinian; and in this I see continually more reason to acquiesce, though it was a long time before the arguments in favour of it did more than barely preponderate in my mind. For the arguments which had the principal weight with me at that time, and particularly those texts of Scripture which so long retarded my change of opinion, I refer my readers to the Theological Repository, Vol. III. p. 345.

“ I was greatly confirmed in this doctrine, after I was fully satisfied that man is of an uniform composition, and wholly mortal; and that the doctrine of a separate immaterial soul, cap. bl. of sensation and action when the body is in the grave, is a notion borrowed from heathen philosophy, and unknown to the Scriptures. Of this I had for a long time a mere suspicion;

* Letters to Dr Hordley, in Answer to his Animadversions on the “ History of the Corruptions of Christianity,” 8vo.

suspicion; but having casually men-
 tioned it as such, and a violent outcry
 being raised against me on that ac-
 count, I was induced to give the
 greatest attention to the question, to
 enquire it in every light, and to in-
 volve the fullest discussion of it. This
 terminated in as full a conviction with
 respect to this subject as I have with
 respect to any other whatever. The
 reasons on which that conviction is
 founded may be seen in my "Dis-
 quisions on Matter and Spirit," of
 which I have lately published a new
 and improved edition.

"Being now fully persuaded that
 Christ was a man like ourselves, and
 consequently that his pre-existence,
 as well as that of other men, was a
 notion that had no foundation in rea-
 son or in the scriptures; and having
 been gradually led (in consequence of
 tracing to trace the principal corrup-
 tions of Christianity) to give particu-
 lar attention to ecclesiastical history,
 I could not help thinking but that
 (since the doctrine of the pre-existence
 of Christ was not the doctrine of the
 Scriptures, and therefore could not
 have been taught by the Apostles)
 there must be some traces of the rise
 and progress of the doctrine of the
 Trinity, and some historical evidence
 that Unitarianism was the general
 faith of Christians in the apostolical
 age, independent of the evidence
 which arose from its being the doc-
 trine of the Scriptures.

"In this state of mind, the reader
 will easily perceive that I naturally
 expected to find what I was previously
 well persuaded was to be found; and
 in time I collected much more evi-
 dence than I at first expected, confir-
 ming the early rise, and the long
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 particular situation and prejudices."

Having thus produced to our read-
 ers the Doctor's own account of the
 changes in his sentiments on these
 important subjects, we shall proceed
 to observe, that from the tuition of
 Mr Scott he was removed to the care
 of Mr Ashworth, near Daventry in
 Northamptonshire, where he complet-
 ed his education, and soon after-
 wards was ordained. On the attempt
 to establish a Dissenting Academy at
 Warrington, he was made choice of
 to teach the languages and Belles
 Lettres. During his continuance in
 this situation, he applied himself to
 the duties of his office with great
 diligence and ability, as may be seen
 in his several courses of Lectures,
 some of which have been since printed.
 From Warrington he returned to his
 native country, and took upon him-
 self the pastoral office at Mill Chapel,
 Leeds, which he resigned May 16,
 1773; and on that occasion both
 preached and printed a Sermon,
 which he delivered at parting with
 his flock. Before this period some of
 his philosophical works had been print-
 ed and received with the approbation
 of the learned, and his name and cha-
 racter were generally mentioned with
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 ance with the Marquis of Lansdowne,
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 ing we are not informed, but after some
 time a coolness took place between
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 his patron, and once more resumed the
 exercise of his clerical function. On
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late scenes of confusion drove him to seek another asylum.

Of that traslation we cannot too strongly express our detestation, and we hope never to see a recurrence of the like horrors. That we may not, it will be incumbent on those who so long with impunity have been abetting sedition, to observe something more of decorum in their conduct than we have lately witnessed. To form good subjects, Preachers of the Gospel would with more propriety consider themselves bound to inculcate on their hearers the *duties of men*, which do not seem to be well understood, rather than *their rights*, which they are in complete possession of without a probability of infringement.

Dr Priestley's political and theological writings have been variously spoken of, and by many are supposed to be fraught with the most destructive principles to the well-being of society. Dr Johnson used to say they were calculated to unsettle every thing, but to settle nothing. Their violence, however, counteracted their apprehended effect, and we believe they need not now create any alarm. It is remarkable, that their evil tendency has been pointed out by one from whom the observation was least to be expected. Mr. Gibbon, in his History, remarks, that, "the pillars of revelation are shaken by those men who preserve the name without the substance of religion, who indulge the licence without the temper of philosophy." To the merit of Dr Priestley's philosophical works, and some few others, we rejoice to be able to bear our testimony; and let us add, that his intimate friends speak in the most favourable terms of the amiable-

ness of his private character.

To writers like Dr Priestley, or Mr Gibbon, who seem careless about the consequences which their writings may produce, it may not be improper to recommend the sentiments of a great writer in this Century: "A free and impartial inquiry after truth, wherever it is to be found, is indeed a noble and most commendable disposition: a disposition which every man ought himself to labour after, and to the utmost of his power encourage in all others. It is the great foundation of all useful knowledge, of all true virtue, and of all sincere religion. But when a man, in his searches into the nature of things, finds his enquiries leading him towards such notions as, if they should prove true, would manifestly subvert the very essences of good and evil, the least that a sober-minded man can in such a case possibly be supposed to owe to God, to virtue, to the dignity of a rational creature, is, that he ought to be in the highest degree fearful and suspicious of himself, lest he be led away by any prejudice, lest he be deceived by any erroneous argument, lest he suffer himself to be imposed on by any wrong inclination. Too great an assurance in arguments of this nature, even though at present they seemed to him to be demonstrations, rejoicing in the strength of them, and taking pleasure in the carrying of such a cause, is what a good mind can never be capable of. To such a person, the finding his own arguments unanswerable would be the greatest grief; triumphing in so melancholy a field would be the highest dissatisfaction; and nothing could afford so pleasing, so agreeable a disappointment, as to

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* To this observation he subjoins the following note; "I still recommend to public animadversion two passages in Dr Priestley which betray the ultimate tendency of his opinions:—at the first of these (*Ess. of the Corruptions of Christianity*, vol. i p. 275, 276.) the priest, at the second (vol. ii. p. 484.) the magistrate may tremble." *Gibbon's History*, vol. iv. p. 340. Edition.

suspicion; but having casually mentioned it as such, and a violent outcry being raised against me on that account, I was induced to give the greatest attention to the question, to examine it in every light, and to invite the fullest discussion of it. This terminated in as full a conviction with respect to this subject as I have with respect to any other whatever. The reasons on which that conviction is founded may be seen in my "Dissquisitions on Matter and Spirit," of which I have lately published a new and improved edition.

"Being now fully persuaded that Christ was a man like ourselves, and consequently that his pre-existence, as well as that of other men, was a notion that had no foundation in reason or in the scriptures; and having been gradually led (in consequence of wishing to trace the principal corruptions of Christianity) to give particular attention to ecclesiastical history, I could not help thinking but that (since the doctrine of the pre-existence of Christ was not the doctrine of the Scriptures, and therefore could not have been taught by the Apostles) there must be some traces of the rise and progress of the doctrine of the Trinity, and some historical evidence that Unitarianism was the general faith of Christians in the apostolical age, independent of the evidence which arose from its being the doctrine of the Scriptures.

"In this state of mind, the reader will easily perceive that I naturally expected to find what I was previously well persuaded was to be found; and in time I collected much more evidence than I at first expected, considering the early rise, and the long and universal spread, of what I deem to be a radical corruption of the genuine Christian Doctrine. This evidence I have fairly laid before the reader. He must judge of the weight of it, and also make whatever allow-

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find his own reasonings shewn to be inconclusive." *Dr Samuel Clarke's Philosophical Enquiry concerning Human Liberty,* p. 45.
Remarks on a Book entitled, "A Lib-

Observations on the State of Literature among the Fair Sex in the Sixteenth Century. By Dr Kippis.

IT has been remarked by Mr Wotton, that no age was so productive of learned women as the sixteenth century. Speaking of the flourishing condition of learning in that century, he says, it was so very modish, that the fair sex seemed to believe that Greek and Latin added to their charms; and that Plato and Aristotle untranslated were frequent ornaments of their closets. "One would think by the effects, that it was a proper way of educating them, since there are no accounts in history of so many great women in any one age, as are to be found between the years fifteen and sixteen hundred." Erasmus, also, describing those times, says, "Scenarum humanarum inventitur: monachis literas nesciunt, et sceminae libris indulgent.—Bellum est cum sexum ad prisca exempla postliminio recipere." "The scene of human affairs is changed: the monks are ignorant of literature, and women are fond of books.—It is a singular circumstance, that the female sex should at length have recourse to the ancient examples." Learning was then held in such high estimation, that several great men were desirous that their daughters should be possessed of it, as well as their sons. The examples of King Henry the VIII. in the education of the Princesses Mary and Elizabeth, and of Sir Thomas More with regard to Mrs Roper, are thought to have chiefly contributed to the introduction of this custom. There can be no doubt but that the conduct of persons so illustrious would have much

effect upon the sentiments of our countrymen, and be productive of imitation. But, besides this, there was a concurrence of other causes; such as the recent origin of printing; the curiosity hence excited in the human mind; the admiration with which the ancient writers, so lately brought to light, were contemplated; and the distinguished honour that arose from literary pursuits. In short, the general spirit of the age nourished the principle of training up women in learning. Nor was a slight degree of learning deemed sufficient for them. They were rendered complete mistresses of the Greek and Latin, as well as of the modern languages. Their reading was not confined to the classic authors, but comprehended the fathers of the Church. They could write Greek epistles, and compose Greek verses. It should be remembered, however, that the literature of the women of that period extended comparatively but to a few persons, and those only of considerable rank, the generality of the female sex being in a state of ignorance. There was by no means that diffusion of knowledge, that cultivation of mind, that taste for books, which we now meet with in almost every company of ladies. Neither do we find that the learned women of the sixteenth century produced such works as have continued to be read much by posterity. The most important production of any of Sir Anthony Cooke's daughters, was Lady Bacon's translation of Bishop Jewel's Apology; and yet, who but an Antiquary would

would now seek for it, or give himself the trouble of perusing it? Not a single Poetess, deserving to be mentioned, arose in this country till the seventeenth century. The Duchesse of Newcastle, Mrs Katherine Philips, and Mrs Behn, appear to have been the first who could, in any degree, merit that appellation. If we come down to later times, we shall be sensible that, independently of poetry, the learned women of the sixteenth century have been, far exceeded by the ingenious ladies of the present age, both in the general and extensive utility of their writings, and in the elegancies of composition. We pretend not to enumerate all those whose works will be read and admired by succeeding generations; but it is impossible, whilst we are treating on such a subject, to forget the names of a Cockburn, a Rowe, a Montagu, a Carter, a Chapone, a More, and a Barbauld. We are speaking of prose works only, since otherwise we could not avoid adding to the catalogue a Seward and a Williams. Neither does novel-writing come under our immediate view, to which so many, perhaps too many female authors, apply themselves, though none with a success equal to that of a Burney.

There is a remark to be made concerning the difference between the literature of the ladies of the sixteenth century, and that of the women of more recent times. The former entered deeply into the study of the ancient languages, whilst the latter, besides acquiring a skill in the modern tongues, especially the French and the Italian, have paid their principle attention to the culti-

tivation of general knowledge. Some of them, however, have been no small proficient in the learning of antiquity. Mrs Carter stands, without competition, at the head of her sex in this respect; having displayed her accurate acquaintance with the Greek writings and philosophy, in a manner highly honourable to herself, and advantageous to the world. How admirably Mrs Barbauld hath entered into the spirit of the Latin classics, is apparent from the uncommon propriety and beauty of her mottos. Mrs Montagu, in her admirable Essay on the Writings and Genius of Shakspeare, hath shewn that, amongst the other qualifications necessary to constitute a Critic of the first order; such as a penetrating mind, a fine taste, and a correct and elegant style, she is well acquainted with ancient literature, and rich in the stores of various knowledge.

Another circumstance observable in the learned ladies of the sixteenth century is, that they were most eminent for their piety. Religion was deeply impressed upon their minds, and, agreeably to the fashion of the times, religion was almost the sole topic of their writings. It is pleasing to reflect, that the best female authors of the present day are not inferior to them in pious and virtuous principles and conduct. Those who have the happiness of a personal intimacy with Mrs Montagu, Mrs Carter, Mrs Barbauld, Mrs Chapone, and Miss Hannah More, will know that we speak the truth; to which may be added, that these ladies are unaffected in their manners, and that they do not esteem themselves above the ordinary duties of domestic life.

Observations on the Effects of the several Expeditions undertaken by Capt. Cook to the South Seas, &c. By the same.

It is justly remarked, by the Bishop of Carlisle, that one great advan-

tage accruing to the world from our late surveys of the globe, is, that they have

have confuted fanciful theories, too likely to give birth to impracticable undertakings. The ingenious reveries of speculative philosophers, which have so long amused the learned, and raised the most sanguine expectations, are now obliged to submit, perhaps with reluctance, to the sober dictates of truth and experience. Nor will it be only by discouraging future unprofitable searches, that the late voyages will be of service to mankind, but also by lessening the dangers and distresses formerly experienced in those seas which are within the actual line of commerce and navigation. From the British discoveries, many commercial improvements may be expected to arise in our own times; but, in future ages, such improvements may be extended to a degree, of which, at present, we have no conception. In the long chain of causes and effects, no one can tell how widely and beneficially the mutual intercourse of the various inhabitants of the earth may hereafter be carried on, in consequence of the means of facilitating it, which have been explored and pointed out by Captain Cook.

The interests of science, as well as of commerce, stand highly indebted to this illustrious Navigator. That a knowledge of the globe on which we live is a very desirable object, no one can call in question. This is an object which, while it is ardently pursued by the most enlightened philosophers, is sought for with avidity, even by those whose studies do not carry them beyond the lowest rudiments of learning. It need not be said what gratification Captain Cook hath provided for the world in this respect. Before the voyages of the present reign took place, nearly half the surface of the earth was hidden in obscurity and confusion. From the discoveries of our Navigator, geography has assumed a new face, and become, in a great measure, a new science; having attained to such a completion,

as to leave only some less important parts of the globe to be explored by future voyagers.

Happily for the advancement of knowledge, acquisitions cannot be obtained in any one branch, without leading to acquisitions in other branches, of equal, and perhaps of superior consequence. New oceans cannot be traversed, or new countries visited, without presenting fresh objects of speculation and enquiry, and carrying the practice, as well as the theory, of philosophy, to a higher degree of perfection. *Nautical astronomy*, in particular, was in its infancy, when the late voyages were first undertaken; but, during the prosecution of them, and especially in Captain Cook's last expedition, even many of the petty officers could observe the distance of the moon from the sun, or a star, the most delicate of all observations, with sufficient accuracy. As for the officers of superior rank, they would have felt themselves ashamed to have it thought that they did not know how to observe for, and compute the time at sea; though such a thing had, a little before, scarcely been heard of among seamen. Nay, first-rate philosophers had doubted the possibility of doing it with the exactness that could be wished. It must, however, be remembered, that a large share of praise is due to the Board of Longitude, for the proficiency of the Gentlemen of the Navy in taking observations at sea. In consequence of the attention of that Board to this important object, liberal rewards have been given to the Mathematicians for perfecting the lunar tables, and facilitating calculations; and artists have been amply encouraged in the construction of instruments and watches, much more accurately and completely adapted to the purposes of navigation than formerly existed.

It is needless to mention what a quantity of additional information has been gained with respect to the rise

and times of the flowing of the tides; the direction and force of currents at sea; and the cause and nature of the polarity of the needle, and the theory of its variation. Nautical knowledge has been increased by experiments on the effects of gravity in different and very distant places; and, from Captain Cook's having penetrated so far into the Southern Ocean, it is now ascertained, that the phenomenon, usually called the *Aurora Borealis*, is not peculiar to high northern latitudes, but belongs equally to all cold climates, whether they be North or South.

Amidst the different branches of science that have been promoted by the late expeditions, there is none, perhaps, that stands so highly indebted to them as the science of botany. At least twelve hundred new plants have been added to the known system; and large accessions of intelligence have accrued with regard to every other part of natural history. This point has already been evinced by the writings of Dr Sparman, of the two Forsters, father and son, and of Mr Pennant; and this point will illustriously be manifested, when the great work of Sir Joseph Banks shall be accomplished, and given to the world.

It is not to the enlargement of natural knowledge only, that the effects arising from Captain Cook's voyages are to be confined. Another important object of study has been opened by them; and that is, the study of human nature, in situations various, interesting, and uncommon. The Islands visited in the centre of the South Pacific Ocean, and the principal scenes of the operations of our discoverers, were untrodden ground. As the inhabitants, so far as could be observed, had continued, from their original settlement, unmixed with any different tribe; as they had been left entirely to their own powers for every art of life, and to their own remote traditions for every political or

custom or institution; as they were unimproved by science, and unimproved by education, they could not but afford many subjects of speculation to an inquisitive and philosophical mind. Hence may be collected a variety of important facts with respect to the state of man; with respect to his attainments and deficiencies, his virtues and vices, his employments and diversions, his feelings, manners, and customs, in a certain period of society. Even the curiosities which have been brought from the discovered Islands, and which enrich the British Museum, and the late Sir Ashton Lever's (now Mr Parkinson's) repository, may be considered as a valuable acquisition to this country; as supplying no small fund of information and entertainment.

Few enquiries are more interesting than those which relate to the migrations of the various families or tribes that have peopled the earth. It was known in general, that the Asiatic nation, called Malayans, possessed, in former times, much the greatest trade in the Indies; and that they frequented, with their merchants ships, not only all the coasts of Asia, but ventured over even to the coasts of Africa, and particularly to the great Island of Madagascar. But that, from Madagascar to the Marquesas and Easter Island, that is, nearly from the East side of Africa, till we approach towards the West side of America, a space including above half the circumference of the globe, the same nation of the Oriental world should have made their settlements, and founded colonies throughout almost every intermediate stage of this immense tract, in Islands at amazing distances from the mother continent, and the natives of which were ignorant of each other's existence; is an historical fact, that, before Captain Cook's voyages, could be but very imperfectly known. He it is who hath discovered a vast number of new spots of land, lurking in the bosom

of the South Pacific Ocean, all the inhabitants of which display striking evidences of their having derived their descent from one common Asiatic original. Nor is this apparent solely from a similarity of customs and institutions, but is established by a proof which conveys irresistible conviction to the mind, and that is, the affinity of language. The collections that have been made of the words which are used in the widely diffused Islands and countries that have lately been visited, cannot fail, in the hands of such men as a Bryant and a Marsden, to throw much light on the origin of nations, and the peopling of the globe. From Mr Marsden, in particular, who has devoted his attention, time, and study to this curious subject, the literary world may hereafter expect to be highly instructed and entertained.

There is another family of the earth, concerning which new information has been derived from the voyages of our British Navigators. That the Esquimaux, who had hitherto only been found seated on the coasts of Labradore and Hudson's Bay, agreed with the Greenlanders in every circumstance of customs, manners, and language, which could demonstrate an original identity of nation, had already been ascertained. But that the same tribe now actually inhabit the islands and coasts on the West side of North America, opposite Kamtschatka, was a discovery, the completion of which was reserved for Captain Cook. In his narrative it will be seen that these people have extended their migrations to Norton Sound, Oonalaska, and Prince William's Sound; that is, to nearly the distance of fifteen hundred leagues from their stations in Greenland, and the coast of Labradore. Nor does this curious fact rest merely on the evidence arising on similitude of manners: for it stands confirmed by a table of words, exhibiting such an

affinity of language as will remove every doubt from the mind of the most scrupulous enquirer.

Other questions there are, of a very important nature, the solution of which will now be rendered more easy than hitherto heretofore been apprehended. From the full confirmation of the vicinity of the two continents of Asia and America, it can no longer be represented as ridiculous to believe, that the former furnished inhabitants to the latter. By the facts recently discovered, a credibility is added to the Mosaic account of the peopling of the earth. That account will, I doubt not, stand the test of the most learned and rigorous investigation. Indeed, I have long been convinced, after the closest meditation of which I am capable, that sound philosophy and genuine revelation never militate against each other. The rational friends of religion are so far from dreading the spirit of enquiry, that they wish for nothing more than a candid, calm, and impartial examination of the subject, according to all the lights which the improved reason and the enlarged science of man can afford.

There is one event at home, which has evidently resulted from Capt. in Cook's discoveries, and which, therefore, must not be omitted. What I refer to, is the settlement at Botany Bay. With the general policy of this measure the present narrative has not any concern. The plan, I doubt not, has been adopted with the best intentions, after the maturest deliberation, and perhaps with consummate wisdom. One evident advantage arising from it is, that it will effectually prevent a number of unhappy wretches from returning to their former scenes of temptation and guilt, and may open to them the means of industrious subsistence and moral reformation. If it be wisely and prudently begun and conducted, who can tell what beneficial consequences

they spring from it, in future ages! Immortal Rome is said to have risen from the refuse of mankind.

While we are considering the advantages the discoverers have derived from the late navigations, a question naturally occurs, which is, What benefits have hence accrued to the discovered? It would be a source of the highest pleasure to be able to answer this question to complete satisfaction. But it must be acknowledged, that the subject is not wholly free from doubts and difficulties; and these doubts and difficulties might be enlarged upon, and exaggerated, by an imagination which is rather disposed to contemplate and represent the dark than the luminous aspect of human affairs. In one respect, Mr Samwell has endeavoured to shew, that the natives of the lately explored parts of the world, and especially so far as relates to the Sandwich Islands, were not injured by our people; and it was the constant solicitude and care of Captain Cook, that evil might not be communicated in any place to which he came. If he was universally successful, the good which, in various cases, he was instrumental in producing, will be reflected upon with the more peculiar satisfaction.

There is an essential difference between the voyages that have lately been undertaken, and many which have been carried on in former times. None of my readers can be ignorant of the horrid cruelties that were exercised by the conquerors of Mexico and Peru; cruelties which can never be remembered, without blushing for religion and human nature. But to undertake expeditions with a design of civilizing the world, and meliorating its condition, is a noble object. The recesses of the globe were investigated by Captain Cook, not to enlarge private dominion, but to promote general knowledge; the new tribes of the earth were visited as friends; and an acquaintance with their existence was

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sought for, in order to bring the^m within the pale of the offices of humanity, and to relieve the wants of their imperfect state of society. Such were the benevolent views which our Navigator was commissioned by his Majesty to carry into execution; and there is reason to hope that they will not be wholly unsuccessful. From the long continued intercourse with the natives of the Friendly, Society, and Sandwich Islands, some rays of light must have darted on their infant minds. The uncommon objects which have been presented to their observation, and excited their surprize, will naturally tend to enlarge their stock of ideas, and to furnish new materials for the exercise of their reasonable faculties. It is no small addition to their comforts of life, and their immediate enjoyments, that will be derived from the introduction of our useful animals and vegetables; and if the only benefit they should ever receive from the visits of the English, should be the having obtained fresh means of subsistence, that must be considered as a great acquisition.

But may not our hopes be extended to still nobler objects? The connection which has been opened with these remote inhabitants of the world, is the first step toward their improvement; and consequences may flow from it, which are far beyond our present conceptions. Perhaps, our late voyages may be the means appointed by Providence, of spreading, in due time, the blessings of civilization among the numerous tribes of the South Pacific Ocean, and preparing them for holding an honourable rank among the nations of the earth. There cannot be a more laudable attempt, than that of endeavouring to rescue millions of our fellow-creatures from that state of humiliation in which they now exist. Nothing can more essentially contribute to the attainment of this great end, than a wise and rational introduction of the Christian Religion; an introduction

introduction of it in its genuine simplicity; as holding out the worship of one God, inculcating the purest morality, and promising eternal life as

the reward of obedience. These are views of things which are adapted to general comprehension, and calculated to produce the noblest effects.

Memoirs of Dr Gilbert Jacchæus, Professor of Philosophy at Leyden.

DR GILBERT JACCHÆUS (probably JACK) was born in the year 1578 at Aberdeen, where his father was a respectable merchant.—He was educated at the schools and University of Aberdeen, under the care of Mr Thomas Cargill, an eminent teacher, and Mr Robert Howie, first Principal of Marischal College. Having gone through the usual course of education in this place, he went to Germany, where he studied in several Universities, particularly at Helmstadt and Herborn, and in all of them had the good fortune to meet with some of his countrymen established as Professors. For the writer of his funeral oration, from whom these hints are chiefly drawn, observes to the honour of Scotland—“*quintiam quod ad commendationem gentis illius pertinet, neutiquam reticendum, vix ulla, hodie celebris Europæ academia est, que non SCOTUM aliquem inter suos Professores habere gaudeat,*”—and mentions among others JAMES RAMSAY and — MURDESON, as formerly eminent at Leyden. After passing a few years in Germany, Mr Jack removed to Holland, and for some time supported himself by teaching privately at Leyden, where he soon acquired to great reputation that he was appointed Professor of Philosophy in 1604. Here he continued till his death, teaching Aristotle's doctrines with much applause, so that Vorstius affirms—“*ju- rasser Philosophi eum suff. genium et mentem, sicut ille nature dictus est.*” He also taught the Platonic system of Philosophy, explained the writings of Themistius, Philoponus, Simplicius,

us, &c.; and is said to have been the first Professor at Leyden who publicly taught Metaphysics. Having also applied to the study of Medicine, he received the degree of M. D. in that University in 1611. He is represented as a very eminent scholar, of a most retentive memory, and conversant in most branches of literature, especially in classical learning and history. He was indefatigable in his application to teaching and study, elegant and agreeable in his manners, and more attentive (says Vorstius) to dress and external appearance than the learned men of that age generally were.—He died of a paralytic disorder on the 17th April 1628, in the 50th year of his age, leaving behind him a widow and ten children. His funeral oration was pronounced by his colleague Adolphus Vorstius, Professor of Medicine; and various commendations of him in poetry and prose are given by some of the most distinguished scholars of that period, particularly D. Heinsius, Ger. Vossius, Dom. Baudius, C. Barlæus and others. Nor was his merit acknowledged only in his own University, for Vorstius says, that a little before his death he was invited to be Professor of Civil History at Oxford, as his friend Gerard Vossius had been, and which, like him, he declined, either on account of bad health, or that he rather chose to remain at Leyden. Of his writings that can now be found are the following:

Gilberti Jacchæi Scots Institutiones Medicæ,—Leid. 1624. Reprinted after his death—*ibid. 1631.*

Institutiones

Institutiones Physicæ, Juventutis Lugdunensis Studii potissimum dicatæ, 1612. Republished with notes and additions—ibid. 1615. Authore Gilberto Facchæo,—Lug. Bat.

On the Original State of Forests and their Inhabitants.*

PERHAPS of all species of landscape, there is none which so universally captivates mankind as forest-scenery, and our prepossession in favour of it appears in nothing more than in this; that the inhabitants of bleak countries, totally destitute of wood, are generally considered, from the natural feelings of mankind, as the objects of pity.

Pliny has given us a view of this kind, which, he tells us, he took himself upon the spot. It represents a black sea-coast in Zealand, before that country was embanked; the inhabitants of which he speaks of as the most wretched of human beings. It is true, there are other wants besides that of scenery, which enter into the idea of their wretchedness; but I dare affirm, that if Pliny had found the same people, with all their wants about them, in a country richly furnished with wood, he would have spoken of them in different language.

"This coast, says he, lies so much lower than the ocean, that the tides daily overflow it. The inhabitants build their huts on little eminences, which they either find or construct on the shores; and which serve to raise their dwellings just above the water-mark. These dwellings, or rather cabins, when the tide rises, often seem like floating boats; and when it retires, the inhabitants appear like stranded mariners, and their cottages like wrecks. Their harvest is the ebbing of the sea;—during which they are every where

"seen running about in quest of fish, and pursuing them in each little creek of the shore, as the tide descends it. They have neither horse nor cow, nor domestic animal of any kind: and as to game, they have not the least appearance of a bush to shelter it. The whole employment of this wretched people is fishing. They make their nets of sea-weed; and dry a kind of stony mud for fuel. Rain-water is their only drink, which they preserve in ditches dug before their cabins."

Such is Pliny's picture of this bleak and desolate country. From the very feelings of nature we shudder at it.—Whereas the idea of the forest is pleasing to every one. The case is, tho' there may be as much real misery amidst beautiful scenery, yet beautiful scenery covers it. Wretchedness is often felt under splendid apparel; but it does not strike us in such attire as it does in rags.

That man was originally a forest-animal appears from every page of his early history. Trace the first accounts of any people, and you will find them the inhabitants of woods, if woods were to be found in the countries in which they lived. Caves, thickets, and trunks of trees were their retreats; and acorns their food, with such beasts as they took in hunting; which afforded them only a precarious supply. If indeed they lived near a coast, like the Zealanders described by Pliny, they obtained a livelihood by fishing. But with the savages of the coast we have

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* From "Gilpin's Remarks on Forest Scenery."

have nothing to do. Our attention is only engaged by the savage of the woods.

While man continued thus an inmate of the forest, it is possible he might have sagacity to build himself a hut of boughs, which he might cover with clods; and yet it is more probable, that while he continued the mere child of nature, he was contented with the simple shelter which Virgil above supposes his common mother furnished, the imbowering thicket or the hollow trunk; as summer or winter led him to prefer an open or a closer cover. Strabo speaks of certain Asiatics, even so late in the history of mankind as the times of Pompey the Great, who harpoured, like birds, in the tops of trees. And I think the savages about Botany Bay are not represented by our late discoverers in a much more improved condition.

Man in this solitary state (for scarcity of food forbade any enlarged ideas of society) waged but unequal war with his brother savages the brutes.—Most of them outstripped him in speed, many of them contended with him in strength, and some nearly equalled him in sagacity.

The human savage thus finding himself hard put to it, even to defend his own, might look round for assistance. The dog, whose friendly manners might solicit his acquaintance, was probably one of his first associates in those countries where dogs were to be found. This union made a powerful party in the forest. The great object of it however was rather food than conquest. The dog and his master were both carnivorous animals; and they soon began to gratify their appetites at the expense of their fellow-brutes. The one conducting, and the other executing the plan, few creatures could oppose them.

But man, from the beginning, was an ambitious animal. Having filled his belly, he aspired after dominion.—For this purpose it was necessary for

him to procure a better ally than ~~that~~ he had chosen. He had yet but little connection with his fellow. To join, now and then, in a hunting party was all the intercourse he knew. It was little more than such a league as is found among jackalls and other animals that hunt in packs. Ideas of society, however, by degrees took place. The dawnings of social compact appeared. Man now threw off the brute, and thought it good to leave his scattered tenements, and to assemble in hoards. The rudiments of law were traced, and some rude sketch of subordination. In earnest he began now to shew his dominion. By fellowship he had increased his strength; the horse, the bullock, and other animals were reclaimed from the forest; some for social assistance, and others for a less precarious supply of food; while the shaggy tenants of the forest, which were hostile to his plans, began every where to give way, prowling only by night, and skulking by day in such deep recesses as might best secure them from the formidable association which had taken place.

But still his native forest was man's delight. Here, in some opening surrounded with woods the hoard first settled. Here the first attempts of architecture were made; the trail was laid out by rule and line, and the first thoughts of regular defence were imagined. Cæsar, with all his boasted conquests, found the Gauls, the Britons, and the Germans scarce emerging from this state of barbarism. His commentaries every where shew them to have been forest people; retreating before him into their fastnesses, and impeding his march by felling timber in his way. The Britons, he expressly tells us, gave the name of a town to a part of a forest which they had fortified with a rampart and a ditch.

But Cæsar saw the British towns only in time of war. Strabo gives us a picture of one in time of peace. "Forests, says he, were the only towns in use among them, which were formed

It formed by cutting down a large circle of wood, and erecting huts within "it, and sheds for cattle." The same author, afterwards describing a town of this kind, shews more exactly the mode of fortifying it. It was the practice, he tells us, to intermix and weave together the branches of thorny trees, and strengthen them with stakes.

As the arts of civilization increased, man began to feel that the forest could not afford him all the conveniences he wished: Wants multiplied upon him which he could not indulge amidst its recesses. He chose fertile situations for tillage—the neighbourhood of rivers for mills and manufactures—and descended to the sea-coast for commerce, which he extended to the most distant parts.

Thus genial intercourse, and mutual aid,
Cheer'd what were else an universal
shale;

Call'd nature from her ivy-mantled den,
And softened human rock-work into men.

When man became thus refined, we leave him. When he relinquished the forest, we have no farther connection with him. His haunts and habits are no longer the object of conjecture.—They become the subject of recorded history. To the sage historian therefore we now consign him; and return to the forest, which at this day in most parts of the world, where any forests remain, is left in possession of the brute creation.

Under the burning suns of Lybia, in the forests of Zera and Eldulecid, the lordly lion reigns. He harbours too in the woods of India; but there he is an ignoble brute, compared with the lion of Africa. The African lion is a beast of unrivalled prowess; nothing appalls him. From his dark recesses in the forest he sometimes eyes the numerous caravan, consisting of men, horses, and camels, marching slowly along the burning sands of Barca. He lashes his tail, collects his strength, and bounding forward, tho'

single, attacks the whole. He is received by a brigade of pointed spears, and soon overpowered; but in the bravery of his soul he dies without a wish to retreat.

In the forests of Malabar and Bengal the tyger roams. Of this animal there are various kinds; the largest and fiercest is called the royal tyger. Of all the savages of the forest he is the most active, the most insidious, and the most cruel.

The forests of India are inhabited also by the gentle and inoffensive elephant. This animal commonly marches in social bands. The traveller hears them at a distance, as they traverse the forest; marking their rout by the crush and desolation of thickets and intervening woods. He listens without dismay, and even waits to be a spectator of the unwieldy procession as it moves along.

The monkey inhabits the woods both of Africa and India; and, what is singular, where he chooses to take possession he may be called the lord of the forest. The lion himself gives way—not being able to bear, as travellers report, the incessant tricking of that mischievous brute, whose agility prevents correction. But the human figure is of all others the object of his highest derision. If such a phenomenon appear in his domains, the whole society are called together by a whoop; from curiosity they proceed to insolence, chattering, grinning, and throwing down fruit, cones, withered sticks, or any thing their situation furnishes. Fire-arms can scarce repress them. In some forests where the ape, the baboon, and other large species of this disgusting tribe inhabit, the traveller must be well guarded to pass in security.

In South-America, in the wide forests of Brazil and Paraguay, along the banks of the Amazon, the cougar, a species of tyger, is the most formidable animal. Possessed of Amphibious nature, he plunges into the river, and carries

carries his devastations beyond that mighty stream. Buffon relates, that he has been known to cross the sea in large companies, between the continent and the island of Cayenne; and, in the infancy of that colony, to have kept it in constant alarms.

In North-America the moose-deer seems intitled to the appellation of lord of the forest; an animal represented by many travellers as high as an elephant, and of a nature as gentle.—With stately tread he traverses the vast woods of fir; and crops the cones and pine-tops beyond the reach of any other animal. When the forest is covered with snow, and crusted over with frost, the wild American marks him for certain destruction. His feet sink deep in the faithless surface, and his flight is impeded; while his pursuers, mounted on snow-shoes, attack and retreat at pleasure, assailing him with shot or arrows on every side, and when he falls, half a township is employed to drag him to their habitations; where the noble carcase is received in triumph, and at once suspends the effects of famine. If food be plentiful he is hunted for his skin. But though his nature is gentle, like many other animals, he will turn upon his pursuer, if he be wounded. He fights with his fore-feet. We have a story well authenticated of a hunter, on whom a wounded moose-deer turned, he was found in the woods pounded into a jelly: his very bones were broken in pieces; and the deer, having exhausted his fury, was found lying dead beside him.

The woods of Germany nourish the wild boar, a beast by no means among the most ignoble of the forest. His form, the shape of his head, his short erect ears, his tusks, his thick muscular shoulders, adorned with bristles, and the lightness of his hind quarters, so contrary to the domestic hog, which is a round lump, are all highly picturesque. Such also are his colour, a glisty brown; and his coat, covered

in many parts, as well as his shoulders; with long sweeping bristles. Nor are his gait, attitude, and motion, at all inferior to his form. This beast, during the three first years of his life, herds with the litter, among which he was produced. He then is called by foresters a *beast of company*. In his fourth year he assumes the title of a *wild boar*—ranges the forest alone—becomes royal game—and at this day furnishes the chief amusement of half the princes of the empire.

From the forests of the Pyrennees, when winter rages, the famished wolves rush down in troops. All the country is in arms, and the utmost vigilance of men and dogs can scarce repress such a torrent of invasion.

In the gloomy forests of Lapland, where the pine is covered with black moss, the hardy rein-deer browses.—If he descend into the plain, his food differs only in hue. With those two kinds of moss, the black and the white, the whole face of Lapland is discoloured; and when the diminutive native of the country sees the wastes around him abound with this semi-vegetable, he blesses his stars, and calls it luxury. His rein-deer, supported by this cheerless pasturage, supplies him with every thing that nature wants. It gives him food—it gives him milk—it gives him cloathing—and carries him, wrapped in fur, and seated in his sledge, with amazing velocity from one desert to another.

Thus most of the forests of the earth became the possession of the brute creation. In the forests of Sumatra, we are told that wild beasts at this very day depopulate whole villages. In other savage countries, man and beast are still joint-tevants; yet, in general, even the barbarian is taught by example to leave the forest for a more convenient abode.

But though man had deserted the forest as a dwelling, and had left it to be inhabited by beasts, it soon appeared that he had no intention of giving

giving up his right of dominion over it. In a course of ages, as population increased, he began to find it in his way. In one part, it occupied grounds fit for his plough; in another, for the pasturage of his domestic cattle; and in some parts it afforded shelter for his enemies. He soon shewed the beasts, they were only tenants at will. He began again to lay about him with his axe. The forest groaned; and receded from its ancient bounds. It is amazing what ravages he made in his original habitation, through every quarter of the globe. The fable was realized; man begged of the forest a handle to his hatchet, and when he had obtained the boon, he used it in felling the whole.

Britain, like other countries, abounded once in wood. When Cassibulan, Caractacus, and Boadicia, defended their country's rights, the country itself was a fortress. An extensive plain was then as uncommon as a forest is now. Fitz-Stephen, a monk of Canterbury, in the time of Henry II. tells us, that a large forest lay round London, "in which were woody groves, in the covers whereof lurked bucks and does, wild boars,

and bulls." To shelter beasts of the latter kind we know a forest must be of some magnificence. These woods, contiguous even to the capital, continued close and thick many ages afterwards. Even so late as Henry VII's time we are informed by Polidore Virgil, that, "*Tertia propemodum Anglia pars pecori, aut cervis, damis, capreolis (nam et ii quoque in ea parte sunt, quæ ad septentrionem est) incultisæ nutriendis relicta est inculta: quippe passim sunt ejusmodi ferarum vicaria, seu roboraria, quæ lig. is roboris sunt clausa: unde multa venatio, qua se nobiles cum primis exercent.*"

In this passage the forest seems to be distinguished from the park, which latter was fenced in those days with oak pales, as it is now.

As Britain became more cultivated, its woods of course receded. They gave way, as in other places, to the plough, to pasturage, to ship-building, to architecture, and all other objects of human industry, in which timber is the principal material; obtaining for that reason, among the Romans, the pointed appellation of *materies*.

Letter from Dr Johnson to Mr James Elphinston, on the death of his Mother.

DEAR SIR,

YOU have, as I find by every kind of evidence, lost an excellent mother, and I hope you will not think me incapable of partaking of your grief. I have a mother, now eighty-two years of age, whom therefore I must soon lose, unless it please God, that she rather should mourn for me. I read the letters, in which you relate your mother's death to Mrs Strachan; and I think I do myself honour, when I tell you that I read them with tears. But tears are neither to me nor to you of any farther use, when once the tribute of na-

ture has been paid. The business of life summons us away from useless grief; and calls to the exercise of those virtues, of which we are lamenting our deprivation. The great benefit which one friend can confer upon another, is to guard, and incite, and elevate his virtues. This your mother will still perform, if you diligently preserve the memory of her life, and of her death: a life, so far as I can learn, useful and wise, and innocent; and a death resigned, peaceful and holy. I cannot forbear to mention that neither reason nor revelation denies you to hope, that you may endorse her

Letter from Lord Bolingbroke to M. Pouilly de Champeaux.

by obeying her precepts; she may, in her present state, h pleasure upon every act of o which her instructions or have contributed. Whether more than a pleasing dream, or opinion of separate spirits, is of no great importance to us; we consider ourselves as settled the eye of God. Yet there is something pleasing in itself, that our separation from him we love, is merely cor- and it may be a great incentive virtuous friendship, if it can e probable, that a union, which ceived the divine approbation; continue to eternity. re is one expedient, by which y in some degree continue her

preface. If you write down minutely what you can remember of her from your earliest years, you will read it with great pleasure, and receive from it many hints of soothing recollection, when time shall remove her yet farther from you, and your grief shall be matured to veneration. To this, however painful for the present, I cannot but advise you, as to a source of comfort and satisfaction in the time to come: for all comfort, and all satisfaction, is sincerely wished you by.

Dear Sir;

Your most obliged

most obedient

and most humble servant

SAM. JOHNSON.

Sept. 25; 1750.

Top of a Letter from Lord Bolingbroke to Mons. Pouilly de Champeaux, with a Commentary, and Remarks.

FIN, mon cher Pouilly, dans cette foule d'hommes que j'ai noître, et dont j'ai cherché à l'esprit et le caractère, je n'en que trois qui m'aient paru qu'on leur confiât le soin de ner des nations. Notre amitié étroite, elle est, ainsi que le *Montaigne*, trop libre et trop dans ses allures, pour que je loppe avec vous de cette faulx ie, dont il faut quelquesbis se bouclier contre l'envie. Je vous sone hardiment que ces trois es sont Vous, Moi, et POPE.
RELATION. "My dear Friend, ng the crowd of men whom it have fallen in my way to w, and whose understandings characters I have endeavoured udy, I have not yet marked above THREE that appeared to worthy of being trusted with care of governing nations. friendship is too intimate, and,

" as *Montaigne* would perhaps choose
" to express himself, too frank and free
" in its pacés for me to need, with
" you, the wrapping myself up in that
" false modesty, of which there is
" sometimes a necessity for making a
" shield against envy. I shall then
" tell you boldly, that these three men
" are YOU, MYSELF, and POPE."

To begin here with Bolingbroke; it is, with truth, nothing but just to add to what has been elsewhere said of him, that, in this opinion of himself, he stands no exception to the generality of mankind, ever practically strangers to the divinely moral injunction of SELF KNOWLEDGE. It is not that he is reprehensible here for that frankness of spirit with which, believing himself fully qualified for the arduous talk of government, he confidentially to his friend asserts that claim, in disdain of the grimace of mock modesty, than which their impudence himself is a thousand times less
lowly

Coastfome. But the point here is, that he was mistaken in the man; in himself, Bolingbroke was only political in his understanding, but not at all so in his character. With a strength of head capable of the highest reason, he was constitutionally reduced below even the common standard of mankind by some of its lowest passions. While an astonishing comprehensiveness of mind enabled him to embrace, in speculation, a whole universe, the egotism of his character contracted that immense sphere to a point, to an atom, to himself. Thence it was that he was ever capitally deficient in that indispensable qualification for Government, especially in this country, *the social cement*: a vanity extremely worthy of such great talents, with which it is, generally speaking, justly enough held incompatible, sure as it eternally is to defeat their effect; his vanity, I say, lost him the support of others, who, with less pretensions to merit, were equally, though *therefore* the less shamefully, vain. These could not forgive him that superiority of his, of which his impolitic display offended their self-love too much to let them do justice to his merit, whenever his interest or his ambition came in competition with theirs. Then it was that they took their advantage of all his faults against all his merits, which many, however, when there was nothing to be lost by confessing an admiration of them, would not scruple to admire, for the sake of the air or of the fashion of admiring them. The truth then was, that the excellence of his head was ever detrimental to himself, for his not having in his heart any thing of that indispensable social virtue, a due deference and respect for the judgment of others. This was totally excluded by the paramount opinion he had of his own sufficiency, which gave him an impatience of contradiction that made him the Taquin of society. The weakness then of such vanity alone

was abundantly unfavourable to his pretensions to govern a nation; but the greater weakness yet of letting it be felt, much augmented the disqualification. There was more yet against him. His egotism tainted his politics, and, even in them, mechanically subordinated to personality his better knowledge and understanding. Knowing perfectly the French Government, he cordially despised its despotism, and its mode of administration; and yet the circumstance of his residence in France had so Frenchified his politics, that, probably without himself being sensible of the warp, it had given him a sort of predilection for the Court of Versailles, which made him see the faults to us of Austria in too alienating a light. But had his place of refuge been in Vienna in lieu of Paris, and he had married a German lady, instead of a French one, there is all the reason to think that, from mere egotism, his local and personal ideas of politics would have taken the Antigallican impression as strongly, and with infinitely more good policy, than they did the Anti-Austrian. It was this political heresy that, at least, appears to have been caught from him by one of his pupils, the pensioned orator, who, without knowledge or examination, servilely took that doctrine upon trust from him, and, with infinitely inferior talents and abilities, aped him in his presumption of superiority enough "to govern nations;" his success in which most impudent claim would have been a fine joke to Bolingbroke, if he had lived to see it.

It has been elsewhere noted, how he came to be introduced to the late Prince of Wales, from whom he received great favours, which he repaid, by apparently infecting his Court with a partiality for France, which, it is much to be feared, is at this moment operating, and than which there can hardly be conceived a weakness more pregnant with danger and detriment to

to our national system. Both Great Britain and Hanover have already had abundantly reason to execrate the sacrifice of the House of Austria, and its consequent alienation from their common interest in a stedfast opposition to the House of Bourbon, who have been wise enough to avail themselves of that egregious folly; a folly of which there is great reason to conjecture that Britain and Hanover have not yet done with feeling the pernicious consequences. Unhappily this is one of those useful truths which, for their being so, are but the more likely to be cast away on the inveteracy of an early prejudice, or the false honour of obstinacy in error, and on the want of vigour of mind to expel a poison it has once received.—Meanwhile, is there not some reason to suspect that an undue complaisance to the French Court must have been at the bottom of that scandalous *Quebec Act*? The suffering such a religion in the British dominions, on the principles of justice and humanity, might be very right, especially as bare sufferance implies reprobation; but surely for a British Parliament to enact the support of it was going rather too far. To tolerate is only a connivance, but to establish is an approbation.

There is not, however, here meant a minute discussion of all the reasons which grew out of facts, for not acceding to Bolingbroke's opinion of his own capacity, in a political light, for "governing Nations." That would carry me too far. Lord Chesterfield, who *admired* him, could not, on observing the great disparity between his understanding and character, help crying out pathetically, "*Ah! la pauvre Humanité!*" "alas! for poor humankind!" (an exclamation, the justice of which, by the way, was not a little exemplified in Chesterfield himself.) Yet, not to be unjust, let Bolingbroke have, at least, the benefit of contrast. With all his faults, which were neither little nor

few, he was still a God, compared to such idiots as we have since seen in place, favour, and power.

As to Mr Pope, the attribution to him of political talents, either in actuality or possibility, is entirely in Bolingbroke's character, of which Self was constantly, even to a degree of blindness, the centre. It was literally *himself* that he was extolling in that great poet, who, in politics and philosophy looked up to him as to his "Matter and Guide." Upon those two objects, in matter of opinion, Pope, in verse, was the duplicate of Bolingbroke in prose. Dazzled by the brilliancy of his parts, and captivated by his admiration of them, Pope sacrificed to him any sense he might have of his own, with such unreserved submission, as to tame even the natural ferocity of Bolingbroke's genius; insomuch that, with a heart totally incapable of friendship, he gave himself the air of it with a man weak enough to be so thoroughly subdued by him. Then it was, that finding him, on politics and government, the faithful echo of his own sentiments, he vended him to *Champeaux* as a *politician*, on much the same principle of vanity that he had palmed upon himself and others a silly mistress of his for a *wit*, in consequence of the knack she had got of repeating, like a parrot, some excellent things she had heard *him* say, and which he chose to forget he had said. No sooner however was Pope in his grave, than the very man who had considered him as equal to the "Government of Nations," picked a quarrel with his memory, and treated him as little less than a felon for a transaction in which malice itself could impute to Pope no guilt but that of an excess of admiration for a very trivial common-place production of Bolingbroke's, and which, though even submitted to his correction, would scarce have done honour to a young collegate.

Thrice happy Bard! *Happy* in having

ing; by a predemise to Bolingbroke, escaped the pain it must have given him to discover the perfidy and inhumanity of a man whom, he had so much admired, esteemed, and considered as his friend!—*Happy*, in not living to see the sad accomplishment of his own prediction of a general Dunce to a public that appeared to him even then at its last yawns; as he could even then, in the manifestly growing and perfectly natural union between sordid avarice and rank stupidity, easily foresee that depravity of taste so likely to replunge the land into those depths of barbarism and darkness, but of which it had emerged through the immortal geniuses of a Shakespeare, Milton, and other luminaries of other times than these; times in which true wit, sublime nature, seem to be leaving the field to that eternal refuse of taste, frigid conceits, strained allusions, childish gingles of sounds, and even to puns, that lowest of all, the vile attempts of dullness at wit and humour.—Once more *Happy* Bard! in this, that friendly death saved him from the vexation and ignominy of a subjection to a scarce interrupted series of such men in power as it was hardly

possible not to despise; saved him from the horror of seeing the triumphs of imposture, whether in the success of *Mock-Patriots*, or of FALSE FRIENDS! falsities these of incomparably the worst consequences, since whole nations are affected by them. A play on words may be only a sin against wit; but the sporting of sentiments is treason to mankind.

Here I ought not to conclude without some elucidation of the character of Monsieur Pouilly de Champeaux, the third Member of Lord Bolingbroke's imperial triumvirate. But as that discussion would come more authentically from his countrymen who best knew him, I shall but just mention that he was a writer much esteemed for the elegance and spirit of humanity that breathe throughout his literary productions; the generally most esteemed of which is his *Theory of Agreeable Sensations*. As to his political powers, I cannot say I ever heard of their being so celebrated as to authorise this more than compliment to him on Lord Bolingbroke's part. This then I am forced to leave under the uncertainty to which my not knowing more of him naturally condemns me.

Address to the People of England, by the Dissenters in the West Riding of Yorkshire.

WE, the Committee of the Protestant Dissenting Laymen and Ministers of the three denominations in the West Riding of the county of York, now assembled at our stated Quarterly Meeting, cannot, in justice to our ourselves and to the general cause of Religious Liberty, pass over in silence the atrocious acts which have been lately committed in the town and neighbourhood of Birmingham. On the illegality of the violence which hath been offered to the

property of our brethren in that part of the kingdom by a deluded populace the civil Judge has already decided in the regular exercise of his office; and we sincerely compassionate the unhappy wretches, who, as a salutary example to others, have been sentenced to expiate their crimes with their lives. But we deem it still necessary, on our part, to obviate the invidious misrepresentations of our principles and conduct which have produced this fanatical spirit, and which appear to us

to have a higher origin, as they are still industriously circulated, for the most part by anonymous writers, in some of the public prints.

The specious cry of *Church and King* hath been artfully assumed by our enemies, with an evident design to make the ignorant believe that we are enemies to both, and that neither can be safe while we are suffered to exist.

That we are not members of the Church of England we have always openly avowed, by the clearest and most decisive of all declarations, an uniform course of conduct. We cannot submit to her authority in matters of faith. We cannot appropriate to ourselves, in a solemn act of religious worship, a Form of Prayer which we should not be permitted to adapt to our own views, by the alteration or omission of a single sentence. We cannot discover in the discourses of Christ, or the writings of his Apostles, any foundation for that distinction of ranks in the Christian Ministry which is prescribed in the episcopal form of church government. We cannot accede to rules of faith or modes of worship, in which the civil Magistrate claims a right of interference. In our religious sentiments, and in such of our actions as are *purely religious*, we call no man *Master* upon earth; we rest entirely on the sufficiency of the scriptures, and the right of private judgment. This is a right which the *Reformers of the English Church* themselves exercised, when they separated from the Church of Rome; and it is the only right which we assume as the ground of *our dissent*. In the exercise of it we are led to a great diversity of sentiment: and we certainly disagree with each other in religious opinions more than some of us differ from the doctrinal parts of the established Creed. But in this we acquiesce, as the unavoidable effect of personal enquiry in the present state of the human understanding. It is li-

berly which we equally give and take: for we dare not judge another's servant, knowing that to his own master he must stand or fall; we should think it impious to intrude between the conscience of a brother, and that venerable Being who alone knoweth his heart.

With these sentiments it is impossible that we should have an unfriendly disposition to the members of the establishment. We cannot deny them that right to a personal choice which we exert ourselves: We may esteem it our duty to address them by argument, and to urge upon them the reasons of our own belief and practice; but we cannot, without a total dereliction of our principles, and a shameless opposition to all our professions, have recourse to violence, or employ any illiberal artifice in support of our cause. While they retain their present opinions, we must be earnestly solicitous that they may preserve the undisturbed enjoyment of their articles, their liturgy, and their episcopal government. We have, indeed, no private interest which can stimulate us to acts of unchristian hostility. We have no desire that our own opinions, or mode of worship should be supported by the civil Magistrate, or by the act of a legal impost. We are willing to trust their preservation and increase to the force of truth, and the conviction of mankind. And whatever may be our views concerning the absolute authority, or general expedience of a religious establishment, we rejoice in the benefits which are actually produced by the diligent instruction and exemplary conduct of its Ministers. We esteem a clergyman who resides in his parish, and is at once the friend, the guide, and the pattern of his flock, to be one of the most respectable, because he ranks with the most useful of human characters. We are so far from wishing ill to any of the Clergy of the English establishment, that we should feel lively pleasure in the removal

removal of every circumstance which appears to us at present to impede their comfort and usefulness. We will not hesitate to declare, that, in our apprehension, their situations would be liable to much fewer objections, if they were left to the free study of the Sacred Writings, unfettered by subscriptions to human explanations: if pluralities were absolutely prohibited; if the poorer livings were increased, by a distribution of the ample revenues which are now attached to sinecure dignities; and if their stipends were not raised in a mode which has a manifest tendency to perpetuate jealousies between them and the occupiers of land. In suggesting these imperfections in the present administration of the church, without any view of entering ourselves into its communion, we do not conceive that we are acting the part of its enemies; for whatever increases its usefulness, must surely add to its strength and stability: but if we should happen to be mistaken in the probable effect of all or any of these changes, our error cannot produce any just occasion for alarm. Not being included within its pale, we have no pretence for taking an active part in its concerns: all that we can with propriety do, is to offer our impartial opinion, and to express our benevolent wishes: If the Church of England be ever found to want reformation, that reformation must originate in the wisdom, and be completed by the virtue of its own adherents.

Such are the reasons of our dissent, and such are our sentiments concerning the ecclesiastical establishment of this country. And we are confident, that there is nothing in them which can render us enemies to the State. We have as dear an interest in the public peace and prosperity, as the proudest and most elevated of our countrymen. The aggregate of the property which is possessed by individual Dissenters, is far from incon-

siderable. It is, moreover, for the most part of that kind which would be the soonest affected by civil contentions: It is chiefly vested in commercial stock, or the machinery of manufactories; and much of it may be dissipated in an hour, by the fury of bigotted, or the rapacity of unprincipled insurgents. The state, therefore, has a valuable pledge for our good behaviour, and might rest secure from any apprehension that we are inclined to disturb its tranquillity, even if our past conduct had not furnished so strong a presumption of our pacific disposition. But the experience of a century has witnessed our quiet submission to the laws, and our active regard to the welfare of our country. We have been engaged in no rebellion. We have favoured no insurrections.

We are not averse to acknowledge, that, in conjunction with many eminent characters who have no connection with us, in our religious capacity, we sincerely congratulate the inhabitants of a neighbouring country, on their late deliverance from the power of a despotic government, and their present flattering prospect of being blessed with the possession of legal liberty. We have not the arrogance to believe that we are competent judges of all the measures that have been employed for the attainment of that invaluable good; we are well aware that many imperfections have always attended the best devised schemes of human policy. But whatever may be the errors, the defects, or the inexpediency of some of these plans, we think it sufficiently evident, that more than twenty millions of people, who have long been political slaves, are now become freemen. In this auspicious change we anticipate a glorious addition to the general happiness of mankind. We exult in the reflection that we live in an age, which has produced a body of Legislators, who, by directly disclaiming all offensive wars, have
presented

presented a new example to an admiring world.

But while we declare our satisfaction in the Revolution which has lately taken place in the government of France, we protest against the conclusion which has been no less uncharitably than illogically drawn, that we are therefore desirous of a revolution in our own country. If a revolution had been desirable at home, we durst not thus have expressed our joy: the horrid dungeons of an English Bastille would have terrified us into silence. But we have always boasted, that by the elevation of the Prince of Orange to the throne, and by the act which fixed the succession on the House of Hanover, our general liberties have been fully recognized and confirmed. We have no wish to get the act of Settlement repealed, or to alter the present form of government. We are attached to the British Constitution, as it consists of King, Lords, and Commons. We give our hearty suffrage to the assignment of the executive department, and of a voice in the legislation, to the person of the King. We have a decided preference for an hereditary monarchy, subject only to such restrictions as directly flow from the precedent of Sixteen Hundred and Eighty-Eight, which we devoutly pray that neither we nor our descendants may ever have occasion to bring into exercise. We respect a body of Nobles, which, in a political view, have little or no resemblance to that which lately existed in France. We regard with a zealous veneration, the weight which is given to the people at large in the management of national affairs, by the voice of the House of Commons.

We will not, indeed, pretend to conceal, that we are not perfectly satisfied with the present state of the popular representation. But this is by no means peculiar to us as Protestant Dissenters. In this we only follow, at a humble distance, some of the most illustrious names that have

distinguished our country. Here we feel that we are Englishmen, independent of every religious description. Here, therefore, we cannot act as a separate body. Here we shall always be happy to co-operate with the wise and good, but we shall never connect ourselves with the seditious and intemperate. It is our deliberate judgment, that the evils we lament will admit of a happy redress, and may be constitutionally remedied without the violation of personal right, and with equal advantage to the monarch and the people.

As an earnest of the peaceable measures which on this and all other occasions we are determined to pursue, we flatter ourselves that we may safely appeal to our general conduct in our late application to Parliament, for the repeal of the Corporation and Test Acts. A few indiscreet expressions in the Resolutions of a single society in a neighbouring county, have, indeed, been pointed out, and condemned with a willing asperity; but the public may be assured that they were entirely disapproved by the general body of Dissenters. Conscious that we have no political demerits, which can render us unworthy of being admitted to the full privileges of citizens, we spoke in the manly tone of conviction, but in none of our larger associations did we ever depart from a becoming deference to the legislative power. We depended on the justice of our country. And though we have been thrice disappointed of our reasonable expectations, we have not given vent to our impatience in deeds of turbulence and rapine. We have been guilty of no violence: we have threatened no mischief to the persons or property of our most violent opposers. And we trust, we shall never deviate from our accustomed good order. We shall, from time to time, as may seem to ourselves expedient, renew our application to Parliament, and respectfully repeat the grounds of our complaint; but we will not suffer the
most

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most mortifying neglect, or contumelious treatment, to provoke us to a breach of the peace. We will wait, with steady temper, for a change in the public mind; and in the general course of our lives will apply, with patriotic diligence, to the duties of our respective professions. It shall be our constant ambition to fill our several stations with credit to ourselves,

and with usefulness to the community; and if we cannot obtain the cordial esteem of every class of our fellow subjects, we will do all that the Author of Nature hath put in our power, we will endeavour to deserve it.

Signed by Order, in the Name
of the Committee,
WATSON SCATCHERD, Chairman.

Directions for Inexperienced Horsemen.

IN the first place, every horse should be accustomed to stand still when he is mounted. One would imagine this might be readily granted; yet we see how much the contrary is practised. When a gentleman mounts at a livery-stable, the groom takes the horse by the bit, which he bends right round his under jaw: the horse striving to go on, is forced back; advancing again, he frets, as he is again stopped short, and hurt by the manner of holding him. The rider, in the mean time, mounting without the bridle, or at least holding it but slightly, is helped to it by the groom, who being thoroughly employed by the horse's fluttering, has at the same time both bridle and stirrup to give. This confusion would be prevented, if every horse was taught to stand still when he is mounted. Forbid your groom, therefore, when he rides your horse to water, to throw himself over him from a horse-block, and kick him with his leg, even before he is fairly upon him. This wrong manner of mounting is what chiefly teaches your horse the vicious habit against which we are here warning. On the other hand, a constant practice of mounting in the proper manner, is all that is necessary to prevent a horse's going on till the rider is quite adjusted in the saddle.

The next thing necessary therefore

is, that the rider should mount properly. The common method is to stand near the crop or hinder part of the horse, with the bridle held very long in the right hand. By this manner of holding the bridle before you mount, you are liable to be kicked; and when you are mounted, your horse may go on some time, or play what gambols he pleases, before the rein is short enough in your hand to prevent him. It is common likewise for an awkward rider, as soon as his foot is in the stirrup, to throw himself with all his force to gain his seat; which he cannot do, till he hath first overbalanced himself on one side or the other: he will then wriggle into it by degrees. The way to mount with ease and safety is, to stand rather before than behind the stirrup. In this posture take the bridle short, and the mane together in your left hand, helping yourself to the stirrup with your right, so that your toe may not touch the horse in mounting. When your left foot is in the stirrup, move on your right, till you see the side of the horse, looking across over the saddle. Then with your right hand grasp the hinder part of the saddle; and with that and your left, which holds the mane and bridle, lift yourself upright on your left foot. Remain thus a mere instant on your stirrup, only so as to divide the action
into

into two motions. While you are in this posture, you have a sure hold with both hands, and are at liberty, either to get safely down, or to throw your leg over and gain your seat. By this deliberate motion, likewise, you avoid, what every good horseman would endeavour to avoid, putting your horse into a flutter.

When you dismount, hold the bridle and mane together in your left hand, as when you mounted; put your right hand on the pommel of the saddle, to raise yourself; throw your leg back over the horse, grasp the hinder part of the saddle with your right hand, remain a moment on your stirrup, and in every respect dismount as you mounted; only what was your first motion when you mounted becomes the last in dismounting. Remember not to bend your right knee in dismounting, lest your spur should rub against the horse.

It may be next recommended to hold your bridle at a convenient length. Sit square, and let not the purchase of the bridle pull forward your shoulder; but keep your body even, as it would be if each hand held a rein. Hold your reins with the whole grasp of your hand, dividing them with your little finger. Let your hand be perpendicular; your thumb will then be uppermost, and placed on the bridle. Bend your wrist a little outward; and when you pull the bridle, raise your hand toward your breast, and the lower part of the palm rather more than the upper. Let the bridle be at such a length in your hand, as, if the horse should stumble, you may be able to raise his head, and support it by the strength of your arms, and the weight of your body thrown backward. If you hold the rein too long, you are subject to fall backward as your horse rises.

If, knowing your horse perfectly well, you think a tight rein unnecessary, advance your arm a little (but

not your shoulder) toward the horse's head, and keep your usual length of rein. By this means, you have a check upon your horse, while you indulge him.

If you ride with a curb, make it a rule to hook on the chain yourself; the most quiet horse may bring his rider into danger, should the curb hurt him. If, in fixing the curb, you turn the chain to the right, the links will unfold themselves, and then oppose a farther turning. Put on the chain loose enough to hang down on the horse's under lip, so that it may not rise and press his jaw, till the reins of the bridle are moderately pulled.

If your horse has been used to stand still when he is mounted, there will be no occasion for a groom to hold him: but if he does, suffer him not to touch the reins, but that part of the bridle which comes down the cheek of the horse. He cannot then interfere with the management of the reins, which belongs to the rider only; and holding a horse by the curb (which is ever painful to him) is evidently improper when he is to stand still.

Another thing to be remembered is, not to ride with your arms and elbows as high as your shoulders; nor let them shake up and down with the motion of the horse. The posture is unbecoming, and the weight of the arms (and of the body too if the rider does not sit still) acts in continual jerks on the jaw of the horse, which must give him pain, and make him unquiet, if he has a tender mouth or any spirit.

Bad riders wonder why horses are gentle as soon as they are mounted by skilful ones, though their skill seems unemployed: the reason is, the horse goes at his ease yet finds all his motions watched; which he has sagacity enough to discover. Such a rider hides his whip, if he finds his horse

is afraid of it; and keeps his legs from his sides, if he finds he dreads the spur.

Avoid the ungraceful custom of letting your legs shake against the sides of the horse: and as you are not to keep your arms and elbows high, and in motion, so you are not to rivet them by your sides, but let them fall easy. One may, at a distance, distinguish a genteel horseman from an awkward one: the first sits still, and appears of a piece with his horse; the latter seems flying off at all points.

It is often said with emphasis, that such a one has no *seat* on horseback; and it means, not only that he does not ride well, but that he does not sit on the right part of the horse. To have a *good seat*, is to sit on that part of the horse which, as he springs, is the center of motion; and from which, of course, any weight would be with most difficulty shaken. As in the rising and falling of a board placed in *equilibrium* the centre will be always most at rest, the true seat will be found in that part of your saddle, into which your body would naturally slide if you rode without stirrups, and is only to be preserved by a proper poise of the body, though the generality of riders imagine it is to be done by the grasp of the thighs and knees. The rider should consider himself as united to his horse in this point; and when shaken from it, endeavour to restore the balance.

Perhaps the mention of the two extremes of a bad seat may help to describe the true one. The one is, when the rider sits very far back on the saddle, so that his weight presses the loins of the horse; the other, when his body hangs forward over the pommel of the saddle. The first may be seen practised by grooms, when they ride with their stirrups affectedly short; the latter, by fearful horsemen on the least flutter of the horse. Every good rider has, even on the hunting saddle, as determined a place for his thighs, as can be de-

termined for him by the bars of a demi-peak. Indeed there is no difference between the seat of either; only, as in the first you ride with shorter stirrups, your body will be consequently more behind your knees.

To have a good seat yourself, your saddle must sit well. To fix a precise rule might be difficult: it may be a direction, to have your saddle press as nearly as possible on that part which we have described as the point of union between the man and horse; however, so as not to obstruct the motion of the horse's shoulders. Place yourself in the middle or lowest part of it: sit erect; but with as little constraint as in your ordinary sitting. The ease of action marks the gentleman: you may repose yourself, but not lounge. The set and studied erectness acquired in the riding-house, by those whose deportment is not easy, appears ungenteel and unnatural.

If your horse stops short, or endeavours by rising and kicking to unseat you, bend not your body forward, as many do in those circumstances: that motion throws the breech backward, and you off your fork or twist, and out of your seat; whereas, the advancing the lower part of your body, and bending back the upper part and shoulders, is the method both to keep your seat, and to recover it when lost. The bending your body back, and that in a great degree, is the greatest security in *flying leaps*; it is a security too, when your horse leaps *standing*. The horse's rising does not try the rider's seat; the lash of his hind legs is what ought chiefly to be guarded against, and is best done by the body's being greatly inclined back. Stiffen not your legs or thighs; and let your body be pliable in the loins, like the coachman's on his box. This loose manner of sitting will elude every rough motion of the horse; whereas the fixure of the knees, so commonly laid a stress on, will in great shocks conduce to the violence of the fall.

Was the cricket-player, when the ball is struck with the greatest velocity, so hold his hand firm and fixed when he receives it, the hand would be bruised, or perhaps the bones fractured by the resistance. To obviate this accident he therefore gradually yields his hands to the motion of the ball for a certain distance; and thus by a due mixture of opposition and obedience, catches it without sustaining the least injury. The case is exactly the same in riding: the skilful horseman will recover his poise by giving some way to the motion; and the ignorant horseman will be flung out of his seat by endeavouring to be fixed.

Stretch not out your legs before you; this will push you against the back of the saddle: neither gather up your knees, like a man riding on a pack; this throws your thighs upwards; each practice unseats you. Keep your legs straight down; and sit not on the most fleshy part of the thighs, but turn them inward, so as to bring in your knees and toes: and it is more safe to ride with the ball of the foot pressing on the stirrup, than with the stirrup as far back as the heel; for the pressure of the heel being in that case behind the stirrup, keeps the thighs down.

When you find your thighs thrown upward, widen your knees to get them and the upper part of your task lower down on the horse. Grasp the saddle with the hollow or inner part of your thighs, but not more than just to assist the balance of your body: this will also enable you to keep your spurs from the horse's sides, and to bring your toes in, without that affected and useless manner of bringing them in practised by many. Sink your heels straight down; for while your heels and thighs keep down, you cannot fall: this (aided with the bend of the back) gives the security of a seat, to those who bear themselves up in their stirrups in a swift gallop, or in the

alternate rising and falling in a full trot.

Let your seat determine the length of your stirrups, rather than the stirrups your seat. If more precision is requisite, let your stirrups (in the hunting saddle) be of such a length, as that, when you stand in them, there may be the breadth of four fingers between your seat and the saddle.

It would greatly assist a learner, if he would practise riding in a large circle, without stirrups: keeping his face looking on the outward part of the circle so as not to have a full view of the horse's head, but just of that ear which is on the outward part of the circle; and his shoulder, which is toward the center of the circle, very forward. By this means you learn to balance your body, and keep a true seat, independent of your stirrups: you may probably likewise escape a fall, should you at any time lose them by being accidentally shaken from your seat.

As the seat in some measure depends on the saddle, it may not be amiss to observe, that because a saddle with a high pommel is thought dangerous, the other extreme prevails, and the pommel is scarce allowed to be higher than the middle of the saddle. The saddle should lie as near the back-bone as can be, without hurting the horse; for the nearer you sit to his back, the better seat you have. If it does so, it is plain the pommel must rise enough to secure the withers from pressure: therefore, a horse whose withers are higher than common, requires a higher pommel. If, to avoid this, you make the saddle of a more straight line, the inconvenience spoken of follows; you sit too much above the horse's back, nor can the saddle form a proper seat. There should be no ridge from the button at the side of the pommel, to the back part of the saddle. That line also should be a little concave, for your thighs

thighs to lie at ease. In short, a saddle ought to be, as nearly as possible, as if cut out of the horse.

When you want your horse to move forward, raise his head a little, and touch him gently with your whip; or else, press the calves of your legs against his sides. If he does not move fast enough, press them with more force, and so till the spur just touches him. By this practice he will (if he has any spirit) move upon the least pressure of the leg. Never spur him by a kick; but if it be necessary to spur him briskly, keep your heels close to his sides, and slacken their force as he becomes obedient.

When your horse attempts to be vicious, take each rein separate, one in each hand, and advancing your arms forward, hold him very short. In this case, it is common for the rider to pull him hard, with his arms low.— But the horse by this means having his head low too, has it more in his power to throw out his heels: whereas, if his head be raised very high, and his nose thrown out a little, which is consequent, he can neither rise before nor behind; because he can give himself neither of those motions, without having his head at liberty. A plank placed in equilibrio cannot rise at one end unless it sinks at the other.

If your horse is headstrong, pull not with one continued pull, but stop, and back him often, just shaking the reins, and making little repeated pulls till he obeys. Horses are so accustomed to beat on the bit when they go forward, that they are discouraged if the rider will not let them do so.

If a horse is loose necked, he will shrow up his head at a continued pull; in which situation the rider, seeing the front of his face, can have no power over him. When your horse does thus, drop your hand, and give the bridle play, and he will of course drop his head again into its proper place: while it is coming down, make a second gentle pull, and you will find his

mouth. With a little practice, this is done almost instantaneously; and this method will stop, in the distance of a few yards, a horse, which will run away with those who pull at him with all their might. Almost every one must have observed; that when a horse feels himself pulled with the bridle, even when he is going gently, he often mistakes what was designed to stop him, as a direction to bear on the bit and to go faster.

Keep your horse's head high, that he may raise his neck and crest; play a little with the rein, and move the bit in his mouth, that he may not press on it in one constant and continued manner: be not afraid of raising his head too high; he will naturally be too ready to bring it down, and tire your arms with its weight, on the least abatement of his mettle. When you feel him heavy, stop him, and make him go back a few paces: thus you break by degrees his propensity to press on his bridle.

You ought not to be pleased (tho' many are) with a round neck, and a head drawn in toward his breast: let your horse carry his head bridling in, provided he carries it high, and his neck arching upwards; but if his neck bends downward, his figure is bad, his sight is too near his toes, he leans on the bridle, and you have no command over him. If he goes pressing but lightly on the bridle, he is the more sure-footed, and goes pleasanter; as your wrist only may guide him. If he hangs down his head, and makes you support the weight of that and his neck with your arms bearing on his fore-legs, (which is called *being on his shoulders*) he will strike his toes on the ground, and stumble.

If your horse is heavy upon the bit, tie him every day, for an hour or two, with his tail to the manger, and his head as high as you can make him lift it, by a rein on each post of the stall, to each ring of the snaffle bit.

Horse-breakers and grooms have a great

great propensity to bring a horse's head down, and seem to have no feat without a strong hold by the bridle. They know, indeed, that the head should yield to the reins, and the neck form an arch; but, do not take the proper pains to make it an arch upward. A temporary effect of attempting to raise a horse's head, may perhaps be making him push out his nose. They will here tell you, that his head is too high already; whereas it is not the distance from his nose, but from the top of his head to the ground, which determines the head to be high or low. Besides, although the fault is said to be in the manner of carrying the head, it should rather be said to be in that of the neck; for if the neck was raised, the head would be more in the position of one set on a well-formed neck.

The design therefore of lifting up the head is to raise the neck, and thereby bring in the head; for even while the bridle makes the same line from the rider's hand to the bit, the horse's nose may be either drawn in, or thrust out, according as his neck is raised or depressed. Instead of what has been hitherto recommended, we usually see cobs broke with their heads cavesson'd very low, their necks stiff, and not in the least suppl'd. When the breaking tackle is left off, and they are mounted for the road, having more food and rest, they frequently plunge, and a second breaking becomes necessary. Then, as few gentlemen can manage their own horses, they are put into the hands of groom's, from whom they learn a variety of bad habits.

If, on the other hand, your horse carries his head (or rather his nose) too high, he generally makes some amends by moving his shoulders lightly, and going safely. Attend to the cause of this fault. Some horses have their necks set so low on their shoulders, that they bend first down, then upward, like a stag's. Some have the

upper line of their necks, from their ears to their withers, too short. A head of this sort cannot possibly bend inward and form an arch, because the vertebræ (or neck bones) are too short to admit of flexure; for in long and short-necked horses the number of the vertebræ is the same. In some, the jaw is so thick, that it meets the neck, and the head by this means has not room to bend. On the other hand, some have the under line from the jaw to the breast so short, that the neck cannot rise.

In all these cases you may gain a little by a nice hand with an easy bit; but no curb, martingale, or other forcible method, will teach a horse to carry his head or neck in a posture which nature has made uneasy to him. By trying to pull in his nose farther than he can bear, you will add a bad habit to nature. You could not indeed contrive a more effectual method to make him continually toss his nose up, and throw his foam over you.

The rule already given to ride a loose-necked horse, will be a proper one for all light-mouthed horses: one caution being added, which is, always to search whether his fiddle or girths may not in some way pinch him; and whether the bit may not hurt his lip by being too high in his mouth; because, whenever he frets from either of these causes, his head will not be steady.

It is a common custom to be always pulling at the bridle, as if to set off to advantage either the spirit of the horse, or the skill of the rider. Our horses therefore are taught to hold their heads low, and pull, so as to bear up the rider from the saddle, standing in his stirrups, even in the gentlest gallop: how very improper this is, we are experimentally convinced, when we happen to meet with a horse which gallops otherwise. We immediately say, *he canters excellently*, and find the ease and pleasure of his motion. When
horses

horses are designed for the race, and swiftness is the only thing considered, the method may be a good one.

It is not to be wondered that *dealers* are always pulling at their horses;— that they have the spur constantly in their sides, and are at the same time continually checking the rein: by this means they make them bound, and champ the bit, while their rage has the appearance of spirit. These people ride with their arms spread, and very low on the shoulders of their horses: this method makes them stretch their necks, and gives a better appearance to their fore-hands; it conceals also a thick jaw, which, if the head was up, would prevent its yielding to the bit; it hides likewise the ewe-neck, which would otherwise show itself. Indeed, if you have a horse unsteady to the bit, formed with a natural heavy head, or one which carries his nose obstinately in the air, you must find his mouth where you can, and make the best of him.

Many horses are taught to start by whipping them for starting. How is it possible they can know it is designed as a punishment? in the riding-house, you teach your horse to rise up before, and to spring and lash out his hinder legs, by whipping him when tied between two pillars, with his head a little at liberty. If he understood this to be a punishment for doing so, he would not by that method learn to do it. He seems to be in the same manner taught to spring and fly when he is frightened. Most horses would go quietly past an object they were beginning to fly from, if their riders, instead of gathering up their bridles, and showing themselves so ready, should throw the reins loose upon their necks.

When a horse starts at any thing on one side, most riders turn him out of the road, to make him go up to what he starts at: if he does not get the better of his fear, or readily comply, he generally goes past the object,

making with his hinder parts, or croup, a great circle out of the road; whereas, he should learn to keep straight on, without minding objects on either side.

If he starts at any thing on the left, hold his head high, and keep it straight in the road, pulling it from looking at the thing he starts at, and keeping your right leg hard pressed against his side, toward his flank: he will then go straight along the road. By this method, and by turning his head a little more, he may be forced with his croup close up to what frightened him; for as his head is pulled one way, his croup necessarily turns the other.— Always avoid a quarrel with your horse, if you can: if he is apt to start, you will find occasions enough to exercise his obedience, when what he starts at lies directly in his way, and you must make him pass; if he is not subject to start, you should not quarrel with him about a trifle.

It must be observed, however, that this rule in going past an object may perhaps be a little irregular in a managed horse, which will always obey the leg: but even such a horse, if he is really afraid, and not restive, it may not be amiss to make him look another way; unless the object be something you would particularly accustom him to the sight of.

The case will also be different with a horse whose fear is owing to his being not used to objects; but such a one is not to be rode by any horseman to whom these rules are directed: the starting here meant arises merely from the horse's being pampered, and springing through liveness.

The notion of the necessity of making a horse go immediately up to every thing he is afraid of, and not suffering him to become master of his rider, seems to be in general carried too far. It is an approved and good method to conquer a horse's fear of the sound of a drum, by beating one near to him at the time of feeding him: this not only

only familiarises the noise to him, but makes it pleasant, as a fore-runner of his meat; whereas, if he was whipped up to it, he might perhaps start at it as long as he lived. Might not this be applied to his starting at other things, and shew that it would be better to suffer him (provided he does not turn back) to go a little from and avoid an object he has a dislike to, and to accustom him to it by degrees, convincing him, as it were, that it will not hurt him; than to punish him, quarrel with him, and perhaps submit to his will at last, while you insist on his overcoming his fear in an instant? If he sees a like object again, it is probable he will recollect his dread, and arm himself to be disobedient.

We are apt to suppose that a horse fears nothing so much as his rider: but may he not, in many circumstances, be afraid of instant destruction? of being crushed? of being drowned? of falling down a precipice? Is it a wonder that a horse should be afraid of a loaded waggon? may not the hanging load seem to threaten the falling on him? There cannot be a rule more general, than, in such a case, to show him there is room for him to pass. This is done by turning his head a very little from the carriage, and pressing your leg, which is farthest from it, against his side.

A horse is not to stop without a sign from his rider.—Is it not then probable, that when driven up to a carriage he starts at it, he conceives himself obliged either to attack or run against it? Can he understand the rider's spurring him with his face directed to it, as a sign for him to pass it? That a horse is easily alarmed for his face and eyes (he will even catch back his head from a hand going to care's him) that he will not go with any force, face to face, even to another horse (if in his power to stop) and that he sees perfectly sideways,—

may be useful hints for the treatment of horses with regard to starting.

Though you ought not to whip a horse from starting, there can be no good effect from clapping his neck with your hand to encourage him. If one took any notice of his starting, it should be rather with some tone of voice which he usually understood as an expression of dislike to what he is doing; for there is opposition mixed with his starting, and a horse will ever repeat what he finds has soiled his rider.

Notwithstanding the directions above given, of not pressing a horse up to a carriage he starts at; yet if one which you apprehend will frighten him meets you at a narrow part of the road, when you have once let him know he is to pass it, be sure you remain determined, and press him on. Do this more especially when part of the carriage has already passed you; for if, when he is frightened, he is accustomed to go back, and turn round, he will certainly do it if he finds, by your hand slackening, and legs not pressing, that you are irresolute; and this at the most dangerous point of time, when the wheels of the carriage take him as he turns. Remember not to touch the curb-rein at this time; it will certainly check him. It is not known to every one, that the person who would lead a horse by the bridle should not turn his face to him when he refuses to follow him; if, beside this, he raises his arms, shows his whip, or pulls the bridle with jerks, he frightens the horse, instead of persuading him to follow, which a little patience may bring about.

Ride with a snaffle; and use your curb, if you have one, only occasionally. Choose your snaffle full and thick in the mouth, especially at the ends to which the reins are fastened. Most of them are made too small and long; they cut the horse's mouth, and

bend back over the bars of his jaw, working like pincers.

The management of the curb is too nice a matter to enter on here, farther than to prescribe great caution in the use of it; a turn of the wrist, rather than the weight of your arm, should be applied to it. The elasticity of a rod, when it hath hooked a fish, may give you some idea of the proper play of a horse's head on his bridle; his spirit and his pliability are both marked by it.

A horse should never be put to do any thing in a curb which he is not ready at: you may force him, or pull his head any way with a snaffle; but a curb acts only in a straight line. It is true, that a horse will be turned out of one track into another by a curb, but it is because he knows it as a *signal*. When he is put to draw a chair, and does not understand the necessity he is then under of taking a larger sweep when he turns, you frequently see him *restive*, as it is then called: but put him on a snaffle, or buckle the rein to that part of the bit which does not curb him: and the horse submits to be pulled about, till he understands what is desired of him. These directions suppose your horse to have spirit, and a good mouth: if he has not, you must take him as he is, and ride him with such a bit as you find most easy to yourself.

When you ride a journey, be not so attentive to your horse's nice carriage of himself, as to your encouragement of him, and keeping him in good humour. Raise his head; but if he sags, you may indulge him with bearing a little more upon the bit than you would suffer in an airing. If a horse is lame, tender-footed, or tired, he naturally hangs upon his bridle. On a journey, therefore, his mouth will depend greatly on his strength and the goodness of his feet. Be then very careful about his feet, and let not a farrier spoil them.

Very few, altho' practised in rid-

ing, know they have any power over a horse but by the luidle; or any use for the spur, except to make him go forward. A little experience will teach them a farther use. If the left spur touches him (and he is at the same time prevented from going forward) he has a sign, which he will soon understand, to move sideways to the right. In the same manner to the left, if the right spur is closed to him, he afterward, through fear of the spur, obeys a touch of the leg; in the same manner as a horse moves his croup from one side of the stall to the other, when any one strikes him with his hand. In short, his croup is guided by the leg, as his head is by the bridle. He will never disobey the legs unless he becomes restive. By this means you will have a far greater power over him: he will move sideways, if you close one leg to him; and straight forward, if both: even when he stands still, your legs held near him will keep him on the watch; and with the slightest, unseen motion of the bridle upward, he will raise his head, and show his forehead to advantage.

On this use of the legs of the rider, and guidance of the croup of the horse, are founded all the *airs* (as the riding-masters express themselves) which are taught in the manege; the passage, or side-motion of troopers to close or open their files, and indeed all their evolutions. But the convenience of some degree of this discipline for common use is the reason of mentioning it here. It is useful if a horse is apt to stumble or start. If to the first, by pressing your legs to his flank, and keeping up his head, he is made to go light on his fore-legs, which is aiding and supporting him; and the same if he does actually stumble, by helping him at the very instant to exert himself, while as yet any part of him remains not irrecoverably impressed with the precipitate motion. Hence this use of the hand and legs of the

the rider is called *giving aids* to a horse; for, as to holding up the weight of a heavy unactive horse, by mere pulling, it is as impossible as to recover him when falling down a precipice.

A horse is supported and helped by the hands and legs of his rider in every action they require of him; hence he is said to perform his *aids* by the *aids* of his rider.

The same manner is useful if a horse starts. For if, when he is beginning to fly to one side, you leg on the side he is flying to, he stops his spring immediately. He goes past what he started at, keeping straight on, or as you choose to direct him; and he will not fly back from any thing if you press him with both legs. You keep his haunches under him going down a hill; help him on the side of a bank; more easily avoid the wheel of a carriage; and approach more gracefully, and nearer to the side of a coach or horseman. When a pampered horse curvets irregularly and twists his body to and fro, turns his head either to the right or left, or both alternately (but without letting him move out of the track), and presses your leg to the opposite side; your horse then cannot spring on his hinder legs to one side, because your leg prevents him; nor to the other, because his head looks that way, and a horse does not start and spring to the side on which he looks. Here it may not be amiss to observe the impropriety of the habit which many riders have, of letting their legs shake

against the sides of the horse; if a horse is taught, they are then continually pressing him to violent action; and if he is not, they render him insensible and incapable of being taught. The fretting of a hot horse will hence be excessive, as it can no otherwise be moderated than by the utmost skillness of the seat, hand, and legs of the rider.

Colts at first are taught to bear a bit, and by degrees to *pull* at it. If they did not press it, they could not be guided by it. By degrees they find their necks stronger than the arms of a man; and that they are capable of making great opposition, and often of foiling their riders. Then is the time to make them supple and pliant in every part. The part which of all others requires most this pliancy is the neck. Hence the metaphor of stiff-necked for disobedient. A horse cannot move his head but with the muscles of his neck; this may be called his helm; it guides his course, changes and directs his motion.

The use of this pliancy in the different parts and limbs of a horse is not necessary to be shewn in this essay, which is directed solely to the *inexperienced* horseman. It may, therefore, suffice to add, that his idea of suppleness need only be, that of an ability and readiness in a horse to move every limb, on a sign given him by the hands or legs of his rider: as also, to bend his body, and move in a short compass, quick and collected within himself, so as instantly to be able to perform any other motion.

Anecdotes & Traits Characteristiques.—Anecdotes and Characteristic Circumstances in the Life of Joseph II. late Emperor of Germany; to which is prefixed his Testament. By Madame de R.

THOUGH we have received only the first number of these anecdotes, they are too interesting to be passed over in silent expectation.

The

The first part, as the title mentions, is the will of the emperor, dated at Vienna, the 18th of February, 1790. This will shews equal judgment and reflection: we shall copy only two of the articles.

‘ I order, that the moment I cease to exist, the sum of 10,000 florins be delivered to the different parishes of this city and suburbs, to be distributed to the modest and indigent poor, that they may pray for me.

‘ I order, that the present testament, containing my last will, be published after my death; and I request those, to whom I may, contrary to my intention, have not done ample justice, to pardon me as Christians and men. I beseech them to consider, that the monarch on his throne, as well as the beggar in his hut, is a man, and each subject to the same errors.’

Joseph II. was a great traveller, but from the account before us, it was with a design of knowing mankind, not from an idle curiosity. The object of his travels in his own country, says the author, was to examine the soil, the different productions, the inhabitants, whose manners and laws differ so much, that their complicated variations check, and often frustrate, the efforts of government. He wished to ascertain, with his own eyes, the necessity of reforms, and the proper encouragements, so as to act with the greatest advantage for his subjects, whom he considered as his children.

With this design he travelled through Hungary in 1767 and 1773. Nothing escaped his scrutinizing eye. He visited the fortresses; saw the prisoners confined in them; received with humanity, free from ostentation, the petitions which a vast crowd of every description presented; and, whether he was obliged to proceed or to remain, he particularly attended to them.

We can scarcely conceive the impression which the following billet, put into his hands in Hungary, must have excited. We may judge from it the

state of the kingdom, and the blessings it derived from the emperor.

‘ Most beneficent Emperor,
‘ This is the employment of the week! Four days in repairing the roads; the fifth is destined for the fisheries; and the sixth for the chase all for the benefit of my superior: the seventh belongs to God. Judge, most just sovereign, if I can pay the land-tax, and the other imposts.’

Joseph, who, in these countrymen, saw creatures like himself, who was sensible that one man was not born to be the slave of another, and that countrymen, with rude exterior and rustic garments, often covered noble and compassionate hearts, lightened the chains of the Hungarian peasants, and considered of means entirely to destroy them. He knew that the feudal system originated from the misfortunes of former ages, from the ignorance and superstition of the people; and that it was supported by personal interests, and by prejudices. He saw, with a secret horror, men harried to the manorial car, like beasts of burthen, and re-established them in their native privileges. By this action he drew on himself the hatred of the nobility.

During his last residence at Luxemburg, a select party met daily in his circle. One day the conversation had been very serious, and Joseph said; if any one will honour my tomb with an epitaph, let it be the following:—
“ Here lies Joseph II. who failed in
“ all his undertakings.”—“ Unfortunate Joseph! the measure of thy ills
“ was not yet full; it was not as a sovereign that thou shouldst feel distress; it was as a man, as a man of
“ the most refined sensibility.”

During the whole of the night of the 18th of February 1790, the emperor sent hourly to enquire after the arch-duchess Elizabeth, whose approaching delivery could not be concealed from him. At half after seven in the morning he received the news

of the birth of a prince, but the mother had just expired in the most dreadful torments. Her death must be known, and his confessor was commissioned to inform him of it. Joseph, overwhelmed with this unexpected stroke, was for a moment silent, and turned away his head to conceal the last tears that trickled down his cheeks.

A deep sigh seemed at last to relieve his oppressed bosom; he lifted his eyes, yet full of tears, to heaven, and said, with a resigned voice—"Lord, thy will be done." When he recollected himself, he saw the Count de Rosenberg, and said to him with an anguish impossible to be described—

"My sufferings are incredible: I was prepared to support whatever Heaven might have inflicted; but this dreadful misfortune exceeds what ever I have hitherto experienced." The arch-duchess was his beloved sister, and at the moment of her death his own was inevitable, and the hour but shortly distant.

In this moment of distress, however, he was careful in his political arrangements, and attentive to the welfare of his subjects. He ordered the cave, in which the emperors were usually deposited, to be opened, that those whose curiosity would lead them to press forward, at the moment of his funeral, might not be injured by the noxious vapours: he sent the chancellor an order, written with his own hand, for a million of florins to be taken out of his private property, for the support of an institution for the relief of those brave soldiers who had acquired honour in the field.

On the day of his death he saw his ministers, and again took his leave: they stirred not from his apartment. 'I die,' said he to the brave Laudohn, 'I die, happy in being certain that you will be the protector of my army: give me your hand, I shall soon lose the pleasure of pressing it in mine.' To the cardinal Megazzi he excused

himself for having occasioned him some uneasiness. 'I feel none,' replied he, 'but on account of your Majesty's situation.' The old count Haddick was so much affected by the scene, that he was carried away insensible. From that moment he never quitted his bed, and died a few days after his sovereign.

Joseph ordered the infant prince to be brought to him, and taking it in his languid arms, kissed and bathed it with his tears. 'Dear infant,' said he, 'true portrait of thy virtuous and amiable mother! Take her away, for my last moment is at hand.' He then called his confessor, who was beginning to pray—God, we praise thee—when the emperor interrupted him—'Lord, thou who alone knowest my heart, I call thee to witness, that I had no object in any of my undertakings but the good and happiness of the subjects thou hast committed to my charge—Lord, thy will be done!' He then suffered his confessor to go on.

At four in the morning the emperor awaked, after a slight slumber, and field-marshal de Lascy, the Prince of Dietrich, count de Rostberg, and the Baron Storck, who watched in his room, went to his bed. 'You are still here,' said he. He requested the baron to give him something comfortable, and took a little soup. The confessor, whom he asked for, read prayers again. At the words—We repose our confidence on faith, hope, and love—the emperor repeated faith aloud, hope in a lower tone, but very distinctly, and love, with great ardour. 'It is enough,' added he;—'this book of prayers will be of no farther use to me: I give it to you, preserve it for love of me.' A few moments afterwards he said—'I think I have fulfilled every duty as a man, and as a king.' Turning on his side, he breathed a few moments with difficulty, and expired.

LAST of several of the most eminent PAINTERS of the Old School—with a Scale of their Merits; found among the Papers of a distinguished Artist lately deceased.

School.	Name.	Compositions.	Designs.	Engravings.	Expressions.
A					
<i>Rom.</i>	ALBANO, born 1578, died 1660	14	14	10	6
<i>Flem.</i>	Albert Durer, born 1470, died 1528	8	10	20	8
<i>Rom.</i> <i>& Flor.</i>	Andrea del Sarte, born 1478, died 1530	12	16	9	8
B					
<i>Rom.</i>	Baroche, born 1528, died 1612	14	15	6	20
<i>Ven.</i>	James Bassan, born 1553, died 1613	6	8	7	0
<i>Ven.</i>	John Bellin, born 1421, died 1501	4	6	3	0
<i>Fr.</i>	Bourdon, born 1513, died 1588	20	8	8	4
<i>Fr.</i>	Le Brun, born 1620, died 1690	16	16	8	16
C					
<i>Ven.</i>	Claude Lorraine	18	18	16	0
<i>Lom.</i>	Caracci, born 1557, died 1606	15	17	13	13
<i>Lom.</i>	Correggio, born 1494, died 1534	19	13	13	2
D					
<i>Rom.</i>	Daniel de Volterra, born 1509, died 1556	12	13	5	6
<i>Flem.</i>	Diepenbek, born 1608	11	10	14	6
<i>Lom.</i>	Dominichino, born 1581, died 1641	15	17	9	17
G					
<i>Ven.</i>	Giorgioni, born 1477, died 1511	8	9	18	4
<i>Lom.</i>	Guerchine, born 1598, died 1666	18	10	10	4
<i>Lom.</i>	Guido, born 1575, died 1642	0	15	9	12
H					
<i>Flem.</i>	Holben, born 1498, died 1544	9	10	16	13
I					
<i>Flem.</i>	James Jourdans, born 1594, died 1678	10	8	16	6
<i>Flem.</i>	Luc. Jordano	13	12	9	6
<i>Rom.</i>	Julio Romano, born 1446, died 1500	13	20	14	14
L					
<i>Lom.</i>	Lafranc, born 1581, died 1647	14	15	10	5
<i>Rom.</i>	Leonardo da Vinci, born 1445, died 1520	19	12	14	14
<i>Flem.</i>	Lucas de Leide, born 1495, died 1535	8	8	6	4
M					
<i>Rom.</i>	Michael Angelo Buonaroti, born 1474, died 1564	20	12	14	8
<i>Lom.</i>	Michael de Caravaggio	10	10	10	10
<i>Ven.</i>	Mutiens, born 1528, died 1590	6	11	15	7
O					
<i>Flem.</i>	Otho Venius, born 1556, died 1634	10	17	17	10
P					
<i>Ven.</i>	Palma the Elder, born 1460, died 1556	11	12	16	0
<i>Ven.</i>	Palma the Younger, born 1544, died 1628	12	12	16	6
Q					
	Q 9 *				

Rom.

School.	Name.	Composition.	Design.	Colouring.	Expression.
Rom.	Parmesan,	10	15	6	6
Ven.	Paul Veronese, born 1532, died 1588	15	10	6	6
Rom.	Perrin del Vague, born 1500, died 1547	15	16	7	6
Rom.	Pietro de Cortona, born 1596, died 1669	16	14	12	6
Rom.	Pietro Perugino, born 1524, died 1602	4	12	10	4
Rom.	Polidore de Caravaggio, born 1595, died 1643	10	17	15	15
Ven.	Porcenou	8	14	17	5
Fr.	Poussin Nich. born 1594, died 1665	15	17	6	15
Rom.	Primatrice, died 1570	15	14	7	10
R.					
Rom.	Raphael, born 1483, died 1520	17	18	12	18
Flem.	Rembrandt, born 1606, died 1668	15	16	17	12
Flem.	Rubens, born 1577, died 1640	18	13	17	17
S.					
Rom.	Salviati, Fra. born 1510, died 1563	13	13	8	8
Fr.	Le Sueur, born 1617, died 1655	15	15	4	15
T.					
Flem.	Teniers, born 1582, died 1649	15	12	13	6
Rom.	Pietro Testa, born 1611, died 1650	11	15	0	6
Ven.	Tintoret, born 1512, died 1594,	15	14	16	4
Ven.	Titian, born 1477, died 1576	12	15	18	6
V.					
Flem.	Van Deik, born 1599, died 1641	15	10	17	13
Rom.	Vanius, born 1556, died 1634	13	15	12	13
Z.					
Rom.	Tadez Zucere, born 1529, died 1556	13	14	10	9

A Memorial of the most rare and wonderful Things in Scotland.*

AMONG many commodities that Scotland hath common with other nations, it is not needful to rehearse in this place; in respect of their particulars, declar'd at length before: it is beautified with some rare gifts in itselfe, wonderful to consider, which I have thought good not to obscure (from the good reader) as for example:

In Orkney, besides the great store of sheepe that feede upon the maine lande thereof, the ewes are of such fe-

cunditie, that at every lambing time, they produce at least two, and ordinarily three. There be neither venemous or rauenous beasts bred there, nor doe liue there, although they be transported thither.

In Schetland, the Isles called Thule, at the time when the sunne enters the signe of Cancer, for the space of twenty daies, there appears no night at all; and among the rocks thereof, growes the delectable lanibrey: called succinum: where is also great resort

* From "Certaine Matters concerning the Realme of Scotland, 1592."

resort of the beast called the mertrick, the skins whereof are costly furrings.

In Rosse, there be great mountaines of marble and alabaſter.

In the fourth of Scotland, specially in the countries adiacent to England, there is a dog of maruellous nature, called the suth-hound; because when as he is certified by wordes of arte, spoken by his master, what goods are stolne, whether horse, sheepe, or neat: immediately, he addresseth him suthly to the sent, and followeth with great impetuositie, through all kind of ground and water, by as many ambages as the sheeues have used, till he attaine to their place of residence: By the benefit of the which dogge, the goods are recovered. But now of late, he is called by a new popular name, the Slouth-hound: Because, when as the people do liue in slouth and idlenesse, and neither by themselues, or by the office of a good herd, or by the strength of a good house, they doe preferue their goods from the incursion of theeues and robbers: then have they recourse to the dogge, for reparation of their slouth.

In the West, and North-west of Scotland, there is great repairing of a fowle, called the Erne, of a maruellous nature, and the people are very curious and soſt to catch him, whom thereafter they punze off his wings, that he shall not be able to flie againe. This fowle is of a huge quantitie: and although he be of a riuorous nature, like to the kind of hauks, and be of that same qualitie, gluttonous; neuertheless, the people doe giue him such sort of meate, as they thinke conuenient, and such a great quantitie at a time, that he liues contented with that portion, for the space of fourteene, sixteene, or twentie daies, and some of them for the space of a moneth. The people that doe so feed him, doe vse him for this intent: That they may be furnished with the feathers of his wings, when hee doth cast them, for the garnishing of their arrowes, either

when they are at warres, or at hunting: for these feathers onely doe neuer receiue raine, or water, as others doe, but remaine alwaies of a durable estate, and vncorruptible.

In all the moore-land, and moſſe-land of Scotland, doth resort the blacke cocke, a fowle of a maruellous beautie, and maruellous bountie: for he is more delectable to eate, than a capon, and of a greater quantitie, cled with three sorts of flesh, of diuers colours, and diuers tastes, but all delectable to the vse and nouriture of man.

In the two riuers of Dee and Done, besides the merueilous plentie of salmon fishes gotten there, there is also a maruellous kinde of ſhel-fish, called the horse-muffel, of a great quantitie: wherein are ingendred innumerable faire, beautifull and delectable pearles, conuenient for the pleasure of man, and profitable for the vse of physicke; and some of them so faire and polished, that they bee equal to any mirror of the world.

And generally, by the providence of the Almighty God, when dearth and scarcitie of victuals doe abound in the land, then the fishes are most plentifully taken for support of the people.

In Galloway, the Loch, called Loch-myrtou, although it be common to all fresh water to freeze in winter, yet the one halfe of this Loch doth never freeze at any time.

In the shire of Innernes, the Loch, called Loch-nes, and the riuer flowing from thence into the sea, doth neuer freeze: But by the contrary, in the coldest daies of winter, the Loch and riuer are both scene to smoake and reeke, signifying *vato vs*, that there is a myne of brimstone vnder it, of a hot qualitie.

In Carrick, are kynes, and oxen, delicious to eate: but their fatnes is of a wonderfull temperature: that although the fatnes of all other comestible beasts, for the ordinarie vse of man, doe congeale with the cold aire: by

by the contrarie, the fatnesse of these beasts is perpetually liquid like oile.

The wood and parke of Commer-pauld, is replenished with kye and oxen; and those at all times to this day, have bene wilde, and all of them of such a perfect wonderfull white-ness, that there was neuer among all the huge number there, so much as the smallest blacke spot found to be upon one of their skynnes, horse, or aloout.

In the parke of Halyrud-house, are foxes, and hares, of a wonderfull white-ness, in great number.

In Coyle, now called Kyle, is a rock, of the height of twelue foot, and as much of bredth, called the deaf craig, for although a man should cry neuer so loud, to his fellow, from the one side to the other, he is not heard, although he would make the noise of a gunne.

In the countrey of Stratherne, a little above the old towne of the Pights, called Abirnethie, there is a marvellous rocke, called the rocket and stone, of a reasonable bignes, that if a man will push it with the least motion of his finger, it will mouue verie lightly, but if he shall addresse his whole force, he profires nothing: which moues many people to be wonderfull merry, when they consider such contrarie tie.

In Lennox, is a great Loch, called Loch lowmond, being of length 24. miles, in bredth eight miles, containing the number of thirtie Iles. In this Loch are obserued three wonderfull things: One is, fishes very delectable to eate, that haue no synnes so mouue themselues withall, as other fishes doe. The second, tempestuous waues and surges of the water, perpetually raging without windes, and that in time of greatest calmes, in the salre pleasant time of summer, when the aire is quiet. The third is, one of these Iles, that is not corrobore nor united to the ground, but hath bene perpetually loose: and although it be fertill

of good grassh, and replenished with neat; yet it mouues by the waues of the water, and is transported sometimes towards one point, and otherwhiles toward another.

In Argyle, is a stone found in diuers parts, the which laid under straw or stubble, doth consume them to fire, by the great heat that it collects there.

In Buquhan, at the castle of Glains is a caue, from the top whereof distilles water, which within short time doth congeale to hard stones, white in colour. In, this countrey are no rotations scene at any time, although the land be wonderfull fertill.

In Lothien, within two miles of Edinburgh, south-ward, is a well-spring, called, Saint *Katherins*, well, which flows perpetually with a kind of blacke fatnesse, about the water: whereof *Dioscorides* makes mention. This fatnes is called *Bitumen aquis supernatans*. It is thought to proceed of a fat myne of coale, which is frequent in all Lothien, and specially of a sort of coale, called vulgarly the parret coale: For as soone as it is laid in the fire, it is so fat and gummy, that it renders an exceeding great light, dropping, frying, hissing, and making a great noise, with shedding and diuiding it selfe in the fire, and of that maruiculous nature, that as soone as it is laid in a quicke fire, immediately it conceiues a great flame, which is not common to any other sort of coale. This fatnes, is of a maruiculous vertue: That as the coale, whereof it proceeds, is sudden to conceiue fire and flame, so is this oile, of a sudden operation, to heale all salt scabs and humours, that trouble the outward skin of man, wherefouer it be, fro the middle vp, as commonly those of experience haue obserued. All scabbes in the head, and hands, are quickly healed by the use of this oile, and it renders a maruiculous sweet smell.

At Abirdene is a well, of maruiculous good qualitie to dissolue the stone,

to expell sand from the reines and bladder, and good for the collicke, being drunke in the Moneth of Iuly, and a few daies of August, little inferior in vertue to the renowned water of the Spaw in Almanic.

In the North Seas of Scotland are great clogges of timber found, in the which, are maruailously ingendred a sort of Geese, called Clayk geese, and do hang by the beake, til they be of perfection; oftentimes found, and kept in admiration for their rare forme of generation. *

At Dumbartan, directly vnder the Castle, at the mouth of the riuer of Clyde, as it enters into the sea, there are a number of Claik geese, black of

colour, which in the night time do gather great quantitie of the crops of the grasse, growing vpon the land, and carry the same to the sea. Then they assemble in a round, and with a wondrous curiositie, do offer euery one his owne portion to the Sea fowls, and there attend vpon the flowing of the tide, till the grasse be purified from the freest taste and turned to the salt; and lest any part thereof should escape, they labour to hold it in with the labour of their nebbes. Thereafter orderly euery fowle eates his portion. And this custome they obserue perpetually. They are verie fat, and verie delicious to bee eaten.

Account of the Revolution at Delhi, the Capital of the Mogul Empire; written by an English Gentleman, resident there.

GHOLAM KAH DUR, author of the Revolution, was the son of Zabda Khan. His father disinherited him, and drove him from his presence, on account of his vices and his crimes: Shaw Allum, the King of Delhi, took him under his protection, treated him as his own son, and conferred on him the first title in the kingdom, Amere ul Omraow. He lived with the King, and raised a body of about 8000 troops of his own countrymen, the Moghuls, which he commanded. Gholam Khadur was of a very passionate temper, haughty, cruel, ungrateful, and a great debauchee, as will appear.—In the latter end of the year 1788, the King had formed suspicions, and they were founded, that some of the neighbouring Rajahs (Princes) would make an attempt to plunder and destroy his territories. These suspicions were verified by the approach of a considerable army towards his capital, commanded by Ismael Beg Khan, and assisted by Scindia. Gholam Khadur

told the King, on this, that he had nothing to fear: for that he had an army sufficiently strong to oppose the enemy; that all the King had to do was to march out with his troops, give them a supply of cash, and he would lay his head on the enemy's being overcome. The King on this replied, that he had no money to carry on a contest. Gholam Khadur said, that this objection would soon be obviated, as he (Gholam Khadur) would advance the necessary supply of cash, and that all his Majesty had to do was to head the army:—"This, said he, will animate the prey, and give them confidence—the presence of a Monarch is above half the battle." The King agreed, in appearance, and requested Gholam Khadur to assemble the army, pay their arrears, and inform them of his intentions.—Gholam Khadur retired contented: but great was his astonishment, when he intercepted, the next day, a letter from the King to Scindia, desiring him to make as much haste as possible,

possible, and destroy Gholam Khadur; for, says he, Khadur wishes me to act contrary to my wishes, and oppose you. On the discovery of this piece of treachery, Gholam Khadur marched out with his Moghuls, crossed the Jumna, and encamped on the other side opposite the fort of Delhi. He sent to the King the intercepted letter, and asked him, if his conduct did not deserve to be punished by the loss of his Throne?—'Shortly I shall bestow on you the due rewards for your villainy.'

The English had about 2000 troops at Anouphshah, a town about 70 miles from Delhi, the residence of the King. Gholam Khadur naturally expected, that if he attempted any thing against the King, our troops would move to his assistance, as we were his allies; and the King, on the hostile appearance of Gholam Khadur, had written to Lord Cornwallis to beg assistance. Awed, in a great degree, by these suspicions, he kept aloof for some time, and had spies in our camp to inform him if they had any intentions of moving to the succour of the King. The spies informed him, that from the appearance of things, and from what they could learn, they believed the troops had not the smallest thoughts of marching. Gholam Khadur, still doubting their intelligence, began to fire powder only at the citadel, from across the river, in order to ascertain with certainty whether the English would assist the King. After a few days firing, he perceived that the troops had really no thoughts of moving, as Lord Cornwallis, with his usual good sense and humanity, had informed the King, and the Nawab Vazeer (the latter having likewise requested help for the Monarch), that he could not possibly give assistance. Khadur, thus rid of his fears, began to besiege the fort in earnest, and carried it in a few days. He entered the palace in arms, flew to the King's chamber, insulted the old man in the most barbarous manner, knocked him down, kneeled down on his breast, and with his knife took

out one of his eyes. He ordered a servant of the King's to take out the other; the man refused, saying, that he could not possibly think of hurting the person by whom he had been fed and clothed; on his refusal, Gholam Khadur ordered the faithful servant's head to be struck off; the order was instantly obeyed. He ordered another to perform the horrid operation; that fellow, affrighted by the fate of his predecessor, and fear for his life, did as he was bid. Thus a poor old man of seventy! a Monarch whose infirmities were the result of old age, fell beneath the hand of a Nero! And why? Because the English Government did not attempt to save him, and maintain their character for humanity by assisting the helpless and unfortunate. If the troops at Anouphshah had only put on the appearance of moving to the King's assistance, it would have saved his eyes, his person from insult, his kingdom, and even the persons of his daughters and wives from the lust and barbarity of a brute, an ungrateful brute, and his horrid gang!—What must be the feelings of a generous mind to hear of such acts of cruelty!

Gholam Khadur after this gave up the palace to pillage, and went to the King's Zannana (the residence of his women) and insulted the ladies; tore their jewels from their noses and ears, and off their arms and legs. As he had lived with the King, he was well acquainted with the different places where the King's treasures were hid: he dug up the floor of the King's own bedroom, and found there two chests, containing in specie 120,000 gold mohurs, or 192,000l. Sterling; this he took, and vast sums more. To get at the hidden jewels of the women, he practised one of the deepest schemes of villainy that ever was thought of. He ordered, the third day after these horrid cruelties, that all the King's ladies and daughters should come and pay their respects to him, and promised to set those

those free who could please him by their appearance and dress. The inopinion, unthinking women, brought out their jewels, and adorned themselves in their richest attire to please this savage. Gholam Khadar ordered them to be conveyed into a hall, where he had prepared common dresses for them; these dresses he made the women put on, by the assistance of Eunuchs, and took possession of their rich dresses and jewels, and sent them home to the palace, to lament their loss, and curse his treachery.—Gholam Khadar did not even stop here, but asked the Princes, by making them dance and sing, and for their compliance rewarded them with a few strokes with his slipper. The Mussulmen hold dancing and singing in a high degree of contempt, much more, so than the ancient Romans: they consider a dancer or singer as the dregs of society. Then what must have been the feelings of these Princes! what must they have suffered, to see themselves insulted and maltreated by a man whose life their father had save? Is it possible that human beings can be so wicked? The most beautiful of the King's daughters, Mobaruck ul Mouk, was brought to this tyrant to gratify his lust. Like a second Semele, he wished to sooth her into a compliance to his wish: it failed—she resisted, and swore she would resist to the last drop of her blood. He attempted to practise force; she, pushed to despair, like a Lucretia, drew out a hidden knife, and stabbed herself. Here was virtue in the superlative degree—"more than man in the shape of a woman!" Oh, that she had first plunged it in the bosom of the brute!

Scindia soon after this came to the assistance of the King, rather to make him his prey.—Gholam Khadar fled, and took refuge in the fort of Agra, a large city about 150 miles from Delhi.—Scindia's troops besieged him there. Perceiving at last that he must

be taken if he continued in the fort, he took the advantage of a dark night, stuffed his saddle with a large stock of precious stones, took a few followers, and fled from the fort towards Persia. Unluckily for him, he fell off his horse the second night after his flight; by this means a party of horse, which had been sent in pursuit of him, came up with him, and took him prisoner: his horse and the precious saddle have not been heard of. Gholam Khadar was brought to Scindia, who, after exposing him for some time in irons, and some time in a cage, punished him in the manner he deserved.—his ears, his nose, his hands and his feet were cut off, and his eyes taken out, and he was allowed to expire in that state—a very proper reward for his cruelty and villainy!

The King has now nothing but a name: Scindia, under pretence of guarding, has taken his kingdom from him, and allows him 250 rupees, or 25l. per day, and 200 servants. This is he dwindled! I arrived at Delhi about a month after this tragic scene! Tragic it is of the first magnitude. The night the Greeks set Troy in flames could not have been more dreadful to behold; not even the scenes of horror and bloodshed which ensued when Rome was given up to the cruelty of Sylla and his gang! While I have been here I have made it my principal object to get every information I could, and such as was to be relied on, and received the above account from men who were spectators of most of the acts, and were obliged to stand by. The Nawab of Lucknow's Ambassador, Loufally Khan, has been my chief source: he is a very intelligent man, an Abyssinian by birth, and was an eye-witness to most of the transactions, although he had orders not to interfere, because the English Government would not. Surely it could not have cost Lord Cornwallis much to have given him some help. If the troops had only put on

the appearance of moving, the bloody villain Gholam Khadar would have fled. He was quite amazed at his good fortune, and thought the Heavens had conspired to assist him.

When I rode through the streets of Delhi on my entry with some other Europeans, the people called out in their language, "Now the Europeans, are come to succour our unfortunate Monarch! You had better go back, Gentlemen; we will not give you thanks for what you can do now. Although you are very wise and very good, yet you cannot replace the King's eyes—you cannot wipe off the insult he and his family have received." A severe reflection! I could hardly refrain from tears when I pictured to my mind the King's situation: although he deserved to be punished for his treachery, yet there ought to be great allowance made for his age. His conduct marked a wish to save his riches, and not to expose his person. This is merely the effect of age. He was actuated by avarice, the most despicable of all human failings; he might also have imagined that Khadar had a scheme to betray him.

I wished to go and see him, but shuddered at the idea.—What could I see? A poor and unfortunate old man, once a sovereign of a large kingdom, bending beneath his load of years—his face a horrid spectacle! sockets wrangled to tear out his eyes! surrounded by a train of young men in rags, once Princes! silent, with the strongest marks of grief in their countenances! What heart could stand such a sight!

The following is a translation of a Persian Ode which Shaw Allom pronounced from the throne after the loss of his eyes. The translation has nothing to boast of, but that I have adhered rigidly to the original—you may think too much so. The Ode has lost much of its pathetic fire and its eloquence in passing through my pen; but trans-

lations, like transplanted plants, almost always degenerate; there may be a few instances to the contrary, yet it is a universal complaint. The Ode seems to have been spoken by one whose ideas flowed beyond his powers of expressing them.—It seems to be highly incoherent; yet there is to be seen a truly pathetic and noble spirit in it, which required great command of language to express clearly. It is rather pompous in some parts, but that, you know, is always the case in all eastern productions.

TRANSLATION OF AN ODE,

Spoken by SHAW ALLUM, KING OF DELHI, after the loss of his EYES.

A TEMPEST of misfortunes has risen to overwhelm me—it has scattered my throne in the air.—I was once the light of Kings, but have now, alas! lost my lustre. Fate has robbed me of my eyes—Well! it has delivered me from the painful necessity of beholding another enjoy my crown. The condition of the Holy Brothers, when they were persecuted by Yazud, is similar to mine—misfortunes were allotted me at my birth. My riches were my evil; but, thanks to the Almighty, they are vanished. A young Ufghan has overturned my regality. Who have I to assist me but God? I committed a crime—its punishment I now feel. The Almighty I trust will pardon me. A dependant of many years has ruined me—he has speedily received his dues. I have been smelting for these fifty years food for my children—this has been wrested from me, and I am left a beggar. Moghols and Ufghans have betrayed me.—Quickly they stepped out to my ruin—they swore to be faithful—how rigidly have they adhered to their oaths! I fed a young serpent, and it has been anxious to suck my blood. I had beautiful angels—they are all taken away from me except Mobarok.

Mahul. I consider the English and Affusoud Dowla as my warm friends — If they had assisted me, it would not have been doing too much. Madajee Scindia is the comfort and darling of my heart—he is ready to punish the injuries done me. God carry an account of my sufferings to the

Nawab Vazeer, Timur Shaw wishes to be related to me—he may succeed if he will undertake to remove my ills. It is grievous that neither prince, peer, nor beggar will lament my fate. I am now sunk in the abyss of darkness, but hope to rise illuminated through the assistance of Providence.

Some Account of John Wilson, Author of the Synopsis of British Plants; in Mr Ray's Method.

JOHNS WILSON, the first who attempted a systematic arrangement of the indigenous plants of Great Britain in the English language, was born in Longfeddal, near Kendal, in Westmoreland, some time in the year 1696. He was by trade a shoemaker, and may be ranked amongst the few who, in every age, distinguish themselves from the mass of mankind by their scientific and literary accomplishments without the advantages of a liberal education. The success of his first calling does not appear to have been great, as perhaps he never followed it in a higher capacity than that of a journeyman. However this may be, he exchanged it, for the more lucrative employment of a baker, soon enough to afford his family the common conveniences of life; the profits of his new business supporting him in circumstances which, though not affluent, were far superior to the abject poverty he is said to have experienced by the author of the British Topography. This writer, amongst other mistakes undoubtedly occasioned by false information, has recorded an anecdote of him, which is the fabrication of one of those inventive geniuses who are more partial to a good tale than attentive to the truth. He acquaints us, that Wilson was so intent on the pursuit of his favourite study, as once to be tempted to sell a cow, the support of his house, in or-

der to procure the means of purchasing Marsson's voluminous work; and that this absurd design would have certainly been put in execution, had not a neighbouring lady presented him with the book, and by her generosity rescued the insatuated botanist from voluntary ruin. The story is striking, but wants authenticity; and is absolutely contradicted by authority that cannot be disputed. At the time when Wilson studied botany, the knowledge of system was not to be obtained from English books; and Ray's botanical writings, of whose method he was a perfect master, were all in Latin. This circumstance makes it evident, that he acquired an acquaintance with the language of his author, capable of giving him a complete idea of the subj. &c. The means by which he arrived at his proficiency are not known at present; and though such an attempt, made by an illiterate man, may appear to be attended with insuperable difficulties to those who have enjoyed a regular education, yet the experiment has been frequently made, and has been almost as frequently successful. No one ought to be surprised with the apparent impossibilities that perseverance constantly vanquishes, when properly stimulated by the love of knowledge. The powers of industry are not to be determined by speculation; they are seen and understood by their effects: it

it is this talent alone that forms the basis of genius, and distinguishes a man of abilities from the rest of his kind.

It was no easy undertaking to acquire the reputation of an expert and accurate botanist before Linnæus's admirable method of discriminating species gave the science so essential an improvement.

The subject of the present essay overcame the difficulties inseparable from the enterprise, and merited the character from his intimate acquaintance with the vegetable productions of the North of England. But there is good reason to believe that he was not entirely self-taught; for, under the article *Gentiana*, he accidentally mentions his intercourse on the subject with Mr Fitz Roberts who formerly resided in the neighbourhood of Kendal, and was known to Pettiver and Ray; his name occurs in the Synopsis of the latter gentleman. The numerous places of growth, of the rarer plants, added by Wilson to those found in former catalogues, shew how diligently he cultivated the practical part of botany.

It will appear a matter of surprise, to such as are ignorant of his manner of life, how a mechanic could spare a very large portion of time from engagements which ought to engross the attention of men in low circumstances, for the sole purpose of devoting it to the curious but unproductive researches of a naturalist. On this account it is proper to remark, that the business of a baker was principally managed by his wife, and that a long indisposition rendered him unfit for a sedentary employment. He was afflicted with a severe asthma for many years, which, while it prevented him from pursuing his trade as a shoemaker, encouraged the cultivation of his favourite science, and he attended to it with all the ardour a sick man can experience. Fresh air and moderate exercise were the best palliatives of his cruel disease:—thus he was obliged to amuse the

giving hours of sickness with frequent excursions in the more favourable parts of the year, as oft as his health would permit; and, under the pressure of an unpropitious disorder, explored the marshes, and even the hills, of his native country, being often accompanied by such of his intimates as were partial to botany, or desirous of beholding those uncommon scenes of Nature that can only be enjoyed in mountainous countries.

The singularity of his conversation contributed not a little to the gratification of his curiosity; for he was a diligent observer of manners and opinions, and delivered his sentiments with unreserved freedom. His discourse abounded with remarks, which were generally pertinent, and frequently original: many of his sententious expressions are still remembered by his neighbours and contemporaries. One of these deserves recording, as it shews that his knowledge of botany was not confined to the native productions of England. Being once in the county of Durham, he was introduced to a person who took much pleasure in the cultivation of rare plants. This man, judging of his abilities by his appearance, and perhaps expecting to increase his own reputation by an easy victory over one he had heard commended so much, challenged him to a trial of skill; and, in the course of it, treated his stranger with a degree of disrespect that provoked his resentment, and prompted him to give an instance of his superiority. Accordingly, after naming most of the rarities contained in the garden, and referring to authors where they are described, he, in his turn, plucked a wild herb, growing in a neglected spot, and presented it to his opponent, who endeavoured to get clear of the difficulty by pronouncing it a weed: but Wilson immediately replied, A weed is a term of Art, not a production of Nature: adding, that the explanation proved his antagonist

to be a gardener, not a botanist. Thus the context ends.

These qualities, so uncommon in an unlettered man, procured him the notice of several persons of taste and fortune, whose hospitality enabled him to prosecute his researches on an economical plan that suited his humble condition.

Mr Isaac Thompson, an eminent land-surveyor, resident at Newcastle-upon-Tyne, may be reckoned his steadiest patron, and warmest encourager; for he frequently accompanied this gentleman, when travelling in the line of his profession, under the character of an assistant,—an employment that left him at full liberty to examine the vegetable productions of the different places visited by them. But it is difficult to determine, at present, what experience he gained from his connexion with Mr Thompson; and the author of the present essay has scarcely any other means of discovering what were his opportunities of attending to the places of growth of the rarer plants, besides his own work the Synopsis, where the observations are in a great measure confined to Westmoreland and Northumberland. Perhaps this was done to accommodate his friends, who were numerous in those counties, and for whose use the book was chiefly intended: however, it appears from the volume itself, that he was not entirely unacquainted with the South of England. This work was published in the year 1744; it comprehends that part of Ray's method that treats of the more perfect herbs, beginning at the fourth genus, or class, and ending with the twenty-sixth. He promises, in the preface,

to compleat the performance at a future period, provided his first attempt should meet with a favourable reception from the public; but did not live to fulfil his promise, being prevented by indisposition from finishing a second volume, which was intended to contain the Fungi, Mosses, Grasses, and Trees.

He died July 15, 1751, after lingering through the last three or four years of life in a state of debility that rendered him unfit for any undertaking of the kind. Some papers left by him on the subject passed into the hands of Mr Slack, printer at Newcastle-upon-Tyne, but were never published. Among these were some drawings, but it is not certain whether they were representations of rare plants, or figures intended to illustrate the technical part of the science. The writings of Linnæus became popular in England a short time after his death, and very soon supplanted all preceding systems; otherwise the character of Wilson had been better known to his countrymen at present. His Synopsis is certainly an improvement on that of Ray; for, besides some correction in the arrangement, many trivial observations are left out of it, to make room for generic and specific descriptions, the most essential parts of a botanical manual.—He did not increase the catalogue of British plants much, only adding two to Ray's number, as distinct species, the *Allium scænophrasum*, and the *Veronica rubra*; but he was the first who introduced the *Circea alpina* to the notice of the English botanist, as a variety of *luteiana*, growing near Sedberg, in Yorkshire.

Account of the Pelew Islands.

THE public are presented with some further particulars of the visit made by Captain McCluer to

those Islands, in the East India Company's armed vessels the Panther and Endeavour, which it will be recollected were

were fitted out at Bombay, by order of the Court of Directors, for the purpose of surveying those Islands, and to carry such animals and other presents as would be serviceable to the inhabitants, and pleasing to King Abba Thulle.

The two ships anchored in a very snug harbour in one of the said islands called *Arrahappajang*, where the King Abba Thulle desired Captain McCluer would land the live stock, which he seemed very fond of—they being so gentle and tame, particularly the bulls and cows.—At day light they were sent on shore, all in good condition; four young cows supposed to be all in calf, two young bulls, ten ewes and a ram, seven the goats and three rams, five sows with pig, and a boar, one pair of geese, three ducks and a drake, a foa tame cock and two hens to invite the wild ones; and they let fly from aloft four pair of turtle doves and a pair of parrots. At the same time a rich present of arms and European swords, with sundry other packages was made to Abba Thulle, who instantly distributed the arms among the principal Rupacks, and recommended them to be kept clean and in order for service when wanted. Two days after, the remaining presents, consisting of grind-stones, ironmongery, saws, shovel, &c. from Europe, were sent on shore, which they opened before the old King and his people: the whole multitude was so struck with amazement, that they could not utter a word to each other, but gave several ha's of astonishment as the things were taken out of the boxes. About an hour after the things were opened to view, the old King came to his recollection, and called his Rupacks and principal men around him; after a long harangue, (wherein the word *Englees* was frequently mentioned) he distributed the different articles with his own hand proportionably to the rank and ability of the person. The 400 iron

Kyfeens sent from Bombay, greatly attracted their attention, being exactly the dimensions of the tool used by them; little hand hammers were only given to the favourites and head men, the beads sent from Europe they did not like, as they were not transparent, but some blue and green from Bombay were exactly what they liked; they were fond of the China ware, particularly turquoise.

The next day, the King came on board with his retinue to see the vessel when at anchor, which he examined very minutely in every part; and a gun being fired with round and grape shot, surprised him a good deal when the large shot fell in the water at so great a distance. The working of the pumps he admired greatly. The Captain made him a present of a horseman's sword and a target, and shewed him the use of the latter, by telling one of his men to throw a spear at it with all his might, which, to their great astonishment, snapt short, and scarcely left a dent behind; this seemed very acceptable. Mr Wabrough produced a small joiner's tool chest, which he presented to the King, who admired it greatly, being very complete, with lock and key; he gave him also an embroidered cap of scarlet cloth, which they are remarkably fond of wearing. Mr Proctor had a small Alexander's figure head done in Bombay Marine Yard, which the old King was much pleased with, and would not part out of his hand to let any one see it. The Captain made the son of Atta Kooker a present of a Maratta sword of a great length, and made one of the Sepoys flourish it in the Maratta manner, which delighted the old King and his people, being something like their own fighting and jumping about with the spear. The presents were then finished with a piece of broad cloth to the King and one or two of the Chiefs, the texture of which puzzled their imagination, and for

for want of the Malay interpreter, who was on shore, it could not be explained to them.

On the following day one of the he-goats died, by eating some poisonous herbs, but was not altogether lost, for the King ordered him to be skinned and roasted. and when about half done, he and his nobles made a delicious meal of it, at least they seemed to enjoy it, by frequently licking their chops and fingers during the repast. The next morning the King proposed a visit to *Caroora* (his principal island) where every Gentleman that could be spared from duty accompanied him, and made a very grand appearance. He made a small canoe lead a-head of the Panther's boat, and behind was the King's canoe, and every one according to their rank nearest him to the right and left, keeping an exact line a-breast, the smaller canoes following in little order and distinction; on coming nigh the landing place of *Coroora*, they sounded the couch shell, to announce his Majesty's approach: the first line began a song, and the old men gave out the first verse of every verse alone: when finished, they all answered, accompanied at the same instant by a great flourish of the paddle, which had a pleasing effect: when the boat touched the pier, the English gave three cheers, which was answered by *Weel!* From the water-side, they walked up a broad causeway to the village, which was without order or regularity, the houses being placed promiscuously among the trees. The large *Plais* or Assembly Houses belong to the King, and are very astonishing fabrics, considering the tools and people who constructed them. Since the loss of the *Antelope*, they have built a new one near sixty feet in length, and by accident they have nearly fallen in with the proportion of ship building, the breadth of the house being about a third of the length; the floor of this is a perfect level from end to end; many of the planks are from

three to four feet in breadth, and fitted so nicely, that a pin cannot go between them; the windows exactly resemble the port holes in a ship's side, six to eight opposite each other, and one of the same size at each end; the beams are laid about seven feet from the floor, very close, and curiously carved; the joinings of the beams upon the supporters are so closely fitted, that it may be taken for the same piece of wood; the roof is very high, and has a great slope; the thatching is very ingeniously done with the coconut leaf; the inside throughout is curiously carved in various figures and flowers; and the gable ends have the appearance of the *Genoo* temples, decorated with figures of men and women. Every *Rupack* or chief, has a square piece of stone causeway before his house, and a small detached place like a pigeon-house, where they keep store of yams, &c. for present use. This little place was at first taken for a place of worship, but it was found they have no notion of a deity, though they have many superstitious prejudices.

The party left *Coroora* and arrived at *Arrakappasing* at sun-set, and the next morning the two detachments of *Sepoys*, in number about forty, were reviewed on shore, which had a most extraordinary effect upon the natives, and the old King was enraptured with their appearance; they begun with the manual exercise by word, then by tap of the drum; from that to forming, marching quick and slow time, firing by platoons, and street firing; and although the men were chiefly recruits, they gave the natives a very different idea of them to what they had before. The King ordered them a large tub of sweet drink, and asked if they were *Englees*? he was told No; that they were people of *Bombay*, and learnt the use of arms by the *English*, and that his people could do as well as them in a little time, which inspired the old man with such a fighting fit, that

that he wanted to go directly against the Artingalls; but was dissuaded from it on being told that he need not give himself the trouble, for that the Artingalls will give any thing to be friends with him, now they find the English are come to be the friends of Abba Thulle.

By a signal from the shore, the two vessels between them now fired a royal salute, whereupon the English union was hoisted upon a point of the Island, and the foundation stone laid of Fort Abercrombie, so called in honour of the Governor of Bombay, and by Abba Thulle's permission. Possession of it was taken in name of the English.

The Island is about four miles in circumference, and well watered by springs and rivulets, the soil is rich, and fit to produce any thing by cultivation. It was resolved by Captain M^r Cluer to leave the Endeavour there, (while he went in the Panther to Canton) in order to show the natives the use of the tools sent them by the Company, and to forward the cultivation of the grounds, which had been sown with rice and garden seeds by the English, and hopes were entertained, that by the vessel's making some stay among the Islands the natives would become more habituated to the customs and manners of the Europeans, which might hereafter be of service. The master of the Endeavour, who had a ship's company of about 60 men, was directed to secure the provisions and stores left with him by a Bamboop stockade work, at Fort Abercrombie, but on no account to join with the natives in their wars, and to do his utmost to reconcile each party, only taking care to be in a state to resent any insult offered to him by the enemies of Abba Thulle. He was also directed to examine carefully the different channels, through the reefs with the different soundings and leading marks, for a complete survey of the Islands.

Before the Panther sailed, Abba Thulle went out himself on a fishing party, chiefly for benefit of the English; he was accompanied by Mr White, who was his favourite, and always attended him in his expeditions about the place, by which means Mr White, from what he knew formerly of the language, is now very conversant in it. In the evening they returned with a good cargo, having collected a few from every boat that went out with him, and gave two-thirds of it to the English, who immediately put it in salt for sea store.

The next morning, two Chiefs from the Island Meedeg, were introduced to the Captain, as friends of Abba Thulle, he took them on board, showed them the vessel, which they examined with a good deal of curiosity and attention; a large looking-glass in the cabin perfectly astonished them: they did what monkeys have been seen to do, put their hands to the back of the glass and feel it, which gave those who had been on board before an opportunity of laughing at them. They were presented with some beads and a few knives, which made them so happy, that they instantly came on deck to shew to their companions in the boat what they had got. Those natives belonging to the place who saw the things given, told Abba Thulle of the circumstance, and he told the Captain, through the Malay interpreter, the character of the people of Meedeg, "that while he (Abba Thulle) was alone, and had not the English for his friends, they did not come near him, nor give him any assistance in his wars against Pelelew's, but now that the English are come, they come and wish to be friends with him to get what they can from him." The Captain comforted the old man, by telling him, that while the English were his friends, he had nobody to fear, and that even his greatest enemies (the Artingalls) would come and beg
his

his friendship. This pleased him so much, that he made for answer, "That these Islands no longer belonged to him, but to the English; and if they would assist him to conquer the Artingalls, they should have those Islands also."

Before the Panther sailed, two canoes from Artingall arrived on an embassy to Abba Thulle, to crave his friendship, and brought him a large bead, as a present of reconciliation, which the old man received very coldly, and would not allow them to go on board of the English vessels.

The Artingalls were apprehensive of the vessels going against them by their staying so long, and the King wishing to frighten his foes, begged the Captain to fire two guns without shot, which he did, and no doubt it had its desired

effect upon his Artingal visitants. —The foregoing are the principal occurrences which took place during Captain McCluer's stay in the Pelew Islands, from whence he sailed for Canton, intending to return to Arrakappasang, in about three or four months, there to join the Endeavour; and proceed together on further surveys and discoveries, agreeable to their orders and instructions. Justice to Abba Thulle's character requires us to add, that since Capt. Wilson's time another Malay Prua had been cast away upon the Pelew Islands, the crew of which showing a spirit of resistance, were mostly cut off by the natives, excepting a few who were saved by the people of Coroora, and by them conducted to Abba Thulle, who treated them with great hospitality.

*Remarks on the Island of Hinzuán, or Johannah; by Sir William Jones **

HINZUAN (a name which has gradually been corrupted into Anzuame, Juanny, and Johanna) has been governed about two centuries by a colony of Arabs, and exhibits a curious instance of the slow approaches towards civilization, which are made by a small community, with many natural advantages, but with few means of improving them. An account of this African island, in which we hear the language and see the manners of Arabia, may neither be uninteresting in itself, nor foreign to the objects of enquiry proposed at the institution of our Society.

On Monday the 28th of July 1783, after a voyage in the Crocodile of ten weeks and two days from the rugged islands of Cape Verd, our eyes were delighted with a prospect so beautiful,

that neither a painter nor a poet could perfectly represent it; and so cheering to us, that it can justly be conceived by such only as have been in our preceding situation. It was the sun rising in full splendour on the isle of Mayata (as the seamen called it,) which we had joyfully distinguished the preceding afternoon by the height of its peak, and which now appeared at no great distance from the windows of our cabin; while Hinzuán, for which we had so long panted, was plainly discernable ahead, where its high lands presented themselves with remarkable boldness. The weather was fair; the water smooth; and a gentle breeze drove us easily before dinner time round a rock, on which the Brilliant struck just a year before, into a commodious road, where we dropped

* From the Second Volume of "Asiatic Researches," just published.

dropped the anchor early in the evening: we had seen Mohila, another sister island, in the course of the day.

The frigate was presently surrounded with canoes, and the deck soon crowded with natives of all ranks, from the high born chief, who washed linen, to the half-naked slave who only paddled. Most of them had letters of recommendation from Englishmen, which none of them were able to read, though they spoke English intelligibly; and some appeared vain of titles, which our countrymen had given them in play, according to their supposed stations: we had lords, dukes, and princes on board, soliciting our custom, and importuning us for presents. In fact, they were too sensible to be proud of empty sounds, but justly imagined, that those ridiculous titles would serve as marks of distinction, and, by attracting notice, procure for them something of substantial. The only man of real consequence in the island, whom we saw before we landed, were the Governor Abdulkah, second cousin to the king, and his brother Alwi, with their several sons; all of whom will again be particularly mentioned: they understood Arabick; seemed zealous in the Mohammedan faith, and admired my copies of the Alkoran; some verses of which they read, whilst Alwi perused the opening of another Arabian manuscript, and explained it in English more accurately than could have been expected.

The next morning shewed us the island in all its beauty; and the scene was so diversified, that a distinct view of it could hardly have been exhibited by the best pencil; you must, therefore, be satisfied with a mere description, written on the very spot, and compared attentively with the natural landscape. We were at anchor in a fine bay, and before us was a vast amphitheatre, of which you may form a general notion by picturing in your

minds, a multitude of hills infinitely varied in size and figure, and then supposing them to be thrown together, with a kind of artless symmetry, in all imaginable positions. The back ground was a series of mountains, one of which is pointed, near half a mile perpendicularly high from the level of the sea, and little more than three miles from the shore: all of them were richly clothed with wood, chiefly fruit-trees, of an exquisite verdure. I had seen many a mountain, of a stupendous height in Wales and Switzerland, but never saw one before, round the bosom of which the clouds were almost continually rolling, while its green summit rose flourishing above them, and received from them an additional brightness. Next to this distant range of hills was another tier, part of which appeared charmingly verdant, and part rather barren; but the contrast of colours changed even this nakedness into a beauty: nearer still were innumerable mountains, or rather cliffs, which brought down their verdure and fertility quite to the beach; so that every shade of green, the sweetest of colours, was displayed at one view by land and by water. But nothing conduced more to the variety of this enchanting prospect, than the many rows of plain trees, especially the tall and graceful *Arecae*, on the shores, in the valleys, and on the ridges of hills, where one might almost suppose them to have been planted regularly by design. A more beautiful appearance can scarce be conceived, than such a number of elegant palms, like verdant plumes, placed at just intervals; and showing between them, part of the remoter landscape, while they left the rest to be supplied by the beholder's imagination. The town of Matamudo lay on our left, remarkable at a distance for the tower of the principal mosque, which was built by Halimah, a queen of the island, from whom the present king is descended:

ascended: a little on our right was a small town, called Bantani. Neither the territory of Nice, with its olives, date-trees, and cypresses, nor the isles of Hierès, with their delightful orange-groves, appeared so charming to me, as the view from the road of Hinzuon; which, nevertheless, is far surpassed, as the Captain of the Crocodile assured us, by many of the islands in the southern ocean. If life were not too short for the complete discharge of all our respective duties, public and private, and for the acquisition even of necessary knowledge in any degree of perfection, with how much pleasure and improvement might a great part of it be spent in admiring the beauties of this wonderful orb, and contemplating the nature of man in all its varieties!

We hastened to tread on firm land, to which we had been so long refused, and went on shore, after breakfast, to see the town, and return the Governor's visit. As we walked, attended by a crowd of natives, I surprized them by reading aloud an Arabick inscription over the gate of a mosque, and still more, when I entered it, by explaining four sentences, which were written very distinctly on the wall, signifying, "that the world was given us for our own edification, not for the purpose of raising sumptuous buildings; life, for the discharge of moral and religious duties, not for pleasurable indulgences; wealth, to be liberally bestowed, not avaritiously hoarded; and learning, to produce good actions, not envious disputes." We could not but respect the temple even of a false prophet, in which we found such excellent morality: we saw nothing better among the Romish trumpery in the church at Madeira. When we came to Abdullah's house, we were conducted through a small courtyard into an open room, on each side of which was a large and convenient sofa, and above it a high bed-place in a dark recess, over which

a chintz counterpane hung down from the ceiling: this is the general form of the best rooms in the island; and most of the tolerable houses have a similar apartment on the opposite side of the court, that there may be at all hours a place in the shade for dinner or for repose. We were entertained with ripe dates from Yemen, and the milk of cocoa-nuts; but the heat of the room, which seemed accessible to all who chose to enter it, and the scent of musk or civet, with which it was perfumed, soon made us desirous of breathing a purer air; nor could I be detained long by the Arabick manuscripts, which the Governor produced, but which appeared of little use, and consequently of no value, except to such as love mere curiosities: one of them, indeed, relating to the penal law of the Mohammedans, I would gladly have purchased at a just price: but he knew not what to ask, and I knew that better books on that subject might be procured in Bengal. He then offered me a black boy for one of my Alkoreans, and pressed me to barter an Indian dress, which he had seen on board the ship, for a cow and a calf: the golden slippers attracted him most, since his wife, he said, would like to wear them: and for that reason I made him a present of them; but had declined the book and the tobe for his superior. No high opinion could be formed of Sayyad Abdullah, who seemed very eager for gain, and very servile where he expected it.

Our next visit was to Shikh Salim, the king's eldest son; and if we had seen him first, the state of civilization in Hinzuon would have appeared at its lowest ebb; the worst English hackney in the worst stable is better lodged, and looks more princely than this heir apparent; but though his mien and apparel were extremely savage, yet allowance should have been made for his illness, which, as we afterwards learned, was an abscess in

the spleen, a disorder not uncommon in that country, and frequently cured, agreeable to the Arabian practice, by the actual cautery. He was incessantly chewing pieces of the Areca nut with shell-lime; a custom borrowed, I suppose, from the Indians, who greatly improve the composition with spices and betel leaves, to which they formerly added camphor: all the natives of rank chewed it, but not I think to so great an excess. Prince Salim from time to time gazed at himself with complacency in a piece of broken looking-glass, which was glued on a small board, a specimen of wretchedness which we observed in no other house; but many circumstances convinced us that the apparently low condition of his royal highness, who was not on bad terms with his father, and seemed not to want authority, proceeded wholly from his avarice. His brother Hamdullah, who generally resides in the town of Domoni, has a very different character, being esteemed a man of worth, good sense, and learning; he had come the day before to Matsmudo, on hearing that an English frigate was in the road; and I having gone out for a few minutes to read an Arabic inscription, found him on my return devouring a manuscript which I had left with some of the company. He is a Kadi, or Mohammedan judge; and as he seemed to have more knowledge than his countrymen, I was extremely concerned that I had so little conversation with him. The King, Shaikh Akmed, has a younger son, named Abdullah, whose usual residence is in the town of Wani, which he seldom leaves, as the state of his health is very infirm. Since the succession to the title and authority of Sultan is not unalterably fixed in one line, but requires confirmation by the chiefs of the Island, it is not improbable that they may hereafter be conferred on Prince Hamdullah.

A little beyond the hole in which

Salim received us was his haram, or the apartment of his women, which he permitted us all to see, not through politeness to strangers, as we believed at first, but, as I learned afterwards from his own lips, in expectation of a present; we saw only two or three miserable creatures with their heads covered, while the favourite, as we supposed, stood behind a coarse curtain, and showed her ankles under it loaded with silver rings; which, if she was capable of reflection, she must have considered as glittering fetters rather than ornaments; but a rational being would have preferred the condition of a wild beast, exposed to perils and hunger in a forest, to the splendid misery of being wife or mistress to Salim.

Before we returned, Alwi was desirous of shewing me his books; but the day was too far advanced, and I promised to visit him some other morning. The Governor, however, prevailed on us to see his place in the country, where he invited us to dine the next day; the walk was extremely pleasant from the town to the side of a rivulet, which formed in one part a small pool very convenient for bathing, and thence, through groves and alleys, to the foot of a hill; but the dining room was little better than an open barn, and was recommended only by the coolness of its shade. Abdullah would accompany us on our return to the ship, together with two Mustis, who spoke Arabic indifferently, and seemed eager to see all my manuscripts; but they were very moderately learned, and gazed with stupid wonder on a fine copy of the Hamasah, and on other collections of ancient poetry.

Early the next morning a black messenger, with a tawny lad as his interpreter, came from Prince Salim; who, having broken his perspective glass, wished to procure another by purchase or barter: a polite answer was returned, and steps taken to gratify

tify his wishes. As we, on our part, expressed a desire to visit the king at Domoni, the prince's messenger told us, that his master would, no doubt, lend us palanquins (for there was not an horse in the island), and order a sufficient number of his vassals to carry us, whom we might pay for their trouble, as we thought just: we commissioned him, therefore, to ask that favour, and begged that all might be ready for our excursion before sunrise, that we might escape the heat of the noon, which, though it was, the middle of winter, we had found excessive. The boy, whose name was Combo Madi, stayed with us longer than his companion; there was something in his look so ingenious, and in his broken English so simple, that we encouraged him to continue his innocent prattle. He wrote and read Arabick tolerably well, and set down at my desire the names of several towns in the island, which, he first told me, was properly called Hinzuau. The fault of begging for whatever he liked, he had in common with the governor and other nobles, but barely in a greater degree: his first petition for some lavender water was readily granted; and a small bottle of it was so acceptable to him, that, if we had suffered him, he would have kissed our feet; but it was not for himself that he rejoiced so extravagantly; he told us, with tears starting from his eyes, that his mother would be pleased with it, and the idea of her pleasure seemed to fill him with rapture: never did I see filial affection more warmly felt, or more tenderly, and in my opinion unaffectedly expressed; yet this boy was not a favourite of the officers, who thought him artful. His mother's name, he said, was Fatima; and he importuned us to visit her; conceiving, I suppose, that all mankind must love and admire her: we promised to gratify him; and, having made him several presents, permitted him to return. As he reminded me of Aladdin

in the Arabian tale, I designed to give him that name in a recommendatory letter, which he pressed me to write, instead of St Domingo, as some European visitors had ridiculously called him; but, since the allusion would not have been generally known, and since the title of *Aldu'lain*, or *Eminence in Faith*, might have offended his superiors, I thought it advisable for him to keep his African name. A very indifferent dinner was prepared for us at the house of the Governor, whom we did not see the whole day, as it was the beginning of Ramadan, the Mahommedan Lent, and he was engaged in his devotions, or made them his excuse; but his eldest son sat by us, while we dined together with Musa, who was employed jointly with his brother Husain, as purveyor to the Captain of the frigate.

Having observed a very elegant shrub, that grew about six feet high in the court-yard, but was not then in flower, I learned with pleasure that it was *hinna*, of which I had read so much in Arabian poems, and which European botanists have ridiculously named *Larsonia*. Musa bruised some of the leaves, and, having moistened them with water, applied them to our nails, and the tips of our fingers, which in a short time became of a dark orange scarlet. I had before conceived a different idea of this dye, and imagined that it was used by the Arabs to imitate the natural redness of those parts in young and healthy persons, which in all countries must be considered as a beauty; perhaps a less quantity of *tinna*, or the same officinally prepared, might have produced that effect. The old men in Arabia used the same dye to conceal their grey hair, while their daughters were dying their lips and gums black, to set off the whiteness of their teeth; so universal in all nations and ages are personal vanity, and a love of disguising truth; though, in all cases, the farther our species recede from nature,

the

the farther they depart from true beauty; and men at least should disdain to use artifice or deceit for any purpose or on any occasion: if the women of rank at Paris, or those in London who wish to imitate them, be inclined to call the Arabs barbarians; let them view their own head-dresses and cheeks in a glass, and, if they have left no room for blushes, be inwardly at least ashamed of their coiffure.

In the afternoon I walked a long way up the mountains in a winding path amid plants and trees no less new than beautiful, and segretted exceedingly that very few of them were in blossom, as I then should have had leisure to examine them. Curiosity led me from hill to hill: and I came at last to the sources of a rivulet, which we had passed near the shore, and from

which the ship was to be supplied with excellent water. I saw no birds on the mountains but Guinea-fowl, which might have been easily caught: no insects were troublesome to me but musquitos; and I had no fear of venomous reptiles, having been assured that the air was too pure for any to exist in it; but I was often unwillingly a cause of fear to the gentle and harmless lizard, who ran among the shrubs. On my return I missed the path, by which I had ascended; but having met some blacks laden with yams and plantains, I was by them directed to another, which led me round thro' a charming grove of cocoa-trees, to the Governor's country-seat, where our entertainment was closed by a silabub, which the English had taught the Muselmans to make for them.

(To be continued.)

Observations on the Writings of Vida.

MARK HIERONYMUS VIDA was born at Cremona A. D. 1470. He was entered whilst very young into the congregation of the regular Canons of St Mark at Mantua: he remained in that society some time; then, quitting it, he went to Rome, where he was received into that of the regular Canons of the Lateran.

Vida's talent for poetry was the means of his introduction to Leo X. That Pope gave him the Priory of Saint Sylvester at Tivoli. It was here that he worked at his *Christiados* which the Pope had requested him to undertake.

Leo X. dying A. D. 1521, his successor, Clement VII. became the protector of Vida, and named him to the Bishoprick of Alba, in Montserrat, seated on the river Tenaro.

Vida retired to his diocese, where he signalized himself by his pastoral

vigilance, and where he instructed his flock as much by his eloquence, as by the striking example of his superior virtues. This prelate died A. D. 1566, having attained to the great age of 96 years.

Amongst the different poetical works which we owe to Vida, we must distinguish, 1st, "The Art of Poetry," published at Rome, 1527, 4to. which was reprinted at Oxford, 4to 1723.

2d, "A Poem upon Silk worms," printed at Lyons 1537, and at Bale, in Swisserland, in the same year.

3d, "A Poem upon Chefs." This Poem is in the edition of the Art of Poetry, printed at Rome in 1527.

4th, "Hymni de rebus Divinis," printed at Lovain, 4to. 1552.

5th, "Christiados, Libri sex," printed at Cremona, 4to. 1535.

The other writings of Vida are,

1st, "Dialogues upon the dignity of the Republick," 8vo. Cremona, 1556.

2d, "Discourse against Churls," printed at Paris, 8vo. 1562. This work is very scarce.

3d, "Synodical Constitutions, Letters, and some other Prose Writings," less interesting than his Poetry.

The edition of Vida's Poetical Works, printed at Cremona, 2 vols. 8vo. 1550, is complete, as well as those printed at Oxford, 1722, 1725, and 1733, in three volumes, 8vo.

The Art of Poetry, though it is not thought to hold the highest rank amongst Vida's Poetical Works, displays a lively genius, strong judgment, and cultivated taste. The style of it is easy and flowing, and charms by its facility. The precepts which it gives to Poets are distinguished by justness and taste. And what he says of Poetical Elocution is delivered with as much energy of thought, as graceful, appropriate, elegance of expression. But Vida's "Art of Poetry," as well as that of Scaliger, is rather the art of imitating Virgil, than the art of imitating nature.

The "Poem upon Silk worms" is the best of Vida's productions; it is more correct, more polished, and finished with more care, than his other works; and it contains a greater display of Poetical Images.

The "Poem upon Chefs" is allowed to hold the second rank amongst Vida's poetical writings.

"Christiados, Libri sex" is a Poem which has been much applauded; but Vida had been censured for having promiscuously mingled sacred and profane matters together; the fictions of the Heathen Mythology with the inspired Oracles of the Prophets.

Vida's prose works are much inferior to his poetical productions.

Lord Roscommon, in his "Essay on Translated Verse," has sometimes been indebted to Vida: but unless I

were to enter into a disquisition upon the marks of imitation, and to prove, "that coincidences of a certain kind, and in a certain degree, cannot fail to convict a writer of imitation," I could bring only a few instances, which would not perhaps be thought too remote, and turned from their original application, to be called Imitations.— To trace an idea to a latent source, sometimes requires labour from a writer, and more attention than most readers are disposed to bestow. The following Imitation, however, will not come under the above objection.

But here, c'en here, avoid th' extreme of such,

Who with excess of care correct too much. VIDA, Book III.

They who too formally on names insist,

Rather create than dissipate the mist;

And grow unjust by being over nice,

(For superstitious virtue turns to vice.)

Roscommon's Essay on Translated Verse. Townson's Edition, line 1084.

Avoid extremities; and shun the faults of such

As still are pleas'd too little or too much.

Pope's Essay on Criticism, line 386.

The following couplet of Pope is a nearer imitation of Roscommon, than that of Roscommon, just quoted, is of Vida—

A little learning is a dangerous thing;

Drink deep, or taste not the Pierian spring.

Pope's Essay on Criticism, line 217.

The soil intended for Pierian seeds

Must be well clear'd from rank pedantic weeds.

Roscommon's Essay on Translated Verse, p. 5.

Pope, in his "Art of Criticism," has made much use of Vida; but he has imitated him in his usual style of imitation; for his superior genius taught him to seize every beauty, and his intuitive taste to avoid every defect or impropriety of his author:— sometimes he would amplify a thought into

into a striking and beautiful simile; or condense a too diffuse one into a pointed aphorism. Like the Bee, he selected with wonderful sagacity sweets hidden from the unskilful, which, in passing through his mind, became a delicious repast; and of such specimens we may say,

“What oft was thought, but ne'er so well
express'd.”

Pope's Essay on Criticism, line 300.

Pope's attention, in the “*Essay on Criticism*,” was bent upon giving information; Vida's mind, in the “*Art*

of Poetry,” was fixed upon establishing his favourite system of Virgil's superiority. Pope is terse and elegant; Vida is diffuse, didactic and correct. Pope drew from every source; Vida only from Virgil's spring. Pope selected and created beauties for himself; Vida, the eulogist of Virgil, strove to find every excellence centered in him. Pope seems to promulgate the law like a Judge; Vida to comment upon it like a Reporter. Pope is the more elegant and pleasing instructor; Vida the more patient and elaborate teacher.

R E V I E W.

Abstract of the Evidence delivered before a Select Committee of the House of Commons, in the years 1790 and 1791, on the part of the Petitioners for the Abolition of the Slave Trade. 8vo. 155 pages. Philips.

THE attention of the public has, for several years past, been turned to the subject of the Slave Trade; the humane exertions of Mr Sharp, Mr Ramsay, and, above all, the indefatigable Mr Clarkson, have awakened the curiosity, and roused the feelings, of many in different parts of the kingdom, to examine, with some care, the nature and proceedings of this disgusting traffic, and the consequences with which it is followed, both in Africa and the West Indies. Inquiries in consequence were set on foot, facts were collected, and practices, formerly unnoticed or unknown, were brought into public view. The result was, that numbers, both of individuals and bodies of men, struck with the enormity of the guilt & misery superinduced by this trade, took up, with a zeal that did them much honour, the cause of the oppressed and injured negroes; societies were formed, and numerous petitions presented to Parliament, for the abolition of a traffic that seemed the opprobrium of human nature. Influenced by these representations, the Ministry thought

it necessary to institute inquiries, and many witnesses on both sides were examined before the Privy Council. This evidence was printed, with a view to its being made use of by the Members of Parliament in forming their opinions on the subject: but the House of Commons very properly refused being bound by any evidence that had not been taken by their own authority, and therefore resolved to examine witnesses on the subject before a Select Committee appointed for that purpose. The Slave Merchants and Planters accordingly brought forward several persons as witnesses; the first in behalf of the continuance of the Slave Trade, the latter in defence of Colonial Slavery. These were heard and examined in the years 1789 and 1790. Several petitions were afterwards called on the side of the petitioners, to substantiate the foundation of their several petitions, and to invalidate several points of the evidence which the others had offered. These were examined in the years 1790 and 1791. The mass of evidence which

thus

these examinations produced was printed for the use of the Members of the House of Commons; but as it formed six folio vols. it was almost impossible for the public at large to derive much information on the subject from the publication. Exclusive of the difficulty of obtaining a copy, the very bulk of the work was sufficient to repel even the most zealous from perceiving what would require so much time to go through. The only mode, therefore, by which the important and interesting facts contained in that publication could be generally circulated; was by concentrating them as far as possible, stripping off unnecessary repetitions, and presenting them in a form accessible to the bulk of readers who wished to examine the subject. This has been done, so far as relates to one side of the cause, with great accuracy and ability in the publication before us, in which, besides the abridgement of the evidence, we have it likewise arranged and methodised, so as to exhibit the clearest and most interesting view of the various points to be attended to in the discussion of the complex, though interesting topic.

It cannot be expected that we should be able to give an exact account of all the particulars contained in this work; an abridgement of an abstract must in most cases be useless. All that can be done is, to state a few of the particulars on which the evidence here detailed or given has established, and the general conclusions that may fairly be drawn from them: to those who are interested in or wish to understand the subject, we earnestly recommend the perusal of this small tract; and can assure them that they, in doing so, will find no cause to regret their labour.

The picture, indeed, exhibited in this disclosure of "the secrets of the prison-house" is far from pleasing. Scenes of cruelty, injustice, oppression, and misery, crowd upon us. For the honour of humanity we could have

wished it otherwise, but while truth guides the pencil, the portrait must be of use. Secrecy and concealment appear to have been all along aimed at by the friends of the Slave Trade; they knew that deeds of darkness would not bear the light: now that the enormities of the traffic are dragged into open day, it is much to be wished that they may no longer be suffered to remain the disgrace of a polished age.

The preface to the Abstract contains some judicious remarks on the characters and credibility of the evidences on each side of this cause. Of those brought forward by the Slave Merchants and Planters, it is observed, there are few who are not *deeply interested* in the testimony they had given, and the event of the decision.—Of those who fall not under this description, the evidence is unsatisfactory and inconclusive;—unsatisfactory, from the want of opportunities of information;—and inconclusive, from its going only to a few particular instances, which might probably take place, though the general facts were in all respects as stated by those on the other side. The evidence again adduced by the petitioners for the abolition, comes from persons whose opportunities of information were abundant,—who can have no possible interest to bias them in giving their testimony;—and many of whom came forward as witnesses, from a sense of duty alone, even against their apparent interest, and under the prospect of suffering by their zeal. From this statement of the characters of those who have given evidence in the cause,—a statement, which seems indeed fully established in the preface,—and undeniably confirmed, so far as regards the witnesses for the abolition, by an alphabetical list of them, with their designations, and means of information, shortly pointed out, there seems to be little room for determining to which of them most credit is to be given.—

given.—It must indeed be satisfactory to the reader, to find that he can trust, with implicit confidence, to the facts here spoken to, the character of the witnesses being sufficient to preclude all dubiety.

The Abstract is divided into sixteen chapters;—the two first relate to the manner of procuring the Slaves in Africa;—the third, to their situation in the Middle Passage;—the fourth, to their condition and treatment in the West Indies;—the fifth, to the characters of the Africans;—the sixth and seventh, to the practicability of establishing and carrying on a trade with the natives of Africa without dealing in Slaves;—the eighth and ninth, to the effects of the Slave Trade on the sailors employed in it;—the tenth, to the comparative situation of the Africans in their own country and the West Indies;—the five following, to the possibility of keeping up a sufficient stock of Slaves from their own increase by population, without further importation, and the regulations necessary for effecting this—and the last chapter, to the policy of extending the cultivation of sugar colonies by fresh Slaves, in place of waiting for a supply by natural increase.

Such is the comprehensive plan of this work. The reader will perceive that it embraces every question that can be agitated on the subject of the Slave Trade.—It is but justice to add, that on every one the evidence is pointed and decisive, the facts convincing, and the natural conclusions from them (tho' not drawn expressly in this work, which gives only facts) plain and inevitable.

In regard to the *manner of procuring* the Slaves, it appears that this is done by *war*, as it is called, by accusations of crimes, and by kidnapping. The *wars* are not, as it has often been asserted, contests of ambition, or such disputes as, in the natural course of events, frequently arise between neighbouring nations,

when prisoners of war are taken and sold, to prevent their being put to death;—no, they are mere marauding, predatory expeditions, excited by the European traders, frequently practised by the petty princes against their own subjects, and carried on solely for the purpose of getting Slaves. Facts in proof of this are given by many witnesses who saw the parties go out on the horrid errand, were eye-witnesses of the burning and desolated villages, and learned from the unfortunate captives the sad story of their woes. The *Criminal Accusations* are charges of crimes, sometimes impossible and absurd, and sometimes committed by the culprits in consequence of seductions used for the purpose of getting them reduced to captivity: in both cases, the family frequently all suffer for the sake of their children. The real criminals, against whom their punishment of captivity is justly awarded, amount not perhaps to the thousandth part of the Slaves carried from the coast.—The *kidnapping* is practised by the natives on one another, excited by the too powerful temptations of European luxuries, to a degree that excites horror. Friends, neighbours, even relations, deceive, entrap, and sell one another:—murders without number are the consequence,—and constant suspicion reigns through the country.—The Europeans are not inferior to the natives in these acts of iniquity; the traders make no scruple of kidnappings where it can be done without danger; the natives are marked when attending their business, or they are enticed on board the vessels, and detained, and forcibly carried off.

From this suspicious commencement of the traffic; the mode of conducting its subsequent assertions may be conjectured. Of these we have next an account in the abstract. The Africans come on board the vessels dejected and in despair;—they are immediately

immediately ironed, two and two together, and crowded in the ship's hold in a manner the most shocking that can be described. Of this last particular we have an ocular demonstration given by the draught of a Slave ship, and the manner in which the cargo is stowed; a more striking proof, perhaps, was never given of the length to which avarice and cruelty can go, in violating the feelings and aggravating the distresses of our fellow creatures, Tortures of every kind, and under every form, are common on the middle passage:—sometimes these are applied to force the unhappy captives to take food, sometimes in punishment for an attempt to escape. Some of these species of torture are here mentioned; and that heart must be callous indeed that does not shudder at the descriptions. Even without these, the corrupted air, the stench, the dirtiness, and the horror of their confinement, carry off the Slaves in multitudes. The march of death is accelerated to a degree almost inconceivable. The mode in which the survivors are sold on their arrival, is not less shocking to humanity than their treatment during the voyage.

Such is the nature of what properly constitutes the *Slave Trade*:—a trade begun in murder and robbery, carried on in cruelty, and ending in most galling oppression. After the Evidence here brought together we can scarce believe, or seriously imagine, that any *Regulation* of the Trade can make it consistent with justice or humanity. “It can never, as justly here observed, cure melancholy, or a diseased mind; it can never prevent an injured people from rising, if out of irons; nor can it take away corrupted air, unless it reduce the number to be carried so low, as not to make it worth the while of the Slave Merchants to transport them.” We will add, as little can it cure the insatiable avarice of the

Slave catchers, or the hard-hearted barbarity of their transporters. To talk of regulating such a trade is idle; to teach decorum to a band of maniacs; to train the tyger to the spaniel's movements, or set to music the cry of hell hounds,—would be fully as practicable as to regulate the Slave trade by the laws of justice or humanity.

From the mode of procuring and transporting the Slaves, the Abstract goes on to their treatment in the West Indies. The Africans are considered there “as a species of inferior beings, whom the right of purchase gives the owner a power of using at his will.” Their labour is most severe, and urged on with the whip by inhuman and wanton drivers, who seem to take pleasure in their sufferings;—little respite is allowed them, even Sunday ‘shines no Sabbath day’ to them. Their food is in general scanty, and often unwholesome; their houses are miserable hovels, almost destitute of furniture. Of all these facts the most satisfactory evidence is here adduced; it is unnecessary to enter into particulars, which would lead into too copious extracts; but one sort of the work exacted from the negroes we cannot help specifying, as a proof at once of the light in which these people are regarded by their oppressors, and of the lengths in depravity to which avarice and tyranny will go. It appears that it is a practice (and from the manner in which it is spoken of it would seem not uncommon) for women,—women too not mentioned as of disreputable characters, but we suppose “good as in these countries deem'd,” to keep female negroes, whom they turn out for prostitution, and oblige to bring home the wages of their iniquity!—On this fact we shall make no comment, but leave our readers to imagine, if they can, what must be the state of manners and of morals in a country where such women are not banished from all creditable society.

The account of the labour of the Slaves is followed by a detail of their punishments. These are indeed of a piece with the other parts of their usage. Flogging, to a degree of cruelty to which our severest military punishments are trifling,—thumb-screws,—iron boots,—iron collars,—suspension by the hands and thumbs,—cruel beatings and maimings,—with others still more shocking, are frequent, and in many places almost general. These are inflicted at the will of a cruel master, an inhuman driver, and we are sorry to add, often of a capricious *mistress*, for instances are here given of *ladies* ordering, superintending, and even with their own hands inflicting these punishments. Against all this accumulated bad usage, it clearly appears that the Slaves have little or no protection, and the laws in their favour are of no avail whatever. We would recommend the whole of the 4th chapter of this work as the completest refutation of two assertions boldly made by the friends of Slavery; the one, that the Slaves live more happily than the labouring poor in this country,—and the other, that the master's own interest will secure them good treatment:—two assertions which it would be losing time to refute, and which no man, who has at all examined the subject, can possibly believe.

In the fifth chapter we have some striking and even affecting instances of the general goodness of disposition, as well as capacity for every species of improvement, in these oppressed and injured Africans;—the sixth and seventh chapters prove clearly what this country might gain by a trade with Africa, for its valuable productions vegetable and mineral; as the natives would be both able and willing to enter into such a traffic, were the Slave Trade once fairly annihilated. To this wished-for event, we sincerely hope the newly established Sierra Leona Company will effectually contribute, by opening channels of trade with the

Africans, which will soon supersede the barter of human creatures for European commodities.

That the Slave Trade is the grave of our seamen; that in it they are treated with a cruelty almost equal to that of the negroes, and that it operates among this useful class of men with the fury of a pestilence, are next established upon evidence equally clear with the foregoing. Out of 12,263 seamen employed in this trade, we find 2643 died, and only 5760 returned home, the remainder being, in one way or other, lost to their country.

The absurd idea entertained by some, that the Africans are happier in the European colonies than in their own country, is combated with many decisive facts in the tenth chapter.

The possibility of keeping up the stock of slaves without importation, is next adverted to, and we apprehend completely proved. The regulations necessary to affect this are mentioned; they are those which humanity would dictate, which justice might even demand, and which sound policy, were it understood, on every estate, would enforce. These we shall not attempt to particularise, but content ourselves with referring our readers to the last six chapters of this Abstract, where they will find them clearly detailed, and their propriety established almost beyond a doubt. We are the more concise on this head, as we really conceive that, to the enlightened philosopher and the friend of mankind, it will appear less necessary to be insisted on. If slavery and the Slave Trade are attended with the evils already stated, no narrow maxims of crooked policy should be allowed to interfere and prevail to the continuance of such a practice. Granting that the stock of slaves could not be kept up without importation, does that afford the slightest apology for our wading through blood and slaughter, through cruelty and unheard-of barbarity, to procure the instruments of gain or the objects of luxury?

Covetousness its own Punishment; a Tale.

IN the city of Mexico, as we are told by that famous and much to be depended on historian Father Giardino, there lived a certain gentleman, called Don Cavanilla Quignata-Lorenzano, who had once followed the profession of a scrivener, but had now betaken himself to that honourable and useful employment, the assisting of his fellow-creatures with a portion of his own wealth at certain cent. interest, vulgarly denominated usury. This worshipful person, in the fiftieth and fourth year of his age, entered into a contract of matrimony with the virtuous Donna Estifania Montencella, in the eight and thirtieth year of hers. To this transaction he was the rather induced, not more on account of the beauty of her person and the qualities of her mind, than because she was very rich, and as careful of her money as he was of his. Already had Lorenzano passed ten good years with his dame in the honourable state of holy matrimony, without however enjoying the comforts of a family of children; for the want of which blessing he comforted himself in public by expressing his thankfulness to Providence for being thus freed of a multitude of cares, and in private by the thoughts of the great expence he was thus saved; for as the prudent Lorenzano hardly allowed himself the necessaries of life, wisely considering that his riches, great as they were, might make to themselves wings and fly away, you may judge whether he would have relished the expence attending the feeding, the clothing, and educating a numerous family. He was wise from observation; for his father disinherited his elder brother, because he was a thoughtless, gay, extravagant youth, and left his fortune to Lorenzano, whose dispositions were similar to his own. Of this he had many proofs; but one in particular determined him; for, when a favourite dog which was warmly attached to Lorenzano, having grown up with him from his infancy, had become too old to go abroad to find its food in the dung-hills or on the streets, he had shut it out of the house, and allowed it to die for want.

When Lorenzano had not occasion to go to market for the purchase of victuals, an expedition which he took perhaps twice a month, he seldom left the house. When he appeared in the streets the children used to run after him, and a mischievous little rogue would often pick an onion out of his pocket through the holes of his old cloke as he was travelling homeward laden with vegetables.

His coat was so ancient, and had been so often patched, that few people in Mexico remembered its original colour; the thrifty Donna Estifania had exerted her skill on it with such success, that it not only for-

tified her good man from the inclemency of the weather, but might have defended him from the effect of a bullet had it been aimed at him. Of similar or superior strength were a pair of jack-boots which he constantly wore: these, by frequent accretions of contributory leather to the legs, and of tinplate nailed to the soles, became so strong, that they might well have served as buckets to the most frequented well in Mexico. But that he might not be quite borne down with the weight of his apparel, he uniformly carried in his right hand a thick knobbed stick, which not only served him for support, but as a defence against the noisy curs of the city, which always barked at him as he passed along. At his left side he likewise wore a sword, which resembled, as one egg does another, that of the renowned Sir Hudibras, as friend Butler describes it. Notwithstanding this miserable armour and sorry apparel, he never forgot to display the ensigns of an order of knighthood conferred on him by a late Viceroy of his Catholic Majesty, for certain services rendered to the revenues of the state of Mexico, or rather to the emoluments of the said Viceroy. Certainly the insignia of that celebrated order had never hung on the breast of a more miserable subject; but it convinced the people of Mexico, that a dung-hill cannot receive lustre even from a diamond.

It happened one fine morning in the Spring, that Lorenzano set out for the fields in the neighbourhood of the city to gather simples for a peccoral draught, more salutary than tea, to his consort; and to regale himself with a fresh salad, made luxurious by the thought that he should pay nothing for it. As he passed some magnificent country seats without the town, he observed below a tree an Indian servant, whom sleep had overtaken, and beside whom lay a pair of delicate new boots, which attracted the eager gaze, and excited the covetous desires of our noble knight. He spoke and coughed aloud, and when he saw that the sleeper did not awake, he considered this as a charming opportunity to possess himself of a pair of new boots at no expence. He quickly disengaged himself of his own old servants, which he laid down beside the Indian, and having made free with the new ones, he scampered off with as much celerity as if he had been running for a wager.

With what joy, when he got home, did he relate in secret to his spouse his successful trick, and with what rapture did he survey his well-dressed feet!

"God knows, said he to himself, it was a lucky hour when I first thought of going out to gather simples."

Next

Next day he went to church, assisted with much devotion at a mass, and gave a few counterfeits maravedis in charity. But scarcely had he turned his back on the church, when he felt himself suddenly seized by the shoulder, and looking about, saw an Indian servant in the livery of the Viceroy, crying aloud "this is the thief, this is the thief."

"What do you mean, rascal?" said Lorenzано, somewhat confidently.

"Sennor Caballero, replied the Indian, you have stolen these boots, which belong to the Viceroy. They are a present from the king of Quizzimoro, who, to pass the tedious hours, and to drive away melancholy, diverts himself with the making of boots. I will prove it, for the king stamps under the instep of all his boots his own mark, which is a golden sun."

At this instant by chance there was passing an Alguazil, and Lorenzано was immediately carried before the judge: the boots were discovered to be his Majesty of Quizzimoro's own make, and to be the identical boots that were sent by him to the viceroy. The bystanders, well acquainted with the covetous disposition of Lorenzано, rejoiced to hear him condemned to pay a fine of a thousand doubloons, with costs of suit. The Alguazil called a hackney coach, made Lorenzано enter it, mounted after him; and driving to his house received from the trembling hands of the petrified knight the whole money, gave him a discharge for it, and leaving his own old jackboots, laughed in his face, and bid him good morrow.

"Ah! merciful God! cried Donna Estifania, tearing, like another Medusa, a handful of hair out of her head, what an infamous rogue have I for a husband! a thousand doubloons! I am ruined and undone!"

"God knows, said Lorenzано, with loud lamentation, it was an unlucky hour when I first thought of going out to gather simples."

With a look, furious as Othello's, he cast his eyes on the jack-boots which the Alguazil had left in the middle of the room, and, springing up, he threw them both out of the window into the lake.

It happened that about this time two fishermen, his neighbours, who had spread their net in the morning, were now preparing to draw it, and finding an unusual weight in it, "Neighbour, said one of them, God has been good to us this morning; the net is so heavy that it is impossible it can be with fish; who knows but we have found a treasure? some box of money or jewels, or something as valuable, is certainly in the net."—Accordingly they set to with all their might to haul the net ashore; but what was their grief when, instead of the treasure they had flattered themselves with finding, they saw

only the monstrous jackboots which had torn more than an hundred holes in their only net. Full of indignation at their misfortune, and chagrined at their disappointed hopes, they took up the boots and threw them in at the window of the disconsolate knight, as he sat ruminating on his late disaster. Unluckily one of them happened to strike upon a cabinet containing a magnificent service of porcelaine, given to Lorenzано in pawn for a large sum of money, which it brought to the ground with a hideous crash, and the whole contents were shivered to atoms.

"O these cursed jackboots, cried Donna Estifania; would they and that old villain, who will bring me to a bit of bread, were both at the devil! God pity me, and forgive all my sins."

"Alas! sobbed Lorenzано, miserable man that I am! how unlucky has been the hour that first led me out to gather simples."

"Out of the house this instant, cried Estifania, with your vile boots, and let me never see an atom of them more."

Lorenzано took up the unfortunate boots, and at night went into his garden, where, by the light of a farthing candle which glimmered through an old broken lantern, he dug a hole, and committed his ill-fated boots to the cold ground.

A neighbour of his, by trade a joiner, had once been employed in mending some old furniture for our honourable knight, but had been paid so scurvily for his labour, that he still bore the old man a grudge.—This man happening to see Sennor Lorenzано so late at work in his garden, suspected that something unlawful was going on, and therefore he called his neighbours about him.

In the mean time Lorenzано had gone to another spot, where, without the knowledge of his lady wife, he had concealed a little casket with some jewels, to see if they were still safe, and he found them so: He sat himself down beside the casket, which he opened, and with such secret joy contemplated his hidden treasure, that he almost forgot his late misfortunes.

The following day the joiner waited on a magistrate, and related to him what he and his neighbours had seen. It was immediately suspected that Lorenzано had found a treasure; and as by the law of the country every valuable thing found under the earth belongs to his Catholic Majesty, a deputation was forthwith dispatched, headed by the joiner and a notary, to the garden of Lorenzано, who soon dug up the casket with the jewels.

"You know, I presume, Sennor, said the notary, that all treasures in the bowels of the earth belong of right to our liege lord

his Catholic Majesty; and that when they are found they must be delivered up to the council of state."

"I know it well, said Lorenziano, trembling; but this casket is my own private property."

"Your own private property!"

"Yes, upon my honest word, it is."

Why would you bury it, then, said the notary, if it were your own private property? no, no, that is but a pretence. These jewels must have been deposited in the earth by some of the inhabitants at the time of the siege of the town by Cortez, and our valiant ancestors; it could not be you who buried them."

"By the blessed virgin, said Lorenziano, they were worn by my own mother."

Do not call the blessed virgin, said the notary, to palliate your crime, or to witness your imposition; 'tis a better employed than to vouch for your falsehoods. I hereby seize and confiscate these jewels in the name of his Catholic Majesty and of the council of state."

"Ah! wretch that I am!" exclaimed Lorenziano. "And to punish you, continued the notary, for having attempted to embezzle this treasure, by concealing it, I hereby further decree, that you immediately pay a fine of one thousand doubloons, together with the expences of this deputation."

It was in vain that Lorenziano protested and swore, and raved like one possessed: he was obliged to pay the money; and the casket with the jewels was carried off by the deputation in proper form.

When Donna Estifania was made acquainted with these proceedings, she fell into fits, she seized a knife with which she was going to finish her own existence; but reflecting better upon the business, her rage took another turn, and she vented it on the unhappy Lorenziano with such effect, that he retained the marks of it in his side for many a day.

The poor wretch went out full of anguish into his garden, dug up his jack-boots, and threw them when it was night into the canal that ran through his street. It is well known that canals run through all the streets of Mexico, which are furnished with grates at particular places.

In the morning, nobody in the neighbourhood could get out of their house; for the monstrous jack-boots had planted themselves against the grate of that street, like a pair of dragons before an enchanted castle; and so prevented the water from passing, that the whole street was overflowed. The officers of the police immediately went to visit the grate, and finding the jack-boots of the unhappy Lorenziano choking it up, they took them out, and proceeded with them to his house. Sore from the bruises of yester-

day, Lorenziano could hardly move from his bed; but upon hearing an alarm without, he crawled to the window, and seeing the inundation, his fears gave him a true foreboding of what was to happen.

The waters were no sooner let off than a body of city officers approached his house, bearing the jack-boots like trophies on a long pole before them.

"Ah! God pity me! cried Lorenziano, they are bringing back those damn'd boots that I last night threw into the kennel."

"Into the kennel did you throw them?" said Estifania, with a voice not much calculated to sooth his sorrows, or allay his apprehensions: O thou stupid wretch! dost thou not know how strictly it is forbidden to throw any thing there. Certainly the boots have stopt up the grate and caused this overflow of the water. We are undone."

"It is as I feared," sighed Lorenziano. The officers entered the house, threw down the jack-boots, and led Lorenziano on before the judge.

Here he was accused of contempt of the law, by throwing his jack-boots into the canal, and of preventing the whole inhabitants of the street from going about their lawful occupations, by the inundation he had occasioned. He was fined in a thousand doubloons, and ordained to pay damages and expences.

No sooner had he paid the money than he ran to his kitchen, made a fire upon the hearth, and threw in his jack-boots. "If the water will not keep you said he, I will make fire finish you." The boots which had lain all night in the water, were so wet that they put out the fire when they were thrown into it. "What, said he, do you defy even the flames? What witches and magicians cannot resist, will you, a pair of infernal jack-boots, think to escape? No, if you were salamanders, or asbestos itself you shall burn. With these words, he brought all the dry wood he could find, and made such a fire, that at last the flames reached the roof, and set fire to the house. Immediately the cry of fire resounded through the city. Estifania fainted; and had not Lorenziano thrown a whole pitcher of water about her ears, she would probably have given up the ghost.

In the mean time, the fire was got under without doing any considerable damage; but Lorenziano for his carelessness, and the alarm he had given to the city, was fined in another thousand doubloons, and to pay all expences. He was obliged to submit and pay the money, and a sigh and a tear dropt on every piece as he counted it.

"Since the unhappy day that I went to gather simples—

"Hold your tongue, cries Estifania, vile wretch."

"For

"For God's sake, dear Fanny, replies the Knight, allow me to speak, else my heart will burst with vexation. Since that unhappy botanical expedition, misfortunes have fallen thick upon me! those infernal boots—4000 doubloons with costs, and a box of jewels! The boots of my whole family, since the expulsion of the moors from Granada, never cost half the sum."

"I am the most miserable of all miserable women, cried Estifania! Little joy have I had in my married state; but I desire you once for all to take these hateful boots from my sight. Would to God I had never seen either you or them, for you will bring me to beggary."

"I have thrown them, says Lorenzано, into the lake, into the kennel, into the fire, and I have buried them in the earth. I shall try if all the elements are in league against me. I shall hang them out in the free air, that they may rot like a thief on the gallows."

He immediately went and secured them upon a nail on the wall of his house near the window of his own chamber; and when they had hung there several days, he congratulated himself on his invention, and rejoiced that at last he had got those cursed boots disposed of, that had wrought him so much vexation and distress.

In a short time, the boots were observed by the boys in the street, who began to divert themselves by throwing stones at them, and happy was he, who was lucky enough to hit them. The boys were often indeed chased away by Lorenzано, who did not relish their sport; but the boots were so excellent a mark, that they soon returned. One day as the Knight was sitting ruminating on his losses, an unlucky stone, that had been aimed at the boots, took a wrong direction, and entering the window, struck poor Lorenzано on the mouth, and drove out two of the few teeth he had remaining. Smarting with pain, and mad with resentment, he hastily armed himself with his knobbed stick, and ran into the street—but the boys, more nimble than he, were soon out of his reach, and he was obliged to return into his house unrevenged. He concealed himself behind the door, however, to be in readiness to bolt out upon the first attack made on his boots. Some other boys, who did not know of the accident which had just happened, soon began to take their accustomed diversion, when suddenly Lorenzано quitting his hiding place, sallied out to the street, and blind with rage, mistook the object of his resentment, and unfortunately struck one of the Viceroy's pages, who was accidentally passing, such a blow on the head, that the blood gushed at once from his mouth and nostrils.

The boys ran away, and Lorenzано, who saw his mistake, slunk back to his house trembling.

Estifania, who was looking out of the window when this unhappy *qui pro quo* took place, grew instantly frantic, sunk into a chair, and fell into a fit. In a little time, a knocking was heard at the door, and Lorenzано judging rightly that it was an officer of justice who demanded admittance, had not courage to face him, but retreated for protection to the chamber of his wife.—Reader, you may have heard of the unhappy Orestes, who, when flying from the vengeance of his frantic mother found his retreat cut off, and the furies themselves obstructing his escape. But had Tiphphoe or Megera, or their offspring whose name I have forgot, been present in their proper persons, they could not have offered a more horrid sight to the view of the terrified Lorenzано than did the countenance of his own wife. I shall not attempt to describe the scene that followed. Lorenzано attended the officer to the presence of the judge, and was, upon a deliberate investigation of the whole affair, condemned to pay a fine of a thousand doubloons to the party for the injury he had sustained, and a thousand more as a satisfaction to the public for so flagrant a breach of the peace.

Scarcely had he crawled home, and paid the money, than his ears were saluted with a dreadful uproar in the street; an hundred women's voices were discernible that struck the heart of our Knight with apprehension and dismay. Estifania approached the window, and saw a crowd gathered round a woman whom they were carrying into a house.—This was the wife of an eminent baker in the city, who was passing by the house of Lorenzано at the very moment when, as ill luck would have it, the string that supported the eventful boots gave way, and down they came upon the head of this good lady, whom they brought along with them to the ground. "O the old hunks, cried the women! must he hang out his boots over the street to murder people as they pass along—poor Mrs Sesame, she was three weeks gone with child, heaven knows if she will get over it. If the old Jew is not well soufed for this, there is neither law nor justice in Mexico."

Lorenzано found to his cost, that there was no want of either; for he was fined in another thousand doubloons, and the money given to the baker for the injury done to his wife.

"Was ever man so punished, said Lorenzано for a pair of old boots! I beseech you said he to the judge, for the love of God, to rid me of these accursed instruments of my ruin; they have made me now the poor-

est man in Mexico. I leave them with you, and implore you to keep them, and preserve me from utter destruction.

The judge consented, upon his paying a certain sum for the trouble of the deposit;

and those famous jackboots are now to be seen among the curiosities of Mexico, hung up as a monument of the baneful effects of covetousness and dishonesty.

Poetry.

WRITTEN BY MR BURNS, THE SCOT'S
PORT, WHEN CAPT. GROSE WAS IN
SCOTLAND IN 1790 [OR 1791].

HEAR, land o' cakes, and brither Scots,
Frae Maiden Kirk to Johnie Groat's;
If there's a hole in a' your coats,
I rode, ye tent it;
A child's amang you taking notes,
And faith he'll prent it.

If in your bounds ye chance to sight
Upon a fine, fat, fadgel wight,
O' stature short, but genius bright,
That's he——mark weel!
And woe he has an unco sight,
O' cawk and keek

At some auld howlet-haunted biggin,
Or kirk deserted by its riggin,
It's ten to ane you'll find him foug in
Some eldritch part,
Wi' dech, they say, Lord fate's! colleguing
At some black art.

Ilk ghast that haunts auld ha' or chamer,
Ye Gipsies-gang, that deal in glammer,
And you, deep read in Hell's black grammaer,
Warlocks and witches!
Ye'll quake at his conjuring hammer,
Ye midnight bitches!

It's tauld he was a soder bred,
And ane would rather fa' than fled,
But now he's quot the sperle blade,
And dog-skin wallet,
And ta'en the Antiquarian trade,
I think they call it.

He hath a south o' old nick-nackets,
Roufky airn caps and gingling jackets,
Would haud the Lothians three in tacketts
A towmonth gude;
And pitcher-pots, and auld fan buckets,
Afore the flood.

Besides, he'll cut you off fi' gieg
The shape of Adam's phillibeg,
The knife that cuttet Abel's Craig,
He'll prove you fully,
It was a fauldin jackteleg,
Or lang kail gully.

But would you see him in his glee,
(For mickle glee and fun has he.)
Then set him down, and twa or three
Gude fellows wi' him,
And port, O port! shine thou a wee,
And then you'll see him!

U. S. Vol. XIV. No. 82.

Now by the powers o' verbe and profe,
Thou' art a dainty chield, O Grose!
Whae'er o' thee shall ill suppose,
They fair misfa' thee!
I'd tak the rascal by the nose,
Would say, I shame fa' thee!

ODE TO CHEARFULNESS,

BY E. BRITLEY.

HAIL! Virgin of æthereal birth,
Thou more lovely far than mirth,
O hither bend thy way!
Come, beauteous nymph, serenely smiling,
Ev'ry anxious thought beguiling,
Thou mak'st each prospect gay.

Thine eye with joy young spring beholds
When nature ev'ry charm unfolds,
And spreads thy fav'rite hue;
When Eurus to his cave retires,
And Zephyrs fan those glowing fires
That verdant life renew.

Thou lov'st to range the fields at dawn,
Or meet the shepherds on the lawn,
At leisure Eve's advance;
Brisk Sport comes tripping o'er the reed,
And sweetly sounds his oaten reed,
And joins the rural dance.

Not e'en hoar winter's dreary sway,
Nor freezing blast can thee dismay,
Nor change thy sprightly mien;
Tis then thou seek'st the social band,
And o'er their minds, with gentle hand,
Diffuses joy serene.

Though absent sol his ray denies,
Round the bright flame which art supplies,
The friendly train regale;
Some fairy legend each imparts,
Whilst rapt attention, gazing, starts
At ev'ry wondrous tale.

Thy presence charms stern grief to rest,
Thy light illumes th' untaught breast,
Sweet sister of content;
Like her thou fly'st th' abandon'd mind,
Where guilt, despair, and shame combin'd,
Their hapless prey torment.

What magic in thy aspect dwells!
That melancholy's mist dispels;
What graces round thee shine!
Sweet pleasure ever near thee stands.
With transport, whose high soul expands
And soars to realms divine!

ON

ON A TEAR.

OH! that the Chemist's magic art
 Could chrysalize this sacred treasure!
 Long should it glitter near my heart,
 A secret source of penive pleasure.

The little brilliant, ere it fell,
 It's lustre caught from Chloë's eye;
 Then, trembling, left its coral cell—
 The Spring of Sensibility!

Sweet drop of pure and pearly light!
 In thee the rays of Virtue shine
 More calmly clear, more mildly bright,
 Than any gem that gilds the mine.

Benign restorer of the soul!
 Who ever fly'st to bring relief,
 When first she feels the rude control
 Of Love or Pity, Joy or Grief.

The Sage's and the Poet's theme,
 In every clime, in every age;
 Thou charm'st in Fancy's idle dream,
 In reason's Philosophic page.

That very Law which moulds a tear,
 And bids it trickle from its source,
 That law preserves the earth a sphere,
 And guides the planets in their course.

To Mr POWELL,

THE CELEBRATED WALKER.

HE who an animal bestrides,
 No pleasant sight is while he rides,
 T' impartial reason's view;
 His need of others legs to move,
 His whip, his spur, concur to prove
 Him weak and cruel too.

How much then is the human race
 Indebted to your wondrous pace,
 Performer of such courses,
 As have demonstrated mankind
 A speed possess with strength combin'd,
 Unequall'd yet by horses!

To celebrate the generous deed
 That bore away the palm for speed,
 At Grecian games bestow'd,
 The Theban, by a King's desire,
 Exerting all his force and fire,
 Compos'd the Lyric Ode.

To you, much more deserving praise,
 Why not address applauding lays?
 What such reward should hinder?
 Let us from Greece example take,
 Let some skill'd hand the lyre awake,
 And Powell have his Pindar.

But seek not *Peter*; him you'd find
 A serpent of the fiercest kind
 In point of teeth and tongue;
 Hence often he the best has bit,
 Corrosive venom often spit,
 And hiss'd—but never sung.
Wraggerd, Sept. 24, 1791.

O D E,

By PETER PINDAR, Esq.

NEAR yonder solitary tower,
 'Lone glooming 'midst the moony
 light,
 I roam at midnight's spectred hour,
 And climb the wild majestic height:
 Low to the mountain let me rev'rend bow,
 Where Wisdom, Virtue, taught their fountains
 to flow.

Pale on a rock's aspiring steep,
 Behold a Druid sits forlorn,
 I see the white rob'd phantom weep,
 I hear his harp of sorrow mourn.
 The vanish'd grove provokes his deepest
 sigh,
 And altars open'd to the gazing eye,

Permit me, Druid, here to stray,
 And ponder 'mid thy drear retreat;
 To wail the solitary way
 Where wisdom held her hallow'd feat;
 Here let me roam, in spite of Folly's smile,
 A penive Pilgrim, o'er each pitied pile.

Poor Ghost! no more the Druid race
 Shall here their sacred fires relume;
 No more their showers of incense blaze;
 No more their tapers gild the gloom.
 Lo! snakes obscene along the temples
 creep,
 And foxes on the broken altars sleep.

No more beneath the golden brook,
 The treasures of the grove shall fall;
 Time triumphs o'er each blasted oak,
 Whose power at length shall crush the
 ball.

Led by the wrinkled pow'r with gladden'd
 mien,
 Gigantic ruin treads the weeping scene.

No more the Bards in strains sublime
 The actions of the brave proclaim,
 Thus rescuing from the rage of Time
 Each glorious deed approv'd by Fame.
 Deep in the dust each lyre is laid unstring,
 While mute forever stops each tuneful
 tongue.

Here Wisdom's, Virtue's awful voice
 Inspir'd the Youths of Cornwall's plains:
 With such no more, their hills rejoice,
 But sullen, death-like, silence reigns.
 While melancholy, in yon mould'ring tow'r
 Sits list'ning to old Ocean's distant roar.

Let others, heedless of the Hill,
 With eye incurious pass along;
 My Muse with grief the scene shall fill,
 And swell with softest sighs her song.
 Ah! pleas'd each Druid mansion to deplore,
 Where Wisdom, Virtue, dwelt, but dwell no
 more.

THE

THE
Monthly Register
FOR OCTOBER 1791.

FOREIGN INTELLIGENCE.

EAST INDIES.

From the London Gazette Extraordinary of October 5. we have the following Letters.

To the Honourable Court of Directors for affairs of the Honourable the United Company of Merchants of England, trading to the East Indies.

HONOURABLE SIRS,

I SHALL not trouble your Honourable Court with an explanation of the nature of the incessant exertions both of body and mind which are required by the various duties of my present situation; nor should I have alluded to them, but I am under the indispensable necessity of stating them, as the cause of my being obliged, on this occasion, instead of entering into a detail of particulars, to limit myself to a concise and general account of our late operations, and of my future intentions.

Our preparations for the campaign having been completed at Madras, the army marched from Vellore on the 5th of February; and having reached Vellore on the 11th, we halted there two days, for the purpose of drawing from thence a supply to my Lock of provisions, and an addition that had been prepared to the battering train, and of receiving some stores and recovered men from Arnee.

I had, previous to my arrival at Vellore, employed every means in my power to obtain accurate descriptions of the different passes that lead into the Mysore country; and having found sufficient ground to be confident that the Moogly pass could be easily rendered practicable, I turned off to the right at Vellore, and not only ascended the pass without much difficulty, but by having taken a route that Tippoo does not seem to have expected, I was also lucky enough to advance a considerable way into

his country, before it was possible for him to give us the least obstruction.

The forts of Colar and Oufottah lay in our route to Bangalore, and surrendered to us without resistance; but as neither of them were in a tenable condition nor at that time of any value to us, I left them unoccupied, after disarming and dismissing their small garrisons.

I arrived before Bangalore on the afternoon of the 5th of March, and on the 6th the engineers were employed in reconnoitring the place both in the morning and evening; on their latter excursion Lieut. Col. Floyd, who escorted them with the whole cavalry, discovered the rear of Tippoo's line of march, apparently in great confusion, and unfortunately suffered himself to be tempted, by the flattering prospect of striking an important blow, to deviate from the orders he had received from me, and to attack the enemy. His success at first was great, but the length and arduousness of the pursuit threw his squadrons into great confusion. In this state they were charged by Tippoo's cavalry, and, being out of the reach of all support, they were obliged to retire with great precipitation, and with the loss of 200 men and 300 horses. Lieut. Col. Floyd received a very severe wound in the face, from which, however, I have the pleasure to add that he is now perfectly recovered.

The ill success of our examination, the fear of losing time, and many other circumstances, of which the hopes of obtaining a supply of forage was not the least, induced me to determine immediately to attack the fort from the Pettah side. The Pettah was accordingly assaulted, and carried on the morning of the 7th, and the siege of the fort, which was rendered singularly arduous not only by the scarcity of forage, and strength of its works and garrison, but also by the presence of Tippoo and his whole army, was happily terminated by an assault on the night of the 21st, in which the Keelidar, and a great number of his garrison, were put to the sword, and our loss, in proportion

tion to the nature of the enterprise, was extremely inconsiderable. I cannot, however, help expressing, on this occasion, my sincere regret for the death of that brave and valuable officer Lieut. Col. Moorhouse, who was killed at the assault of the Pettah, on the 7th of March.

I have not yet been able to obtain correct lists of the ordnance, or of the different articles that were found in the magazines of the place; and I can therefore only say in general, that there were upwards of one hundred serviceable pieces of ordnance, near fifty of which were brass, a large quantity of grain, and an immense depot of military stores.

Although Tippoo approached our position, and even cannonaded the camp, both on the 7th and 17th, yet on these occasions, and on all others during the siege, he took his measures with so much caution as to put it effectually out of my power to force him to risk an action; and on the night of the assault he retired, in great haste, from the south side of the fortrefs, where he was then posted, immediately upon his being acquainted with its fall. After giving some repairs to the breaches, making a number of necessary arrangements, and leaving the train of heavy artillery to be resisted during my absence, I moved from Bangalore on the 28th, with the design of securing a safe and speedy junction with a large body of cavalry that the Nizam had promised to send to me, and receiving a reinforcement of troops and a supply of provisions and stores, which I had some time before ordered to be in readiness to join me, by the way of Amboor, from the Carnatic, considering those as necessary preliminary measures for enabling me to proceed to the attack of Seringapatam; and I, at the same time, communicated my intentions to General Abercromby, and directed him to use every exertion in his power, that might be consistent with the safety of the corps under his command, to prepare himself in the manner that I prescribed, to give me essential assistance when I should reach the enemy's capital.

Tippoo having made a movement to the westward on the same day that I marched from the neighbourhood of Bangalore, I fell in with his rear at the distance of about eight or nine miles from that place; but, from the want of a sufficient body of cavalry, it was found impracticable, after a pursuit of considerable length, either to bring him to action, or to gain any advantage over him, except that of taking one brass gun, which, owing to its carriage breaking down, he was obliged to leave upon the road.

My first object being to form a junction with the Nizam's cavalry, I made such dispositions, or took such positions, as I knew

would effectually prevent Tippoo from intercepting them, or even from disturbing their march; but although I was at great pains to point out the safety of the march to Rajah Teiggwunt, and to encourage him to proceed, the effects of my recommendations and requests were but slow; and, after waste of time, which at this late season of the year was invaluable, and which almost exhausted my patience, the junction was not made till the 13th instant.

It is not easy to ascertain the number of the corps with precision, but I suppose it to amount to fifteen or sixteen thousand horse; and though they are extremely defective in almost every point of military discipline; yet, as the men are in general well mounted, and the chiefs have given me the strongest assurances of their disposition to do every thing in their power to promote the success of our operations, I am in great hopes that we shall derive material advantage from their assistance.

This junction being accomplished, I marched on to effect my next object without loss of time; and being arrived at my present camp on the 18th, and ordered the most expeditious measures to be taken for transporting the stores from the head of the pass, I shall commence my march again to the westward on the 22d; and, after calling at Bangalore for the heavy artillery, I trust that I shall find it practicable to reach Seringapatam before the 12th of next month.

No useful purpose could be promoted by my enumerating the difficulties which I have already encountered in carrying on the operations of this campaign, and it would be equally unprofitable to enlarge at present upon the obstacles which I foresee to our future progress; they are, however, of so weighty a nature, that under different circumstances I should undoubtedly act with more caution, and defer the attempt upon the enemy's capital till after the ensuing rains; but, acquainted as I am with the unsettled situation of political affairs in Europe, and knowing that a procrastinated war would occasion almost certain ruin to our finances, I consider it as a duty which I owe to my station, and to my country, to disregard the hazard to which my own military reputation may be exposed, and to prosecute, with every species of precaution that my judgment or experience can suggest, the plan which is most likely to bring the war to an early decision.

I have, at the same time, been the more encouraged to persevere in the execution of my original intentions, as both the Nizam and the Mahrattas have of late shewn an uncommon alacrity in fulfilling their engagements, which, by the smallest appearance of backwardness on our part, would be immediately

Immediately tooled, and which, I trust, will, in addition to our own efforts, essentially contribute to counteract many of the disadvantages which the difficulty of the march, the risk of scarcity of provisions and forage, and the approach of the rainy season, present against the undertaking; and if those obstacles can be overcome, the capture of Seringapatam will probably, in its consequences, furnish an ample reward for our labours.

A few days after our success at Bangalore, Tippoo repeated his propositions to open a negotiation for terminating our differences; but whether with a sincere desire to obtain peace, or with the insidious hopes of exciting jealousies in our allies, by inducing me to listen to his advances, is not certain. The line for my conduct, however, was clear; and, conformable to our treaties, I declined, in civil and moderate terms, to receive a person of confidence on his part, to discuss the separate interests of the Company; but informed him, that if he should think proper to make propositions in writing, for a general accommodation with all the members of the confederacy, I should, after communicating with the other powers, transmit our joint sentiments upon them.

I shall refer you entirely at present to the accounts that you will receive from the different governments of the details of their respective business; and shall only add, that the personal attention that I have experienced from the members of the Supreme Board, and the zeal they have manifested since I left Calcutta, in promoting the public good, have given me very particular satisfaction.

The Swallow packet will remain in readiness to be dispatched in August, or sooner, if it should be thought expedient; and I shall, by that opportunity, have the honour of writing to you on several of those subjects on which you must no doubt be anxious to receive minute information. I cannot, however, conclude this letter, without bearing most simple testimony to the zeal and alacrity which have been uniformly manifested by his Majesty's and the Company's troops, in the performance of the various duties of fatigue and danger in the course of this campaign, and assuring you that they are entitled to the most distinguished marks of your approbation.

I have the honour to be, with the greatest respect, Honourable Sirs,

Your most obedient and most humble servant,
CORNWALLIS.

Camp at Venkittigerry, April 21. 1791.

Camp at VENKITTIGERRY, 24 miles west of Amboor, April 21. 1791.

SIR,

I should have had, on this occasion, a par-

ticular pleasure in communicating to you, for his Majesty's information, a detailed account of the operations of the army under my command since the opening of this campaign; but the various branches of business, which require immediate attention and dispatch, engross so much of my time in the field, that I am under the unavoidable necessity of postponing a communication of that nature to a future opportunity: I shall, however, in the mean time, chiefly rely for my apology upon a continuance of that gracious indulgence from his Majesty, which I have so frequently experienced at his hands.

The same reasons have also obliged me to confine myself to a very concise statement of the principal occurrences, in my letter to the Court of Directors of the East India Company; but, by the means of that letter, and the copies of my correspondence with the Residents at the Courts of Hyderabad and Poona, and of my late letters to the Government of Fort St George, which will no doubt be transmitted to you from the India House, you will have it in your power, to convey to his Majesty a general knowledge of the present situation of our affairs in this country; and you will have the satisfaction to observe, not only that our success has already been considerable, but that we have a reasonable prospect of being able to humble still further a Prince of very uncommon ability, and of boundless ambition, who had acquired a degree of power, in extent of territory, in wealth, and in forces, that threatened the Company's possessions in the Carnatic, and those of all his other neighbours, with imminent danger.

Our success at Bangalore has tended to establish in the general opinion of the natives, the superiority of the British arms; and it has, in particular, made an impression upon the minds of our allies, which, I am persuaded, will contribute to induce them to use vigorous exertions in prosecuting the war to an honourable conclusion.

At present, we can only look for the accomplishment of that desirable object, by proceeding to attack the enemy's capital, which I clearly foresee will, from the near approach of the season of the periodical rains, and the danger of a scarcity of provisions and forage for the large bodies of troops that are to be employed, be attended with so many difficulties, that, upon any other occasion, I should have thought it advisable to have deferred the attempt till the end of the ensuing moonson.

Having, however, been informed of the critical situation of political affairs in Europe, and being sensible that the finances of the Company require the adoption of those measures that are most likely to bring the contest to an early decision, I have thought it my duty to hazard the under-

king;

ing; and, having received the strongest assurances of exertions from the chiefs of the Nizam's cavalry that are now with me, and the Mahrattas having also promised an hearty co-operation against the common enemy, I am encouraged to entertain sanguine hopes that all obstacles will give way to our efforts, and that the enterprize will succeed.

I have, on all occasions, had the greatest reason to be satisfied with the behaviour of his Majesty's troops serving with this army; but the effects of their courage and discipline were eminently conspicuous in the assault of the fortrefs of Bangalore, and will ever reflect the highest honour upon themselves and upon his Majesty's Service.

I am persuaded that the zeal, which generally prevails in this army to promote the honour and interests of Britain, has never been exceeded; but, amongst those officers who have had an opportunity to render distinguished services, I must particularly mention Lieut. Col. Maxwell and Major Skelly, the first having conducted the assault which was intrusted to his direction with great spirit and ability, and the latter having, on that occasion, led the European grenadiers and light infantry of the army, and highly contributed, by his own animated example, to their success.

I likewise feel myself much indebted to Lieut. Col. Stuyart for the able assistance which I constantly derive from his great military experience, and his anxiety to promote, by every means in his power, the good of the service; and the friendly support which I receive from General Meadows must command my lasting esteem and gratitude.

I have the honour to be, Sir, your most obedient and most humble servant,

CORNWALLIS.

Right Hon. W. W. Grenville,
one of his Majesty's Principal
Secretaries of State.

The above letters were received by the Warren Hastings.

BOMBAY, April 16.

(By the Eliza East Indian.)

Advices from Cochin mention, that the King of Condina had declared war against the Dutch, and that the most vigorous preparations were making by both parties.

WESTERN ARMY.

Summit of the Coorg Ghaut, or Pondicherrum Pass.

Advanced Brigade.

The several divisions of General Abercrombie's army still continues, with uncom-

mon exertions, their labours to render the roads practicable for guns, provisions, &c. Success attends their efforts; as, since our last accounts, two six-pounders, field-pieces, with their tumbrils, &c. complete, have been dragged up in addition to the small train that had been already brought up in the park, consisting of four twelve-pounders, and four six-pounders, field-pieces, with four 5½ inch howitzers, with their tumbrils and stores, are still at the foot of the Ghauts; waiting until the road is finished, which was expected would be sufficiently practicable in a few days; but a month longer time will be requisite for the battering guns.

Such has been the secrecy with which this army has hitherto moved, that several of our Hircarrals, who have lately come in to the General, say, that Tippoo's Bazar people know nothing yet of our present rapid progress in this country; should Tippoo himself be equally ignorant (which, however, is hardly to be supposed) much good work may yet be done without any interruption.

The 14th Madras battalion, Captain Ward, arrived on the 12th, from Paulingautcherry; and accounts have been received, that the other division of the 73d had arrived at Cannanore.

Captain Dancer was then employed in making a stockade with two companies of Sepoys, at one of the passes from the Ghaut; the Coorg Rajah had undertaken to defend it.

Some serious apprehensions were entertained when these advices came away, that our troops would not be able to maintain their post at the Ghauts, owing to the great scarcity of cordes, and the want of bullocks; their wants have been, however, we trust, long since plentifully supplied.

The army had not been able to lay a store of three days provisions on the table, notwithstanding the most incessant labour and application; in case a reinforcement of cattle and laborers did not speedily arrive, they had come to the resolution of establishing their magazine so low down as Mlacore, distant from the top of the Ghauts twenty miles.

The advanced guard is strongly posted about a mile on the other side of the Ghauts; it consists of part of the 73d and 75th regiments: The flank battalion is commanded by Capt. Dunlop, and consists of his battalion of grenadiers, with the 7th regiment of native infantry.

Provision of all kinds is exorbitantly dear, and indeed so great a scarcity at present prevails throughout, that the Bazar affords nothing but salt fish. A pretty tolerable idea may be formed of the price of
meat

most articles, when we are told that a common candle is sold for a rupee.

FROM THE LONDON GAZETTE.

OCTOBER 8.

To the Honourable the Secret Committee of the Court of Directors for the Affairs of the United Company of Merchants of England trading to the East Indies.

Honourable Sirs,

Since our dispatches, which were forwarded in the Worcester Indiaman, under date of the 23d of March, we have received accounts of the further operations of Lord Cornwallis's army, and take the opportunity of the Danish ship *Eliza*, touching at this port for a few hours, and bound for Europe, to communicate to you the particulars.

On the 5th ult. the grand army arrived at the strong fort of Bangalore, without meeting any opposition from the enemy in ascending the Ghauts, or on their subsequent march to this place. His Lordship immediately laid siege to this important fort, and on the 13th March carried the Petah by storm. During the attack, Lieutenant Colonel Moorhouse, of the artillery on your Madras establishment, and Capt. Delaney, of his Majesty's 36th regiment, were killed, with some few private Europeans and sepoy. The next day Tippoo's army appeared in sight, and he made two separate attempts to drive the British troops from this station, and was repulsed in each with very great slaughter. On the 22d, the breach, though scarcely practicable, Lord Cornwallis determined, without further delay, to storm the fort, as he was beginning to run short of provisions. The storming party consisted of the 36th, 72d, 76th, King's regiments, two battalions of sepoy, together with the European grenadiers and light infantry of the army; and the whole commanded by Major-General Meadows. They were obliged to descend and ascend the ditch with scaling ladders; and in two hours from the commencement of the assault the British colours were seen flying on the rampart. The garrison consisted of about 3000 men; 1500 of whom were almost instantly and inevitably put to the bayonet. Among the killed was the Killidar, an old man, and nearly related to the Sultan. Great quantities of grain, we understand, were found in the fort and Petah; and, we are happy to add, that this glorious enterprize was effected with the loss only of about twenty men killed and wounded on our side. Bangalore is reckoned among Tippoo's strongest holds in the Mysore country, and consequently its loss must be severely felt by him.

We beg leave further to offer our congratulations on the success of your arms at Darwar, which, after an unexpectedly long siege, capitulated to the English, in conjunction with the Mahratta arms, on the 5th instant. We have not yet received the particulars of the surrender; and can only acquaint you, that Colonel Frederick, of your Bombay establishment, died before this place, after a short illness, when in command of the detachment; from which period it devolved to Major Sartorius, of your engineer corps.

General Abercrombie's army is still in the same station as when we last had the honour of addressing you, where he still proposes to remain until the nearer approach of Lord Cornwallis; but as the rainy season on this side of India is now near at hand, General Abercrombie will be under the necessity of cantoning the troops, so as to form a chain of communication between this place and the Coorja Ghaut, which leads into the Mysore dominions. He proposes strengthening Bombay with one regiment of Europeans, who will go up in your ship the *Queen*, Capt. Douglas, about the end of this month; and Bombay, we apprehend, will be further strengthened by such part of the Darwar detachment as can be spared for garrisoning that place.—We are, with the greatest respect,

Honourable Sirs,

Your very faithful humble servants,

(Signed) { ROB. TAYLOR,
LAU. SHAW,
SAM. INCE.

Telliderry, April 22. 1791.

Extract of a Letter from the Governor and Council at Madras, in their Political Department, to the Court of Directors of the East India Company, dated April 29. 1791.

We have great pleasure in acquainting you, that on the 23d instant we received advice from the resident at Poona that the fort of Darwar had surrendered to Major Sartorius on the 3d of that month; and by letters from the resident at Hyderabad, we learn that the Killidar of Copul was in treaty for the delivery of that fort to the Nizam's General.

Lord Cornwallis, having effected his junction with Lieutenant-Colonel Oldham's detachment, moved on the 2d instant from Venkettegherry in the direction of Bangalore.

AMERICA.

PHILADELPHIA, Aug. 8.

It is reported, and generally believed here, that in consequence of strong representations from

from Gen. Washington to the British Court for the restoration of the forts, &c. ceded by the late peace to the United States, that the British Ministry have agreed to deliver them up, and the same is to take place on the division of Canada into two provinces.

The people of this country are eager for a treaty of commerce with Great Britain, and would make great sacrifices to obtain it.

Some millions of acres of land have lately been purchased from Congress by a joint company here and in Britain. It is said your great Mr. Pickens is one of them.

The debts of Congress, when the debts of the individual States are added which is so to be the case, will amount to about 71 millions of dollars, or 16 millions Sterling British money.

Emigrants from Germany, France, Holland, &c. continue to arrive very fast in the different States, among whom are some persons of considerable property from Holland. It will, however, take 5 or 600 years before this country can be as populous as Great Britain—till which period their increasing numbers and wealth will continue an increasing mart for the manufactures of Great Britain.

PRUSSIA.

BERLIN—*Oct. 1.*

The Duke of York's Marriage.

The day before yesterday, in the evening, the wedding of Princess Frederica was consummated with the Duke of York.

About six o'clock, all persons who were of a Princely Blood assembled in gala in the apartments of the Dowager Queen, where the diamond crown was put on the head of Princess Frederica. The Generals, Ministers, Ambassadors, and the high Nobility assembled in the White Hall.

Immediately after it struck seven o'clock, the Duke of York led the Princess his spouse, whose train was carried by *four Dames de la Cour*, preceded by the Gentlemen of the Chamber, and the Court Officers of State, through all the parade apartments, into the White Hall.—After them went the King, with the Queen Dowager; Prince Lewis of Prussia, and the Reigning Queen (the Crown Prince was absent by indisposition); the Hereditary Prince of Orange, with Princesses Wilhelmina; Prince Henry, third son to the King, with the Hereditary Stadtholderess, his aunt; Prince Wilhelm of Prussia, with Princess Augusta; the Duke of Weimar, with the spouse of the Prince

Henry of Prussia; the Reigning Duke of Mecklenburg-Strelitz, with the Hereditary Princess of Brunswick.

In the White Hall, a canopy was erected of crimson velvet, and also a crimson velvet sofa for the marriage ceremony.

When the young couple had placed themselves under the canopy, before the sofa, and the Royal Family stood round them, the Upper Counsellor of the Consistory, Mr Sack, made a speech in German. This being over, rings were exchanged, and the illustrious couple, kneeling on the sofa, were married according to the rites of the reformed church. The whole ended with a prayer; and twelve guns placed in the garden firing three rounds, the benediction was given.—After which the new-married couple received the congratulations of the Royal Family, and they returned in the same order to the apartments, where the Royal Family and all persons present sat down to card tables; after which the whole Court, the high Nobility, and the Ambassadors, sat down to supper.

The supper was served at six tables.—The first was placed under a canopy of crimson velvet, and the victuals served in gold dishes and plates. Lieutenant General Bornstedt and Count Brühl had the honour to carve, without being seated.

The other five tables, at which sat the Generals, Ministers, Ambassadors, all the Officers of the Court, and the high Nobility, were served in other apartments.

Those who did the *honours* at these tables were—At the first, Prince Sacker, Minister of State—At the second, General Mollenhoff—At the third, Count Jenckenstein, Minister of State—At the fourth, Count Schulemburg, Lieutenant General and Minister of State—At the fifth, Major General Bismhoffwerder.

During supper, music continued playing in the galleries of the first hall, which immediately begun when the company entered the hall.

At the desert, the royal table was served with a beautiful set of china made in the Berlin manufactory.

Supper being over, the whole Assembly repaired to the White Hall, where trumpet, timbrel, and other music was playing—the *Flambeau Dance* was begun, at which the Ministers of State carried the torches. With this ended the festivity.

The new couple were attended to their apartments by the Reigning Queen, and the Queen Dowager.

The Duke of York wore on this day the English uniform, and the Princess Frederica was dressed in a suit of *Drap d'Argen*, ornamented with diamonds.

The

The palace of the Margrave of Anspach was illuminated.

NEW CIVIL CODE OF PRUSSIA.

The new Code of Laws for Prussia was lately published at Berlin. It is the work of M. Klein and M. Suarez, under the direction of the Great Chancellor Cramer, and, with due regard to ancient customs and prejudices, displays a humane and enlightened spirit.

Punishments are rendered much less rigorous and cruel.

Left-hand marriages are allowed only to Gentlemen, King's Counsellors, and persons of the same rank with these; but the party contracting such a marriage must declare upon his honour, that he has not sufficient fortune for a right hand marriage.

The left-hand wife is not to assume the name of her husband, nor even that of spouse; she must be contented with that of *house-keeper*.

The children of such marriages are legitimate, but the father is not obliged to give them an education suitable to his own rank; and they cannot inherit his real property, unless where there are no children or relations by a right-hand marriage.

Every young woman seduced, against whom it is not proved that she is a common prostitute shall be juridically married to her seducer, as wife by the right-hand, if she be of the same rank, and by the left-hand if of inferior rank.

The declaration of the husband, that he does not chuse to live with her, is sufficient however to obtain a divorce.

This declaration, with the Juridical Act of the marriage, is then to be delivered to the woman, who by virtue of it is placed in the same situation with a woman divorced from her husband, and saved from shame.

The marriage of a Noble with a Peasant, which was formerly prohibited, is now allowed; provided the King, or three of the husband's family, consent to it.

A certain part of the fortune of deceased bachelors, above the age of forty, goes to the fund for the relief of the poor.

The simple obligation of a banker, merchant, manufacturer, landholder, or the persons acting for them, is as good as a bill of exchange.

Whoever saves the life of another, at the risk of his own, is entitled to a letter of thanks, and a gratification from a Magistrate.

Talking disrespectfully of any of the Royal Family, is punishable only by a short imprisonment in one of the fortresses.

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But the most remarkable article of the Code is the following:

"The Sovereignty consists in the power of conducting the Actions of the Subjects to the public good; but this Power appertains not to the King as a Right, but merely as a Duty."

What more adverse to the common notions of Sovereignty have the French Legislators said than this?

RUSSIA.

PETERSBURGH, Sept. 6.

The Court has received from the army on the Danube, the melancholy news of the death of Prince Charles-Frederick Henry of Wurtemberg-Stuttgart, brother to the Grand Duke's of Russia. This Prince, who was the sixth of the eight sons of Prince Frederick-Eugene of Wurtemberg, brother of the Reigning Duke, and who had the rank of Major-General in the service of Russia, was born on the 3d of May 1770 and died at Galacz, of a fever, after an illness of six days, on the 23d ult.

SPAIN.

MADRID, Sept. 2.

The following circular letter, from the King's Council, has been addressed to the Governors of Provinces, and other public Officers:

"Having been informed that doubts have arisen concerning the manner of taking the oath required of strangers travelling in the kingdom, His Majesty has informed His Excellency the Count de Florida Blanca, that his royal intentions and his orders do not require a general oath; that it regards only foreigners of suspicious characters coming into Spain, and principally to Court, especially when they do not give a satisfactory account of the intentions of their journey—a case in which his Majesty's orders require, either that they should leave the kingdom, or take the oath of travellers, provided the suspicions are not very strong against them.—As to the rest, His Majesty declares, that the oath is not of fidelity, not vassalage, but only of pure obedience and submission to the Sovereign, to the police-laws of the country, and an obligation not to hold any correspondence which may tend to subvert the public subordination and tranquility of the State."

STATE

STATE PAPER.

The Supreme Council of Castile published, on the 10th of September, a new edict against the circulation of writings which have a tendency to propagate the principles of the French constitution.

"The King, informed that certain writings, full of falsehood and dangerous maxims, capable of disturbing the tranquillity, and of endangering the fidelity of his subjects, had sent circular letters, the 5th of January 1790, to prohibit the entry of these libels, to encourage informers, and to give the utmost latitude both in discovering and punishing such atrocities.

"These precautions have produced the salutary effects which his Majesty's Council had expected.—The King is again assured, that attempts are now making to introduce and diffuse throughout his dominions, similar writings from France, containing seditious principles, contrary to the fidelity due to his sovereign power, to public tranquillity, and to the prosperity of his faithful subjects: His Majesty has recourse a second time to the same precautions, which were before sufficient to prevent the evil;—he has renewed the prohibition of those writings in his states, and ordered, that every person who shall find or seize, in the hands of any person, such productions, either printed or written, shall be obliged to give them up to the tribunals, rendering an account of the motives which excited them, if they knew or are acquainted with them; on failure of which they shall be proceeded against, as well as other delinquents, for the crime of disobedience; that the tribunals shall be obliged to transmit to the supreme council all the writings which may have been presented or denounced to them, or which they may have seized; and to proceed in this respect with all the vigilance and activity required in such important cases.

"The execution of this edict is recommended to the pastoral and monarchical zeal of the most Reverend Archbishops, Bishops, Prelates, as well secular as regular, throughout the kingdom of Spain."

STATE PAPER.

NEW EDITOR OF HIS CATHOLIC MAJESTY.

Concerning Foreigners in Spain, whether Domiciliants or not; composed from the subject of that dated the 20th of July; with comments on every article.

Art. 1. A list shall be made of all the strangers in the kingdom, whether domiciliated or not.

"This disposition of public order is prescribed by various laws revived under the reign of His Majesty Charles III. It is necessary it should be known by strangers, that they may of course enjoy the privileges and immunities to which they have a right by virtue of particular treaties made with their respective Sovereigns."

2. A foreigner, interrogated respecting his condition may declare his desire to remain in Spain, either as a Domiciliant or not.

"It is by special favour that His Majesty granted this liberty to strangers, inasmuch as the King had a right to require that Domiciliants should conform to the conditions imposed on them by the laws, and to the oath, under the title of Domiciliants in the kingdom."

3. The foreigner who declares his intention to reside in Spain, as domiciliated, ought to oblige himself, by oath, to be faithful to the religion of the country, and to the laws, and to renounce every civil foreign protection or dependence on his native country.

"This engagement is not prejudicial to individual liberty, inasmuch as it does not extend to any economic, commercial, or domestic affairs."

4. The foreigner who shall refuse to domiciliate himself, and take the oath, cannot exercise the professions which require residency.

"As those of banker, shopkeeper, retailer, domestics of the subjects of the state, &c."

5. The foreigner who shall exercise any profession allowed only to His Majesty's subjects, and who shall refuse the oath of Domiciliants, shall be obliged to leave Court within a fortnight, and the kingdom within two months.

"For a foreigner restrained from exercising any useful profession would excite suspicions of giving himself up to wandering about, and becoming a dangerous person, especially having it in his power to be domiciliated."

6. The foreigner who exercises none of the professions above-mentioned may declare himself a Non-Domiciliant, and remain at Court with permission of the Office of Foreign Affairs, or in other parts of the kingdom, provided he causes his name to be inserted in the list of non-residents.

"This custom has always been observed towards merchants and traders, as well in the cities as in the ports of the kingdom, who wished to preserve the quality or distinction of strangers."

7. Mechanics.

7. Mechanics and workmen engaged in the manufactures established by his Majesty, or by private persons, may declare themselves not domiciliated, and reside, in that quality in the kingdom.

"Subjects to have their names inserted in the registers; individuals included in this Article shall not be molested nor compelled to take the oath; except, first, when the person shall be suspected of political relations or maxims; ally, if he should desire to reside at Court, in which case he shall take the oath of non-residents, provided he has not permission from the Office of Foreign Affairs."

8. The persons above described shall take the oath of non-domiciliants, as well as those who shall be required by superior authorities, in order to remain in the kingdom, or seek a trade or profession in it, or for any other motive which shall not be included in the treaties with foreign nations.

"The oath of the non-domiciliants does not enjoin the quality of subject; therefore, it neither expresses vassalage nor fidelity, but respect, submission, obedience to the Sovereign, and to the laws of police of the country—Consequently, he who has taken the oath ought to abstain from doing, saying, or writing, both within and without the kingdom, any thing contrary to good order, to subordination, and to public authority.

9. Foreigners who come to seek an asylum, or to take refuge in the kingdom, shall follow the road which shall be pointed out by the Commanders of the Frontiers—shall stop in the place prescribed, and there wait his Majesty's permission, and take the oath above mentioned.

"By these means, His Majesty, without refusing hospitality, will be able to know, as well what is proper for the refugee-strangers, as for the tranquillity of the state."

10. Foreigners who shall transgress these rules and orders shall be sent to the galleys, or expelled the kingdom, with confiscation of their property, according to the condition of the persons, or the nature of the infractions.

"In order to proceed judicially in the application of these points, the Justices of the Peace shall consult the superior Tribunals of their district, previous to their putting of the sentence in execution."

FRANCE.

NATIONAL ASSEMBLY.

September 24.

In the National Assembly, the affairs of the colonies were again taken into consideration, when, after some debate, it was determined the subject should be discussed before the Assembly should separate: The

following articles of the plan of the committees were accordingly passed:

1. The Assembly reserves to itself the exclusive right of determining, with the sanction of the King, on the exterior part of the colonies.

2. The Colonial Assemblies shall be authorized to make, upon these subjects, all the representations which they think necessary.

3. The laws concerning the situation of persons not free, and the political state of persons of colour and free negroes, as well as the regulations relative to the execution of the said laws, shall be executed provisionally with the approbation of the Governors of the colonies, and shall be directly presented to the sanction of the King, without any anterior decree being able to obstruct the full exercise of the right intrusted by the present article to the Colonial Assemblies.

4. The forms to be observed for the completion of the laws for the internal government, which do not concern persons, shall be determined by the Legislative Body.

The King published the following proclamation on Sept. 18:

LOUIS,
By the Grace of God, and by the Constitutional Law of the State, KING OF THE FRENCH—To all the Citizens, GREEN-INO:

"I have accepted the constitution—I will use all endeavours to maintain it, and cause it to be executed.

"The revolution is completed.—It is time that the re-establishment of order should give to the constitution the support which is still most necessary; it is time to fix the opinion of Europe on the destiny of France, and to shew that the French are worthy to be free.

"But my vigilance and my cares ought still to be seconded by the concurrence of all the friends of their country, and of liberty; it is by submission to the laws; it is by abjuring the spirit of party, and all the passions which accompany it; it is by a happy union of sentiments, of wishes, and endeavours, that the constitution will be confirmed, and that the nation will enjoy all the advantages which it secures.

"Let every idea of intolerance then be abandoned for ever; let the rash desire of independence no longer be confounded with the love of liberty, let those pernicious qualifications, with which it has been attempted to inflame the people, be irrevocably banished; let religious opinions no longer be a source of persecution and animosity; let all who observe the laws be at liberty to adopt that form of worship to which they are attached.

tached: and let no party give offence to those who may follow opinions different from their own from motives of conscience. But it is not sufficient to shun those excesses to which you might be carried by a spirit of violence; you must likewise fulfil the obligations which are imposed by the public interest: One of the first, one of the most essential, is the payment of the contributions established by your representatives.—It is for the observance of engagements, which national honour has rendered sacred, for the internal tranquility of the state, for its external security; it is for the stability of the constitution itself that I remind you of this indispensable duty.

“ Citizens armed for the maintenance of the law;—National Guards, never forget that it is to protect the safety of persons and of property, the collection of public contributions, the circulation of grain and provisions, that the arms which you bear have been delivered into your hands; it belongs to you to feel, that justice and mutual utility demand, that, between the inhabitants of the same empire, abundance should be applied to the aid of indigence; and that it is the duty of the public force to promote the advancement of commerce, as the means of remedying the intemperance of seasons, correcting the inequality of harvest, uniting together all the parts of the various productions of their soil and industry.

“ And you, whom the people have chosen to watch over their interests; you also, on whom they have conferred the formidable powers of determining on the property, the honour, and the life of citizens; you too whom they have instituted to adjust their differences, members of different administrative bodies, Judges of Tribunals, Judges of Peace, I recommend to you to be impressed with the importance and dignity of your functions; fulfil them with zeal, with courage, with impartiality; labour with me to restore peace, and the government of laws; and by thus securing the happiness of the nation, prepare for the return of those whose absence has only proceeded from the fear of disorder and violence.

“ And all you who from different motives have quitted your country, your King invites you to return to your fellow-citizens; he invites you to yield to the public wish and the national interest. Return with confidence under the security of law, and this honourable return, at the moment when the constitution is definitively settled, will render more easy, and more expeditious, the re-establishment of order and of tranquillity.

“ And you French people, a nation illustrious for so many ages, show yourselves magnanimous and generous, at the moment when your liberty is confirmed; resume your happy character; let your moderation and wisdom revive among you the security

which the disturbances of the revolution had banished; and let your King henceforth enjoy, without inquietude and without molestation, those testimonies of attachment and fidelity which can alone secure his happiness.

“ Done at Paris the 28th September 1791.

(Signed) “ LEWIS.

(and underneath) “ DE LESSART.

FRIDAY, September 30.

DISSOLUTION

OF THE

NATIONAL ASSEMBLY.

The Assembly having, by a former decree, resolved, that this day should be the last of their sitting, and that their successors should take their places to-morrow, met this day to terminate their labours.

The King had intimated his intention of coming in person to the Assembly, and the hall and galleries were crowded and brilliant as on the memorable day of his acceptance of the constitution. The Members of the new Legislature being all admitted to the body of the Assembly, and the Municipality of Paris, as well as the Directors of the departments, being invited to assist at the sitting, in consequence of addresses which they presented, made it, if possible, more numerous than on the former occasion, and infinitely more brilliant. The Assembly closed their labours by receiving the last reports from their committees on different subjects, particularly the Military Code, and by publishing an account of the state of the finances, of the sums in the National Treasury, of the receipt of the taxes, of the contributions received by the departments, and of the precise state in which they delivered over the affairs of the kingdom to their successors. The accounts were received with the highest pleasure; they were considered as highly favourable to the nation; and the vouchers were ordered to be deposited in the archives. M. Montequion stated, that there was 35 millions in the National Treasury, of which 18 millions were in specie; and the Members of the Committee of Finance pledged themselves personally for the fidelity of the accounts, and that they would be ready to answer for them to the next Legislature.

Before three o'clock they had done all their business, and prepared for the Royal presence. In the proceedings of the day before, they had determined to receive the King with more respect than on the former occasion. Only one chair of state was placed on the platform to the left of the ordinary chair of the President. The tables were not removed, and no carpet was spread.

spread. At half-past three the King was announced, and he entered, preceded by the Deputation of Members, and by his Ministers, who, instead of being seated on chairs at the Bar, took their stand behind the King. The Assembly were all standing and uncovered. The King was dressed in purple embroidered, and with the red ribbon and star, as patron of the order of St. Louis. He was received with the most lively acclamation. He drew a paper from his waistcoat, and read his speech. He read it standing, which by the arrangement previously made, kept all the Members on their legs. His deportment and manner was through the whole much more dignified, collected, and cheerful, than on the day of the acceptance. In reading the speech he was interrupted twenty times by torrents of applause.

The speech was as follows :

GENTLEMEN,

" You have terminated your labours—the Constitution is finished—I have promised to maintain it, to cause it to be executed—it is proclaimed by my orders. This Constitution, from which France expects prosperity, this fruit of your cares and watchings, will be your recompence: France made happy by your labours, will communicate her happiness to you.

" Return to your homes, and tell your fellow-citizens, that the happiness of the French ever has been, and ever will be, the object of my wishes; that I neither have nor can have any interest but the general interest; that my prosperity consists only in the public prosperity; that I shall exert all the powers intrusted to me to give efficacy to the new system; that I shall communicate it to Foreign Courts; and shall in every thing prove that I can only be happy in the happiness of the people of France.

" Tell them also that the Revolution has reached its period, and that the firmest support of the Constitution is now the re-establishment of order. You, Gentlemen, in your several departments, will undoubtedly second my vigilance and care with all your power; you will give the first example of submission to the laws which you have framed; in the capacity of private citizens you will display the same character as in the capacity of public men; and the people seeing their Legislators exercise, in private life, those virtues which they have proclaimed in the National Assembly, will imitate them, discharge with pleasure the obligations which the public interest imposes on them, and cheerfully pay the taxes decreed by their Representatives. It is, by

this happy union of sentiments, of wishes, and exertions, that the Constitution will be confirmed, and that the nation will enjoy all the advantages which it guarantees."

The President immediately made the following answer, which was also highly applauded :

" SIR,

" The adherence of the Nation ratifies the Constitution decreed by the Assembly of the Representatives of the Nation. Your Majesty has accepted it, and the public joy is a sufficient testimony of the general assent. It promises that your Majesty will no longer desire in vain the happiness of the French. On this memorable day the National Assembly has nothing more to wish; and the Nation, by its tranquil confidence, is ready to co-operate for the prompt success of its internal Government."

The King then left the Assembly in the same order that he entered, amidst the shouts of the people.

The Assembly continued, and, as it had been previously settled, proceeded to read over the minutes of the day, and finally concluded by pronouncing their own dissolution, and separating to meet no more.

NEW FRANCE NATIONAL ASSEMBLY.

October 5.

This morning, the Assembly commenced by the report which was made by the Vice-President, of the result of the Deputation sent to the King. M. Ducattel said, that having taken the opinion of the Deputation of what he could say to the King, they went up to the Palace at six o'clock in the evening. They saw the Minister of Justice, who told them that his Majesty had appointed the next day at one o'clock to receive the Deputation.—The Vice-President stated to the Minister, that it was of the utmost importance to the public affairs of the empire, that the notice with which they were charged should be made known to his Majesty without delay, and they could not, consistent with their duty to the Legislative Assembly, postpone their commission. The Minister of Justice represented this to his Majesty, who was pleased to appoint nine o'clock of the same evening to receive the Deputation. Accordingly, at nine o'clock, they went up again, and were received by his Majesty in the Council Chamber, when M. Ducattel made his reverence, and delivered his commission in the following terms:—

" SIR

"SIR,

"The National Assembly Legislative is finally constituted, and we are appointed a Deputation to intimate this to your Majesty."

The King desired to know the names of the Deputation. The Vice-President told him that he had not a list of the names, and that in truth he did not know them all.

His Majesty was then pleased to say, that he would come in person to the Assembly on Friday next. He was sorry that he could not possibly go there sooner:

October 7.

His Majesty, accordingly, went to the National Assembly, and made the following Speech:

"GENTLEMEN,

"Assembled by virtue of the Constitution, to exercise the powers which it delegates to you, you will undoubtedly consider as among your first duties, to facilitate the operations of Government; to confirm public credit; to add, if possible, to the security of the engagement of the nation; to show that liberty and peace are compatible; and finally, to attach the people to their new laws, by convincing them that those laws are for their good.

"Your experience of the effects of the new order of things, in the several departments from which you come, will enable you to judge of what may be yet wanting to bring it to perfection, and make it easy for you to devise the most proper means of giving the necessary force and activity to the Administration.

"For my own part, called by the Constitution to examine, as first Representative of the people, and for their interest, the laws presented for my sanction, and charged with causing them to be executed, it is also my duty to propose to you such objects as I think ought to be taken into consideration in the course of your Session.

"You will see the propriety of fixing your immediate attention on the state of finances, and you will feel the importance of establishing an equilibrium between the receipt and the expenditure, of accelerating the assessment and the collection of taxes, of introducing an invariable order into all parts of this vast Administration, and thus providing at once for the support of the State, and the relief of the people.

"The Civil Laws will also demand your care, which you will have to render conformable to the principles of the Constitution. You will also have to simplify the mode of proceeding in the Courts of Law,

and render the attainment of justice more easy and more prompt.

"You will perceive the necessity of establishing a system of National Education, and of giving a solid basis to public spirit. You will encourage Commerce and Industry, the progress of which has so great an influence on the agriculture and wealth of the kingdom; and you will endeavour to make permanent dispositions for affording work and relief to the indigent.

"I shall make known my firm desire for the re-establishment of Order and Discipline in the Army; and I shall neglect no means that may contribute to restore confidence among all who compose it, and put it into a condition to secure the defence of the realm. If the laws in this respect are insufficient, I shall make known to you the measures that seem to me to be proper, and you will decide upon.

"I shall in the same manner communicate my sentiments respecting the Navy, that important part of the public force, destined to protect trade and the Colonies,

"We shall not, I hope, be troubled with any attack from abroad. I have taken, from the moment I accepted the constitution, and I still continue to take, the steps that appear to me the most proper to fix the opinion of foreign powers in our favour, and to maintain with them the good intelligence and harmony that ought to secure to us the continuance of peace. I expect the best effects from them; but this expectation does not prevent me from pursuing, with activity, those measures of precaution, which prudence ought to dictate (*Long applauses of Vive le Roi!*)

"Gentlemen, in order that your important labours and your zeal may produce the effects from them, it is necessary that constant harmony and unalterable confidence should reign between the Legislative Body and the King (*renewed applauses, and exclamations*). The enemies of our repose are but too studious to divide us; the love of our country must therefore rally us, and the public interest render us inseparable, (*warm applauses*). Thus the public force will be exerted without obstruction, the administration will not be harassed by vain alarms, the property and the religion of every man will be equally protected, and no pretext will be left for any person to live at a distance from a country where the laws are in vigour, and mens rights respected.

"It is on this great basis of order that the stability of the constitution, the success of your labours, the safety of the empire, the source of all kinds of prosperity, must depend. It is to this, Gentlemen, that we

all

all ought to turn our thoughts in this moment with the utmost possible vigour; and this is the object that I recommend the most particularly to your zeal, and to your patriotism."

The most lively testimonials of applause were given to the King on this occasion.

THE PRESIDENT'S ANSWER.

"SIRE,
 "Your presence in the midst of us is a new engagement, which you take towards the country. It is right that we should forget the confounded powers. A constitution is established, and with it the liberty of Frenchmen. You ought to cherish it as a citizen.—As King you ought to maintain and to defend it. Instead of violating, it ascertains your power—it has given as your friends all those who formerly called themselves only your subjects (*here a burst of applause*)—You said so, Sire, some days ago in this temple of the country, and we also have reason to love you (*the plaudits were reiterated*). The constitution has made you the first Monarch in the world—Your love for it places your Majesty in the rank of the most favoured Kings, and the welfare of the people will be most happy. May our mutual union make us freely feel its happy influence—purify legislation, reconfirm public credit, overthrow anarchy. Such is our duty—such are our wishes—such are your's, Sire. Such are our hopes, and the benedictions of Frenchmen will be our reward."

The King went out in the same manner that he entered, amidst the most vehement acclamations of *Vive le Roi*, and he was accompanied by the same deputation.

SCOTLAND.

EDINBURGH, October 4.

This day, the following Gentlemen were elected Magistrates of this city for the ensuing year >

The Right Hon. JAMES STIRLING, Lord Provost, continued.

James Gordon, Esq.
 William Creech, Esq.
 George Kinnear, Esq.
 Alexander Allan, Esq.
 William Gillespie, Esq. Dean of Guild.
 Charles Kerr, Esq. Treasurer.

William Galloway, Esq. Old Provost.
 David Milne, Esq.
 Neil M'Vicar, Esq.
 James Carfrae, Esq.
 Francis Sharp, Esq.
 Donald Smith, Esq. Old Dean of Guild.
 Robert Young, Esq. Old Treasurer and College Treasurer.

Bailies.

Old Bailies.

Mess. James Jackson,
 James Dewar,
 Malcolm Wright,
 Orlando Hart,
 Alexander Reid,
 Wm Inglis, *Con.*
 Wm Cunningham,
 Thos Armstrong,
 John Young,
 Charles Oats,
 William Raeburn,
 Alex. Ogilvie,
 Jas Millar, jun.
 William Scott,
 William Ranken,
 Alex. Smith,
 And. Hutchinson;
 George Kerr,
 Adam Brooks,
 Neil M'Vicar, Esq. Baron Bailie of Canon-
 gate and Calton.
 James Carfrae, Esq. Admiral of Leith.
 Fras Sharp, Esq. Baron Bailie of Portburgh.
 Jas Jackson, Esq. Captain of Orange Colours.

Mer. Counsellors
 Trades Counsellors.

Council Deacons.

Extraordinary
 Council Deacons.

RESIDENT BAILIES.

Leith—Mess. W. Douglas and P. Hadaway.
 Canon-gate and Calton—Mess. Jas Clark and Thos Milne.
 Portburgh and Potter-row—Mess. W. Calder and Douglas Menzies.

The following Gentlemen are elected Provofts of their respective boroughs:

Glasgow, James M'Dowall, Esq.
 Aberdeen, George Auldjo, Esq.
 Dundee, James Johnston, Esq.
 Perth, Alexander Fechney, Esq.
 Dumfries, David Blair, Esq.
 St Andrew's, Alexander Duncan, Esq.
 Stirling, Henry Jaffrae, Esq.
 Lochmahon, David Dickton, Esq.
 Irvine, The Earl of Eglinton.
 Rutherglen, Major John Spens.
 Cupar Fife, Major William Maxwell Morrison.

Inverkeithing, Sir John Henderson of Foredell, Bart.

Dunfermline, John Wilson senior, Esq.
 Renfrew, Matthew Gray, Esq.
 Kinghorn, Andrew Hamilton, Esq.
 Banff, George Robertson, Esq.
 Haddington, James Banks, Esq.
 Dunbarton, Marquis of Loon.
 Lanark, John Bannatine, Esq.
 Kirkaldy, Michael Beveridge, Esq.

Driven from their native country by hard necessity, about 400 natives of the Isle of Skye, embarked on the ship Fortune for North Carolina. The ship was driven into Clyde by stress of weather, when that public spirited citizen, Mr David Dale, invited the poor Highlanders to Glasgow, gave them a supply.

supply for their present necessities, and offered to procure them all employment at his manufactories. Though many of them had given their little all—some twenty, some thirty pounds for their passage to America, they no sooner heard of employment, than all who were not indented left the ship, and put themselves under his protection. In comparison of such a man,

How low, how little are the great!

October 11.—This night, between ten and eleven o'clock, James Plunket, convicted of street-robbery, and George Davidson, convicted of forgery, before the Circuit Court of Justiciary at Glasgow, and who were to have been executed the 26th inst. found means, by the assistance of one Russell a weaver, to break the prison there, and make their escape. A reward of fifty guineas was offered to any person who should apprehend and secure any of the three.

MARRIAGES.

Sept. 27. Mr Peter Cameron, writer in Edinburgh, to Miss Annie Donaldson, of Allachie.

28. Mr Alexander McBrair, merchant in Glasgow, to Miss Henrietta Brown of Edinburgh.

29. Capt. William Urquhart of the 30th regiment of foot, to Miss Isabella-Helen Rose of Rosebank.

Oct. 3. Harry Stark of Teafles, Esq. to Miss Horfeburgh of Cupar.

4. Capt. Thomas Inglis, to Miss Jean Balfour of Dunbog.

— Mr Martin Lindsay, of the Lord Thurlow East-Indiaman, to Miss Wood of Perth.

10. James Smith, Esq. merchant in Glasgow, to Miss Margaret Macgregor, of that place.

— Mr William Brown, merchant at Saltcoats, to Miss Janet Erskine, of that place.

15. Samuel Dalrymple, Esq. Captain of the 3d regiment, to Miss Tweddell of Unthankhall.

18. William Ker, Esq. of Spring Garden, Jamaica, to Miss Margaret Hunter of Frankfield.

20. Lieut. M-Niven of the Royal Highlanders, to Miss Catharine Heriot, of Edinburgh.

26. Charles Buchan, Esq. of Wisfome, to Miss Marion McMichen, of Killenringan.

BIRTHS.

Sept. 30. Mrs Robertson Scot of Benholm delivered of a daughter.

Oct. 2. Mrs Capt. Brown, of a daughter.

6. Lady Kinmar, of a daughter.

9. The Countess of Lauderdale, of a daughter.

10. Mrs Hay of Newhall, of a daughter.

12. Lady Sakon, of a son.

16. Mrs Drummond of Perth, of a son.

20. The Lady of Andrew Stewart, Esq. of a daughter.

— Mrs Alexander of Ballochmyle, of a daughter.

21. Lady Napier, of a daughter.

22. Lady Colquhoun of Leifs, of a son.

DEATHS.

Aug. 22. Lieut. Francis Monypenny, of the 68th regiment.

Sept. 20. John Scott, Esq. younger, of Millenny.

22. John Strachan, a flesh-cady, aged 105.

24. Mrs Elizabeth Garioch, of Leith.

— Mrs Marshall, wife of the Rev. Mr Marshall, at Manor.

— Capt. Daniel Graham, late of the Ship Spooner of Clyde.

— Thomas Crawford, Esq. of Crawfordsburn.

27. Miss Jane Lauder, second daughter of the late Sir And. Lauder of Fountainhall.

Oct. 1. Mrs Isabella Craig, daughter of Mr James Craig of Coatstown.

— Mr John Mason, baker.

2. Mr James Nisbet, wine-merchant.

— Lord Haddo.

3. Lady Caroline Hunter.

5. Miss Ann Barclay of Colerney.

6. Mrs. M^oQueen of Braxfield.

9. Dowager Countess of Glasgow.

10. Rear-Admiral Inglis.

— Sir Robert Dalryell of Birna, Bart.

12. Dr David Wemyss of Dunfermline.

13. Mrs Jean Lyon relict of the Rev. Mr Moncrieff of Colfargie.

14. William Wilson, Esq. of Blacklymill, near Paisley.

— Mr John Christie, merchant, New-Town Paisley.

— Mr Robert Orr, senior, manufacturer, Paisley.

15. Richard Dundas, Esq. of Blair.

— Miss Elizabeth Fotheringham, second daughter of Col. Fotheringham of Powrie.

— Miss Jeany Alison, of Edinburgh.

16. Mr John Paton, surgeon at Durham, Fifeshire.

17. Dowager Lady Wallace, relict of Sir Thomas Wallace, Bart.

18. Charles Bell, Esq. of Hillton.

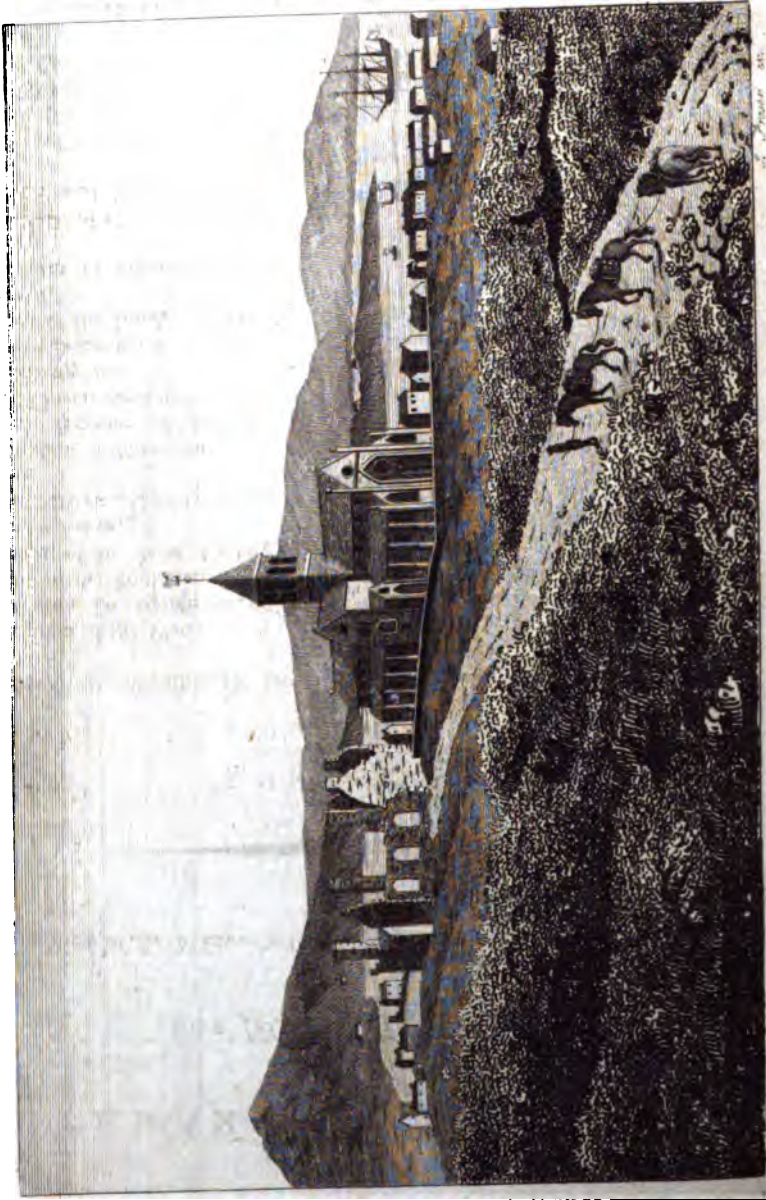
19. At Lauder, Mrs Margaret Falconer.

25. Miss Margaret Sandlands, daughter of William Sandlands, Esq. of East Barro.

27. Mr Alexander Buchanan, merchant in Glasgow.

28. Mrs Rob. Lochcad, of Glasgow.





THE CATHEDRAL OF ST. MAGNUS IN ORKNEY.



State of the BAROMETER in inches and decimals, and of Farenheit's THERMOMETER in the open air, taken in the morning before sun-rise, and at noon; and the quantity of rain-water fallen, in inches and decimals, from October 31st 1791, to the 29th of Nov. near the foot of Arthur's Seat.

		Thermom.		Barom.	Rain.	Weather.
		m.	a.			
Oct.	31	42	47	30.025	—	Clear
Nov.	1	45	49	29.975	0.25	Rain
	2	40	44	29.825	0.1	Ditto
	3	40	45	29.7	0.08	Ditto
	4	35	43	29.7	—	Clear
	5	36	41	29.925	—	Ditto
	6	31	42	29.375	—	Ditto
	7	32	40	29.575	0.035	Cloudy
	8	44	48	29.625		Clear
	9	40	47	29.5	—	Ditto
	10	40	50	29.575	—	Ditto
	11	40	55	29.3625	0.015	Showers
	12	48	51	29.15	—	Ditto
	13	50	45	29.525	0.09	Rain
	14	41	44	29.25	0.035	Showers
	15	38	45	29.55	0.24	Rain
	16	40	45	28.75	0.09	Ditto
	17	42	45	28.5	—	Clear
	18	38	40	28.925	0.84	Rain
	19	39	39	29.625	0.13	Ditto
	20	35	38	29.475		Ditto
	21	43	45	29.6	—	Clear
	22	40	45	29.55	0.08	Rain
	23	44	47	29.47	0.06	Ditto
	24	45	51	29.5	0.04	Showers
	25	38	45	29.6	0.1	Rain
	26	40	42	29.675	0.06	Ditto
	27	40	42	29.125	0.535	Ditto
	28	43	40	29.575	0.65	Ditto
	29	38	42	29.7125	—	Clear

Quantity of Rain, 331.

Days.	Thermometer.	Days.	Barom.
3. 55	greatest height at noon.	1.	30.025
6. 31	least ditto, morning.	17.	28.5
			greatest elevation.
			least ditto.

Description of the View prefixed to this Number.

THE town of Kirkwall is situated on the Main-land of Orkney, an island called by the ancients Pomona. It was erected into a royal burgh when the Danes possessed it, and the charter of confirmation by King James the Third, is dated at Edinburgh, the last day of March 1486. This Charter was afterwards ratified by King James the Fifth, and King Charles the Second.

The Cathedral of Kirkwall is an ancient structure. It was founded by Rogwald, (Rothwald?) Earl of Orkney, about the year 1137, and dedicated to his cousin Saint Magnus, the tutelary saint of the country. Afterwards, when the islands were recovered from Norway, it was considerably enlarged and beautified by different bishops. It is built in the form of a cross, of red free-stone. Though at present, from the deficiency of funds, but meanly supported, it is a venerable monument of the architecture of the times, and of the power of superstition in a remote country.

It is 226 feet long, and 56 feet broad. The height, from the floor to the top of the steeple, is 133 feet. The height to the main roof, is 71 feet. The east window in the place of worship is 12 feet broad, and 36 feet high. The church is built with arches above arches, and these are supported by 28 pillars, each 15 feet in circumference. The steeple rests on four pillars of excellent workmanship, each 24 feet in circumference. There have been originally 108 windows, 72 of which are now shut up. In the year 1670, the pyramid of the steeple was burnt, having been struck with lightning, by which some of the ancient bells were destroyed, but there still remains a chime of three.

The ruin on the left side of the plate is what is called the Bishop's palace. It was built by Patrick Stewart Earl of Orkney in 1606, and, after his execution in 1614, became the residence of the Bishops of Orkney.

To the Editor of the Edinburgh Magazine.

SIR,

I HAD occasion lately to read some part of Mr Boswell's *Life of Dr Johnson*, wherein I find, that so very imperfect a narrative is given of a circumstance in which I am interested, that I must expect, from your impartiality, the benefit of having my own account of that matter inserted in your respectable publication, the channel of universal intelligence.

I had indeed the honour to be among the guests of Mr Boswell, at the Mitre Tavern, on the 6th of July 1763, of whose conversation he gives some account Vol. I. p. 231. Every

reader will, I believe, acknowledge the propriety of one preliminary observation, which is, that I certainly had a right to be made acquainted with the purpose of Mr B. to lay before the public the particulars of our discourse, so far as respected myself; or, if he had formed no such purpose at the time when I received his invitation, of having his intention made known to me, at any rate, before it was carried into execution. As he has followed neither of those courses, I must take up the matter as he has left it, and endeavour to do justice to myself.

Mr B. thinks proper to say, that I

chose

chose, unluckily, as the subject of my part of the conversation of that evening, the *praises of my native country*. A very natural topic, if it had been so; but upon that occasion very unsuitable indeed. I began this hopeful panegyric by saying, that there is some very rich land around Edinburgh. Dr Goldsmith having driven me immediately from this sort by a simple assertion of the contrary, accompanied with a sneering laugh, I took new ground, on which he supposes that I thought myself perfectly safe; and asserted, that Scotland has many noble, wild prospects. Johnson replied to this observation, by comparing Scotland to Norway and Lapland, and excited a *roar* of applause.

I am perfectly sensible of the awkward situation wherein an individual is placed, who is obliged to make himself the theme of his own discourse: and I am also conscious, that many readers will consider the particulars of a conversation wherein that individual is solely interested, as being wholly unworthy their regard. Of these, the former at present is unavoidable, and the latter *prescribed* by Mr Boswell. Let me therefore try to make the best of both as they stand.

Our author's memory is much in fault, when he says that I introduced *any* subject of conversation when I was his guest at the time above mentioned. The most inexperienced, and one of the youngest persons in a company, of whom I had never till that time seen an individual, Mr B. excepted, with whom I was very slightly acquainted, I went there with the purpose of listening, not of speaking, and of receiving, not of giving information. I believe I am not in general accused of obtruding subjects upon the persons with whom I converse. And of all subjects whatever, the praise of my native country is the last which I

should have thought of introducing in the company of English gentlemen, of whom I had heard that one was invincibly prejudiced against it, and suspected that all might be under the influence of unfavourable prepossession: Johnson's dislike of Scotland is well known, and formed a predominant part of his character. He entered into the subject himself, and launched into an account of that kingdom by no means gratifying to a native of it, with that energy of voice and gesture by which, as well as by command of language, he was at all times eminently distinguished. During this time, although I had eyed this literary Dictator with some attention, I made no remark of any kind whatever. But I now began to *feel* in behalf of my country; and I ventured, with some timidity, to ask Dr Johnson whether he had ever been in Scotland?—Upon his answering in the negative to this question, I took occasion to say, (as Mr B. chose to remain silent) that although Scotland was in general less cultivated than England, the face of the country more mountainous, the soil perhaps less fertile, and the seasons surely more unfavourable; yet, that some particular parts of North Britain were certainly equal in beauty and fertility to any in England*: and I mentioned particularly, if I rightly remember, the counties of Lothian and Fife. I do not recollect that I said any thing concerning its wild and noble prospects. Yet it is very possible that I may have mentioned the rude magnificence of its highland regions. To all this Dr Johnson replied simply in these words:—"Sir, I believe the best thing in Scotland is the road to England." My memory preserves no stronger trace of the *roar* of applause wherewith so many well-bred men concurred in honouring this enunciation, than my ear retains at this moment

* I have here delivered the sense of what I said,—not the words in which it was expressed.

ment of its sound. My answer I distinctly recollect was, that opinion was the judge of that matter; and that in mine, the best thing in England was the road to Scotland, for which, I added, that I very soon proposed to set out. Of Dr Goldsmith's part of the conversation I have no knowledge.—Certainly, I should have merited censure for affirming that the country around Edinburgh is either rich or poor: for, although I know that the environs of that city are highly cultivated, I am ignorant of the quality of the soil. It is scarcely worth mentioning, that we passed from this subject to the number of inhabitants in N. Britain. Johnson estimated them (I now believe truly) at 1,500,000—I said, I believed they might amount to 2,000,000, and subjoined, that I lived myself in the neighbourhood of a city that contains about 20,000 persons.

These, Sir, are the particulars of the only conversation I ever had with Dr Johnson. I have often had occasion to repeat the circumstances above mentioned to my friends, although without having been called on, I should not have thought of making them known to the public. I cannot indeed authenticate this detail by Dr Johnson's own testimony; yet the note at the end of the page will perhaps satisfy the reader, that my share in the conversation of the evening was not quite so frivolous, when I was led into it, as it appears to have been in Mr B——'s account, as to this con-

versation, it has an obvious reference*.

I cannot, in the conclusion of this letter, altogether overlook the occasion which the subject of it presents, of doing justice to my own opinion of the character of this great man, who, with all the faults and foibles that are ascribed to him in the writings of his contemporaries, will command the admiration of future ages, in his own. While I see the mind of Johnson in the compass of his understanding, the splendour of his imagination, and the dignified cadence of his periods, I forget the foibles that diminish his radiance, foibles that ought now to be consigned for ever to oblivion. And while I envy the sages of antiquity (whose friends were unskilled in the modern art of *shading*), their claim to the most perfect eponation, I mark with a satisfaction, not perhaps altogether destitute of merit, the mind of this author breaking by strong and interrupted flashes thro' the cloud that surrounds it in the writings of his enemies, as well as of his panegyrists; alternately overshadowed by the breath of envy, or enveloped in the incoise of adulation. I admire his genius, honour his principles, love his virtues, and respect his memory.

I am,

SIR,

Your most obedient,

J. OGILVIE.

MIDMAR, near ABERDEEN,

Oct. 29. 1791.

* I happened to be from home on a journey of some length at the time when Dr Johnson was in Aberdeenshire, and saw him only once after the 6th of July 1763. I lent him however a copy of my inquiry into the causes of infidelity, by Mr Richardson, a Bookseller in London, with a short letter, wherein I reminded him of our meeting at the Mitre Tavern, as an event that might have been erased from his memory. His letter to Mr R——, who transmitted to him the book along with the few lines I had written, is now before me in his own hand-writing. I transcribe it verbatim.

SIR,

You will do me a favour, by returning my respectful thanks to Dr. Ogilvie, for the kind present of his book; and let him know, that I take amiss to be suspected of having forgotten him. I hope we shall never forget each other. I am,

SIR,

Your humble servant,

SAM. JOHNSON.

Feb. 23.

1782.

Some Account of the New Colony at Sierra Leona, on the Coast of Africa, as stated by Mr Clarkson to the Society in this Place for the Abolition of the Slave Trade.

THE first project of establishing a settlement on the river Sierra Leona, originated with the late benevolent Mr Jonas Hanway about the year 1786. Observing in the streets and environs of London a number of poor and neglected natives of Africa, subsisting in misery on precarious charity, he formed the idea of sending them back to their own country, in a situation in which they might be able at least to support themselves, and perhaps ultimately to benefit this kingdom. Three hundred of them were accordingly collected, and transported to a place on the river Sierra Leona, where it was expected they would have it in their power to turn their industry to a proper account. Unfortunately from misinformation, in respect to the climate and seasons in that part of the world, this little colony were sent out, and arrived in Africa at the most unfavourable period for forming a settlement. The rainy weather set in before they could provide shelter; and, from their bad accommodations, joined to other hardships to which they were exposed, a great mortality came on, which carried off more than one half of the Colonists. One hundred and twenty, however, survived all their distresses; and, when the more favourable season commenced, immediately took measures for forming a settlement, built a village, and began to cultivate the ground: the rudiments of a government were planned, and divine worship was regularly performed, and constantly as well as decently attended.

Even in this infant state they very early began to prove a considerable check on the enormities of the Slave Merchants. Two particular instances soon occurred, in which some persons had been kidnapped and carried

off from the grounds which the colony occupied;—councils were immediately held,—the slave ships boarded,—the unfortunate captives brought back,—and the captains of the vessels laid hold of and compelled to pay considerable fines for their misconduct. A series of such proceedings would soon have produced considerable inconvenience to the slave dealers, by restraining, at least in the territory of the colony, the villainous and inhuman practices from which much of the gain of that traffic arises; the different slave factories in the neighbourhood therefore united for the destruction of the infant settlement. The African Kings were, by different means, stirred up to attack them; and at last a detachment of Africans, conducted, it is said, by an European, attacked the new-built town, set fire to it (the white conductor setting the example), reduced it to a heap of ruins, and partly extirpated, partly dispersed, the inhabitants.

The Colonists, struck with consternation at this disaster, and dreading immediate and utter destruction, abandoned their settlement, and took refuge in fastnesses and morasses, where they were exposed to hardships that proved fatal to several. In hopes of relief, they found means to get several letters, stating their wretched situation, dispatched by different ships, addressed to the persons in London who had formed the plan of the settlement. As slave ships, however, were the only means of conveyance they could procure for these letters, not one of them was ever delivered, but all of them opened; and, on the contents being known, immediately destroyed. No answer being received to their letters, the settlers began to suspect

suspect their miscarriage; and, as the only mode of effecting their deliverance, one of them at last offered and undertook to venture on board a Slave ship, and go with it, first to the West Indies, and then to England. He did so, arrived safe, and gave the first intelligence to the benevolent planners of the scheme, of its total miscarriage, the means by which that had been effected, and the dismal situation of the surviving Colonists.

The Gentlemen concerned instantly resolved to attempt the relief of the sufferers. They dispatched a small vessel between 30 and 40 tons burden, under the care of M. Falconbridge surgeon, loaded with what might be most necessary for men in their circumstances. M. Falconbridge found the settlers in most distressed circumstances, destitute of every necessary, and many of them ready to perish from diseases contracted by their mode of living; many of these disorders he was able to cure, and collecting all the remains of the Colony, found seventy-four persons still surviving. These he brought together, and settled in a proper spot, where they built a village, and thus laid the foundation of the New Colony of Sierra Leona. Inured to the climate, and trained up by hardships and distress, they must prove a valuable acquisition to the infant settlement.

The Gentlemen in Britain, who had still an establishment on the African coast much at heart, profiting by the errors in the first attempt, resolved to proceed with more caution, and on a better plan in the second. A tract of ground on the river Sierra Leona, about 20 miles square, lying in lat. about 9°, was pitched upon as the proper spot, both on account of its central situation in the vicinity of several navigable rivers, and on account of the depth of water at the place where the proposed new town was to be erected, the river being there, at

low water, capable of floating a man of war almost close to the shore. The land besides appeared uncommonly fertile, and the climate with proper precaution by no means insalutary. Determined to proceed in all their transactions on the principles of the strictest equity and justice, the associated company, as the commencement of their operation, entered into terms with the several African princes, who claimed the property of this land, for the purchase of what they required. The terms were settled, the lands purchased at an expence of between two and three hundred pounds Sterling, and the African Chiefs made them over in perpetuity to the King of Great Britain.

The next step was to apply for an Act of Parliament, incorporating the Company, and empowering his Majesty to make a grant of the lands thus ceded to the new-established association. To the passing of this act, the greatest opposition was made by the slave-merchants and West-India planters; but in spite of their endeavours, it was carried through, and in consequence of it a grant of the land in the manner desired was obtained by the Company.

Being thus put in possession of a legal title to the ground, the next step was to procure a proper number of settlers for its cultivation. By a particular clause in the Act of Parliament, incorporating the Company, a positive restriction was laid against their either countenancing or adopting the practice of slavery; it was to free settlers alone, therefore, they were to look for a supply of inhabitants. The 74 persons already mentioned as the remains of the first Colony, were sure and useful hands, and were therefore regarded as the foundation of the settlement. But their number was too small to carry on any extensive plan, fresh settlers therefore were necessary. On enquiry it was found that many persons, both white and black,

in different parts of Britain, would cheerfully embrace the opportunity of settling in Sierra Leona, if proper encouragement was given. The Associated Company held out to these men terms perhaps the most liberal that any Company ever had offered. Every man, it was agreed, should be put in possession of twenty acres of land for himself, ten more for his wife, if he was a married man, and five more for every child he carried out with him; the Fee-simple of this land to belong in property to him and his heirs for ever. Tools and instruments of every kind were furnished at the Company's expence, and to insure the settlers against immediate want, three months provisions were provided to be given gratis to the Colonists on their arrival, and provisions for three months more laid in, to be sold to them if necessary, at a reasonable rate.

The liberality of these terms operated with many; and numerous applications were received from many who wished to embark in the scheme; none however were received who could not produce sufficient attestations in regard to their moral charac-

ter, and the regularity of their conduct. In a short time, three hundred and twenty persons, partly negroes, partly Europeans, were approved of; many of them possessed of small capitals, and all of them bearing respectable characters for industry, sobriety, and decency of behaviour. These were embarked on board of a proper vessel; and are now on their passage to, if not already arrived at Sierra Leona. The Company have purchased an old 44 gun frigate, which they mean to lie in the river to serve both as a magazine for stores and provisions, and a temporary habitation for the settlers, till they can get houses constructed on shore.

These two supplies of people, tho' together they form an infant colony; far from contemptible; yet are not the only ones which this settlement has to look for; a still greater accession will soon be made from America, owing to a series of circumstances, which, for the honour of Britain, it were to be wished had never taken place, but which may ultimately tend to the benefit of humanity.

(To be concluded in our next.)

New Discoveries respecting the purifying property of Charcoal.*

AMONGST other singular properties of Charcoal, it has lately been discovered by a gentleman at Petersburg, that all sorts of glass vessels and other utensils may be purified from long retained smells and taints of every kind, in the easiest and most perfect manner, by rinsing them out well with charcoal reduced to a fine powder, after their grosser impurities have been scoured off with sand and pot-ash — That people whose breath smells strong from a scorbutic disposition of the gums, may at any time get perfectly rid of this bad smell, by rubbing and washing out the mouth

thoroughly with fine charcoal powder; this simple application, at the same time, renders the teeth beautifully white; and that brown (or otherwise coloured) putrid stinking water may be deprived of its offensive smell, and rendered transparent by means of the same substance. Hence he thinks it would be of use for preserving water sweet during sea voyages, to add about 5 lb of coarse charcoal powder to every cask of water; it being only necessary afterwards to strain the water off when wanted, through a linen bag.

A Street

* From Crell's Chemical Journal.

*A Short Description of Carnicobar, by Mr G. Hamilton.**

THE island of, which I propose to give a succinct account, is the northernmost of that cluster in the Bay of Bengal which goes by the name of the Nicobars. It is low, of a round figure, about forty miles in circumference, and appears at a distance as if entirely covered with trees; however, there are several well-cleared and delightful spots upon it. The soil is a black kind of clay, and marshy. It produces in great abundance, and with little care, most of the tropical fruits, such as pine-apples, plantains, papayas, cocoa-nuts, and areca nuts; also excellent yams, and a root called *cachu*. The only four-footed animals upon the island are hogs, dogs, large rats, and an animal of the lizard kind, but large, called by the natives *salonqui*; these frequently carry off fowls and chickens. The only kind of poultry are hens, and those not in great plenty. There are abundance of snakes of many different kinds, and the inhabitants frequently die of their bites. The timber upon the island is of many sorts, in great plenty, and some of it remarkably large, affording excellent materials for building or repairing ships.

The natives are low in stature, but very well made, and surprisingly active and strong; they are copper-coloured, and their features have a cast of the Malay, quite the reverse of elegant. The women in particular are extremely ugly. The men cut their hair short and the women have their heads shaved quite bare; and wear no covering but a short petticoat, made of a sort of rush or dry grass, which reaches half way down the thigh. This grass is not interwoven, but hangs round

the person something like the thatching of a house. Such of them as have received presents of cloth petticoats from the ships, commonly tie them round immediately under the arms. The men wear nothing but a narrow strip of cloth about the middle, in which they wrap up their privities so tight that there hardly is any appearance of them. The ears of both sexes are pierced when young, and by squeezing into the holes large plugs of wood, or hanging heavy weights of shells, they contrive to render them wide, and disagreeable to look at. They are naturally disposed to be good humoured and gay, and are very fond of sitting at table with Europeans, where they eat every thing that is set before them, and they eat most enormously. They do not care much for wine, but will drink bumpers of arak as long as they can see. A great part of their time is spent in feasting and dancing. When a feast is held at any village, every one that chuses goes uninvited, for they are utter strangers to ceremony. At those feasts they eat immense quantities of pork, which is their favourite food. Their hogs are remarkably fat, being fed upon the cocoa-nut kernel and sea-water; indeed, all their domestic animals, fowls, dogs, &c. are fed upon the same. They have likewise plenty of small sea fish, which they strike very dexterously with lances; wading into the sea about knee-deep. They are sure of killing a very small fish at ten or twelve yards distance. They eat the pork almost raw, giving it only a hasty grill over a quick fire. They roast a fowl, by running a piece of wood through it by way of spit, and holding it over

* From the Second Volume of the *Asiatic Researches*, just published.

a brisk fire until the feathers are burnt off, when it is ready for eating in their taste. They never drink water; only cocoa-nut milk, and a liquor called *foura*, which oozes from the cocoa-nut tree after cutting off the young sprouts or flowers. This they suffer to ferment before it is used, and then it is intoxicating, to which quality they add much by their method of drinking it, by sucking it slowly through a small straw. After eating, the young men and women who are fancifully dressed with leaves, go to dancing, and the old people surround them smoking tobacco and drinking *foura*. The dancers, while performing, sing some of their tunes, which are far from wanting harmony, and to which they keep exact time. Of musical instruments they have only one kind, and that the simplest. It is a hollow bamboo, about two feet and a half long, and three inches in diameter, along the outside of which there is stretched from end to end a single string made of the threads of a split cane, and the place under the string is hollowed a little to prevent it from touching. This instrument is played upon in the same manner as a guitar. It is capable of producing but few notes; the performer, however, makes it speak harmoniously, and generally accompanies it with the voice.

What they know of physic is small and simple. I had once occasion to see an operation in surgery performed on the toe of a young girl who had been stung by a scorpion, or centipes. The wound was attended with a considerable swelling, and the little patient seemed in great pain. One of the natives produced the under jaw of a small fish, which was long, and planted with two rows of teeth as sharp as needles: taking this in one hand, and a small stick by way of hammer in the other, he struck the teeth three or four times into the swelling, and made it bleed freely; the toe was then bound up with certain leaves, and

next day the child was running about perfectly well.

Their houses are generally built upon the beach, in villages of fifteen or twenty houses each; and each house contains a family of twenty persons and upwards. These habitations are raised upon wooden pillars about ten feet from the ground; they are round, and, having no windows, look like bee-hives covered with thatch. The entry is through a trap door below, where the family mount by a ladder, which is drawn up at night. This manner of building is intended to secure the houses from being infested with snakes and rats, and for that purpose the pillars are bound round with a smooth kind of leaf, which prevents animals from being able to mount; besides which, each pillar has a broad round flat piece of wood near the top of it, the projecting of which effectually prevents the further progress of such vermin, as may have passed the leaf. The flooring is made with thin strips of bamboo, laid at such distances from one another, as to leave free admission for light and air, and the inside is neatly finished, and decorated with fishing lances, nets, &c.

The art of making cloth of any kind is quite unknown to the inhabitants of this island; what they have is got from the ships that come to trade in cocoa-nuts. In exchange for their nuts (which are reckoned the finest in this part of India) they will accept of but few articles; what they chiefly wish for is cloth of different colours, hatchets and hanger blades, which they use in cutting down the nuts. Tobacco and arak they are very fond of, but expect these in presents. They have no money of their own, nor will they allow any value to the coin of other countries, further than as they happen to fancy them for ornaments; the young women sometimes hanging strings of dollars about their necks. However, they are good judges of

gold

gold and silver, and it is no easy matter to impose baser metals upon them as such.

They purchase a much larger quantity of cloth than is consumed upon their own Island. This is intended for the Choury market. Choury is a small island to the southward of theirs, to which a large fleet of their boats sails every year about the month of November, to exchange cloth for canoes, for they cannot make these themselves. This voyage they perform by the help of the sun and stars, for they know nothing of the compass.

In their disposition there are two remarkable qualities. One is, their entire neglect of compliment and ceremony; and the other, their aversion to dishonesty. A Carnicobarian travelling to a distant village upon business or amusement, passes through many towns in his way without perhaps speaking to any one; if he is hungry or tired, he goes up into the nearest house, and helps himself to what he wants, and sits till he is rested, without taking the smallest notice of any of the family, unless he has business or news to communicate. Theft or robbery is so rare amongst them, that a man going out of his house never takes away his ladder, or shuts his door, but leaves it open for any body to enter that pleases, without the least apprehension of having any thing stolen from him.

Their intercourse with strangers is so frequent, that they have acquired in general the barbarous Portuguese so common over India. Their own language has a sound quite different from most others, their words being pronounced with a kind of stop, or catch in the throat at every syllable. The few following words will serve to shew those who are acquainted with other Indian languages, whether there is any similitude between them.

A man,	<i>Kegonia,</i>
A woman,	<i>Kecanna,</i>
A child,	<i>Chu.</i>
To laugh,	<i>Ayclaur,</i>
A canoe,	<i>App,</i>
To eat,	<i>Gnid,</i>
To drink,	<i>Okk,</i>
Yams,	<i>T'owla,</i>
To weep,	<i>Poing,</i>
A pine apple,	<i>Frung.</i>
A house,	<i>Albanam.</i>
A sow,	<i>Haydn,</i>
A hog,	<i>Houw.</i>
Fish,	<i>Ka.</i>
To sleep,	<i>Loom loom.</i>
A dog,	<i>T'amam.</i>
Fire,	<i>T'amia,</i>
Rain,	<i>Koomra.</i>

They have no notion of a God, but they believe firmly in the Devil, and worship him from fear. In every village there is a high pole erected, with long strings of gourd-rattans hanging from it, which, it is said, has the virtue to keep him at a distance. When they see any signs of an approaching storm, they imagine that the Devil intends them a visit, upon which many superstitious ceremonies are performed. The people of every village march round their own boundaries, and fix up at different distances small sticks split at the top, into which split they put a piece of cocoa-ut, a wisp of tobacco, and the leaf of a certain plant: whether this is meant as a peace-offering to the Devil, or a scarecrow to frighten him away, does not appear.

When a man dies, all his live-stock, cloth, hatchets, fishing-lances, and in short every moveable thing he possessed, is buried with him; and his death is mourned by the whole village. In one view this is an excellent custom, seeing it prevents all disputes about the property of the deceased amongst his relations. His wife must conform to custom by having a joint cut off from one of her

fingers; and, if she recuses this, she must submit to have a deep notch cut in one of the pillars of her house.

I was once present at the funeral of an old woman. When we went into the house, which had belonged to the deceased, we found it full of her female relations; some of them were employed in wrapping up the corpse in leaves and cloth which had belonged to her. In another house hard by, the men of the village, with a great many others from the neighbouring towns, were sitting drinking *foura* and smoking tobacco. In the mean time two stout young fellows were busy digging a grave in the sand near the house. When the women had done with the corpse, they set up a most hideous howl, upon which the people began to assemble round the grave, and four men went up into the house to bring down the body; in doing this, they were much interrupted by a young man, son to the deceased, who endeavoured with all his might to prevent them, but finding it in vain, he clung round the body, and was carried to the grave along with it; there, after a violent struggle, he was turned away and conducted back to the house. The corpse being now put into the grave, and the lathings which bound the legs and arms cut, all the live-stock which had been the property of the deceased, consisting of about half-a-dozen pigs, and as many fowls, was killed, and hung in above it: a man then approached with a bunch of leaves stuck upon the end of a pole, which he swept two or three times gently along the corpse, and then the grave was filled up. During the ceremony, the women continued to make the most horrible vocal concert imaginable; the men said nothing. A few days afterwards, a kind of monument was erected over the grave, with a pole upon it, to which long strips of cloth of different colours were hung.

Polygamy is not known among them; and their punishment of adultery is not less severe than effectual. They cut from the man's offending member a piece of the fore-skin proportioned to the frequent commission or enormity of the crime.

There seems to subsist among them a perfect equality. A few persons, from their age, have a little more respect paid to them; but there is no appearance of authority one over another. Their society seems bound rather by mutual obligations continually conferred and received; the simplest and best of all ties.

The inhabitants of the Andamans are said to be Cannibals. The people of Carnicobar have a tradition among them, that several canoes came from Andaman many years ago, and that the crews were all armed, and committed great depredations, and killed several of the Nicobarians. It appears at first remarkable, that there should be such a wide difference between the manners of the inhabitants of islands so near to one another; the Andamans being savage Cannibals, and the others the most harmless inoffensive people possible. But it is accounted for by the following historical anecdote, which, I have been assured, is matter of fact. Shortly after the Portuguese had discovered the passage to India round the Cape of Good Hope, one of their ships, on board of which was a number of Mozambique negroes, was lost on the Andaman islands, which were till then uninhabited. The blacks remained in the island and settled it: the Europeans made a small shallop, in which they sailed to Pegu. On the other hand, the Nicobar islanders were peopled from the opposite main and the coast of Pegu; in proof of which the Nicobar and Pegu languages are said, by those acquainted with the latter, to have much resemblance:

*Account of the Officers and Government of New-Forest in Hampshire **

WITH regard to the situation and boundaries of this extensive forest, it occupies the southwest extremity of Ham, shire; and in its earlier form was a kind of peninsula, bounded by the bay of Southampton on the east—by the river Avon, on the west—and on the south, by the channel of the Isle of Wight, as far as the Needles; and to the west of those rocks by the ocean. Thus the boundaries of New-forest were determined by the natural lines of the country.

This tract of wood-land was originally made a forest by William I. in the year 1079, about thirteen years after the battle of Hastings; and is indeed the only forest in England, whose origin can be traced. It took the denomination of New-forest from its being an addition to the many forests, which the crown already possessed; and which had formerly been appropriated in feudal times. The original name of this tract of country was *Ytene*.

The government of New-forest is, at this time, nearly what it originally was, excepting only that the abolition of forest-law hath restrained the power of its officers.

The chief officer belonging to it is the Lord-warden, who is generally some person of great distinction. The present Lord warden is the Duke of Gloucester.—Under him are two distinct appointments of officers; the one to preserve the venison of the forest; and the other to preserve its vert. The former term, in the language of forest-law, includes all species of game: the latter respects the woods, and laws, which harbour and feed them.

Of those officers who superintend the game, are, first, the two rangers. But the office of ranger, as

well as that of bow-bearer, and a few others, have been long in disuse: at least they seem to be delegated to the keepers: of these there are fifteen; who preside over as many walks, into which the forest is divided. In each walk is erected a lodge. A few of these lodges are elegant mansions; and are the habitations of the keepers, who are generally men of fashion, or fortune. Prince William of Gloucester has one; the Duke of Bolton another; and Lord Delaware a third; but in general, the lodges are but moderate buildings; and are inhabited by the under keepers, or groom-keepers, as they are called; on whom the executive part of the keeper's office devolves.

The under-keeper feeds the deer in winter—browzes them in summer—knows where to find a fat buck—executes the king's warrants for venison—presents offences in the forest-courts—and prevents the destruction of game. In this last article his virtue is chiefly shown; and to this purpose the memory of every sound keeper should be furnished with this cabalistic verse,

Stable-stand;
Dog-draw;
Back-bear; and
Bloody-hand.

It implies the several circumstances, in which offenders may be taken with the manner, as it is phrased. If a man be found armed, and stationed in some suspicious part of the forest—or if he be found with a dog pursuing a stricken deer—or if he be found carrying a dead deer on his back—or, lastly, if he be found bloody in the forest; he is, in all these cases, seizable; though the fact of killing a deer cannot be proved upon him. The under-keeper

* From Gilpin's Remarks on Forest Scenery.

under-keeper also drives the forest; that is he annually impounds all the cattle that pasture in his walk; and sees them examined, and properly marked.

With regard to the woods of the forest, which were originally considered only as they respected game, the first officer, under the lord-warden, is the woodward. It is his business, as his title denotes, to inspect the woods. He prevents waste—he sees that young trees are properly fenced—and he assigns timber for the payment of forest-officers. This timber is sold by auction at the court at Lyndhurst; and annually amounts to about seven hundred pounds, which is the sum required.

Under the woodward are twelve regarders; and to these indeed chiefly is delegated the executive part of his office. The regarders seize the hedge-bills, and axes of trespassers; present offences in the forest courts; and assign such timber as is claimed by the inhabitants, and borderers of the forest, for fuel, and repairs. Of this inferior wood, there are great quantities assigned, on every side of the forest. I can only speak of my own assignment, as vicar of Boldre, which is annually twelve load.

Besides these officers, who are in effect the officers of the crown, as they are appointed by the lord-warden; there are four others, called *verderors*, who are commonly gentlemen of property and interest in the neighbourhood, and are elected, like the knights of the shire, by the freeholders of the county. These officers, since the *justiciary-in-eye* has been a sinecure, are the only judges of the forest-courts. The Verderor is an ancient forest officer. His name occurs in the earliest account of forest-law. But though his appointment has at present a democratical cast, it is probable that he was formerly a royal officer, and that his election by the freeholders of the county was extort-

ed from the crown in some period favourable to liberty. As New-forest was always considered as the great magazine of navy timber, the verderors were empowered by an Act of Parliament in King William's time, to fine delinquents to the amount of five pounds in their attachment-counts: whereas in all the other forests of England, the fine does not amount to more than a few pence, which was the original amercement. The *verderor* is an officer without salary: but by ancient custom he was entitled to course, and take what deer he pleased, in his way to the forest-court: but this privilege is now compounded by an annual fee of a buck and a doe.

Besides these ancient officers of the forest, there is one of later institution, since timber became valuable as a material. He is called the *purveyor*, and is appointed by the commissioner of the dock at Portsmouth. His business is to assign timber for the use of the navy. The origin of the purveyor is not earlier than the reign of Charles II. in whose time five hundred oaks, and fifty beeches were annually assigned for the king's yards; and this officer was appointed to assign them. But it being found, that the forest could ill supply so large a quantity of oak, instead of five hundred, this number was afterwards reduced to sixty; which, together with fifty beeches, are still annually assigned. The purveyor has a salary of sixty pounds a year; and six and eight-pence a day, when on duty.

I shall conclude this account of the officers of the forest with the singular character of one of them, who lived in the times of James and Charles I. It is preserved in Hatcher's History of Dorsetshire.

The name of this memorable sportsman, for in that character alone he was conspicuous, was Henry Hattings. He was second son to the Earl of Huntingdon, and inherited a good estate in Dorsetshire from his mother.

He

He was one of the keepers of New-forest, and resided in his lodge there during a part of Every hunting-season. But his principal residence was at Woodlands, in Dorsetshire, where he had a capital mansion. One of his nearest neighbours was the Lord Chancellor Cooper, first Earl of Shaftsbury. Two men could not be more opposite in their dispositions and pursuits. They had little communication therefore; and their occasional meetings were rendered more disagreeable to both, from their opposite sentiments in politics. Lord Shaftsbury, who was the younger man, was the survivor; and the following account of Mr Hastings, which I have somewhat abridged, is said to have been the production of his pen.

Mr Hastings was low of stature, but very strong, and very active; of a ruddy complexion, with flaxen hair. His cloaths were always of green cloth. His house was of the old fashion; in the midst of a large park, well stocked with deer, rabbits, and fish-ponds. He had a long narrow bowling-green in it; and used to play with round sand-bowls. Here too he had a banqueting-room built like a stand, that ran buck, fox, hare, otter, and badger; and had hawks of all kinds, both long and short winged. His great hall was commonly strewed with marrow-bones; and full of hawk-perches, hounds, spaniels, and terriers. The upper end of it was hung with fox-skins of this and the last year's killing. Here and there a pole-cat was intermixed; and hunter's poles in great abundance. The parlour was a large room, completely furnished in the same style. On a broad hearth, paved with brick, lay some of the choicest terriers, hounds, and spaniels. One or two of the great chairs had litters of cats in them, which were not to be disturbed. Of these three or four always attended him at dinner; and a little white wand lay by his trencher, to

defend it, if they were too troublesome. In the windows, which were very large, lay his arrows, cross-bows, and other accoutrements. The corners of the room were filled with his best hunting and hawking poles. His oyster-table stood at the lower end of the room, which was in constant use twice a day, all the year round; for he never failed to eat oysters both at dinner and supper, with which the neighbouring town of Pool supplied him. At the upper end of the room stood a small table with a double desk; one side of which held a church-bible; the other, the book of martyrs. On different tables in the room lay hawk's-hoods; bells; old hats, with their crowns thrust in; full of pheasant eggs; tables; dice; cards; and store of tobacco-pipes. At one end of this room was a door, which opened into a closet; where stood bottles of strong beer and wine; which never came out but in single glasses, which was the rule of the house; for he never exceeded himself, nor permitted others to exceed. Answering to this closet was a door into an old chapel; which had been long disused for devotion; but in the pulpit, as the safest place, was always to be found a cold chine of beef, & venison-pasty, a gammon of bacon, or a great apple-pye, with thick crust, well-baked. His table cost him not much, though it was good to eat at. His sports supplied all, but beef and mutton; except on Fridays, when he had the best of fish. He never wanted a London pudding; and he always sang it in with, "*My part lies therein-a.*" He drank a glass or two of wine at meals; put syrup of gillyflowers into his sack; and had always a tangle of small-beer standing by him, which he often stirred about with rosemary. He lived to be an hundred; and never lost his eye-sight, nor used spectacles. He got on horse-back without help; and rode to the death of the stag, till he was past fourscore.

*Of the present State of the Inhabitants of New-Forest **

AFTER the forest had lost its great legal support, and reasons of state obliged the monarch to seek his amusements nearer home, the extent of these royal demesns began insensibly to diminish. New-forest, among others, was greatly curtailed. Large portions of it were given away in grants by the crown. Many gentlemen have houses in its interior parts; and their tenants are in possession of well cultivated farms. For though the soil of New-forest is, in general, poor; yet there are some parts of it which very happily admit culture. Thus the forest has suffered in many places, what its ancient laws considered as the greatest of all mischiefs, under the name of an assart; a word, which signifies grubbing up its coverts, and copses, and turning the harbours of deer into arable land. A stop however is now put to all grants from the crown. The crown-lands became public property under the care of the treasury, when the civil list was settled. The king can only grant leases for thirty years; and the parliament seldom interferes in a longer extension, except on particular occasions.

Besides these defalcations arising from the bounty of the crown, the forest is continually preyed on by the incroachments of inferior people. There are multitudes of trespassers, on every side of it, who build their little huts, and enclose their little gardens, and patches of ground, without leave, or ceremony of any kind. The under-keepers, who have constant orders to destroy all these inclosures, now and then assert the rights of the forest, by throwing down a fence; but it requires a legal process to throw down a house, of which possession has been

taken. The trespasser therefore here, as on other wastes, is careful to rear his cottage, and get into it as quickly as possible. I have known all the materials of one of these habitations brought together—the house built—covered in—the goods removed—a fire kindled—and the family in possession, during the course of a moonlight night. Sometimes indeed, where the trespass is inconsiderable, the possessor has been allowed to pay a fine for his land in the court of Lyndhurst. But these trespasses are generally in the outskirts of the forest; or in the neighbourhood of some little hamlet. They are never suffered in the interior parts; where no lands are alienated from the crown, except in regular grants.

The many advantages which the borderers on forests enjoy, such as rearing cattle and hogs, obtaining fuel at an easy rate, and procuring little patches of land for the trouble of inclosing it, would add much, one should imagine, to the comfort of their lives. But in fact it is otherwise. These advantages procure them not half the enjoyments of common day-labourers. In general, they are an indolent race; poor and wretched in the extreme. Instead of having the regular returns of a week's labour to subsist on, too many of them depend on the precarious supply of forest pilfer. Their ostensible business is commonly to cut furze, and carry it to the neighbouring brick-kilns; for which purpose they keep a team of two or three forest-horses: while their collateral support is deer-stealing, poaching or purloining timber. In this last occupation they are said to have been so expert, that, in a night's time, they would have cut down, carried off,

and

* From the Same.

and lodged safely in the hands of some receiver, one of the largest oaks of the forest. But the depredations, which have been made in timber, along all the skirts of the forest, have rendered this species of theft, at present, but an unprofitable employment. In poaching, and deer-stealing, they often find their best account; in all the arts of which many of them are well practised. From their earliest youth they learn to set the trap and the gin for hares and pheasants; to ensnare deer by hanging hooks, baited with apples, from the boughs of trees; and (as they became bolder proficients,) to watch the herd with fire-arms, and single out a fat buck; as he passes the place of their concealment.

In wild rugged countries, the mountaineer forms a very different character from the forester. He leads a life of labour; he procures nothing without it. He has neither time for idleness, and dishonest arts; nor meets with any thing to allure him into them. But the forester, who has the temptation of plunder on every side, finds it easier to trespass, than to work. Hence, the one becomes often a rough, manly, ingenuous peasant; the other a supple, crafty, pilfering knave. Even the very practice of following a night occupation leads to mischief. The nightly wanderer, unless his mind be engaged in some necessary business, will find many temptations to take the advantage of the incautious security of those who are asleep.—From these considerations Mr St. John draws an argument for the sale of forest-lands. "Poverty, says he, will be changed into affluence—the cottager will become a farmer—the wilderness will be converted into rich pastures, and fertile fields; furnishing provisions for the country, and employment for the poor. The borders and confines of forests will cease to be nurseries for county-gentles; the trespasser will no longer prey upon

the vert; nor the vagabond, and out law on the venison: Nay the very soil itself will not then be gradually lost, and stolen, by purprestures and assarts: Thus forests, which were formerly the haunts of robbers, and the scenes of violence and rapine, may be converted into the receptacles of honest industry."

I had once some occasional intercourse with a forest-borderer, who had formerly been a noted deer-stealer. He had often (like the deer-stealer in the play)

_____struck a doe,
And borne her cleanly by the keeper's nose.

Indeed he had been at the head of his profession; and during a reign of five years, assured me, he had killed, on an average, not fewer than an hundred bucks a year. At length he was obliged to abscond; but composing his affairs, he abjured his trade, and would speak of his former arts without reserve. He has oftener than once confessed the sins of his youth to me; from which an idea may be formed of the mystery of deer-stealing, in it's highest mode of perfection. In his excursions in the forest he carried with him a gun, which screwed into three parts and which he could easily conceal in the lining of his coat. Thus armed he would drink with the under-keepers without suspicion; and when he knew them engaged, would securely take his stand in some distant part, and mark his buck. When he had killed him, he would draw him aside into the bushes, and spend the remaining part of the day in a neighbouring tree, that he might be sure no eyes were in the way. At night he secreted his plunger. He had boarded off a part of his cottage, (forming a rough door into it, like the rest of the partition, stuck full of false nail-heads,) with such artifice, that the keepers on an information, have searched his house again and again, and have gone off satisfied of his

his innocencè; though his secret larder perhaps at that very time contained a brace of bucks. He had always he said a quick market for his venison; for the country is as ready to purchase it, as these fellows are to procure it. It is a forest adage of ancient date, *non est inquirendum unde venit venison.*

The incroachments of trespassers, and the houses and fences thus raised on the borders of the forest, though, at this time, in a degree consived-at, were heretofore considered as great nuisances by the old forest-law, and were very severely punished under the name of *purprestures*, as tending *ad terrorem ferarum--ad nocumentum forestæ--* and, as might be added, at this time, by the neighbouring parishes, *ad incrementum pauperum.* When a stranger therefore rears one of these sodden fabricks, the parish-officers make him provide a certificate from his own parish, or they remove him. But the mischief commonly arises from a parishioner's raising his cottage, and afterwards selling it to a stranger, which may give him parish-rights. These encroachments, however, are evils of so long standing, that at this day they hardly admit a remedy. Many of these little tenements have been so long occupied, and have passed through so many hands, that the occupiers are now in secure possession.

Where the manor of Beaulieu-abbey is railed from the forest, a large settlement of this kind runs in scattered cottages, at least a mile along the rails. This nest of incroachers the late Duke of Bedford, when Lord-warden of the forest, resolved to root out. But he met with such sturdy, and determined opposition from the forasters of the hamlet, who amounted to more than two hundred men, that he was obliged to desist—whether he took improper measures, as he was a man of violent temper,—or whether no measures, which he could have taken, would have been

effectual in repressing so inveterate an evil.—And yet in some circumstances, these little tenements (incroachments as they are, and often the nurseries of idleness) give pleasure to a benevolent breast. When we see them, as we sometimes do, the habitations of innocence and industry; and the means of providing for a large family with ease and comfort, we are pleased at the idea of so much utility and happiness, arising from a petty trespass on a waste, which cannot in itself be considered as an injury.

I once found, in a tenement of this kind, an ancient widow, whose little story pleased me.—Her solitary dwelling stood sweetly in a dell, on the edge of the forest. Her husband had himself reared it, and led her to it, as the habitation of her life. He had made a garden in the front, planted an orchard at one end, and a few trees at the other, which in forty years had now shielded the cottage, and almost concealed it. In her early youth she had been left a widow with two sons and a daughter, whose slender education (only what herself could give them) was almost her whole employment: and the time of their youth, she said, was the pleasantest time of her life. As they grew up, and the cares of the world subdued, a stertid piety took possession of her mind. Her age was oppressed with infirmity, sickness, and various afflictions in her family. In these distresses, her bible was her great comfort. I visited her frequently in her last illness, and found her very intelligent in scripture, and well versed in all the gospel-topics of consolation. For many years she every day read a portion of her bible, seldom any other book.

Just knew, and knew no more, her bible true;

And in that charter read with sparkling eyes,

Her title to a treasure in the skies.

When

When she met with passages she did not understand, at one time, or other, she said, she often heard them explained at church.—The story seems to evince how very sufficient plain scripture is, unassisted with other helps, except such as are publicly provided, to administer both the knowledge and the comforts of religion even to the lowest classes of people.

The dialect of Hampshire has a particular tendency to the corruption

of pronouns, by confounding their cases. This corruption prevails thro' the country; but it seems to increase as we approach the sea. About the neighbourhood of New-forest this Doric hath attained its perfection. I have oftener than once met with the following tender elegiac in church-yards.

Him shall never come again to we;
But we shall surely, one day, go to he.

Anecdotes of General Washington.*

THE moment I arrived at Alexandria I was eager to repair to Mount Vernon, a beautiful seat of General Washington, situated ten miles lower down the river.—On the road to it we pass through a great deal of wood; and after having mounted two hills we discover the house, elegant, though simple, and of a pleasing aspect. Before it is a neat lawn on one side stables for horses and cattle: on the other a green-house, and buildings where the negroes work. In a kind of yard are perceived ducks, geese, turkeys, and other poultry. The house commands a view of the Potomac, and enjoys a most beautiful prospect. On the side towards that river it has a large and lofty portico.—The plan of the house is well-conceived and convenient. Without, it is covered with a kind of varnish, a cement that renders it almost impenetrable by the rain.—It was evening when the General arrived, fatigued by a tour through a part of his estate, where he was tracing out a road. You have frequently heard him compared to Cincinnatus: the comparison is just. The celebrated General is now no more than a good

farmer, constantly employed in the management of his farm, in improving his lands, and in building barns. He shewed me one not yet finished. It is a vast pile, about a hundred feet long, and still more in width, designed as a storehouse for his corn, potatoes, turnips, &c. Around it are constructed stables for all his cattle, his horses, his asses, the breed of which, unknown in this country, he is endeavouring to increase. The plan of the building is so judiciously contrived, that a man may quickly fill the racks with hay or potatoes, without the least danger.—The General informed me, that he had built it after a plan sent him by the celebrated English husbandman Arther Young, but which he had considerably improved.—This building is of brick made on the spot; and every part of it, except the joists of the roof, and the shingles that cover it, which for want of time he was forced to buy, is the produce of the estate. He told me, that it did not cost him above three hundred pounds.—In France it would have cost upwards of 80,000 *liv.* [8,333*l.*] That year he had planted seven hundred bushels of potatoes.

* From Briffot's Travels in North America.

All this was quite new to Virginia, where there is neither barns nor provision for cattle.

His horses, his asses, his mules, were wandering in the neighbouring pastures. He told us, that it was his intention to set his country the example of cultivating artificial meadows, so rare in it, yet so necessary, as in winter the cattle are frequently in want of fodder. He had a noble stallion, which will keep up the breed of good horses in the country, and showed us two fine asses from Malta and Spain.

His three hundred negroes were distributed in log-houses scattered over the estate, which in that part contains upwards of ten thousand acres.

Colonel Humphreys, the poet of whom I have already spoken, and who lives with him in the quality of his secretary assured me, that his possessions in different places consisted of more than two hundred thousand acres.

The General had invited over from England a good English farmer, with his family, and placed him at the head of his husbandry.

Every thing in the General's house is simple.—His table is well supplied, but without ostentation. Mrs Washington superintends every thing, and with the qualities of an excellent farmer's wife unites that simple dignity which ought to distinguish a woman whose husband has filled the greatest station. To these she adds also that sweetness, and that attention to strangers, which renders hospitality so agreeable. The same virtues are possessed by her engaging niece, whose health, unhappily, appears to be very delicate.

You have heard me blame Mr Chastellux for having displayed so much wit in the portrait he has given of the General. An artful portrait of an artless man is totally out of character. The General's goodness beams

in his eyes. They have no longer that fire which his officers found in them when at the head of his army; but they brighten in conversation. In his countenance there are no striking features; whence it is difficult to catch a likeness of him, for few of his portraits resemble him. All his answers discover good sense, consummate prudence, and great diffidence of himself; but at the same time, an unalterable firmness in the part he has once embraced. His modesty cannot but be particularly astonishing to a Frenchman. He speaks of the American war as if he had not been the conductor of it; and of his victories with an indifference with which no stranger could mention them. I never saw him grow warm, or depart from that coolness which characterises him, except when talking on the present state of America. The divisions of his country repd his soul. He feels the necessity of rallying all the friends of liberty around a central point, and of giving energy to the government. To his country he is still ready to sacrifice that quiet which constitutes his happiness. Happiness, said he to me, is not in grandeur, is not in the bustle of life. This philosopher was so thoroughly convinced of the truth of this, that from the moment of his retreat he broke off every political connection, and renounced every place in the government; yet in spite of such a renunciation, of such disinterestedness, of such modesty, this astonishing man has enemies! He has been vilified in the newspapers, he has been accused of ambition, of intrigue, when all his life, when all America, can witness his disinterestedness, and the rectitude of his conduct: Virginia is perhaps the sole country where he has enemies; for no where else have I heard his name pronounced but with respect, mixed with affection and gratitude. You would think the Americans were speaking of their father. It would

be wrong perhaps to compare Washington with the most celebrated warriors: but he is the model of a republican; displaying all the qualities, all the virtue of one.

He spoke to me of Mr la Fayette with tenderness. He considered him as his son; and saw with joy, mixed with anxiety, the part he was about to play in the revolution preparing in France. Of the issue of that revolution he had his doubts: if he knew, on the one hand, the ardour of the French in rushing into extremes,

he knew, on the other, their profound idolatry for their ancient government and their monarchy, the inviolability of which appeared to him ridiculous.

After having spent about three days in the house of that celebrated man, who loaded me with civilities, and gave me much information, respecting both the late war and the present situation of the United States, I returned with regret to Alexandria.

Anecdotes of Count Cagliostro.*

SINCE the death of Joseph Francis Borri, the celebrated chemist, heresarch, physician, and prophet, who distinguished himself about the beginning of the seventeenth century, by his uncommon capacity and numerous impostures, Europe has not, perhaps, produced such an extraordinary character as Joseph Balsamo, commonly known by the name of Count Cagliostro.

In a memoir published by himself while in England, being desirous to conceal the secret of his origin beneath an impenetrable veil of mystery, he pretended that he could not speak positively as to the place of his nativity, nor in regard to the parents from whom he derived his birth. This circumstance gave an ample scope to the imagination of his followers, some of whom pretended that he was the offspring of the grand master of Malta, by a Turkish lady, taken captive by a galley belonging to that island; while others, with equal probability, asserted that he was the only surviving son of that Prince, who about thirty-five years ago swayed the precarious

sceptre of Trebisond! To infuse into this story a greater portion of the *marvellous*, it was added, that a revolution taking place, in consequence of which, the reigning sovereign was sacrificed to the fury of his seditious subjects, his infant son was conveyed by a trusty friend to Medina, where the Mussulman Sherif had the generosity to educate him in the faith of his Christian parents. He himself asserted, that at an age, when he first became conscious of his existence, he found himself in the city of Medina, was called Acharat, had a person of the name of Altaras for his governor, was attended by two eunuchs, who treated him with the utmost deference and respect, and resided in the house of the Musti Salaahym.

This account, which, it must be acknowledged, has all the air of a romance, could neither satisfy nor impose upon the inquisition. The holy fathers accordingly made the strictest search after the origin of Cagliostro, and at last discovered, that this pretended prince and heir apparent to the kingdom of Trebisond, was the son of

* From his life, lately published,

of Peter Balsano and Felicia Braccieri, both of them persons of mean extraction, and that he was born at Palermo on the 8th of June, 1743. His father happening to die during his infancy, his maternal uncles took him under their protection, endeavoured to instruct him in the principles of religion, and gave him an education suitable to his years and their own situation; but from his earliest infancy he is said to have shewn himself so averse to a virtuous course of life, that he would not remain at the seminary of St Roch at Palermo, where he had been placed for his instruction.

At thirteen years of age he was sent to a convent at Castagirona, where he assumed the habit of a novice, and being placed under the tuition of the apothecary, he learned from him the first principles of chemistry and medicine. He did not continue long in this asylum; during his stay, however, if we are to put implicit confidence in his right reverend biographers, he exhibited so many new symptoms of a vicious character, that the religions were often under the necessity of chastising him. 'It is recorded, among other things, that being employed to read during meals, as is customary in all holy communities, he could never be prevailed upon so recite what appeared in the book before him, but, on the contrary, he would repeat whatever occurred to his own imagination: nay, he has even confessed, that in reading the martyrology, he used to substitute the names of the most famous courtizans of the time, instead of those of the female saints!'

Having soon after abandoned his convent on account of the rigour of its discipline, and the severe mortifications he was exposed to, the friar-elect returned to Palermo. There he was frequently seized and imprisoned on account of his conduct, and at length was forced to fly from the place of his

naiviry, on account of having duped a goldsmith of the name of Morano, out of about sixty pieces of gold, by taking advantage of his avarice. The exasperated jeweller not only applied to a magistrate for justice, but also threatened to revenge his wrongs by means of his *fiatello*, and to avoid these impending calamities, Cagliostro thought proper to withdraw himself from his vengeance.

We shall not follow this celebrated adventurer through the several capitals of Europe, nor recapitulate the various deceptions by which he procured immense sums of money. His connexion with Cardinal de Rohan, and with Madame de la Motte, in the memorable affair of the diamond-necklace purchased in the name of the Queen of France, his two journeys to England, and his tricking a quaker, during his residence in London, out of a sum of money by the agency of his wife, are all detailed at full length. The secrets too of his Egyptian masonry, and his successful impositions by means of a pretended intercourse with the *world of spirits*, are related and commented upon.

After committing a multitude of frauds in various kingdoms, and escaping from the hand of justice in almost every capital of Europe, Cagliostro at length, by uncommon fatality, was arrested in his career, and condemned to death in the only metropolis, perhaps, in which he could not have been convicted of a breach of the moral obligations that connect man with society. Having repaired to Rome in 1789, he endeavoured to procure disciples, and even instituted a lodge of Egyptian masonry. The papal government, jealous of its authority, and terrified lest this association should plot against the safety of the ecclesiastical state, ordered him to be seized on the evening of the 27th of December in the same year, and, after an exact inventory of his moveables had been taken and sealed

up in his presence, he was secretly conveyed to the castle of St Angelo. We shall not enter into the particulars of his trial, but content ourselves with observing, that it is asserted with uncommon acrimony, that his religion 'tended towards deism;' that during twenty-seven years of his life he was never perceived to make the sign of the cross; and that, 'he was not a diligent observer of the precepts of the church which enjoin the hearing of mass on festivals, and fasting and abstaining from flesh meat on certain occasions.' The only crime fairly proved against him was that of being a 'free mason; this however is a capital felony within the ecclesiastical state, by an edict of Clement xii. 'of glorious memory,' confirmed by a bull of 'the immortal Benedict xiv.' Accordingly Cagliostro being convicted of this 'deadly sin,' notwithstanding the knowledge and abilities of Signor Gaetano Bernardini, and Signor Charles Louis Constantini, the counsel assigned him, he was condemned to death. The process was then carried before the general assembly of the holy office on the 21st of March, 1791, and, according to custom, was referred to the Pope on the 7th of April following.

We shall conclude this curious article by a copy of the definitive sentence, which will convey a lasting reproach on the reign of Pius vi. who, under such slight pretences, detained, tried, and condemned Cagliostro to perpetual imprisonment.

'Joseph Balsamo, attainted and convicted of many crimes, and of having incurred the censures and penalties pronounced against formal heretics, dogmatists, heresiarchs, and propagators of magic and superstition, has been found guilty and condemned to the censures and penalties denounced, as well by the apostolic laws of Clement xii. and of Benedict xiv. against those who in any manner whatever

favour or form societies and conventicles of free-masons, as by the edict of the council of state, against those who are guilty of this crime at Rome, or any other place under the dominion of the pope.

Norwithstanding this, by way of special grace and favour, this crime, the expiation of which demands the delivery of the culprit over to the secular arm, to be by it punished with death, is hereby changed, and commuted into perpetual imprisonment, in a fortress, where the culprit is to be strictly guarded, without any hope of pardon whatever. And after he shall have made abjuration of his offences, as a formal heretic, in the place of his imprisonment, he shall be absolved from ecclesiastical censures; and certain salutary penance is to be prescribed to him, to which he is hereby ordered to submit.

The manuscript book entitled, 'Egyptian Masonry,' is hereby solemnly condemned, as containing rites, propositions, a doctrine and a system, which open a road to sedition, as tending to destroy the Christian religion, and as being superstitious, impious, heretical, and abounding in blasphemy: this book shall therefore be burnt by the hand of the executioner; and also the other books, symbols, &c. &c. appertaining and belonging to that sect.

'By a new apostolic law, we shall confirm and renew not only the laws of the preceding pontiffs, but also the edict of the council of state, which prohibits the societies and conventicles of free masons, making particular mention of the Egyptian sect; and of another vulgarly called the *Illuminated*; and we shall enact the most grievous corporal punishments, and principally those provided for heretics, against whosoever shall associate, hold communication with, or protect those societies.'

Festivals and Mysteries of Eleusis.*

I Now proceed to speak of the most important article of the Athenian religion, of those mysteries, the origin of which is lost in the obscurity of time, of which the ceremonies inspire no less dread than veneration, and the secret of which has never been revealed but by some persons immediately condemned to death and the public execration; for the law is not satisfied with depriving them of life and confiscating their goods, the remembrance of their crime and punishment must be preserved on a column exposed to every eye.

Among all the mysteries instituted in honour of different divinities, there are none so celebrated as those of the goddess Ceres; she herself, it is said, appointed the ceremonies. While she traversed the earth in search of Proserpine, who had been carried off by Pluto, she arrived in the plain of Eleusis, and, pleased at the reception she met with from the inhabitants, bestowed on them two signal benefits; the art of agriculture, and the knowledge of the sacred doctrine. The lesser mysteries, which serve as a preparation to the greater, were instituted in favour of Hercules.

But let us leave such idle traditions to the vulgar, since it is of less importance to be acquainted with the authors of this religious system, than to discover its object. It is asserted that, wherever it has been introduced by the Athenians, it has diffused a spirit of union and humanity; that it purifies the soul from its ignorance and pollution; that it procures to the initiated the peculiar aid of the gods, the means of arriving at the perfection of virtue, the serene happiness of a holy life, and the hope of a peaceful death and endless felicity. The initiated shall occupy a distinguished place in

the Elysian fields, they shall enjoy a pure light, and shall live in the bosom of the Divinity; while those who have not participated in the mysteries, shall dwell after death in places of darkness and horror.

To shun so fearful an alternative, the Greeks repair from all parts to solicit at Eleusis the pledge of happiness there offered them. From the most tender age the Athenians are admitted to the ceremonies of initiation, and those who have never participated in them request to be admitted to them before they die; for the menaces and representations of the punishments of another life, which they had before regarded as a subject of derision, then make the strongest impression on their minds, and fill them with fears, which are sometimes of the most abject kind.

Yet some enlightened persons do not believe that to be virtuous there is any necessity for such an association. Socrates would never be initiated, and his refusal gave birth to some doubts concerning his religion. Diogenes was once advised, in my presence, to contract this sacred engagement; but he answered: "Patrocion
" the notorious robber obtained initiation; Epaminondas and Agesilaus
" never solicited it; is it possible I
" should believe that the former will
" enjoy the bliss of the Elysian Fields,
" while the latter shall be dragged
" through the mire of the infernal
" shades?"

All the Greeks may claim to be admitted to initiation into the mysteries, but the people of every other nation are excluded by an ancient law. I had been promised that this law should be dispensed with in my behalf. I had in my favour the title of citizen of Athens, and the powerful authority of examples. But as it would

* From "Travels of Anacharis the Younger, in Græcæ."

would have been necessary that I should have confined myself to observe certain practices, and abstain from different kinds of eatables, which might have laid me under a disagreeable restraint, I contented myself with making some researches concerning this institution, and obtaining information of various particulars relative to it, which I may make known without fear of incurring the guilt of perjury. I shall annex them to the account of the last journey that I made to Eleusis, on occasion of the greater mysteries, which are annually celebrated there on the 15th of the month Boedromion. The festival of the lesser mysteries is likewise annual, and is observed six months before.

During the celebration of the former, all judicial prosecutions are rigorously forbidden, nor may any seizure be made on any debtor already condemned by the laws. On the day after the festival, the senate makes a strict inquiry into the conduct of those who are accused of having by acts of violence, or in any other manner, disturbed the regularity of the ceremonies; and if they are found guilty they are condemned to death, or to pay heavy fines. This severity is perhaps necessary to maintain order among such an immense multitude as is assembled at Eleusis. In time of war, the Athenians send deputies to all parts of Greece, to offer passports to those who desire to attend at the festivals, whether they have received initiation, or only come as spectators.

I departed for Eleusis, in company with some friends, on the 14th of Boedromion, in the 2d year of the 100th Olympiad. The gate by which we leave Athens to go to Eleusis is named the Sacred gate, and the road which leads thither, the Sacred way. The distance is about ten stadia. After having crossed a rather high hill, which is covered with laurel roses, we entered the territory of Eleusis, and arrived on the banks of two small streams,

consecrated, the one to Ceres, and the other to Proserpine. I mention them, because the priests of the temple only are permitted to fish in them, and because their water is salt, and made use of in the ceremonies of initiation.

Farther on, upon the bridge over a river which bears the name of Cephissus, like that which flows near Athens, we were attacked with gross jokes and pleasantries by great numbers of the populace, who were assembled there, and who, during the festival, there take their station, as in a kind of ambuscade, to divert themselves at the expence of those who pass by, and especially the persons of most eminence in the republic. Such was the reception, as tradition relates, which Ceres, on her arrival at Eleusis, here met with from an old woman named Imbe.

At a small distance from the sea, a large hill extends into the plain, from the north-west to the south-east, on the brow and eastern extremity of which stands the famous temple of Ceres and Proserpine. Under it is the small town of Eleusis. In the environs, and on the hill itself, are several sacred monuments, such as chapels and altars; and rich individuals of Athens have here pleasant and beautiful vilas.

The temple, built under the administration of Pericles, of marble of Pentelicus, on the rock itself, which was levelled, fronts the east. It is equally vast and magnificent. Its length, from north to south, is about 384 feet, and its breadth about 325. The most celebrated artists were employed in its construction and decoration.

Among the ministers of this temple there are four principal ones. The first is the Hierophant: his name signifies he who reveals the sacred things; and his principal function is to initiate into the mysteries. He appears in a distinguished robe, his head adorned with a diadem, and his hair flowing on his shoulders. His age must be sufficiently

sufficiently mature to suit the gravity of his ministry, and his voice so sonorous that it may be heard with pleasure. His priesthood is for life. From the moment he is invested with it, he must confine himself to celibacy; and it is pretended, that by rubbing his body with hemlock he is enabled more easily to observe this law.

The office of the second minister is to carry the sacred torch in the ceremonies, and purify those who present themselves for initiation: he, like the Hierophant, has the right to wear a diadem. The two others are the sacred herald, and the assistant at the altar; the office of the former is to command the profane to retire, and to maintain silence and serious thoughtfulness among the initiated; that of the latter is to assist the others in their several functions.

The respect they claim from the sanctity of their ministry is still more heightened by their illustrious birth. The Hierophant is chosen from the house of the Eumolpidæ, one of the most ancient in Athens; and the sacred herald from that of the Ceryces, which is a branch of the Eumolpidæ. The two others are chosen from families equally illustrious; and all the four have under them several subaltern ministers, such as interpreters, chanters, and officers whose place it is to arrange the processions, and regulate the minuæ of the different ceremonies.

There are also at Eleusis priestesses consecrated to Ceres and Proserpine. They may initiate certain persons; and, on particular days in the year, offer sacrifices for individuals.

The second of the archons presides at the festivals, and is especially charged to maintain order in them, and to see that no irregularities are admitted into the celebration of the religious rites. These last several days. The initiated sometimes interrupt their sleep to continue their ceremonies. We saw them, during the night, leave

the inclosure of the temple, walking in silence two by two, and each carrying a lighted torch. When they re-entered the sacred asylum, they hastened their pace; and I was informed that this was intended to represent the wanderings of Ceres and Proserpine; and that, in their rapid evolutions, they shook their torches, and frequently hooded them from one to another. The flame which they agitate, it is said, purifies their souls, and is the emblem of that light by which they are to be illuminated.

On one of the days games were celebrated in honour of the goddesses. Famous athletes, from the different countries of Greece, repaired to the festival; and the reward of the conqueror was a measure of barley, grown on the neighbouring plain, the inhabitants of which, instructed by Ceres, were the first who cultivated that species of corn.

On the sixth day, which is the most splendid, the priests, accompanied by the initiated, carried from Athens to Eleusis the statue of Iacchus, who is said to have been the son either of Ceres or of Proserpine. The god was crowned with myrtle, and bore a torch. Nearly thirty thousand persons followed, and the air resounded with the name of Iacchus. The procession, regulated by the sound of musical instruments and the chanting of hymns, was sometimes interrupted by sacrifices and dances. The statue was brought into the temple at Eleusis; and afterward carried back to its own, with the same pomp and ceremonies.

Many of those who followed in the procession had yet been only admitted into the lesser mysteries, celebrated annually in a small temple situated near the Ilissus, at the gates of Athens.—There one of the priests of the second order is appointed to examine and prepare the candidates. He excludes them if they have been guilty of forcery, or of any atrocious crime; and especially if they have committed homicide,

micide, even though involuntarily.— He enjoins the others frequent expiations ; and convincing them of the necessity of preferring the light of truth to the darkness of error, disseminates in their minds the seeds of the sacred doctrine. He exhorts them to repress every violent passion ; and, by purity of mind and heart, to merit the inestimable benefit of initiation.

Their noviciate sometimes continues several years, and must last at least one entire year. During the time of their trial, the candidates attend the festivals of Eleusis ; but remain without the gate of the temple, and anxiously wait the hour in which they shall be permitted to enter.

This hour had at length arrived. The following night was appointed for the ceremonies of initiation into the greater mysteries. As a preparation for them, sacrifices and prayers were offered for the prosperity of the state, by the second archon, attended by four assistants, chosen by the people. The novices were crowned with myrtle.

The robes in which they are initiated are supposed to acquire such sanctity by the ceremony, that the greater part continue to wear them till they are quite worn out ; and others make them into swaddling clothes for their children, or hang them up in the temple. We saw the candidates enter the sacred inclosure ; and the next day one of the newly initiated, with whom I was particularly intimate, gave me an account of some ceremonies to which he had been witness.

We found, said he, the priests of the temple habited in their pontifical vestments. The Hierophant, who on this occasion represents the Creator of the universe, was invested with symbols signifying of the Supreme Power ; the torch-bearer, and the assistant at the altar, with those of the Sun and Moon ; and the sacred herald with those of Mercury.

No sooner had we taken our places than the herald proclaimed : “ Far

“ hence be the profane, the impious,
“ and all those whose souls are pollut-
“ ed with guilt.” After this notice,
death would be the punishment of any
person who should have the rashness
to remain in the assembly without
having been initiated. The second
priest caused the skins of the victims
offered in sacrifice to be spread under
our feet, and purified us anew. The
ritual of initiation was read aloud, and
hymns were sung in honour of Ceres.

Soon after a hollow sound was heard, and the earth seemed to groan beneath our feet : we heard thunder ; and perceived, by the glare of lightning, phantoms and spectres wandering in darkness, and filling the holy places with howlings that chilled us with terror, and groans that rent our hearts. Agonizing pain, corroding care, poverty, diseases, and death, presented themselves to our eyes in dreadful and funereal forms. The Hierophant explained to us these several emblems, and his animated description still added to our inquietude and our fears.

In the mean time, by the assistance of a feeble light, we advanced towards that part of the infernal shades where souls are purified, till they arrive at the abodes of happiness. Here, amid a multitude of plaintive cries, we heard the bitter lamentations of those who had deprived themselves of life. “ They are punished,” said the Hierophant, “ because they have deserted the post which the gods had assigned them in this world.”

Scarcely had he uttered these words, than the brazen gates, opening with a dreadful noise, disclosed to our view the horrors of Tartarus.— We heard the clanking of chains, and the cries of the tortured ; and, amid piercing shrieks and lamentable groans, distinguished at intervals these words : “ Learn, by our example, to reverence the Gods, to be just and grateful.” For hardness of heart, neglect of parents, and every species

of ingratitude, there meet their punishment; as also every crime that escapes the vengeance of human laws, or tends to destroy the worship of the gods.—We saw the furies, armed with scourges, relentlessly pursuing the guilty.

These terrific scenes, incessantly rendered more animated by the sonorous and majestic voice of the Hierophant, who appeared to be the minister of divine vengeance, filled us with dread; and scarcely could we recover from our apprehensions, when we were led into delightful groves and smiling meadows, the abodes of happiness, and the image of the Elysian Fields, illuminated by a serene and pure light, and where harmonious voices uttered the most enchanting sounds. Thence we were brought into the sanctuary, where we beheld the statue of the goddess resplendent with light, and adorned with all its richest ornaments. Here our trials were to end, and here we saw and heard things which it is not permitted to reveal. I shall only add that, in the intoxication of a holy joy, we sang hymns, in which we congratulated ourselves on our happiness.

Such was the account I received from my newly initiated friend: I learned from another a circumstance which he had omitted. On one of the days of the festival, the Hierophant uncovered the mystic baskets, which are carried in the processions, and are the objects of public veneration. They contain the sacred symbols, which may not be seen by the profane; but which, however, are only cakes of different shapes, some grains of salt, and other things, relative either to the history of Ceres, or to the doctrines taught in the mysteries. The initiated, after having removed them from one basket into another, affirm that they have fasted and drank Ciceon.

Among those who have not been initiated, I have frequently heard men of sense and learning communicate to each other doubts and opinions concerning the doctrines taught in the my-

steries of Ceres. Do they only contain, said they, the history of nature and its revolutions; or are they solely intended to shew that, by means of laws and agriculture, man has been advanced from the state of barbarism to that of civilized life? But why should ideas like these be covered with the veil of secrecy? A disciple of Plato modestly proposed a conjecture which I shall here give my readers.

It appears undeniable, said he, that the necessity of the rewards and punishments which await us after death was inculcated in the mysteries, and that the initiated were presented with a representation of the different destinies prepared for men in this and the other world. It also appears certain that they were taught by the Hierophant, that, among that great number of divinities which are adored by the multitude, some are pure genii, who are the ministers of the will of the Supreme Being, and regulate, subservient to his commands, all the motions of the universe; while others have been only mere mortals, whose tombs are still to be seen in different parts of Greece.

Is it not, therefore, natural to imagine, that the institutors of the mysteries, wishing to diffuse a more just idea of the Supreme Being, earnestly endeavoured to establish a doctrine, of which traces, more or less manifest, are found in the opinions and ceremonies of almost all nations—that there is one God, who is the author and end of all things? and this doctrine is, in my opinion, the momentous secret revealed to the initiated.

The establishment of this religious association was doubtless favoured by political views. Polytheism had become general, when it was perceived what fatal consequences resulted to morality from a worship, the objects of which were only multiplied to authorize every species of injustice and vice; but this worship was equally agreeable to the people from its antiquity, and
etca

even from its imperfections. Far, therefore, from fruitlessly attempting to abolish it, endeavours were made by the legislator to counterbalance it by a more pure religion, which should repair the injuries done to society by polytheism. As the multitude are more easily retrained by the laws than by manners, it was thought they might be abandoned to superstitions, of which it would be easy to prevent the abuse; but, as the more enlightened citizens are influenced more by manners than by the laws, it was judged proper to communicate to them a doctrine adapted to render them virtuous.

You are now able to conceive why the gods are permitted to be introduced in ludicrous situations on the stage of Athens. The magistrates, delivered from the false ideas of polytheism, attempt not to repress a liberty which can do no injury to the people, and which contributes to their amusement. You likewise understand how two religions, so opposite in their doctrines, have subsisted for so long a time in the same place, without disturbance or rivalry; it is because, though their doctrines are different, their language is the same; and truth shews that respect to error which it may be expected to require.

The mysteries externally have the appearance of the religious worship adopted by the people. The hymns which are sung in public, and the greater part of the ceremonies, present to

us several circumstances of the rape of Proserpine, the pursuit of Ceres, and her arrival and stay at Eleusis: the environs of that town are covered with monuments erected in honour of the goddess; and the stone on which it is pretended she sat down when exhausted with fatigue, is still shewn. Thus, on the one hand, persons of little knowledge and discernment suffer themselves to be persuaded by appearances that favour their prejudices; and, on the other, the initiated, penetrating to the spirit of the mysteries, believe they may rely on the purity of their intentions.

Whatever foundation there may be for the conjecture I have here given, initiation is at present little more than an idle ceremony: those who receive it are not more virtuous than others; they every day violate the vow they have made to abstain from fowl, fish, pomegranates, beans, and many other kinds of pulse and fruits. Many among them have contracted this sacred engagement in a manner by no means suitable to its object; for, almost in our time, the government, to retrieve the exhausted state of the finances, has been known to grant permission that the right of participating in the mysteries should be purchased, and women of dissolute life have long been admitted to initiation: a time therefore must arrive when the most sacred of associations will be entirely corrupted and disfigured.

Marriage Ceremonies of the Ancient Grecians. From the same.

LOVE presided at the festivals of Delos; and the numerous youth which the god had assembled around him, acknowledged no other laws than his. Sometimes, in concert with Hymen, he crowned the constancy of faithful lovers; sometimes he excited a tender languor and

anxiety in hearts before insensible; and by these multiplied triumphs prepared the way for the most glorious of all—the marriage of Ismene and Theagenes.

As I was a witness to the ceremonies with which this union was accompanied, I shall proceed to relate them,

them, and describe practices which the laws, custom, and superstition have introduced, to provide for the security and happiness of the most sacred of engagements: and if, in this account, some apparently frivolous circumstances should be found, they will acquire importance and dignity from the simplicity of the times from which they derive their origin.

Silence and tranquillity began to be restored at Delos. The multitude of strangers diminished like a river, which, after having overflowed the plain, gradually retires into its bed. The inhabitants of the island had risen before the dawn; they were crowned with flowers, and incessantly offered up, in the temples, and before their houses, sacrifices to render the gods propitious to the marriage of Ismene. The moment when it was to be concluded was arrived. We were assembled in the house of Philocles: the door of the apartment of Ismene opened, and we saw her and Theagenes come out of it, followed by their parents, and a public officer, who had just drawn up the instrument of their engagement. The conditions of this engagement were simple; in it no provision had been made for any discussion of interest between their relatives, nor any cause of divorce between the contracting parties: and, with respect to the marriage portion, as Theagenes was already related to Philocles, it was thought sufficient to mention a law of Solon's; which, to prevent the property of a family from being carried out of it, enacts that heiresses shall marry their nearest kinsmen.

We were dressed in magnificent habits, which we had received from Ismene. That which Theagenes wore was her own work. Her ornaments were, a necklace of precious stones, and a purple robe embroidered with gold. Both wore on their hair, which flowed on their shoulders, and was perfumed with essences, crowns

of poppy, sesamum, and other plants sacred to Venus. Thus habited, they mounted a chariot, and proceeded towards the temple. Ismene had Theageanes on her right, and on her left a friend of Theagenes, who was to follow him in this ceremony. The people who thronged around them scattered flowers and perfumes in their way. They cried out: These are not mortals; it is Apollo and Coronis; it is Diana and Endymion; it is Apollo and Diana. They sought to procure us favourable omens, and to prevent such as were of evil portent. One said: I saw this morning two turtles long hover in the air, and at length rest together on a branch of that tree. Another said: Drive away the solitary crow, and let her go far hence to mourn the loss of her faithful companion; for she brings the most ill-boding of auguries.

The bride and bridegroom were received at the gate of the temple by a priest, who presented to each of them a branch of ivy, the symbol of the bonds by which they were to be forever united. He then conducted them to the altar, where every thing was prepared for the sacrifice of a heifer to Diana, to the chaste Diana, whom, as well as Minerva, and the other divinities who had never submitted to the yoke of Hymen, they thus endeavoured to appease. They also implored Jupiter and Juno, whose union and loves shall be eternal; the Heavens and the Earth, the concurrence of which produces fertility and plenty; the Parcs, because they hold in their hands the life of mortals; the Graces, because they embellish the pleasures of happy marriages; and, lastly, Venus, from whom Love derives his birth, and who bestows happiness on mortals.

The priests, after having examined the intrails of the victims, declared that the gods approved the marriage. To conclude the ceremonies, we proceeded to the *Artemisium*, where the lovers

lovers deposited each a lock of their hair on the tomb of the last Theora of the Hyperboreans. That of Theagenes was wound about a handful of grass, and that of Ismene round a spindle. This custom reminded them of the first institution of marriage, at which time it was intended to signify that the husband was to be occupied in the labours of the field, and the wife to manage the household affairs.

Philocles now took the hand of Theagenes, and, joining it to the hand of Ismene, pronounced these words: "I bestow on you my daughter, that you may give legitimate citizens to the republic." The bride and bridegroom then swore to each other an inviolable fidelity; and their parents, after having received their oaths, ratified them by new sacrifices.

Night began to come on when we came out of the temple to return to the house of Theagenes. The procession, lighted by numberless torches, was accompanied by bands of musicians and dancers; the house was hung with garlands, and splendidly illuminated.

As soon as the new married couple set their feet on the threshold of the door, a basket of fruit was, for a moment, placed on their heads, as a preface of the plenty they were to enjoy. We at the same time heard the name of Hymenzus re-echoed on all sides. This was a young man of Argos, who formerly restored to their country some Athenian maidens who had been taken by pirates. He obtained for his reward one of the captives, of whom he was passionately enamoured; and since that time the Greeks contract no marriage without celebrating his memory.

These acclamations followed us into the banquetting hall, and continued during the supper; when some poets entered, and recited epithalamiums.

A child, half covered with branches of hawthorn and oak, appeared with a basket of loaves, and sang a hymn beginning with these words:

"I have changed my former state for a happier." The Athenians sing this hymn at one of their festivals, to celebrate the time in which their ancestors, who had before fed on wild fruits, enjoyed in society the gifts of Ceres. They sing it likewise at marriages, to signify that men, after having left their wild state in the woods, enjoyed the sweets of love. Female dancers, dressed in light robes, and crowned with myrtle, afterwards entered, and expressed by their motions the transports, tender languor, and intoxication of the most delicious of passions.

When this dance was ended, Leucippe lighted the nuptial torch, and conducted her daughter to the apartment prepared for her. A number of symbols reminded Ismene of the duties which were formerly annexed to the new condition of life on which she entered. She carried one of those earthen vessels in which barley is parched; one of her attendants held a sieve; and over the door was hung an instrument used to bruise grain. The new married couple ate of a fruit the sweetness of which was considered as the emblem of their union.

In the mean time, giving a loose to the transports of an immoderate joy, we raised tumultuous shouts, and besieged the door, which was defended by a faithful friend of Theagenes. A number of young persons danced to the music of several instruments. This noise was at length interrupted by the Theoria from Corinth, who had undertaken to sing the evening hymeneal. After having congratulated Theagenes, they added:

"We are in the spring of our years; we are the fairest of the maidens of Corinth, so renowned for their beauty: yet is there not one of us, O Ismene! whose charms can compare to thine. Higher than the Thessalian courser, exalted above her companions like the lily, the pride of the garden, Isme-

“ ne is the ornament of Greece. All
 “ the loves are enthroned in her eyes,
 “ and all the arts live under her fin-
 “ gers. O maid! O charming wo-
 “ man! to-morrow will we repair to
 “ the enamelled mead, and call flow-
 “ ers to compose for thee a crown:
 “ we will hang it on the most beauti-
 “ ful of the neighbouring plane trees,
 “ under the shade of which we will
 “ pour forth perfumes in thy honour,
 “ and on its bark we will inscribe
 “ these words: *Offer to me your in-
 “ cense, for I am the tree of Ismene.*
 “ We salute thee, happy bride! we
 “ salute thee, happy bridegroom!—
 “ May Latona give you sons who
 “ shall resemble you. May Venus
 “ ever animate you with her fires.—
 “ May Jupiter bestow on your child-
 “ ren’s children the felicity which
 “ surrounds you. Repose in the bo-
 “ som of pleasure, and henceforth
 “ breathe only the most tender love.
 “ We will return with the morning’s
 “ dawn, and again will we sing: O
 “ Hymen, Hymenæus, Hymen!”

The next day, as soon as it was
 light, we repaired to the same place,
 and heard the maidens of Corinth
 sing the following hymeneal.

“ We celebrate you in our songs,
 “ O Venus, ornament of Olympus!
 “ Love, the delight of the earth! and
 “ thou, O Hymen, source of life! we
 “ celebrate you in our song, Love,
 “ Hymen, Venus! O Theagenes, a-
 “ wake; turn your eyes on your love.
 “ Youthful favourite of Venus, happy
 “ and worthy husband of Ismene; O
 “ Theagenes! awake; turn your

“ eyes on your spouse; survey the
 “ splendor of her beauty, the animat-
 “ ed tresses which embellish all
 “ her charms. The rose is the queen
 “ of flowers, Ismene is the queen of
 “ beauties. Already her trembling
 “ eyelid opens to the rays of the sun.
 “ O Theagenes! happy and worthy
 “ husband of Ismene, awake!”

This day, which the two lovers con-
 sidered as that on which they began
 to live, was almost entirely employed,
 on their part, in receiving the affec-
 tionate congratulations of the inhabi-
 tants of the island on their marriage.
 All their friends might make them
 presents: they also made presents to
 each other; and received, in conjunc-
 tion, those of Philocles, the father of
 Theagenes. They were brought with
 great ceremony. A child, in a white
 robe, opened the procession, bearing a
 lighted torch; next came a girl, with
 a basket on her head: she was follow-
 ed by several domestics, who carried
 vessels of alabaster, boxes of perfumes,
 different kinds of essences, odorou
 ointments, and a variety of those luxu-
 ries which a taste for convenience and
 elegance has converted into necessa-
 ries.

In the evening, Ismene was carried
 back to her father; and, less in con-
 formity with custom than to express
 her real sentiments, testified to him
 the regret she felt at leaving her pa-
 ternal house: the next day she was
 restored to her husband; and, from
 that moment, nothing has interrupted
 their mutual felicity.

Remarks on the Island of Hinzuun or Johanna, by Sir William Jones.

[Continued from Page 326.]

WE received no answer from Sa-
 lim; nor, indeed, expected one, since we took for granted that
 he could not but approve our intention
 of.

From the Second Volume of “ Asiatic Researches,” just published.

of visiting his father; and we went on shore before sunrise, in full expectation of a pleasant excursion to Domoni, but we were happily disappointed. The servants at the Prince's door told us coolly, that their master was indisposed, and, as they believed, asleep; that he had given them no orders concerning his palanquins, and that they durst not disturb him. Alwi soon came to pay us his compliments, and was followed by his eldest son Ahmed, with whom we walked to the gardens of the two princes Salim and Hamdullah; the situation was naturally good, but desolate; and in Salim's garden, which we entered through a miserable hovel, we saw a convenient bathing-place, well built with stone, but then in great disorder; and a shed by way of a summer-house, like that under which we dined at the Governor's, but smaller, and less neat. On the ground lay a kind of cradle, about six feet long, and little more than one foot in breadth, made of cords twisted in a sort of clumsy network, with a long thick bamboo fixed to each side of it; this we heard with surprise was a royal palanquin, and one of the vehicles in which we were to have been rocked on men's shoulders over the mountains. I had much conversation with Ahmed, whom I found intelligent and communicative. He told me, that several of his countrymen composed songs and tunes; that he was himself a passionate lover of poetry and music, and that if we would dine at his house he would play and sing to us. We declined his invitation to dinner, as we had made a conditional promise if ever we passed a day at Metfamuda to eat our curry with Bana Gibu, an honest man, of whom we purchased eggs and vegetables, and to whom some Englishmen had given the title Lord, which made him extremely vain; we could therefore make Sayyad Ahmed only a morning visit. He sung a hymn or two in Arabic, and accompanied his drawing though pathetic psalmody with a kind of mando-

line, which he touched with an awkward quill: the instrument was very imperfect, but seemed to give him delight. The names of the strings were written on it in Arabian or Indian figures, simple and compound; but I could not think them worth copying. He gave Captain Williamson, who wished to present some literary curiosities to the library at Dublin, a small roll, containing an hymn in Arabic letters, but in the language of Mozambique, which was mixed with Arabic; but it hardly deserved examination, since the study of languages has little intrinsic value, and is only useful as the instrument of real knowledge, which we can scarcely expect from the poets of Mozambique. Ahmed would, I believe, have heard our European airs (I always except French melody) with rapture; for his favourite tune was a common Irish jig, with which he seemed wonderfully affected.

On our return to the beach I thought of visiting old Alwi, according to my promise, and Prince Salim, whose character I had not then discovered. I resolved for that purpose to stay on shore alone, our dinner with Gibu having been fixed at an early hour. Alwi shewed me his manuscripts, which chiefly related to the ceremonies and ordinances of his own religion; and one of them, which I had formerly seen in Europe, was a collection of sublime and elegant hymns in praise of Mohammed, with explanatory notes in the Arabic. I requested him to read one of them after the manner of the Arabs, and he chanted it in a strain by no means unpleasing; but I am persuaded that he understood it very imperfectly. The room, which was open to the street, was presently crowded with visitors, most of whom were *Mustis*, or *expounders of the law*; and Alwi, desirous, perhaps, to display his zeal before them at the expence of good breeding, directed my attention to a passage in a Commentary on the Koran, which I

found levelled at the Christians. The commentator having related with some additions (but, on the whole, not inaccurately) the circumstances of the temptation, puts this speech into the mouth of the tempter; "Though I am unable to delude thee, yet I will mislead by thy means more human creatures than thou wilt set right." "Nor was this menace vain," says the Mohammedan writer, "for the inhabitants of a region many thousand leagues in extent, are still so deluded by the devil, that they impiously call *Isa* the son of God. Heaven preserve us," he adds, "from blaspheming Christians, as well as blaspheming Jews!" Although a religious dispute with these obstinate zealots would have been unseasonable and fruitless, yet they deserved, I thought, a slight reprehension, as the attack seemed to be concerted among them, "The commentator," said I, "was much to blame for passing so indiscriminate and hasty a censure; the title which gave your legislator, and gives you such offence, was often applied in Judea by a bold figure, agreeable to the Hebrew idiom, though unusual in Arabic, of *angels to holy men*, and even to *all mankind*, who are commanded to call God *their father*; and in this large sense the Apostle to the Romans calls the elect the *children of God*, and the Messiah *the first born among many brethren*; but the words *only begotten*, are applied transcendently and incomparably to him alone; and as for me, who believe the scriptures, which you also profess to believe, though you assert without proof that we have altered them, I cannot refuse him an appellation, though far surpassing our reason, by which he is distinguished in the Gospel; and the believers in Mohammed, who expressly name him *the Messiah*, and pronounce him to have been born of a virgin, which alone might fully justify the phrase condemned by this author, are themselves condemnable for cavilling

at words, when they cannot object to the substance of our faith consistently with their own." The Mussulman had nothing to say in reply, and the conversation was changed.

I was astonished at the questions which Alwi put to me concerning the late peace and the independence of America; the several powers and resources of Britain and France, Spain and Holland; the character and supposed views of the Emperor; the comparative strength of the Russian, Imperial, and Ottoman armies, and their respective mode; of bringing their forces to action. I answered him without reserve, except on the state of our possessions in India; nor were my answers lost; for I observed that all the company were variously affected by them, generally with amazement, often with concern; especially when I described to them the great force and admirable discipline of the Austrian army, and the stupid prejudices of the Turks, whom nothing can induce to abandon their old Tartarian habits; and exposed the weakness of their empire in Africa, and even in the most distant provinces of Asia. In return, he gave me a clear but general information concerning the government and commerce of his island; "his country," he said, "was poor, and produced few articles of trade; but if they could get money, *which they now prefer to play things*," these were his words, "they might easily," he added, "procure foreign commodities, and exchange them advantageously with their neighbours in the islands and on the continent: thus with a little money," said he, "we purchase muskets, powder, balls, cutlasses, knives, cloths, raw cotton, and other articles brought from Bombay, and with these we trade to Madagascar for the natural produce of the country, or for dollars, with which the French buy cattle, honey, butter, and so forth, in that island. With gold, which we receive from your ships,

ships, we can procure elephants teeth from the natives of Mozambique, who barter them also for ammunition and bars of iron; and the Portuguese in that country give us cloths of various kinds in exchange for our commodities: these cloths we dispose of lucratively in the three neighbouring islands; whence we bring rice, cattle, a kind of bread-fruit which grows in Comara, and slaves, which we buy also at other places to which we trade; and we carry on this traffic in our own vessels."

Here I could not help expressing my abhorrence of their *Slave Trade*, and asked him by what law they claimed a property in rational beings, since our Creator had given our species a dominion, to be moderately exercised, over the beasts of the field and the fowls of the air, but none to man over man. "By no law," answered he, "unless necessity be a law. There are nations in Madagascar and in Africa who know neither God nor his Prophet, nor Moses, nor David, nor the Messiah: these nations are in perpetual war, and take many captives, whom, if they could not sell, they would certainly kill. Individuals among them are in extreme poverty, and have numbers of children, who, if they cannot be disposed of, must perish through hunger, together with their miserable parents. By purchasing these wretches we preserve their lives, and, perhaps, those of many others, whom our money relieves.—The sum of the argument is this: if we buy them, they will live—if they become valuable servants, they will live comfortably; but if they are not sold, they must die miserably."

"There may be," said I, "such cases, but you fallaciously draw a general conclusion from a few particular instances; and this is the very fallacy which, on a thousand other occasions, deludes mankind. It is not to be doubted that a constant and gainful traffic in human creatures fomented war,

in which captives are always made, and keeps up that perpetual enmity which you pretend to be the *cause* of a practice in itself reprehensible, while in truth it is its *effect*. The same traffic encourages laziness in some parents, who might in general support their families by proper industry, and seduces others to stifle their natural feelings. At most, your redemption of those unhappy children can amount only to a personal contract, implied between you, for gratitude and reasonable service on their part—for kindness and humanity on your's; but can you think your part performed by disposing of them against their wills, with as much indifference as if you were selling cattle; especially as they might become readers of the *Koran*, and pillars of your faith?" "The law," said he, "forbids our selling them, when they are believers in the Prophet; and little children only are sold, nor they often, or by all masters."—"You who believe in Mohammed," said I, "are bound by the spirit and letter of his laws to take pains that they also may believe in him; and if you neglect so important a duty for sordid gain, I do not see how you can hope for prosperity in this world, or for happiness in the next." My old friend and the *Masjid* assented, and muttered a few prayers, but probably forgot my preaching before many minutes had passed.

So much time had slipped away in this conversation, that I could make but a short visit to Prince Salim: my view in visiting him was to fix the time of our journey to Domoni as early as possible on the next morning. His appearance was more savage than ever, and I found him in a disposition to complain bitterly of the English.—"No acknowledgment," he said, "had been made for the kind attentions of himself and the chief men in his country to the officers and people of the *Brilliant*, tho' a whole year had elapsed since the wreck."

“wreck” I really wondered at the forgetfulness to which alone such a neglect could be imputed; and assured him, that I would express my opinion both in England and in letters to England. “We have little,” said he, “to hope from letters, for when we have been paid with them instead of money, and have shewn them on board your ships, we have commonly been treated with disdain, and often with imprecations.” I assured him, that either those letters must have been written coldly and by very obscure persons, or shewn to very ill-bred men, of whom there were too many in all nations, but that a few instances of rudeness ought not to give him a general prejudice against our national character. “But you,” said he, “are a wealthy nation, and we are indigent; yet though all our groves of cocoa-trees, our fruits, and our cattle are ever at your service, you always try to make hard bargains with us for what you chuse to dispose of, and frequently will neither sell nor give those things which we principally want.” “To form,” said I, “a just opinion of Englishmen, you must visit us in our own island, or at least in India; here we are strangers and travellers: many of us have no design to trade in any country, and none of us think of trading in Hinzuau, where we stop only for refreshment. The clothes, arms, or instruments which you may want, are commonly necessary or convenient to us; but if Sayyad Alwitor his sons were to be strangers in our country, you should have no reason to boast of superior hospitality.” He then shewed me, a second time, a part of an old sick vessel, with the star of the Order of the Thistle, and begged me to explain the motto; expressing a wish that the order might be conferred on him by the King of England in return for his good offices to the English. I represented to him the impossibility of his being gratified,

and took occasion to say, that there was more true dignity in their own native titles than in those of Prince, Duke, and Lord, which had been idly given them, but had no conformity to their manners or the constitution of their government.

This conversation being agreeable to neither of us, I changed it, by desiring that the palanquins and bearers might be ready next morning as early as possible: he answered, that his palanquins were at our service for nothing, but that we must pay him ten dollars for each set of bearers; that it was the stated price, and that Mr Hallings had paid it when he went to visit the King. This, as I learned afterwards, was false, but in all events I knew that he would keep the dollars himself, and give nothing to the bearers, who deserved them better, and whom he would compel to leave their cottages and toil for his profit. “Can you imagine,” I replied, “that we would employ four and twenty men to bear us so far on their shoulders without rewarding them amply?” “But since they are free men (so he had assured me), and not your slaves, we will pay them in proportion to their diligence and good behaviour; and it becomes neither your dignity nor ours to make a previous bargain.” I shewed him an elegant copy of the *Koran*, which I destined for his father, and described the rest of my present; but he coldly asked, “if that was all.” Had he been king, a purse of dry dollars would have given him more pleasure than the finest or holiest manuscript. Finding him, in conversing on a variety of subjects, utterly void of intelligence or principle, I took my leave, and saw him no more, but promised to let him know for certain whether we should make our intended excursion.

We dined in tolerable comfort, and had occasion, in the course of the day, to observe the manners of the natives in the middle rank, who are called *Ba-nas*.

men, and all of whom have slaves constantly at work for them. We visited the mother of Combomade, who seemed in a station but little raised above indigence; and her husband, who was a mariner, bartered an Arabic Treatise on Astronomy and Navigation, which he had read, for a sea-compass, of which he well knew the use.

In the morning I had conversed with two very old Arabs of Yemen, who had brought some articles of trade

to Hinzuan; and in the afternoon I met another who had come from Maskat (where at that time there was a civil war) to purchase, if he could, an hundred stand of arms. I told them all, that I loved their nation, and they returned my compliments with great warmth, especially the two old men, who were near fourscore, and reminded me of Zohair and Hareth.

(To be continued.)

An Account of the Signals made use of at BAMBROUGH CASTLE, in the county of Northumberland in case ships or vessels are perceived in distress, and of the Charitable Institution established there for their assistance and relief.

1. **A** Gun (a nine-pounder) placed at the bottom of the tower, to be fired as a signal in case a ship or vessel be observed in distress, viz.

Once when any ship or vessel is stranded or wrecked upon the islands, or any adjacent rock.

Twice when any ship or vessel is stranded or wrecked behind the Castle, or to the northward of it.

Thrice, when any ship or vessel is stranded or wrecked to the southward of the Castle; in order that the Custom-house officers, and the tenants, with their servants, may hasten to give all possible assistance, as well as to prevent the wreck from being plundered.

2. In every great storm, two men on horseback are sent from the Castle to patrol along the coast from sun-set to sun-rise, that, in case of any accident, one may remain by the ship, and the other return to alarm the Castle. Whoever brings the first notice of any ship or vessel being in distress, is entitled to a premium, in proportion to the distance from the Castle; and if between twelve o'clock at night and three o'clock in the morning, the premium to be double.

3. A large flag is hoisted when there is any ship or vessel seen in dis-

tress upon the Fern Islands, or Staples, that the sufferers may have the satisfaction of knowing their distress is perceived from the shore, and that relief will be sent them as soon as possible. In case of bad weather, the flag will be kept up, a gun fired morning and evening, and a rocket thrown up every night from the north turret, till such time as relief can be sent. These are also signals to the Holy Island fishermen, who, by the advantage of their situation, can put off for the islands at all times when no boat from the main land can get over the breakers. Premiums are given to the first boats that put off for the islands, to give their assistance to ships or vessels in distress, and provisions and liquors are sent in the boats.

4. A bell on the south turret will be rung out in every thick fog, as a signal to the fishing-boats; and a large swivel fixed on the east turret, will be fired every 15 minutes, as a signal to the ships without the islands.

5. A large weather-cock is fixed on the top of the flag-staff, for the use of the pilots.

6. A large speaking-trumpet is provided, to be used when ships are in distress near the shore, or are run aground.

7. A

7. An observatory, or watch-tower, is made on the east turret of the Castle, where a person is to attend every morning at day-break during the winter season, to look out if any ship be in distress.

8. Masters and commanders of ships or vessels in distress, are desired to make such signals as are usually made by people in their melancholy situation.

ASSISTANCE, STORES, and PROVISIONS, prepared at Bambrough Castle, for Seamen, Ships, or Vessels, wrecked or driven ashore on that Coast or Neighbourhood.

1. Rooms and beds are prepared for seamen, ship-wrecked, who will be maintained in the Castle for a week (or longer according to circumstances,) and during that time be found with all manner of necessities.

2. Cellars for wine, and other liquors from ship-wrecked vessels, in which they are to be deposited for one year, in order to be claimed by the proper owners.

3. A store-house ready for the reception of wrecked goods, cables, rigging, and iron. A book is kept for

entering all kinds of timber and other wrecked goods, giving the marks and description of each, with the date when they came on shore.

4. Four pair of screws for raising ships that are stranded, in order to their being repaired. Timber, blocks, and tackles, handspikes, cables, ropes, pumps, and iron, ready for the use of ship-wrecked vessels.

N. B. But, if taken away, to be paid for at prime-cost.

5. A pair of chains, with large rings and swivels, made on purpose for weighing ships (of a thousand tons burden,) that are sunk upon rocks, or in deep water.

N. B. These chains are to be lent (*gratis*) to any person having occasion for them, within forty or fifty miles along the coast, on giving proper security to re-deliver them to the trustees.

7. Two mooring chains, of different lengths, are provided, which may occasionally be joined together, when a greater length is required.

8. Whenever any dead bodies are cast on shore, coffins, &c. will be provided *gratis*; and also the funeral expences paid.

Estimate of the Medium Temperature of different Degrees of Latitude, from actual Observations.

FATHER COTTE of the Oratory has published, in the *Journal de Physique*, a table of the medium heat in 177 different places, from the line to the 60th degree of North latitude, ascertained by actual observation. This table shews the medium heat of each month at every place, and the medium heat of the whole year. It is meant as a supplement to M. Kirwan's estimate of the temperature of different degrees of latitude. The whole takes up about 16 pages in 4to,

and is therefore improper for a work of this kind; but perhaps a few extracts from it, of the heat of the principal places, may be thought curious. P. Cotte makes use of Reaumur's thermometer, but as Fahrenheit's is the common one in this country, we have, with a good deal of care, substituted the corresponding degrees in this latter thermometer. The places are arranged in the order of their latitude.

Names

Temperature of Places in different Latitudes.

Names of Places.	Medium Heat of the Year.	CAMBRIDGE, N. AMERICA.	
Peru	68	Medium heat of July	64
Sariram	69	January	25
Pondichery	75	the year	-45
Madras	72	PERPIGNAN.	
Saint Pierre in Martinico	70	Medium heat of July	69
Guadaloupe	73	January	41
Camp de Louise—St. Domingo	68	the year	-54
Mexico	56	TOULON.	
Ile of France in Africa	71	Medium heat of July	68
Ile of Bourbon ditto	73	January	44
Chandernagor	80	the year	-56
GRAND CAIRO.		MARSEILLES.	
Medium heat of August	75	Medium heat of July	67
February	51	January	42
the year	-64	the year	-53
BAQDAD.		MONTPELLIER.	
Medium heat of August	82	Medium heat of July	69
December	42	December	43
the year	-48	the year	-54
CAPE of GOOD HOPE.		NISMES.	
Medium heat of the year	-60	Medium heat of July	69
		January	37
SYRIA in ASIA MINOR.		the year	-55
Medium heat of August	75	GRANDE CHARTREUSE.	
December	47	Medium heat of August	51
the year	-62	December	27
ALGIERS.		the year	-40
Medium heat of August	73	PADUA.	
February	55	Medium heat of July	66
the year	-61	January	33
WILLIAMSBURG, VIRGINIA.		the year	-49
Medium heat of July	72	MILAN.	
December	39	Medium heat of July	66
the year	-53	January	33
PERIN, CHINA.		the year	-50
Medium heat of June	74	VERONA.	
January	27	Medium heat of July	69
the year	-50	January	35
NEW YORK.		the year	-55
Medium heat of July	71	LYONS.	
January	26	Medium heat of July	69
the year	-49	December	37
ROME.		the year	-51
Medium heat of July	68	St GOTHARD in SWITZERLAND.	
February	43	Medium heat of July	44
the year	-54	February	19
		Medium	

Temperature of Places in different Latitudes.

Medium heat of the year	—31	BRUSSELS.	Medium heat of July	60
GENEVA.			January	35
Medium heat of July	63		the year	—48
December	34	LONDON.	Medium heat of July	60
the year	—47		January	34
LAUSANNE.			the year	—47
Medium heat of August	58	MIDDLEBURG:	Medium heat of August	58
January	32		December	35
the year	—46		the year	—46
QUEBEC.		GOTTINGEN.	Medium heat of July	60
Medium heat of July	65		December	35
February	15		the year	—44
the year	—40	ROTTERDAM.	Medium heat of July	59
BERNE in SWITZERLAND.			January	35
Medium heat of August	62		the year	—47
February	32	THE HAGUE.	Medium heat of August	60
the year	—45		January	34
NANTZ.			the year	—47
Medium heat of August	63	AMSTERDAM.	Medium heat of July	60
January	38		January	35
the year	—50		the year	—48
DIJON.		BERLIN.	Medium heat of July	61
Medium heat of July	61		January	30
January	33		the year	—45
the year	—47	COPENHAGEN.	Medium heat of July	58
ZURICH & NEUCHATEL.			January	29
Medium heat of the year	—47		the year	—43
VIENNA.		MOSCOW.	Medium heat of June	63
Medium heat of July	62		January	17
February	33		the year	—38
the year	—46	HAWK HILL near EDIN.	Medium heat of August	55
VERSAILLES.			January	36
Medium heat of June	60		the year	—45
January	34	NAIN in LABRADOR.	Medium heat of August	48
the year	—48		January	2
RATISBON in GERMANY.			the year	—38
Medium heat of August	62	STOCKHOLM.		
January	32			
the year	—45			
PARIS.				
Medium heat of August	62			
January	35			
the year	—48			
MANHEIM.				
Medium heat of July	62			
January	33			
the year	—46			

STOCKHOLM.	
Medium heat of July	60
- - - - - January	26
- - - - - the year	-42
PETERSBURG.	
Medium heat of July	58
- - - - - January	15
- - - - - the year	-39
ÅBO in FINLAND.	
Medium heat of July	66
- - - - - January	20
- - - - - the year	-39

From his tables, P. Cotte draws the following *consequencies* :

1. That heat diminishes as you recede from the equator towards the Poles.

2. That this diminution is subject, in certain latitudes, to considerable anomalies which cannot be calculated ; because, *1st*, they are occasioned by the nature of the climate: thus, a part of N. America, which is in the same latitude with Italy and the southern departments of France, is, notwithstanding, colder than those countries in which the medium heat is much greater. *2nd*, These anomalies depend on local situation : thus the temperature of a mountain is colder than that of a plain : a moist country, covered with wood and untilled, is colder than one in a dry situation, open and well cultivated : cold is less intense in the neighbourhood of the sea than in places situated far in land.

3. That it is therefore impossible to establish an exact comparison between the degrees of heat drawn from a theory founded on the difference of latitudes, and those resulting from actual observation.

4. That even the comparison between the temperature of two countries from actual observation will never be accurate, unless the observations have been made in the same years, and with instruments that may be compared together : and even supposing these two conditions complied with, very great differences may be oc-

casioned in one country by accidental meteors, such as showers of hail, or a tempest, when no such accidents have taken place in the other.

5. That the last column of the preceding tables (that which contains the medium heat of the year) shews that heat diminishes in proportion as the sun becomes more oblique, and that the central heat has very little effect on the diminution of the medium heat.

6. That the extremes of heat and cold are greater in proportion as you recede from the equator : thus in summer the thermometer rises almost as high, and sometimes higher, between the 50th and 60th degree of latitude, than it does under the line ; while in winter, in these high latitudes, the liquor is constantly under the freezing point during two or three months successively, and not unfrequently descends 30° or more below Zero.

[We may here remark the most extraordinary instance of equality in the temperature of a country to be found in Father Cotte's Tables. At Surinam, the difference between the medium heat of January when it is least, and of October when it is highest, does not amount to two degrees of Fahrenheit's thermometer.]

7. That the climates of France and England, and a part of Germany, are least exposed to those extremes of heat and cold, which render other climates insupportable.

8. That the transition from heat to cold, in September and November, is more sudden than that from cold to heat, from March to May.

Lastly ; That the heat increases at first slowly, and afterwards more quickly, from January to May ; after which it proceeds with less celerity in July : its diminution becomes more sensible in August and September ; it is at its *maximum* in October and November ; goes on slowly from November to December, and arrives at its *minimum* in December and January.

Account of an Essay in Dutch, by the late Peter Camper, on the natural difference of Features in persons of various countries and ages; and on Beauty, as exhibited in ancient Sculpture and Engravings. Published by his Son.

THE late Professor Camper was well known as a person of an enlarged mind and accurate judgment; rich in ideas, and indefatigable in scrutinizing their truth, by repeated experiments, before he admitted them as principles. He has also frequently manifested a solicitude to apply his professional knowledge, as an anatomist, to the useful or elegant purposes of life. His dissertations on the pernicious effects of that female harness, called *stays*, and on the form of *shoes*, prove the first of these assertions; and the treatise before us demonstrates the last. The professed object of this publication is to prove that the principal rules laid down by the most celebrated painters and limners, are very defective; that they neither enable the student to delineate national characteristics in the countenance, nor to imitate the beauties of ancient sculptors and artists. He contends that the observations of the Abbé Winckelman, concerning *ideal beauty*, are not well founded; and he professes to have discovered, in *what* that species of beauty really consists. It is in consequence of the imperfection of rules, he observes, that men of eminence have been so defective in their portraits of national characters; thus, in the paintings of De Wit, the chief signature of a Jew is a long beard; and Guido Reni, C. Marat, Rubens, and others, have given no other characteristic of Moors, than a *black complexion*. He denies the propriety of making either the *oval*, as is the most common method, or the *triangle*, as some artists have proposed, as the foundation of portraits to be taken in profile; and he proposes more certain principles in their place.

Such are the general outlines of the work. In an introductory chap-

ter, the Professor gives us the history of his discoveries; and traces the process by which he was first tempted to doubt the sufficiency of the principles already proposed, and by which he was afterward led to the discovery of more certain data. He says that, in copying after the best models of the great masters, and others, he observed a very great difference between the countenances expressed in them, and in the faces delineated by the moderns, without being able to ascertain in what particulars so remarkable a difference consisted; and that, in employing the *oval* and *triangle*, according to the rules usually established, in modelling, painting, or drawings from life, he found it not only difficult, but impossible, to finish a head to advantage. He farther observes, that, in copying after the prints of Raphael, Poussin, Titian, and Pietro Testa, he was much more satisfied than with the finest pieces of Rubens or Van Dyck, in which the principles established by Albert Durer, and the imperfection of the oval, are very conspicuous. By frequently modelling in clay, after the most beautiful *antique* heads, the Professor discovered that Alb. Durer, viewing the object with both his eyes, had made them all too broad; and also that a painter, in order to succeed, must not only be practised in *drawing*, but also in *modelling*, that he may obtain just ideas of the real appearance of objects of every kind. A knowledge of optics is also requisite; as the Professor attempted to demonstrate in an inaugural dissertation published in 1746, on the construction of the eye, and on the laws of vision. He tells us, moreover, that when he was appointed Professor of Anatomy in the public college at Amsterdam, he was more firmly convinced, in his descrip-

tion.

skins of; and comparisons between; different bodies of various ages, that the *oval* was not adapted to an accurate and expeditious sketch of the features.

‘ I sawed (says he) several heads, both of men and of animals, perpendicularly through the centre, with a view to this object; and I clearly perceived that the cavity destined to contain the brains was, in general, very regular, but that the position of the upper and lower jaw was the natural cause of the most astonishing differences. I have followed this method with *quadrupeds*, down to *fish*, in pursuit of the same idea. These appearances gave me much insight into the real difference of features, from infancy up to the most advanced age; though I still continued embarrassed to determine how the Greeks, from the earliest period, should be able to give an extraordinary and majestic mien to their figures, which no head was ever seen to possess. Having observed persons of different nations, with more attention, I conceived that remarkable differences arose from the breadth of faces, and from the squareness of the under jaw; and this idea was confirmed by contemplating a considerable number of *crania* of different nations; that were afterward collected by me, or accurately copied. I have in this collection exclusively of our own and of neighbouring nations, the head of a young English negroe, and one of a more advanced age; the head of a female Hottentot, of a young native of Madagascar, of an inhabitant of Mogol, of a Chinese, of a Celebean, and finally of a Calmuk.”

He informs us also, that, by comparing the head of a Negroe with that of a Calmuk; these with an European; and placing them on a level with the head of an ape, he discovered that the direction of the lines, extending from the forehead to the upper lip, indicated the difference in national countenances; and clearly pointed out the

cause of the similarity between the negroe and the ape. By sketching some of these features on an horizontal line, he ascertained the *linea facialis*, the line of the countenance, with its different angles. Whenever this line was inclined *forward*, an *antique* was formed: when *backward*, a *negroe*; a greater inclination backward gave the appearance of an ape, a dog, &c.

‘ This (says he) was the foundation of the edifice: My situation in Amsterdam afforded me numberless opportunities of collecting the skeletons of persons of every age, from abortions, to the most advanced years. In comparing these, my thoughts were directed toward the natural changes that took place from the gradual growth of the parts in youth, to the decays of age, and the most certain methods of representing these. This was the second stage of my building; and to form a third, I assiduously inquired which was the line that the ancients had adopted in the execution of their most complete works. Finally, by accurately examining into the utility of the oval or triangle, in delineating human heads, and by attending to and comparing together different heads that had been sawed through, with the relative situations of the *maxilla*, I discovered a new and simple manner of delineating the heads of men, or brute animals, with much greater accuracy.”

The above discoveries and observations gave birth to the treatise under consideration, in which the following order is observed. In the first part, Professor Camper makes some remarks on the natural difference in features among the principal inhabitants of the globe; refutes the opinions of ancient writers concerning the causes of these; advances several philosophical speculations respecting the difference of countenance in profile in apes, orangs, negroes, and others, up to the *antique*; traces the changes that necessarily flow from a difference in the

linea facialis; and illustrates his principles, by exhibiting sketches of their characteristic features of different nations, and by giving a philosophical explanation of the same. In the *second* part, he treats of the form of the heads of children and those of aged persons viewed in profile, and in front. The third part treats of beauty, and of the proportions requisite to constitute beauty. The fourth and last part relates to the first principles of drawing, and explains in what cases the oval and triangle may be employed; and where they are defective, he proposes his more perfect method.

As this work is written for the scientific artist alone, the Professor has preferred the more abstruse and scientific method. He attempts to illustrate and demonstrate his principles by the explanation of a large number of sketches given in several plates. Such rigid attention is paid to geometrical lines, and proportions, that this mode is preferred in several instances, where verbal explanations would have been equally convincing, and infinitely more adapted to a subject of taste. This method renders it impracticable for us to do justice to the author's principles, as they could not be completely illustrated without the aid of figures. We shall endeavour to strip such parts of their scientific garb, as constitute the principal importance of the publication, that the man of taste may form some ideas of it.

The general doctrine is, that the difference in form and cast of countenance proceeds from the relation which the cranium is found to bear to the direction of an horizontal and a perpendicular line. Let us suppose a frame of wood similar to that of a picture, to be made perfectly square; and that the upper part be graduated into 90 degrees, proceeding from the right to the left. Let the cranium, or head, be placed in the centre of this frame. Draw an imaginary line from the lower part of the upper lip to the fore-

head, which the professor terms the *linea facialis*, and observe in what degree it intersects the upper part of the frame; as this will give one characteristic, and the situation of the maxilla, respecting the perpendicular side of the frame, another. For example, the *linea facialis* of the ourang will intersect the horizontal line at 58; that of the negro, at 70; that of the European, at 80 or 90; while, in the Grecian antique, the facial line will project ten degrees beyond the limits of the frame, forming an angle in a different direction. In the ape, the Negro, and the Calmuk, the maxilla project in various proportions beyond a particular line drawn from the lower part of the forehead to the chin: in the European, the maxilla are on a line with the perpendicular; and in the antique, they recede within it. According to this position of the *linea facialis*, are every other part of the head, the position of the eyes, of the mouth, ears, &c. regulated. This he proves by various examples.

In the Professor's inquiry into the principles of taste, the leading idea is, that the beauty in the proportions given by the ancients to their figures, arises from their paying greater attention to the laws of optics, than to the usual proportions of nature. His reasonings on this subject are ingenious and conclusive: but as they are founded on geometrical proportions, and require figures to illustrate and explain the doctrine, no extracts could be satisfactory. We must also refer the inquisitive reader to the treatise itself, for a clear idea of the method adopted by the Professor, to sketch heads in profile with greater accuracy; and we must content ourselves with announcing the leading principle.

M. Camper relates, that the attention which he was obliged to pay to the subject in the anatomical line, and the observations which he had made relative to the original shape of a child's head, and the subsequent growth of the

the nose and maxillæ, taught him that the most easy method was to follow Nature; that is, to sketch the cranium in the first place. This he does by forming an oval in an horizontal direction, by means of a larger and smaller circle. He draws an horizontal line from the central point of the larger circle to the central point of the smaller; and then a perpendicular line from the centre of the larger circle to its lower edge, which shews the part where the lower lobe of the ear should be placed. He then forms the facial line in such a direction, and degree of inclination, as the character of the countenance may require, according to the principles hinted above. This line is divided into four equal parts; the first is appropriated to the distance between the crown of the head and the forehead; the second points out the length of the forehead; the third limits the size of the nose; the fourth marks the mouth and chin.

The point, where a line drawn transversely from the root of the nose, intersects the line of the larger circle toward the forehead, is the seat of the eye, &c. This simple manner, he observes, gives the proportions of the most important points. Four profiles; the one of an antique, the other of an aged person, the third of a negro, and the fourth of an infant, with explanations, represent this plan in an intelligible and striking point of view.

We have ventured to translate M. Camper's geometrical proportions into the above concise narrative, not to *satisfy*, but to *excite*, the curiosity of artists: that they may examine for themselves, into principles proposed by a gentleman of acknowledged talents, in order to make a very considerable change in the mode of exercising their profession, and to solve difficulties which have hitherto been deemed inexplicable.

Account of a Book published at Liege entitled Exposé de la Revolution de Liege, in 1789, &c. By M. de Dohm, Privy Counsellor to the King of Prussia.

IN times like the present, when men seem wisely determined to obtain for themselves some portion of that freedom, which, formerly, they were contented to see others enjoy, it is a subject of the most material consequence, to ascertain what it is that constitutes the true advantages of men in society. This publication, therefore, is interesting and important: for here we see that question agitated, as far as it applies to a particular society; and tho' the society itself be not of the first magnitude, yet the disputants are personages who must be allowed to have considerable influence over the political state of Europe.—The point in debate was simply this; the inhabitants of Liege had differences with the reigning Prince Bishop, who was sup-

ported in his conduct by a decree of the IMPERIAL CHAMBER of Wetzlaet, which was ordered to be carried into execution by the King of Prussia, as Duke of Cleves, assisted by the Bishop of Munster, and the Duke of Juliers: the King accepted the office; and the question was, whether, by force, he should enable the Prince to oppress and tyrannize over his subjects; or whether, by pacific measures, he should bring about a fair accommodation, and assist in establishing a free government. The court of Berlin has been stigmatized as one of the most despotic in Europe; in the present case, to the general happiness of Europe, and to the peculiar honour of itself, it has acted a part, disinterested, liberal, and enlightened. The King of Prussia
and

and his Minister (M. DE DOHM) appear to have adopted the purest sentiments, and to have pursued them without passion, and with real benevolence toward all parties.

Before the author proceeds to treat on the Revolution (as it has been termed,) at Liège, he takes a general survey of the constitution of that principality. Its original constitution, he argues, was a proof that, in the middle ages, the ages of darkness as they are styled, those great and inalienable rights, which are common to all mankind, were ascertained and regarded. They were not, indeed, as at present, enumerated and registered, but they were not the less remembered: the executive power was confined within straight bounds, which could only be extended in consequence of the consent of the whole nation.—The fundamental law, or agreement, in which the constitution of Liège rested, was called the treaty of *Fexhe*: it was formed, in 1316, between the Bishop, the Chapter, the *Chevaliers*, the towns, and *all the inhabitants of the country*. It confirmed all the liberties and ancient usages at that time established: it decreed that no one should be judged but according to the laws, administered by competent judges; it forbade under severe penalties, the executive or judiciary power to interfere in preventing this decree; and, in case of such interference, it gave the privilege of resistance, and specifically ordered the Chapter to stop, in its illegal proceeding, the tribunal which was in fault. It determined those cases in which the Prince Bishop was allowed, for the general security, to act from his individual authority; and, finally, it enacted that no change in the laws, nor in the established customs, could take place without the general consent and express will of all the country.

Such, observes M. DE DOHM, was the simple and rational scheme of civil liberty, enjoyed by the country of

Liège: nor, continues he, was this in any way *disturbed* by that jealousy, which is perpetually recurring on account of incroachments, either real or supposed, made on the privileges of the people by the sovereign. Jealousies and disputes of this nature cannot be avoided by any fundamental laws whatever; and, indeed, if this were possible, it would not be *expedient*: they are the immediate consequences of the active disposition of mankind, the natural effects of changes of circumstances, and the regular attendants of increased knowledge, and of proportionably increasing wishes and wants: they are, in fact, the nourishment which gives life and health to every free government.

Disputes had, for some time, subsisted between the prince and the people, concerning the exclusive right, claimed by him, of licensing places of public diversion at *Spa*. These were unfortunately increased by the scarcity of provision during the severe winter of 1789: when, it being necessary to prohibit the exportation of corn, an edict had been passed for that purpose, but which was rendered null by the omission of some necessary forms by the Prince. The minds of the people were in this state of agitation, when accounts were received of what had passed in Paris, in July 1789. The inhabitants of Liège, from their situation, and from the similarity of their manners and language, were naturally partial to the French nation: they now also traced a similarity in their griefs, and felt a desire to procure a similar remedy. Two principal points, in the new regulation of matters in France, particularly affected the people of Liège: the equal contribution of the clergy toward the expences of the state; and the more equal representation of the people.—*Two thirds* of the territory in the principality of Liège belonged to the clergy, and the clergy scarcely paid any taxes.

The *representatives of the nation* con-

sisted

sisted of the three estates: the chapter of the cathedral, the nobility, and the deputies of the capital, and of twenty-two other towns. These deputies were originally elected by the *bourgeoisie* of each town, till, in 1684, Maximilian Henry, the then bishop, who was likewise possessed of other considerable territories, contrived, by the assistance of his foreign possessions and troops, arbitrarily to claim for himself and his successors the right of nominating one half of the deputies from the capital; while he procured such an influence over the election of the rest, as to secure the return of what men he pleased. The same changes taking place throughout most of the towns in the principality, the third estate, consisting of the great body of the people, as far as concerned their voice in the government, was annihilated.—To redress these grievances, would, of course, be the natural desire of a people, animated by the example of a great and favourite nation.

The reasonableness of this wish was, in part at least, evident to the bishop; who, nobly, and without solicitation, summoned the clergy, and invited them to contribute an equal share of the taxes, and to renounce for ever, without condition, or reserve, the privileges by which they were exempted. He moreover convoked the assembly of the states, so long desired; whose first attention was by himself directed to the relief of the most indigent and most numerous class of his subjects. From a conduct like this, every thing was to be hoped; and the people looked forward with eagerness to the re-establishment of their civil liberty, by the abolition of the arbitrary proceedings of 1684; without which every relief was trivial, and with which, there was no burthen but what was supportable. Their wishes, on this head, were no sooner made known to the prince, than he gave his consent, in writing, to whatever might encrease

the general good, and fulfil the desires of his people. In consequence, the ancient magistracy was deposed, and a new one elected. The prince approved every measure: he came from his castle to the capital, and was received with shouts of joy, by a people who felt themselves free and happy, and who respected him as the cause of their freedom and happiness. He was thus conducted to the *Hotel de Ville*, where, with his own signature, he confirmed the late election.—If more could be wanting to testify his perfect agreement with the views of his subjects, he gave it, by offering to dwell in the capital, or to accept a guard, composed of the citizens, at his seat in the country. 'A reconciliation like this,' says M. DE DOHM, 'between a good prince and a good people, so publicly, so clearly manifested, could not fail, even in foreign countries, to excite the warmest satisfaction, and to merit the general applauses.'—What then must be the astonishment and regret of his subjects, to hear, within a few days, that their sovereign had quitted his castle like a fugitive, accompanied only by his nephew, and directing his flight no one knew whither! The only information to be gained concerning this strange event, was from a paper left by himself; in which he said, that the fear of a tumultuous meeting, at the approaching assembly of the states, had determined him, for a time, to quit a scene which would be prejudicial to his health: but that he assured the nation, whom he loved, that he had no design of soliciting foreign succours, nor of preferring any complaint either to his Imperial majesty, to the diet, nor to any other tribunal of the empire. He had given no authority to make any such complaint, and he disavowed, in the face of the world, all those which might be made in his name, &c.

During this state of suspense and uncertainty, news was brought to Liege that the IMPERIAL CHAMBER, without

without receiving any application on the subject, had taken into consideration what had passed, regarding it as an infringement of the public peace; that, on the very day of the prince's departure, they had given a commission to the princes of the circle of the Lower Rhine and Westphalia (the Bishop of Munster, the Duke of Juliers, and the Duke of Cleves,) to protect, with such forces as might be necessary, at the expence of the rebellious inhabitants of Liege, the prince-bishop, his household, &c.—to restore the form of government as it was before the rebellion; to reinstate the magistrates in their offices; to search after the authors of the rebellion, and to punish them by imprisonment, &c.

The King of Prussia had been informed of the transactions at Liege, to which were given the names of a *revolution*, and a *rebellion*: the flight of the prince and the decree of the chamber had, however, so far altered the face of matters, as to render him desirous of searching more deeply into their real state: he in consequence, ordered M. DE DOHM, his minister for the dutchy of Cleves, to fix his residence at Liege.

The retreat of the prince was now known to be in the neighbourhood of Treves; where a deputation of the three estates immediately waited on him to induce him to return to his country. This proving fruitless, was followed by more pressing instances, which were equally disregarded. In the mean time, M. DE DOHM had a conference with the chancellor of the prince, and explained to him the King's desire of a peaceable arrangement, requesting to know his highness's sentiments with regard to the means by which it might be procured. Instead of pointing out these means, the prince addressed himself by letter to the King, claiming the *plenary execution* of the decree of the chamber. The King's answer shews in what sense he was determined to undertake the

execution of that decree; and, accordingly, the letter of his minister, which accompanied the first mandate of the *co-directors*, invited the prince to propose, without reserve, the terms of accommodation. In reply, the prince declared himself willing even to sacrifice some of his own rights for the sake of establishing peace. From this declaration, it could not be doubted that the prince, though he had before denied the validity of the assembly of the states, as convoked by himself, would nevertheless ratify the re-establishment of the constitutional mode of electing representatives, of which he had so often and so solemnly testified his approbation: the arrival of the troops furnished by the *co-directors*, seemed, therefore, alone wanting to ensure success to the conciliatory propositions, which the Duke of Cleves intended to offer.

The arrival of the troops happened about the latter end of November 1789; when the King of Prussia furnished 5000 men, being above double the force sent by the two other powers: in consequence, the chief command was entrusted to this general. The agitation of the people of Liege was inconceivable; it was heightened too by the situation of the states of Brabant. These people, undisciplined as they were, had attacked 18000 disciplined troops, and had routed them; they now sent an embassy to Liege to renew their ancient alliances; and both parties entered into solemn obligations to assist in defending their rights and their liberties.—Such was the uncertain and dangerous posture of affairs, when the ministers of the interfering powers were met by a deputation from the three estates at Liege. The deputies remonstrated strongly against the approach of the troops, and proposed that matters should be discussed before the *Ministres Directoraux*, not as men appointed to execute the decree of the Imperial chamber, but as impartial mediators. If this were granted;

granted; if the troops were removed, and engagements were formed that no criminal process should be carried on against those who had assisted in a revolution, sanctioned by the consent of the sovereign; they, on their part, would stipulate that the present magistrates should resign their places whenever they could proceed to a new election on constitutional principles. If, on the contrary, their proposals were not accepted, they could not answer for any excesses which might be occasioned by despair.—This representation had little weight with the ministers from Munster and Juliers: they, as forming the majority, decreed that the troops should advance, and that the plenary execution of the imperial decree should take place. Fortunately, their colleague was not easily turned aside from what he thought the path of rectitude: accordingly, he not only protested against this decree, but gave a separate answer to the deputies, assuring them, that, if they refrained from all tumult or opposition to the troops, neither their persons nor properties should be endangered: that, on condition of their complying with the resignation of the lately appointed magistrates, a new mode of election should be framed, after the method in use before the year 1684; and that, till the necessary alterations could take place, a temporary government should be established. This assurance from the Minister De Dohm, produced its full effect, and the troops were immediately received into the capital as friends and protectors.

Nothing was now necessary to a final accommodation, but the consent of the prince to terms which he had so frequently approved. Instead of this, he persisted in pursuing the unfortunate measures which he had of late adopted: he not only wished to revoke what he had freely done, but he proposed formally to the Imperial Chamber to annul the solemn promise

which he had made to his people *in the face of the universe*: he solicited the *co-directors* to accelerate the execution of the decree; and he insisted on the punishment of the most active of the opposite party. In addition, the *Imperial chamber* made another decree, urging the full execution of the former. The ministers of Munster and Juliers, in consequence, issued orders, without consulting their colleague, M. de Dohm; these were, however, ineffectual, as the Prussian general, who had the command of the troops, contented himself with maintaining the peace of the city, shewing partiality to neither side. In this situation of affairs, the prince applied directly to the King of Prussia, entreating him, in the most pressing terms, to execute the decree in its fullest force. To this, his majesty replied at considerable length, in a letter that does him honour. Among other sentiments, he observes, that he could not execute, in its full force, the decree of the chamber, which required that all things should be established as they were before the revolution, and that the magistrates should be deposed, and the authors of their election punished. He reminds the prince of the proposals made by M. de Dohm, which, just and moderate as they were, had been haughtily rejected; that he should then have withdrawn his interference, had he not imagined that a civil war should have been the consequence, and that the bishopric of Liege would have been lost to the prince and to the empire. He remarks that the inhabitants of Liege had given immediate credit to the declaration of his minister, and had, in consequence, received his troops into their city;—and that his principles were not such as to allow him to profit by their security, in order to effect their ruin: he repeats the terms on which he thought an accommodation might be settled; and, as a preliminary step, he conjures the prince

to return immediately to his capital: —he concludes, by saying, that if this plan were not adopted, he should immediately withdraw his forces.

Nothing seems to have been further from the bishop's mind, than ideas of accommodation: he did not even notice the King's letter, till after the expiration of six weeks; and then his answer was as unsatisfactory as it was long: it was a compound of mean submission to the king, and of haughty contempt for his people. It was answered as it deserved. 'I laid before you,' says his Prussian Majesty, in his letter dated March 9, 1790, 'my free and real sentiments respecting the troubles which have unhappily arisen in Liege; at the same time I proposed articles of accommodation, which I then thought, and now think, just, moderate, and alone proper to heal this unfortunate breach. I added that, if my propositions were not received, and if you were determined to demand the plenary execution of the decree of the Imperial Chamber, I would instantly recal my troops, and abandon a commission, which I could not execute with justice and honour. I might have expected from you a clear answer to clear propositions: instead of this, I receive nothing but declamation about rights, which, had I the inclination and the leisure, I might easily shew never to have existed; a heap of assertions without proof, and readily refuted; nay, in fact, already refuted in my own letters.'

In another part, he tells the prince, that if he can depend, as he had asserted, on seven-eighths of his people being in favour of his scheme of government, he has only to suffer the magistrates for the ensuing year to be chosen by the free voice of all the inhabitants of each town: it would then appear whether the prince's sentiments were right, or those of the deputies from Liege, who maintained that eleven-twelfths of the voices were

for the new constitution. He next repeats, more in detail, the terms which he submits to the prince for the last time; declaring that, if these were not adopted before the 30th of the same month, he should consider his silence as a refusal of consent; and that he should esteem his delays and shiftings as so many endeavours to harass his country into submission by the vexatious expence of an army, which it was obliged to support.

The Bishop of Liege still desiring a farther delay, the King agreed to postpone his final resolution till the 15th of April. On this occasion, he tells him that, as a prince, firm and patriotic, he ought either nor to have given to his states his approbation of their conduct, and the subsequent promise by which he had engaged himself in favour of the Revolution; or, having given it, he should not, without reason, revoke it: that, by quitting his country, and leaving his countrymen, without a single attempt on his part to accommodate matters, he was responsible to the nation and to the public in general for all the mischiefs which he might have prevented, by listening to just and moderate terms. This was the language of truth, but it was spoken to the deaf ear: the King received, in answer, a supercilious epistle, in which the writer submits his cause to the justice of the empire at large; *Justice, Sire, justice!* he exclaims with energy; but had he viewed *justice* in the same light that we and some other uncourty and blunt men view it, he would either have altered his conduct, or not have been so vociferous in his exclamations.

The latest communication in this volume is dated 'Berlin, April 6th 1790,' and appears to be written by his Prussian Majesty: it contains a justification of his conduct in recalling his troops, and in avoiding any further interference in the affairs of Liege.

Account of the Rise of the Mississippi Scheme; from "a Sketch of the Life and Projects of John Law of Lauriston:" By I. P. W.

AFTER the establishment of the General Bank, Mr Law began to develop the plan of that great and stupendous project he had long meditated, known by the name of the Mississippi System, which, for a while, turned the heads of the French, and attracted the attention of all Europe; a project that, if carried into full execution, would, in all probability, have exalted France to a vast superiority of power and wealth over every other state. The scheme was no less than the vesting the whole privileges, effects, and possessions of all the foreign trading companies, the great farms, the profits of the mint, the general receipt of the king's revenue, and the management and property of the bank, in one great Company, who thus having in their hands all the trade, taxes, and royal revenues, might be enabled to multiply the notes of the bank to any extent they pleased, doubling or even trebling at will the circulating cash of the kingdom; and, by the greatness of their funds, possessed of a power to carry the foreign trade, and the culture of the colonies, to a height altogether impracticable by any other means. The outlines of the plan being laid before the regent, met with the approbation of that prince; measures were taken for the establishment of the proposed company, and directions issued for making the requisite grants to enable them to begin their operations.

Accordingly, by letters patent, dated in August 1717, a commercial company was erected, under the name of the Company of the West, to whom was granted the whole province of Louisiana, or the country on the river Mississippi; from which last circumstance, its subsequent proceedings came to be included under the general name of the Mississippi System. Of this Company 200,000 actions (or shares) were created, rated at 500 livres each;

and the subscription for them was ordered to be paid in billets d'etat, at that time so much discredited, by reason of the bad payment of their interest, that 500 livres nominal value in them would not have sold upon 'change for more than 150 or 160 livres. In the subscription they were taken at the full value, so this was effectually a loan from the Company to the King of 100 millions. The interest of that sum, to be paid by his Majesty to the Company, was fixed at the rate of 4 per cent. the first year's interest to be employed for commercial purposes, and the annual-rents of the following years to be allotted for paying regularly the dividend on the actions, which was fixed at 20 livres per annum on each, exclusive of the profits of the trade.

Of this Company of the West, Mr Law (who had now advanced so high in the Regent's favour, that the whole ministerial power was reckoned to be divided betwixt him, the Abbe du Bois, Minister of Foreign Affairs, and M. D'Argenson, Keeper of the seals), was named Director General. The actions were eagerly sought after, Louisiana having been represented as a region abounding in gold and silver, of a fertile soil, capable of every sort of cultivation. The unimproved parts of that country were sold for 30,000 livres the square league, at which many purchased to the extent of 600,000 livres; and vigorous preparations were made for fitting out vessels to transport thither labourers and workmen of every kind. The demand for Billets d'etat, for the purchase of actions, occasioned their immediately rising to their full nominal value.

On the 4th of September 1718, the Company of the West undertook the Farm of Tobacco, for which they paid 2,020,000 liv. advanced rent to the King; and on the 15th of December following, they acquired the charter and

and effects of the Senegal Company: But by far the most important grant was that made in May 1719, when an edict was published transferring to this Company the exclusive privilege of trading to the East Indies, China, and the South Seas, with all the possessions and effects which had belonged to the China and India Companies, on condition of their paying the lawful debts of these Companies now dissolved. The Company of the West assumed on this occasion, the title of the Company of the Indies; 50,000 new actions were ordered to be created, rated at 550 liv. each, payable in coin, to be employed partly in satisfying the creditors of the old Companies, and partly in building of vessels, and other preparations for carrying on the trade. The price of Actions quickly rose to 1000 liv. the hopes of the public being raised by the favourable prospects of a most lucrative commerce.

On the 25th of July 1719, the Mint was made over to the Company of the Indies, for a consideration of 50 millions of livres, to be paid to the King within fifteen months; and 50,000 new Actions, rated at 1000 liv. each, were directed to be created, in order to raise that sum. On the 27th of August following, the Regent took the great farms out of the hands of the Farmers General, and made over the lease to the Company of the Indies, who agreed to pay 3,500,000 liv. advanced rent for them; and on the 31st of the same month, the Company obtained the general receipt of other branches of the King's revenue. When they had acquired all these grants, and had thus concentrated in themselves the whole foreign trade and possessions of France, and the collection and management of all the royal revenues, they promised an annual dividend of 200 livres on every share, the consequence of which was, that the price of Actions instantly rose in the market to 5000 livres; the pub-

run upon the last creation of

50,000 with such eagerness, that nearly double the requisite sum was subscribed for, and the greatest intrigues and quarrels were employed to secure a place in that subscription. It was some weeks before the names of the actioners were declared, during which time Mr Law's door was shut, and all the people of quality in France appeared on foot in hundreds, before his house in the Place Vendome.

The company now came under an obligation to lend the king, that he might pay off his creditors, the sum of 1500 million of livres, at the rate of 3 per cent per annum, to which rate the interest of the 100 millions formerly lent to his majesty, (on the first creation of actions at 4 per cent) was also reduced; the king consequently had to pay them, in all 48 millions a-year. To raise this sum of 1500 millions, there were, in the months of September and October 1719, 300,000 new actions created, subscription for which was fixed at 5000 livres each. The actions were thus brought to their full number of 600,000, (for it is needless to take any notice of 24,000 more created on the 4th of October by the private orders of the Regent, but afterwards suppressed;) to answer the dividends upon which the Company had, according to some, the following annual revenue, viz.

	livres.
Interest paid by the King to the Company,	48,000,000.
Profits upon the Great Farms,	
Ditto upon the Mint,	4,000,000.
Ditto upon the Farm of Tobacco,	
Ditto upon the general receipt of taxes, &c.	1,500,000.
Ditto upon the trade,	
	10,000,000.

making a total of 80,500,000 liv. open to be improved by the extension of their commerce abroad, and by a good administration at home. Other

writes

writers on this subject, however, computed the annual revenue of this great Company at no less than 131 millions of livres, viz. 48 millions interest from the King, 39 millions profits upon the farms, the mint, and the receipt of taxes, and 44 millions profits upon their trade, in which case they could well afford a dividend of even more than 200 livres on every Action.

The covetousness which these fair prospects of profit, and the prodigious gains of the first proprietors, excited among all ranks, was such as no nation had ever beheld before. An universal infatuation for the acquisition of shares in the India Company seemed to occupy the whole kingdom, from the lowest of the people up to Magistrates, Prelates, and Princes. This infatuation, of which, at the present day, we can scarcely form a conception, increased in proportion to the difficulty of obtaining success; for the whole 300,000 Actions last created, being, by a particular agreement, kept up in order to be sold to the Regent, who had also got possession of 100,000 of former creations, no more than 200,000 remained in the hands of the public, of which only a part, quite inadequate to the demand, was now brought to market. The frenzy prevailed so far, that the whole nation, clergy and laity, peers and plebeians, statesmen and princes, nay even ladies, who had or could procure money for that purpose, turned stock-jobbers, out-bidding each other with such avidity, that in November 1719, after some fluctuations, the price of Actions rose to about 10,000 liv. more than sixty times the sum they originally sold for,

taking into the account the discredit of the Billets d'etat.

So much indeed were the people interested in this business, that nothing was talked of but Actions, and every place echoed with Mississippi and Quinquempoix*. All classes appeared to have but one object, the acquisition of shares of the India Company; mechanics laid by their work; tradesmen forsook their shops, all degrees entirely neglected their employments to embark in this new occupation; and the few that did not proceed to that extreme, conducted themselves in a manner which manifested the little concern they took in any thing foreign to the Mississippi †. The courtiers, according to their usual custom of following implicitly the royal example, engaged so deeply in this business, that it was said only five persons of that description (the Marechals de Villeroi and de Villars, the Dukes de St Simon and de la Rochefoucault, and the Chancellor) had kept free from the contagion.

The negotiations for Actions were at first carried on in the Rue Quinquempoix, to the great emolument of the occupiers of houses in that street, apartments letting at the most enormous rates. At length it becoming impossible for all to procure the accommodation of a room, most of the stock-jobbers transacted their business in the open air. So great was the concourse, that the street was quite choked up by break of day, and the crowd still continued to increase till the evening bell was rung, when they were obliged to be driven away by force. It now became necessary to shift the business to a more commodious situation,

* The street where the stock-jobbing was carried on.

† It is related of a physician called Chirac, that on his way to visit a female patient, having heard the price of Actions was falling, he was so much affected by that piece of news he could think of nothing else; and accordingly, when feeling the lady's pulse, he kept crying out, O good God, it falls, it falls, falls! The invalid, naturally alarmed, began to ring the bell with all her force, crying out that she was a dead woman, and had almost expired with apprehension, till the doctor assured her that her pulse was in a very good state, but that his mind ran so much upon Actions, he came to utter the expressions that terrified her, in reference to the fall of their value.

tion, and the stock-jobbing was accordingly transferred to the Place Vendôme *, from whence it was in a short time removed, on account of the complaints made by the Chancellor, that the noise prevented him from attending to the cases in the chancery. Mr Law thereupon agreed with the Prince of Carignan to purchase his Hotel of Soissons, at the enormous

price, as is said, of 1,400,000 liv. and in the spacious gardens of that edifice caused about 100 pavilions to be erected, each of which was rated at 500 liv. a month. To oblige the brokers to make use of them, an ordinance was issued prohibiting any bargains for stock to be concluded except in these pavilions †.

Account of the Destruction of the Mississippi Scheme; from the Same.

THE envy that generally is the attendant on persons raised to high offices of state, Mr Law had the misfortune to experience; and in his case it was heightened in a superlative degree, from the circumstances of his being a foreigner. He was hated by almost all the Ministry, and obnoxious to all the old retainers of the court. Cardinal Du Bois in particular, formerly the Regent's tutor, one of the most profligate of mankind, could not, without the greatest pain, observe his wonted influence over the mind of his old pupil quite destroyed by the superior powers of the Comptroller General, who, he had reason to suspect, was determined to have him dismissed from his office. This made him attempt all methods to injure Mr Law in the opinion of the Regent, in which he was joined by several of his colleagues.

A favourable opportunity soon after occurred, and was eagerly embraced

by them, of engaging the Duke in a scheme which completely ruined the great designs of the Comptroller General, by putting an end to his plans of public credit and national affluence.

It has been before mentioned, that at the 1st of May 1720, Bank notes had been fabricated to the amount of 2600 millions of livres. The specie in the kingdom, at the rate of 65 liv. to the marc, was estimated at 1300 millions. Cardinal Du Bois, M. D'Argenson, and others of the Ministry, now represented to the Regent that it was become absolutely necessary to form an equal proportion betwixt the notes and the coin, by either raising the denomination of the latter to 130 liv. the marc, by which the 1300 millions of specie would have been augmented to 2600 millions; or reducing the value of the notes one half, that is, to 1300 millions. This point

* The memoirs of the Regency take notice of a hump-backed man, who acquired in the course of a few days 150,000 livres by letting out his hump as a writing-desk to the brokers in the Rue Quinquempoix.—A plan of Paris being about this time laid before Louis XV. then only ten years of age, the young monarch found fault with it because that street was not distinguished from the others by being gilded.

The murder and robbery of a rich stock-jobber, by a young Flemish nobleman, Count Horn, and two associates, who, under pretence of bargaining for Actions, conducted the unfortunate man to a private room in a tavern in the Rue de Venise, and there dispatched him with a poignard 22d March 1720, was one of the reasons for this restriction. The Count, who was only 22 years of age, being taken the same day, was condemned to be broken alive upon the wheel; and this sentence was put in execution, notwithstanding he was allied to several sovereign houses and related to the Duke of Orleans himself. The greatest interest was made for his life, but all solicitations on that head were unavailing, Mr Law shewing the Regent the absolute necessity of making an example of him, at a time when most people carried their whole fortunes in their pockets.

was discussed in council; some of the members, among whom was the Comptroller General, contended strenuously for letting matters stand as they were, or if it was judged necessary to take some steps in that affair, they proposed to raise the denomination of the specie, which had been frequently practised before; but the majority, who bore no good will to Mr Law, favouring the proposition for lowering the value of the paper, it was at last, after a grave, wise, and learned deliberation, determined to issue an Arret to that purpose.

Accordingly on the 21st of May 1720, an Arret was published, stating, that the King having judged that the general interest of his subjects required that the price, or nominal value of the India Company's Actions, and of Bank notes, should be lessened, for maintaining them in a just proportion with the coin and other commodities of the kingdom; his Majesty ordained, that the Actions of the India Company should be reduced, beginning from the day of the publication of the present arret, to 8000 liv. on the 1st of July to 7500 liv. on the 1st of August to 7000 liv. and so on by 500 liv. a month till the 1st of December, when they were to remain fixed at 5000 l.v. That the Bank notes should also be reduced so as they should be received in payments from that date at the following rates: Those of 10,000 liv. for 8000 liv. those of 1000 liv. for 800, of 100 for 80, and of 10 for 8; that on the 1st of July the said notes should be further reduced; those of 10,000 liv. to 7500 liv. and so on by 500 liv. a month, the lesser notes being reduced in the like proportion, till the 1st of December, when it was declared that the said notes should remain reduced and fixed, those of 10,000 liv. at 5000 liv. those of 1000 at 500, those of 100 at 50, and those of 10 at 5.

That this unjustifiable and fatal step was taken in opposition to the advice of the Comptroller General, is assert-

ed upon the authority of his nephew the Baron de Lauriston, who says, "On se decida, malgré l'avis de Mr Law, et sur son rapport cependant, " puisqu'il estoit Controleur General " des Finances, mais peu ecouté, de " lancer l'arret, &c."—and indeed it seems hardly credible that one so well versed in the principles of credit as Mr Law was, could approve of a proceeding so diametrically opposite to them. Some go so far as to maintain, on the authority of a letter from a Duke and Peer of France to an English nobleman, that the most serious apprehensions being entertained by the other European states of the vast increase of the power and wealth of France in the event of the System's succeeding, the Ministers of the Quadruple Alliance plotted together to occasion its miscarriage, and suggested the above mode to the enemies of Mr Law.

Be the cause as it may, the arret was published, and the consequence of this shameful infraction of the royal engagement, which solemnly promised, that whatever alterations should take place on the coin, the Bank notes should always remain invariable, and be paid in full, were such as might have been expected. From that moment,

" ————— Omnia fatis

" In pejus ruere, ac retro sublapſa referri." the whole paper fabric fell at once to the ground, the notes lost all credit, no person would meddle with them; and, although the Bank did not immediately stop payment, there was no possibility of getting near it, the avenues being, at the first alarm, blocked up by soldiers, and the tellers employed in changing the notes of their friends and those of the Directors, so that the day following, May 22d, any body might have starved with 100 millions in paper money in his pocket.

The consternation which seized all ranks of people upon the publication of this fatal arret was quickly converted into rage, so that it became necessary to station a number of troops in the market

market-place, and in other quarters of Paris, to bidle the fury of the mob, from which a second night of St. Bartholomew was dreaded*. Disorder and confusion reigned every where, seditious and inflammatory libels were posted up in all places, and the life of the Regent himself was threatened; but that Prince, among whose failings want of courage could never be reckoned, disregarded these menaces, and continued to give public audience every day in the Palais Royal.

In this emergency the Parliament of Paris called an extraordinary meeting to deliberate upon the situation of affairs; and the result of this meeting was sending a deputation, composed of their most illustrious members, to the Regent, to demand the revocation of the arret of the 21st of May. Upon their representation, this was accordingly done by another arret of the 27th of May, establishing the paper at its former denomination. But all confidence being now gone, this edict had no other effect than to increase the mischief, by throwing again into the channel of commerce, notes universally discredited, with which knawish persons paid and rained their lawful creditors. The President de Novion having some months preceding sold an estate to Mr Law for above 800,000 liv. in gold, and having re-

served a right of redemption within a stated period, his son availed himself thereof, and repaid the purchaser at this juncture with notes.

When the last mentioned arret of the 27th was published, the people crowded so eagerly about the Bank to change their notes into specie, that several persons were hurt, and one was killed outright; but the avenues being strictly guarded by soldiers, very few indeed could get near the tellers; this contributed still more to discredit the notes, which was further increased by the stopping payment at the Bank on the 20th of May. This was done under the pretext of giving commissaries constituted for that purpose, an opportunity for examining the Bank books, and enquiring into the alledged frauds and knaveries of the clerks. It appears however, that the Bank began paying again on the 2d of June; but still it was scarcely possible to get near the tellers, though the eagerness of the public to obtain specie was so great, that none grudged to give even more than 100 liv. for one louis d'or.

The Bank was again shut up; but being opened on the 9th of July for the payment of notes of 10 liv. an incredible throng of people assembled at the entrance on the side of the Mazarine gardens. The guard took

care

* In this season of calamity, the French, with their usual levity, could not refrain from sporting with their own misfortunes in epigrams and the like; the following are selected from a great number of similar productions published at that time:

- “Lundi j'achetai des Actions,
- “Mardi je gagnai des millions,
- “Mercredi j'arrangeai mon message,
- “Jeudi je pris un equipage,
- “Vendredi je fus au bal,
- “Et Samedi a l'hospital.”

To the Abbe de Tencin: (who had the principal hand in Mr Law's conversion, for which he was rewarded with the Bishoprick of Grenoble. He was afterwards Archbishop of Ambrun, and a Cardinal):

- “Foin de ton zele seraphique,
- “Malheureux Abbe de Tencin!
- “Depuisque Law's est catholique
- “Tout le royaume est capucien.”

are that a very small number should be admitted: and the door being immediately shut, those on the outside began to be very clamorous, and to throw stones at the door and into the gardens, which was returned from within; and one of the soldiers firing his piece through the key-hole, killed a coachman and wounded a citizen in the shoulder. At last the door was opened; but the guards being ranged in the inside with fixed bayonets, few chose to venture within their reach, and those who did so, paid dear for their temerity, several being wounded, and one run through the body: The 17th of July being appointed for paying notes of 100 liv. so immense a concourse assembled, and their struggles were such, that it is said no less than 20 persons were squeezed to death; this occasioned a dreadful ferment among the Parisians, which was quelled with great difficulty, by the prudent conduct of the Secretary of War.

In this disposition of the people, who could think of nothing but getting quit of their paper money, all attempts to restore the credit of the notes and of the Actions were of no avail. The Regent losing all heart, and becoming persuaded that the blunder of the 21st of May was irreparable, resolved to put a final conclusion to the system, shut up the Bank altogether, put a stop to the course of the notes, bid a long farewell to credit and to confidence, and return to the old mode of raising money by rents upon the Town House of Paris. In pursuance of the design, he agreed with the India Company to burn the 400,000 Actions in his possession; and they engaged in return to cancel 1500 millions of the debt due to them by the King, and to give up 39 millions of the interest payable by his Majesty, the other 9 millions of annual-rents being reserved partly as the interest of the original loan of 100 millions, which still subsisted, and partly on account of other claims remaining against

h.m. The Company, moreover, con-

3 F Vol. XIV. No. 83.

sented to give up the lease of the farms, the management and profits of the Mint, and the administration of the Royal Revenues, and engaged to confine themselves solely to the India trade, and the culture of the colonies. These arrangements were settled by several arrears of different dates, one of which entirely suppressed all Bank notes, declaring, that, after the 1st of December 1720, they were to have no currency whatever.

At the time the Bank stopped payment, it was possessed of 461,316,410 liv. in notes, and 336,011,050 liv. in specie, making together 797,327,460 liv. which being deducted from 2,696,400,500 liv. the total amount of notes fabricated, left a remainder of 1,899,072,450 liv. of outstanding notes, for which the King was accountable. This sum was ordered to be brought to the Bank within a certain period, to be liquidated by purchasing perpetual annuities at the rates of 2, 2½, and 3 per cent, and annuities upon lives at 4 per cent, making altogether an annual interest of 43 millions; to this sum the 9 millions payable by the King to the Company being added, the result is 57 millions a year, the total interest which his Majesty had to pay, instead of 80 millions as at first; the capital, however, had undergone little alteration, since the 1,899,072,540 liv. of outstanding notes, together with the 100 millions due to the Company, come within a trifle of 2000 millions, the amount of his Majesty's debts as established by the *Ville* in 1716. Thus, in consequence of these arbitrary proceedings, the King was a gainer of more than 23 millions a year; for many neglecting the opportunity of funding their Bank notes within the limited time, in hopes they would again recover their credit, or that better terms might be obtained, great sums of these notes were irreparably lost, and remain useless at this day in the possession of individuals.

Account of the Silk Mills of Derby; by W. Hutton, F. S. A. &c. From his History of Derby.

ALL the writers, from Gregory to Gough, who have travelled thro' Derby, for half a century, give us a description of the *silk-mill*. But it is doubtful, whether an adequate idea can be formed of that wonderful machine, when described by an author who does not understand it himself. Some have earnestly wished to see this singular piece of mechanism; but I have sincerely wished I never had. I have lamented, that while almost every man in the world was born *out* of Derby, it should be my unhappy lot to be born *in*. To this curious, but wretched place, I was bound apprentice for seven years, which I always considered the most unhappy of my life; there I faithfully served; which was equalled by no other, in my time, except a worthy brother, then my companion in distress, and now my intelligent friend. It is therefore no wonder if I am perfectly acquainted with every movement in that superb work. My parents, through mere necessity, put me to labour before Nature had made me able. Low as the engines were, I was too short to reach them: To remedy this defect, a pair of high pattens were fabricated, and lashed to my feet, which I dragged after me till time lengthened my stature. The confinement and the labour were no burden; but the severity was intolerable, the marks of which I yet carry, and shall carry to the grave. The inadvertencies of an infant, committed without design, can never merit the extremity of harsh treatment. A love of power is predominant in every creature: a love to punish is often attendant on that power. The man who delights in punishment is more likely to inflict it, than the offender to deserve it. He who feels for another will not torture from choice. A merciful judge punishes with re-

gret; a tyrant with pleasure. He who mourns over the chastisement he must inflict, will endeavour to reduce it; he who rejoices will augment it: one displays a great, the other a little mind.—It was again my unhappy lot, at the close of this servitude, to be bound apprentice to a stocking-maker, for a second seven years; so that, like Jacob, I served two apprenticeships; but was not, like him, rewarded either with wealth or beauty. The time spent at the silk mill is not included in the last fifty years. The erection of other mills has given a choice of place; and humanity has introduced a kinder treatment.

The Italians had the exclusive art of silk-throwing; consequently an absolute command of that lucrative traffic. The wear of silks was the taste of the ladies; and the British merchant was obliged to apply to the Italian with ready money, for the article, at an exorbitant price.

A gentleman of the name of Crochet thought he saw a fine opening to raise a fortune; he therefore erected a small silk-mill in 1702, which joins the present work, and is called *The Old Shop*, now used for fabricating ornaments of the Derbyshire petrifications. Every prospect of the future undertaking was favourable, till the scheme was put in practice, when the bright ideas died away. Crochet soon became insolvent.

John Lombe, a man of spirit, a good draughtsman, and an excellent mechanic, travelled into Italy, with a view of penetrating the secret. He staid some time; but as he knew admission was prohibited, he adopted the usual mode of accomplishing his end by corrupting the servants. This gained him frequent access in private. Whatever part he became master of, he committed to paper before he flew.

By perseverance and bribery he acquired the whole, when the plot was discovered, and he fled with the utmost precipitation, on board a ship, at the hazard of his life, taking with him two natives, who had favoured his interest and his life, at the risk of their own. But though he judged the danger over, he was yet to become a sacrifice.

Arriving safe with his acquired knowledge, he fixed upon Derby as a proper place for his purpose, because the town was likely to supply him with a sufficient number of hands and the able stream with a constant supply of water. This happened about the year 1717.

He agreed with the Corporation for an island or swamp in the river, five hundred feet long, and fifty-two wide, at eight pounds *per ann.* where he erected the present works, containing eight apartments, and 468 windows, at the expence of about 30,000*l.* This island, with another, called the Byelut, were part of the continent, but separated, ages past, by cutting two sluices to work four sets of mills. The ground continuing flat, farther west, would yet allow one or two sets more.

This ponderous building stands upon huge piles of oak, from sixteen to twenty feet long, driven close to each other with an engine made for the purpose. Over this solid mass of timber is laid a foundation of stone.

During three or four years, while this grand affair was conducting, he hired various rooms in Derby, and particularly the Town-hall, where he erected temporary engines, turned by hand. And although he reduced the prices so far below those of the Italians, as to enable him to monopolize the trade, yet the overflowings of profit were so very considerable, as to enable him to pay for the grand machine as the work went on.

It appears that the building was completed, and in full employ, seven-

ral years before the leases were executed, which was not done till 1724, and extended to seventy-nine years.

Being established to his wish, he procured in 1718 a patent from the Crowns, to secure the profits during fourteen years. But, alas! he had not pursued this lucrative commerce more than three or four years when the Italians, who felt the effects of the theft from their want of trade, determined *his* destruction, and hoped that his works would fall away.

An artful woman came over in the character of a friend, associated with the parties, and assisted in the business. She attempted to gain both the Italians, and succeeded with one. By these two, slow poison was supposed, and perhaps justly, to have been administered to John Lemoie, who lingered two or three years in agonies, and departed. The Italian ran away to his own country; and Madam was interrogated, but nothing transpired except what strengthened his prison.

John dying a bachelor, his property fell into the hands of his brother William, who enjoyed, or rather possessed the works, but a short time; for, being of a melancholy turn, he lost himself. This superb erection, therefore, became the property of his cousin Sir Thomas Lemoie. I believe this happened about the year 1726.

If the Italians destroyed the man, they miscarried in their design upon the works; for they became more successful, and continued to employ about 300 people.

In 1732 the patent expired; when Sir Thomas, a true picture of human nature, petitioned Parliament for a renewal, and pleaded, "That the works had taken so long a time in perfecting, and the people in teaching, that there had been none to acquire emolument from the patent." But he forgot to inform them that he had already accumulated more than 80,000*l.* thus veracity flies before profit. It is, however, no wonder disguise should

appear at St Stephen's, where the heart and the tongue so often disagree.

Government, willing to spread so useful an invention, gave Sir Thomas 14,000*l.* to suffer the trade to be open, and a model of the works taken; which was for many years deposited in the Tower, and considered the greatest curiosity there.

A mill was immediately erected at Stockport, in Cheshire, which drew many of the hands from that of Derby, and, among others, that of Na-

thanal Gartrevalli, the remaining Italian, who, sixteen years before, came over with John Combe: him I personally knew; he ended his days in poverty; the frequent reward of the man who ventures his life in a base cause, or betrays his country.—Since then, eleven mills have been erected in Derby, and the silk is now the staple trade of the place: more than a thousand hands are said to be employed in the various works, but they are all upon a diminutive scale compared with this.

Abridged Review of New Publications.

1. *Various Traits concerning the Peerage of Scotland; collected from the Public Records, Original Instruments, and Authentic Manuscripts; to which is annexed, an Appendix, containing many Original Papers; and, among others, an authentic Account of the Foundation of the Principality of Scotland; with the Diplomas of sundry of the Nobility, particularly of those Peers whose Votes were objected to, at the last General Election.* pp. 164. 4to. Edinburgh, printed for the Author, and sold by Watson, Elder, and Co. J. Murray, London. 1791.

THE following pages, the author tells us, contain much curious matter respecting the nobility of Scotland, of high authority and great moment. The years 1320 and 1606 were the most memorable eras in the whole annals of the Scotch peerage: the 1320 for the glorious struggle they made for their independency, which is sufficiently explained in their letter to the Pope. The 1606 was replete with the proceedings which took place before the commissioners authorized by King James VI. concerning the precedency of the nobility, sufficiently explained in the preamble of the De-

creet of Ranking. Those proceedings are now submitted to the public, printed from an authentic copy of a manuscript collection deposited in the library of the Faculty of Advocates, written by Sir James Balfour, of Denmiln, Lord Lyon King at arms to Charles I. What the editor apprehends should enhance the value of this publication, is, that the privy council records for the 1606, from whence those proceedings were collected, are now lost.

The second part contains memorials out of the unprinted books of parliament, which were collected by the same learned antiquary about the year 1610; a period when our records were much more perfect than they now are.

Part third is certified by a late Lord Clerk Register; and the appendix is taken from original instruments, from papers written by Sir Lewis Stewart, advocate to King Charles I. and by the late George Chalmers, writer to the signet; both of whom were men of distinguished abilities, and are well known to the learned. The diplomas were excerpted from the records, by a late under-keeper thereof, about thirty years ago.

The editor hopes that it will be no unacceptable

an acceptable piece of information to the public, to lay before them the report given by the Lords of Council and Session in 1740 to the Lords Spiritual and Temporal, respecting the peerage and the state of the public records of the kingdom of Scotland. Their Lordships reported thus: They presume humbly to inform your Lordships, that, through various accidents, the state of their records, particularly of their *most ancient*, is imperfect; for, not to mention other misfortunes, it appears by an examination to be found among the records of parliament 8th January, 1661, that of the *registers*, which having been carried to England during the usurpation of Cromwell, were bringing back from London, after the restoration, by sea, eighty-five hogheads were, in a storm, shifted out of the frigate the Eagle into another vessel, which sunk with these records at sea; and ten hogheads more of the records, brought down from London at that time, lie still unopened in the General Register House, through some neglect of the officers to whose charge they were committed, that cannot well be accounted for; so that, upon this separate account, your lordships will perceive a search into the ancient records cannot give reasonable satisfaction.

In addition to what their lordships have reported, the editor can, with much certainty add, that the rolls of parliament, from 2d December, 1673, to 28th July, 1681, are lost, he being in possession of a certificate to this purpose.

Under these imperfections and chafms in our records, the editor humbly submits the propriety of the present publication. For, to the least informed mind, even a copy of a copy taken from a record which does not now exist, or is now in an imperfect state, is of moment.

The contents of this work are: *De Jure Prelationis Nobilium Scotiae*, in

three parts. Part first contains the whole production, &c. made by the noblemen in 1626, &c. collected from the records by Sir James Balfour, of Denmiln, Knight, Lord Lyon King at Arms. The Decreet pronounced by the commissioners in 1626, commonly called the decreet of ranking. Part second, memorials extracted out of unprinted books and acts of parliament, collected also by Sir James Balfour, anno 1610. Part third, Certificate concerning rolls of parliament. — The appendix contains a letter from the nobility of Scotland to Pope John in anno 1320, translated into English. The foundation charter of the principality and stewartry of Scotland, by Robert III. Another charter by King Robert, in anno 1405. Memorial concerning the principality, written in 1752, including the sale of the duchy of Cornwall. Act of parliament annexing the lands of Drumcoll, and others to the principality, extracted from the collections of Sir Lewis Stewart, advocate to King Charles I. Decreet at the instance of King James IV. against John, Lord Carlisle, anno 1488. Act of parliament, shewing that the principality was erected before 1489. Acts of parliament, shewing that the king's eldest son was called prince. Abstract charter of King George I. creating his eldest son, George Prince of Wales; and Earl of Chester, anno 1714. Abstract of charter by King George II. creating his grandson (King George III.) Prince of Wales, and Earl of Chester. Contract of marriage between Mary Queen of Scotland, and James Duke of Orkney, Earl of Bothwell, &c. Letter from Queen Mary to the Laird of Smeiton, 1568. The diplomas of the nobility, viz. the Duke of Queensbury, &c. Earl of Marchmont, &c. Lord Belhaven, Lord Napier, Newark, Lindores, Dunbar, Loudon, Sinclair, Ochiltree, and Cathness; and, lastly, the union roll.

2. *An impartial Account of the conduct of the Excise towards the Breweries in Scotland, particularly in Edinburgh.* 8vo. No Publisher's name.

THIS is a violent attack on the principal officers of Excise in Scotland. It accuses them of betraying their trust, of consulting their own private interest at the expence of the public revenue, of partiality to the fraudulent and rigorous to the fair trader. From the intemperate and abusive nature of this publication, joined to the circumstance of its being anonymous, we are precluded from any expectation of hearing the other side of the question.

It is natural to imagine, that men charged with the execution and enforcement of severe and ungracious, though necessary laws, will not easily escape censure; the odium excited by these laws in the persons subject to them, will, by an easy transition, be imputed to those who watch over their execution; and the charge of rigour and partiality, which every one is prone to make when he himself is concerned, will always be applied to officers of the Revenue in proportion to the zeal with which they do their duty to the public. Accordingly, in this pamphlet, the persons attacked are not only made answerable for the severity of the Excise laws, but for opinions of King's Counsel, and decisions of Judges.

It is not long ago since a more universal clamour was raised against the same officers by certain persons engaged in the distillery. It was said, that by their ignorance of the Excise laws, or from wilful malice, they had ruined the complainers, and had effectually crushed a manufacture which was to have enriched the country. A prosecution was raised against them in the Exchequer, the attention of the country was solicited to the proceedings, damages to the amount of one hundred thousand pounds were ex-

acted, and nothing less than the removal of the Commissioners of Excise from the board, and of the principal officers under them, was talked of as sufficient punishment for the delinquency. But when the day of trial came, the judgment of the Court, and the verdict of a special Jury, completely justified the proceedings and integrity of the defendants, and the high-sounding pretensions of the prosecutors vanished in air.

With regard to the subject of this *impartial account*, it is still more prudent to be cautious in forming a judgment. The candid will always be prepossessed against a cause which needs to be supported by personal invective and illiberal insinuation.

3. *A Letter from Major Scott to Philip Francis, Esq;* pp. 77. 8vo. 2s. Debrett, London, 1791.

THE object of this letter is to shew, in a short and perspicuous manner, the absurdity of all the charges exhibited against Mr Hastings, and the inconsistency of his accusers. This the author does by proving, that many of them (particularly the opium contract) had the perfect concurrence of Mr Francis and others, besides the warmest encomiums of Mr Pitt and Mr Dundas, and the approbation of that house which is now become his accuser. It is also shewn, that the plans proposed by Mr Hastings, adopted by Lord Cornwallis, and sanctioned by the Board of Controul, the India Company, and Parliament, have been the means of increasing the Indian revenue in all its branches.

It shews the great difficulties Mr Hastings had to struggle with—the disapprobation expressed at one part of his conduct respecting the Rajah of Tanjore, and which conduct has since been adopted by, and approved of, in another—that the ministry, who are trying him for a variety of supposed oppressions, have not, in a single instance, altered his system. &c. &c.

*The Good King; a moral Tale.—Translated from the German of Wieland.**Rex eris, si recte facies.*

THE cruel Isfandiar, King of Chechian, a little after his accession to the throne, resolved to destroy his brothers and their children. Tifan was the youngest of these last. At the age of seven years he found himself under the care of a Vizier, for whom his father had a particular friendship. Genghis, (this was the name of the Vizier) had a son of the same age with Tifan, and the only means of preserving the life of the young Prince, was to deliver his own son to the murderer whom Isfandiar employed. Genghis had the courage to make so great a sacrifice, and preferred to the life of his own son the safety of one who might afterwards become the father of a whole people.

He retired with the young Tifan, who passed for his son, to a remote province on the southern frontiers of Chechian. He stopt in a fertile but uncultivated valley, surrounded with mountains and deserts, which seemed to be destined by nature for an asylum to the man who could find his happiness in himself, and to the young Prince who, at so early an age, had already experienced the inconslancy of fortune.

In this place Genghis established a sort of colony, by giving liberty to a certain number of slaves of both sexes, whom he had bought for the purpose from the neighbouring Circassians, on condition of their assisting him to cultivate the deserts. Nature recompensed his attempts by the happiest success. In a few years the greater part of those barren wastes was changed into fertile fields, into gardens and meadows, watered by a thousand rivulets which Genghis and his companions had conducted from the neighbouring mountains. The happy inhabitants lived in abundance of the necessaries of life, and in that happy indigence of its superfluities which is the wealth of the sage and of him who is ignorant of them. Although all his companions had been his slaves, Genghis arrogated to himself no authority over them.

Every species of inequality that is not dictated by nature herself, was banished from the cottages of these happy mortals. The fathers of families formed a sort of council, which deliberated on the general good, and composed the little differences that could arise in a society so small, so content, and so poor.

In this little colony was educated as among his equals, the nephew of the greatest and most voracious Monarch of the East. To keep him ignorant of his birth, Genghis

thought necessary, whatever fate might determine concerning him. If he is destined to the throne, said he to himself, the people will bless the ashes of the honest Genghis for having formed for them a King who has lived in the habit of considering men, even of the lowest class, as his equals; of expecting nothing from others which they may not in their turn exact from him; of owing his maintenance only to his own labour; a King incapable of entertaining the mad idea that millions of men were brought into the world merely to maintain him in a life of idleness, and to put him in a condition of gratifying his every caprice. If fate, on the contrary, shall reserve him for a life of obscurity, ignorance of his origin will be a blessing to him. To tell him that he was born for a higher condition of life, would in this last case be cruelty.

Accordingly, Tifan, while he was feeding his stocks, had no idea that his birth had designed him for swaying a sceptre instead of a crook. The royal blood that ran in his veins, was so far from giving him any hint of his title, I know not what, innate prerogatives over other men, that he, on the contrary, acknowledged as his superiors those who could work better than himself, as they were certainly more useful. One day when the good Genghis saw the Prince returning from his rural labour in a coat of the coarsest stuff, and his forehead bedewed with sweat, he would laugh inwardly at the ridiculous impudence of parasites, who would persuade the great, that there is some secret charm in noble blood which communicates an air of grandeur to their person and their actions, something which distinguishes them from other men, and which commands involuntary respect. "Who would say, that your young peasant is the son of a King? He is no doubt, it is true; his eyes are full of fire; his features indicate a soul glowing with sentiment and energy; but, except myself, no body sees in him any thing but the son of a peasant, born to labour the ground; he himself is fully convinced that our neighbour *Eshes* is incomparably a much better man than he."

From the course of life in which his reputed father educated him, the young Tifan lost that delicate complexion of lilies and roses, and that effeminate air which doubtless would have distinguished him from the other children of the earth, had he been bred in a court. But in recompence he gained a robust and durable constitution, the embryo

ed complexion of a man, healthful blood, and lips which he was not obliged to bite in order to give them the colour of coral.

Mean time the sage Genghis was far from losing sight of what his adopted son was destined to by his birth. Tifan had cost him too dear to be trained as a simple shepherd. The manner in which the intimated Isfandiari behaved, made it more than probable that Tifan would be obliged, before he was prepared for it, to assert his right to the crown. Accordingly, Genghis undertook no less a task than to form the young Tifan, in the midst of shepherds and labourers, to become a good prince, without giving him any idea of his design. Genghis was convinced that goodness of heart without wisdom is no more virtue, than knowledge without virtue is wisdom; he, therefore, endeavoured to elevate the mind of his pupil by degrees from the narrow conceptions imprinted on his soul by surrounding objects, to the sublime ideas of civil society; of human kind, of nature, of the universe, and of its incomprehensible but adorable Author. At the same time, he endeavoured to cherish in him a taste for what is beautiful and good; to foster in him all the sympathetic and benevolent affections, and to confirm them into habits. The moral perfection of a man, said Genghis, in performing the duties which nature requires of him, depends on these principles being impressed on his mind, and these sentiments on his heart. But it is particularly indispensable in the man who is called to maintain moral order in any part of general society. Woe to his subjects and to himself, if his soul is not affected even to rapture, with the idea of universal harmony and happiness; if the rights of humanity are not, in his opinion, as sacred and inviolable as his own; if the laws of nature are not engraven in indelible characters on his heart, and made the rule of all his actions. In a word, unhappy are the people whose Sovereign would not rather be the best of men, than the most powerful of Princes. These ideas are not the reveries of solitary speculativists; it is unlucky indeed if the great and the powerful consider them as such. But the nature of things depends not on the opinion of the great like the happiness or misery of mankind. If our globe shall exist in its present state for some thousands of years, the history of ages to come will conspire with that of centuries past, to teach Kings, that every period in which these fundamental ideas have been obscured, or these benevolent principles unacknowledged as the inviolable law of the KING of Kings, has been a period of public misery, of corruption of manners, of general oppression and disorder, a period of calamity to the people, and of danger to the Prince.

These principles, and a thousand others of similar import, the young Tifan found engraven on his heart by the hand of nature herself; and he had imbibed no prejudices to destroy their effect. Every thing around him, instead of weakening or extinguishing, tended but to illuminate and confirm them.

He was already eighteen years of age before he had the least idea that it was possible to think otherwise than nature and Genghis dictated; before he knew what want and oppression were, or that any one could conceive an idea of artificial happiness founded on the misery of others. Genghis had stored his memory with a multitude of beautiful passages, and maxims, and sentences from the works of the best poets; these passages were pictures of innocent manners, the effusions of a pure and uncorrupted heart, and the sentences were the laws of nature and of reason in its purity.

The young Prince had now arrived at that age in which Nature, by the development of the sweetest and most powerful of all our sensations, puts as it were the last hand to the human frame. In rendering man, by the same means, the instrument of his own happiness and of the preservation of his species, she shows him in the most convincing manner, that she has so connected his individual felicity with the general weal, that it is impossible to separate the one from the other without annihilating them both. Love, that marvellous instinct, which Nature has formed as the most powerful bond of the particular and general felicity of man, presents itself to him under the figure of a celestial genius, destined to accompany him in his way through this world, and to strew that way with flowers. By Love he obtains the respectable names of husband and father. He concentrates all his sympathetic inclinations in the love of one woman, who is his other half, and in that of his children, in whom he sees himself rejuvenated and multiplied. Thus he is the founder of domestic societies, which are the component parts of civil societies, on the constitution of which the welfare of the state so much depends, that one cannot conceive the blindness of those Legislators, who have not respected, as they ought, this grand institution of Nature, and drawn from it all the advantages they might. The virtuous, the sage Genghis was acquainted with Nature and honoured it. He saw with pleasure the affection with which the beauty and innocence of a young shepherdes, an inhabitant of the valley, had inspired the young Prince. He was not afraid that he would prevent his adopted son from cultivating those virtues and exerting those talents that were essential to his future prospects.

He

He did not dream of opposing their growing love, under the pretence that Tifan was a Prince, and Tilia the daughter of a poor peasant. Tilia, indeed, was as amiable as a child of nature could well be. A particular sympathy, which had displayed itself in them from their infancy, seemed to prove that they were destined to make each other happy. Genghis did not fail to take advantage of this inclination in his adopted son, to bring to maturity the effects of that simple but sublime philosophy which he had hitherto been inculcating. He explained to Tifan, in the most friendly discourse, the new sensations which then assailed him. He made him observe the voice of Nature, which invited him to fulfil an essential part of his destination, and he showed him the respectable and affecting duties which are inseparable from it. Tifan became a husband without ceasing to be a lover; he became a father; and as he pressed to his bosom the first-fruits of a virtuous love, he found that even in the arms of the lovely Tilia, he had not yet experienced the finest emotions of his nature.

It has been long ago observed, that the state of rapture into which a first love throws an ingenuous soul, exalts it far above the pitch of ordinary humanity; and it seems probable, that certain sages of antiquity have hence been led to consider love as a sort of Genius which opens in the soul new views of the beautiful and the good, and which establishes a sort of immediate intercourse between it and the Deity. This much at least is certain, that in the species of enchantment occasioned by a pure passion, we experience a much greater sensibility for the beautiful, a keener disposition to the exercise of every virtue, a higher degree of universal sympathy, a more than ordinary inclination for what is elevated and grand, together with more vast and sublime ideas: it would, therefore, appear, that no period can be more favourable for impressing upon the young mind a sense of the Supreme Being.

Genghis must have been of the same opinion; for he chose this precise time to inspire his pupil with pure and sublime notions of religion. He thought these necessary for procuring to the soul a sure anchor of hope, to the passions a sufficient counterpoise, and to virtue the most invincible attraction. As God is the universal benefactor, said Genghis, the wise legislator and governor, the sovereign good and final end of all created beings, let us enjoy his benefits with gratitude, and obey his laws with sincerity; for such is the only service which we can render to a Being who has no need of us, but in so far as he has created us to be the instruments of his sublime and benevolent designs.

The grandeur and elevation to which Genghis found himself obliged to raise the conceptions of his pupil, led him at the same time to give him a distinct idea of social life, of what is called a great state, of its constitution, its civil policy and government. This he performed; and after having shewn the young Tifan how this ball of earth ought to be governed, according to the just laws of nature and the destination of man, he made him comprehend how it in fact happens to be otherwise than it ought to be. Setting out from the intuitive idea of the small colony in which he had passed his days, Genghis conducted him step by step to the complicated idea of a great monarchy. He made him pass from the father of a little rural family to the common father of Chechian. The prince followed him without difficulty in all his instructions: but he could not so easily be made to conceive how the common father of a nation could become a despot, or how a despot, with an inconsiderable change, could become a tyrant. He was also not a little surprised to hear, that the charming ideas of innocent men and a golden age, which had grown up with him, were nothing but pleasing dreams from which a short journey into the world would awaken him. Genghis thought such a journey now very necessary, in order to procure the prince a complete and practical idea of the prevailing abuses and disorders, especially as he might soon be called to put a period to them, at least in a considerable part of the world.

However painful it was for Tifan to tear himself from the arms of his wife and his child, his impatience to see the world prevailed over these tender emotions of nature. Accordingly he left, for the first time, the peaceful hamlet, where, unknown by the rest of the world, he had passed the happy innocence of youth. Accompanied by the faithful Genghis, he traversed, during two years, the greater part of Asia. He saw nature under a thousand different forms, and was astonished to behold in what multitudes of ways people endeavoured to imitate her, and even to surpass and correct her. But what surprised him most was, to observe that the misery of the people was always greatest where nature and art seemed most to have conspired to render them happy. The finest and most fertile provinces were always those in which the people were most relentlessly oppressed. Tifan, with indignation, saw kings dissipating the wealth of their subjects in monstrous and extravagant debauchery, as if it had been booty taken from an enemy; kings who shed the precious blood of human beings in ruinous wars, and who destroyed six flourishing provinces

vinces that they might conquer the seventh. He saw kings, who, from an absolute incapacity of performing their duty, were forced to delegate the administration of the state to mistresses and favourites. While they passed their obscure life in indolence and sensuality, they were not ashamed to listen to needy and insatiable flatterers, who compared them to the best of princes, and even to the deity himself. In a word, Tifan learnt to know Sultans, and Viziers, and Omrahs, and Mandarins, and Dervises and Bonzes, and was no longer surpris'd to see the greater part of Asia exhibiting symptoms of speedy decay and universal ruin. Genghis never failed to lead him to the proper improvement of his observations; and this journey became a school to him in which he learnt without knowing it, the art of reigning.

Tifan from his youth had shewn very uncommon talents. A happy sensibility early developed all the faculties of his soul. His intelligence got the start of the sage instructions of his master. His heart was bent to gratitude, to friendship, and benevolence. He always felt the joy or grief of those he loved more exquisitely than his own. He never knew happier moments than when he could procure them a pleasure, or turn aside from them a calamity. Tifan, therefore, when he was witness to the disorders and distresses of Chechian, lost all concern for his own fortune, and burnt with desire to succour his unfortunate fellow mortals. Genghis took advantage of this opportunity, and gave the prince hopes, that perhaps he might some time or other see his wishes accomplished, and quoted numerous examples of men bursting indignantly from obscurity, and becoming benefactors of the human race. "Perhaps Providence has made choice of you as its instrument for the accomplishment of noble purposes. If such be its design, it will point out a way which we cannot at present foresee." Having now fully executed the purpose of his journey, Genghis led back his pupil to their retired and happy valley.

The young Tifan for some days enjoyed in the arms of the lovely Tilia, repose from the fatigues of a long voyage. The enjoyment of that domestic felicity which he had so long been deprived of, the pleasure of revisiting the scenes of his early attachments, and the places in which his soul had received the first agreeable impressions, seemed to have extinguished for a time those that he had acquired in his journey to Chechian. But they soon recurred with the greater force, and embittered the delights of his life. His heart reproached him, and each time he gave himself up to joy, he thought he heard a genius whispering, "O Tifan,

canst thou rejoice when so many of thy fellow creatures are in misery?"

A short time after their return, the troubles of Chechian began to draw to a crisis. Genghis, who had found means to renew the attachments of his youth with an old friend, was secretly informed of every thing that passed. He communicated the news to Tifan, who burnt with impatience to see the oppressed inhabitants of Chechian revenge themselves on their tyrant. Genghis thought it was now time to advance another step towards preparing the prince for the important secret. He informed him that he was himself descended from one of the ancient and noble families of Chechian; that he had formerly enjoyed public dignities at the court of the late King Azor; that he had been the confidant of that king's youngest son, after whose death, not so much for his own personal safety, as that he found he would be of no use in the new reign, he had retired to these mountains to dedicate himself entirely and without interruption to the education of his dear Tifan.—"Why then, cried Tifan, with all the fire which such a discovery was capable of inspiring, why do we delay hazarding our lives for our native country reduced to extremity, which is now summoning all its children to its assistance, or if that be too late, to its revenge?"

Genghis had some difficulty to make the prince comprehend, that probity as well as prudence did not permit them to take a side till it was certain, on which side by the indubitable right. "Isfandiar, said he, has reigned as a tyrant; but his right to the crown is inviolable. The nation is obliged to acknowledge him as its king. It is true the people have rights as sacred, as inviolable as his, and they are no more obliged to suffer wrong without assistance, than he is intitled to commit it at pleasure. Perhaps, however, Isfandiar may see his error, he may listen to salutary advice; and perhaps there is more of revenge and private interest in the conduct of the chiefs of the revolt, than of public spirit and true love of their country. Time will shew who are in the right, and as soon as duty and honour call us, we will depart for Chechian."

Tifan waited with impatience for decisive news; meanwhile Genghis, who had acquired in his youth the reputation of a valiant and skilful officer, instructed him with some others of his companions in military exercises. Their little company was increased by the addition of a number of young Tartars whom Genghis had drawn into his service by a few presents and promises. Tifan distinguished himself in this band of chosen youth; they loved him, and he was unanimously elected

elected their leader. In a short time news arrived of the king's death, and of the disorder into which that event had plunged the kingdom, which had now no head. It was no longer possible to refrain the generous Tifan, and Genghis thought the time a favourable one for disclosing his secret. He saw, with internal satisfaction, the fire which burnt in the soul of the prince, the firmness with which he was ready to expose his life for his country, and his impatience at whatever retarded the performance of what he thought his duty. Genghis felt the pure and superior pleasure of seeing his generous cares crowned with the most happy success. It was little to have saved the life of a prince whose father had been his friend; he had done more, he had made him the best of men. "My preſages are accomplished, ſaid Genghis; Tifan is deſtined to found on the ruins of the old, a new kingdom of Chechian. It is time to diſcover to him who he is, and to put him in the way of becoming what he ought to be."

The laſt accounts which Genghis received from his friends mentioned a public confederation of ſome cities againſt certain nobles who had declared pretenſions to the throne. The confederates called themſelves the patriotic party; and however different in their general ſentiments with regard to the future conſtitution of the government, they all agreed in deteſting tyranny, and were firmly reſolved to acknowledge no king who could not ſhew a better title than force of arms. "The crown of Chechian, ſaid Tifan, has devolved to the nation for want of a lawful ſucceſſor. Thoſe who would ſeize it by force have no other right but the ambition of reigning. The party of the confederate cities is that of the nation, and my father cannot diſapprove of my going to offer thoſe ſervices to my country which I owe it."—"But what would you ſay, answered Genghis, if I ſhould tell you that there is ſtill a prince of the houſe of Ogul-cam, whoſe pretenſions to the throne are indubitable, as he is the ſon of the late Prince Temor?"

"And where is this prince? asked Tifan, in an accent which ſhewed that Genghis had ſurprized him with a piece of intelligence by no means agreeable. Why does he conceal himſelf, when his name alone would compoſe the troubles that diſtract his unfortunate country?"

"It is generally believed, replied the old man, that this prince, like all the reſt of his houſe, fell a victim to the cruel miſtruſt and jealousy of Iſandiar. But he eſcaped; and what will ſurprize you ſtill more, my ſon, I am the only perſon acquainted with the ſecret of his preſervation."

"O my father! cried Tifan, with increaſed inquietude, what miſtery is this? It is,

perhaps, a miſfortune for Chechian! If this prince ſhould not poſſeſs the qualities neceſſary for repairing the ruins of a falling empire, if he ſhould turn out another Iſandiar, would it not be a duty to your country, to poſterity, to millions of creatures born and to be born, to bury ſo dangerous a ſecret in eternal ſilence?"

"The young prince, ſaid Genghis, has the beſt diſpoſitions, and his right—" "What private right, interrupted Tifan, can be ſo ſacred as the rights of a whole nation?"—"But the nation muſt have a king, ſaid Genghis, the government of many will not ſuit a ſtate of ſuch extent as Chechian."

"But would it not be better for the people to chuſe from among themſelves the perſon in whom they have the moſt confidence, whom they think the moſt worthy? The young prince, perhaps, is ignorant of his right."—"He is, ſaid Genghis; but, if I do not deceive myſelf, they could not chuſe a better king than the perſon whom Heaven has deſtined for them. He is the moſt generous, the moſt amiable, the moſt virtuous prince which perhaps the world will ever ſee."

"You ſpeak with much confidence of him, replied Tifan. How is it poſſible you can know him ſo perfectly?"

"Very poſſible, replied the old man; I have educated himſelf."

"You have educated him!" cried Tifan, with a confuſion which ſhewed that his ſoul began to anticipate the miſtery by an internal pre-ſentiment.

"I myſelf, Tifan! theſe eyes have ſeen him grow up: for twenty years I have not loſt ſight of him a moment. In ſhort, O Tifan! you are that prince; you are the only remaining iſſue of Prince Temor; you are the rightful heir of the crown of Chechian."

"And are you not my father?" ſaid Tifan, in a ſorrowful accent, while his eyes were bathed in tears.

"No, my dear Tifan, ſaid the old Genghis, throwing his arms round the neck of the prince, and kiſſing his forehead. Thou art the ſon of my friend; thy father was worthy of a throne; he left thee to me as a precious and dear pledge; yes, it coſt me dear, O Tifan! for to preſerve thy life I delivered up my own, my only ſon, to the murderous Iſandiar. I fled with thee to this ſolitude. Ignorant of what Heaven might determine with regard to thee, I reared thee in thy youth as if thou hadſt been deſtined for common life. I ſaid to myſelf, he who is all that a man ought to be, will not fail to be a good prince. Chechian is now without a head, and all the horrors of anarchy prevail in that unhappy country. The time is come, when the virtue of a ſingle man ſhall decide the fate of a

whole nation. Examine thy heart, O Tifan! What does it dictate to thee at this moment?"

"I am in such agitation, replied the prince, that I must have some time to recollect myself. I wish you had allowed me to remain in ignorance of this secret; and yet I feel it, said he, pressing the old man to his breast, I feel that my heart will be ever the same. I would, as the son of the noble Genghis, shed my blood and expose my life for my country; can I do less as the son of Temor? What do I say? the son of Temor? O most respectable of old men! let me always remain thy son! My highest ambition goes no farther; to you I owe the power which I feel I possess, of being able to despise a crown."

"To despise a crown! said Genghis—No Tifan, that is not the way to recompense me for all my cares. You have only to despise voluptuous indolence, idleness, debauchery, pride, and those weaknesses and crimes to which so many of those called kings have been slaves. Shew yourself worthy of the crown to which you are born; but say not you despise the most elevated station to which heaven can call a man."

"You know my heart, said Tifan, I hope never to forfeit your approbation—But there is one difficulty remains, how will you be able to convince the nobles and people of Chechian, that I am the son of Temor and their lawful king?"

"That you must do yourself, said Genghis; I cannot even if I would. A free choice must raise to the throne him who shall be thought most worthy of it. Go, Tifan, assist the nation to maintain its lawful right against those who would wade through slaughter to a throne, and erect their own fortune on the ruins of liberty; deserve to be acknowledged by thy fellow-citizens as the first among them, and I am mistaken if they will not discover the most virtuous, and reward him accordingly.

On their arrival at Chechian, the name of Genghis easily procured to Tifan an advantageous situation. The patriotic party received him with open arms, and as every occasion justified the good opinion they had formed of him, he soon gained the confidence and consideration of his compatriots. The troubles of the times seemed to have revived the moral sense of the nation. At an age with which wisdom seems rather incompatible, Tifan shewed them a model of perfection which commanded their admiration and love. He was brave, but not rash, cautious, but not indecisive; prompt, but not precipitate. He always enacted more from himself than from others, and governed his inferiors more by his example than by his orders. His manners were pure, he had sensibility without effeminacy, a profound

contempt for sensual indulgence, and interference for every thing that tended to lead him off from his duty. He was affable to his inferiors, respectful to old men, and complaisant to his equals; and what is surprising, he found means to gain the love of every one notwithstanding all these perfections. His modesty and merit excited so little envy, and his virtue threw such a brilliancy around him, that all strove to be connected in whatever related to him. "Tifan did this by my direction," said an old general—"I fought by his side," said a young officer—"We had Tifan at our head," said the common soldiers. In short Tifan distinguished himself so much that he rose step by step to the rank of General; and as the chief of the patriotic party had lately fallen in battle, he was unanimously chosen to supply the place.

Our hero was not only virtuous himself, but he had the faculty of making those around him become so. Those sentiments which are produced in nobler souls by a sympathetic attraction and a deep sense of virtue, were excited in less sensible minds by the desire of meriting his approbation, and by a degree of jealousy which becomes an estimable passion when it has virtue for its object. His name alone inspired his friends and companions with a sort of enthusiasm. Led on by Tifan, they thought themselves more than ordinary men, and they were really so. His eloquence smoothed what his example had begun. Their love for their native country, which had long lain dormant, revived, and each forgetting himself, lost all idea of happiness except in the national prosperity. The chiefs of the contrary party found themselves daily growing weaker, and unable long to oppose the strength of a nation united and animated by the spirit of Tifan. They, therefore, betook themselves to secret negotiation, and consented to submit their rights to the deliberation of a General Assembly of the people.

In this Assembly the patriots formed by far the greater number; and Tifan, who already reigned in their hearts, was declared by the voice of his country the most worthy of governing a people whom his virtue and bravery had saved.

Genghis was appointed to announce to him, in presence of the Assembly of the States, the general wish. That venerable old man considered this as the favourable moment for publicly discovering his important secret. The general confidence he had acquired, the great idea entertained of his probity, the paternal tears which ran from his aged eyes while he related the sacrifice he had made of his own son, removed every doubt. The nation was enchanted to find in the object of its love the son of a Prince whose memory it respected, and many who

had known Temor, acknowledged in Tifan the features of his father.

Thus Tifan, in the happiest day that Chechian had ever seen, was declared Sulran amidst the acclamations of an innumerable multitude who loaded him with benedictions. Genghis announced to him his election in a speech that drew tears from eyes which had never before shed any. "It is at last come," cried he, "this happy day which rewards me for the labours and cares of so many years, for the greatest sacrifice which a father could make for the love of his Prince! O Tifan, whom I was forced to redeem at so high a price, view in these half extinguished eyes the tears of joy and affection. I see thy virtue acknowledged by a whole nation, crowned with unbounded confidence, and rewarded with the best gift which a mortal can receive, the power of doing good. Tifan, I cease to be thy father, to become the first of thy subjects in love and fidelity. I know thy great, thy benevolent heart: What lessons can wisdom give thee which are not already engraven on it by the hand of nature? I cannot, however, forget that thou art still but a man, subject

to weakness, passions, and error.—O Tifan, son of my Royal Friend, my own son! If ever an hour should come when thy soul, forgetting its proper dignity and its sacred duties, shall be about to abase itself to a shameful passion or an act of injustice, then may the image of Genghis, sprinkled with the blood of his own son, flying from the walls of Chechian in the dead of night, and bearing thee in his trembling arms, may that frightful image restore to virtue the father of his people and the best of Princes. But no, I swear by the virtue to which I have trained thee, that fatal day shall never come. More happy prospects appear to my prophetic imagination, and the reign of Tifan shall be the era known to all posterity as the reign of peace, of happiness, and of liberty."

The reign of Tifan justified the prediction of Genghis. It was long and prosperous. The unavoidable cares attendant on a crown were made lighter by the approbation of his own heart, and by the domestic comforts he enjoyed. The gentle Tilia brought him a numerous offspring; and his descendants still sit on the throne of Chechian.

Poetry.

D A W S O N U S.

CANTIO ELEGIACA SHERSTONI,

(Latin reddita.)

I.

AUDITE O juvenes pariter fidæque puellæ

Pectora queis laqueo dulce revinxit amor;
Carmen dñm gemitus comitet, dum lachryma nostrum:

Oh nimis ex vero tristitia facta cano.

II.

Et tu prestantes superans dilecta catervas
Nympharum, O vitæ lux peramata, Chloe!
Exaudi cantus, tenero nam corde dolorem
Flebis et alterius, immemor usque mei.

III.

Egregius forma juvenis Dawsonus ephēbis
Præmiauit patriis, moribus, ore, manu.
Ardeat et pulchram juvenis dum corde puellam

Deperit ingenium cara puella procum,

IV.

Uritur interea, casta sed face, medullas
Et sponsæ anhelat dulcia vota novæ;
Stemmata sed puro illustris, sinceraque mente

Comprimat hæc ignes, virgo pudica, sinu.

V.

Ast vesana pares rabies cum civica gentes
Diruit, et fratres impiis bella movent,

Heu miseranda dies, Dawsonus ecce rebel-
lis
Inscius at sceleris, fontica tela gerit.

VI.

Marte sed insausto; fatali notus amictu
Dum pugnat juvenis fors inimica premit:

Supplicium nunc restat atrox, infame, cruentum,
Horrendam et statuit lex violata necem.

VII.

Quæ tibi nunc misera et nimium dilecta puella

Tristitia restabant! heu color ora fugit,
Deserit et gelidus vitalis spiritus artus
Quum sunt mandata tradita sæva tibi.

VIII.

Ingemit, et largos fundunt dum lumina stertus,

Accipias, inquit, Tu mea vota, Deus!
Te quæcunque manent fortes, quæ fata supersunt,

Te Dawsono illico, te, mea vita, sequar.

IX.

Sin lachrymis fletere meos, sin, optime princeps,

Incautum miseram nec finis ire preces,
Te quoties supplicem oculos ad sidera ver-
tam

Respocam superum munera larga beent.

X. Quæcum

X.

Quem renovas misero, Georgi, clementer
amanti

Spiritus officio serviat iste tuo;
Et mihi materno balbos, ex ubere nati
Proment jam vestra laudis ab ore sonos.

XI.

Sin mors dira manet, sin irrevocabile fatum,
Et delicta tui tristia jura jubent,
Te comitabo ducem, te quæram probra per,
ipsam
Mortem ac horrendam, te tua sponsa se-
quar.

XII.

Es miserum visu! feralis pompa per urbem
Transit, et insequitur fida puella gradus;
Dum plaustro vehitur Dawsonus, non magis
carus
Laurigerum cingat si diadema caput.

XIII.

Persistit hæc animo, nec jam perterrita
flexit
Lumina, dum mortis scena tremenda sub-
sit;
Audet et intrepido visu spectare cadaver
Barbara dum laniat livida membra ma-
nus.

XIV.

Hæc distorta videt quæ subfricere labellis
Ora, prius roseis, delicatissimæ suas;
Carmine quæ resonat blandè spirabat amorem
Nunc, et in æternum, lingua canora silet.

XV.

Avulsam spectat perfuso sanguine collum
Brachia cui toties implicuisse juvat;
Et plurimo cernit laniatum vulnere pectus
Quo tenerum fulsit, languida amore, ca-
put.

XVI.

Excissa et spectat macerato pectore corda
Quæ semel illæsa vellet et ipsa mori;
Hæc tibi quam Regi tantum malefana nega-
bant,
Conservant anima deficiente fidem!

XVII.

En consummatum! laceres depascitur artus
Et micat exusto sanguine flamma ferax;
Et æthere sparsæ ventis mittuntur. At illa
Te sponse, O mea lux! O mea vita se-
quor;

XVIII.

Dixit, et extremis fidum compellat amantem
Vocibus, et repetit torpida lingua sonum;
Tunc demum retrahens languentia colla, re-
torfit
Lumina victa nece, clausit, et occubuit!

THE WHISTLE,

By R. BURNS.

It seems, that, some centuries ago, a Danish
Chief appeared at the Court of Scotland,

challenging the convivial sons of Caledonia to try their strength with him at the bottle, and offering, as a spur to their emulation, and a trophy of victory, a very curious and valuable Whistle to the vanquisher. After many unsuccessful contests on the part of the Scottish adventurers, the Whistle was won by an ancestor of the present Chieftain of Glenriddel; who, according to the terms of the defiance, blew upon the Whistle clear and strong, after his adversary was entombed below the table. It has remained a household god in this family, till very lately; that two worthy champions dared its possessor to a trial of drinking for it, one of whom has fairly won it, in presence, it appears, of Mr Burns, who was chosen umpire on the occasion. We cannot help regretting the loss as a severe mortification to its late owner, to whom, as an Antiquarian, delighting to canvass the precious rusty remains of old times, this antique must have been dear and invaluable. Our readers will learn, from this history, the origin of the phrase, *Whitting one's Whistle*, which no doubt was derived from this fact.

I sing of a Whistle, a Whistle of worth—
I sing of a Whistle, the pride of the
North,

Which was brought to the Court of our
good Scottish King;
And long with this Whistle all Scotland
shall ring.

Old Loda, still rucing the arm of Fingal,
The God of the Bottle sends down from his
Hall—

“ This Whistle's your challenge—to Scot-
land get o'er,
“ And drink them to hell, Sir, or ne'er see
“ me more!”

Old Poets have sung, and old chronicles
tell,
What champions ventur'd—what champi-
ons fell;

The son of great Loda was conqueror still,
And blew on the Whistle their requiem
shrill:

Till Robert, the Lord of the Cairn and the
Scaur,

Unmatch'd at the bottle, unconquer'd in
war,

Had drank his poor Godship as deep as the
sea;

No tide of the Baltic e'er drunker than he,
Thus Robert, victorious, the trophy had
gain'd,

Which now in his house has for ages re-
main'd;

Till three noble Chieftains, and all of his
blood,

The jovial contest again have renew'd—
The

Three joyous good fellows, with hearts clear
of law ;
Craigdarroch, so famous for wit, worth, and
law ;
And trusty Glenriddel, so vers'd in old
coins ;
And gallant Sir Robert, deep-read in old
wines.

Craigdarroch began with a tongue smooth
as oil,
Desiring Glenriddel to yield up the spoil ;
Or else he would muster the heads of the
Clan.
And once more, in claret, try which was
the man.

By the Gods of the ancients ! Glenriddel
replies,
Before I surrender so glorious a prize,
I'll conjure the ghost of the great Rorie
More*.
And bumper his horn with twenty times
more.

Sir Robert, a soldier, no speech could pre-
tend,
But he ne'er turn'd his back on his foe or
his friend :
Said, Toss down the Whistle, the prize of the
field,
And, knee-deep in claret, he'd die ere he'd
yield.

To the board of Glenriddel our heroes re-
pair,
So noted for drowning both sorrow and
care ;
But for wine and for welcome, not more
known to fame,
Than the sense, wit, and taste, of a sweet
lovely dame.

A Bard was selected to witness the fray,
And tell future ages the feats of the
day—

A Bard who detested all sorrow and spleen ;
And wish'd that Parnassus a vineyard had
been.

The dinner being over, the claret they ply,
And ev'ry new cork was a new spring of
joy :

In the bands of old friendship and kindred
well set ;
And the bands grew the tighter the more
they were wet.

Gay pleasure ran riot, till bumpers run o'er ;
Bright Phœbus ne'er witness'd so joyous a
corps,

And vow'd, that to leave them he was quite
forlorn ;
Till Cynthia hinted, he'd find them next
morn.

Six bottles a-piece had well wore out the
night,
When gallant Sir Robert, to finish the fight,
Turn'd o'er at one bumper a bottle of red,
And swore 'twas the way that their ances-
tors did.

Then worthy Glenriddel, so cautious and
sage,
No longer the warfare ungodly would wage,
A High Ruling Elder to wallow in wine !
He left the foul business to folks less divine.

The gallant Sir Robert fought hard to the
end ;
But who can with Fate and quart-bumpers
contend ?
Tho' Fate said, A Hero shall perish in light,
So, up rose bright Phœbus—and down fell
the Knight !

Next, up rose the Bard, like a Prophet in
drink—
“ Craigdarroch, thou'lt fear when creation
“ shall sink ;
“ But if thou wouldst flourish immortal in
“ rhyme—
“ Come, one bottle more—and have at the
“ sublime !

“ Thy line that has struggled for freedom
“ with Bruce,
“ Shall heroes and patriots ever produce,
“ So thine be the Whistle, and mine be the
“ bay ;
“ The field thou hast won, by yon bright
“ God of Day !”

Written extempore by a Friend of Mr Burns,
on reading the above Poem.

DAN BURNS, in many a pleasing line,
Thou'lt prov'd the Wight a man of
Gristle,
Who waded thro' a sea of wine
To win the far-fam'd Danish Whistle.

Long may Craigdarroch, free from harm,
Remain the theme of gay epistle,
And long with Wit his comrades charm,
And long with claret wet his Whistle !

May those who dauntless fall, alas,
By deeds might make one's hair to bristle,
Still live remember'd in the glass,
As long as Fame shall blow her Whistle.
And

* RORIE MORE—a Chieftain of the McLeod Family, mentioned in Dr Johnson's tour to the Hebrides, who kept a horn of a quart measure in his Hall, which those who aspired to a connection with his Clan were compelled to drink off at a draught, in proof of their belonging to his doughy race.

And long may friendship warm rejoice,
To mark thy song beneath the thicket;
The Nine, delighted, hear thy voice,
And throng around thee as thy Whistle.

THE NEGRO BOY.

The African Prince, lately arrived in Eng-
land, being asked, What he had given for
his Watch? answered, "What I will ne-
ver give again—I gave a fine Boy for
it."

WHEN Avarice enflames the mind,
And selfish views alone bear sway,
Man turns a Savage to his kind,
Alas! for this poor simple Toy,
I sold a blooming Negro Boy.

His Father's hope, his Mother's pride,
Tho' black, yet comely to the view;
Stole him helpless from their side,
And gave him to a Ruffian Crew:
To Fiends that Africa's coast amoy,
I sold the blooming Negro Boy.

From Country, Friends, and Parents torn,
His tender limbs in chains confin'd;
I saw him o'er the billows borne,
And mark'd his agony of mind.
But still, to gain this simple Toy,
I gave away the Negro Boy.

In Isles that deck the Western wave,
I doom'd the hapless Youth to dwell,
A poor, forlorn, insulted Slave,
A beast that Christians buy and sell;
And in their cruel tasks employ
The much-enduring Negro Boy.

His wretched parents long shall mourn,
Shall long explore the distant main,
In hope to see the Youth return,
But all their hopes and sighs are vain.
They never shall the sight enjoy
Of their lamented Negro Boy.

Beneath a Tyrant's harsh command,
He wears away his youthful prime,
Far distant from his native land,
A stranger in a foreign clime.
No pleading thoughts his mind employ,
A poor dejected Negro Boy.

But He who walks upon the wind,
Whose voice in Thunder's heard on high;
Who doth the raging tempest bind,
Or wing the lightning thro' the sky:
In his own time will, sure, destroy
Th' Oppressors of a Negro Boy.

MEDDYG DU.

TO THE EDITOR.

SIR,

Some of your Poetical correspondents draw such enchanting pictures of *the Girls they adore*, that were it not for the Christian name by which they are distinguished, they might pass for angels. Now, as I have never been fortunate enough to see an angel *in propria persona*, and can form no judgment of one, except from the figures I see of the *Angel and Slipper, the Angel and Pamphlet, the Angel and Wheat-sheaf*, &c. I wish to know what will be thought of the following

PORTRAIT OF A WOMAN.

NOW see my Goddess, earthly born,
With smiling looks and sparkling eyes,
And with a bloom that flames the morn,
New risen in the eastern skies.

Furnish'd from Nature's boundless store,
And one of Pleasure's laughing train;
Stranger to all the wife explore,
She proves all far-sought knowledge vain.

Untaught as Venus, when she found
Herself first floating on the sea,
And laughing begg'd the Tritons round,
For shame, to look some other way!

And unaccomplish'd all as Eve,
In the first morning of her life,
When Adam blush'd, and ask'd her leave,
To take her hand, and call her wife.

Yet there is something in her face,
Tho' she's unread in Plato's lore,
Might bring your Plato to disgrace,
For leaving precepts taught before.

And there is magic in her eye,
Tho' she's unkill'd to conjure down
The pale moon from th' affrighted sky,
Might draw Endymion from the moon!

And there are words that she can speak,
Most easy to be understood,
More sweet than all the Heathen Greek,
By Helen talk'd when Paris woo'd.

And she has raptures in her power,
More worth than all the flattering claim
Of Learning's unsubstantial dower,
In present praise, or future fame.

Let me but kiss her soft warm hand,
And let me whisper in her ear,
What knowledge would not understand,
And wisdom would disdain to hear!

And let her listen to my tale,
And let one smiling blush arise,
(Blest omen that my vows prevail!)
I'll scorn the scorn of all the wife!

Monthly Register

FOR NOVEMBER 1791.

FOREIGN INTELLIGENCE:

AMERICA.

Extract of a Letter from a Merchant in New-York, to his Correspondent in Belfast, dated 12th July 1791.

THE prosperity of this country has far overstepped the most sanguine expectations of its warmest advocates:—For the last two years money in vast sums has been flowing into it from the coffers of Amsterdam, Paris, the Low Countries, and even London, to be invested in our funds. London has been backward, to her great loss, from a deep-rooted prejudice against the money negotiations of this country. Two years ago, the public debt was bought up at 5s. per pound: it sells this day at 19s. 2d. and is expected to rise above par. If the funds of a country are a criterion of its prosperity, none can be more prosperous than this, of which the following instance is a strong proof:

On the 4th of this month, the books were opened at Philadelphia, for a subscription to the National Bank, the capital of which is by law limited to ten million of dollars (2,250,000l. British); the crowd was immense—the contest at the door like the storming of a garrison; it was only permitted by the act to each person to subscribe, on one day, 30 shares; to obviate this, the subscriber made use of the names of his friends, and completed his whole subscription as fast as his pen could write. In fifteen minutes the whole was subscribed, and a surplus of four thousand and sixteen shares, on summing up, appeared above the sum of ten millions wanted. This surplus necessarily required an average reduction from the amount of each subscription, (or rather from the number of shares subscribed by each) which was done by the Commissioners the next day; and what was expected to require months to complete, was done in an instant. From the hasty completion of this subscription, many of our first-monied men have been thrown out, and have not a single share. The payments are to be made to the Bank in the following manner:

	<i>Dollars.</i>			
4th July 1791, paid in Specie,	-	-	-	25
1st June 1792, do 25 dollars specie,				
and 100 dollars, 6 per cent. funded				
stock,	-	-	-	125
1st July 1792, do. do. do.				125
1st Jan. 1793, do. do. do.				125

Each share is 400

The above scrip is now at 6½ per cent. above par, and scarcely any to be had at market. Our merchants here in general hold from 40 to 1200 shares each.—The holders of the largest numbers of shares are the representatives of foreign property.

The history of the world exhibits no similar instance of a country rising from abject poverty, to full, perfect, and accomplished credit, in the same space of time. In 1786, government securities were hawked about and purchased (only by what were then called desperate adventurers) at 2s. 6d. for the pound; they are now at 19s. 2d.—it was even discreditable to buy them, and the brokers were considered in the same light as the reptile race of Jews in London.—Now the bankers of Europe are toeming their money into our funds, and contending who shall hold most. Mr Hamilton, who is at the head of the treasury, is not inferior to Pitt or Neckar, either in integrity or abilities.

By the census of the inhabitants, taken during the last year, by the Marshall of each district, the population is of much greater magnitude than it was expected; the returns will not be exactly known until the next session of Congress, which opens in November. The French and the Low Countries are pouring in their emigrants, and the western lands are settling rapidly. The city is extending its limits, and is rebuilding much in the same style of architecture as the new buildings in London; and with respect to the habits of the merchants, and the punctuality, fairness, and regularity of business, I think we are not below the standard even of London and Amsterdam.

Much encouragement has lately been given

ven to the planting of immense quantities of mulberry-trees, to promote the cultivation of silk. Trees grow to perfection in a few years here; in about four years these trees will be productive. It has been clearly exhibited, and the fact unquestionably proved, that a farmer's family can produce one pound of raw silk with the same exertions that are requisite to produce the same quantity of flax. The silk-worm requires about six weeks attention each season; and the mulberry is so favourable to all grain, that it rather serves than obstructs the cultivation of other crops. The silk that has been hitherto produced in the eastern states, has been taken in by the storekeepers at as high a rate as seven dollars a-pound, and is much in repute in England. The probable advantages of this cultivation are rated very high. It is even asserted, that it may, in 20 years, be capable of paying for the whole importation from Great Britain and Ireland. The lustrings and sewed silk dyed and woven in Connecticut, have been imposed on English dry-good merchants as British, and allowed to be as good. The lustrings were wove in common linen looms. Manufactures of most of the useful articles are advancing very fast. I thought this would not have been the case whilst so much land remained uncultivated, but the fact is so."

Extract of a letter from Bladensburg, Maryland, dated the 20th June 1791.

"I cannot help flattering myself now, that the eastern branch of the Potowmack will be in fact, as well as local situation, the centre of the United States. When the fixing of the permanent seat of government was first agitated, and even after the act of Congress for its being on the Potowmack was passed, it seemed to me very doubtful whether it would be removed from Philadelphia; but the general opinion seems now to be strongly in favour of the eastern branch. You have, no doubt, heard that the states of Virginia and Maryland have granted one hundred and eighty-two thousand dollars towards erecting the public buildings; and the owners of the land where the city is to be, have given it up to the President, for the purpose of being laid out in lots, one half of which are to belong to the proprietors of the land, together with all the timber now upon it, and the other half to be sold for the benefit of the public, towards defraying the expence of erecting the buildings.

"The city is to extend from the mouth of Rock-Creek, just below Georgetown, down the river to the mouth of the branch, up the branch about three to four miles, then across the country to the road leading from this place to Georgetown, then by that road to the ford on Rock-Creek, then

with the creek to the river. Its figure will be nearly a triangle, having the river, the eastern branch, and the line across to Rock-Creek for its sides, each of them being nearly four miles in extent; which many in Europe may think too much for any capital which America can ever produce, and accordingly be disposed to laugh; but, ground not being of great value here at present, it is certainly right to begin by taking room enough. None of the streets are to be less than one hundred feet wide, and clumps of trees are to be left on some of their sides, and in their public squares, for use and ornament. A French and German engineer have been employed some time in laying out the town, and the geographer of the United States is now running the lines of the Federal district of ten miles square, all of which are to be finished by the end of this month, when the President is to be back from his present tour through the Carolinas and Georgia; and it is said the first sale of the lots will take place in the Fall. Until he returns, it will not be publicly known in what part of the town the public buildings will be fixed; but it is generally supposed it will be pretty high up the branch, and near it, the ground there being level, and, at the same time, elevated.

"By an amendment to the law for establishing the seat of government, the ten miles square is now to begin at the mouth of Hunting-Creek, a little below Alexandria, and to run N. W. ten miles; then N. E. ten miles into Maryland; then S. E. ten miles; then S. W. ten miles; which will include Alexandria and Georgetown, and leave out Bladensburg, crossing the eastern branch about half a mile below us. It takes in Col. Beall's and Mrs Veitch's plantations, and about half of Mr Digges's large tract of land.

"In point of situation we shall be as well off as if we were within the line, being so very near it; and it may be as eligible to be under the laws and police of our own immediate representatives, as under those of the Congress, the majority of whose members can have no local attachment or connection with the district over which they are to have jurisdiction.—Speculation on the new city has already begun, and three tracts of land within its limits, containing not less than eleven hundred acres, have been sold at 20l. to 30l. per acre, which would not before have brought more than 5l.

"Many people are now of opinion that the public buildings will be ready, and the Congress removed to them before the year 1800; and that there will soon be a considerable town on the river and eastern branch. This consideration may perhaps have some weight

weights with you in your future determinations. For my own part, I now think the seat of government *will* be here; and if the President lives, he will bring it as soon as possible."

GEORGE-TOWN, MARYLAND.

July 4.

The President, with his suite, and several attending gentlemen, is now here, laying down and directing the spot for the public buildings in the new Federal town, which will be in the vicinity of Carollsburg, near the mouth of the eastern branch of Potowmack River, and in sight of Alexandria.

Mr Ellicot, the geographer general of the United States, has fixed the six main lines for the Federal district, and is now bounding and marking the lines, which will contain ten square miles of land and water. It begins within half a mile of Alexandria, and runs first in a north-west line to include that town, then across the river to Rock-Creek, leaving out this place about half a mile, thence across the eastern branch of Evam's near the Ferry, and thence to the beginning. It will contain about eight thousand acres of land, in the cheapest, most fertile, and beautiful part of America; and although two hundred and fifty miles from the sea inland, the river is so deep and temperate in tides, that ships of any burthen may approach it without the aid of a pilot. Lands in the vicinity of this intended permanent seat of government (which promises to be the emporium of commerce in America) are fought for and buying up with great avidity, and three very large purchases have lately been made by some Dutch and French gentlemen. The influx of people is already so great as to surprize the native inhabitants, and the wages of artists, workmen, and common labourers, have taken a great rise; indeed the inducences are likely to be very extensive, and must have great effects on commerce as well as the landed property in this fertile part of the country.

A third arrival of a cargo of India sugar, and the increasing produce from the maple or sugar tree, has reduced the price of that article far under the now first cost Jamaica prices, and we are now looking to an export of this article to Europe.

The maple tree is a native of this state, and it is now cultivating by every one. They are about eighteen years coming to perfection, and are of long duration; forty trees are generally planted on an English acre, and their produce, by a very simple operation of tapping and boiling, produces about six pounds of sugar in the season.

Wheat is now at 3s. 10d. to 4s. English per Winchester bushel. Indian corn 1s. 6d.

and tobacco a drug at 15s. per cwt. An uncommon bountiful crop of every thing—bills on Europe very scarce, but a more than usual plenty of Spanish and Portuguese money.

Extract of a Letter from Cape Francois.

September 24.

"On the 8th of September, or by the last Jamaica Packet, I did myself the pleasure of writing and informing you of my intention of quitting this place in a frigate, or one of the flying squadrons, that has come under a broad pendant, to countenance the distressed government of this melancholy colony. At this moment there are, within five miles of this town, no less than fifteen thousand of the negroes in arms. For upwards of five weeks they have allowed them to be collecting and gaining confidence, by getting command of different places of strength around, and without ever having made any attempt of consequence to displace them. They carry fire and devastation before them wherever they go, having destroyed already 221 of the finest sugar estates on the plain of the Cape, and about 600 of their coffee plantations. The regular forces they have here do not exceed 800, the remainder are of the militia, but they are destitute of the necessary arms, having been obliged to send to the different colonies for assistance for arms, amunitions, &c. &c. But M. Blancheland, Lieutenant General and Governor of the colony, is believed to be so divided in opinion by the variety of parties that prevail here, that he really does not know how to act. He, together with the other officers of power and authority here, are supposed to be *Aristeries* and the *Democrats*, who are the most formidable in power, are exceeding jealous of the other party. The negroes have made one attempt to get possession of the town, and burn it; but they were happily repulsed with a considerable loss. The loss of black people in the sundry skirmishes they have had, is computed to about 4000, but I am apt to think that the French gentlemen exaggerate matters a good deal. The white people on the properties that have been destroyed were murdered, which I believe to be the principal loss of white people. Upon the whole, from their miserable and unhappy state, and without the smallest prospect or expectation of any assistance from their mother country, the colony must undoubtedly go from them. They intend making a formidable *fortie* upon all the blacks, as soon as the arms supplied from Jamaica, together with a quantity from Nicola Mole, shall arrive, so that we shall be better able to judge of matters after that attempt is made. In short, they are at present in a very sad state, being sur-

rounded by intrenchment and stocade close round the town; and in the streets they are busily employed in preparing *Chevaux de Frise*, and all other military obstructions. They have six gallows erected in one of their squares, together with a wheel, to put the poor devils to the torture, as they are brought in.

"In short, it is a melancholy scene of devastation and bloodshed, without confidence or means in themselves to act.

"At Port-au-Prince, they are, if possible, worse; the black people and people of colour have united, and obliged the white people to come into every measure that they required; but here the people of colour are armed, and doing duty against the negroes. M. Blanchelande has taken the field with the small army that he can muster; they are formed on two distinct situations, to prevent a junction of two bodies of the negroes."

FRANCE.

Letters of October the 19th, bring the most horrid details from Avignon. Nicholas Jourdan, syleped *coupe-tete*, or cutter off of the heads, the self-created Governor of Avignon, hearing of the murder of M. Lecuyer, mentioned in the advices of the 24th, ordered the alarm bell to be rung and the drum to beat to arms; he then put himself at the head of the banditti, who suffer themselves to be commanded by him, marched to the Cordeliers Church, preceded by two field-pieces, and there he ordered a general discharge on the people, who fell dead by scores; at least two hundred lives were lost in less than five minutes. Jourdan, not satisfied with the carnage, took his ruffians to the prisons, in which were confined all who were conspicuously inimical to a union with France, and ordered them to be seized and strangled.

Protest of the Princes of the House of Bourbon against the King's Acceptance of the Constitution.

"It is in vain that an unfortunate Monarch, actually captive, though free in appearance, has consented to the ruin of his faithful subjects—to the ruin of the Monarchy—by accepting a pretended Constitution of the Empire; it is in vain that he has signed his own degradation; this sanction which the King has given in fact to a monstrous code, is really no sanction in right. And who can be persuaded of the legality of such an assent, while every thing proclaims the contrary?

"Can a Prince, left alone amidst usurpers, surrounded with the wrecks of his own troupe, encompassed by fears and menaces,

beset by intrigue, have freedom of choice? and without freedom of choice, is not every consent null?

"Freedom consists in being able to chuse without danger, and without fear; it cannot exist without this condition, and consent is null when refusal would hazard the safety and property of him who gives it. If the King had refused to accept the Constitution, he would have been deprived of the crown, so had the usurping Assembly decreed; and in rejecting with disdain a degraded crown, and presented by a seditious Assembly, was the King master of the choice of his asylum; and would he not have exposed his person, and all that was still more dear to him, to outrage, and his faithful subjects to proscription, to murder and to confiscation?

"Without doubt, had Louis XVI. entertained the hope of dying at least with glory, if his blood could have saved France, the inheritor of the virtues of Henry IV. would have displayed his courage. Forced to obtain his inheritance by conquest, he would, like him, have been the victor and the father of his subjects; and, like him, would have compelled them to become happy. But what can courage do without support? Henry had an army; and Louis alone, betrayed, abandoned, captive in the hands of his enemies, without troops, without auxiliaries, forced to regret the happy obscurity of the meanest of his subjects, in the midst of an importunate crowd, who served rather to besiege than defend him, found not even one friend to share his sorrows and wipe away his tears.

"The King, then, could form no other determination than that which he adopted, without hazarding the loss of his crown, and perhaps his life. His degradation, and even his death would have been an useless sacrifice to honour; it would have cost France long and fruitless remorse, but could not have saved it.

"The King then was not free, his sanction is therefore null; and in this case to disobey illusory orders is to give the strongest and most courageous proof of obedience and fidelity; it is to serve the real Monarch, it is to serve God and our country.

"Scarcely could this pretended assent be credited, if the King had proclaimed it amidst his family, surrounded with his ancient and faithful servants, with all his military household, in fine, with all the splendour of his former power. Then the Royal Assent, though the occasion of so much ruin, would nevertheless have been recognised as just, at least reputed free; then we might have condemned the error of the Prince, but should not have wept over his chains; then the fact would have been incontestible, we could only have disputed the right.

"In fact, even if the King had enjoyed full

full possession of his liberty, would he have had the right to sanction laws contrary to the fundamental laws of the kingdom?— Could he, from a mistaken generosity, and in the expectation of a deceitful calm, have sacrificed along with himself, his family, his successors, the true happiness of the people, generations present and to come? Could he give a valid approbation to the pretended Constitution which has occasioned so many misfortunes? Possessor for life of the throne which he received from his ancestors, could the King, in alienating his primordial rights, destroy the constitutive basis on which it is founded? Born Defender of the Religion of the State, could he consent to what tends to its ruin, and abandon its Ministers to wretchedness and disgrace? Bound to administer justice to his subjects, could he renounce the function, essentially royal, of causing it to be administered by Tribunals legally constituted, and of superintending himself the Administration? Protector of the Rights of all the Orders, and of the Possessions of Individuals, could he sanction the invasion of the one, and the violation of the other? Father of his People, could he abandon them to disorder and anarchy? In fine, could he highly approve, what reason and justice condemn, and eternize the misfortunes of France?

“ And what is this Constitution, which they pretend to give us, except a monster destructive of laws human and divine; a work of offence and iniquity; null from the vice of the convocation of the members of the Assembly styling themselves Constituting; null from the combination of the Deliberating Body, a combination subversive of the first basis of the State, the distinction of Orders; null from the principles which it establishes, since they overturn the Throne and the Altar, and tend to plunge men in barbarism by appearing to bring them back to nature; null from its consequences, dreadful consequences, of which experience already presents a too faithful catalogue in the disorder of the finances, in the scarcity of money, in the stagnation of commerce, in the want of discipline among the troops, in the inactivity of the tribunals, the silence of the laws, the tyranny of the factious, and the oppression of the rich; in one word, in the triumph of licentiousness over true liberty?

“ It would be useless to accumulate reasoning; truth is too striking; and facts already speak too loudly, that the consequences cannot be denied, without a species of self-deception. The King then had no right to sanction such a constitution, of which his sanction, already null by the defect of freedom, is null likewise by the defect of right.

“ Ah! when victorious over the Gauls,

the first Franks assembled in the Champ-de-Mars, raised Pharamond on the shield; when their warlike voices exclaimed—Reign over us, and let your descendants reign over our children—they were far from foreseeing, that at the end of fourteen ages a generation would come, whose madness would destroy the work of wisdom, and of valour. When Philip the Fair, reviving the rights of the people that had been disregarded under indolent monarchs, summoned to the States General the deputies of the Third Estate, and placed them along with the Peers of his realm, he did not suspect that one day this ungrateful order would overturn the two others, would deck ambitious tribunes with the spoils of the Supreme Power, and leave only the phantom of a King on the throne of Charlemagne.

“ No, it shall not be so;—No, the French monarchy shall not perish; and since motives which it is impossible for us to perceive, but which can originate only from the violence and constraint which by being disguised, are only more cruel, force Louis the XVI. to subscribe an acceptance which his heart rejects—which his own interest and that of his people condemn, and which his duty as King expressly prohibits,

“ We protest in the face of the whole world, and in the most solemn manner, against this illusive act, and all that may follow from it: we have shewn that it is null of itself, null by defect of liberty, null by the radical vice of all the operations of the usurping Assembly, which not being an Assembly of the States General, is nothing. We are supported by the rights of the whole nation, in rejecting decrees diametrically opposite to their wishes, expressed by the unanimous tenor of instructions to their representatives; and we disavow, on behalf of the nation, those treacherous mandatories, who, in violating their orders, and departing from the mission entrusted to them, ceased to be its representatives. We will maintain, what is evident, that having acted contrary to their title, they have acted without power, and what they could not legally do cannot be validly accepted.

“ We protest for the King, and in his name, against what can only bear its false impression. His voice being stifled by oppression, we will be its necessary organs; and we express his real sentiments as they exist in the oath of his accession to the throne, as they have appeared in the actions of his whole life, as they have been displayed in the declaration which he made at the first moment that he believed himself free. He neither can nor ought to have any other, and his will exists only in those acts where it breathes freely.

“ We protest for the people, who, in their delirium, cannot perceive how delu-

tive this phantasm of a new constitution, which is made to dazzle their eyes, and before which they are vainly made to swear, must become to them.—When these people, neither knowing their lawful chief, nor their dear interests, suffer themselves to be misguided to their destruction; when blinded by deceitful promises, they see not those who excite them to destroy the pledges of their own security, the supporters of their repose, the principles of their subsistence, and all the ties of their civil association; it becomes necessary to claim for them the re-establishment of all these, it becomes necessary to save them from their own frenzy,

“ We protest for the religion of our fathers, which is attacked in its dogmas and worship, as well as its ministers; and in order to supply the Monarch's want of power at present to discharge in his own person, his duties as eldest son of the Church, we assume in his name the defence of its rights; we oppose those invasions of its property, which tend to degrade it; we rise in indignation against acts which menace the kingdom with the horrors of schism; and we loudly profess our unalterable attachment to the ecclesiastical rules admitted in the State, the observance of which he has sworn to maintain.

“ We protest for the fundamental maxims of the Monarchy, from which the King is not permitted to depart; which the Nation itself has declared to be inviolable; and which would be totally reversed by the decrees which abolish royalty itself; by suppressing all the intermediate ranks; by those which deprive Monarchy of the functions most essential to Monarchical Government.

“ In fine, we protest in the presence of the Supreme Being, and in the name of Eternal Justice, for all orders of the State, and for all Frenchmen.

“ This protest, signed along with us by all the Princes of the Blood, who are connected with us, is common to all the House of Bourbon, on whom their eventual rights to the Crown impose the duty of defending the august deposit.

(Signed) LOUIS STANISLAS KAVIER,
CHARLES PHILIPPE,
L. JOSEPH DE BOURBON,
LOUIS-HENRI JOS. DE BOURBON,
L. A. H. DE BOURBON.”

Cabnets, Oct. 8, 1791.

PARIS, NOV. 12.

PROCLAMATION of the KING.

“ The King has not thought proper to wait till this moment to manifest his displea-

sure at the motives which have induced a great number of citizens to quit the Kingdom.

“ After having adopted all the necessary measures to maintain peace within the Kingdom, and mutual good wishes between the nation and foreign powers, and also to secure the frontiers from invasion, his Majesty is of opinion that wisdom and perfexion are the principal instruments to be employed to bring back into their own country those men whose political dissensions and a difference of opinion have driven out of it.

“ Although the majority of the emigrants seem not to have altered their resolution in consequence of the King's proclamation and the further steps which he has taken; some good effects have, however, been produced. Emigrations are not so frequent; and many have already returned into the kingdom. The King was daily in hopes of seeing a greater number follow their example.

“ The King still placing confidence in the adoption of the same measures, has refused his sanction to a decree of the National Assembly, several rigorous articles of which appeared to him to defeat the end which the law ought to have in view, and which the interest of the people requires, and which were incompatible with the manners of the nation and with the principles of a free Constitution.

“ But his Majesty owes it to himself and to those by whom his exertion of Royal prerogative might be misconstrued, to insist on the positive execution of its meaning, and to fulfil, as much as lies in his power, the intention of that law, though he has rejected the means which it prescribes.

“ The King declares therefore to all those whom a spirit of opposition may induce to quit, or to stay out of the kingdom, that he sees not only with grief, but with much displeasure, a conduct by which the public tranquillity is disturbed, and which it is his constant endeavours to maintain, and by which those laws are opposed which he has sanctioned by his solemn acceptance.

“ Those people would be exceedingly deceived, who should imagine that the King is of a different opinion from that which he has declared publicly, and who should on that error form the foundation of their hopes and of their conduct, in whatever manner it may appear in their own eyes.—No other opinion exists at this day. The King, by exercising his prerogative relative to the rigorous measures adopted against them, gives a proof of the liberty which he enjoys, and which they can neither mistake nor contradict. To doubt of the sincerity of his resolutions, when they are convinced that he enjoys liberty, would be an affront.

“ The King would be unable to dissem-

ble the grief which he felt on seeing the disorders which prevailed in the kingdom, and he has long flattered himself with the belief, that to those it was owing that so many families had quitted their habitations; but these can no longer be pleaded as motives by those who suspiciously assemble together, and labour to sow the seeds of discord within the kingdom. Those cannot complain of the inexecution of the laws, and of the weakness of government, who are themselves examples to others of disobedience, and who refuse to recognize as obligatory the united wills of the Nation and of the King.

“ No government can exist where private will does not yield to the public will. This conditional maxim is the basis of all social orders, and the security of all public rights. It is therefore the interest and duty of all those who have families and property in their own country, to labour for the preservation of peace, to take a share in its fortunes, and to support the laws under which they are protected.

“ Although the constitution has abolished titles and distinctions, it does not exclude those who enjoyed them from possessing the means of influence, and the new honours which it has decreed; and if, instead of disquieting the people by their absence and by their proceedings, they would endeavour to co-operate for the public good, either by spending their fortunes in their own country, or by giving up their time, which is happily their own, through independence, to the securing of the public interest, would they not enjoy all the advantages which are founded on public esteem and on the confidence of their fellow citizens?

“ Let them therefore give up those projects which reason and their duty, as well as the public good and their own personal advantage, disapprove and reprobate.

“ Frenchmen! ye who have constantly manifested your attachment to your King, remember that it is your King who recalls you back into your own country. He promises you tranquillity and security under the protection of the laws, the supreme execution of which is in his hands. These he guarantees you in the name of the nation to which he is inseparably united, and from which he has received the most tender proofs of attachment and love.

“ The wishes of your fellow-citizens, and the will of your King, exhort you to return.

“ But remember that the King, who speaks to you as a father, and who will consider your return as a proof of attachment and loyalty, at the same time declares to you that he is resolved to defend, by all the means in his power, the kingdom which is

confided to his care, and the laws to which he is unalterably attached.

“ He has made known his intentions to the Princes his brothers. Of these he has also given notice to the Princes in whose territories the emigrants are assembled. He hopes that his entreaties will have that weight with you which he has a right to expect.

“ But, if it were possible that they should be made in vain, know ye that he is ready to make every kind of requisition from foreign powers; that he will adopt all just and vigorous measures to prevent your sacrificing to your criminal obstinacy the happiness of your fellow-citizens, as well as your own, and the tranquillity of your country.

(Signed) LOUIS,
(and lower) DELESSART.

LETTER FROM THE KING TO THE
PRINCES HIS BROTHERS.

PARIS, Oct. 16. 1791.

“ I should have imagined that my conduct towards you, and the acceptance which I have made of the constitution, would have been sufficient, without any further measures on my part, to prevail on you to return into the kingdom; or, at least, to give up the projects which you seem to have formed.

“ Your conduct, since that period, induces me to believe that you are still ignorant of my real intentions. I therefore think it expedient to assure you what they are, under my own hand.

“ When I accepted, without the least modification, the new constitution of the kingdom, I was principally determined by the wish of the people, and the desire of peace; I thought that it was time that the disturbances of France should have a period, and seeing that it was in my power to concur in this object by my acceptance, I did not hesitate to give it freely and voluntarily; my resolution is invariable. If the new laws demand some change, I expect that time and reflection will shew its necessity: I am determined myself not to provoke it, nor to allow any other, by means contrary to the public tranquillity, and to the law, which I have accepted.

“ I am of opinion that the motives which determined me, ought to have equal influence with you. I invite you, then, to follow my example. If, as I have no doubt, the happiness and tranquillity of France are dear to you, you will not hesitate to concur, by your conduct, to re-establish them; by terminating those inquietudes which agitate

their minds, you will contribute to the re-establishment of order, you will secure an advantage to sage and moderate opinions, and will effectually serve the public interest, which your absence, and the projects ascribed to you, cannot but injure.

"I will take the utmost care that all the Frenchmen, who return to the kingdom, may there peaceably enjoy the rights which the law confers, and secures to them. Those who wish to prove to me their attachment will not hesitate. I shall regard the serious attention, which you shall pay to what I express to you, as a great proof of affection to your brother, and fidelity to your Sovereign, and shall be indebted to you all my life for having spared me the necessity of acting in opposition to you, in consequence of my invariable resolution to maintain what I have declared.

(Signed) "Louis."

NATIONAL ASSEMBLY.

SUNDAY, Oct. 30.

The decree for summoning the King's elder brother (Monseur) to return to France was finally agreed to in the following terms:

"The National Assembly considering that the Presumptive Heir to the Crown is a minor, and that Louis-Joseph-Stanislas-Xavier, French Prince, the first in order to the Regency, is absent from the kingdom;

"In execution of the second article of the third section of the French Constitution, requires Louis-Joseph-Stanislas-Xavier to return to the kingdom within the space of two months from the notification made to him of this requisition, and declares that, in case he shall not have returned at the expiration of the said space, he shall be held to have abdicated his right to the Regency, agreeable to the foresaid article.

"The National Assembly charges the Executive Power to notify to Louis-Joseph-Stanislas-Xavier, French Prince, this requisition; and the Minister for Foreign Affairs shall give an account to the National Assembly, within eight days, of the measures taken to this effect.

"Decrees that this requisition shall be carried this day to the King."

A letter was read from the Minister of War stating, that he had received no official information of the insurrection in St Domingo; but that the private letters appeared so alarming, that his Majesty had ordered preparations to be made for sending out 2,300 men, and to increase that number if circumstances should require.

The Colonial and Marine Committees reported on the same subject; but having no information but what had been read in the Assembly, they had only to recommend a direction to the Minister to take the necessary measures.

MONDAY, Oct. 31.

M. de Montmorin, the Minister for Foreign Affairs, stated the answer of the several Courts to the King's notification of his having accepted the Constitution, which we shall subjoin in detail.

ROME.

As there is no official person at Rome, the Constitution and letter of the King to the Assembly were simply sent to the agent who resides there, without any public character, that he might make them public.

VIENNA.

The letter of notification was delivered on the 16th of October to the Emperor by M. de Noailles, in a particular audience. His Imperial Majesty answered, "That he was desirous of the satisfaction of the King and of the Queen; that all the ties which united him to the King, induced him to wish to maintain a good understanding with France; and that he supposed the other Courts would take the same part, after being legally informed of the King's intentions." The letter of the Emperor, in answer to that of the King, has not yet arrived, but there is reason to suppose, that it will be soon received, and contain nearly the same expressions which his Imperial Majesty made use of to M. de Noailles.

SPAIN.

According to a dispatch, addressed to the Charge des Affaires, a copy of which has been transmitted to me, the Count de Florida Blanca has had orders to declare to the Sieur d'Urtubize, Charge des Affaires of France, "That his Catholic Majesty cannot be persuaded that the letters of notification of his Most Christian Majesty have been written with full liberty, physical and moral, of thinking and acting; and that his Majesty, as he most sincerely desires, can be persuaded that the King, his cousin, really enjoys such liberty, he will neither return an answer to these letters, nor upon any other occasion, wherein the royal name of the said Sovereign shall be employed."

"They endeavoured," adds he, "to insinuate several times that the Catholic King was desirous to convince himself of the liberty of the King his cousin, by seeing him remove from Paris, and from the persons suspected

suspected of doing him violence. The intention of his Majesty," pursues M. Florida Blanca, "is, that you explain yourself to the same purport to M. de Montmorin, in order to prevent all ambiguity, with respect to the manner of understanding what shall be reported by M. d'Urtubize."

N. B. The account given by the Charge des Affaires corresponds with that which has now been detailed. He adds, that M. de Florida Blanca had assured him, that his Catholic Majesty was very far from having any intentions to disturb the tranquillity of France.

The King has taken the measures which he judged most proper to re-establish a communication with the King of Spain; his Majesty is personally engaged in the business, and waits with confidence the effect of the means which he has taken.

Constantinople.—The distance has not allowed any intelligence to be received from that Empire.

Naples.—We have yet no intelligence.

England.—The answer of the King of England is of the 6th October, to the following purport: "We have received the letter which you have addressed to us the 19th September. We have there seen, with the greatest pleasure, the assurance of the continuance of your desire to render more and more unalterable the connections between us, as well as the justice which you do our sentiments, and to the lively interest which we shall take in every thing that respects you personally, and the happiness of your family and subjects."

Turin.—The Charge des Affaires was several days before he could deliver the dispatch to the Minister for Foreign Affairs, who was sick. It appears by his letter of the 5th of the month, that by means of an explanation respecting an error of *protocole*, which was immediately corrected, the answer of his Sardinian Majesty may be soon expected.

Sweden.—The Charge des Affaires of France being indisposed, addressed to the Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs of Sweden, the letter of notification, and the papers which were connected with it. The packet was sent back under a pretext that the King, not being free, they did not acknowledge a mission from France. This intelligence arrived yesterday.

The King has ordered me to write to the Charge des Affaires, and instruct him to insist anew on the letter of notification being received in hopes that the King of Sweden, become better informed of the real state of things, may have changed his resolution; in the contrary case, his Majesty orders him to quit Stockholm without taking leave.

Portugal.—We have yet no intelligence.

Venice.—No intelligence.

United Provinces.—Their High Mightinesses thank the King for the notification which he has made to them; they declare to his Majesty, the lively interest which they take in every thing that respects his person, as well as the welfare and prosperity of the French Monarchy; they are sensible of the desire of the King to render unalterable the connection which subsists between France and the Republic; they give an assurance that they will apply all their care to cultivate that connection, and cement more and more those happy ties which unite the French to the Batavian nation.

Switzerland.—The Charge des Affaires of France in Switzerland, went in person to Zurich to deliver to the Directory of the Canton the letter of the King, by which his Majesty notifies to the Helvetic Body his acceptance of the Constitutional Act. He intimates, that it was received with equal spirit and ardour, and that the Directory are going, according to established usage, to make the communication to all the States of Switzerland.

Geneva.—The Republic of Geneva testified, in its answer to the King, the most lively interest in the event which his Majesty announced them, protesting, that it should always rank among its own advantages, whatever could procure to the King the greatest pleasure, and to the French nation the greatest prosperity.

It may here be proper to remark, that we have to commend the zeal of this Republic in the course of the Revolution, in fulfilling all the offices of good neighbourhood, and on every occasion on which it could render us any species of service.

Grisons Valais.—It is usual, that the Republic of Grisons, and that of Valais inform part of the Helvetic Body on important occasions, and which interest all the Confederation, before replying to foreign powers.

Prussia.—After the reception of the King's letter, the King of Prussia adds: "The part which I take in every thing that interests your Majesty, authorises me to express for you the most sincere friendship; such sentiments afford a complete security of the perfect return which I shall always make to those of which your Majesty had been pleased to renew the assurance on this occasion."

Denmark.—The letter to the King of Denmark arrived at Copenhagen the 4th of the month. M. de la Houze having a paralytic attack, sent it by his Secretary of Legation to the Minister of Foreign Affairs, who was in the country. The Minister promised to present the letter to his Danish Majesty, and confined himself simply to answer, that he hoped from our new constitution,

tion, that order and tranquillity would immediately be renewed in France, and that the ancient attachment of the French to their King, would be displayed more than ever for the happiness of his Majesty, and that of the nation.

Russia.—There is yet no intelligence, nor can any be expected within less than eight days, even supposing that couriers should use the greatest expedition.

Electors of Rhineland.—The letter of notification was delivered to that Prince by M. O'Kelly: The Elector received the letter, but declined all explanation on the subject.

Electors of Treves.—The answer is, that the Elector has received the letter, by which the King has notified his acceptance of the Constitution, and that he will always take the most lively and most sincere interest in whatever may happen to his Majesty, and his Royal Family: and for the rest, he finds himself, from the present situation of his Majesty, reduced to the necessity of silence.

Electors of Cologne.—No answer.

Electors of Saxe.—The answer is: "Accept my thanks for the letter, by which you have communicated to me your determination to accept the constitution presented you by the nation. The ties of blood, which unite us, as well as my sentiments for your Majesty, afford you sufficient security for that part which I take in whatever respects you, and the wishes which I form on every occasion for your constant felicity, and that of your kingdom."

Electors of Poland.—No answer.

Dux of Prussia.—I arrived this morning. The answer is: "I have received, as a mark of confidence, and as a new mark of the distinguished benevolence with which your Majesty honours me, the letter by which you communicate to me the steps you have taken. Deign, Sir, to accept the sincere wishes which I form for your prosperity, and that of your Royal Household, and be assured, that nothing will ever alter the sentiments of the most profound respect and attachment," &c.

Duke of Brunswick.—His answer is: "Sir, I have received the letter which your Majesty did me the honour to write me, dated 19th September last, by which you inform me of the acceptance of the Constitutional Act, presented to you in the name of the French nation. I entreat your Majesty to receive my most respectful thanks for having the goodness to communicate to me your determination on this subject, and I eagerly seize this occasion to offer you the homage of my wishes, for every thing which can affect the happiness of your Majesty, that of your august family, and of the whole nation."

Parma.—An answer expected.

Basle.—Their Royal Highnesses the

Governor and Governess of the Low Countries declared, that they had a proper sense of this communication, accompanied with an assurance, that all their wishes were for the general tranquillity, and for the happiness of his Majesty.

Poland.—The letter of notification has been delivered in the accustomed forms: the answer is immediately expected.

M. de Montmorin then added, that the King's acceptance of the constitution appeared to have removed every pretext for the interference of foreign powers in the internal affairs of France; that the emigrations, numerous as they were, were more to be lamented than feared; that the emigrants were prohibited from assembling in large bodies in all the Imperial, and most of the German States; that at Coblenz, where they were more numerous, they were without arms; and that there was no reason to apprehend any attack from abroad.

AMSTERDAM, Nov. 3.

In virtue of a proposition made by the Stadtholder, and in consequence of the overtures made by the government of Bruxelles to Mr Hope, minister of this Republic, their High Mightinesses the States General on the 21st ultimo, came to the following resolution:

Resolved, That Mr de Haescen, minister from their High Mightinesses at the Court of Vienna, be charged to take the first favourable occasion to assure the said Court, that it will give their High Mightinesses the highest pleasure to prove the sincere desire they have to concur efficaciously in strengthening the ties of friendship which already exist with so much concord between his Majesty, the Emperor, and the Republic; as also to maintain peace and good order in the adjacent Pays Bas, under the sovereignty of his Imperial Majesty, and of his government.

And further, That if his Majesty thought proper, in order to obtain the said salutary end, to propose mutual measures, their High Mightinesses, on their side, were ready to enter into the above negotiation, in such place as his Majesty would please to appoint, in the firm persuasion that the neighbourhood of the two States, and the equality in which their situations are at present, require these reciprocal steps.

The States-General further resolved, That copies of the said resolution should be sent to the Ministers residing at Bruxelles, Berlin, and London, with an order to communicate it, confidence the same to the Ministers of the respective Courts; and also that the Register, Mr Fagal, should give information of the same to Lord Spencer, Minister Plenipotentiary from Great Britain, to Mr Bellinguer, Charge des Affaires

aires from Prussia, and to Mr de Buol, Charge des Affaires from the Emperor.

LONDON.

ARRIVAL OF THE DUKE AND DUCHESS OF YORK.

After an unpleasant passage of nine hours, from Calais, the Duke and Duchess of York, with their suite, arrived at Dover on Friday the 18th instant, at eleven o'clock forenoon.

They were received on the beach by the Earl of Guildford, as Warden of the Cinque Ports, who thought it his duty to attend in person to receive the Princess with the honours due to her rank. The regiment quartered at the castle received them under arms.

On Saturday morning, soon after nine o'clock, their Royal Highnesses, accompanied by Madame Von Viemar, the Lady that attended her Royal Highness from Berlin, set off from Dover in a post-coach and six horses, with three postilions, for London.

A post-coach followed with six horses, with Col. St. Leger, Mr Bunbury, Captain Winyard, and Mr Stepney; and a coach and four, with her Royal Highness's female attendants.

The Duchess appeared in good spirits, though apparently much fatigued.

On the road they changed horses five times. Sittingbourne was the only place at which their Royal Highnesses took any refreshment.

In the latter part of their journey, their Royal Highnesses were followed by near 30 carriages, which joined in a procession, and formed a very handsome appearance. A few miles from town, they were met by a party of the Life Guards, who escorted them to York House.

In the evening, a little before six o'clock, their Royal Highnesses, and their suite, arrived safe at York-House, Whitehall, where they were received by the Prince of Wales, who had been expecting their arrival.

The Duke of Clarence arrived soon after, and carried the intelligence to Buckingham-House, where the King was not yet returned from Windsor, having gone there in the morning to take the diversion of hunting. The Duchess, on account of the fatigue in travelling, did not visit the rest of the Royal Family the same evening; but at nine o'clock his Royal Highness of York was presented to their Majesties and the Princesses, at the Queen's House, by the Prince of Wales.

On Sunday the 20th, about a quarter before four o'clock, the Prince of Wales handed the Duchess to his carriage, the Duke of

York and the Duke of Clarence following: The populace, when the Duchess came out, took off their hats and shouted.

Two officers followed in the Duke's carriage to Buckingham-House, where the Duchess had been invited to dine with the Queen. Upon the arrival of the Royal party at Buckingham-House, the Duchess of York was conducted by the Prince of Wales on her right hand, and the Duke on her left, into the grand drawing-room, where the King, Queen, and six Princesses, attended by the Officers of State.

The morning was a most joyful one. The King received his new daughter, whom; on her attempt to kneel, he caught up, and, saluting her with the kiss of affection, presented her to the Queen, and afterwards to the six Princesses, after which the Duke went through the same ceremony.

At five o'clock, the whole party passed from the drawing-room to the dining-room, in general converse, proceeding also without ceremony in a sort of groupe, the Prince of Wales being, perhaps, somewhat foremost.

Their Majesties, their Royal Highnesses the Prince of Wales, Duke and Duchess of York, Duke of Clarence, and all the six Princesses, dined together afterwards at Buckingham-House.

In the evening the Duke and Duchess returned to York-House.

Nov. 22. In the evening, at a quarter before eight, his Royal Highness the Duke of Clarence came to York-House, and in a few minutes was followed by the Prince of Wales.

At ten minutes after eight, their Majesties, accompanied by the Princess Royal and Princess Augusta, in one coach, and the Princesses Elizabeth, Mary, Sophia, and Amelia, attended by Lady Charlotte Finch, in another, came to the great door of York House, where they were received by their Royal Highnesses the Duke and Duchess of York, the Prince of Wales, and the Duke of Clarence, attended by the Duke of York's household officers.

The Duchess was about to kneel to the King, who, with all imaginable eagerness, snatched her up, and kissed her with a mark of affection, which spoke the gladness of his heart. The Queen and Princesses afterwards embraced her, when they went into the drawing-room, where the Royal Party partook of a collation provided for them; and at half after ten their Majesties and the Princesses returned to the Queen's House. The Royal Brothers handed the Queen and Princesses to their carriages; and the Prince of Wales, who took the Princess Amelia in his arms, repeatedly kissed her.

After the departure of their Majesties and the Princesses, the Prince of Wales and the Duke

Duke of Clarence returned into the house, and supped with the Duke and Duchess of York.

A party of the grenadiers of the Coldstream regiment lined the portico, from the coach to the door of the house, where a carpet was laid for the Royal Visitors to walk upon.

Remarriage of the Duke and Duchess of York.

Nov. 23. Their Royal Highnesses the Prince of Wales and Duke of Clarence went to York-House, where they dined with the Duke and Duchess of York. At eight o'clock the royal couple, accompanied by their Royal Highnesses the Prince of Wales and Duke of Clarence, went from thence in the Prince's coach to Buckingham-House, where their Majesties and the Princesses stood in the Great Hall to receive them. The Duchess was handed from the coach by the Prince, and being introduced to their Majesties and the Princesses, they proceeded up the Great Stairs to the Grand Saloon, which was most magnificently illuminated on the occasion; after being there some time in private with the rest of the Royal Family, the Archbishop of Canterbury, attended by the Bishop of London, and the Lord High Chancellor, were introduced to their Majesties in the usual form.

Soon after nine o'clock the Bishop of London read prayers, and at ten o'clock the Archbishop performed the ceremony of marrying their Royal Highnesses the Duke and Duchess of York; the Duchess was given to her Royal Consort by the Prince of Wales.

After the ceremony, the Royal Family, the Archbishop, the Lord Chancellor, and the Bishop of London, partook of a refreshment; and at half past ten o'clock, the Prince, the Duke and Duchess of York, and the Duke of Clarence, returned to York-House to supper.

The Duchess was dressed in white satin, with cassels and fringe of gold, and a number of diamonds.

Frederica Charlotta Ulrica, now Duchess of York, was born May 7. 1767. She claims her Royal parentage from Frederick William the second, the present King of Prussia, and his Majesty's first Royal consort, Elizabeth Christian Ulrica, Princess of Brunswick Wolfenbuttle, and is the only Royal offspring of that union.

This amiable and illustrious Princess had not arrived to her 18th year before she had, by her affable disposition and engaging manners, rendered herself the admiration of all the Prussian Nobility.

Her stature is somewhat below the common height, and her figure elegantly formed in proportionate delicacy and slenderness.

Her countenance is made to win tenderest esteem, and affection.

Her complexion is exquisitely fair, and the bloom with which it is enlivened is rather a tint appearing through the skin than that sort of colour which seems to exist in it. Her hair is light, and her eye-lashes are long and nearly white, resembling those of our Royal Family, to whom, indeed, she is not unlike in features. Her eyes are blue, and of uncommon brilliancy.

THE DRAWING-ROOM.

The Drawing-room, Nov. 24. at St James's was completely crowded with all the Nobility, elegance, beauty, and fashion in town, and appeared not at all inferior to the most brilliant assemblage ever witnessed there.

The Ladies decked themselves out on this bridal occasion, in all that could tend to captivate the surrounding circle, and gain the attention of a new made illustrious fellow subject,

"By arts of elegance and polish'd shew."

Nor did this intention pass unheeded. Her Highness looked round with astonishment, but not with envy, at a selection of female beauty not to be paralleled in any other Court of Europe.

Unaccustomed to the manners of England, it was rather a trying scene in so conspicuous a situation. Every eye was on her at one and the same time, inquisitively examining, and, perhaps, comparing the productive charms of Prussia with the native growth of Britain.

SCOTLAND.

LANARKSHIRE IMPROVEMENTS.

The approaching expiry of the India Company's charter, the prospect of Britain enjoying a lasting peace, the vast influx of money, the recent discovery of so many iron mines, (two of which are perhaps the richest in Europe), and the great advance upon foreign iron, have all tended to advance the opulence and the manufactures of this country, with a rapidity far exceeding the progress of any former period. By the failure of the tobacco trade, the industry and the capitals of Glasgow, and the other opulent and populous towns on the banks of the Clyde, have been wholly applied to advancing manufactures, which now spread thro' every part of the county with astonishing rapidity. The new streets and squares built, building, and suited for building in the city and suburbs of Glasgow within the last three years, amount to near fifty in number. The cotton and iron manufactures have been lately introduced on a large scale in different

different parts of the county with the greatest success. To the patriotism, public spirit, and noble exertions of Colonel Dalrymple and Mr Dale, the upper part of the county is in a great measure indebted for its present flourishing situation. We are assured that at present cotton goods are annually manufactured in the county to the extent of two millions Sterling. A vast number of new roads are now opening in every direction. Those of the *beau monde* who wish to make a pleasant excursion, direct their course to the so much admired falls of the Clyde near Lanark, and the no less celebrated cotton mills of Mr Dale, most magnificent piles of building, situated between the falls. The falls and mills now attract universal attention. From Lanark to Hamilton, twelve miles distant, by the banks of the river, there is a line of road highly beautiful and picturesque, commanding a most extensive and delightful prospect of the many fine seats upon the river in a rich and well-wooded vale. At present, however, this road takes by much too elevated a direction, and is in such bad order, that travellers frequently prefer the road across the muir, which is at present the best approach to the county town from Hamilton and Glasgow, although it has some very severe pulls, takes a circuit of three miles, and certainly has not the most pleasant of prospects. In order to improve their valuable and extensive estates on the banks of the Clyde, by encouraging the rearing of cotton mills, blast furnaces, bleaching-fields, and every manufacture requiring a great body of water, and a plentiful supply of coal and limestone at very low prices—the Noble family of Hamilton, and the landed Gentlemen of Clydesdale have determined upon carrying on this line of road by the river banks. And a draft of a bill for that purpose is prepared, and under consideration.

Nothing is wanting to complete the general utility of the road but a bridge over the Clyde about half way between Hamilton and Lanark—the expence of which would be moderate, as there are several good situations where the river is narrowed by rocks. It is expected the lands lying between Hamilton and Lanark will be trebled in value by the establishment of manufactures upon the Clyde. The river may be rendered navigable, or a canal cut from Lanark to Glasgow through a great coal country, at an inconsiderable expence. And in the course of years, from its containing coal, lime, iron, and free-stone, in such prodigious abundance, it is probable it may vie in opulence and manufactures with the wealthiest counties of South Britain.

In the direct route from Lanark to Glas-

gow are Hamilton Palace and Bothwell Castle, the princely seats of the Duke of Hamilton and Lord Douglas. The magnificence, high rank, and great political importance of the noble owners are displayed in the grandeur of their palaces and parks, (which are encircled with lofty walls) as well as in the elegance and beauty of their grounds. For many centuries, the county has been successively under the influence of one or other of these ancient and noble families. At present his Grace of Hamilton, (who is the first Peer of the Scottish realm, as well as a Duke in three kingdoms) is supposed to have gained a decided superiority.—Since the termination of the late ruinous war, the landed property of Clydesdale has improved in value from 18 or 20 years purchase of the *then* rent to 28 years purchase of the *present* advanced rent. And in beautiful situations in many instances much higher prices have been paid; by which means many estates in Lanarkshire have more than doubled in value since 1783, independent of the numerous mines lately discovered. Great quantities of haugh-land have been already sold at Hamilton, &c. at 100l. per acre for agricultural uses merely. And so rapid has been the advance in the value of landed property in consequence of the prodigious extension of the manufactures, and opulence of the county, that Rosehall, one of the greatest estates in Clydesdale has been sold three times within four years, its different owners being induced by high prices to part with their purchases.—Twelve acres very poor land near Lanark purchased a few years ago at 90l. are now refold at 500l.—Another property which was purchased in 1712 at 270l. is now let in lease at 200l. per ann.—Smellom is sold at 1,500l. being 40 years purchase of the free rent.—Mr Glasgow's property in Glasgow, which was purchased thirty years ago for 1,680l. was lately refold at 9,850l.—Six years ago, the Monkland Canal was actually sold for 1,500l. it is now, however, worth at least 30,000l.

Nov. 2.

Agreeable to advertisements in the public papers, a lease for one year, of the Theatres of Edinburgh and Glasgow took place in the Royal Exchange Coffee-House by public auction. The upset price was 500l. There appeared, as officers, Stephen Kemble, Esq. for himself, and Mrs Esten by her man of business. The former was declared the successful candidate, having offered 200l. The gentleman who appeared for Mrs Esten went the length of 1100l. Besides the above sum, the lessee is also bound to pay 130l. in the name of feu-duty, and other incumbrances with which the Theatres are burdenned.

STATEMENT of the Regulations at present in force respecting the Exportation and Importation of Corn.

By the average prices of corn, published by the Receiver of Corn Returns in the London Gazette, from 15th to 19th November instant; the exportation and importation of Corn is regulated in Scotland as follows:

EXPORTATION.

EAST COAST.

Thirteenth District, comprehending Fife and the following Counties,

Kinross, Clackmannan, Stirling, Linlithgow, Edinburgh, Haddington, Berwick, Roxburgh, Selkirk, Peebles;

Wheat, Barley, Bear—exportable with bounty.

Beans—exportable—no bounty.

Oats, Oatmeal, Pease—not exportable.

Sixteenth District, comprehending the following Counties,

Orkney and Shetland, Caithness, Sutherland, Ross, and Cromarty, Inverness, Nairn, Elgin, Banff, Aberdeen, Kincardine, Forfar, Perth;

Wheat, Rye, Barley, Pease—exportable with bounty.

Pease, Beans—exportable—no bounty.

Oats, Oatmeal—not exportable.

WEST COAST.

Fourteenth District, comprehending Air, Dumfries, Wigton, and Kirkcudbright.

Bear—exportable with bounty.

Wheat—exportable with bounty.

Barley, Oats, Oatmeal, Pease, Beans—not exportable.

Fifteenth District, comprehending the Counties of Argyle, Dumbarton, Lanark, Renfrew, and Bute;

Wheat, Bear—exportable with bounty.

Barley, Oats, Oatmeal, Pease, Beans—not exportable.

The foregoing regulation continues in force until new average prices to regulate the exportation of corn be received at each port from the Receiver of Corn Returns at London, who is obliged by law to transmit them within ten days after the 15th day of next month.

IMPORTATION.

EAST COAST.

Thirteenth District above described.

Oats—importable at the lowest duty.

Wheat, Rye, Barley, Oatmeal, Bear, Pease, Beans—liable to the highest duties.

Sixteenth District above described.

Oats—importable at the first (or highest) low duty.

Wheat, Rye, Barley, Oatmeal, Bear, Pease, Beans—liable to the highest duties.

WEST COAST.

Fourteenth District above described.

Pease—importable at the lowest duty.

Oats, Beans—importable at the first (or higher) low duties.

Wheat, Barley, Oatmeal, Bear—liable to the highest duties.

Fifteenth District above described.

Oats, Oatmeal—importable at the lowest duties.

Barley—importable at the first (or higher) low duty.

Wheat, Bear, Pease, Beans—liable to the highest duties.

The foregoing regulation respecting importation continues in force till new average prices to regulate the importation of Corn be received at each port from the Receiver of Corn Returns at London, who is obliged by law to transmit them within ten days after the 15th day of February next.

GLASGOW, Nov. 26.

Last night, about a quarter before eight o'clock, a man went into Mr J. P. Lehol's stocking-shop in the Trongate, and desired to be shown some silk-stockings. After examining several pairs, he found fault with the patterns; at this moment, another man came in, and desired to be shown some cotton-stockings, which was accordingly done. The conduct of these two men creating suspicion in the boy who kept the shop, he removed the silk-stockings from the counter; the man who came first into the shop then went out, upon which the other desired to be shown the silk-stockings which the former had been looking at, which were accordingly shown him; but he pretended not to be pleased with them, because they had not clocks; he therefore ordered the boy to show him silk-stockings with clocks; the boy then removed the first parcel, and showed him a parcel with clocks; the man then desired again to be shown those which he had first seen, and, upon the boy's stepping backwards, to bring him these, the fellow snatched up the second parcel, and ran off. The boy immediately gave the alarm, locked the shop-door, and pursued him. The thief had got near to the entry to St Andrew's Square, Saltmarket, when he fell, was overtaken, secured, and carried back to the shop in Trongate. During his flight, he had thrown away the stockings, all of which

which were picked up on different parts of the street. One of the Magistrates, who was fortunately at hand, sent for some town officers, and ordered a party from the guard, to carry him to prison. On the arrival of the town officers, he was immediately recognised to be

JAMES PLUNKET,

a native of Ireland, under sentence of death, who, along with George Davidson, by the assistance of one Russell, made his escape from the prison of this city on the 11th day of October last. *Quem Deus vult perdere, prius dementat.* While he was in the shop, in custody of the officers, before the guard arrived, he was observed to search for something about his waistband, which being examined, there was found a pair of very handsome pistols loaded with cartridge and ball; and in his pocket were found a quantity of snuff, a lady's red Turkey-leather pocket-book, in which were several cartridges and balls, and an ivory call and horse-whip.

EDINBURGH, November 30.

This day being the festival of St. Andrew, the following were elected Grand Officers for the ensuing year:

The Right Hon. **GEORGE EARL OF MORTON**, Grand Master.

The Most Noble **GEORGE MARQUIS OF HUNTLEY**, Grand Master Elect.

The Right Hon. **GEORGE EARL OF ERROL**, Depute Grand Master.

Thomas Hay, Esq. Substitute Grand Master.

William Campbell, of Fairfield, Esq. Senior Grand Warden.

William Douglas Clephan, of Carllogie, Esq. Junior Grand Warden:

John Hay, Esq. Grand Treasurer.

The Rev. Dr John Tough, Grand Chaplain.

Mr William Mason, Grand Secretary.

Mr Robert Meikie, Grand Clerk.

Afterwards the Grand Master, attended by the brethren, the Magistrates, and Sheriff of the county, proceeded to the Calton Hill, to lay the foundation-stone of the New Bridewell. After the usual formalities, the Grand Master addressed the Lord Provost and Magistrates as follows:

"I have the honour of meeting your Lordship and the Magistrates of Edinburgh this day, for the purpose of carrying into execution an undertaking, which there is every reason to believe will be attended with great public benefit.

"While we contemplate with pleasure the flourishing state of Scotland, we cannot help lamenting, that from the imperfection of human affairs, in this, as in every other country, the increase of arts, manufactures, commerce, and population, however desir-

able in itself, has been attended with a degree of corruption in the manners of the people, to which, I am sorry to add, the too general use of spirits among the lower classes of both sexes has, in this country, greatly contributed. I trust, therefore, that every good citizen will most cordially join with me in giving due praise to the zeal of those honourable and respectable Magistrates, through whose exertions the sanction of the Legislature has been obtained for the institution of this house of public discipline, which we are now preparing to erect. May it prove, under the guidance of Magistrates upright and vigilant as those to whom we owe its existence, a terror to the idle and profligate, and a pledge of security to the industrious and well-disposed inhabitants of this city and country. May those who shall once feel the severity of its discipline, leave it so amended in their behaviour, and inured to habits of industry, as never to require a repetition of its chastisements; and may the accomplishment of the purposes for which it is instituted be marked by the regular diminution of the number of its inhabitants."

To this speech the Lord Provost made a very elegant and suitable return.

Two crystal bottles, cast on purpose at the Glass-house of Leith, were deposited in the foundation-stone. In one of these were put different coins of the present reign, each of which being previously enveloped in crystal, in such an ingenious manner, that the legend on the coins could be distinctly read without breaking the crystal. In the other bottle were deposited two rolls of vellum, containing the names of the present Officers of the Grand Lodge, and the present Magistrates of the city, together with an Edinburgh Almanack, and a copy of each of the newspapers published in this city, viz. the Edinburgh Evening Courant, Caledonian Mercury, Edinburgh Advertiser, and Edinburgh Herald. The bottles being carefully sealed up, were covered with a piece of copper wrapt in block-tin, and upon the under side of the copper were engraved the arms of the city of Edinburgh, the arms of the Right Hon. the Earl of Morton, Grand Master Mason of Scotland, the arms of Masonry, and the arms of the Right Hon. James Stirling, Lord Provost of Edinburgh. Upon the upper side of the plate was a Latin inscription, of which the following is a copy:

Regnante Georgio III.

Ad Nequitiam

Intra Urbem et Comitatum Edinburgensem
Salutari Labore coelegendam Accommodati
Primum hujus Ingastuli Lapidum
Posuit

Vir Nobilissimus, Georgius Comes de Artois,
Donatus Douglas de Lochleven, &c. &c.
Sodalitii

Sodalitii Architectonici apud Scotos Curio
maximus

Anno post CHRISTUM natum M,DCC,XCI.
ÆLÆ autem ARCHITECTONICÆ 1791, 1792, 1793.

Dic ipso Divi Andree :

Urbis Consule amplissimo Jacobo Stirling;
Comitatus Vicecomite Vicario Joanne Pringle.
Architecto Roberto Adam.

MARRIAGES.

Oct. 29. John Sligo, Esq; to Miss Christian Knox of Craigleith.

32. John Hunter Spreul Crawford, Esq. to Miss Marion Buchanan of Leny.

Mr Robert Bruce merchant at Bristol, to Miss Eyde.

Nov. 3. Captain James Campbell of Glenfechan, to Miss Margaret Campbell of Aird.

4. Francis Buchan, Esq; to Miss Sydsert of Ruchlaw.

7. Day Hort Macdowal of Walkinstaw, Esq; to Miss Wilhelmina Graham of Airth.

16. Capt Cunningham of the 53d regiment, to Miss Christian Taubman of the Isle of Man.

18. Thomas Carter, Esq; of the Middle Temple, to Miss Glencairn Campbell of Shawfield.

23. Re-married, his Royal Highness Frederick Duke of York, to the Princess Frederica Charlotte Ulrica, eldest daughter of the present King of Prussia.

24. Alexander Fotheringham, Esq; to Miss Juliet Garden, daughter of the late Dr Garden of South Carolina.

25. Mr William McRorie merchant in Glasgow, to Miss Jessie Noble of Edinburgh.

27. A marriage was celebrated at Sunderland agreeable to the rites and ceremonies of the Jewish Church, between Mr Lyon Hermon, dentist of Edinburgh, and Mrs H. Pollock, widow of the late Mr Pollock merchant in London.

BIRTHS.

Nov. 3. Mrs Wemyss of Cuthill, delivered of a son.

6. The Lady of Sir John Sinclair of Ulbster, of a daughter.

10. Lady Helen Hall, of a daughter.

11. Mrs Marjoribanks, of a son.

13. Viscountess Stepford, of a son and heir.

27. Lady Balgony, of a son.

DEATHS.

Oct. 2. At Niagara, Sir William Brine of Cambo.

21. Mrs Mackenzie of Ardross.

24. Francis Fraser, Esq; of Findrach.

25. Mrs Jean Thomson, relict of Mr Andrew Syme.

28. Mrs Agnes Muir, daughter of the late Mr Muir, Esq; of Cassenarie.

29. Mrs Hunter, spouse to John Hunter, Esq; his Britannic Majesty's Consul for Saguar and Seville.

Mr John Reid of Dumfries, late merchant in Norfolk Virginia.

30. Alexander Duff, Esq; of Hatton.

31. Mrs Christian Ballantyne of Kelly, widow of the Rev. Mr Lunde of Erskine.

At Hexam, Mrs Dundas, wife of Lieutenant-Colonel William Dundas.

Nov. 2. Mrs Helen Lawrie, relict of the Rev. Mr Bisset of Caputh.

4. John Stewart of Lassintullich, Esq; Sheriff-Substitute of the county of Edinburgh.

Mrs Katharine Bruce, daughter of Mr Bruce of Newton, and widow of Henry Bruce of Clackmannan, Esq; at the Castle of Clackmannan, in the 95th year of her age. Long as this lady's life was, alas! it was too short for those who had the happiness to know her. Possessed of every virtue, and of every amiable quality that adorn her sex, she was a pattern worthy to be imitated by all. Her conduct through life, her hospitality, and dignity of character, reflected a new lustre on the ancient and noble family of Bruce.

William Dalrymple, Esq; second son of the late Lord Westhall.

Mr Hector Macdonald, merchant in Mull.

7. Mrs Cleghorn, wife of Dr Cleghorn, Glasgow.

Mrs Elizabeth Hamilton, relict of Andrew Gray, Esq; of Newlands.

Captain Francis Lindsay, late of the Scotch Greys.

8. Mr John Haig late merchant in Alford.

The Rev. Allan McAulay of Greenock.

12. Miss Elizabeth Dewar of Vogrie.

Mr Thomas Dalrymple, surgeon at Gatehouse.

16. Mr John Campbell writer in Stirling.

17. John Fergusson, Esq; of Dunholm.

18. Donald McKeanie, Esq; late Planter in Jamaica.

20. Mrs Barbara Yeats, wife of Mr Gibbon, Aberdeen.

Miss Annabella Murison of Dunbrac,

21. James Dalrymple, Esq; late Lieutenant Colonel of the Royals.

Mrs Anne Abernethy, wife of Mr Robinson, surgeon in London.

23. Walter Buchanan of the cotton manufactory at Balfon.

26. Sir H. G. Liddel of Ravenworth-Castle, Durham.

27. Miss Seton Graham, daughter of the deceased William Graham of Airth.

27. At Dublin, Mr Ryder, comedian.

29. The Rev. David Forbes Minister of Forgue.

Mr Thomas Graham writer in Glasgow.

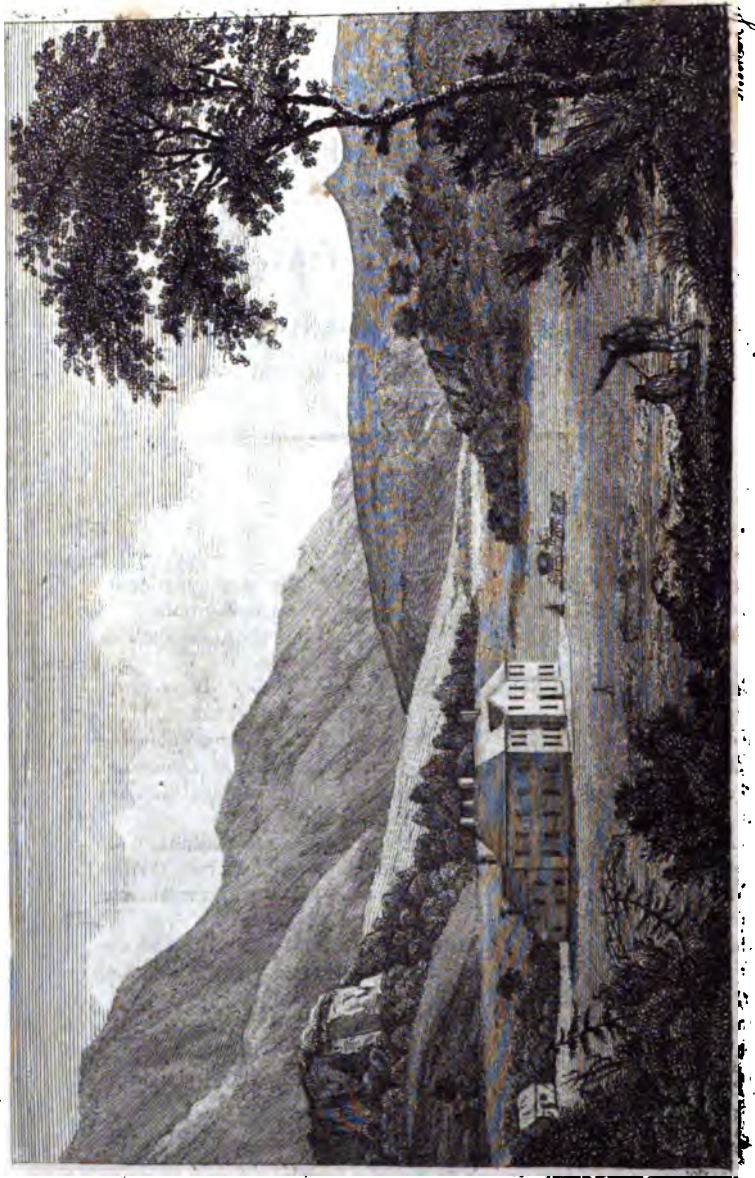
30. Dr Robert Walker of the Royal College of Surgeons.

The first part of the document discusses the importance of maintaining accurate records of all transactions. It emphasizes that every entry, no matter how small, should be recorded to ensure the integrity of the financial statements. This includes recording all sales, purchases, and expenses in a timely and accurate manner.

The second part of the document outlines the various methods used to collect and analyze data. It describes the use of statistical techniques to identify trends and patterns in the data. This involves the use of both qualitative and quantitative methods to ensure a comprehensive understanding of the information being collected.

The third part of the document focuses on the interpretation of the results. It explains how the data is analyzed to draw meaningful conclusions and make informed decisions. This process involves comparing the results against established benchmarks and industry standards to assess performance and identify areas for improvement.

Finally, the document concludes by highlighting the importance of regular reporting and communication. It stresses that the information gathered should be shared with all relevant stakeholders to ensure transparency and accountability. This helps in building trust and fostering a collaborative environment where everyone is working towards the same goals.



DUNFERRIS.

THE
Edinburgh Magazine,

OR

LITERARY MISCELLANY,

FOR DECEMBER 1791.

With a View of DUNEIRA*, a Seat of the Right Hon. HENRY DUNDAS,
one of His Majesty's Principal Secretaries of State.

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* Most beautifully situated near the head of Loch Erne, in Perthshire.

With the Magazine for January will be given, an elegant Print of MARY QUEEN of SCOTS, engraved by Beugo, from an original Painting in the possession of the Earl of Buchan.

State of the **BAROMETER** in inches and decimals, and of **Farenheit's THERMOMETER** in the open air, taken in the morning before sun-rise, and at noon; and the quantity of rain-water fallen, in inches and decimals, from **Novmber 30th 1791, to the 30th of Dec.** near the foot of **Arthur's Seat.**

		Thermom.		Barom.	Rain.	Weather.
		M.	N.			
Nov.	30	36	4	29.33	0.05	Showers
Dec.	1	34	39	29.225	0.16	Rain
	2	35	38	29.055	—	Clear
	3	30	36	29.275	0.02	Snow
	4	30	35	29.75	—	Clear
	5	26	35	29.225	—	Ditto
	6	33	40	29.225	—	Ditto
	7	33	39	28.95	0.02	Snow
	8	30	35	29.125	—	Clear
	9	26	30	29.2	—	Ditto
	10	24	32	29.053	0.04	Snow
	11	20	23	29.6	—	Clear
	12	30	34	28.675	0.175	Snow
	13	35	39	28.85	0.25	Ditto
	14	32	35	29.375	—	Clear
	15	31	35	29.84	—	Ditto
	16	26	39	29.6125	—	Cloudy
	17	35	39	30.125	—	Clear
	18	38	43	29.825	—	Ditto
	19	32	37	30.05	—	Ditto
	20	32	32	30.25	—	Ditto
	21	30	35	29.75	—	Ditto
	22	34	36	29.25	0.05	Snow
	23	38	39	28.675	0.05	Rain small
	24	28	35	29.135	0.05	Sleet
	25	35	37	28.675	0.125	Rain
	26	32	38	29.8	0.03	Showers
	27	34	37	28.64	0.025	Ditto
	28	36	40	29.635	—	Clear
	29	32	38	30.	—	Ditto
	30	34	40	29.45	0.12	Rain

Quantity of Rain, 1.115

Days.	Thermometer.	Days.	Barom.
18. 43	greatest height at noon.	20. 30.25	greatest elevation.
11. 20	least ditto, morning.	27. 28.64	least ditto.
N. B. Ther. on the 11th day at 10 o'clock P. M. stood at 18.		Between the 26th and 27th the Bar. fell 1.16.	

Extracts from "Curiosities of Literature." Just published.

AMUSEMENTS OF MEN OF LETTERS.

MEN of letters, for a relaxation from literary fatigue—a fatigue which is more unufferable than that which proceeds from the labours of the mechanic—form amusements, sometimes, according to their professional character; but, more frequently, according to their whim.

Tycho Brahe diverted himself with polishing glasses for all kinds of spectacles, and making mathematical instruments.

D'Andilly, the Translator of Josephus, one of the most learned men of his age, cultivated trees; Barclay, in his leisure hours, was a florist; Balzac amused himself with making pastils; Peiresc found his amusement amongst his medals and antiquarian curiosities; the Abbé de Maroles with his engravings; and Politian in singing airs to his lute.

Rohault wandered from shop to shop, to observe the mechanics labour.

The great Arnald read, in his hours of relaxation, any amusing romance that fell into his hands. This also did the critical Warburton.

Galileo read Ariosto; and Christina, Queen of Sweden, Martial.

Guy Patin wrote letters to his friends; an usual relaxation amongst men of letters, and very agreeable to their correspondents, when they are worth the postage.

Others have found amusement in composing treatises on odd subjects. Seneca wrote a Burlesque Narrative on Claudian's Death. Pierrius has written an Eulogium on Beards.

Virgil sported prettily with a gnat; Homer with frogs and mice.

Holltein has written an Eulogium on the North Wind; Heinsius, on the A's; Menage, the Transmigration of the Parafitical Pedant to a Parrot; and also the Petition of the Dictionaries.

Erasmus has composed—I think it was to amuse himself when travelling in a post chaise—his Panegyric on Morus, or Folly: which, authorized by the pun, he dedicated to Sir Thomas More.

Montaigne found a very agreeable play-mate in his cat.

Cardinal de Richelieu, amongst all his great occupations, found a recreation in violent exercises; and he was once discovered jumping with his servant, to try who could reach the highest side of a wall. De Grammont, observing the Cardinal to be jealous of his powers in this respect, offered to jump with him; and, in the true spirit of a courtier, having made some efforts which nearly reached the Cardinal's, confessed he was surpassed by him. This was jumping like a politician; and it was by this means, it is said, he ingratiated himself with the minister.

Dr Campbell was alike fond of robust exercise; and the scholar has been found leaping over tables and chairs.

What ridiculous amusements passed between Dean Swift and his friends in Ireland, his discerning editors have kindly revealed to the public. We are astonished to see a great mind suffering itself to be levelled to trifles which even our very magazines consider as disgraceful to their pages!

The life of Shenstone was passed in an amusement which was to him an eternal source of disappointment and anguish. His favourite *sermo orné*, while it displayed all the taste and elegancies of the poet, displayed also his characteristic poverty. His feeling mind was often pained by those invidious comparisons which the vulgar were perpetually making with the stately scenes of Hagley's neighbouring magnificence.

If Dr Johnson suffered his great mind to descend into trivial amusement,

ment, it was—to borrow the image of a friend—like the elephant, who sometimes gives a shock to armies, and sometimes permits himself to be led by a naked infant.

THE ORIGIN OF LITERARY JOURNALS.

IF we abound with a multitude of scribblers, what an infinite number must there be of critics, since, according to the computation of one of the first—

Ten censure wrong, for one who writes amiss!

In the last century, it was a consolation, at least, for the unsuccessful writer, that he fell insensibly into oblivion. If he committed the private folly of printing what no one would purchase, he had only to settle the matter with his publisher: he was not arraigned at the public tribunal, as if he had committed a crime of magnitude. But, in those times, the nation was little addicted to the cultivation of letters: the writers were then few, and the readers were not many. When, at length, a taste for literature spread itself through the body of the people, vanity induced the inexperienced and the ignorant to aspire to literary honours. To oppose these inroads into the haunts of the Muses, Periodical Criticism brandished its formidable weapon; and it was by the fall of others that our greatest geniuses have been taught to rise. Multifarious writings produced multifarious strictures; and if the rays of criticism were not always of the strongest kind, yet so many continually issuing, formed a focus, which has enlightened those whose occupations had otherwise never permitted them to judge on literary compositions.

The origin of so many Literary Journals takes its birth in France. Denis de Sallo, Ecclesiastical Counsellor in the Parliament of Paris, invented the scheme of a work of this kind. On the 30th. of May 1665 appeared

the first number of his *Journal des Sçavans*. What is remarkable, he published his Essay in the name of the Sieur de Hédouville, who was his footman. One is led to suppose by this circumstance, that he entertained but a faint hope of its success; or, perhaps, he thought that the severity of criticism might be sanctioned by its supposed author. The work, however, met with so favourable a reception, that Sallo had the satisfaction of seeing it, in the next year, imitated throughout Europe; and his Journal, at the same time, translated into various languages. But, as most authors lay themselves too open to the severe critic, the animadversions of Sallo were given with such malignity of wit and asperity of criticism, that the Journal excited loud murmurs, and the most heart-mowing complaints possible. Sallo, after having published only his third Journal, felt the irritated wasps of literature thronging so thick about him, that he very gladly abdicated the throne of Criticism.

The reign of his successor, Abbé Gallois—intimidated by the face of Sallo—was of a milder kind. He contented himself with only giving the titles of books, accompanied with extracts. Such a conduct was not offensive to their authors, and yet was not unuseful to the public. I do not, however, mean to favour the idea, that this simple manner of noticing books is equal to sound and candid criticism.

On the model of the *Journal des Sçavans* were formed our Philosophical Transactions; with this difference, however, that they only notice objects of science, such as Physics and Mathematics. The *Journal of Leipzig*, entitled *Acta Eruditorum*, appeared in 1682, under the conduct of the erudite Menkenius, Professor in the University of that city. The famous Bayle undertook, for Holland, a similar work, in 1684; and his *Nouvelles de la Republique de Lettres* appeared

peared the first of May in that year. This new Journal was every where well received, and deserved to be so; for never were criticisms given with greater force. He possessed the art of comprising, in short extracts, the justest notion of a book, without adding any thing irrelevant or impertinent. Bayle discontinued this work in 1687, after having given thirty-six volumes in 12mo. Others continued it to 1710, when it was finally closed.

A Mr de la Roche formed an English Journal, entitled *Memoirs of Literature*, about the commencement of this century, which is well spoken of in the *Bibliothèque Raisonnée*. It was afterwards continued by Mr Reid, under the title of *The Present State of the Republic of Letters*. He succeeded very well; but, being obliged to make a voyage to China, it interrupted his useful labours. He was succeeded by Messieurs Campbell and Webster; but the last, for reasons of which I am ignorant, being dismissed, it was again resumed by Mr Campbell. This Journal does by no means rival our modern Reviews. I do not perceive that the criticism is more valuable; and certainly the entertainment is inferior. Our elder Journals seem only to notice a few of the best publications; and this not with great animation of sentiment, or elegance of diction.

Of our modern Journals it becomes me to speak with caution. It is not treading on ashes still glowing with latent fire, as Horace expresses it, but it is rushing through consuming flames. Let it be sufficient, that from their pages I acknowledge to have acquired a rich fund of critical observation; and, if I have been animated by their eulogiums, I ascribe this honour, not so much to the confined abilities nature has bestowed on me, as to their strictures, which have taught me something of the delicacy of taste, and something of the ardour of Genius.

THE SCALIGERS.

THE Man of Letters must confess—reluctantly, perhaps—that the literature which stores the head with so many ingenious reflections, and so much admirable intelligence, may at the same time have little or no influence over the virtues of the heart. The same vices, and the same follies, disgrace the literate and the illiterate. Who possessed a profounder knowledge of the Grecian learning, or was a more erudite critic, than Burman? Yet this man lived unobservant of every ordinary decency and moral duty. Who displayed more acuteness of mind, and a wider circle of literature, than the Scaligers? Yet, from the anecdotes and characters I collect of them, let the reader contemplate the men.

The two Scaligers, father and son, were two prodigies of learning and of vanity. Schioppius has tore the mask of that principality with which the father had adorned himself; for the elder Scaliger maintained that he was descended from the Princes of Verona. Schioppius says, and he is now credited, that he was originally named Julius Burden; that he was born in the shop of a gilder; had passed some part of his life with a furrer; and then became a cordelier. The elevation of his mind made him aspire to honours greater than these: he threw off his frock, and took the degree of Doctor in Physic at Paris. In this character he appeared at Venice, and in Piedmont. He there attached himself to a Prelate of the noble House of Roverzza, and followed him to Agen, of which his patron was made Bishop. He there married the daughter of an apothecary. Such were the parents of Joseph Scaliger; who, finding this chimerical principality in his family, passed himself for a prince; and to render the impositions of his father more credible, he added many of his own.

Naudé speaks thus concerning them—‘They say, in Italy, that Scaliger’s father

father married, at Agen, the daughter of an apothecary; though others affirm, the bastard of a bishop; probably, of the prelate he followed. 'His son Scaliger was visited in the character of a prince at Leyden.'

By this, I think, it appears that Naudé gives him credit for the principality; for he seems not in the least to smile at the honour.

'The Duke de Nevers, having paid him a visit, offered him a considerable present, which Scaliger civilly refused.'

The pride of this supposititious Prince, who was but a poor student, must have run high!

Schioppius, adds Naudé, 'must have been under the influence of some demon when he wrote so bad a book against Scaliger;' yet Menage observes of this work, that Joseph Scaliger died of the chagrin he felt on the occasion of Schioppius's book being published, entitled, Scaliger Hypobolymæus.

'Yet we may,' observes Huet, 'say, with Lipsius, that if the two Scaligers were not actually Princes, they richly merited a principality for the beauty of their genius and the extent of their erudition; but we can offer no apology for their ridiculous and singular haughtiness.'

'When a friend was delineating his character, the father wrote to him in these terms—“ Endeavour to collect whatever is most beautiful in the pages of M. Minissa, of Xenophon, and of Plato, and you may then form a portrait which, however, will resemble me but imperfectly.”'

Yet this man possessed little delicacy of taste, as he evinces by the false judgments he passes on Homer and Mææus; and, above all, by those unforged and rude poems with which he has dishonoured Parnassus. I have read somewhere a French sonnet by this man, which is beneath criticism. Menage says, that the collection of Scaliger's poems, which forms a thick octavo volume, will hardly find its

equal for bad composition, considering them as the productions of a man of letters. Of a great number of epigrams, there are but four or five which are in the least tolerable.

Huet thinks that his son composed these letters which pass under his name; and, as he is an exquisite judge of style, we should credit his opinion. But, tho' his poetry is so destitute of spirit or grace, his prose, it must be allowed, is excellent: nothing can be more noble, higher polished, or more happily turned.

The son possessed a finer taste: his style is more flowing and easy, and yet is not the less noble. His writings, like those of the father, breathe singular haughtiness and malignity. The Scaligerana will convince us that he was incapable of thinking or speaking favourably of any person. Although he has reflected honour on his age by the extensiveness of his learning, we must confess that he has not seldom fallen into gross errors, even on those subjects to which he had most applied. As for instance, Chronology, which was his favourite study; and although he imagined that he stretched the sceptre over the realms of criticism, no one has treated this topic with less felicity. It was the reform of the Calendar then pending at Rome which engaged him in this study. He wished to shew the world that he was more capable than all those who had been employed. If the success of this labour had depended on the extent and variety of erudition, he had eminently surpassed all those who had applied to this task; but he was their inferior in the solidity of his judgment, in the exactness of his arguments, and the profundity of his speculations. When he fondly believed that he had found the Quadrature of the Circle, he was corrected, and turned into ridicule, by an obscure schoolmaster; who, having clearly pointed out the paralogism which de-

ceived

ceived him, made his cyclometrics vanish at his touch.

‘ Scaliger, the father, was,’ says Patin, ‘ an illustrious impostor. He had never been at any war, nor at any court of the Emperor Maximilian, as he pretended. He passed the first thirty years of his life in one continued study. Afterwards, he threw off his monk’s frock, and palmed on all Europe the singular imposition of his being a descendant of the Princes of Verona, who bore the name of Scaliger.

Julius Scaliger had this peculiarity in his manner of composition: he wrote with such accuracy, that his manuscript and the printed copy always corresponded page for page, and line for line. This may appear trifling information; but I am persuaded that a habit of correctness in the lesser parts of composition assists the higher.

THE PORT ROYAL SOCIETY.

EVERY lover of letters must have heard of the Port Royal Society, and probably has benefited by the labours of these learned men: but, perhaps, few have attended to their origin, and to their dissolution.

The Society of the Port Royal des Champs—that was the original title—took this name from a valley about six leagues from Paris.

In the year 1637, Le Maître, a celebrated advocate, renounced the bar, and resigned the honour of being Conseiller d’Etat, which his uncommon merit had obtained him, though then only twenty-eight years of age. His brother, De Sericourt, who had followed the military profession, quitted it at the same time. Both consecrating themselves to the service of God, they retired into a little house near the Port Royal of Paris. Their brothers, De Sacy, De St Elme, and De Valmont, joined them. For some political reason,

they were constrained to remove themselves from that spot, and they then fixed their residence at Port Royal des Champs. There again the court disturbed them, after a residence of little more than two months; but, about a year afterwards, they again returned. With these illustrious Recluses many persons of distinguished merit now retired; and it was this community which has been since called the Society of Port Royal.

Amongst the members, was the celebrated Arnauld, and others, whose names would reflect a lustre on any Society.

Here were no rules, no vows, no constitution, and no cells formed. Prayer and study were their only occupations. They applied themselves to the education of young men, and initiated the rising generation into science and into virtue.

Racine here received his education; and, on his death-bed, desired to be buried in the cemetery of the Port Royal, at the feet of M. Hamon. An amiable instance, this, of the Poet’s sensibility!

Anne de Bourbon, a Princess of the blood-royal, erected a house near the Port Royal, and was, during her life, the powerful patroness of these solitary and religious men: but her death happening in 1679, gave the fatal stroke which dispersed them for ever.

The envy and the fears of the Jesuits, and their rancour against Arnauld, who with such ability had exposed their designs, occasioned the destruction of the Port Royal Society.

IMPOSITIONS OF AUTHORS.

THERE have been some Authors who have practised singular impositions on the public. Vauillas, the French Historian enjoyed for some time a great reputation in his own country for his Historic Compositions. When they became more known, the scholars of other countries destroyed the

the reputation he had unjustly acquired. His continual professions of sincerity prejudiced many in his favour, and made him pass for a writer who had penetrated into the inmost recesses of the cabinet: but the public were at length undeceived, and were convinced that the Historical Anecdotes, which Varillas put off for authentic facts, had no foundation, being wholly his own inventing!— though he endeavoured to make them pass for realities, by affected citations of titles, instructions, letters, memoirs, and relations, all of them imaginary.!

Melchisedec Thevenot, Librarian to the French King, was never out of Europe; yet he has composed some folio volumes of his 'Voyages and Travels,' by information and memoirs, which he collected from those who had travelled. 'Travel,' observes the Compiler of the Biographical Dictionary, 'related at second-hand, can never be of any great authority or moment.' Assuredly not; but they may be pregnant with errors of all kinds.

Genelli Carreri, a Neapolitan gentleman, who, for many years, never quitted his chamber, being confined by a tedious indisposition, amused himself with writing a voyage round the world; giving characters of men, and descriptions of countries, as if he had really visited them. Du Halde, who has written so voluminous an account of China, compiled it from the Memoirs of the Missionaries, and never travelled ten leagues from Paris in his life; though he appears, by his writings, to be very familiar with the Chinese scenery.

This is an excellent observation of an anonymous Author. 'Writers who never visited foreign countries, and travellers who have run through immense regions with fleeting pace, have given us long accounts of various countries and people; evidently collected from the idle reports and absurd traditions of the ignorant vulgar, from

whom only they could have received those relations which we see accumulated with such undiscerning credulity.

ON THE EDITIONS OF THE CLASSICS, IN USUM DELPHINI.

THE Scholiasts, or the Interpreters of the Dauphin, in usum Serenissimi Delphini, were undertaken under the conduct of Messieurs de Montausier, Bossuet, and Huet. To a correct text, they have added a clear and concise paraphrase of the text, with notes. The dissimilarity of the genius, and the peculiar characters, of all these authors, have been one great cause that they have not all been treated with the same ability, and with equal felicity: but still, it must be allowed, they form the most beautiful body in literature that the public has ever been gratified with.

Another critic presents us with a more satisfactory account of this celebrated edition of the Classics. The greater part of these interpreters, have but indifferently executed their employment; they have followed, in their text, the inferior editions, instead of making use of the best; and they have left in the notes those same faults which were so much censured in the Dutch editions, with the Notes a Variorum. There is, however, one thing valuable in the Paris editions— a Verbal Index, by which any passage may be found on recollecting a few words. However, it must be confessed, the munificent patronage of a great monarch has not produced the adequate effects. The project was excellent, but the performance was bad.

I cannot conclude this article without observing what benefits the student derives from Verbal Indexes. He not only saves a great expence of time, which is squandered in the examination for passages; but he may more easily trace the imitations of others, when they happen to catch the words of the original.

Account of the New Colony at Sierra Leona. (Concluded from p. 360)

DURING the American War, among other modes of raising soldiers adopted by the British Generals, a proclamation had been made by General Clinton, that every negro Slave, who should join the British forces, should obtain his freedom, and have a settlement at the conclusion of the war. Many accordingly came in, were enrolled in the army, and on the peace, had tickets of freedom given them by the officers under whom they had served. Lands were allotted them in Nova Scotia, where, with many other Loyalists, they were sent by government, when hostilities were at an end. It was not long till these loyalists, many of whom had been educated with all the ideas of the justice of slavery, the inferiority of negroes, and the superiority of white men, that are universal in the Southern provinces of America, began to harass and oppress the industrious black settlers, and even wanted only to deprive them of the fruits of their labour, expelling them from the lands they had cleared, and without any compensation appropriating these to their own use. The courts of law, composed of white men, connected with the oppressors, gave no redress, and the negroes were forced to sit down under the loss. Not satisfied with this oppression, many of the loyalists, and several too of our British officers, who held a more honourable place in the army than their conduct would seem to have merited, made frequent and successful attempts to reduce again to slavery those negroes who had so honourably obtained their freedom. They hired them as servants, and at the end of the stipulated time refused payment

of their wages, insisting that they were slaves: in some instances they destroyed their tickets of freedom, and then enslaved the negroes for want of them; and in several instances the unfortunate Africans were taken on board vessels, carried to the West Indies, and there sold for the benefit of their plunderers*.

Frequent repetition of these enormities had dispirited the Nova Scotia negroes, and almost reduced them to despair, when one day, some company at dinner happened to be conversing on the projected scheme of the Sierra Leona Colony, and mentioned Mr Grenville Sharp, a name revered among the negroes as the patron of the plan. A sensible black who waited at table heard the accounts with eagerness, and took the first opportunity of spreading them among his countrymen. The hope of relief animated them, and they resolved to send over their agent, one Thomas Peters, a respectable intelligent African, to wait upon the Company, and learn if they might expect encouragement to go to the new colony. This man arrived in London a short time before the act in favour of the Company passed; he waited without delay on some of the chief promoters of the plan, and received from them promises of support, should the Act of Parliament pass as was wished. Never did ambassador from a sovereign power prosecute with more zeal the object of his mission than did Thomas Peters the cause of his distressed countrymen. At last matters were arranged, and he returned to communicate to

The circumstances of the Nova Sco-

* A gentleman from America, who was present at the meeting when Mr Clarkson gave this narrative, confirmed the preceding circumstances from his own personal knowledge, having had access to see and converse with some of the unfortunate negroes as well as their villainous oppressors.

ria Negroes were stated to Government, and orders were issued to the Governors of the Provinces of Halifax and New Brunswick, to interpose in giving an effectual check to the abuses complained of, with a severe reprimand for having ever allowed them; at the same time they were directed to take proper opportunities of communicating to all the negroes the affairs of the Sierra Leona Company, and to give them what aid might be necessary for carrying the measures into effect. A brother of the Rev. Mr Clarkson, a lieutenant in the navy, is gone out to Nova Scotia with these dispatches, and with proper credentials for inviting such of the negroes as wish to leave the place, to the settlement of Sierra Leona. Government has agreed to provide shipping to transport them from Halifax, and lieutenant Clarkson is to accompany them to Africa. About six hundred, it is now known, have embraced the offer, and will soon form a great accession to the new colony.

Such is the rise of their establishment, from which the friends of humanity predict the most happy effects. Nothing will more readily tend to introduce civilization into Africa than a colony thus formed on a liberal and

benevolent plan, free from the enormities that disgrace the Slave Trade. The soil is rich and fertile, and the cultivation of many of our West India commodities will soon flourish there. Besides this, an extensive coast and river trade is opened; for the valuable productions of Africa; which are numerous, and highly useful. An extensive inland commerce may soon also be established; a contract has already been made with the Mandingo Priests, who are acquainted with every village in the heart of this unexplored country, and whose persons are held sacred by all the contending chiefs: Through their medium a traffic may be carried on, reaching over all the African continent, by means of numerous caravans that travel over it in all directions; and even the silks and spices of the east may find their way from Cairo to the River of Sierra Leona. These speculations, it is hoped, not altogether ideal, may not be immediately valued, but in time may take effect; mean while, should this colony do no more than check or overturn the nefarious Slave Trade, every friend of humanity will rejoice, and bless the memory of the benevolent projectors.

Mr William Ged's Narrative of his Scheme for Block-printing. Dictated by himself some time before his Death, for the Satisfaction of his Relations.

I HAPPENED in the year 1725 to be in company with a printer, who, talking of the loss our nation was at for want of a letter-founder, and after showing me the nature of the types singly and composed in pages, asked me, if I could contrive a method to remedy that defect. I answered, that I judged it more practicable for me to make plates from the composed pages than make single types. To which he replied, that if such a thing could be done, an estate might be

made by it. I desired he would give me a page for an experiment, which, after some days trial, I found practicable, and so continued for near two years improving on my invention, and making a great many experiments, several of which were expensive; but the more I practised, and the less chargeable materials I used, I was the more successful, till at last I brought it to bear, as that no distinction could be made between the impression from my plates and that from the types.

I then applied to a gentleman in this place, who had five or six thousand pound stock, and who, for a fourth share of the profits, contracted with me to advance all the money that might be necessary for carrying on the work; But this Gentleman, afterwards conversing with a certain other printer in this town, was made to believe that eight thousand pound would not bring that undertaking to perfection; which did so intimidate him, that in two years continuance of that contract he made no farther advance to me than L. 22. So finding no appearance of success that way, I was glad of any opportunity by which I might expect better encouragement.

In July 1729, William Fenner, a London Stationer, being by accident here in Edinburgh, hearing of my project, made me proposals more disadvantageous than my former bargain, which however I accepted of. He claimed the half of the profits, in consideration he was to advance all the money requisite, and that I should procure my former partner's renunciation of any farther concern with me in that affair: which being obtained, we entered into a contract for twenty-one years, by which I was obliged to communicate to him the art.

On his part he was obliged, four months after date, to have a proper house and all materials in readiness at London, where I engaged to be by that time; and these conditions under a penalty of L. 1000 to be forfeited by the party failing. There was likewise a clause in that contract, that if, in eight months after trial, my project should not prove advantageous, because of the opposition it might likely meet with from the printers, in such event the contract was to be void and null.

I implemented my part, being at London within the time limited, where I found Mr Fenner had nothing agreed on provided, and I believe was as little capable. But being a stranger to his circumstances, he made me be-

lieve the reason of this delay was, that he had got acquainted with a letter-founder, who would, for one 16th share from each of us, furnish all the different types should be wanted; upon which followed another contract, and we were accordingly furnished with two parcels of different types:— but when we came to use them, we found them altogether unfit for our purpose; and were likewise informed, that he had been formerly employed by the King's printers, but was rejected by them, because one Caslon had eclipsed him in his business, which occasioned his applying to me, believing he could make a living by the profits he expected from his share in my project. Thereafter having seen a Bible printed in the King's house in London on a beautiful letter, I applied to them to know if they would give suitable encouragement to furnish them with plates for a Bible from that type. Accordingly a day was appointed to hear our proposals: in the mean time, they acquainted their new founder, Caslon, who told them he would give us fifty guineas, if we, in half a-year's time, made one page of a Bible from that type. Our appointment holding, we made demands, and they made offers of money, and we believed we might have agreed; but at the same time told us of the above fifty guineas, and that the gentleman who had made the offer was in the house: being called into our company, he bragged much of his great skill and knowledge in all the parts of mechanism, and particularly vaunted, that he, and hundreds besides himself, could make plates to as great perfection as I could;— which occasioned some heat in our conversation, and which was diverted by a proposal of Mr Basket, That Caslon and I should each of us have a page given us to make a plate from, of that type, between then and that day se'nnight; and that he who finished should give a handsome entertainment to the company: this being a-

Breed to, Mr Thomas Gib, overseer of the printing-house, was appointed judge of the performance.

Next day, about dinner-time, each of us had a page sent us. I immediately after fell to work, and by five o'clock that same afternoon I had finished three plates from that page, and caused to take impressions from them on paper, which I and partners carried directly to the king's printing-house, and showed them to said Mr Gib, who would not believe but these impressions were taken from the type; whereupon I produced one of the plates, which, he said, was the types soldered together, and sawed thorough. To convince him of his mistake, I took that plate from him, and broke it before his face, then showed him another, which made him cry out. He was surpris'd at my performance, and then called us to a bottle of wine; when he purpos'd I should take eleven pages more, to make up a form, that he would see how it might answer the sheet-way. My too expeditious performance here proved rather a detriment than advantage to me, as I came afterwards to understand from the king's printers themselves; who having acquainted Mr Casson with what had happened, he declined keeping the appointment in person, but sent a son of Mr Basket's to tell, "That he could not perform the thing himself, neither could he get one of the hundred he spoke of to undertake it."

Thomas James, the letter-founder above-mentioned, our partner, having a brother an architect, who was universally acquainted with the nobility and dignified clergy, he gave him one of these plates, and inform'd him of my above performance. Mr James handed the plate about, till he came to the Earl of Macclesfield, who told him that there was a vacancy in the university of Cambridge, who would be glad to receive us, and let us have the privilege of printing Bibles and

Prayer-books; which motion took. So John James, the above architect, and my partner Fenner, went down to Cambridge, where their proposals were readily agreed to. But, before this time, I suspected much the sufficiency of my partner's circumstances, which made me tell, that I inclin'd to leave them at the term of the eight months; which John James hearing, being a man of substance, made an overture, to divide in four shares, and that he would make the fourth partner; that he would lay me down 100l. that I should have yearly 100l. paid me for the use of my family, besides thirty shillings weekly for my own subsistence; that I should be presser of the company; and that any one of the other three partners, who join'd voice with me, should determine the question; and that, lastly, he would use his interest with the university of Cambridge; that I should have their privilege for printing the before mentioned books in my plate-way; which conditions I went in to, and had the said 100l. laid me down.

We had several meetings at making up this contract; which being agreed to in the terms above, was put into the hands of Counsellor Hamilton, to be extended at large. Meanwhile the king's printers; having heard our design, applied to the university, and made an offer of 500l. more than what they had agreed to take from us. Afterwards Thomas James, our letter-founder, fell to intriguing with the king's printers (who understanding the countenance we were likely to obtain from the university of Cambridge, which was equal to their own as to the privilege of printing Bibles and Prayer-books; and the more afraid, of having a man of such substance as John James his brother partner with us) in order to withdraw his brother, which afterwards appear'd he had undertaken to do. The argument they made use of to spirit him up (we having complain'd of the insufficiency

insufficiency of his types) was, to make him believe that the fault lay in my plates only, and not in his types, tho' they had been formerly rejected by themselves: wherefore, to convince his brother of ignorance or malice, I made impressions from both type and plate, in the manner following; viz. Having at that time five or six sheets of an octavo Prayer-book in plates made from the same types, I caused to make up a sheet where pages of plate were intermixed with pages of type; and having twenty such sheets to cast off, I asked him, before his brother, to distinguish which was plate, and which type. To do which, he divided the one half of these sheets from the other, saying, the one was plate, and the other half type, whereas each of these sheets bore a mixture of pages, half one, half other. I made a second trial, on Thomas James's bringing two paragraphs of a different size of letter, composed in Latin, which he desired to be cast off, with care, being to be sent to the country for a specimen. Observing this to be a better type than what he had furnished us, I caused to make up as much of our letter as would make a folio page, joined with these two specimens, from which I made a plate, and caused to throw off a parcel of sheets from both; which being brought to him, he mistook the one for the other, but carried one of each home with him, and next day he discovered a small open in the tail of one single letter, whereby he was afterwards capable to distinguish that plate from the type: for which reason I made another plate from the same composed page, and caused cast off an equal number from the last plate as from the former; and the impressions being mixt and laid before him, he discovered his ignorance, by affirming that all the impressions of my last plate were taken from the types (not finding that *obscure* or open in a letter of the for-

mer plate,) till I convinced him of his error, by showing him the other plate. Not long after this, Mr Samuel Palmer (the most knowing printer in London,) who had frequently see my performance in the plate-way, assured me, that the types I was using were altogether unfit for my purpose; and further, he and another gentleman told us, they heard our letter-founder say, That as long as he was our letter-founder, we should never hurt the trade; and it was for that reason he had joined us in company. Having wrought about 18 months at London on several books with these imperfect types, which proved naught, and the lease never yet obtained, tho' the university sent letters every two or three weeks to John James our partner at Greenwich, directed to the care of his brother the letter-founder at London, who, being in use of breaking open these letters, kept up a material one, wherein the university desired us to take council, and talk with their agent at London, to whom they had sent their papers and powers. Next meeting, instead of communicating the contents of this letter to the concerned, he told them he had seen a gentleman, who said the gentlemen of the university were surpris'd we had so long delayed coming down to Cambridge to take out our lease, which they were so willing to grant us, and propos'd to his brother and Mr Fenner to go down in the name of the company, which they had agreed to before I came. When they told me what had pass'd, I knowing the man's sincerity, which I had observed for some time before, thought it not convenient without I went along with him; and then told them, I could endeavour to procure the recommendation of my Lord Illy and others of my countrymen: and accordingly I obtained my Lord Illy's letter to Mr Smith, professor of the opticks in Trinity College, who happened to be present at that meeting,

ing, called Syndicks. This letter I delivered by myself, when this gentleman asked me what advice I had from counsel about their privileges; which was the first time I had heard any thing of the contents of the above-mentioned letter from the university. This being a farther confirmation of this man's treachery, I let Mr Savick know my former jealousies of him, and, since he was private, I begged of him to call a meeting before I left this place, that I might know their opinions; and accordingly being met, they granted our request for paying into the university £.100 yearly, and five pounds *per annum* to one Jonathan Plinder, an old decayed printer in that place. I told Thomas James, I was informed such a letter was sent by the university to his brother, to take advice of counsel as it directed, and was much surpris'd he had concealed the contents from the company; when he answered, he did not know the use of it.

I desired him to go along with me to thank the gentlemen of the university, which he refusing, I told him I would go alone then; but seeing me positive, he went in company; when he, with no little assurance, asked them, That if my project should miscarry, were we obliged to pay them an hundred guineas yearly? and farther, he doubted of the validity of their lease. To both which they answered, We had to do with gentlemen; and then we got their decree signed unanimously. When we came to London, I acquainted my other partners with my success at Cambridge, and Thomas James's behaviour and concealment of the fore-mentioned letter. His brother took him heartily to task; who told me how he had chastised him, and got his promise of better behaviour for the future. Then we resolv'd to go altogether to Cambridge, to attend two other courts, called Caput and Convocation, to get the finishing stroke to their lease. We appointed a day to set out; but Thomas James

thought fit to inform the King's printer (our antagonist) of our resolutions, who had been at Cambridge two days before we arriv'd, and had renewed their former offer of £.500 to the university, besides an yearly premium; and the more to ingratiate themselves, carried along with them specimens of Caslon's types, to show the imperfection of Thomas James's, as were exhibited before himself, when he was oblig'd to own there was no comparison: but, having an impression of that plate with me I had formerly made from Mr Caslon's types, made it plain my work must be always unserviceable; which the gentlemen being convinced of, our lease pass'd the other two courts next day.

The university being confin'd to make that grant only in the name of one single person, we were asked which of us should be nominated; when Fenner and Thomas James stood candidates, and by the power given me of the casting vote, I gave it in favour of Fenner, who promis'd, as soon as he came to London, to make a transference to the whole contract; but no sooner was returned thither, than there was a proposal made to send Thomas James to Holland, to purchase proper types, which was accordingly done, when in two months stay there, he brought upon us a charge of £.150, and only one set of types home with him, though in greater quantity than he had either order'd or us'd for. Having heard me frequently say, that the best plates I could make would be from types before they were us'd or ink'd, he caus'd to set up four pages of a Bible, to make a plate from, them before any impressions had been taken from them. The impressions were made, when there appeared like two hundred blows in each page, which he was so fond of, that he carried them directly to his brother. Being surpris'd, I caus'd take impressions likewise from the types, when the same number of blows appeared there too: and when the

compositors

compositors observed the types, they told me that about a third of them never had been adjusted; that James himself was set to adjust them. After this, I made a whole sheet of a Bible, and impressions were taken from both type and plate; when Thomas James brought a quire of fine paper, and was present at the impression taken from the type, and placed his seal on the middle of each sheet. Seeing his eagerness to catch advantages, I went for a quire of the same kind of paper, and desired him to be witness to the impression from my plates; and having stamped my seal likewise on each sheet of mine; both impressions were shown to Samuel Palmer and his brother, who were satisfied with the performance. This was somewhat grating to Thomas James. The next malicious stratagem he fell upon (being witness to the taking of these impressions) was, to acquaint his brother with the defect of the impressions in the corner of one of the sheets, which he had picked out on purpose, which defect was owing to the platten's being patched with paper; but as his was first cast off, there were more of them injured in that particular place than of mine; which showing his brother, and convincing him of his malice to the undertaking, he consented that he should have no farther concern, or be allowed to come to our meetings, which occasioned the delay of our contract, and consequently of the transference, not knowing whether he was to be any more a partner. Then we got compositors, and set to work about a Bible and two Prayer-books on that letter brought from Holland; two Prayer-books upon a Brevier letter, which we had from Thomas James, which were laid aside after four sheets were made in plates; and likewise an octavo Prayer-book, whereof nine sheets were made, and likewise thrown aside, which afterwards, when I left them, they completed in the common way. I made likewise plates for a Grammar, when my partners made

choice of an overseer who did not understand the Rudiments. At this time we had about a dozen compositors, and finished two Prayer-books, without taking an impression of one sheet; being obliged to make two plates for each page (and very often a greater number, till he was satisfied that he had got two sufficient for the work); this learned overseer was made judge, to break down what he thought convenient to be cast over again; but his judgment shewed itself in breaking the best, which I frequently discovered, and shewed him the plates after broke, to give him reason to be convinced of his error; though all the excuse he made for himself was, that there were faults in the composing, which should have been his business to have known before they were brought to me.

Having observed this practice so frequently, I made my complaint to Mr Fenner, that impressions might be taken of the whole work, to see how far we had been imposed on: Fenner not seeming to agree to it, surprised me much; my demand being so just. A little after I came to discover there was an understanding between Fenner and this overseer, who was likewise clerk to the disbursements, of which John James bore the far greater share, without ever taking receipts or clearing accounts with Fenner, who had his game to play with this clerk in making up the accounts; as he told me afterwards that he had a promise of fifty pounds from Fenner, to make up the accounts as he should direct, and to continue him in his favour; and he added, that it was then in his power to discover to me, how far Fenner designed to trick and play the rogue both against John James and me. But having in due acquainted Mr James with my observations and suspicions of this overseer, we determined to employ a more proper man, to whom we would allow double the wages that the other had. Accordingly another

another was got, who seeing the former's performance, and especially that on the grammar, he let us see, there was like twenty errors in every page, and all the rest of his work shewed he had no judgment in the matter. Our new overseer immediately proposed to get Dutch pressmen, and we immediately sent him to Holland to fetch them over; and in the mean time our old overseer was continued till the other's return; and, knowing he was to be no longer employed, he committed rather greater blunders than formerly: but before our new overseer went away, being acquainted with the king's printers, informed them of the advantageous offers we had made him, and his errand to Holland; whereupon they debauched him likewise, and told him, that if he gave us his tools (as he had promised to do on our paying for them,) he would throw himself out of bread; and that the university's leave would not be worth an half-penny to us, because they were to lead an injunction against it. It evidently appeared he was in concert with the king's printers, by the people he brought over with him; one of whom was a superannuated sailor, who ingeniously confessed his ignorance: and, after eight days stay with us, went home again, although he was under contract for a year at weekly wages. Another of them, to excuse his ignorance, told us he was bred a baker, and had been but two years at the press. The other two were father and son; the father was a little old man between sixty and seventy years of age, and both so weakly, that they took four pills at the press instead of two that the English made, who mocking them for their practice in their business, the son, being ashamed, ran away from us in two months. Our new overseer, being along with them at Cambridge, and having no other plates to work upon, but the former uncorrect ones (which he himself had condemned) caused cast off a

sheet, which he sent up to London, and which met with approbation; having done his utmost to save his own reputation, and conceal the ignorance of those he had brought from Holland. After this, my partners used their pressing instances to persuade me to go down to Cambridge, which I refused till the contracts should be signed, and the transference made. But telling me, that would take a time; and that the people would be out of work, they gave me an holograph writ of John James, signed by him and Fenner, wherein they confirmed to me 100*l.* to be paid yearly, or quarterly, for the use of my family; thirty shillings a week for my own subsistence; and likewise obliged themselves to confirm to me one fourth of the profits that should arise from the work, and to extend their obligation in form with all expedition, which, by their verbal promise, was to have been done within six weeks thereafter; having complained of their former payments, they assured me I should be paid punctually for the future. But after seven weeks stay at Cambridge (Fenner having sent down his brother to be cashier,) I had no greater payments made me than at the rate of ten shillings *per* week; having made pressing demands in terms of our agreement, this Fenner told me, that if I were not satisfied with what he gave, I might go about my business, for they could do the work without me. By this time having got a sheet of a Bible made by the direction of this new overseer, which appeared more beautiful than any hitherto done, Fenner, hearing me so much commend it, pretended to have a curiosity to look at it, but lifting it up from the place where it lay to a better light, dropt it; observing this, I ran to take up what might be unhurt, but he knocked even what remained whole to pieces, which shewed 'twas not an accident, but real design. I soon after discovered their plot: for, having placed all my tools and instruments

instruments in order at Cambridge, his brother at London and he thought they could do the business without me, and so sought all opportunities to fall out with me; for it was plain from his breaking of my plates (the goodness of which was owing to our new overseer's improving of the pages, and preserving of such pages as were sufficient for the work), that, if they found they could succeed in their design, they would impose upon John James, by making him believe they could perform the work better than myself, and so have no more occasion for me. This new overseer staid only ten days at this time that I was at Cambridge, when the messengers actually came down with the injunction; who having sent for him, he kept them company all that night, and desired them to conceal themselves till he should get all that was due to him (which was only three guineas); and be gone for London, which he accordingly did next morning; and they appeared that afternoon, and laid on their injunction, which in few days after was removed by a decree of the chancery in favour of the university.

Our overseer having now left us, this Fenner our clerk (being a few weeks before an iron monger) assumed the direction as overseer likewise, and made always choice of the worst plates for the press-men to work on, and sent these bad impressions to John James, which he shewed to stationers that he expected would be purchasers; who attributed the faults of the impression to the badness of the paper. Fenner having got already as much from John James as he could expect he would be willing to launch out on this affair, he made a demand of £.500 for this paper, which Mr James refused to pay his share of, telling him that he was informed it was nothing but the refuse and rubbish of his shop, and that he ought not to have furnished paper without the advice and consent of the concerned, as had been

agreed on by our minutes. Then Mr Fenner applied to Mr Mount and Mr Page, who had a considerable mortgage on Mr Baker's privilege of printing; Mr Baker being to receive 11,000*l.* due to him by the Government, with which he designed to pay off that mortgage: Fenner hearing of this, conjuring this a proper time, made proposals to conjoin Mr Mount and Mr Page with him in the university's lease, which he had still in his own name. Thereafter he came to Cambridge, where I acquainted him how haughtily I had been used by his brother as is above related; and told him, I would go to London to see John James, and provide proper persons to carry on the work, and have our contracts signed, which ought to have been done three months before that time. He told me, I should get no more papers signed than what were already, for John James would advance no more money, and would be no longer concerned; but that he had taken care of himself, and was to take in Mr Mount and Mr Page for sharers. I then told him, I had his signed obligation for a fourth share, and would go to London to let Mr James know his design, who had already laid out so much money on that affair.— Finding me obstinate, he begged me to stay fourteen days, and make the Calendar of a Prayer book, that he might have one of them bound in order to shew it to Mr James, and that he would endeavour to get him to continue his concern, and to bring him to Cambridge in that time which they failing to do, I went to London; but before I set out, I thought it fit to remove part of my tools, at least so many of them as should disappoint him, or any other, in the discovery of any part of my invention. I likewise carried with me specimens of most of the sheets cast off, to compare them with what Mr James might have got sent him from Fenner. Mr James took out of his pocket those sheets

sent him by Fenner from Cambridge; amongst which was one done upon fine paper and sealed, as formerly spoke of; which he judged to be from the type, and said there was no comparison between it and the other specimens for beauty; and his brother Thomas James being present, and seconding the same, the street was opened out, and my seal being found on the middle of it, they were both convinced that that impression was from my plates, and that any defects they complained of in the others were owing to the insufficiency of the paper. Next day I went to call for Fenner, but he would not appear. But hearing I was come to London, he went down the day after to Cambridge, where he and his brother impudently broke open my work-house door, and finding the material part of my tools gone, applied to tradesmen in the place, thinking to make up what was wanting; but he could not describe, nor they conceive what he meant, though he was there six weeks about it. When he came back to London, he persuaded John James, that could he have back my tools, he would make good the undertaking; and to that end he proposed a meeting with me, to engage me to go back and replace my tools as they were before, and I should be paid periodically thereafter. These insinuations so far prevailed with John James, that he went into the concert with Fenner against me, and gave him fifty guineas as part of his share of the £.500 for paper above-mentioned: when we met, I desired to get from Mr Hamilton the contract in his hands to be signed, and that Mr Fenner should transfer the privilege of the university. This they declined, and said they would make another paper equally valid, which John James wrote himself, and which was a contract for twenty-six weeks in place of twenty-one years. By this I perceived that their design was only to get me to carry back my

tools, to be more attentive to my performance for the discovery of the mystery, and then to shuffle me entirely out of the business.

In the twenty-six weeks time they expected I would finish the half of a Bible, and the half of an Octavo Prayer-book. I told them I saw through their aim, and parted with them. Then Fenner went a second time to Cambridge, and practised for two months with as little success as before: at his return, he called us to another meeting; and I carried along with me a countryman of mine, a member of parliament, to whom they offered a sheet of clean paper, to fill up what articles he thought fit for my advantage, if I would return to Cambridge. This gentleman answered, that I had a friend in the place who understood matters of that kind better than he, and desired them to appoint an hour and place; but accidentally dropping his name, was known to Mr Fenner, having heard him plead a cause in the Exchequer in Scotland: when the defendant was seemingly to have lost his cause, this gentleman recovered it to Fenner's great surprize, which made him believe that gentleman would be too many for him to meet with on my affair. The appointment, however, was made, but neither he nor James kept it. Some days after, my friend the member of parliament and I met with them in another place, where were the two James's and Fenner. Thomas James, being the intimate of Mr Mount and Mr Page, was informed by them, how far Fenner had been bargaining with them for the privilege of the university; which John James hearing, told Fenner that he was a knave and a rogue, and had all along picked his pocket, but that he would strip him to the shirt for his money. After this, my friend and I gave over hopes of getting matters accommodated; but he went to my Lord Islay (by whose assistance we had obtained the lease, which was granted.

granted solely for the encouragement of my plate-way), to solicit his Lordship to intercede with the gentlemen of the university for redress of my bad treatment. But this visit was unluckily timed; for one Mr Page an attorney (his Lordship's doer at London, and likewise for Fenner) being present, and hearing application made to his lordship in my behalf, said, I had been sufficiently rewarded for what I had done; that I had got L. 700 of their money, and that I was old and blind, and that my partners could perform my undertaking to better purpose than I could do myself. After this, my friend and I made it our business to meet with this attorney, when I had my accounts drawn up, to shew him how far he had been misinformed. But he would by no means meet with us, saying, Did we imagine to seduce him from his client's interest? and that he would affront my friend, if we gave him any further trouble. My friend being obliged to go for Scotland, I never had an opportunity to give my Lord any farther account of my misfortunes. I went afterwards to Cambridge, to look after my household furniture, and the remainder of my tools that I left behind me; but Fenner pretended to detain both furniture and tools for what of the latter I had carried off before, though at the same time my partners were debtor unto me in L. 240 by their engagements to me, besides my share of the plates and profits arising from them. I could by no means prevail with Fenner to let me have my furniture, tools, or my cabinet where my papers lay. When I came back to London, another friend of mine and I met with Fenner, to whom we proposed to submit our difference to the determination of two gentlemen, to be chosen by each of

us; to which he answered, that he was content, provided I would find bail for what demands he might have on me; to which my friend replied, that I should find bail for L. 5000 year, L. 10,000 if he would do the same but for L. 2000. But Fenner, hearing this frank offer of my friend and me, declined the submission; upon which a substantial neighbour of his being present, told him, that certainly his cause must be bad, that he would not trust to the arbitration of two honest men. Before I left Cambridge last, I was informed by one of my countrymen who wrought in the house, that they had printed off 20,000 copies of a small Prayer-book of one line, 10,000 of another Prayer-book of two columns, from my plates made from the same type; and 10,000 more of an octavo Prayer-book of a larger letter, the one half whereof from plates, and the other from types; besides 10,000 Bibles in manner of this last mentioned Prayer-book, which when working in the common way, one third of these types were picked out, Thomas James having under-sized them when he undertook to adjust them, though I had all along wrought my plates from these unsized types. After all, I took counsel of Commissary Graves at Cambridge, and Mr Peters counsellor at London, whom John James had likewise advised with; and both agreed that we should join in prosecuting Fenner; which Mr James consented to, but shifted me off so often that I could not wait longer at London: and thus I was obliged to leave my affair in the same situation, and come home to Scotland, without ever having been able ever since, to get redress or satisfaction for the injuries done me by my partners.

W. GED.

The Method of treating Hogs during the Mast Season in the Woods of New Forest.*

THESE woods afford excellent feeding for hogs, which are led in the Autumn season, into many parts of the forest, but especially among the oaks, and beeches of Bokierwood, to fatten on mast. It is among the rights of the forest borderers to feed their hogs in the forest, during the *pawnage-month*, as it is called, which commences about the end of September, and lasts six weeks. For this privilege they pay a trading acknowledgement at the steward's court at Lyndhurst. The word *pawnage* was the old term for the money thus collected.

The method of treating hogs at this season of migration, and of reducing a large herd of these unmanageable brutes to perfect obedience and good government, is curious.

The first step the swine-herd takes, is to investigate some close sheltered part of the forest, where there is a convenience of water; and plenty of oak, or beech-mast, the former of which he prefers, when he can have it in sufficient abundance. He fixes next on some spreading tree, round the bole of which he wattles a slight, circular fence of the dimensions he wants; and covering it roughly with boughs, and fods, he fills it plentifully with straw, or fern.

Having made this preparation, he collects his colony among the farmers, with whom he commonly agrees for a shilling a-head, and will get together perhaps a herd of five or six hundred hogs. Having driven them to their destined habitation, he gives them a plentiful supper of acorns, or beech-mast, which he had already provided, founding his herd during the repast. He then turns them into the litter, where, after a long journey, and a hearty meal, they sleep deliciously.

The next morning he lets them look a little around them—shews them the pool, or stream, where they may occasionally drink—leaves them to pick up the offals of the last night's meal; and as evening draws on, gives them another plentiful repast under the neighbouring trees, which rain acorns upon them for an hour together, at the sound of his horn; he then sends them again to sleep.

The following day he is perhaps at the pains of procuring them another meal, with music playing as usual. He then leaves them a little more to themselves, having an eye however on their evening hours. But as their bellies are full, they seldom wander far from home, retiring commonly very orderly and early to bed.

After this, he throws his sty open, and leaves them to cater for themselves; and from henceforward has little more trouble with them, during the whole time of their migration. Now and then, in calm weather, when mast falls sparingly, he calls them perhaps together by the music of his horn to a gratuitous meal; but in general, they need little attention, returning regularly home at night, tho' they often wander in the day two or three miles from their sty. There are experienced leaders in all herds, which have spent this roving life before, and can instruct their juniors in the method of it. By this management the herd is carried home to their respective owners in such condition, that a little dry meat will soon fatten them.

I would not, however, have it supposed, that all the swine-herds in the forest manage their colonies with this exactness. Bad governments and bad governors will every where exist; but I mention this as an example of sound policy.

* From Gilpin's Forest Scenery.

policy—not as a mere Platonic, or Eutopian scheme; but such as hath been often realized, and hath as often been found productive of good order and public utility. The hog is commonly supposed to be an obstinate, head-strong, unmanageable brute: and he may perhaps have a degree of positiveness in his temper. In general, however, if he be properly managed, he is an orderly docile animal. The only difficulty is, to make your meanings, when they are fair and friendly, intelligible to him. Effect this, and you may lead him with a straw.

Nor is he without his social feelings when he is at liberty to indulge them. In these forest migrations, it is commonly observed, that of whatever number the herd consists, they generally separate, in their daily excursions, into such little knots and societies as have formerly had habits of intimacy together; and in these friendly groups they range the forest; returning home at night, in different parties, some earlier and some later, as they have been more or less fortunate in the pursuits of the day.

It sounds oddly to affirm the life of a hog to be enviable; and yet there is something uncommonly pleasing in the lives of these emigrants—something at least more desirable, than is to be found in the life of a hog *Epicuri de grege*. They seem themselves also to enjoy their mode of life. You see them perfectly happy, going about at their ease, and conversing with each other, in short, pithy, interrupted sentences, which are no doubt, expressive of their own enjoyments, and of their social feelings.

Besides the hogs thus led out in the mast-season to fatten, there are others, the property of forest-keepers, which spend the whole year in such societies. After the mast-season is over, the indigenous forest-hog depends chiefly for his livelihood on the roots of fern: and he would find this food very nourishing, if he could have it in abun-

dance. But he is obliged to procure it by so laborious an operation, that his meals are rarely accompanied with satiety. He continues, however, by great industry, to obtain a tolerable subsistence through the winter, except in frosty weather, when the ground retails his delving snout: then he must perish, if he do not in some degree experience his master's care. As Spring advances fresh grasses, and salads of different kinds, add a variety to his bill of fare; and as Summer comes on, he finds juicy berries, and grateful seeds, on which he lives plentifully till Autumn returns, and brings with it the extreme of abundance.

Besides these stationary hogs, there are others in some of the more desolate parts of the forest, which are bred wild, and left to themselves, without any settled habitation. As they cost nothing either in food or care, their owners are content with the precarious profit of such as they are able to reclaim.

Charles I. I have heard, was at the expence of procuring the wild boar and his mate from the forests of Germany, which once certainly inhabited the forests of England. I have heard too that they propagated greatly in New Forest. Certain it is, there is found in it at this day, a breed of hogs, commonly called *forest pigs*, which are very different from the usual Hampshire breed; and have about them several of the characteristic marks of the wild boar. The forest hog has broad shoulders, a high crest, and thick bristly mane, which he erects on any alarm. His hinder parts are light and thin. His ears are short and erect, and his colour either black, or darkly brindled. He is much fiercer than the common breed, and will turn against an ordinary dog. All these are marks of the wild boar, from whom, I have little doubt, that in part he derives his pedigree, though his blood may be contaminated with vulgar mixtures.—But though he is much more picturesque than the common hog, he is in
much

much less repute among farmers. The disadvantage in the ham and the lightness of his hind quarters, and the thinness of his flanks appear to great sitch.

Remarks on the Horse of New Forest in Hampshire, with a digression on the practice of Docking and Cropping.

THE horse here is gregarious. Herds of twenty or thirty are often feeding together; in summer especially, when they have plenty of pasture, and can live as they please. In winter they are obliged to separate, and seek their food as they can find it. In general, indeed, they are left in all seasons to take their chance of the forest. Where there is no expence, there can be no great loss; and what is saved is so much gained. In marshy parts a severe winter often goes hardly with them. But in dry grounds, where heath and furze abound, they pick up a tolerable winter subsistence, especially if they have learned the little arts of living, which necessity teaches. Of these arts, one of the most useful is to bruise and pound with their fore-feet, the prickly tops of furze. This operation, which I have often seen performed, prepares the rigid diet of a furze-bush in some degree for mastication, and renders it rather less offensive to the palate.

When such colts, as have long run wild, are to be caught for sale, their ideas of liberty are so unconfined, from pasturing in so wild a range, that it is matter of no little difficulty to take them. Some times they are caught by slight of hand, with a rope and a noose. But if this method fail, they are commonly lanted down by horsemen, who relieve each other. Colt-hunting is a common practice in the forest.—The colts which feed on Obergreen, are sometimes taken by the following stratagem: In this part runs a long bog, described under the name of

Longlade-bottom, which is crossed by a mole thrown over it. With this passage the colt is well acquainted: and on being pursued, is easily driven towards it. When he is about the middle of the mole, two or three men start up in front, and oblige him to leap into the bog, where he is intangled and seized.

At all the neighbouring fairs, these horses are a principal commodity, and are bought up for every purpose to which a horse can be applied. Diminutive as they are, you may often see half a dozen of them straining in a waggon: and as it is fashionable to drive them in light carriages, their price has been enhanced. It is a little fortune to a poor cottager, if he happen to possess three or four colts, that are tolerably handsome and match well. He may probably sell them for ten or twelve pounds a-piece.

In point of value, the New Forest horse would rise higher, if the same care were taken in breeding him, which was formerly taken, and which is still in some degree taken in the neighbouring forest of Bere; where, I have heard, the keepers are ordered to destroy all horses, which, at three years of age, are under thirteen hands, and all mares under twelve.

There is another evil likewise which tends to injure the forest colts; and that is, putting him to business at too early an age. Though a small horse attains maturity earlier than a large one, yet these horses, bred chiefly by indigent people, and generally of little value, are introduced much sooner to labour

* From the Same.

labour than abler and better horses commonly are.

The same and exploits are still remembered of a little beautiful grey horse, which had been suffered to run wild in the forest till he was eight years of age, when he had attained his full strength. His first sensations, on the loss of his liberty, were like those of a wild beast. He flew at his keeper with his open mouth; or rearing on his hind-legs, dashed his forehead at him with the most malicious fury. He fell however into hands that tamed him. He became by degrees patient of the bit, and at length suffered a rider. From this time his life was a scene of glory. He was well known on every road in the county; was the favourite of every groom; and the constant theme of every hostler. But in the chase his prowess was most shewn. There he carried his master with so much swiftness, ease, and firmness, that he always attracted the eyes of the company more than the game they pursued.

The New Forest horse is often supposed to be of Spanish extraction, from ancestors, imagined to have been shipwrecked on the coast of Hampshire in the time of the armada. But I look on this as a species of the ancient vaunt, *genus a Jove summo*, and to deserve as little attention. Some of them have a form which would not disgrace so noble a lineage. The grey horse is among the most beautiful. But in general, the croup of the forest horse is low; and his head is ill set on, having what the jockies call a *stiff jaw*. Of this defect a resemblance is common in some horses, whose head is set on, as those of the forest horses commonly are. Their claim therefore to high lineage must in general rest more on their good qualities than on their beauty—on the hardiness of their nature—on their uncommon strength—on their agility and firmness of foot, which they probably

acquire by constantly lifting their legs among furze.

But though the form of the New Forest horse is seldom beautiful, yet, as the ornament of a forest scene, he is very picturesque. The horse, in his natural state, rough with all his mane about him, and his tail waving in the wind as he feeds, is always beautiful; but particularly in so wild a scene as this, which he graces exceedingly.

On this subject I cannot forbear digressing a little, (and I hope the critical reader will not be too fastidious) on the great indignity the horse suffers from the mutilation of his tail and ears. Within this century, I believe, the barbarous custom of docking horses came in use, and hath passed through various modifications, like all other customs, which are not founded in nature and truth. A few years ago the *short dock* was the only tail (if it may be called such) in fashion, both in the army and in carriages. The absurdity however of this total amputation began to appear. The gentlemen of the army led the way. They acknowledged the beauty and use of the tail as nature made it. The *short dock* every where disappeared, and all dragoon horses paraded with long tails.

The *nag tail* however still continued in use. Of this there are several species, all more or less mutilated. The most deformed one is *naked tail*, so named from a cruel operation used in forming it. The under sinews of the dock being divided, the tail starts upwards, directly contrary to the position which nature intended. The *nag-tail* is still seen in all genteel carriages; nor will any person of fashion ride a horse without one. Even the gentlemen of the army, who have shewn the most sense in the affair of horse-tails, have been so misled as to introduce the *nag-tail* into the light horse; though it would be as difficult to

to give a reason now for the *nag-tail* as formerly for the *short dock*.

Two things are urged in defence of this cruel mutilation—the *utility*, and the *beauty* of it. Let us as briefly as possible examine both.

To make an animal *useful* is, no doubt, the first consideration: and to make a horse so, we must necessarily make him suffer some things which are *unnatural*, because we take him out of a *state of nature*. He must be fed with hay and corn in the winter, which he cannot get in his open pastures: for if he have exercise *beyond nature*, he must have such food as will enable him to bear it. As it is necessary likewise to make our roads hard and durable, it is necessary also to give the horse an iron hoof, that he may travel over them without injuring his feet.—But all this has nothing to do with his *tail*, from which *no incumbrance* arises.

Yes, says the advocate *for docking*; as it is necessary for the horse to travel, to hunt, and to race, it is useful to lighten him of every incumbrance; and as it is necessary for him to travel through dirty roads, it is useful to rid him of an instrument which is continually collecting dirt, and lashing it over himself and his rider.

To ease your horse of every incumbrance in travelling is certainly right. You should see that his bridle and saddle (which are his great incumbrance) are as easy as possible: and that the weight he carries or draws be proportioned to his strength. But depend upon it he receives no incumbrance from nature. It is a maxim among all true philosophers, that *nature has given nothing in vain*: and there can be no reasonable doubt, but that nature has given the horse his tail to balance and assist his motions. That this is the case seems plain from the use he makes of it. When the animal is at rest his tail is pendent,

but when he is in violent action he raises and spreads it as a bird does in the same situation. Would the swallow or the dove be assisted in their flight by the loss of their tails? or the greyhound in his speed by docking him? For myself, I have no doubt, but if the experiment were tried at Newmarket, which I suppose it never was, the horse with his long tail, however the literati there might laugh at him, would not be in the least injured in his speed; and would certainly answer better, in all his sudden turns to the intention of his rider. He would extend and spread his helm; it would steer his way; and we would seldom hear of his running out of his course or on the wrong side of the post.

Besides, his tail probably assists him even in his common exertions, and balances his body when he trots, and prevents his stumbling. I have heard a gentleman who had travelled much in the east remark, that the Turkish and Arabian horses rarely stumble; which he attributed, and with much appearance of truth, to their long tails.

But whatever use the tail may be to the horse *in action*, it is acknowledged on all hands to be of infinite use to him *at rest*. Whoever sees the horse grazing in summer, and observes the constant use he makes of his long tail in lashing the flies from his sides, must be persuaded, that it is a most useful instrument: and must be hurt to see him sidage a short dock backward and forward, with ineffectual attempts to rid himself of some plague which he cannot reach.

As to the objection against the tail as an instrument, which is continually *gathering dirt*, and *lashing* it around, if there be any truth in what I have already observed, this little objection dissolves itself, especially as the inconvenience may with great ease be remedied when the road is dirty, either

ther by knotting up the tail, or by tying it with a leathern strap.

But whatever becomes of *utility*, the horse is certainly more *beautiful*, we are told, without his dangling tail. What a handsome figure he makes when *he carries both his ends well!* This is the constant language of horse-dealers, stable-keepers, and grooms; and such language, tho' originating in tasteless ignorance, and mere prejudice, has drawn over men of sense and understanding.—It is inconceivable how delusively the eye sees, as well as the understanding, when it is fascinated and led aside by fashion and custom. Associated ideas of various kinds give truth a different air. When we see a game-cock, with all his sprightly actions, and gorgeous plumes about him, we acknowledge him one of the most beautiful birds in nature. But when we see him armed with steel, and prepared for battle; we cry, What a scare-crow! But a cock-fighter, with all the ideas of the pit about him, will conceive, that, in this latter state, he is in his greatest beauty; and if his picture be drawn, it must be drawn in this ridiculous manner. I have often seen it.

Let jockies and stable-boys, and cock-fighters keep their own absurd ideas; but let not men who pretend to see, and think for themselves, adopt such ridiculous conceits. In *arts*, we judge by the *rules of art*. In *nature* we have no criterion but the *forms of nature*. We criticize a building by the rules of architecture: but in judging of a tree, or a mountain, we judge of the most beautiful forms of each which nature hath given us. It is thus in other things. From nature alone we have the form of a horse. Should we then seek for beauty in that object, in our own wild conceptions, or recur to the great original from whence we had it? We may be assured, that nature's forms are always the most beautiful; and therefore we ought to correct our ideas by *hers*.—It, how-

ever, we cannot give up the point; let us at least be consistent. If we admire a horse without a tail, or a cock without feathers, let us not laugh at the Chinese for admiring the disproportioned foot of his mistress; nor at the Indian, for doting on her black teeth and tattooed cheeks. For myself, I cannot conceive why it should make a horse more beautiful to take his tail from him, than it would make a man to clap a tail to him.—With regard indeed to the natural beauty of a horse's tail, we want little reasoning on the subject. In conjunction with his mane it gives him dignity.—It hides his straddling buttocks, which is a decency in nature we should admire rather than destroy.—It forms a contrast among the legs. The four equal legs of every animal are its greatest deformity; and their sameness of course gives the painter the most trouble in the management of them. In many of her forms indeed, where nature does not seem to aim at beauty, she neglects this economy: but as if she meant the horse for one of her most elegant productions, she has provided for him in this respect also, by giving him a graceful flow of hair, which hiding sometimes one leg, and sometimes another, introduces a pleasing contrast among them all.—The accidental motion also of the tail gives it peculiar beauty; both when the horse moves it himself, and when it waves in the wind. The beauty of it indeed, to an unprejudiced eye is conspicuous at once; and in all parades and state horses it is acknowledged: though even here there is an attempt made to improve nature by art; the hair must be adorned with ribbons, and the bottom of the tail clipped square, which adds heaviness, and is certainly so far a deformity.

The captain of an English man of war gave me an account sometime ago of his landing in one of the piratical states of Barbary, while his ship anchored

anchored in the bay. He was received by the Dey (I think, of Tripoli) with great civility; and among other things, saw his stables. They were lined with a very long, double row, of the most beautiful Barb and Arabian horses. He was struck with their beauty, to which their grand flowing tails, combed, and oiled in the nicest manner, were no little addition. As he continued his walk through the stud, he came to a couple of horses with *nag-tails*. On inquiring into their history, he found they were English horses, which had been presented to the Dey. The horses themselves were fit to appear any where; but the contrast of their tails, he thought, in such company, made so very strange and disgraceful an appearance, that he was ashamed of his countrymen.—The case was, his eye having been thus accustomed to the beautiful forms of nature, had gotten rid of its prejudices; and being a rational man, he saw the matter in its proper light.

I shall conclude my remarks on this cruel mutilation, with an epigram by Voltaire.—That celebrated wit was in England about the time when the barbarous custom of docking horses was in high fashion. He was so shocked at it, that he wrote the following verses, which, it is said, he gave to Lord Lyttleton.

Vous, fiers Anglois, et barbares que vous
etes,
Coupez les têtes a vos rois, et les queues
a vos betes,
Mais les François plus polis, et aimant les
loix,
Laissent les queues a leurs betes, et les
têtes a leurs rois.

There is more indignation than wit I think in these verses. Voltaire seems to consider docking a horse, and killing a king, as equal crimes; which, however, is carrying the matter somewhat farther than the picturesque eye wishes to carry it.

The same absurd notions, which

have led men to cut off the tails of horses, have led them also to cut off their ears. I speak not of low grooms and jockies; we have lately seen the studs of men of the first fashion, misled probably by grooms and jockies, producing only cropt horses.

When a fine horse has wide; lopping ears, as he sometimes has, without spring or motion in them, a man may be tempted to remove the deformity. But to cut a pair of fine ears out of the head of a horse, is, if possible, a still greater absurdity, than to cut off his tail. Nothing can be alleged in its defence. The ear neither retards motion nor stings dirt.

Much of the same ground may be gone over on this subject which we went over on the last. With regard to the utility of the ear, it is not improbable that cropping it may injure the horse's hearing: there is certainly less concave surface to receive the vibrations of the air.—I have heard it also asserted with great confidence, that this mutilation injures his health: for when a horse has lost that pent-house which nature has given him over his ear, it is reasonable to believe the wind and rain may get in and give him cold.

But if these injuries are not easily proved, the injury he receives in point of beauty may strenuously be insisted on. Few of the minuter parts of animal nature are more beautiful than the ear of a horse, when it is neatly formed and well set on. The contrast of the lines is pleasing, the concavity and the convexity being generally seen together in the natural turn of the ear: nor is the proportion of the ear less pleasing; it is contracted at the inferior, swells in the middle, and tapers to a point. The ear of no animal is so beautifully proportioned. That of some brasts, especially of the savage kinds, as the lion, and pard, is naturally rounded, and has little form. The ears of other animals, as the fox, and cat, are pointed, short, and thick—

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Those of the cow are round and heavy. The hare's and ass's ears are long, and nearly of the same thickness. The dog, and swine have flapping ears. The sheep, alone has ears that can compare with the horse. The ear of the horse receives great beauty also from its colour, as well as form. The ears of bay and grey horses are generally tipped with black, which melts into the colour of the head. But the ear of the horse receives its greatest beauty from motion. The ear of no animal has that vibrating power. The ears of a spirited horse are continually in motion; quivering, and darting their sharp points towards every object that presents: and the action is still more beautiful, when the ears are so well set on, that the points are drawn nearly together. Virgil, who was amongst the most accurate observers of nature, takes notice of this quivering motion in the ears of a horse.

—Si qua sonum procul arma dedere,
Stare loco nescit; micat auribus—

The same word which he uses here to express the motion of a horse's ears, he uses elsewhere to express the gleaming of arms, the glittering of a gem, and the vibrating motion of a serpent's tongue. But it is not only the quivering motion of the horse's ears that we admire, we admire them also as the interpreters of his passions; particularly of fear, which some denominate

courage; and of anger or malice. The former he expresses by darting them forward; the latter, by laying them back.

This digression hath carried me much farther than I intended; but the mutilation of the tail and ears of this noble animal is so offensive to reason and common sense, that I have been imperceptibly led on by my indignation. Tho' nothing I can say on the subject, I am well persuaded, can weigh against the authority of grooms and jockies, so as to make a general reform; yet if, here and there, a small party could be raised in opposition to this strange custom, it might in time obtain fashion on its side. We commonly suppose, that when mankind in general agree in a point, there is truth. I believe no nation upon earth, except the English, have the custom among them, of docking, nicking, and cropping their horses. The wisdom too of all antiquity decides fully against the practice. Instances perhaps might be found in the bas-reliefs of the Antonine column, and other remains of Roman antiquity, both of the cropt ear and of the hogged-mane, (which I take for granted were never practiced except in cases of defect,) but I am persuaded, no one instance can be found in all the remains of Grecian, or Roman antiquity, of a *short dock, or a nag-tail.*

Historical Account of Marfeilles; by Lord Gardenstone *.

MARSEILLES is undoubtedly the most ancient city in France;—it was founded by a colony of Grecians several centuries before the Christian era—When the rest of Gaul was in a state of barbarity, Marfeilles long subsisted as an independant repub-

lic, governed by excellent laws;—flourishing and advancing in wealth and population by its great commerce, to such a degree, that at different periods they sent out colonies, founded and peopled other cities and towns, on or near the Mediterranean coast, particularly

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* From "his Travelling Memorandums, just published."

particularly Nice, Toulon, Hyeres, Antibes:—at length it was subjected by the Romans, and governed by a maritime prefect, sent annually from Rome—Cæsar's account of the siege of Marseilles is a precious morsel of their history.—They long enjoyed the important benefits of a free and independant republican state;—during that happy period, they not only flourished by commerce and opulence, but were also distinguished for learning, arts, and sciences.—The Greek language was spoken with high purity at Marseilles †.—Cicero celebrates their literary fame, and attests, that in his time the Romans sent their youth for education indifferently to the academies of Athens or to Marseilles.—With the loss of liberty, as usual, their glory and prosperity declined, and ceased to make a great figure in the world.—This city almost perished in the common ruin of the Roman empire, when conquered by the inundation of barbarous nations: yet in consequence of a singularly great and natural advantage of situation, they soon revived; and even during the dark ages of Gothic ignorance and tyranny, they continued to practise a very considerable and extensive commerce.—It is certain, and demonstrated by experience of ages and nations, that the government of petty princes is less favourable to the security and interests of society than the government of monarchs who possess great and extensive territories.—The race of great monarchs cannot possibly preserve a safe and undisturbed state of government, without many delegations of power and office to men of approved abilities and practical knowledge, who are subject to complaint, and responsible for their administration, or without an established system of laws and regu-

lations;—so that no inconsiderable degree of security and liberty to the subject is almost inseparable from, and essential to, the subsistence and duration of a great monarchy;—but it is usual for petty princes to practise an arbitrary and irregular exercise of power, by which their people are reduced to the condition of miserable slavery.—Indeed, very few of them, in the course of ages, are capable to conceive any other means to maintain the ostentatious state, the luxurious and indolent pride, which they mistake for greatness.—I heartily wish that this observation and censure may not, in some instances, be applicable to great landed proprietors in some parts of Britain.

One of the most pernicious consequences of the Gothic conquests was, a distribution of vast territories among their leaders or petty sovereigns, with the various titles of kings, princes, dukes, marquisses, counts, &c.—A great part of France was so divided and subdivided.—This country of Provence, comprehending Marseilles, was for ages governed by a race of counts;—though they had assemblies of the states, or parliaments, those assemblies never possessed any regulated or established constitution; and were no more than feudal head-courts of the superior, or over-lord, which he might call and dissolve at pleasure.—They were always either servile or tumultuary; and no real security or public advantage could arise from their unseated and undefined pretensions to rights and privileges.—The state of Britain was not, for ages, materially different. Marseilles languished under this government;—but ever since their union with the great monarchy of France they have been allowed to enjoy valuable public rights and municipal privileges;

† Their common language now is either a Celtic jargon, called *Patois*, or a mixture of a corrupted French and Italian;—but the better sort speak French properly.

privileges,—and they have made a wonderful progress in industry, population, and opulence.

Marseilles, since united to France, though locally part of Provence, is detached from it in regard to jurisdiction and the administration of government.—They elect their own magistrates, who have sufficient revenues and powers for internal police and good order.—The subsidies annually imposed by the king's edicts vary according to public exigencies, and are proportioned at certain fixed and established rates, on the different districts and communities of the whole province.—The proportion laid on this city is nearly one third of the whole subsidy.—It is not levied by arbitrary or discretionary powers of a farmer-general, but by equitable and moderate rules of valuation, long established, and under the authority of their own magistrates, which is exercised without either grievance or complaint.

No person here will admit that the government of France is an absolute and despotic monarchy;—and, in fact, no great city in Europe enjoys a milder administration of government, or feels a less burdensome taxation.—Really and substantially they possess all the advantages, comforts, and blessings of a republican state, without its disorders, and under the steady effectual protection of a powerful monarch.—Indeed, there can be no reasonable ground to suppose or suspect, that the system of their free government, so manifestly beneficial to the state of France, so well and so long established, can ever be shaken or overturned, or that any king or ministry will ever be so mad as to oppress and provoke a great community, whose successful application to arts and industry acquires ever-growing wealth to the whole kingdom from distant nations; and whose extensive trade is the grand pillar which supports the maritime power

of France.—With such benefits of government, and a situation most remarkably commodious for trade to all parts of the world, with the additional advantages of a fine fertile country, and a healthful climate, it is no wonder that the people of Marseilles do in reality enjoy an extraordinary and enviable measure of public prosperity and private happiness.

They reckon above two hundred thousand inhabitants;—yet the progress of building and population goes on rapidly.—Though the Old Town is ill-built, and indeed very nasty, it is mostly inhabited by a numerous, useful, and uncorrupted body of people;—fishermen, and their families.—They still preserve the simple manners, industry, and frugality of their remote ancestors.—Strangers may easily distinguish them from the rest of the people by their dress:—the ruddy freshness of their complexions, and by the appearance of their persons, which are visibly more hardy and robust.—They have been for ages past all memory an incorporated body, and have enjoyed certain privileges, which are regularly confirmed by letters patent from every king after his accession. In particular, they chuse their own judges, who are four in number, and are called *Les prudes hommes*.

The charge of a law-suit before them, by regulation strictly observed, cannot exceed two-pence halfpenny sterling to each party, and this sum is consigned when they enter the court.—Those rustic natural judges, selected by the people subject to their jurisdiction, have maintained an uniform reputation for the good sense and integrity of their determinations. I have an engagement to visit their court soon, and may set down farther remarks concerning them.

The New Town is undoubtedly one of the most beautiful in the world; the streets

* Lord Gardenstone was at Marseilles in 1786.

streets are clean, spacious, and extensive; the houses fine, regularly built, and commodious. The numerous inhabitants, besides many rich families who live in ease, gaiety, and luxury, are generally thriving merchants, manufacturers, tradesmen, or mariners. Their port exhibits the most admirable spectacle of commercial industry that can be seen or imagined. At present they reckon above two thousand ships in this harbour. The promiscuous and busy multitude, who crowd a fine extensive walk along the quay, have the appearance of a vast daily fair, formed by a constant resort of people of all nations and languages. Nothing can be more amusing to a curious traveller.

The trade of Marseilles may be said to be universal, and their manufactures are very considerable. They do not rival Lyons in the fine and magnificent fabrics of silk, fatten, and velvets; but they manufacture the same kind of stuffs from coarser and cheaper materials, which have a more general demand and vent in the various circles of commerce, especially at Martinico, and in the Levant. I fortunately became acquainted, and conversed with some of the first-rate merchants. They allow that the English excel in some articles, particularly in the manufactures of steel and leather;—but they pretend to have the advantage in others,—and they specify their printed cottons and soap.—They say they can undersell the English in many articles for the American market;—but that the capital advantage of the English hitherto lies in being able to sell on longer credits.—Besides those mentioned, they have great manufactories of sugar, glass, porcelain, oil, coral, &c.

Reflecting on the happy state of Marseilles, and other parts of France, I cannot forbear to set down an observation, which I am sure must arise in the mind of every worthy British man who has assumed into his heart the

noblest sentiment of humanity that ever was well expressed in words:

“ Homo sent, humani nihil a me alienum
“ puto.”

Such men, and many such there are in Great Britain, will rejoice to be undeceived in the prevailing opinion of a miserable and total slavery and despotic oppression in France—I fairly confess that I had long been one of the multitude of my countrymen who firmly believe that all the French, excepting their great people and clergy, are mere slaves, without protection of laws, or a secure enjoyment of property; that they all wear wooden shoes, and live upon brown bread and garlic.

Formerly the wines produced in this part of Provence were in no estimation, and, like other *vines du pays*, were consumed at very low prices by the common people; but within eight or ten years past, they have discovered and practised such improved methods of managing their vineyards, that they now make excellent wines, both red and white; which, in large quantities, are annually exported, mostly to their West India Islands. They even rival the Bourdeaux wines, and make no inconsiderable branch of trade.

Nov. 19th, On the Sabbath day, after divine service is over, they, it is thought, very properly hold their courts of justice here. This day, with my usual companion, I attended two of them; first, in the town hall, where I saw the Echevins, or Magistrates and their assessors, sitting in judgment. They tried and determined, both with proper deliberation and dispatch, several causes relative to the peace, good order, and police. I was next conducted to the *Jalle*, or chamber, where those remarkable judges called *les prudes hommes*, hold their courts. All the four judges were present. I was really charmed with the artless manner, the simple dignity, and the unaffected solemnity of their appearance.

pearance. I verily thought I saw in all their faces a great degree of natural sagacity and integrity; and I doubted not that their community had selected their fittest men. They have no dress or robe of distinction. Shakespear says, "Robes and furr'd gowns hide all defects." These artificial ornaments of power and office are unnecessary, when natural merit and probity in public service command respect. They observe no forms; they admit no pleaders; but they hear and interrogate the parties, and, if necessary, examine witnesses; like the Roman *judices pedanei*, they determine in the most summary manner, and parties are generally satisfied. These judges had anciently a jurisdiction to

try criminal cases, and even to inflict capital punishment; but their power has for a long time been limited to the preservation of peace among fishers, and to all civil questions concerning fisheries within a certain territory. In all competent cases, their determinations are final, and without any appeal. My conductor told them that I was a judge in a far distant country; upon which they all paid respects to me, in a very obliging manner. One of them attended me, to show and describe some ornaments and pictures in their hall, which I did not admire. He was the senior judge, and an excellent looking man; but he spoke a sort of Patois language, which I did not understand without my interpreter.

Remarks on some of the most eminent French Dramatic Authors;—by the Same.

Lyres, Feb. and March 1786.

I Have read the dramatic works of Crebillon, which are all tragedies, and generally esteemed as next in merit to those of Corneille and Racine. As a specimen of laconic biography, which expresses in few, but perspicuous words, only what is memorable, I set down a short account of his life, character, and writings. Though a poet of strong and high imagination, he was a very modest and reserved man: so being unqualified to impose upon the great and rich by flattery and insinuating arts, he was always poor. He had no share of the political assurance and crafty address of his successor in dramatic fame, Mons. Voltaire; yet, in my opinion, he had a greater share of true poetic fire and fancy. He was a very singular example of longevity.— Though a man of pleasure in his youth; though a remarkable gormandiser through life; though addicted for more than fifty years to the ill habit of smoking tobacco in excess, he lived, with talents unimpaired, to the

age of eighty-nine. He could never be induced, though often urged by his friends, to correct his compositions.— It is certain, that our great Shakespeare had such an aversion to corrections, perhaps for similar reasons, which are thus significantly and elegantly expressed by Crebillon.— "*Je n'ai jamais eu grand foi aux corrections; la plupart ne font que des fautes nouvelles: lorsque on n'est plus dans la chaleur des premieres idees, on ne put trop se desier des secondes.—Je n'ai pu me garantir d'un vice que nous est commun a tous, et qui est la veritable source de nos dereglemens poetiques.—Je veux dire l'impatience, quelques fois l'entêtement et plus souvent l'orgueil.*" —i. e. I never had great faith in corrections and amendments: for the most part, they only turn out to be a repetition of faults. When the fervour of a poet's first ideas is spent, he cannot be too diffident of cool reflection, or second thoughts. To confess a truth too, I have never been able to correct infirmities in myself,

“myself, which are common to us all, and which are the real sources of our poetical disorders;—I mean impatience, sometimes obstinacy, and most of all our pride.” There is a short, but admirable passage in his preface to the tragedy of *Idoménée*, which I must set down, as containing more sense than many volumes of criticism which I have read.—He says, “*Ceux qui sont doués d’un génie beaux peuvent des leçons dans leurs propres talens; ceux qui en sont dénués n’ont besoin que d’un seul précepte, c’est ne point écrire.*”—That is, “those who are endowed by nature with the true and happy genius of poetry, derive the best rules of excellence in composition from their own talents; those who are destitute of genius have but one precept to observe, and that is, Not to write at all.” I submit to those who are qualified to determine, and even to readers of common sense, if there is not more sound, satisfactory judgment, and true taste, in this single observation, than in all the scientific, laboured, artificial rules which can be found in all the works of our modern critics, with Voltaire at their head, and Warburton at their tail.

Remarks upon some of Crébillon’s Tragedies.

THE IDOMENÉE.

“*Incredulous Odi.*”—Though it has poetical merit, this and such plays must appear utterly ridiculous to those who have formed their taste on the writings of Shakespeare, and not upon fantastical or metaphysical rules of criticism. We cannot feel ourselves interested by incredible fable and romantic love, though we may admire the splendid diction and fine flowing poetry. The perfectly singular genius of Shakespeare infuses indeed probability into the wildest fables, and forms the characters of nature in monsters, necromancers, fairies, and witch-

es, though he generally chooses to adopt plots which are entirely credible or historical, and characters of real life highly displayed and embellished by his extraordinary powers.

THE ATREE AND THYESTE.

This play has many poetical beauties, and is less romantic than the former. The provocation was outrageous, and the revenge, though extravagant, is not unatural.

THE ELECTRE.

We can hardly form a precise opinion of a piece so complicated in the plot, and so various in the composition,—yet I can admire, in many passages, and even in some whole scenes, the poetical talents and genius of this author.

The rhyming in French plays, is certainly a great impediment to just and natural dramatic composition, which ought to exhibit a true, though elevated, image of real character and conversation. Shakespeare alone seems to have possessed this faculty in perfection, which, probably, his matchless genius could never have attained, had he been subjected to the fetters of rhyme, and to the scientific rules of criticism. Our modern emendators of Shakespeare, shamefully encouraged by the multitude who fill our theatres, illustrate his superior judgment and abilities in drawing and supporting true characters, by their absurd and affected refinements, in their attempts to reform his plays. I mark a strong instance of this false taste; one Tate, a dull rhymers, has transformed the hardy and pliant, though prodigal, bastard in *King Lear*, into a whining modern French lover. Had Tate’s bastard been in the original play, it is evident he would have softened the rigour of Voltaire’s criticisms, which are levelled at the want of refinement in Shakespeare. As a specimen of Tate’s refinements, his bastard dies in pretty, feeble rhymes; they are too contemptible

contemptible for recollection, or insertion here; but I remember that he is quite charmed to lose his *breath*, when he sees two fine princesses contend for him in death!—Of a piece, is the studied, hard-strained speech of Garrick's expiring Romeo,

Rom. My pow'rs are blasted.
Twixt death and love I'm torn—I am distracted!

But death's strongest—and I must leave thee, Juliet!

Oh cruel, curst fate! in fight of heav'n.

Jul. Thou rav'st—lean on my breast.

Rom. Fathers have flinty hearts, no tears can melt 'em.

Nature pleads in vain—Children must be wretched.—

Jul. Oh, my breaking heart—

Rom. She is my wife—Our hearts are twin'd together.—

Capulet, Forbear.—Paris, loose your hold.—

Pull not our heart-strings about—they crack—they break.—

Oh Juliet! Juliet!

Jul. Stay, stay for me, Romeo.—

A moment stay; fate marries us in death,
And we are one,—no power shall part us."

Faints on Romeo's body.

I have often witnessed a wonderful applause to this dying sustian.

Colly Cibber was less injurious to Shakespeare. He did not presume, like Garrick, to compose additional passages in his original plays; yet he compiled a play, and called it his own Richard the Third, though all the valuable materials of it are drawn from Shakespeare's works. This sort of plagiarism is singular, and in many passages evidently incongruous, by misapplications. As one example, Cibber, for a dying speech to King Richard, borrows the highly-animated execrations of Northumberland, uttered when he was in the full vigour of life, and enraged at the news he had just received of his heroic son Percy's death.—The passage is so admirable, and so rough in the style of Shakespeare's excellence, that I cannot forbear to set it down.

"Let Heav'n kiss earth! now let not Nature's hand
Keep the wild flood confin'd! Let order die!

And let this world no longer be a stage,
To feed contention in a ling'ring act,
But let one spirit of the first-born Cain
Reign in all bosoms, that, each heart being
set

On bloody courses, the rude scene may end,
And darkness be the burier of the dead."

If ever a just and sensible taste become generally prevalent, we shall restore Shakespeare's original works, damn the bulk of his critics, and expel all his emendators from our theatres.

Hycris, Feb. and March 1787. I have now read, with much attention and pleasure, the plays of Corneille. Voltaire's commentaries have a wonderful resemblance to ours upon Shakespeare. They are, for the most part, verbal criticisms and quaint refinements, extremely strained, and often extremely absurd, always laid down in the stile of dogmatical propositions, and scientific rules, and ill suited to the high genius of both these poets.

I do not question at all that Voltaire's criticisms on words and expressions are just and accurate. We are not inclined to trace a nice and critical propriety of language in the writings of authors allowed to be of the highest rank; our search is for genius; we find it in Corneille. Voltaire's comparison of him to our Shakespeare is neither judiciously nor fairly drawn. He does justice to neither.—Though at evident pains, he is yet unable to disguise a peevish envy at his countryman's great fame, and a remarkably partial prejudice against the English poet. It is perfectly evident, that he did not sufficiently understand the language, and consequently could not discern the beauties of Shakespeare; yet he pronounces many intolerable censures on him, in the tone of an absolute and authorised judge. It seems very clear, that if Corneille had been able, from the nature of his language and the taste of his contemporaries, to disengage himself from rhyme and rigid critical rules, he would have resembled Shakespeare more than he does.

If Shakespeare had laboured under the prodigious constraint of rhyme*, had he been constrained by a systematical art of poetry, as it is called, he would have resembled Corneille very much. However, there is a force of genius in Corneille which often surmounts the derangements of rhyme and rule. Then he is the great dramatic poet, and perfectly resembles Shakespeare, who subjected himself to no rules but such as his own native genius and judgment prescribed. To this auspicious liberty we chiefly owe the singular pleasure of reading his matchless works, and of seeing his wonderfully various and natural characters occasionally performed by excellent actors of both sexes.

It is extremely remarkable that a player never fails to acquire both fame and fortune by excelling in the proper and natural performance, even of low parts in Shakespeare's capital plays, such as Sir Simole, the grave-diggers, Lancelot, Dogberry, the Nurse in Romeo, Mrs Quickly, Mine Host of the Garter, down to Doll Tear-sheet, Bardolph, and Pistol, because true pictures of nature must ever please. The genius of a great painter is as much distinguished by an insect, as a hero, by a simple cottage, as by a gorgeous palace.—In the course of reading Corneille's plays, I have been remarkably struck with a pleasing recollection of similar beauties in Shakespeare. Of this I set down one example: After two of the three Horatii were killed, the surviving brother, dexterous retreat was reported at Rome as an ignominious defeat and flight. Old Horatius pours forth his rage and maledictions against the degenerate boy in high strains of poetry, and in the true character of a heroic Roman father. A friend offers rational arguments for the young man, and concludes with saying "what could he do against such odds?" the noble answer is, "*Pe could have*

"*died.*" Voltaire tells us, that this sublime passage is always received by the audience at Paris with bursts of applause—much to their credit. I am sure, the just admirers of Shakespeare may find similar beauties in his plays. One occurs to me; it is one of his least esteemed pieces, Henry VI. Part II. Scene ii.—Lord Somerset, in company with other leaders, finding their friend, the gallant Warwick, mortally wounded on the field of battle, exclaims,

"O Warwick, Warwick, wert thou as we are,
We might recover all our loss again.
The Queen from France hath brought a
 puiſſant pow'r,
Even now we heard the news,—O couldst
 thou fly."

The Heroic Briton's answer is,

"Why then I would not fly."

Perhaps at the hazard of seeming tedious, if ever these notes should be published,—my real and hearty admiration for Shakespeare pushes me, irresistibly, into further remarks on Voltaire's ill-conceived criticisms. He has partly translated Shakespeare's excellent play of Julius Cæsar, which he strangely proposes, to his countrymen, and all foreigners, as a proper and fair specimen upon which they may form a judgment of the original author's genius, and be fully enabled to compare him with Corneille. In a Note on page 2. of this feeble translation, he says, "*il faut savoir que Shakespeare avoit un peu d'éducation, qu'il avoit le malheur d'être réduit à être comédien, qu'il sollicitoit plaire au peuple, que le peuple plus riche en Angleterre qu'ailleurs fréquente les spectacles, et que Shakespeare le servoit selon son goût.*" i. e. It must be remarked, that Shakespeare had little benefit of education, that he was unfortunately reduced to become a comedian; that he found it necessary to please the populace, who in England are richer than in other coun-

* This is Voltaire's expression.

“trials, and frequent the theatres; and Shakespeare served them with entertainments to their taste.” In another place, he says that Shakespeare introduced low characters and scenes of buffoonery, to please the people, and to get money. I venture to aver, on full conviction of my own mind, that these imputations are rash, and even grossly false and injurious. Shakespeare’s low characters have so curious and so perfect a resemblance to nature, that they must always please, as I have observed, like master-pieces in painting; and moreover, they never fail to illustrate and enliven the great characters. Take away the odd, humorous, natural characters and scenes of Falstaff, Poinz, Bardolph, Pistol, Mrs Quickly, &c. in his two plays of Henry the IV. and particularly the common soldier Williams, in his play of Henry the V. and I venture to affirm, that you at once extinguish more than one half of our cordial esteem and admiration of that favourite hero. In the same manner, exchange from the play of Julius Cæsar the representation of a giddy, sickle, and degenerate Roman mob, and you diminish, in a very great degree, our estimation of the two noble republican characters, — the honest, sincere, philosophical Brutus, and his brave, able, and ambitious friend Cassius. The just admirers, and frequent readers of Shakespeare, will, on their own reflections, and without farther explanation, find that these observations, though, as far as I know, they are new, are clearly applicable to every one of his plays, in which low characters are introduced. Shakespeare was incapable to deviate from the truth of nature and character to please the great, or soothe the vulgar; and no dramatic writer ever treated the common people with so much contempt. His scenes, in ridicule of them, are as exquisite as they are various; though Voltaire ignorantly says he courted their favour. O! this the ludicrous characters,

and true comic drollery of Dogberry the constable, and his low associates, in the play of Much Ado About Nothing, is one proof; there is still a more precious scene, of the same kind, in that part of his play of Henry the Sixth, where Jack Cade and his gang deliberate on a reformation of the stage: this is a singular piece of comedy and ridicule of low life, applicable to all periods and all nations; it has that character of eternal nature, which distinguishes Shakespeare; it describes to the life, the folleries of free and ignorant people in all ages. There is no judgment in Voltaire’s reflection on Shakespeare, “that he was reduced to become a comedian,” a circumstance which certainly improved his great natural talents as a dramatic writer.

Moliere, who far excelled all French comic writers, was also a player. The native genius and judgment of both poets derived material advantages from experience and knowledge in the theatrical representations of human nature. Voltaire himself was studious of the art, and practised it often. One circumstance must be sufficient to convince all sensible foreigners of Voltaire’s wilful and partial misrepresentation of Shakespeare. What I mean is, that he singly contradicts the unanimous opinion of all British people for a course of more than two centuries. An imperfect judge of the Spanish language might as reasonably attempt to deny the merit of Cervantes, and produce a model of a flat, liberal translation by himself, as sufficient evidence to discredit him. Not only the common people in Britain, but all their superiors, wife and unwise, all the poets, great and small, all the critics, good and bad, concur without a dissenting voice, in admiration of Shakespeare, as an unrivalled dramatic poet. Even Pope, (though, like Voltaire, bedazzled by the immoderate praise of his contemporaries of all ranks, though, like him, proud of his

harmonious

harmonious rhimes; and his *art of poetry*,) joined in the general veneration, and published an edition of his works, with humble notes, which are not so absurd as Warburton's.—Flies swarm in the sun-beams, or, to use Shakspeare's expression, “Whither fly the gnats but to the sun?” Shakspeare has been plied by commentators and critics more than all the rest of our poets together. Among the crowd I can distinguish very few.—The author of the *Canons of Criticism* writes, in my opinion, with superior propriety, judgment, and taste; and he lashes Warburton most justly. An eminent lady, Mrs Montague, has also distinguished herself in the list.—She writes with true discernment and elegance. I only object, that she treats Voltaire with more complaisance than he deserved. I concur with those who allow that Samuel Johnson possessed uncommonly strong powers, both of thinking and expression; but surely he was not sufficiently unprejudiced and liberal in his knowledge of human life, and he was too formally scientific, to merit the character of a sound and unexceptionable critic, on so great a master of truth and nature

as Shakspeare was. Indeed, his opinions of our poets, particularly of the immortal Milton, are evidently warped and affected by the avowed bigotry of his principles in regard to church and state; yet he warmly joins the general applause. Voltaire invites his countrymen to judge of Shakspeare's merit by his morsel of literal translation, made, to use his own words, *not pour moi*; and then he adds, (with astonishing levity), these words; “*Je n'ai qu'un mot à ajouter; c'est que les vers blancs ne content que la peine de les dicter, cela n'est pas plus difficile qu'une lettre.*”—i. e. “I have only a word to add, that is, that compositions in blank verse cost only the trouble of dictating them, which is as easy as a familiar letter.” No man of common sense can wonder that a literal translation, *not pour moi*, and written, as Voltaire boasts, with the indolence and ease of a familiar epistle should be totally inadequate to convey any just idea of original genius.—Yet I own I have been surprised to meet with some Frenchmen of reputation for taste and parts, who form their opinions on such a translation and such authority.

Method of using the Cold Bath to most Advantage.

“Fies nobilium tu quoque Fontium.”

SIR, HOK. 3. Carm. xiii. 13.

THE intention of the following lines will be a sufficient apology for troubling you with them. I hope and trust the hints they contain may make them worthy the attention of many of your readers, as well as contribute to the health and comfort of some individuals of that number; than which nothing can be more gratifying to the writer, whose sole view in their publication is the benefit of those who seek, what they deserve, Health.

The important good consequences of Cold-bathing need nothing said at this time of day to recommend it to the notice of the debilitated. The experience of mankind has taught its uses and effects; which have been further sanctioned by many writers, and some of the most eminent in the medical world, who have at different times very ably employed their pens on its subject. To the latter for its virtues, and to the present enlightened Faculty for the propriety of its use individually, the application of invalids is recommended. When that is determined,

finned, it is the mode only I am about to prescribe.

Waving, therefore, every endeavour at attempting to offer any thing new on the general subject, as to the medical powers of the Cold Bath, I shall only briefly relate what led me to use the mode recommended below; what were its effects on myself; and on some others who, by my advice, have been in the habit of using it; adding a few practical hints, which, I hope, will make an operation, very frightful to many, not only pleasanter, but much more effectually, and, I hope, more extensively, useful.

From a natural delicacy in my constitution, and wishing to enjoy what one would almost think some people thought not worth having, I have been long accustomed to this remedy, and have the greatest reason to think I owe much comfort to its friendly aid. Sea-bathing, if my attentive observation has not deceived me, in general, has been more certainly advantageous in its tonic powers; but whether that superiority arises only from its holding saline particles dissolved, or whether the large body of water the sea contains is at all contributing, or if any thing is particularly due to its comparative specific gravity; whether the purity of the air breathed during its use compared with that of a crowded city, and the relaxation of the mind from business, and the amusement enjoyed in a large society, where every member seems disposed to be and to make happy, has not each its demand; which separately has the greatest claim, it would perhaps be hard to determine, while it must be allowed that each has its merit. Something probably is due to its impregnation; but the sum of all these circumstances co-operating, no doubt, fills the measure of its effects; and in its use likewise, as well from my own observation, as from the information of others, whose constitutions were alike tender; I have learned there is much less chance of taking cold, an accident

to which the most tender are, even with the greatest care and circumspection, occasionally exposed in using the Cold Bath in the usual way. This circumstance has induced me for some years past to recommend, in the dipping weakly children at a distance from the sea, the addition of as much sea or bay salt to the water as would make the solution nearly as salt, or rather a little saltier than sea-water; and the event has ever fully rewarded the practice, and substantiated the preference; for I have seen some unhealthy children more benefited by a few weeks bathing in this way than by months in fresh-water; and others, who have received no benefit by fresh long continued, very soon get colour, spirits, and strength, from a change to the salted. The formation of such a bath was easy for infants, but less manageable for adults. To avoid, therefore, in the common method of using the Cold Bath, such temporary interruptions to its use, and their disagreeable consequences, which I have frequently known to be a continual distress to the too quickly apprehensive mind of the valetudinarian; and studious myself to enjoy that luxury as often as possible, with every advantage to be derived from any improvement my fancy could suggest; it claimed much of my attention: and many schemes, some inconvenient, and others impracticable, occurred, till the following presented itself to my mind; and, after long use, I have the pleasure to think it highly deserving of notice, as it seems to give the fresh-water Cold Bath some of the properties of sea-bathing, and to me that satisfactory incentive to its use, the recollection of never having caught cold since it was adopted. It has still another advantage or two of its own; the first and not the smallest of which is, that by it, the towel's being rendered rougher, the friction, in drying after the bath, is increased; and what is, I fear, too often neglected, I mean the rubbing by those with whom

whom it should be particularly a matter of the first consequence (the tender and chilly,) who are generally those who are apt to be too much in a hurry to get on their cloaths, and by that means frequently take cold. For their sakes, now that friction is the subject, viewing the importance of that part of the operation, it would seem wrong to proceed without urging the practice of it to a much greater extent than is customary, and that immediately before as well as after bathing.

I believe, from my own experience, that the good effects of this remedy will, in many cases, be considerably increased, if, before the immersion, the body and extremities be well rubbed for a few minutes with a flesh-brush. To the notice of those afflicted with chronic rheumatism, as well as to the shivering fever, it is very earnestly recommended. The stay of the delicate and those with tender bowels in the water should be very short; the more robust may indulge longer. The other, and perhaps not less important advantage, is that of using their own towels (which should be as coarse and rough as can be borne,) untainted with the excrementitious discharges of the skins of a multitude, and perhaps often negligently washed; the truth of which no very nice degree of perfection in the olfactory nerves is necessary to discover in the clean towels of a public bath. Except in this circumstance, perhaps no public baths in the world exceed in their conveniences and perfection those of London, as far as I have been able to learn.

The practice alluded to, and which I can now with confidence recommend, is that of impregnating the towels with sea salt, by dipping them in a solution of the salt in water, and then drying them. The solution I have used is four ounces to a quart of water: a coarse hand towel of the common size, by being thoroughly

wetted in this solution, when dried, acquires an increase of weight of about an ounce, consequently contains that quantity of sea salt, which is as much, perhaps, as is necessary, or as would be pleasant. The solution may be repeated, after three or four times using them, by those who are satisfied with one set of towels some time, as easily as once by the more nice. The roughness given to the cloths, when dry, by the salt, assisted probably by the stimulus of the salt itself, adds very considerably to the much-to-be-wished-for glow. And as in the action of rubbing the body some of the salt becomes dissolved by the drops hanging to the skin, and is of course spread over the whole surface of the body, and is partly absorbed; so that absorption, which is perhaps more alive during the empty state in which bathing is generally recommended, are to be attributed the good effects of medicated baths, both natural and artificial. The common shower-bath will be much improved in its efficacy by the addition of a proper quantity of salt in its water.

What is in the present case the immediate rationale of its action, or to what cause is to be attributed the preference of sea over fresh water, as it is not the professed design of this paper, we wish to leave undiscussed. The safest means of applying a powerful and pleasant remedy to the diseased, the result of experience, being all we intended, the *modus operandi* is left for a more able directed pen. It may be that the stimulus given by the saline particles to the cuticular glands, by its absorption, may not be the smallest of its causes, especially when it is recollected how extensive is its application, and at the same time the great importance of the functions of the absorbing surface. How powerful frequently is the application of a solution of some of the neutral salts in local glandular affections topically applied! Another circumstance, worth notice

in an enquiry of this kind, is the effect of some neutral salts in fresh-drawn blood; an example of which every winter affords in a well-known culinary preparation of hog's blood; I mean, that of preventing its coagulation. In the extremities and minute sanguiferous vessels, where the circulation must necessarily be very weak and slow, on account of their great distance from the source of its motion, its moving power, and especially in those of the skin, when exposed to cold air in such situations; may not somewhat like a disposition to coagulation exist? and may not the introduction of such particles do away an approaching evil? Perhaps instinct first recommended the use of that material with our food for some such wise purpose; the practice will be found, upon recollection, very general, and gives a probability to such an idea. The learned and ingenious Bishop of Landaff has said, in his "Chemical Essays," that the salt in sea water applied to the skin is not absorbed. I confess myself of a different opinion. That some of it is

absorbed I am convinced; or why is not rain, or any other pure water, equally efficacious, applied to seropulous glands?

Before the subject be entirely quitted, the writer wishes to submit it to the experience of the medical world, to determine how far this mode of absorption may be usefully applied in a variety of cases requiring the various baths which nature has, probably for human ills, provided in different parts of the world, and which are too frequently, from some circumstance or other, not within the reach or power of those to whom they would no doubt be of great service; and to add that, in more than one instance, he has applied with the above saline solution some few drops of the *sulf. ferri mar.* he thinks with some success in some cases where chalybeates seemed to promise relief. The *Materia Medica* will readily supply, through the medium of Chemistry, a fund of powerful topicks to the ingenious Physician.

Remarks on the Island of Hinzuau or Johanna; by Sir William Jones.
(Continued from p. 389.)

SO bad an account had been given me of the road over the mountains, that I dissuaded my companions from thinking of the journey, to which the captain became rather disinclined; but as I wished to be fully acquainted with a country which I might never see again, I wrote the next day to Salim, requesting him to lend me one palanquin, and to order a sufficient number of men; he sent me no written answer, which I ascribed rather to his incapacity than to rudeness; but the Governor, with Alwi and two of his sons, came on board in the evening, and said, that they had seen my letters; that all should be ready; but that I could not pay less for the men

than ten dollars. I said, I would pay more, but it should be to the men themselves, according to their behaviour. They returned somewhat dissatisfied, after I had played at chess with Alwi's younger son, in whose manner and address there was something remarkably pleasing.

Before sun-rise on the 2d of August, I went alone on shore, with a small basket of such provisions as I might want in the course of the day, and with some cushions to make the prince's palanquin at least a tolerable vehicle; but the prince was resolved to receive the dollars to which his men were intitled; and he knew that, as I was eager for the journey, he could

Method of using the Cold Bath to most Advantage.

onious rhimes; and his art of
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tors and critics more than all the rest
of poets together. Among the
dead I can distinguish very few.—
The author of the *Canons of Criti-*
cism writes, in my opinion, with fu-
l propriety, judgment, and taste;
and rebukes Warburton most justly.
The eminent lady, Mrs Montague, has
distinguished herself in the list.—
She writes with true discernment and
decorum. I only object, that she treats
the subject with more complaisance than
is deserved. I concur with those
who allow that Samuel Johnson pos-
sessed uncommonly strong powers, both
in thinking and expression; but surely
as not sufficiently unprejudiced
liberal in his knowledge of hu-
man life, and he was too formally sci-
entific, to merit the character of a
bold and unexceptionable critic, on
what is a master of truth and nature

as Shakespeare was. Indeed
the opinions of our poets, particu-
larly the immortal Milton, are
warped and affected by the
bigotry of his principles in
church and state; yet he won
the general applause. Vokair
his countrymen to judge
Shakespeare's merit by his most
translation, made, to use
his words, *not pour moi; and*
adds, (with astonishing
words; " *Je n'ai qu'un mot:*
c'est que les vers blancs n'
ont la peine de les dicter, et
plus difficile qu'une lettre
" have only a word to a
" that compositions in blank
" only the trouble of dic-
" which is as easy as a far
No man of common sense
that a literal translation,
and written, as Vokair
the indolence and care
epistle should be totally
convey any just idea of a
—Yet I own I have be-
met with some French
tation for taste and pro-
their opinions on such
and such authority.

Method of using the Cold Bath to most Advantage.

Fies nobilium tu quoque Fontium.
HOR. 3. Carm. xiii. 13.
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which

The important go-
of Cold bathing need
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afe relief. The *Ma-*
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m.

by Sir William Jones.

dollars. I said, I would pay
or it should be to the mil-
ves, according to their har-

They returned somewhat dis-
d, after I had played at cards
Alm's younger son, in whose
ner and admits there was some-
g remarkably perfect.

before for me on the 2d of Dec-
I went alone on horse, with a
saddle of fresh provisions, and I
in the morning, and
with time of day, and
a horse or two, and
but a more rapid
the day, and
the day, and
a day, and
and

the frigate, where he had been, according to his custom, in disguise, and had heard of me from his son Shaik Hamdulah." I gave him an account of my journey, and extolled the beauties of his country: he put many questions concerning mine, and professed great regard for my nation. "But I hear," said he, "that you are a magistrate, and consequently profess peace; why are you armed with a broad sword?" "I was a man," I said, "before I was a magistrate; and if it should ever happen that law could not protect me, I must protect myself."—He seemed about sixty years old, had a very cheerful countenance, and a great appearance of good-nature mixed with a certain dignity which distinguished him from the crowd of ministers and officers who attended him. Our conversation was interrupted by notice, that it was the time for evening prayer; and when he rose he said, "This house is yours, and I will visit you in it after you have taken some refreshment." Soon after his servants brought a roast fowl, a rice-pudding, and some other dishes, with papayas and very good pomegranates; my own waiter supplied the rest of the supper. The room was hung with old red cloth, and decorated with pieces of porcelain and dozens of English bottles: the lamps were placed on the ground in large sea shells; and the bed-place was a recess, concealed by a chintz hanging, opposite to the sofa on which he had been sitting. Though it was not a place that invited repose, and the gnats were inexpressibly troublesome, yet the fatigue of the day produced me a comfortable slumber. I was awaked by the return of the king and his train; some of whom were Arabs, for I heard one say, "Huwa rahid," or, He is sleeping; there was an immediate silence, and I passed the night with little disturbance except from the unwelcome songs of the musquitos. In the morning I was equally silent and solitary; the house appeared to be de-

serted, and I began to wonder what was become of Tumuni: he came at length, with a concern on his countenance, and told me that the bearers had run away in the night; but that the king, who wished to see me in another of his houses, would supply me with bearers, if he could not prevail on me to stay till a boat could be sent for. I went immediately to the king, who I found sitting on a raised sofa in a large room, the walls of which were adorned with sentences from the Koran in very legible characters: about fifty of his subjects were seated on the ground in a semicircle before him, and my interpreter took his place in the midst of them. The good old king laughed heartily when he heard the adventure of the night, and said,—“You will now be my guest for a week, I hope; but seriously, if you must return soon, I will send into the country for some peasants to carry you.” He then apologized for the behaviour of Shaik Salim, which he had heard from Tumuni, who told me afterwards he was much displeas'd with it, and would not fail to express his displeasure: he concluded with a long harangue on the advantages which the English might derive from sending a ship every year from Bombay to trade with his subjects; and on the wonderful cheapness of their commodities, especially of their corns. Ridiculous as the idea may seem, it showed an enlargement of the mind, a desire to promote the interest of his people, and a sense of the benefits arising from trade, which could only have been expected from a petty African chief, and which, if he had been sovereign of Yemen, might have been expanded into rational projects, proportioned to the extent of his dominions. I answered, that I was imperfectly acquainted with the commerce of India; but that I would report the substance of his conversation, and would ever bear testimony of his noble zeal for the good of his country, and

to the mildness with which he governed it. As I had no inclination to pass a second night in the island, I requested leave to return without waiting for bearers: he seemed very sincere in pressing me to lengthen my visit, but had too much Arabian politeness to be importunate. We therefore parted; and at the request of Tumani, who assured me that little time would be lost in showing attention to one of the worthiest men in Hinzuau, I made a visit to the governor of the town, whose name was Mutckka: his manners were very pleasing, and he shewed me some letters from the officers of the Brilliant, which appeared to flow warm from the heart, and contained the strongest eulog of his courtesy and liberality. He insisted on filling my baskets with some of the finest pomegranates I had ever seen; and I left the town impressed with a very favourable opinion of the king and his governor. When I reascended the hill attended by many of the natives, one of them told me in Arabic, that I was going to receive the highest mark of distinction that it was in the king's power to shew me; and he had scarce ended, when I heard the report of a single gun: Shaikh Achmed had saluted me with the whole of his ordnance. I waved my hat, and said, "Allah Aebar." The people shouted, and I continued my journey, not without fear of inconvenience from the excessive heat and the fatigue of climbing rocks. The walk, however, was not on the whole unpleasant. I sometimes rested in the valleys, and forded all the rivulets, which refreshed me with their coolness, and supplied me with exquisite water to mix with the juice of my pomegranates, and occasionally with brandy. We were overtaken by some peasants, who came from the hills by a nearer way, and brought the

king's present of a cow with her calf, and a she-goat with two kids: they had apparently been selected for their beauty, and were brought safe to Bengal. The prospects which had so greatly delighted me the preceding day had not yet lost their charms, tho' they wanted the recommendation of novelty; but I must confess, that the most delightful object in that day's walk of near ten miles was the black frigate, which I discerned at sunset from a rock near the prince's gardens. Close to the town, I was met by a native, who, perceiving me to be weary, opened a fine cocoa-nut, which afforded me a delicious draught: he informed me, that one of his countrymen had been punished that afternoon for a theft on-board the Crocodile; and added, that in his opinion the punishment was no less just, than the offence was disgraceful to his country. The offender, as I afterwards learned, was a youth of a good family who had married a daughter of old Alwi; but being left alone for a moment in the cabin, and seeing a pair of blue morocco slippers, could not resist the temptation, and concealed them so ill under his gown, that he was detected with the manner. This proves that no principle of honour is instilled by education into the gentry of this island: even Alwi, when he had observed, that "in the month of Ramadan it was not lawful to paint with *hinna*, or to tell lies;" and when I asked, whether both were lawful all the rest of the year, answered, that "lies were innocent, if no man was injured by them." Tumani took his leave, as well satisfied as myself with our excursion: I told him before his master, that I transferred also to him the dollars which were due to me out of the three guineas; and that if ever they should part, I should be very glad to receive him into my service in India.

(To be concluded in our next.)

Account of some remarkable Insects in the Island of Dominica.*

THE principal and most remarkable of the reptiles and insects in Dominica, are snakes, lizzards, wood-slaves, guanas, frogs, grugru worms, borer worms, centipèdes, scorpions, spiders, sawyer flies, blacksmith flies, loggerhead flies, Spaniard flies, freemason flies, the wood-horse, and vegetable flies.

Some of the snakes are small, and others very large and thick. Of the last sort is that called by the French, "Tete du chien," or Dog's head snake, from its head, which much resembles that of a dog. Some have been caught in this island that measured upwards of twelve feet in length, and as thick as a man's leg. They have long, sharp teeth; their skins are scaled and beautifully spotted, and they have at the end of their tails a blunt-pointed, horny substance, which enables them to climb the trees.

The bite of these snakes is not venomous, nor is that of any kind of them in this island; but the tete du chien does much mischief among the birds in the woods; and on the plantations they frequently devour the fowls and other poultry. They will swallow a full-grown fowl with its feathers, and several of them have been killed there with both a large fowl and an Indian coney entire in their bowels.

A remarkable circumstance, which happened in this Island some time ago, deserves to be noticed in this place. A negro retiring from work one day at noon, instead of going home to get his dinner, fell asleep under a shady tree; and being missing at the time the other negroes assembled together to finish their daily task, it caused a suspicion that some accident had befallen him; they accordingly went in search of him, and found him asleep, with one of his legs up to the thick

part of his thigh, in the jaws of a large snake. Awakened by their noise, he was in the greatest terror; and struggling to get disengaged, was severely bit by the animal; to prevent this as much as possible, wedges were placed between its jaws, whilst they cut it to pieces; by which means only he could be released. This operation took up some time, which, together with the length of time his leg and thigh had already been in the belly and jaws of the snake, reduced them almost to a state of digestion; and it was not till a considerable while after, that he recovered the entire use of them.

The fat of these snakes is esteemed an excellent remedy for the rheumatism, or for sprains, by rubbing it mixed with strong rum. Their flesh is eaten by many, particularly by the French, some of whom are very fond of it; but it is reckoned unwholesome, and to occasion the leprosy.

The sawyer fly, so called from its faculty of sawing asunder the branches of trees, whose substance is its food, is about three inches in length when full grown, and is a very singular insect. Its head has somewhat the appearance of an elephant, it having a horny bill, like the proboscis of that animal, bending upwards from the under part, with another, pointing downwards from the upper part of its head, both of a jet black, and of a fine polish. On the inner surface of the upper bill are raised points like the teeth of a saw, which are used by the insect in the same manner. Its body is like that of a beetle, but considerably larger, with double wings, the inner of which is like coarse gauze; and its legs are armed at each joint with crooked, sharp nails, with the same on each toe, like a bird.

The process of this insect in sawing

* From "Atwood's History of Dominica."

ing down branches of trees is really admirable, but it is hardly possible to form an idea of the manner of doing it without a description. This work it performs, by encircling the branch with its bills, the points of which it fastens well into the wood, and turning round it briskly by the strength of its wings, which make a loud buzzing noise, it in a short time saws the branch asunder. They are by many called elephant flies, from the great resemblance of their heads to that animal; they are perfectly harmless, and are caught only to be kept as curiosities.

The blacksmith fly, is so called from its making a noise resembling in sound the striking on iron. In the centre of its back is a projecting horny point, and a crevice of the same nature on the hind part of the head, near the shoulders, which being struck together by a jerk of the head and body, make a tingling noise, that may be heard at a considerable distance; and so elastic is the membrane which joins the head and body together, that, if the insect is laid on its back, it will spring to a tolerable height upwards, and fall directly on its legs. It differs very little from the beetle in shape or size, excepting in its elastic powers, and making so singular a noise.

The fire fly is a wonderful insect, for it has a luminous quality in its head (above the eyes) under each wing, and in its tail; which, when the insect is flying, has the appearance of so many lights of candles moving in the air: or the lights of a coach or post-chaise in a dark night, travelling towards you at a brisk rate.

Some of these flies are as big as the top-joint of a man's thumb, others are much smaller; and the latter have that luminous quality only in their tails. They have a charming effect on the eye at night in the groves of the woods, where they are seen flying in all directions, like so many thousand sparkles of fire; forming one

of the grandest spectacles of the kind that can be conceived, in Dominica's woods "that nightly shine with insect lamps."

The larger sort are often caught for the novelty of the light they give; if two or three of them are put into a glass, placed in a dark room, you may see distinctly any object there: or by holding a book close to the glass in which they are, you may see plainly to read the smallest print.

There is another quality remarkable in the fire flies, which is, that several of them being killed and mashed together will produce the same effect, and be as visible in letters marked out on the walls of a dark room, as if done with artificial phosphorus; and this for a considerable time after the flies are dead.

The loggerhead fly is a species of the moth, from which it differs only in the uncommon largeness of its head, and a singular quality of transparency in its body; which latter is very remarkable, for placing this fly near to the light of a candle, you may plainly distinguish every part of its vitals, and distinctly count every movement of them.

The Spaniard fly and free-mason fly are both of the wasp kind, but they differ from each other in size, shape, and also in the substance and curious manner of making their nests. The first is of the shape of a small bee, and builds its nest of a waxy matter, in the form of a small flat button full of holes, which it suspends by a silky ligament to the ceilings of houses, or to the boughs of trees, where it has the benefit of the wind to vibrate to and fro.

The free-mason fly is exactly of the shape, size, and colour of a wasp, and builds its nest of mud, in the shape of orange barrels. It is curious to see these little creatures at work, they shew so much art and industry, some of them fetching the mud in their mouths, while others are forming their small cones, or filling them

up when finished with numbers of various coloured small spiders, which they also bring in their mouths for food to their young when hatched. That which is further remarkable of these flies is, that it appears they qualify the spiders, by some means, for remaining a long time in as perfect a state as the first day they were immured in their cells; I have seen spiders, so immured for several weeks, as whole and perfect in size, shape, and colour, as when alive.

There is another species of these flies, called galley wasps, which is double the size, and of a bright light-blue colour. These have very long stings, which are plainly to be seen when they are flying, with which they wound very severely, causing the blood to spout out, as from the prick of a lancet.

The sting of these flies is very painful, and persons have been thrown into fevers by being stung severely by them; but they are seldom offensive, unless disturbed.

The wood horse, called by the negroes the fairy-horse, is a very singu-

lar insect. Its head is like that of a grasshopper, it has two horns, considerably longer than its own body, which is about three inches, and of one continued thickness, like a large caterpillar. It has six legs, which are raised and doubled above its body, like the springing legs of a grasshopper, but they have not the same power, serving it only to walk with, which it does very fast. It has no wings, is of a deep green colour, and is perfectly harmless.

The vegetable fly is a remarkable insect. It is of the appearance and size of a small cockchafer, and buries itself in the ground, where it dies, and from its body springs up a small plant, which resembles a coffee-tree plant, only its leaves are much smaller. The plant which springs from this insect is often overlooked, from the supposition people have of its being no other than a coffee plant; but on examining it properly, the difference is easily distinguished, from the head, body, and feet of the insect appearing at the root, as perfectly as when alive.

Character of the Cardinal de Bernis; by M. Duclos, Historiographer of France.

THE Comte de Bernis is a man of quality of the old race. He was destined to the church from his infancy, and was first Canon and Count of Brioude.

After having passed some of his juvenile years at St Sulpice, with as little fortune as most of the younger sons of noble families who aspire at and who attain the mitre, he entered into the chapter of Lyons, whither he went only to undergo the ceremony of admission, and immediately returned to Paris.

Respectable by birth, with an amiable figure, an open countenance, a deal of wit and cheerfulness, a sound judgment and steady character, Ber-

nis was courted by all companies; there he lived fashionably; but his air of dissipation displeas'd old Cardinal de Fleury, the friend of his father, and who had promised to take care of the fortune of the son. He sent for him, and told him frankly that he had nothing to expect while he (the Cardinal) lived. The young Abbé making a low bow, replied, "my Lord, I will wait;" and retired. The old minister smiled at the answer, and even related it to many people, but continued inflexible, not deeming a pleasantry a sufficient title to a benefice.

As to the Abbé de Bernis, he continued to live as he us'd to do, with-

out

out having any thing to reproach himself with when he considered his fellow candidates, except being a little more gay and having less hypocrisy. His answer to the Cardinal de Fleury was smart, but to make it true, it was necessary that he should not deceive himself by waiting. After the Cardinal de Fleury was dead, the fortune of the Abbé de Bernis was not advancing. He gave himself no trouble about it, trusting that among the great, numbers of whom were his relations; and many who courted him, there would be some one who would serve him with effect: but it seemed to be nobody's business. Every one contented himself with saying, that certainly no man of quality ever supported the poverty of his condition with more dignity than Bernis, for he showed no symptoms of chagrin, and behaved even with gaiety; as if fortune were a thing not worth his care.

Chazez having connected him with Madame de Pompadour, she conceived for him the highest honour and esteem. The first use he made of such powerful influence was in favour of others. He was of the French Academy, and the title of Academician was the only thing which, without actually giving him place or precedence, served him instead of both. He was of use to such of his fellow academicians as he had it in his power to oblige; giving places to some and drawing others from indigence. His friends were obliged to hint to him the necessity of attending at last to himself. A proof of the moderation of his desires was the bounds he set to his ambition. Boyer, the old Bishop of Mirepoix, had at that time the disposal of all benefices, and never was man more master in his department than that scarecrow of a minister; a man without birth, of zeal without knowledge, and drawn from the cloister to be decorated with the mitre, by the interest of a few old devotees of the Court.

Both church and state at this day feel the effects of his weakness.

Louis XV. deigned to recommend to him the Abbé de Bernis. Boyer, who could not disobey a recommendation which he knew had the effect of an order, found means to elude it. He proposed to the Abbé de Bernis to take orders, and promised soon to nominate him to a bishoprick. The Abbé replied, that not feeling in himself the dispositions necessary for such a function, he would content himself with an abbey. Boyer refused this, and gave the king to understand that the property of the church, could only be bestowed on those who did actual duty; but he praised very much the sincerity of the Abbé who was no hypocrite. It would seem that Boyer had never met with any but men of such a character, since he was so much surprised at the conduct of Bernis. The king being able to obtain nothing, gave the Abbé a pension of fifteen hundred livres. This sum not being sufficient for his necessary expences, he endeavoured to procure some small benefices; and I am certain if he had been able to extend his fortune to the sum of six thousand livres, he would have been content. But meeting with continual obstacles, of which I was often the witness, he resolved to make a large fortune because he could not attain a small one, and in this he was successful. Few fortunes indeed have been made so rapidly. He was named ambassador to Venice where he became loved and respected. Soon after he was made counsellor of State in his absence. The Marquis de Puitsieux (Brular,) then minister of foreign affairs did not oppose him; he did not have men of noble families, for he was of one himself. St Contest (Barberie) having succeeded the marquis, was not so favourable to Bernis from another reason, and especially from that secret hate which fools bear to men of genius. St Contest died before the

return

return of the Abbé, and it was well for public affairs and for private society that he did so. His father was a man of merit, and that was all that could be said in favour of the son.

The Abbé de Bernis at his return from Venice attained the highest credit in all affairs.

Among the employments that were destined for him, the embassy to Poland was one; but the king, advised by some minister, or out of his own head, would not consent to it, from an idea that that embassy would procure a Cardinal's hat to the Abbé sooner than his majesty intended. The embassies to Spain and Poland are considered as of much greater importance than the other. The

hope of being a grandee in the one, and of obtaining a Cardinal's hat in the other, inspires the ambassadors with more complaisance than is necessary in these two states. A negotiation in the heart of the kingdom procured the hat for Bernis sooner than the embassy to Poland would have done. The contests between the parliament and the court had never been more violent than they were when the Abbé de Bernis entered the council on the 2d of January 1757; contests which began in the regency of the Duke of Orleans, and which continued long to harass the government of France. Clement XII. (Rozzonic) raised him to the dignity of Cardinal.

Singular Customs of the Inhabitants of the Island of Metelin, the ancient Lesbos;—by the Earl of Charlemont.*

THE women here seem to have arrogated to themselves the department and privileges of the men. Contrary to the usage of all other countries, the eldest daughter here inherits, and the sons, like daughters every where else, are portioned off with small dowers, or, which is still worse, turned out, penniless, to seek their fortune. If a man has two daughters, the eldest, at her marriage, is entitled to all her mother's possessions, which are by far the greater part of the family estate, as the mother, keeping up her prerogative, never parts with the power over any portion of what she has brought into the family, until she is forced into it by the marriage of her daughter, and the father also is compelled to ruin himself by adding whatever he may have scraped together by his industry.—The second daughter inherits nothing, and is condemned to perpetual celibacy. She is styled a Calogria, which

signifies properly a religious woman of nun, and is in effect menial-servant to her sister, being employed by her in any office she may think fit to impose, frequently serving her as waiting-maid, as cook, and often in employments still more degrading. She wears a habit peculiar to her situation which she can never change, a sort of monastic dress, coarse, and of dark brown. One advantage, however, she enjoys over her sister, that whereas the elder, before marriage, is never allowed to go abroad, or to see any man, her nearest relations only excepted, the Calogria, except when employed in domestic toil, is in this respect at perfect liberty. But when the sister is married, the situation of the poor Calogria becomes desperate indeed, and is rendered still more humiliating by the comparison between her condition and that of her happy mistress. The married sister enjoys every sort of liberty—the whole family fortune is her's,

* From the "Transactions of the Royal Irish Academy."

and she spends it as she pleases—her husband is her obsequious servant—her father and mother are dependant upon her—she dresses in the most magnificent manner, covered all over, according to the fashion of the island, with pearls and with pieces of gold, which are commonly sequins; thus continually carrying about her the enviable marks of affluence and superiority, while the wretched Calogria follows her as a servant, attired in simple homespun broan, and without the most distant hope of ever changing her condition. Such a disparity may seem intolerable, but what will not custom reconcile? Neither are the misfortunes of the family yet at an end—the father and mother, with what little is left them, contrive by their industry to accumulate a second little fortune; and this, if they should have a third daughter, they are obliged to give to her upon her marriage, and the fourth, if there should be one, becomes her Calogria; and so on through all the daughters alternately. Whenever the daughter is marriageable she can by custom compel the father to procure her a husband, and the mother, such is the power of habit, is foolish enough to join in teasing him into an immediate compliance, tho' its consequence must be equally fatal and ruinous to both of them. From hence it happens that nothing is more common than to see the old father and mother reduced to the utmost indigence, and even begging about the streets; while their unnatural daughters are in affluence; and we ourselves have frequently been shewn the eldest daughter parading it through the town in the greatest splendour, while her mother and sister followed her as servants, and made a melancholy part of her attendant train.

The sons, as soon as they are of an age to gain a livelihood, are turned out of the family, sometimes with a small present or portion, but more frequent-

ly without any thing to support them; and thus reduced, they either endeavour to live by their labour, or, which is more usual, go on board some trading vessels as sailors or as servants, remaining abroad till they have got together some competency, and then return home to marry and to be henpecked. Some few there are who, taking advantage of the Turkish law, break through this whimsical custom; who marry their Calogrias, and retain to themselves a competent provision; but these are accounted men of a singular and even criminal disposition, and are hated and despised as conformists to the Turkish manners, and deserters of their native customs; so that we may suppose they are few indeed who have the boldness to depart from the manners of their country, to adopt the customs of their detested masters, and to brave the contempt, the detision, and the hatred of their fellow-citizens.

Of all these extraordinary particulars I was informed by the French consul, a man of sense and indisputable veracity, who had resided in this island for several years, and who solemnly assured me that every circumstance was true; but indeed our own observation left us without the least room for doubt, and the singular appearance and deportment of the ladies fully evinced the truth of our friend's relation. In walking thro' the town it is easy to perceive, from the whimsical manners of the female passengers, that the women, according to the vulgar phrase, *wear the breeches*. They frequently stopped us in the streets; examined our dress; interrogated us with a bold and manly air, laughed at our foreign garb and appearance, and shewed so little attention to that decent modesty, which is, or ought to be, the true characteristic of the sex, that there is every reason to suppose they would, in spite of their haughtiness, be the kindest ladies upon earth, if they were not watched by the Turk,

who are here very numerous, and would be ready to punish any transgression of their ungallant laws with arbitrary fines. But nature and native manners will often baffle the efforts even of tyranny. In all their customs these manly ladies seem to have changed sexes with the men.—The woman rides astride—the man sits sideways upon the horse.—Nay I have been assured that the husband's distinguishing appellation is his wife's family name. The women have town and country houses, in the management of which the husband never dares interfere. Their gardens, their servants, are all their own: and the husband, from every circumstance of his behaviour, appears to be no other than his wife's first domestic, perpetually bound to her service, and slave to her caprice. Hence it is that a tradition obtains in the country, that this island was formerly inhabited by Amazons, a tradition however founded upon no ancient history that I know of. Sappho indeed, the most renowned female that this island has ever produced, is said to have had manly inclinations, in which, 'as Lucian informs us, she did but conform with the singular manners of her countrywomen; but I do not find that the mode in which she chose to shew these inclinations is imitated by the present female inhabitants, who seem perfectly content with the dear prerogative of absolute sway, without endeavouring, in any other particular, to change the course of nature; yet will this circumstance serve to shew that the women of Lesbos had always something peculiar, and even peculiarly masculine, in their manners and propensities. But be this as it may, it is certain that no country whatsoever can afford a more perfect idea of an Amazonian commonwealth, or better serve to render probable those ancient relations which our manners would induce us to esteem incredible, than

this island of Metelin. These lordly ladies are, for the most part, very handsome in spite of their dress, which is singular and disadvantageous. Down to the girdle, which, as in the old Grecian garb, is raised far above what we usually call the waist, they wear nothing but a shift of thin and transparent gauze, red, green, or brown, through which every thing is visible, their breasts only excepted, which they cover with a sort of handkerchief; and this, as we are informed, the Turks have obliged them to wear, while they look upon it as an incumbrance, and as no inconsiderable portion of Turkish tyranny. Long sleeves of the same thin material perfectly shew their arms even to the shoulder. Their principal ornaments are chains of pearl, to which they hang small pieces of gold coin. Their eyes are large and fine, and the nose, which we term Grecian, usually prevails among them, as it does indeed among the women of all these islands. Their complexions are naturally fair, but they spoil them by paint, of which they make a abundant use, and they disfigure their pretty faces by shaving the hinder part of the eyebrow, and replacing it with a strait line of hair, neatly applied with some sort of gum, the brow being thus continued in a strait and narrow line till it joins the hair on each side of their face. They are well made, of the middle size, and, for the most part, plump; but they are distinguished by nothing so much and so universally as by a haughty, disdainful, and supercilious air, with which they seem to look down upon all mankind as creatures of an inferior nature, born for their service, and doomed to be their slaves; neither does this peculiarity of countenance in any degree diminish their natural beauty, but rather adds to it that sort of bewitching attraction, which the French call *piquant*.

Reflections on the Formation and Distribution of Riches;—by the late Mr Turgot, sometime Intendant of the Finances of France.*

Qstendent terris hunc tantum, sata. Æn. 6.

§. 1. *THE impossibility of the existence of commerce upon the supposition of an equal division of lands, where every man would possess only what is necessary for his own support.*

If the land was divided among all the inhabitants of a country, so that each of them possessed precisely the quantity necessary for his support, and nothing more, it is evident that all of them being equal, no one would work for another, neither would any of them possess wherewith to pay another for his labour, for each person having only such a quantity of land as was necessary to produce a subsistence, would consume all he should gather, and would not have any thing to give in exchange for the labour of others.

§. 2. *The above hypothesis neither has nor can exist, the diversity of soils, and multiplicity of wants, compel an exchange of the productions of the earth, against other productions.*

This hypothesis never can have existed, because the earth has been cultivated before it has been divided; the cultivation itself having been the only motive for a division, and for that law which secures to every one his property. For the first persons who have employed themselves in cultivation have probably worked as much land as their strength would permit, and consequently more than was necessary for their own nourishment.

If this state could have existed, it could not possibly be durable, each one gathering from his field only a subsistence, and not having wherewith to pay others for their labour, would

not be enabled to supply his other wants of lodging, cloathing, &c. &c. except by the labour of his hands, which would be nearly impossible, as every soil would not produce invariably the same.

The man whose land was only fit to produce grain, and would neither bring forth cotton nor flax, would want linen to cloath him. Another would have ground proper for cotton, which would not yield grain. One would want fuel for his fire, and another be destitute of corn to support him. Experience would soon teach every one what species of productions his land was best adapted to; and he would confine himself to the cultivation of it, in order to procure himself those things he stood in need of, by an exchange with his neighbours, who, having on their part acquired the same experience, would have cultivated those productions which were best suited to their land, and would have abandoned the cultivation of any other.

§. 3. *The productions of the earth require long and difficult preparations, before they are made fit to supply the wants of men.*

The productions which the earth supplies to satisfy the wants of man, will not, for the most part, administer to those wants, in the state nature affords them; it is necessary they should undergo different operations, and be prepared by art. Wheat must be converted into flour, then into bread; hides must be dressed or tanned; wool and cotton must be spun; silk must be taken from the cocoon; hemp and flax must

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* The above are affirmed by the Marquis de Condorcet, to be the germ from which the late Dr Adam Smith formed his excellent treatise on the Wealth of Nations.

must be soaked, peeled, spun, and wove into different textures; then cut and sewed together again to make garments, &c. If the same man who cultivates on his own land these different articles, and who raises them to supply his wants, was obliged to perform all the intermediate operations himself, it is certain he would succeed very badly. The greater part of these preparations require care, attention; and a long experience; all which are only to be acquired by progressive labour; and that on a great quantity of materials. Let us refer, for example, to the preparation of hides: what labourer can pursue all the particular things necessary to those operations, which continue several months, sometimes several years? If he is able to do it, can he do it with a single hide? What a loss of time, of soul, and of materials, which might be employed, either at the same time or successively, to tan a large quantity of skins! But should he even succeed in tanning a single skin, he wants one pair of shoes; what will he do with the remainder? Will he kill an ox to make this pair of shoes? Will he cut down a tree to make a pair of wooden shoes? We may say the same thing of every other want of every other man, who, if he was reduced to his field, and the labour of his own hands, would waste much time, take much trouble, be very badly equipped in every respect, and would also cultivate his lands very ill.

§. 2. *The necessity of these preparations; being in the exchange of productions for labour.*

The same motive which has established the exchange of commodity for commodity, between the cultivators of lands of different natures, has also necessarily brought on the exchange of commodities for labour, between the cultivators and another portion of society, who shall have preferred the occupation of preparing and completing the productions of the earth, to the cultivation of it. Every one profits

by this arrangement, for every one attaching himself to a peculiar species of labour, succeeds much better therein. The husbandman draws from his field the greatest quantity it is able to produce, and procures to himself, with greater facility, all the other objects of his wants, by an exchange of his superfluous, than he could have done by his own labour. The shoemaker, by making shoes for the husbandman, secures to himself a portion of the harvest of the latter. Every workman labours for the wants of the workmen of every other trade, who, on their side, toil also for him.

§. 5. *Pre-eminence of the husbandman who produces, over the artificer who prepares. The husbandman is the first mover in the circulation of labour; it is he who causes the earth to produce the wages of every artificer.*

It must, however, be observed, that the husbandman, furnishing every one with the most important and the most considerable objects of their consumption (I mean their food, and the materials of almost all manufactures) has the advantage of a greater degree of independence. His labour, among the different species of labour, appropriated to the different members of society, supports the same pre-eminence and priority; as the procuring his food did among the different works he was obliged, in his solitary state, to employ himself in, to minister to his wants of every sort. This is not a pre-eminence of honour or of dignity, but of physical necessity. The husbandman can, generally speaking, subsist without the labour of other workmen; but no other workman can labour, if the husbandman does not provide him wherewith to exist. It is this circulation, which, by a reciprocal exchange of wants, renders mankind necessary to each other, and which forms the bond of society: it is then the labour of the husbandman which gives the first movement. What his industry causes the earth to produce beyond

beyond his personal wants, is the only fund for the salaries which all the other members of society receive, in recompence for their toil. The latter, by availing themselves of the produce of this exchange, to purchase in their turn the commodities of the husbandman, only return to him precisely what they have received. There is here a very essential difference between these two species of labours, on which it is necessary to reflect, and to be well assured of the ground they stand on, before we trust to the innumerable consequences which flow from them.

§. 6. *The salary of the workman is limited by the competition among those who work for their subsistence. He only gains a livelihood.*

The mere workman, who depends only on his hands and his industry, has nothing but such part of his labour as he is able to dispose of. He sells at a cheaper or a dearer price; but this high or low price does not depend on himself alone; it results from the agreement he has made with the person who employs him. The latter pays him as little as he can help; as he has the choice from among a great number of workmen, he prefers the person who works cheapest. The workmen are therefore obliged to lower their price in opposition to each other. In every species of labour it must, and, in effect, it does happen, that the wages of the workman are confined merely to what is necessary to procure him a subsistence.

§. 7. *The husbandman is the only one whose industry produces more than the wages of his labour. He, therefore, is the only source of all riches.*

The situation of the husbandman is materially different. The soil, independent of any other man, or of any agreement, pays him immediately the price of his toil. Nature does not bargain with him, or compel him to content himself with what is absolutely necessary. What she grants is neither limited to his wants, nor to a

conditional valuation of the price of his day's work. It is a physical consequence of the fertility of the soil, and of justice, rather than of the difficulty of the means, which he has employed to render it fruitful. As soon as the labour of the husbandman produces more than sufficient for his necessities, he can, with the excess which nature affords him of pure free-will, beyond the wages of his toils, purchase the labour of other members of society. The latter, in selling to him, only procures a livelihood; but the husbandman, besides his subsistence, collects an independent and disposable wealth, which he has not purchased, but can sell. He is, therefore, the only source of all those riches which, by their circulation, animate the labours of society; because he is the only one whose labour produces more than the wages of his toil.

§. 8. *First division of society into two classes, the one productive, or the cultivators, the other stipendiary, or the artificers.*

Here then is the whole society divided, by a necessity founded on the nature of things, into two classes, both industrious, of which the one, by its labour, produces, or rather draws from the earth, riches continually renewing, which supply the whole society with subsistence, and with materials for all its wants. The other, employed in giving the said materials such preparations and forms as render them proper for the use of man, sells to the first person his labour, and receives in return a subsistence. The first may be called the *productive*, the latter the *stipendiary* class.

§. 9. *In the first ages of society, the proprietors could not be distinguished from the cultivators.*

Hitherto we have not distinguished the husbandman from the proprietor of the land; and in the first origin they were not in fact distinguished. It is by the labour of those who have first cultivated the fields, and who have

have enclosed them, to secure their harvest, that all land has ceased to be common to all, and that a property in the soil has been established. Until societies have been established, and until the public strength, or the laws, becoming superior to the force of individuals, has been able to guarantee to every one the tranquil possession of his property, against all invasion from without; the property in a field could only be secured as it had been acquired, and by continuing to cultivate it; he could not have been assured of having his field cultivated by the help of another person; and that person taking all the trouble, could not easily have comprehended that the whole harvest did not belong to him. On the other hand, in this early age, when every industrious man would find as much land as he wanted, he would not be tempted to labour for another. It necessarily follows, that every proprietor must cultivate his own field or abandon it.

§ 10. *Progress of society: all lands come to have an owner.*

But the land begins to people, and to be cleared more and more. The best lands are in process of time fully occupied. There remains only for those who come last, nothing but barren land, rejected by the first occupant: but at last, every spot has found a master; and those who cannot gain a property therein, have no other resource but to exchange the labour of their hands in some of the employments of the stipendiary class, for the excess of commodities possessed by the cultivating proprietor.

§ 11. *The proprietors begin to be able to ease themselves of the labour of cultivators, by the help of hired cultivators.*

Mean time, since the earth produces to the proprietor who cultivates it, not a subsistence only; not only wherewith to procure himself by way of exchange, what he otherwise wants, but also a considerable superfluity; he

is enabled, with this superfluity, to pay other men to cultivate his land. And among those who live by wages, as many are content to labour in this employment as in any other. The proprietor, therefore, might then be eased of the labour of culture, and be soon was so.

§ 12. *Inequality in the division of property: causes which render that inevitable.*

The original proprietors would (as I have already mentioned) occupy as much land as their strength would permit them to cultivate with their families. A man of greater strength, more laborious, more attentive about the future, would occupy more than a man of a contrary character. He, whose family is the most numerous, having greater wants and more hands, extends his possessions furthest; this is the first cause of inequality.—Every piece of ground is not equally fertile; two men with the same extent of land, may reap a very different harvest; this is a second source of inequality.—Property in descending from fathers to their children, divides into greater or less portions, according as the descendants are more or less numerous. As one generation succeeds another, sometimes the inheritances again subdivide, and sometimes re-unite again by the extinction of some of the branches; this is a third source of inequality. The difference of knowledge, of activity, and, above all, the economy of some, contrasted with the indolence, inaction, and dissipation of others, is a fourth principle of inequality, and the most powerful of all; the negligent and inattentive proprietor, who cultivates badly, who in a fruitful year consumes in frivolous things the whole of his superfluity, finds himself reduced on the least accident to request assistance from his more provident neighbour, and to live by borrowing. If by any new accident, or by a continuation of his negligence, he finds himself not in a condition to

repay,

repay, he is obliged to have recourse to new loans, and at last has no other resource but to abandon a part, or even the whole of his property to his creditor, who receives it as an equivalent; or to assign it to another, in exchange for other valuables with which he discharges his obligation to his creditor:

§. 13. *Consequences of this inequality: The cultivator distinguished from the proprietor.*

This is the property in the soil made subject to purchase and sale.—The portion of the dissipating or unfortunate increases the share of the more happy or wiser proprietor; and in this infinite variety of possessions, it is not possible but a great number of proprietors must possess more than they can cultivate. Besides, it is very natural for a rich man to wish for a tranquil enjoyment of his property, and instead of employing his whole time in toilsome labour, he rather prefers giving a part of his superfluity to people to work for him.

§. 14. *Division of the produce between the cultivator and the proprietor. Net produce, or revenue.*

By this new arrangement, the produce of the land divides into two parts. The one comprehends the subsistence and the profits of the husbandman, which are the reward for his labour, and the condition on which he agrees to cultivate the field of the proprietor. The other which remains, is that independent and disposable part, which the earth produces as a free gift to him who cultivates it, over and above what he has disbursed, and wages for his trouble; and it is out of this share of the proprietor's, or what is called the revenue, that he is enabled to live without labour, and which he can carry where he will.

§. 15. *A new division of society into three classes, Cultivators, Artificers, and proprietors, or the productive stipendiary and disposable classes.*

We now behold society divided in-

to three branches; the class of husbandmen, whom we may denominate cultivators; the class of artificers and others, who work for hire upon the productions of the earth; and the class of proprietors, the only one which, not being confined by a want of support to a particular species of labour, may be employed in the general service of society, as for war, and the administration of justice, either by a personal service, or by the payment of a part of their revenue, with which the state may hire others to fill these employments. The appellation which suits the best with this division, for this reason, is that of the *disposable* class.

§. 16. *Resemblance between the two laborious, or not disposable classes.*

The two classes of cultivators and artificers, resemble each other in many respects, and particularly that those who compose them do not possess any revenue, and both equally subsist on the wages which are paid them on the productions of the earth. Both have also this circumstance in common, that they only gain the price of their labour and their disbursements, and that this price is nearly the same in the two classes. The proprietor agreeing with those who cultivate his ground to pay them as small a part as possible of its produce, in the same manner as he bargains with the shoemaker to purchase his shoes as cheap as he can. In a word, neither the cultivator nor the artificer receive more than a bare recompense for their labour.

§. 17. *Essential difference between the two laborious classes.*

But there is this difference between the two species of labour; that the work of the cultivator produces not only his own wages, but also that revenue which serves to pay all the different classes of artificers, and other stipendiaries their salaries; that is to say, their parts of the productions of the earth, in exchange for their labour, and which does not produce an

revenue. The proprietor enjoys nothing but by the labour of the cultivator. He receives from him his subsistence, and wherewith to pay for the labour of the other stipendiaries. He has need of the cultivator by the necessity arising from the physical order of things, by which necessity the earth is not fruitful without labour; but the cultivator has no need of the proprietor but by virtue of human conventions, and of those civil laws which have guaranteed to the first cultivators and their heirs, the property in the lands they had occupied, even after they had ceased to cultivate them.— But these laws can only secure to the idle man, that part of the production of his land which it produces beyond the retribution due to the cultivators. The cultivator, confined as he is, to

the stipend for his labour, still preserves that natural and physical priority which renders him the first mover of the whole machine of society, and which causes both the subsistence and wealth of the proprietor, and the salaries paid for every other species of labour, to depend on his industry.— The artificer, on the contrary, receives his wages either of the proprietor or of the cultivator, and only gives them in exchange for his work, an equivalent for his stipend, and nothing more.

Thus, although the cultivator and artificer, neither of them gain more than a recompense for their toil, yet the labour of the cultivator produces besides that recompense, a revenue to the proprietor, while the artificer does not produce any revenue either for himself or others.

Abridged Review of New Publications:

1. *Cyder, a Poem, in two Books.* By John Philips. With notes provincial, historical, and classical, by Charles Dürstler. 8vo. 4s. Boards. — Cadell. 1791.

THE propriety of the present attempt, which the editor in his advertisement endeavours to establish, is certainly not to be questioned. A century has nearly elapsed since the first publication of Philips' *Cyder*— A poem of that era, particularly one of a didactic kind, on a provincial subject, must require explanatory notes.

The notes are written with taste and accuracy: and we doubt not but that the modern descendants of the Ariconian knights will be well pleased at this further expansion of their forefathers' renown, and the Silurian bard's poetical reputation. Their utility in elucidating a provincial subject, will, we trust, not only prove grateful to his countrymen, but to readers in general, and make a desir-

able addition to the stores of domestic literature.—We understand that Mr Dürstler, who, by the specimen he gave in translating the *Frogs* of Aristophanes, led us to wish that he would favour the public with an entire version of his works, is the author of this pleasing commentary.

2. *The American Oracle, comprehending an account of recent Discoveries in the Arts and Sciences, with a variety of religious, political, physical and philosophical subjects, necessary to be known in all families, for the promotion of their present felicity and future happiness.* By the Honourable Samuel Stearns, L.L.D. 8vo: 8s. 6d. Boards. Lackington, 1791.

It is difficult to convey an adequate idea of this work: philosophy is combined with medicine, morals with history; religion with politics; and the whole together is a farrago, containing not only, *quicquid agunt homines,*

homines,' but 'quicquid egerunt; quicquid agi debuissent.' Why it was called the American Oracle we know not. As books are scarce in America, as distant carriage is expensive, Dr Stearns probably wished to preclude every other author, by combining in one volume a little of every science, some instruction on every subject, and some amusement in every situation, Our author is, at times, whimsical and fanciful; a few errors have occasionally crept in; but, in general, his morality is unexceptionable, and his philosophy, when he does not attempt to explore untroubled tracts, correct and judicious.

Of the poetical reasoning of this philosopher take the following specimens:

' The Mighty God hath all the systems made
Of worlds, and hath a solid basis laid
On which the universal fabric stands,
Obeying of his great and good commands,
I have attempted truly to describe,
How all the planets and the comets slide
In wondrous order, as they all do run,
As they revolve around the splendid sun.
The comets' use likewise I did relate,
How their expanded air did circulate
Through all the system; how that they may fall,
And be like fuel on Sol's burning ball.
As time rolls off, the stars shall fade away,
And the glad face of sun and moon decay:
If not renew'd,—we don't pretend to doubt,
The light in all such globes will soon go out.
Heart can't conceive, nor mortal tongue express,
Whilst we abide in this world's wilderness,
What wondrous works the Great Supreme hath laid
Within the vast expanse which he hath made.
Thus I've the works of the Great God of Might
In part describ'd, whose power is infinite!
Who, from this globe, will all his saints convey
To the bright regions of immortal day!

Again,

' In seventeen hundred eighty-eight, I sat
In a large room, with a good-natur'd cat:
She soon jump'd up, and stood upon my knees;
I strook'd her back, which did her not displease.
As she purr'd round, and grew exceeding bold,
I found her hairs were stiff'n'd with the cold:
When I strook'd them—behold, the sparks did fly!
Like flaming lightning through the azure sky.
From what, said I, from what can this proceed?
Must not this be electric heat indeed?
Is it not strange, that it doth break its bands!
When the cat's hairs are stroked by my hands?
' Whilst in my studies I did thus proceed,
I form'd a new hypothesis indeed!
I turn'd my thoughts upon that gloomy night,
Unto the cause of the great northern light:

May not, said I, the vapours here and there
Emit such coruscations in the air,
When they into a proper state are roll'd,
Condens'd and stiff'n'd by the freezing cold,
And agitated by the lossy sails
Of breezy currents, or of gentle gales?"

3. *Travels through Barbary, in a Series of Letters, written from the Ancient Numidia, in the Years 1785 and 1786; and containing an Account of the Customs and Manners of the Moors and Bedouin Arabs. Translated from the French of the Abbé Poirer. 12mo. pp. 346. 2s. 6d. Boards. Forster.*

THE Abbé Poirer visited the inhospitable deserts of Barbary, chiefly for the purpose of improving the science of natural history: but, at the same time, he made many observations on the countries through which he passed, and on the manners of the inhabitants; the result of which is communicated to the public, in a work written in French, in two volumes octavo. From this the translator, omitting the botanical parts, has extracted a small volume of entertaining narrative.

4. *Poems by the Author of the Village Curate, and Adriano. 8vo. pp. 254. 4s. sewed. Johnson.*

THE author of these poems has shewn, by his former productions, that he can write well; nay, he has given ample proofs of it in the present performances: but he has likewise proved that he can write ill.

We learn, from the preface, that our poet had been advised not to publish the pieces before us, lest they might detract from the reputation that he had already acquired. The advice was friendly. We do not, however, wish that the poems had been suppressed; but they certainly should have been amended.

The faults which are chiefly reprehensible in this volume, are,—the mis-

taking rudeness for simplicity; the particularising and dwelling on circumstances which are too mean to be noticed; and the consequent lengthening of the story till it becomes weak and uninteresting.

The author is often pretty, frequently beautiful, but seldom sublime: his description delights, but never astonishes: he animates his reader to joy, but does not exalt him into rapture: he soothes him to sorrow, but does not depress him into despair: his muse exerts herself rather to analyse, than to combine: she shews the most brilliant fragments, but fails to produce a finished whole.

5. *Genuine Poetical Compositions, on various Subjects. By Elizabeth Bentley. Small 8vo. pp. 70. sewed. Norwich, Crouse and Stevenfon. 1791.*

In a letter addressed to the Rev. Mr Walker, in Norwich; our female poet gives the following account of herself:—

‘I was born at Norwich, in the parish of All Saints, in November, 1767, and was the only child of my parents. My father’s name was Daniel Bentley, by trade a journeyman cordwainer; who, having received a good education himself, took upon him to teach me reading and spelling, but never gave me the least idea of grammar. Being naturally fond of reading, I used to employ my leisure hours with such books as were in the house; which were chiefly a spelling-book, fable-book; dictionary, and books of arithmetic; and with such little pamphlets as I could borrow of my neighbours. When I was about ten years
of

of age, my father was afflicted with a paralytic stroke, which took from him the use of one side, and disabled him from working at his business; but still retaining the use of his right hand, and his disorder not affecting his mental faculties, he taught me the art of writing, from copies in the spelling-book. My father was now obliged to go about selling garden-stuff for a living, till (a few months before his death) he obtained the place of book-keeper to the London Coach, which then set out from the King's Head, in the Market-Place. His lameness continued till his decease, which happened by a second stroke of the same disorder, on the 25th of January 1783, in the 48th year of his age; I being then about fifteen years old. My father died in the parish of St Stephen, in which place my mother and I have continued ever since. About two years after my father's death, I discovered in myself an inclination for writing verses, which I had no thought nor desire of being seen; but my mother shewing my first productions to some acquaintances, they encouraged me to proceed. Soon after I purchased a small grammar-book, second-hand, from which I attained the art of expressing myself correctly in my native language. My mother's maiden name was Lawrence; her father, when living, kept a cooper's shop in St Stephen's parish.

From this short narrative, it appears that this poetess of nature enjoyed few advantages of education, and had few incentives to study; but she must certainly have read more than she enumerates, for she mentions no books of poetry, and some of these she doubtless had seen.

The editor assures us that the poems are the genuine and sole productions of E. Bentley; that neither correction nor addition has been made nor suggested but by her; and he concludes his preface with observing, that she is

not less respectable for her modest virtues, than for her superior abilities.

6. *Report of the Lords of the Committee of Council appointed for the Consideration of all Matters relative to Trade and foreign Plantations; submitting to his Majesty's Consideration, the Evidence and Information they have collected in consequence of his Majesty's Order in Council, dated February 11th, 1788, concerning the present State of the Trade to Africa, and particularly the Trade in Slaves; and concerning the Effects and Consequences of this Trade, as well in Africa and the West Indies, as to the general Commerce of this Kingdom. Folio, a large Volume, illustrated with a Map of Africa, shewing the route of the Caravans, 2l. 2s. sewed. Debrett.*

THIS valuable State-publication is arranged under the following heads:

1. A view of the evidence that the Committee has obtained of the present state of those parts of Africa whence slaves have been exported; taking each country that lies upon the coast separately, beginning from the river Senegal, and descending southward to the east of the European settlements, on the said coast; with such information as has been obtained of the interior countries situated behind each of the said countries on the coast respectively.

2. View of Evidence concerning the manner of carrying slaves to the West Indies, &c.

3. The treatment of slaves in the West Indies, and all circumstances relating thereto, digested under certain heads.

4. The several accounts which have been called for in order to shew the extent of the trade in all its branches, and the number of white people and slaves in each of the islands in the West Indies, as far as the accounts could be procured.

5. The

5. The advantages which the French West India islands are supposed at present to enjoy over the British islands, and the reasons on which these superior advantages are founded:

6. View of the information that has been obtained concerning the extent of the trade of other European nations to Africa, and the manner in which the same is carried on, and concerning the treatment of slaves in the foreign islands or colonies in America or the West Indies; and concerning the trade in slaves carried on from the northern, eastern, and southern coasts of Africa, or in the interior parts of that country, as connected therewith either by Europeans, or by the different people of Asia and Africa.

These documents will be deemed of great importance by those who wish to be possessed of the most authentic and most comprehensive evidence and information, hitherto obtained, relative to the actual state of Africa, and the real nature and circumstances of the slave-trade. So extensive and so well-digested a mass of materials, on this very interesting subject, and published under so high a sanction, must, indeed, be considered as exceedingly valuable and interesting. We may add, that those who may take up this volume merely with a view to that rational entertainment which naturally results from the acquisition of useful knowledge, (and, especially, from the intelligence which may be collected from authentic accounts of this kind,) will not be disappointed: historians and geographers, in particular, will also consult it with advantage.

7. *The Theatre*, by Sir Richard Steele. To which are added, *The Anti-Theatre; the Character of Sir John Edgar; Steele's Case with the Lord Chamberlain; the Crisis of Property, with the Sequel, two Persuins, &c. Illustrated with Literary and His-*

torical Anecdotes, by John Nichols. 2. Vols. crown 8vo.

As long as elegant Literature shall be cultivated in this country, the name of Steele will always have a respectable portion of esteem and praise. It has been, till very lately, the fashion to regard him more as the friend of Addison and Pope, and as borrowing a reflected splendour from their lustre, than as entitled to great reputation, on his own account, as an original writer, as possessed of genius diffusing no inconsiderable light from itself, as improving our language, and as a warm steady friend to liberty and morals. But at this period, when prejudices of all kinds are the more rigorously examined, the more fixed they seem, and the more ancient they are, it is clearly ascertained and acknowledged that Steele's talents as a man, and skill as a writer, required no adventitious aid.

To the Editor of the present work the friends and admirers of Steele owe many obligations. His industry, and, we may add, his acuteness, have been successfully exerted to render the cloud which obscured Steele's reputation less and less dense. His partial care has raised him from amongst the groupe in which he was sometimes confounded and often overlooked, and placed him on a separate pedestal, where he attracts and obtains his proper share of attention and praise.

There are but very few, partial as they may have been to Steele's writings, or curious in collecting the periodical publications of that period, who have seen an entire collection of the *Theatre*; and yet we may be justified in asserting, that it would be difficult to produce better writing from either the Spectators, Tatlers, or Guardians. To those who are curious in investigating the history of the English stage, they must be peculiarly interesting.

The

The History of Caroline Montgomery.

[By Mrs CHARLOTTE SMITH.]

“MY father was a native of Scotland, of the noble family of Douglas. He was a younger brother of a younger branch, and married very early in his life a young woman as well-born and as indigent as himself. In the year 1745, he was among those who joined the unfortunate Charles-Edward, and he fell at Culloden, leaving me then about twenty months old, and his wife then not more than seventeen, entirely dependent on the bounty of his father, and overwhelmed with the greatness of her calamity; but when she held in her arms her unfortunate orphan, the sole legacy and sole memorial of a man whom he had fondly loved, she struggled against her unhappy destiny, and for my sake attempted to live.

“Though peace was at length restored to the wretched country, which had been too long the seat of devastation, many families found themselves totally impoverished; and none suffered more than my grandfather, who, having narrowly escaped with life, survived to lament the loss of three brave sons, and to see great part of his property in ashes. He lingered only a twelvemonth afterwards, and then sunk into the grave, leaving his small patrimony to his only surviving son, who had himself a numerous family. My mother saw, or fancied she saw, that he could willingly have dispensed with any additional burden; and she determined to go to England, where she hoped to be received by a brother of her own who was settled in London. Thither she conveyed herself and me in the cheapest way she could, and was received by her brother (who had sunk his illustrious birth for the convenience offered him of becoming partner with a merchant) with kindness indeed; but such kindness as a mind, narrowed by perpetually contemplating riches, shews to the poor who are dependent on them. His wife, by whose means his fortune had been promoted, convinced him that his sister and her child could not be commodiously received into his house. Lodgings were however provided for her in the neighbourhood, and she boarded with her brother: but the second month of her thus living was not passed, before the neglect she felt from him, and the pride and ill-nature of his wife, taught her to experience, in all its bitterness, the misery of dependence. Born with very acute feelings, and at an age when every sensibility is awake, my mother found this situation every day more insupportable. Yet whither could she turn? She had neither knowledge of business, nor any means of

engaging in it. She had no acquaintance in England, and not in the world any friend who had at once the power and the will to assist her.

“Almost the first circumstance which made any impression on my mind, was the agonies of passion with which my mother clasped me to her bosom, and wept over me, while she called on the spirit of her departed Douglas to behold the wretchedness of his widow and his orphan. At that age, however, it is only a slight sketch now and then of some violent passion, or striking circumstance, that rests on the memory of an infant. I have no recollection of any thing else till the scene was greatly changed, and, in my childish eyes, greatly amended.

“It was summer; and though at that period the mercantile inhabitants of London were less accustomed than they now are to go to country villas, yet my uncle, who was growing rich, had one near Hammer-smith, where he usually repaired with his family on Fridays, returning again to town the beginning of the following week. The weather was uncommonly hot, and my mother, who was never of these parties, but was left in London to share the dinner of the solitary servant who took care of the house, fancied that I had for many days drooped for want of air; and, alarmed by that idea, she took, after the family were gone, an hackney coach, and directed it to carry her to the gate of Hyde Park.

“Though the sun was declining, it had yet so much power, that in walking through the Park with me in her arms, that I at least might not suffer, she became exceedingly fatigued. She saw people going into Kensington Gardens; thither she went also; and to avoid observation, betook herself to an unfrequented part of them, where, quite overcome with bodily fatigue and mental anguish, she threw herself on a seat, and straining me to her bosom, began with a torrent of tears to lament, not so much her own hard fate as that which awaited the infant of her lost Douglas, whose name she frequently repeated, broken by the sob and groans which a thousand tender recollections of him, and poignant fears for me, extorted from her. From this dominion of fruitless sorrow she was awakened by the appearance of a gentleman about thirty, who suddenly approached her, and enquired with great politeness, yet with great warmth, whether her distress was of a nature he could mitigate or remove?

“Alarmed by this address from a stranger, my mother arose, and, making an effort

fort to conquer her emotion and conceal her tears, she thanked him in a hurried voice for his politeness, but assured him that she was merely fatigued by the heat of the weather, and should now hasten home.

"He was not however to be so easily shaken off. If my mother had at first struck him as a very beautiful young woman, he was still more charmed when she spoke, and when, amidst the confusion she was under, he observed as much unaffected modesty as natural elegance. It was in vain that she entreated him to leave her, and assured him that she lived in a very distant part of the town with a brother, into whose house she could not introduce a stranger, and that she should be otherwise much distressed by his attention. He would not leave her; but taking me up in his arms, he carried me out of the gardens, and then delivering me to my mother, he ran towards the place to procure, as he said, a coach. My mother, who trembled she knew not why, at the politeness she could not resent, now hurried on in the hope of her escaping from her new acquaintance; but she had not proceeded an hundred paces before he was again at her side, and again took me in his arms, and under pretence that there was no coach to be had where he had been, but that one would be probably met with if they walked on, he engaged her to proceed, till a coach overtook them: not such as he pretended to have sought, but one on which was an Earl's coronet, and the arms of Douglas quartered with those of an illustrious English family.

"Now," said he, stopping as it came up, "here is a carriage, which shall convey you and this little cherub to your home. You will not, I think, refuse me the honour of accompanying you, that it may afterwards take me to mine."

"Again my mother urged every thing she could think of, to prevail upon her new friend to desist from a proof of attention which could only distress her.—He would heed nothing; and the warmth of his importunity forced her, in spite of every objection, to get into his coach, where he seated me in her lap, and himself by her side.

"He then attempted to quiet her fears, by entering into discourse on the topics of the day; in which he exerted himself so effectually, his manners were so easy, and his conversation so entertaining, that the agitation of her spirits gradually subsided. The soothing voice of friendship, of pity, of sympathy, which she had not heard for many, many months, again made its way to her heart; and when he insensibly turned the discourse from less interesting matters to her own condition, the tears flowed from her eyes, softness pervaded her heart, and she confided to this stranger, whom she

had not yet known above an hour, the unhappy uncertainty of her situation, the actual misery she suffered herself, and the anguish which weighed down her spirit when she reflected that she had no other portion to bequeath me than poverty, servitude, or perhaps dependence, more bitter than either. In making this avowal, she had named her family, and that of her father.

"Yes," interrupted her protector, "I heard, as I listened to you in the gardens, the name of Douglas. I am myself of the race; for my mother was a Douglas! such a circumstance, added to the captivating beauty of the fair mourner to whom I listened, made my curiosity invincible. Dangerous curiosity! to gratify it, I have, I fear, lost my peace!"

"Not to dwell too long on the recital, let me say that this nobleman professed himself passionately in love with the young widow; and though she insisted on his giving up so wild an idea, he declared before he left her that he would by some means or other introduce himself to her brother, since to live without seeing her was impossible. It was with difficulty he was at length prevailed upon to leave the house; and without extorting permission from my mother, he was there again the next day, and every day, till the family returned; after which he managed so adroitly, that in a few days he made an acquaintance with my uncle, and was in form invited to dinner; while neither himself nor his wife at all suspected for whose sake the acquaintance was so anxiously cultivated, but were extremely elate at the notice which a man of rank took of them, and the compliments he paid to the respectability and intrinsic worth of men of business.

"The attention, however, which he found himself obliged to pay to the mistress of the house, and the few opportunities of seeing or conversing with my mother which this method of visiting allowed him, became very uneasy to him; and at length, after a long struggle with himself, he determined to hazard telling her his real situation. He probably knew that he had by this time secured such an interest in her heart, that it was no longer in her power to fly from him, whatever her honour might dictate. Having with some dissimulation obtained an opportunity of speaking to her, he told her, that he knew she must long have seen his ardent and incurable passion; "which perhaps," continued he, "I ought never to have indulged; but, alas! from the first moment I saw you, my heart was yours! while reason in vain condemned me, and repeated the fatal truth which you must now hear. I am already married—I am not villain enough to attempt to deceive you, but listen to what I have to add in
extremation

extenuation of my conduct, before you condemn me to despair."

"The indignation with which my mother received this acknowledgment, the attempts of her lover to appease and soften her, I need not relate: having at length prevailed on her to hear what he had to urge, he told her, that to gratify his family he had, when little more than twenty, married the heiress of a rich and noble family; plain, and even deformed in her person; with a temper soured by ill-health and the consciousness of her own imperfections, and with manners the most disgusting. For upwards of three years he dragged on a life completely wretched with a woman whose malignity of temper deadened all pity of her personal misfortune: at the end of that period she was seized with the small-pox, attended with the worst symptoms; but the distemper acting on an habit constitutionally bad, failed to deprive her of life, which would have been a blessing to them both; but left behind it violent epileptic fits, which, continuing with increasing violence for many months, had deprived her of the slender share of reason she ever possessed, and threw her at length into confirmed idiotism, in which state she had invariably remained for the last six years. Thus situated, he considered himself, though the fatal tie could not by law be dissolved, as really unmarried, and at liberty to offer his heart to the lovely object who now possessed it, though the cruel circumstance he had related made it impossible for him to offer her that rank, in which it would otherwise have been his ambition to have placed her, and to which she would have done so much honour.

"I was then in my mother's arms: he took me tenderly in his, and said, "Intercede for me, lovely Caroline, with your mother! Ah! soften that dear inexorable heart, and tell her that for your sake she should quit an abode so unfit for you both, and accept the protection of a man, who will consider and provide for her Caroline as for a child of his own." He then hurried away, leaving a paper in which he had repeated all he had before said; and professing that his first care should be to settle a fortune on me. That evening, my uncle and his family, who had been absent, returned, and it happened that his wife, who was always rude and unfeeling, treated my mother with an unusual degree of asperity. Her brother too, whether from accident or from some intelligence he had received of his Lordship's visits, spoke to her with great acrimony, reproached her with having been now above twelve months a burden to him, and advised her to try if she could not procure a place as companion to a lady, or governess in a family; adding coldly, that he would in that case take care

of me, and put me out to nurse, till I was old enough to procure a livelihood.

"Honour, and respect for the memory of her husband, had made in the breast of my mother a struggle, which this inhuman treatment rendered at once ineffectual. On one side, affluence, with the man whom she already loved more than she was aware of; and a certain provision for the infant on whom she doted, awaited her; on the other, poverty, dependence, and contempt; her child torn from her, and herself sent to service. The contrast was too violent: She retired to her room, and without giving herself time for reflection, wrote to Lord Pevensy, and the next day quitting her inhospitable and selfish relations, without giving them any account of herself, she set out with his Lordship for Paris. A servant was provided for me: all that love and fortune could offer were lavished on her; and at an elegant house on the banks of the Seine she was soon established; with a splendour which however served not to make her happy.

"Still conscious of the impropriety of her situation, she could never conquer the melancholy that preyed on her mind; though she sometimes thought, that to have the daughter of Douglas educated and provided for, as his Lordship's fondness educated and provided for me, was in reality a greater proof of attachment to his memory than she would have shown, had she suffered me to have remained in the indigence and disgrace to which the penurious and sordid temper of my uncle would have exposed me." The two sons, whom she brought my Lord, shared her tenderness without lessening it; and while the utmost care was taken of their education, as soon as they were old enough to receive instructions, I had the best masters which Paris afforded; and, with such advantages, almost every European language, at an early age, became familiar to me. Lord Pevensy, who was as partial to me as if I had been indeed his daughter, and in whose fondness for my mother time made no abatement, saw with pleasure the progress I made, and flattered himself that he should establish me happily, though the situation of my mother (who, though she was treated in France with great respect, was well understood not to be the wife of Lord Pevensy) was a very unfavourable circumstance to me even in that country. The world, however, called me handsome; and I had received an education very different from that which is usually given to young women in France. On the day on which I completed my fourteenth year, Lord Pevensy came to me, as I was dressing for a little entertainment which he had ordered on the occasion, and wishing me joy of my birthday,

day, he saluted me, and put into my hands a bank-note of a thousand pounds. "Take it, my dear Caroline," said he, "as a trifling testimony of my affection for you. Use it for your smaller expences, and be assured that I will not neglect to make your future prospects equal to the education you have received, and to which you do so much honour."

"I received this generosity as I ought. Alas! my benefactor went in a few weeks to Ergland, and I saw him no more. A strange presentiment of evil hung over my mother, whose health had long been very uncertain. She could not bear to take the last leave of his Lordship; and he, who lived but to oblige her, still lingered and delayed his journey, till repeated letters from those who had the care of his estates compelled him to determine on it. His two sons, one of ten, the other of eight years old, were by this time at a public school in England, and he promised to gratify my mother with the sight of them on his return, which he said should be as soon as he could settle the affairs which called him over.

"When he was gone, however, my mother fell into a deep melancholy; and as we were almost always alone together, she talked very frequently of the incidents of her past life, related the particulars I have repeated to you, and asked me whether I could forgive her for having thus been betrayed into a situation which, whatever it might be in the sight of Heaven, would, in that of the world, render me liable to eternal reproach. It was then I conjured her to banish from her mind, as useless which served only to destroy an health so precious to us all. Still they returned too often, and her delicate constitution very visibly suffered. After Lord Peversey, who had been used to write by every post, had been gone about six weeks, his letters suddenly ceased. My mother for some days flattered herself, that it was merely owing to his being on his journey back; but her hopes gradually died away, and the most alarming apprehensions succeeded—apprehensions too well founded. We were sitting together one morning, when a sudden rattle of the servants in the anti-room surprised us. I rose to enquire into the occasion of it, and, on my opening the door, was shocked by the sight of my two brothers, and their tutor, who had been attempting to prevent their sudden entrance. The poor boys on seeing me burst into tears, and exclaiming, "Oh! Caroline! my father!" they rushed by me, and threw themselves into the arms of their mother; who, wild with terror, had no power to enquire, what indeed they soon told her—"Oh! mamma! our papa is dead! They have sent us here to

you—they have taken him from us, and every thing that was his!"

"The Tutor, who highly respected my mother, now attempted to take the children from her; but she held them in her arms, while, with a look which I shall never forget, and with the voice of piercing anguish, she enquired what all this meant? The worthy man related, in a few words, that Lord Peversey had been seized with a fever at one of his country houses, where, after a few days illness, he died: that his brother, who became heir to his title, had instantly possessed himself of all his effects, and had directed the two boys to be taken immediately to France, and to drop the name they had hitherto borne. With reluctance the Tutor added, that the present Lord intended in a few days being at the house we inhabited, in order to receive the jewels and other valuables which belonged to his brother.

"No tear fell from the eyes of the dear unhappy woman, no sigh escaped her heart. She desired me to tranquillise the poor boys, (who still fondly clung round her, weeping for their dead papa), and complaining that she suffered great pain in her head, desired to be put to bed. I remained by her, and endeavoured to excite her tears, while mine flowed incessantly; but the greatness and suddenness of the calamity overwhelmed her constitution, though it still left to her mind strength enough to reflect on the condition of her children.

"Caroline," said she to me as I sat by her, "I shall probably be in a few hours reduced to that indigence, from which, perhaps, it were better I had never been relieved. But your brothers! for them I suffer! The proceedings of the present Lord Peversey leave me little reason to hope that any Will exists in England which secures them the ample provision their father designed for them. There are, in a box which my Lord left, several papers which he told me were of consequence: but they will be taken from me unless immediately secured. Send therefore for Mr Montgomery, and deliver to him that box."

"She then gave me a direction to him. I had never seen Mr Montgomery, though he was a friend of my Lord's. I hastened to execute her commands. He flew to the house on receiving my message; and, instead of a man of business as I expected, I beheld a young man of about seven and twenty, in the uniform of one of those Scottish regiments which were received by the King of France after their master's affairs became irretrievable. He had been quartered for some time in a remote province; but being distantly related to, and highly esteemed by the late Lord Peversey, he had constantly corresponded with him, and had been
enquired

strusted with his intentions relative to my mother, my brothers, and myself.

"The warm and lively interest Montgomery took for my mother, the manly tenderness which he discovered when he saw our distress, and the trouble which he instantly undertook to encounter for us, were powerful incentives to me to admire and esteem him. I then thought him the noblest of human beings, and a few days convinced me that he deserved all the partiality my young heart had conceived for him. The new Lord Pevensey, who intended to have reached my mother's house before she could have notice of his journey (and was prevented only by the zeal of the tutor who had the care of my brothers), arrived on the third day after she had received these fatal tidings. He was a man not much turned of forty, but with a harsh and stern countenance, a large heavy person, and a formal cold manner. He brought with him a lawyer from England, and engaged another in France to accompany him to the house; where, with very little ceremony, he demanded of my mother all the jewels and effects of his deceased brother. Summoning all her resolution, and supported by Montgomery, who never left her, she tried to go through this dreadful ceremony with some degree of fortitude. She delivered, with trembling hands, a star, a sword set with brilliants, and several other family jewels. She then opened a casket, in which her own were inclosed, and Lord Pevensey was taking them from her, when Montgomery interfered, saying that they were her's, and he should not suffer her to part with them.

"It would be tedious to relate the scenes which passed between Lord Pevensey, his lawyer, and Montgomery; who, finding it necessary, engaged lawyers on the part of my mother. A will of the late Lord had been found among the papers which she had put in the possession of Montgomery, in which an annuity of eight hundred a-year was settled on my mother, and all his estates charged with the payment of ten thousand pounds to each of my brothers, and two to me. This will the present Lord disputed; and the contending parties prepared for law, the circumstances of the case rendering it necessary that this contention should be carried on as well in England as in France.

"The spirits and health of my mother gradually declined. The friendship, the unwearied kindness of Montgomery, alone supported her; but neither his attention nor mine could cure the malady of the mind, or bind up the wounds of a broken heart.

"I will not detain you with relating the various expedients for accommodation which were in the course of the first month pro-

posed by the relations of the family who knew the tenderness the late Lord Pevensey had for my mother; that he considered her as his wife; and that her conduct could not have been more unexceptionable had she readily been so. Still lingering in France, and still visiting a house into which his cruelty had introduced great misery, the proceedings of Lord Pevensey wore a very extraordinary appearance. My mother was now confined almost entirely to her room; and Montgomery concealed from her his uneasiness at what he remarked; but to me he spoke more freely, and told me he was very sure his Lordship had other designs than he suffered immediately to appear. In a few days the truth of his conjecture became evident. I was alone in a small room at the end of the house, where I had a harpsichord which I had removed thither since my mother's illness. She was asleep. Montgomery, on whom my imagination had long been accustomed to dwell with inexpressible delight, had been detained two days from us. Those days had appeared two ages to me; and his absence, combined with the uneasiness of our situation, and the state of my mother's health, depressed my spirits, and I sought to soothe them by music. A little melancholy air, which I often sung to Montgomery, was before me; it expressed my feelings; and I was lost in the pleasure of expressing them, when the door from the garden opened, and Lord Pevensey stalked, in his formal manner, into the room.

"I rose instantly from my seat, but he took my hand, and with an air of familiarity bade me sit down again; then drawing a chair close to me, he looked in my face, and cried—Sweet Caroline! she will not refuse to sing to me! She does not hate me, and will perhaps be the lovely mediatrix who shall adjust all differences between me and her mamma."

"I have no power, Sir, to adjust differences," answered I, much alarmed at his look and manner. "Indeed you have, my charming girl," cried he attempting very rudely to kiss me; "and if you will only be sensible of the same friendship for me, as your mother had for my brother, every thing he left in her possession shall be hers. Nay, I will make you sole mistress of my fortune, and she shall enjoy all the claims with her beloved Montgomery."

"I cannot describe what I felt at that moment. I knew not what I said; in the first emotion of terror and anger, I flew to the door, but it was fastened. I then attempted to reach that which led to the garden, but he caught me in his arms. I shrieked, I struggled to disengage myself, while the wretch exclaimed—"Violent airs these, for the daughter of Mrs Douglas to give

give herself pretty affection in a girl who is in the right up on the wages of prostitution! I had his crucifix, but unable to read, I could only recollect my cries. The mother, who had cured of rage with me; but, incapable of hearing, I tried only to catch a glimpse when the door was broken open with great force, and Montgomery burst into the room.

"What," he saying, to inquire into the cause of my shrieks, he flew at Lord Peverley, "you be pincered in a moment to the waist!" A scene ensued, so terrific, that I cannot do justice. Lord Peverley, far from reproving for his conduct, had the brutal audacity to repeat to Montgomery his smothered sarcasm against my mother; and cared to it more that he himself had taken the place of the deceased Lord. The agony which I felt was thrown by the violence of Montgomery's passion, was the only thing capable of restraining it. Seeing me to all appearance dying on the floor, where I had fallen, he quitted his adversary and came to raise and recluse me. Lord Peverley took that opportunity to depart, the entering however personal vengeance against Montgomery, and that he would retaliate every attempt to ruin my mother, whom he again insulted with filthy epithets, that Montgomery was with difficulty withheld from following him, and demanding an immediate reparation. I read that scene had been, it was succeeded by a scene which would have made me forget the former. I had not other consequences followed. When Lord Peverley was departed, Montgomery returned back to me; and while I thanked him as well as I was able for the protection he afforded me, he confessed, with agitation almost equal to mine, that from the first moments he had seen me, he had loved me; that his affection, which had since increased every hour, had made him extremely attentive to every thing that related to me; and that he had been long convinced of the designs of Lord Peverley, and for fear that to obtain me he would affect delays, and hold out hopes of compromise. "Till however, as I thought of him," continued he, "I could not have believed that his villainy would have gone such lengths, or have been so ungenerously betrayed. Now we have every thing to pretend that money or chicanery can execute."

"This was no time for reserve or affectation, I answered, that I feared only what might affect his personal safety; that the threats of Lord Peverley in that respect distracted me with terror; and that I should not have a moment's tranquillity till I saw a life secure which I very justly considered as infinitely dearer to me than my own.

"It would be uninteresting, were I to

describe the raptures of Montgomery on the discovery of my sentiments." A scene too tender to be related followed; and we were recalled from the delightful avowal of mutual passion, by a message from my mother, who had been awakened by the confusion which had happened below, and whose servants had insidiously told her what they knew of its occasion. As she had been informed of so much, it was impossible to conceal from her any part of what had passed. Though Montgomery softened as much as he could the opprobrious speeches which Lord Peverley had made relative to her, they sunk deeply into her mind; he saw how much she was affected, and ended the conversation as soon as he could. But when he had left us, my mother desired I would return to her, and thus spoke to me:

"Caroline, I will attempt no longer to deceive you. I feel myself dying. A few days, I am convinced, will terminate my life and my sufferings. I leave my poor boys with a few friends to contend the will of their father against all the weight of influence and power. And you! oh child of my first affections, I leave you with all that fatal beauty of which my weak heart has been so foolishly proud, to encounter not merely indigence, but the baseness of a world, where your mother's character, justifier, as I hope, and believe it is in the sight of heaven, will expose you to the intolerant addresses of the profligate; where you will be told, that as the mother deviated from the narrow path of rectitude, the daughter cannot pursue it. My errors will be urged to betray my Caroline to destruction; and when she reflects on the example of her mother, she will perhaps learn to desert her precepts."

"The bitter anguish inflicted by these cruel reflections here stifled her voice. I was myself more dead than alive; yet as I hung trembling over her on the sofa on which she lay, I attempted to say some thing that might console her, and with difficulty articulated the name of Montgomery, "Montgomery!" cried my mother, as soon as she recovered her speech—"oh! he is the worthiest, the most generous of human creatures! To him I have, in a will which this paper contains, given the care of my two boys. But you! oh, Caroline!—is a man of his age a guardian proper for a lovely young woman of yours? I have heretofore addressed myself in another paper to your father's family, and have besought them to pity and protect my Caroline. The present you received from my deceased Lord on your last birth-day will preserve you at least from the indigence I once experienced.—To Providence, to your own good principles and strong understanding, I commit the rest."

"I had not courage to say, that Montgomery desired only to have the strongest claim to become my protector, by receiving my hand. But in the evening, when I saw him, I told him all that had passed. Eagerly seizing on hopes so flattering to the ardour of his passion, he brought me to allow him to go to my mother and propose our immediate marriage. She heard him with gratitude and delight; and though she knew he had nothing but his commission in the French service, and that, being a Catholic, he could never rise to that rank in England which his high birth would have entitled him to expect, she hesitated not to give her consent. "Yes, my dear child," said she, at the end of this affecting scene—"in his virtues you will find fortune—in his honour and his courage protection. In leaving you to the care of such a man, I die contented." She grew daily weaker; but was anxious, even to a degree of impatience, to see us united before her death. Montgomery, therefore, to conquer every scruple and every difficulty, procured a clergyman of the church of England, who married us in her presence; and at my desire (who wished to shew Montgomery that I knew how to value his complaisance) the priest who officiated in his regiment performed the ceremony a second time.

"But forms could do nothing towards uniting our hearts more closely; and the happiness of a marriage where love only preceded was perhaps too great for humanity: nor those halcyon days were greatly obscured by the increasing illness of my mother, who declined rapidly for almost a fortnight, and then died in the arms of Montgomery, commending, with her last breath, her two boys to his protection. Her death, which, long as I had expected it, appeared utterly insupportable now it arrived, threw me into a state of languor and dejection, from which I was suddenly roused by hearing that Lord Pevensey, who had quitted France immediately after his disgraceful dismissal from the house, was now returned, and, engaged to find that Montgomery was actually my husband, had determined to pursue, with all the eagerness, rage and hatred could inspire, the process by which he hoped to deprive me and my brothers of our legacies. Nor was this all; the personal affront he had received from Montgomery he could not bear, though he had deterred it; and he now sent him a challenge, which Montgomery readily accepted; but to evade the strictness of those laws which are in force in France against duelling, the place where they were to meet was fixed in the dominions of the Pope, a little beyond Avignon.

Montgomery, anxious only to conceal this from me, found a pretence for his jour-

ney; and, telling me he had some military business to transact at Marseilles which would detain him for some days, he parted from me, concealing with courage truly heroic the anguish he felt in knowing that we were perhaps to meet no more.

"Providence yet preserved him to me. He dangerously wounded his adversary; and returned himself in safety. Then he retracted the cause of his absence; and the happiness I felt at his safety, was augmented, when a few days afterwards we received from Lord Pevensey, who believed himself dying, and was visited with the reproaches of a troubled conscience, an acknowledgement of the justice of my brother's claims to the provision made for them by their father, and an order to his *procureur* at Paris to put an end to every suit depending against us. In a few months Lord Pevensey recovered; we were put in possession of our rights; and my beloved Montgomery, to whom I owed every thing, studied not only how to make me happy, but to pursue as near as possible that line of conduct which my mother would have done had she lived. A war was raging with great violence between France and England, and I was unwilling to send the two dear boys to a country where it would be now difficult for me to see them. But as I knew it was the desire of my mother and my benefactor to have them brought up in the Protestant religion, I sent them with their tutor to Geneva. I had hardly recovered the pain of this parting, before one much more grievous was inflicted. The regiment in which Montgomery had a company was ordered into Germany. The situation I was then in made it seem madness for me to think of following him: but I was convinced that I should not survive his departure. He was to me father, brother, lover, husband! I had no other earthly happiness; and without him the universe was to me nothing. At first his fears for my safety made him resist my importunities; but he was compelled at length to consent, and I followed him, residing wherever he was encamped; and, however horrid the scenes were to which I thus became a witness, I felt nothing but for his life; that one dreadful apprehension having the effect of all violent passions, and making me forego, without musing them, every convenience to which I had been accustomed, and meet without apprehension a thousand dangers to which I was hourly exposed.

"In a small village on the banks of the Weser, near the camp of Marechal de Contades, my dear Charles was born, towards the beginning of the campaign of 1759. But he had not above six weeks blessed my eyes, and those of his dearest father, before that dear father went out to

the fatal field of Minden. I cannot describe what I felt during the action. My faculties were suspended by the most dreadful apprehensions that could agonize the human heart; this frightful suspense was terminated only by the certainty of all I dreaded. The English were victors; and the servant who had long attended on Montgomery had only time to tell me that he fell at the head of his company, his arm broke by a musket shot, and receiving a thrust from a bayonet in the breast. The man added, that, with a party of soldiers who adored their Captain, he had attempted to bring his master off the field; but that they were cut down by a body of Hessian horse, who, driving every thing before them, had compelled him to abandon the enterprise. I believe that my senses for some hours forsook me, during the horrors of a night too terrible to be described; the English took possession of the village where I was; but fortunately for me, a young officer of that nation was the first who, in endeavouring to prevent the excesses of the troops, entered the house where I remained with my infant in my arms.

"Roused by my fears for my child, I seemed suddenly to acquire courage. I demanded protection of the young officer, which, with the generous ardour of the truly brave, he instantly granted me: and being myself compelled to quit me, he gave me a corporal's guard, recommended me to the men as an English woman; and, having secured my safety, promised to return to me when the confusion of the hour a little subsided. The stupor of my grief being thus shaken off for a moment, I recollected, that if I suffered myself to sink, my boy, deprived of the nourishment which sustained him, would perish miserably, I took therefore the succour my servants offered me; but I neither spoke nor shed tears, nor heeded any thing that was said to me; my mind dwelling on the plan I had formed to avail myself of the generosity of the English officer, and to engage him to assist me in finding Montgomery, whether living or dead. It was late before this gallant young man returned to me: the moment he entered, he enquired eagerly after my health and safety. I thanked him as well as I could for the preservation I owed to him; but added, that to give it higher value, he must yet add another favour, and enable me to find the body of my husband, who had fallen in the field.

"He seemed amazed at my design and represented to me, that besides the terrifying circumstances attendant on such an undertaking, so unfit for my age and sex to encounter, my endeavours would very probably be fruitless.—"Nor should you,

Madam," added he, "so implicitly yield to grief: he, whose death you lament as certain, may be a prisoner."

"This ray of probability would have cheered for a moment the blackness of my despair, had not the particulars related by Montgomery's servant left me nothing to hope. I related these circumstances to the English officer, with that gloomy despondence which precludes the power of shedding tears. He saw the state of my mind, and generously resolved not only to gratify me, but himself to protect me with a party of his men.

"With my little boy in my arms (for I refused to leave him as obstinately as to relinquish my project), I went forth on this dreadful errand, to a scene of death and desolation so terrible, that I will not shock you by an attempt to paint it: livid bodies covered with ghastly wounds, from whom the wretches who follow camps, making war more hideous, were yet slipping their bloody garments; heaps of human beings thus butchered by the hands of their fellow creatures, affected me with such a sensation of sick horror, that I was frequently on the point of fainting. But Montgomery among them! left so be the food of wolves or dogs—that beloved face, that form on which my eyes had so doted, disfigured and mangled by birds of prey!—This horrid image renewed from time to time my exhausted strength; and the pity of my noble conductor, more and more excited in my favour, suffered him not to tire in the mournful office of attending me.

"We had however traversed in vain so much of the bloody field that my search seemed to be at length desperate; and my protector entreated me to consider, that by a longer perseverance I should injure my own health, and perhaps destroy my child, without a possibility of being of the least use to the lost object of my affection. It was now indeed night; but the moon shone with great lustre; and just as he had agreed to indulge me with ten minutes longer, on condition that I would then desist, the rays of the moon fell on something white; a few yards from me, which glittered extremely. An impulse, for which I cannot now account, made me suddenly catch it up: it was part of the sleeve of a shirt, and in it was a button set with brilliants, that had once belonged to Lord Pevensey, and which as the diamonds surrounded a cypher formed of her hair, had been, after his Lordship's death, given by my mother to Montgomery.

"This well known memorial convinced me of one fatal truth—that Montgomery was among the dead; but it revived the wretched hopes of finding his body, which

imagined could not be far off. My conductor allowed that it was probable, and accounted for this remnant of his hair, being found; by supposing that it had been torn, and dropped in a dispute for the spoil, which had happened among the plunderers of the defeated.

"Amazement by this melancholy certainty, I more narrowly examined every ghastly countenance near the spot; and at length, half-concealed by the blood that had flowed from his arm, which was thrown across his face, I discovered those well known features so dear to my agonized heart.

"Then, that grief which had hitherto been silent and sullen, suspended perhaps by a latent hope of his being a prisoner, broke forth in cries and lamentations. I threw myself on the ground; spoke to Montgomery, as if he was yet capable of hearing me, and, in the wildness of my phrenzy, protested that I would never remove from the spot where he lay, but would remain there, and perish with my infant, by the side of my husband. The young officer with all that humanity which characterizes the truly brave of every nation, bore with my extravagance; and with the most patient pity attempted to soothe and appease me, by calling off my thoughts, from the dead, to whom I could be no longer serviceable, and fixing them on my child, to whom my existence was so necessary; but a new idea had now struck me.—I insisted upon it that Montgomery was not dead; that I felt his heart palpitate; and that if I remained there and watched him, he would recover. I laid my hand close to his mouth; I fancied that, though feebly, he still breathed. My generous friend, who imputed all I said to the delirium of extravagant sorrow, yet condescended to humour, in hopes of assuaging it; but when, in compliance with my earnest entreaty, he enquired into the reality of my hopes, he fancied, with mingled astonishment and pleasure, that he really found a slight pulse in the heart, and that the body had not the clayey coldness of death. Fearful, however, of indulging me in a hope which, if found fallacious, might drive me into madness, he only said, that though he thought it improbable that any life remained, yet that to satisfy me the body should be removed to the house where I lodged, where a surgeon should attend to examine it; and if, as he greatly feared, there was indeed no chance of the vital powers being reanimated, I should at least be gratified in seeing the last offices performed; and should, as long as I remained where I was left, receive, both in regard to executing that mournful duty, and to my own safety, every good office he could render me.

"The guard, which he had directed to follow us through the field, now approached on his signal; they were directed to raise the body he pointed out, and to carry it to the village from whence we came. Fatigue and terror were now equally unfeeling; for though I had been too much agitated to discern those symptoms of life which my protector had really found, and had merely asserted it as an excuse to remain by the body of my husband, I was now sure that I should be indulged in my grief, and that Montgomery would receive the rites of sepulture. The body was no sooner placed on a bed in the room I inhabited, than throwing among the soldiers my purse, unseen by their commander, I hastened to give myself up to the dreadful luxury of sorrow. I found the young Englishman already there, gazing attentively on the disfigured face, with looks rather of doubt than of despair. On my entrance he retired, saying, "I ho! I would not have you, Madam, too sanguine in encouraging hopes which will make a painful uncertainty doubly cruel, yet I cannot wholly discourage them; that wound on the head, which seems to have been done by the hoof of an horse, gives me the most apprehension, for the rest appears not to have been mortal; but the surgeon, who shall attend you the moment he can be spared from his duty, will be better able than I am to tell you whether you have really any reason to flatter yourself."

"Before the surgeon arrived, I had, with the assistance of the French maid who attended me, washed the blood from the face, and from the various wounds he had received. The ideas which had occurred only in the ravings of a disordered imagination, now became real hopes: a slight pulsation appeared in the artery of the temples; his heart certainly, though languidly, beat. Ah! imagine my transports, for words cannot paint them; imagine what I felt when the surgeon, who soon after arrived, declared that Montgomery was not dead. Far, however, was he from pronouncing that he would recover. Besides the fracture in his arm, which was a very bad one; a wound made by a bayonet in the breast, which was not very deep; and a violent wound on the head, where however the skull had escaped, he had lost so much blood, that it was almost impossible to suppose he could survive it; and his weakness was so excessive, that he remained wholly insensible, supported only by drops of nourishment which I conveyed into his mouth with a spoon; and the surgeon dared not proceed immediately to the necessary operation of setting his arm, lest the shock should disperse the feeble spirit, which seemed every moment ready to depart from its mangled abode.

"Let me be brief. At the end of a week,

Montgomery,

Montgomery, restored from the grasp of death, recovered his senses, and knew me and his boy; and as the surgeons could not conveniently attend him where he was, my generous friend had him removed, as soon as it was possible, into Malaga, now in possession of the English. There, at the end of a month, he was out of danger; and yet confined to his bed; and there, at the termination of that period, he parted from his noble preserver (for was not I fit to the friendship no generous and generous man deservedly, as he was thus obliged to another part of Germany, and I returned to England. Before he went, he a French Montgomery to procure his exchange; which was attended with some difficulty, because there were doubts of his being a

British subject. Having however, by the intercession of this excellent friend, procured some testimonies of his being, though the son of Scottish parents, a subject of the French King, his exchange as such was admitted, and at the end of five months we returned to Paris. But Montgomery returned a cripple for his arm, which had been very difficult, and only by the extraordinary feat of the English surgeon, saved from amputation, was restored wholly able, and he wore it always in a sling. The extraordinary circumstance of his escape from death, as well as his great military merit, procured him the notice of the King of France; who gave him with a pension considerable at that time and in that service, the cross of St. Louis."

Poetry.

THE COMPLAINT OF SCOTLAND.

ADEW all gladdnes, sport, and play,
A dew, fair weel, but in the night and day,
All thingz that may mak merie cheer,
Bot fish richt for in haist, and day,
Allace to graif is gone my deir.

¶ My lothfou n hie I may lament,
With fixt face, and mynd attent,
In weining we to perseuer,
And asking till for punishment,
Of thome his bouit to graif my deir.

¶ Bot long allace I may compaine,
Before I find my vengeance,
To he was faithfull and true,
As auld dew on a grass burne,
Allace to graif is gone my deir.

¶ Sen nith he may my mourning mend,
O Galloway, O Galloway,
My cairn, saule, and to weene,
For he flappit to me will send,
Allace to graif is gone my deir.

¶ My hainc hup, and piteous lycht,
Doeis pen my hart burne day and night,
Thy lym nor icht, thair is not thair,
Thy lym revenge, wald cease mycht,
The cruel murder of my deir.

¶ This cruel wound, to speif me fair,
The yethel, of the befor,
Sen Feigus first of me take fair,
For now all he decaye my gear,
Throw cruel murder of my deir.

¶ O wickit wretche unfortunat,
O faung: ferd infat at,

Mycht thou not, frantik saie! forbear
To sit with durt intoxicat,
And cruel deour my deir.

¶ Wa worth the wretche, wa worth the
clan,

¶ Wa worth the wit, that first began,
This deir debat for to vpstar,
Contrare the wisis of God and man,
To murder cruelie my deir.

¶ Throw the now lawles libertie,
Throw the murther and cruelie,
Throw the fals men their heidis vpbair,
Throw the is banicil equitie,
Throw the to graif is gone my deir.

¶ Throw the mur-Kingz than ene doeing,
Throw the all traitourz by thelic sing,
Throw the is kendit dicit weir,
Throw the murther wald beir the wing,
Throw the to graif is gone my deir.

¶ Throw the is rest sturtsum stryle,
Throw the the vittal beir of lyfe
Is him bereft, did with the bier:
Quhen galloway, or cutting knyfe,
Suld straglit the, and suit my deir.

¶ Ungraitful grome, sic recompence
Was not condigne to thine offence,
With glowing gaune that man to teir,
From Goggis dicit was thy defence:
To the sic merice schew my deir.

¶ O curst Cain, O hound of Hell,
O bludie bairn of Thumell,
G-dajiah quhen thou did teir,
To vicis al: thou rang the bell,
Throw cruel murder of my deir.

• Transcribed from a black letter sheet, supposed to have been printed at Edinburgh in 1567, and to relate to the murder of Lord Darnley.

¶ Allace

¶ Allace my deir did not forsie,
 Quhen he gair pardone vnto the,
 Mair wickit wretche, to nien finer
 Quhat paine he brocht, and miserie,
 With reuthfull rain to my deir.

¶ Bot trew it is, the godly men,
 Quhilk think no harme, nor fallst ken,
 Nor haitret dois to vtherz heir,
 As sonest brocht to deithis deir;
 As may be sone be this my deir.

¶ Thairfor to the I say no moir,
 Bot I traist to the King of Gloir,
 That thow and thyne fall zit reitair
 Zour campz with mairning mynd richt soir,
 For cruell murther of my deir.

¶ O nobill Lordis of renoun,
 O Baronis bauld, ze mak zow boum,
 To sute the field with freche effair,
 And dintis doufe, the pride ding down
 Of thame that brocht to graif my deir.

¶ Reuenge his deith with ane assent,
 With ane hart, will mynde, and intent,
 In faithfull friendship persuer:
 God will zow fauour, and thame scent,
 Be work or word that flew my deir.

¶ Be crouz ze Commouns, in this case,
 In auenture ze cry allace,
 Quhen murtherer the swing fall heir,
 And from zour natiue land zow chace,
 Unles that ze reuenge my deir.

¶ Lat all that fische be trap in net,
 Was counfall, art, part, or relet,
 With thankfull mind and hartie cheir,
 Or zit with helping hand him met,
 Quhen he to graif did bring my deir.

¶ Defend zour King, and feir zour God,
 Pray to auoyde his ferfull rod,
 Lest, in his angrie wrath audier,
 Ze punisht be, baith euen and od,
 For not reuenging of my deir.

¶ And do not feir the number small,
 Thocht ze be few, on God ze call,
 With faithfull hart, and mynde sincer,
 He will be ay zour brasin wall,
 Gif ze with speid reuenge my deir.

¶ Remove all floggrische flewth away,
 Lat lurking inuy cane away,
 Gar commoun weill zour baner heir,
 Ane peace and concorde it dispay,
 Quhen ze pas to reuenge my deir;

¶ With sobbing sych I to zow fend
 This my complaynt with dew commend,
 Desiring zow all, without feir,
 Me pure Scotland for to defend,
 Sen now to graif is gone my deir.

LINES WRITTEN IN GLENCOE ON THE
 EVENING OF THE 28th OF SEPTEMBER
 1791.

SEATED, sublime, on her primeval
 throne,
 Here Nature reigns majestic and alone!
 Rocks behind rocks in dread succession rise,
 And rear their heads tremendous to the
 skies!

A thousand streams descend in thund'ring
 found,
 Roar o'er the shatter'd cliffs, and shake the
 mountains round.

Here, while I tread, let raptur'd Fancy
 soar;
 Here FINGAL, OSSIAN, OSCAR, trode be-
 fore—
 Heroes and Bards! renown'd in ancient
 Song,
 That bears your name the wond'ring world
 along!

I see your Spirits on your clouds recline,
 Gild the thick gloom, and thro' the dark-
 ness shine!

The * Voice of CONA strikes my ravish'd ear;
 I see his heroes chase the flying deer!
 The song is rais'd; the feat of shells goes
 round;

And themes of old from airy harps resound!
 Ghosts of my Fathers! let me join your
 choir!

Vouchsafe my soul a portion of your fire!
 Spirits of Heav'n! admit me of your
 throng;

And bid my name, like yours, live in im-
 mortal song.

* OSSIAN.

Wm. Mc.

CONNUBIAL ADVICE.

To a Simple Young Gentleman who was on the
 point of marrying a Lady of Literature.

By ANTHONY PASQUIN, Esq.

WHAT! marry DaStylla, a woman of
 letters!

Sure, Caleb, you're mad—leave the nymph
 to her betters;

Her contempt of your nod will soon shew
 you she's chief;

And she's ever, they say—turning o'er a new
 leaf.

Should you e'er misinterpret her words or
 her looks,

She'll irascibly banish you—out of her looks,
 How the deuce can you match her with lan-
 guage or lungs,

Who is mistress, the deafen'd all say, of
 three tongues!

I intreat, my dear Caleb, you wed with
 none such,

Ask the prudent, they'll tell you, one tongue
 is too much.

THE

* Author of the Postscript to the New Bath Guide.

THE FISHERMAN AND CYNIC,

A TALE. By the Same.

(Inscribed to the MISANTHROPI.)

FELICITY by all is sought;
By some commanded, others bought;
Tho' Happiness to mortal view
Changes like the Camelion's hue.

A Cynic, whose contracted breast
Ne'er gave admission to a jest,
Forsook, one morn, his calm abode,
To muse and murmur as he rode;
Reading upon his mental pages
The dogmas of succeeding ages,
Yet none could satisfy his mind,
But Heaven had been to man unkind;
Tho' Phœbus proudly blaz'd before him,
His beams to peace could not restore him.

After he'd spent the genial day
In sinking, to himself a prey,
And raising bulwarks 'gainst Content's assist-
ance,

He saw an Angler at a distance,
While he was putting up his rod,
And singing merrily to glad his God:
As he appear'd breath'd without annoy,
The Cynic spur'd his steed to mend his
pace,

And, curious, hurried to the place,
To find the origin of so much joy.
The surly feer accosted thus the swain:
Tell me, thou jocund tyrant to the fishes,
Has your success been equal to your wishes?
So, so, replied the clown, and sung again.
So, so, is inconclusive; speak downright;
You trifle with me; you're dispos'd to
quibble.

Why then, said t'other, tho' I've got no bite,
I've had—a glorious nibble.

The stricken Ingrate with surprise
Thus utter'd, lifting up his eyes,
Ah me! ye Gods, can such a creature be
The social intimate of Glee!

This moment, Anguish to the winds I blow;
Fool that I was, to droop with grief,
When ev'ry trifle brings relief.

How weak those antients were, who ask'd
the Sybil,

How they might step aside from human woe,
When bliss depends upon a—nibble!

THE NEGRO'S COMPLAINT,

A P O E M.

By the celebrated Mr COOPER,

Author of the TASK, &c.

FORC'D from home, and all its plea-
sures,
Afric's coast I left forlorn.

To increase a stranger's treasures
O'er the raging billows born.

Men from Europe bought and sold me,
Paid my price in paltry gold;
But tho' their's they have inroll'd me,
Minds are never to be sold.

Still I'm thought as free as ever,
What are Europe's rights, I ask,
Me from my delights to sever?
Me to torture? Me to task?

Fleecy locks, and black complexion,
Cannot forfeit Nature's claim:
Skins may differ, but affection
Dwells in White and Black the same.

Why did all-creating Nature
Make the plant for which we toil?
Sighs must fan it, tears must water,
Sweat of ours must dress the soil.

Think, you Masters iron-hearted,
Sitting at your jovial boards;
Think how many Blacks have smarted
For the sweets your care affords.

Is there, as you sometimes tell us,
Is there one who reigns on high?
Has he bid you buy and sell us,
Speaking from his throne the sky?

Ask him, if your knotted scourges,
Fetters, blood-extorting screws,
Are the means that duty urges,
Agents for his will to use?

Hark! he answers: Wild Tornados,
Strewing yonder sea with wrecks,
Wasting towns, plantations, meadows,
Is the voice with which he speaks.

He foretelling what vexations
Afric's Sons should undergo,
Fix'd these Tyrants habitations;
Where his whirlwinds answer, No.

By our blood in Afric wasted,
E'er our necks receiv'd the chain,
By the furrows that we tilled,
Crossing in your barks the main.

By our sufferings, since ye bought us
To the Man-degrading smart,
All sustain'd with patience, taught us
Only by a broken heart.

Deem our nation brutes no longer,
Till some reason you shall find,
Worthier of regard, and stronger,
Than the colour of our kind.

Slaves to Gold,—whose sordid dealings
Tarnish all your boasted powers,
Prove that you have human feelings,
E'er you proudly question ours.

THE
Monthly Register
 FOR DECEMBER 1791.

FOREIGN INTELLIGENCE.

AMERICA.

The President's Address to both Houses of the Federal Legislature, delivered in the Senate Chamber, on the opening of Congress:—

Fellow-citizens of the Senate, and the House of Representatives,

I MEET you, upon the present occasion, with the feelings which are naturally inspired by a strong impression of the prosperous situation of our common country, and by a persuasion equally strong that the labours of the session which has just commenced, will, under the guidance of a spirit no less prudent than patriotic, issue in measures conducive to the stability and increase of national prosperity.

Numerous as are the providential blessings which demand our grateful acknowledgments, the abundance with which another year has again rewarded the industry of the husbandman is too important to escape recollection.

Your own observations in your respective situations will have satisfied you of the progressive state of agriculture, manufactures, commerce, and navigation. In tracing their causes, you will have remarked with particular pleasure, the happy effects of that revival of confidence, public as well as private, to which the constitution and laws of the United States have so eminently contributed; and you will have observed, with no less interest, new and decisive proofs of the increasing reputation and credit of the nation. But you, nevertheless, cannot fail to derive satisfaction from the confirmation of these circumstances, which will be disclosed in the several official communications that will be made to you in course of your deliberations.

The rapid subscriptions to the Bank of the United States, which completed the sum allowed to be subscribed in a single day, is among the striking and pleasing evidences which present themselves, not only of confidence in the government, but of resource in the community.

In the interval of your recess, due attention has been paid to the execution of the different objects which were specially provided for by the laws and resolutions of the last session.

Among the most important of these is the defence and security of the Western Frontiers. To accomplish it on the most humane principles, was a primary wish.

Accordingly, at the same time that treaties have been provisionally concluded, and other proper means used to attach the wavering, and to confirm in their friendship the well-disposed tribes of India—effectual measures have been adopted to make those of a hostile description sensible, that a pacification was desired upon terms of moderation and justice.

These measures having proved unsuccessful, it became necessary to convince the refractory of the power of the United States to punish their depredations: offensive operations have therefore been directed—to be conducted, however, as consistently as possible with the dictates of humanity.—Some of these have been crowned with full success, and others are yet depending. The expeditions which have been completed were carried on under the authority and at the expence of the United States, by the militia of Kentucky, whose enterprise, intrepidity and good conduct, are entitled to peculiar commendation.

Overtures of peace are still continued to the deluded tribes, and considerable numbers of individuals belonging to them have lately renounced all further opposition, removed from their former situations, and placed themselves under the immediate protection of the United States.

It is sincerely to be desired, that all need of coercion in future may cease, and that an intimate intercourse may succeed, calculated to advance the happiness of the Indians, and to attach them firmly to the United States.

In order to this, it seems necessary—That they should experience the benefits of an impartial dispensation of justice.

That the mode of alienating their lands, the main

main source of discontent and war, should be so defined and regulated as to obviate imposition, and, as far as may be practicable, controversy concerning the reality and extent of the alienations which are made.

That commerce with them should be promoted under regulations tending to secure an equitable deportment towards them, and that such rational experiments should be made for imparting to them the blessings of civilization as may from time to time suit their condition.

That the Executive Power of the United States should be enabled to employ the means to which the Indians have been long accustomed, for uniting their immediate interests with the preservation of peace.—And

That efficacious provision should be made for inflicting adequate penalties upon all those who, by violating their rights, shall infringe the treaties, and endanger the peace of the Union.

A system corresponding with the mild principles of religion and philanthropy towards an unenlightened race of men, whose happiness materially depends on the conduct of the United States, would be as honourable to the national character, as conformable to the dictates of sound policy.

The powers specially vested in me by the act laying certain duties on distilled spirits, which respect the sub-divisions of the districts into surveys, the appointment of officers, and the assignment of compensations, have likewise been carried into effect.—In a manner in which both materials and experience were wanting to guide the circulation, it will be readily conceived that there must have been difficulty in such an adjustment of the rates of compensation as would conciliate a reasonable competency with a proper regard to the limits prescribed by the law. It is hoped that the circumspection which has been used will be found in the result to have secured the last of the two objects; but it is probable, that with a view to the first, in some instances a revision of the provision will be found advisable.

The impressions with which this law has been received by the community have been, upon the whole, such as were to be expected among enlightened and well-disposed citizens, from the propriety and necessity of the measure. The novelty, however, of the tax, in a considerable part of the United States, and a misconception of some of its provisions, have given occasion, in particular places, to some degree of discontent.—It is satisfactory to know, that this disposition yields to proper explanations and more apprehensions of the true nature of the law. And I entertain a full confidence

that it will, in all, give way to motive which arise out of a just sense of duty, and a virtuous regard to the public welfare.

If there are any circumstances in the law, which, consistently with its main design, may be so varied as to remove any well-intentioned objections that may happen to exist, it will consist with a wise moderation to make the proper variations. It is desirable, on all occasions, to unite, with a steady and firm adherence to constitutional and necessary acts of government, the fullest evidence of a disposition, as far as may be practicable, to consult the wishes of every part of the community, and to lay the foundations of the public administration in the affections of the people.

Pursuant to the authority contained in the several acts on that subject, a district of ten miles square, for the permanent seat of the government of the United States, has been fixed, and announced by proclamation; which district will comprehend lands on both sides of the river Potomac, and the towns of Alexandria and Georgetown. A city has also been laid out, agreeably to a plan which will be placed before Congress; and as there is a prospect, favoured by the rate of sales which have already taken place, of ample funds for carrying on the necessary buildings, there is every expectation of their due progress.

The completion of the census of the inhabitants, for which provision was made by law, has been duly notified (excepting in one instance), in which the return has been informal; and another, in which it has been omitted or miscurried; and the returns of the officers who were charged with this duty, which will be laid before you, will give you the pleasing assurance, that the present population of the United States borders on four millions of persons.

It is proper also to inform you, that a further loan of two millions and a half of florins has been completed in Holland, the returns of which are similar to those of the one last announced, except as to a small reduction of charges. Another, on like terms, for six millions of florins, had been set on foot, under circumstances that assured immediate completion.

Gentlemen of the Senate,

Two treaties which have been provisionally concluded with the Cherokee, and fixations of Indians, will be laid before you for your consideration and ratification.

Gentlemen of the House of Representatives,

In entering upon the discharge of your legislative trust, you must anticipate with pleasure, that many of the difficulties necessarily incident to the first arrangement of a new government for an extensive country have been happily surmounted by the zealous and judicious exertions of your predecessors

cessors in co-operation with the other branch of the legislature. The important objects which remain to be accomplished, will, I am persuaded, be conducted upon principles equally comprehensive, and equally well calculated for the advancement of the general weal.

The time limited for receiving subscriptions to the loans proposed by the act making provision for the debt of the United States having expired, statements from the proper department will, as soon as possible, apprise you of the exact result. Enough, however, is already known; to afford an assurance that the views of that act have been substantially fulfilled. The subscription in the domestic debt of the United States has embraced by far the greatest proportion of that debt; affording, at the same time, proof of the general satisfaction of the public creditors with the system which has been proposed to their acceptance, and of the spirit of accommodation to the convenience of the government with which they are actuated. The subscriptions in the debts of the respective States, as far as the provisions of the law have permitted, may be said to be yet more general. The part of the debt of the United States which remains unsubscribed, will naturally engage your further deliberations.

It is particularly pleasing to me to be able to announce to you, that the revenues which have been established promise to be adequate to their objects, and may be permitted, if no unforeseen exigency occurs, to supersede, for the present, the necessity of any new burdens upon our constituents.

An object which will claim your early attention, is a provision for the current service of the ensuing year, together with such ascertained demands upon the Treasury as require to be immediately discharged, and such casualties as may have arisen in the execution of the public business, for which no specific appropriation may have been made; of all of which, a proper estimate will be laid before you.

Gentlemen of the Senate and of the House of Representatives,

I shall content myself with a general reference to former communications for several objects, upon which the urgency of other affairs has hitherto postponed any definitive resolution; their importance will recall them to your attention; and I trust that the progress already made in the most arduous arrangements of the government will afford you leisure to resume them with advantage.

There are, however, some of them of which I can not forbear a more particular mention. These are the Militia—the Post

Office and Post Roads—the Mint—Weights and Measures—a Provision for the Sale of the Vacant Lands of the United States.

The first is certainly an object of primary importance, whether viewed in reference to the national security, to the satisfaction of the community, or to the preservation of order. In connection with this, the establishment of competent magazines and arsenals, and the fortification of such places as are peculiarly important and vulnerable, naturally present themselves to consideration. The safety of the United States, under divine protection, ought to rest on the basis of systematic and solid arrangement, exposed as little as possible to the hazards of fortuitous circumstances.

The importance of the Post Office and Post Roads, on a plan sufficiently liberal and comprehensive, as they respect the expedition, safety, and facility of communication, is increased by the instrumentality in diffusing a knowledge of the laws and proceedings of the government, which, while it contributes to the security of the people, serves also to guard them against the effects of misrepresentation and misconception. The establishment of additional cross-posts, especially to some of the important points in the Western and Northern points of the Union, cannot fail to be of material utility.

The disorders in the existing currency, and especially the scarcity of small change, a scarcity so peculiarly distressing to the poorer classes, strongly recommend the carrying into immediate effect the resolution already entered into concerning the establishment of a mint. Measures have been taken pursuant to that resolution for procuring some of the most necessary articles, together with the requisite apparatus.

An uniformity in the weights and measures of the country is among the important objects submitted to you by the Constitution; and if it can be derived from a standard at once invariable and universal, must be no less honourable to the public Councils than conducive to the public convenience.

A provision for the sale of the vacant lands of the United States is particularly urged, among other reasons, by the important consideration—that they are pledged as a fund for reimbursing the public debt; that, if timely and judiciously applied, they may save the necessity of burdening our citizens with new taxes for the extinguishment of the principal—and that, being free to discharge the principal but in a limited proportion, no opportunity ought to be lost for availing the public of its right.

G. WASHINGTON,

United States, Oct. 25, 1791.

Copy of the Declaration of the Court of Vienna to the Powers of Europe.

His Imperial Majesty makes known to all the Courts, to whom he sent the first circular letter, dated Padua the 6th July, (now adding to the number, Sweden, Denmark, Holland, and Portugal,) that the situation of the King of the French, which occasioned the said circular letter, being changed, he thinks it his duty to manifest to the said powers his present manner of thinking.

His Imperial Majesty thinks that the King of the French should be considered as FREE; and, in consequence, his acceptance, and all the subsequent acts, as valid. He hopes, that the effects of the said acceptance will restore good order in France, and that the moderate party may prevail according to the views of his Most Christian Majesty. But as the hopes of the King may, contrary to all appearance, be abortive, and as all the disorders of riot, and excess of violence, in regard to the King, may be renewed, his Imperial Majesty thinks, that all the powers to whom this is addressed, ought not yet to desist from the measure concerted between them, but continue vigilant; and that they ought to declare, by their respective Ministers at Paris, that their coalition subsists, and that they are ready to support, on every occasion, the rights of the King, and of the French Monarchy.

Vienna, Nov. 19, 1791.

The Letter, of which the following is a translation, we find inserted, as authentic, in one of the most respectable French Papers.

Letter from her Majesty the Empress of all the Russias, to the Marshall de Broglie;

“ Marshall de Broglie,

“ I address myself to you, to make known to the French Nobility, banished and persecuted, but still unshaken in their fidelity and attachment to their Sovereign, how sensibly I have felt the sentiments which they professed to me in their letter of 20th September. The most illustrious of your Kings gloried in calling themselves the first Gentlemen of their kingdom. Henry IV. was particularly desirous of bearing this title. It was not an empty compliment that he paid to your ancestors; but he thus taught them, that without Nobility there could be no monarchy; and that their interest to defend and maintain it was inseparable from his. They understood the lesson, and lavished their blood and their efforts to re-establish the rights of their masters and their own. Do you, their worthy descendants, to whom the unhappy circumstances of your country

open the same career, continue to tread in their steps, and let the spirit which animated them, and which you appear to inherit, be displayed in your actions.

“ Elizabeth succoured Henry IV. who triumphed over the League at the head of your ancestors.—The example of that Queen is worthy of being imitated by posterity; and I shall deserve to be compared to her by my perseverance in my sentiments for the descendant of the same hero, to whom I have as yet only shown my wishes and my good intentions. In espousing the common cause of Kings in that of your Monarch, I do no more than the duty of the rank which I hold on earth: I listen only to the pure dictates of a sincere and disinterested friendship for your Princes, the King's brothers, and the desire of affording a constant support to every faithful servant of your Sovereign.

“ Such are the dispositions of which I have charged Count Romanzow to assure those Princes. As no cause was ever more grand, more just, more noble, or more deserving to excite the zeal and the courage of all who have devoted themselves to defend it and to fight for it, I cannot but augur success the most fortunate and analogous to the wishes I have formed; and I pray God to have you, and all the French Nobility who participate your sentiments, and adhere to your principles, in his most holy keeping.

(Signed) CATHERINE.”

St. Petersburg, Oct. 29, 1791.

WARSAW, Nov. 25.

Prince Adam Czartorinski and Count Mortowski set off yesterday for Dresden to have a conference with the Electoral Cabinet, relative to the obstacles which have hitherto retarded the Elector's acceptance of the hereditary throne of Poland.

The principal of these obstacles are the following:—

1. That no act of the Diet shall have the force of a law, until it shall have received the Royal sanction.
2. That the marriage of the Princess Infanta shall solely be at the disposal of her August Parents.

(By the constitution this marriage is to be approved at least by the nation,

3. That the King's authority over the army shall be supreme, and uncontrouled.

FRANCE.

NATIONAL ASSEMBLY.

November 20.

The Assembly having considered a proposition made for taking decisive measures

at foreign Courts with regard to the Emigrants, decreed in the following terms :

" The National Assembly decrees that a deputation of twenty-four of its members shall wait upon the King, to communicate to him, in the name of the Assembly, its solicitude on the dangers that threaten the country, by the perfidious combination of Frenchmen, armed and embodied without the kingdom, and of those who devise plots within it, or excite the citizens to revolt against the law ; and to declare to the King that the nation will see with satisfaction all wise measures that the King can take for the purpose of requiring the Electors of Treves and Mayence, and the Bishop of Spire, conformably to the Rights of Nations, to disperse the assemblages of French Emigrants ; that with the same confidence in the wisdom of such measures, the nation will see the necessary troops assembled to compel those Princes to respect the law of nations by force of arms, if these assemblages should continue ; and, finally, that the National Assembly has thought it its duty to make this solemn declaration, to the end that the King may prove in the official communications of these impressive measures, to the Diet of Ratisbon, and all the Courts of Europe, that his intentions, and those of the French nation, are the same."

The same deputation will represent to the King, that the Assembly considers as one of the most efficacious measures to this effect, the speedy termination of the negotiations for the indemnities due to the Princes who possessed feudal rights in Alsace.

November 24.

THE KING'S LETTER TO THE NATIONAL ASSEMBLY.

" I am informed, Mr President, that the National Assembly, after having heard the report of their Diplomatic Committee, on the proposition contained in the letter from the Minister of Marine, dated the 31st of Oct. concerning the demands of the Dey of Algiers, and the sums to be voted for the armament ordered at Toulon, have decreed that there was no room for deliberation on the proposition, it not coming to them in a constitutional form.

" I have already remarked, on occasion of the funds destined for the armaments for San Domingo, that the Constitution did not prescribe any form different from that followed by the Minister of Marine, when he made, by my order, a demand of those funds, under his own responsibility ; but since the same difficulty is now again renewed, on occasion of the armament solicited to protect the commerce of Marseilles ; the obligation I have contracted to employ all the power entrusted to me in maintaining the

Constitution, makes it necessary for me to recapitulate its principles with regard to the point in question.

" The Constitution determining, in the most precise manner, the different relations of the King with the Legislative Body, has attached to the Royal Prerogative the right of proposing laws upon certain subjects, and of inviting the Legislative Body to take others into consideration. The act by which the King judges it proper to exercise either of these rights, being always an act purely Royal, of the same nature as the Royal sanction, requires, like that, the counter-signature of the Minister, only to attest the signature of the King, and imports not any kind of responsibility ; whereas the requisition of funds for the ordinary and extraordinary expences of Government, being evidently acts purely executive, ought always to proceed directly from the Ministers of the King, in order to have the guarantee of their responsibility.

" Such is the spirit and the general system of the Constitution, the basis of which is laid in the following disposition :—

" The King can only invite the Legislative Body to take a subject into consideration." Chap. 3. Sect. 1. Art. 3.

" I shall make use of this power, whenever the glory, the happiness, and the interest of the nation require it.

" Paragraph the 8th of the same article, delegates to the Legislative Body the right of determining annually, after the proposition of the King, the number of men and ships that shall compose the armies by land and by sea, as well as the pay and the number of individuals of each rank."

" I shall conform to this article in the general statements, which I shall address to the Legislative Body at the commencement of each year, and in the particular propositions of the same nature, as the extraordinary circumstances may require in the course of the year.

" War cannot be decided upon, except by a decree of the Legislative Body, made after the King's formal and necessary proposition, and sanctioned by him." —(Chap. 3. Sec. 1. Art. 2.)

" I hope that I may not ever be in the situation to address a proposition of this nature to the Assembly. Peace is too necessary to the happiness of France, that I shall not use every means consistent with the honour of the nation to maintain it.

" The following disposition of the same article imports, " That, in case of hostilities threatened, or already begun, or of an ally to be supported, or of a right to be enforced by arms, the King shall give notice of it without any delay to the Legislative Body, and shall acquaint it with his motives."

"I shall always conform to this disposition with that extreme circumspection the interest of the State requires; it would be to depart from this last in a dangerous manner to communicate simple doubts of the intention of a neighbouring power as a threatened hostility; in such a case it would be sufficient to take precautionary measures; and it is to the King exclusively that the nation has delegated this important care. I am now occupied in this care, and I shall always be so with the most active diligence; and the extraordinary funds which the different armaments have required, and the movement of troops which I have judged necessary, have all along been ordered on the simple demand of the ministers of war and of Marine, made by my orders; because, according to the terms of the Constitution, the Legislative Body are to order the funds according to their view of the expences to be made in their respective departments. This article indeed mentions only the ordinary expences; but it is impossible not to apply it to the extraordinary expences of the same nature.

"The Constitution, not having prescribed to me a different form relative to these expences, has necessarily ranged them in the same class, subjecting them to the same responsibility, by the 5th article of the same section, which could not be if they were to proceed from the King immediately, instead of being made by his minister, who are the agents which the Constitution has given him for acts purely executive.

"The 5th article of the 4th section, chapter the 3d, imports, "That all the acts of the King's correspondence with the Legislative Body ought to be counter-signed by a minister."

"But it would be to give the Constitution a tendency the most contrary to the principles which are its basis, to conclude that all the acts which solely interest the Executive Power, ought necessarily to be the subject of the personal correspondence of the King, because from this would result an entire deficiency of responsibility, and an absolute inaction in the proceedings of Administration, every time the King chose to be silent.

"The Constitution, without determining the cases in which the personal correspondence of the King would be necessary, has only expressed that all the acts of that correspondence should be countersigned by a minister.

"The Constitution has expressed nothing farther. It is my duty to be determined by it, because it formally interdicts all the constituted powers from the right of changing it, either wholly, or in its parts.

(Signed) LOUIS.
And undersigned, DEBATELLE.

M. Merlin read the following letter, which was found in a boat, near Treves, dated Paris, 22d October, and subscribed by M. Delatre, Professor of Physic, at Paris, addressed, "To M. De Calonne, Secretary of State, at Coblenz:—

"Monsieur,

"May I flatter myself, that, notwithstanding the importance of affairs in which you are engaged, you will deign to remember a professor, who, confined to Paris by his profession, still subsisting, though ruined, retained there, also by his age, which hinders him from joining the faithful servants of the King, sends thither his only son to supply his place, and takes the liberty of recommending him to your protection.

"This son was Comptroller General of the Farms: he has served under M. Neuilly, Farmer General, who has the honour of being known to you, and who will give a good character of my boy. He has, besides, the honour of being particularly known to Mr President Gilbert Desvoisins. May the project which you have conceived for the deliverance of the nation, and the re-establishment of order and tranquillity in the kingdom, be speedily and happily executed.
(Signed) DELATRE."

In consequence of this letter, the writer was seized and brought to the bar of the House, where he frankly avowed the letter, and was accordingly conducted to prison.

A letter was read from the Procurator Syndic of the department, giving an account of some disturbances at Montpellier, by which several persons had lost their lives.

December 14.

At four in the afternoon the Assembly met, and the President read a note from the King, announcing his intention of coming down to the Assembly at six.

As the note contained no intimation of the business on which his Majesty meant to come down, the President was authorized to return an immediate answer; and it was settled, that the Assembly, after taking into consideration the propositions which the King might make, should make known the result by a message.

The beating of drums announced the King's approach; the attendants of the Assembly placed two seats, ornamented with *flowers de lys* in gold before the President's chair; a deputation sent to receive the King, entered before him; the Officers proclaimed his arrival; the Members all stood up uncovered; the President announced that the Assembly was no longer a deliberative body, and that no person must speak; the King entered, surrounded by his Attendants, took

his place, and delivered the following speech:

"GENTLEMEN,

"I have taken your message of the 20th of last month into deep consideration. In a case that involves the honour of the French people, and the safety of the empire, I thought it my duty to be myself the bearer of my answer. The nation cannot but applaud these communications between its elected and its hereditary Representatives.

"You have invited me to take decisive measures to effect a cessation of those external assemblages which keep up a hateful disquiet and fermentation in the bosom of France, render necessary an oppressive augmentation of expence, and expose liberty to greater danger than an open and declared war. You desire me to cause declarations to be made to the neighbouring Princes, who, contrary to the rules of good neighbourhood, and the principles of the law of nations, protect these assemblages, that the nation can no longer suffer this want of respect, and those sources of hostility. Finally, you have given me so understand, that one general emotion is felt by the nation, and that the cry of all the French is for war, in preference to a ruinous and degrading patience.

"Gentlemen, I have long thought that our circumstances required great circumspection in our measures; that having scarcely yet weathered the agitations and the storms of a Revolution, and in the first essays of an infant Constitution, no means ought to be neglected that could preserve France from the innumerable evils of war; these means I have always employed. On the one hand, I have done every thing to recall the French Emigrants to the bosom of their country, and induce them to submit to the new laws which a great majority of the nation has adopted; on the other, I have employed amicable intimations, I have caused formal and precise requisitions to be made, to the neighbouring Princes, from giving them a support calculated to flatter their hopes, and encourage them in their rash designs.

"The Emperor has done all that was to be expected from a faithful ally, by forbidding and dispersing all assemblages within his states.

"My measures at the Courts of other Princes have not been equally successful. Unaccommodating answers have been given to my requisitions.

"These unjust refusals call for resolutions of another kind. The nation has manifested its wishes. You have collected them, you have weighed the consequences, you have expressed them to me by your message. Gentlemen, you have not anticipated me. As the representative of the people, I felt

the people's injuries; and I am now to inform you of the resolution I have taken to pursue reparation.

"I have caused a declaration to be made to the Elector of Treves, that if before the 15th of January he do not put a stop within his states to all collecting of troops, and all hostile dispositions on the part of the French, who have taken refuge in them, I shall no longer consider him but as the enemy of France. [shouts of applause and *Vive le Roi.*] I shall cause similar declarations to be made to all who favour assemblages contrary to the tranquillity of the kingdom; and by securing to foreigners all the protection which they ought to expect from our laws, I shall have a right to demand a speedy and complete reparation of all the injuries which Frenchmen may have received.

"I have written to the Emperor to engage him to continue his good offices, and, if necessary, to exert his authority as head of the empire, to avert the evils which the obstinacy of certain members of the Germanic body, if longer persisted in, cannot fail to occasion. Much may undoubtedly be expected from this interposition; supported by the powerful influence of his example; but I am at the same time making the most proper military arrangements to render these declarations respected.

"And if they shall not be attended to, then, Gentlemen, it will only remain for me to propose war; war, which a people who has tolerantly renounced conquest never makes without necessity; but which a nation, happy and free, knows how to undertake when its own safety—when honour commands.

"But in courageously abandoning ourselves to this resolution, let us hasten to employ the only means that can assure its success. Turn your attention, Gentlemen, to the state of the finances; confirm the national credit; watch over the public fortune. Let your deliberations, always governed by constitutional principles, take a grand, high spirited, and authoritative course, the only one that befits the legislators of a great empire. Let the constituted powers respect themselves to be respected; let them give mutual aid instead of mutual impediment; and finally, let it appear that they are distinct, but not enemies. It is time to shew to foreign nations, that the French people, their representatives, and their King, are but one.

"It is to this union, and also let us never forget it, to the respect we pay to the government of other states, that the safety, the consideration, and the glory of the empire are attached.

"For me, Gentlemen, it would be in vain to endeavour to surround with disguises the exercise of the authority which is considered

ided to me. In the face of all France I declare, that nothing shall weary my perseverance, or relax my efforts. It shall not be owing to me that the law does become the protection of the citizen and the terror of the disturber. I shall faithfully preserve the deposit of the constitution, and no consideration shall determine me to suffer it to be infringed.

"If men, who wish only for disorder and trouble, take occasion from this firmness, to calumniate my intentions, I will not stop to repel by words the injurious suspicions they may choose to circulate. Those who watch the progress of government with an attentive, but unprejudiced eye, must see that I never depart from the constitutional line, and that I feel profoundly how glorious it is to be the King of a free people."

This conclusion was followed by long continued shouts of, "Bravo, Long live the King of the French."

The President answered—

"The Assembly will take the propositions you have made into consideration, and communicate their determination by a message."

The King withdrew attended by a detachment, preceded by his ministers, and escorted by the National Guard.

The speech was ordered to be printed, and sent to the departments.

The Minister at War said, "the King wishes for peace: he has neglected no means of securing it; but he thinks it his duty to support these pacific measures by a vigorous line of conduct. His Majesty has charged me to give orders for assembling 150,000 men on the frontiers within a month. I am confident this is not only possible, but easy."

In consequence of the above speech, the National Assembly presented the following address to the King:—

"SIR,

In the language which your Majesty held to them, the National Assembly recognize the King of the French. They feel more than ever how truly valuable is harmony between the two branches of power and a frank communication, which is the desire, and will be the welfare of the empire.

"Sire, the Assembly will fix all their attention on the decisive measures which you announce, and if the order of events shall make the measures necessary, they promise to your Majesty more true glory than was ever obtained by any of your ancestors.

"They promise to Europe the new spectacle of a great people, outraged in its immutable love of liberty, arming the hand in union with the heart,

"Every where the French people will oppose themselves with vigour to their enemies, from the Rhine to the Pyrenees, from the Alps to the ocean. All France shall be covered by the regards of a good King, and by soldiers intrepid and faithful.

"Behold, Sire, the family that deserve your heart—these are your friends—these will never abandon you.

"All the representatives of the French people—all the Frenchmen guarantee, on their heads, the defence of a constitution to which they have sworn, and of a beloved King whose throne they have established."

ENGLAND.

FROM THE LONDON GAZETTE EXTRAORDINARY.

WHITEHALL, Dec. 1.

THE letters from the East Indies, of which the following are extracts and copies, were yesterday received by the Leopard, one of his Majesty's ships:—

Extract of a letter from the President and Council at Fort St George, in their political department, to the Court of Directors, dated the 21st June.

We avail ourselves of an opportunity that presents itself *vis* Bombay, of writing to your honourable Court on the subject of the military operations of this coast, since the date of our last advices by the Warren Hastings.

Lord Cornwallis, having drawn supplies from the magazine on the western frontiers, marched (as we had the honour to inform you in our last) from the head of the Venecatagerry Pass, on the 22d of April, and reached Bangalore on the 19th of that month; from whence his Lordship wrote to us, that as his cattle had suffered very considerably during the march, by the heavy rains that had fallen, it was necessary for us to provide, with all possible expedition a further supply of draft and carriage bullocks. Orders were in consequence immediately given for this purpose.

The army remained in the neighbourhood of Bangalore five days, to recruit their provisions, and prepare materials for the siege of Seringapatam. Colonel Duff was relieved from the command of the fort by Lieutenant Colonel Oldham; and on the 3d of May, Lord Cornwallis marched towards the capital of Mysore.

We did not hear again from his Lordship until the 31st of May, when he informed us, (in a letter dated the 9th) that he found the country more rugged and barren than he expected, and that his cattle had suffered very much by the march; That
the

the zeal of the troops had enabled him to go on, the greatest part of the carriages, loaded with the stores of the magazine, and a large proportion of the entrenching tools, having been drawn and carried almost all the way by the soldiers.

A few days after, we had the satisfaction to learn, by private accounts from the army on which we could depend, that Lord Cornwallis had, on the 15th of May, attacked and defeated Tippoo's whole force, taken four of his guns, and driven him, with all his troops, under the walls of Seringapatam. This singular victory was more honourable to the British arms, as the enemy had been forced from the heights, where he was strongly posted. Lord Cornwallis's account of the action has not yet reached us.

Our next advice was by an express from Lieutenant Colonel Oldham, in which he stated, that he had received a letter from Lord Cornwallis, dated the 22d of May, advising, that "the want of forage, provisions, and the reduced state of the cattle, had rendered it necessary for the army to return immediately to Bangalore." Lieutenant Colonel Oldham added, that "his Lordship, for want of bullocks, had been under the necessity of destroying the battering train."

We are much concerned to observe, that the want of the army had at length forced his Lordship to relinquish, in the midst of victory, the object of his enterprise; but, foreseeing that much might depend on immediate exertion, we lost not a moment in issuing our orders for collecting all the bullocks that could be procured in the country under our management, and for transporting to Amboor, for the use of the army, ample supply of grain and other provisions.

We advised Lord Cornwallis of the steps we had taken for the relief of the army, and expressed our hope, that, by the exertions we were making, added to those of Capt. Alexander Read, whom we had before sent with a detachment into the Mysore country to procure supplies, his Lordship would find his distress considerably relieved on his arrival at Bangalore.

On the 7th instant, we were informed, by private advices from Camp the 26th of May, that the Maratta army had joined Lord Cornwallis that evening, and that great hopes were entertained of relief by this means in the article of provision.

On the 10th instant we received a letter from his Lordship, dated the 9th ultimo, stating that the rapid destruction which the late heavy rains and the want of forage had occasioned among his cattle, in addition to the very unexpected obstructions to a junction with General Abercromby, owing to the badness and almost impracticability of the

roads of the Cavery, had obliged him to give up thoughts of attacking Seringapatam before the setting in of the Monsoon, but also to destroy the heavy iron guns, which, for the last several marches, had been drawn almost by the soldiers; that the famine which had prevailed among his followers had likewise increased his difficulties, by creating an alarming deficiency in the public stock of provisions; which could not be wondered at, when it was understood that rice sold in the Buzar for a Pagoda a Secer, (about lbs.) and that under this consideration, it was not to be expected that Mufftries and bullock-drivers would be able to withstand the temptation of plundering the bags committed to their charge on every march.

His Lordship concluded by moving, that he had been obliged to remain near Seringapatam to secure the retreat of General Abercromby, who had advanced to Periapatam; but that he should march on the 26th to Bangalore and Venecatsgherry. He requested that we would order every bullock that could be procured, to be sent immediately to Amboor, that he might be able, without loss of time, to furnish supplies for the troops, and to replace such part of the stock at Bangalore as he might be obliged to make use of during the march.

We informed Lord Cornwallis, in reply, that, from the exertions which had been made by Government, there was the greatest probability that we should have at Amboor, in the course of six weeks, or two weeks at farthest, six thousand draught and twenty thousand carriage bullocks (the number required by his Lordship) and that there were at present in the neighbourhood of that place 1,787 draft and 3,477 carriage bullocks.

A few days ago we received two letters from his Lordship, dated the 31st ultimo, and 5th instant. By the former we were advised, that he marched on the 26th towards Bangalore, but that on coming to the ground where he proposed to encamp, he was greatly surprised to hear that the two Maratta armies, commanded by Hury Punt and Purfuram Bow, (both of which, he had every reason to believe was at the distance of 150 miles) were then actually within a day's march, and that Purfuram Bow's son, with the advanced guard, was in sight: That this unexpected event had naturally occasioned a total change of his plan, especially as he found that the chiefs, although they had heard that the attack of Seringapatam had been necessarily postponed till the conclusion of the rains, entertained no idea of retreating towards their own frontier, but were disposed to cooperate heartily with his Lordship in distressing Tippoo, and cutting off his resources. That they

they had further assured him, at the first meeting, that they had it in their power to relieve the greatest difficulties under which he laboured, viz. the want of grain and of bullocks. That he felt tolerably confident he should procure a sufficient number of the latter in their camp to answer his immediate exigencies, but that their supplies of grain, through the means of Benjarries, were so precarious, and the authority of the Chiefs over these people, even if they kept their word in endeavouring to exert it, so inefficient, that he was very apprehensive he should be held, for a considerable time, at least in a wretched dependence on the Maratta Buzar, where he would not only be obliged to pay an immense price for a scanty subsistence, but be exposed at all times even to the risk of a total failure.

His Lordship thought it, however, so great an object to keep 30,000 Maratta horse in the neighbourhood of Tipoo's capital, that it was to be attempted almost at all hazards; and that he had already in his conversation with the chiefs paved the way for leading them toward the Sera country and the vicinity of Bangalore, as soon as the safety of the supplies, which were following Purfuram Bow, should admit of his moving so much to the left.

His Lordship added, that several letters had been written to him by the Maratta Chiefs during their march, to give him notice of their approach, but that no letter from either of them had reached him until the day of their arrival, which he considered singularly unfortunate, as he would have adopted a very different plan of operation if he had known eight or ten days before that he could have depended upon the junction of so powerful a force.

The concluding paragraph of the letter stated, that General Abercromby had marched from Periapatam on the 23d of May, and was proceeding towards the head of the Gaut, without any interruption from the enemy, leaving four iron eighteen pounders, which his cattle could not remove, and which he could not totally destroy, at Periapatam, as well as a small quantity of provisions and stores; and that the General expected to descend the Gaut on the 27th.

Lord Cornwallis's letter of the 5th instant advises us, that it was his Lordship's intention to move the next day towards Neganungalum, to which place the Benjarries of the two Maratta armies were to direct their march, and which, as well as the roads leading to it from the northward, it was consequently very necessary to take great care to protect. That Tipoo still remained with his whole force near to Seringapatam, and that no judgment could be formed until the Cavery was on the point of becoming unfordable, which would be the case

in a few days, whether he (Tipoo) would determine to make head against the confederate armies in that quarter, or endeavour to disturb the southern provinces.

His Lordship pressed us not to lose sight of the great object of providing bullocks and grain, and of sending supplies of arrack and camp equipage to Amboor: That these, and various other measures, he conceived to be absolutely necessary, upon the supposition that the war might continue longer than we expected; for that although Tipoo had repeatedly expressed an earnest desire for peace, his Lordship was by no means convinced that the enemy was prepared to make the sacrifices that the confederates might think they had a right to expect.

Lord Cornwallis proceeded to inform us that his wants in money would be pressing and extensive; that the supply of the army during the rains and its equipment for the field, exclusive of the corps under General Abercromby, could not be estimated at less than between thirty and forty lacks of rupees; and he desired us therefore to take our measures accordingly. He added, that he would have us consider whether it would not be advisable to take some assistance from the treasure sent out on the Company's ships, which was destined for China; and that whatever we might resolve upon, would have his sanction. In the mean time he desired that we would send seven or eight lacks of rupees to Vellore, to supply the wants of the army, as soon as the communication was secured.

It was a peculiar satisfaction to us at this time to reflect, that we had actually in our treasury the full amount of what his Lordship represented to be necessary for him during the rains, and for the subsequent equipment of his army, notwithstanding the ample advances made for your investment.

We have been thus particular in detailing to your Honourable Court the transactions of the war, because the subject is important; and we can readily conceive the anxiety you must feel to receive advices by every opportunity.

We have the pleasure to inform you, that the fort of Copool surrendered to the Nizam's army on the 17th of April.

Extract of a Letter from the President and Council at Fort St. George, in their Political Department, to the Court of Directors, dated July 14th, 1791.

We shall now resume the narrative of the military operations on this coast since the 21st ult. the date of our last address on this subject.

On the 30th of last month we received a letter from Lord Cornwallis, dated the 14th, in which he informed us that the Cavery re-

ver

ver had risen very considerably, but was still fordable: that Tippoo had not only brought his whole force across the river, but a considerable quantity of artillery and stores, from which his Lordship supposed that it was the intention of the enemy to give every disturbance in his power, to interrupt our supplies, and in particular to prevent, as much as possible, the equipment of our part of the army, from which he (Tippoo) well knew he had the most serious misfortunes to fear.

That the necessity of his Lordship's regulating his movements in concert with the Mahrattas, and protecting their supplies, would keep him so much to the westward, that it would be certainly possible, and he by no means thought improbable, that Tippoo, who could have no apprehension for Seringapatam for the next four months, might make a rapid march to Oussore, and from thence pass into the Barampaul and Caruatic.

His Lordship added, that we might be assured he would give us the earliest intelligence of such an event; but he desired us, in the mean time, to be upon our guard, and, amongst other precautions, to reinforce the garrison of Arnee, and take every means in our power to transport the stores and provisions, that were not wanted for the use of that garrison, from thence to Vellore, and, if possible, to Amboor.

We received a letter from Lord Cornwallis of the 25th ult. stating that the Mahrattas, having now no further apprehensions about their communications, or safety of their distant detachments, acquiesced in his Lordship's beginning to move to the eastward on that morning; and that unless after minutely reconnoitring the strong hill Fort of Severdooog, (about twenty-five miles to the westward of Bangalore) he should be encouraged to attempt the reduction of that important post, he should probably, in four or five days, reach the neighbourhood of Bangalore.

His Lordship added, that an outline of his future plan of operations had been explained and concerted with the Mahratta Chiefs: that they had agreed not to separate from him until the war was brought to an honourable conclusion: and that he should take an early opportunity of communicating to us the particulars of what had passed between him and those Chiefs at some of his late conferences with them.

We have received letters from his Lordship, dated the 21st and 24th ult. The first, stating that he had been obliged, for reasons he could not then explain to us, to promise a considerable loan to the Mahrattas; and desiring, therefore, that we would immediately take the amount of twelve lacks of rupees out of the China ships, notwithstanding any

orders to the contrary that we might have received, and coin it into rupees, with as much dispatch as possible.

His Lordship, in the second letter, requested we would inform the Supreme Council, that he thought it would be highly expedient for the public service that the Swallow Packet should sail from hence for England in the very beginning of the month of September; and that he therefore recommended it to them to transmit their dispatches either by land or water, in such time as would early ensure their arrival at Fort St George by the 31st of August.

In reply to his Lordship's letter respecting the loan to the Mahrattas, we observed, that the sum of twelve lacks of rupees would be held in readiness to answer any call which he might have for it.

We have very sincere pleasure in reporting to your Honourable Court, that Capt. Alexander Read, whom we had sent into the Mysore country, with a detachment to collect supplies, arrived lately at Bangalore, with a very large convoy of bullocks, sheep, and grain for the use of the army; a circumstance particularly fortunate at this juncture, when the troops were reduced to so much distress for all kinds of provisions.

We understand that his Lordship has expressed, in general orders, his acknowledgment of the service rendered by Capt. Read. The whole supply, collected by that active and zealous officer, amounted to 1752 unloaded bullocks, about 9000 load of grain brought by the Benjarries, 14,677 sheep, and 100 horses.

As the service performed by Capt. Read had been conducted throughout with great ability and judgment, we expressed to him our warmest approbation of his conduct; and we resolved, in order to enable him to defray the extraordinary expence which he had sustained on this occasion, and as a further testimony of our acknowledgment of his services, to give him a gratuity of one thousand pagodas.

As the intercourse with the army was opened by Lord Cornwallis's movement to the eastward, we thought it might be essential to his Lordship's plans to inform him of the exact state of our Treasury, which stood on the 4th instant as follows:

In the Cash Chest, Star Pagodas,	2,41,469
In the Treasury, in Pagodas and Rupees,	3,84,439
Ditto in Bills,	8,528
Ditto in Porto Novo Pagodas,	1,44,106
Ditto in Dollars,	2,55,768
In the Mint, in Arcot Rupees,	1,49,636

Total Star Pagodas 11,83,889

All the bills drawn from the camp had been

been regularly paid, and our garden and other establishments had been well put up, so that we were in a posture to support the necessary wants of the army during the season, and to re-engage it for the ensuing campaign.

Since writing the above, we have received letters from his Excellency, which date the 23rd, 25th and 26th, copies of which we have the honour to forward as numbers in the packet.

Your Honourable Court will observe, that it was his Lordship's intention to approach near enough to Bangalore to enable him to destroy the sick in that place, and to avoid a part of the large supply of provisions collected by Captain Read; after which he meant to proceed to the reduction of Onshore, and to place the troops in such a position as to exclude Tippee completely from all the principal northern passes leading to the eastward from the Mysore country.

The great satisfaction expressed by his Lordship at the efforts of this Government to assist in the arduous and important cause in which your arms are engaged, affords us the most sensible pleasure; we feel the necessity of extraordinary exertions at this critical juncture; and your Honourable Court may rely upon our assurances, that we will most heartily co-operate with the Governor-General in every matter dependent upon us, to enable him to prosecute the war with the utmost vigour, and, we sincerely hope, with the most signal success.

Copy of a Letter from Earl Cornwallis to Sir Charles Oubly, Bart. dated Camp near Seringapatam, May 16, 1791.

SIR,

I HAVE the honour to inform you, that I had an opportunity yesterday of attacking Tippee, and of giving him a total defeat. The vicinity of Seringapatam, and the batteries which he had erected on the north-side of the island, saved his army from destruction. His loss of men, however, must have been very considerable; and, besides a number of colours, we took four pieces of brass cannon.

The difficulties of my own situation, in respect to forage and provisions, and particularly on account of the advanced season of the year, are not much relieved by this event, and indeed are very serious; and the obstacles which this river presents to a junction or co-operation with General Abercromby, and which had never been described in any written or verbal account of it, appear at present almost insurmountable.

I am, with greatest esteem and regard,

SIR,

Your most obedient humble Servant,
(Signed) CORNWALLIS.

A true Copy,
(Signed) Gen. PARRY, Act. Dep. Sec.

Copy of a Letter from Earl Cornwallis to Sir Charles Oubly, Bart. dated Camp at Mysore, June 12, 1791.

SIR,

We arrived here this morning, and I shall probably remain in this neighbourhood, for the purpose of strenuously re-concentrating the forces of Seringapatam, and of giving the Maharratta an opportunity of employing their numerous cavalry and followers in searching the extensive jungles for the large quantities of cattle and grain, which are said to have been collected at them from the adjoining country.

After accomplishing those objects, I shall approach near enough to Bangalore to enable me to deposit the sick in that place, and to obtain a supply of some articles of military stores.

I am at present in happy expectation of hearing that Captain Read has arrived there with a large convoy of provisions; and, if I am not disappointed, my intention is to avoid myself of that supply, and proceed directly to reduce Onshore, and to place our armies in such a position as to exclude Tippee completely from all the principal northern Passes leading to the Eastward from this country.

I hope these measures will perfectly secure our own communications, and that they will also put it in my power to make the further arrangements that I intended, respecting the troops of the Allies, without any material interruption.

I am informed, that Tippee has taken the advantage of our being detained to the Westward for the protection of the Maharratta communications, to detach some cavalry and infantry towards the Barramang; but I think it highly probable, that, upon his being acquainted with the direction of our movements, he will soon recal them.

You will, I am fully persuaded, use every exertion in your power to provide us supply with cattle; and I must recommend, that those which have been procured to the Southward of the Coleroon may be brought to the Presidency as soon as possible, to be employed in transporting grain and other articles that we may want from thence; and I must particularly request, that no pains be spared to engage the greatest possible number of drivers to attend them; as it is to the deficiencies in that class of people in the army that our late losses of cattle are principally to be attributed.

In addition to the sum that I formerly mentioned, you will oblige me by dispatching, without delay, six lacks of rupees to
Vellore,

Vellore, to be ready to be forwarded to the Army, when I shall be satisfied with the security of our communications.

I am, with great esteem and regard,

Sir,

Your most obedient,
and humble servant,
(Signed) CORNWALLIS.

A true Copy.
(Signed) George Parry.
Acting Deputy Secretary.

Extract of a Letter from Earl Cornwallis to Sir Charles Oakley, Bart. dated Camp at Soleur, July 2. 1791.

I SHALL move, on the 4th towards Bangalore, from whence the arrival of Captain Read's convoy will enable me to proceed in a very few days to Oulfore.

The disposal of the Maratta armies during the rains is not finally arranged; but I believe it will be settled at a conference which I shall have with the chiefs to-morrow.

I cannot conclude without assuring you, that I shall ever retain the most grateful sense of your exertions to assist this Army, and that I feel myself fortunate, in this important juncture, in seeing the government of Fort St George in such able and respectable hands.

Extract of a letter from Major-General Abercromby to Earl Cornwallis, dated Tillycherry, June 19.

I had the honour of writing on the 14th instant, by one of your Lordships's messengers, acquainting you with the arrival of the coras at their several cantonments. Before the end of the month I am in hopes to have the men under shelter; which I am the most anxious to hasten, as they require much refreshment from the late fatiguing duties they have been engaged in. The difficulty of procuring materials, and the full employment we find in erecting buildings for the men, must prevent my assisting the officers, and will, I fear, oblige them to remain in tents most, if not all the mousoon. This, with the loss they have sustained, from the inclemency of the weather and the badness of the roads, in their baggage, their cattle, and their camp equipage, the latter of which, on this side of India, is their own property, together with the dearth of almost every necessary of life from the increased consumption, has determined me to continue the troops on Batta, until I receive your Lordship's directions respecting them.

Notwithstanding the fatigues we have undergone, I am happy to acquaint you that our sick have not increased in the proportion I had reason to expect. In a few weeks, I am persuaded, we shall be well refitted; and, with the recruits to be expected from

England for the Europeans, and those entertained at Bombay for the native battalions, I hope we shall be nearly completed to the establishment.

SCOTTLAND.

EDINBURGH.

At the Annual Meeting of the Royal Society of Edinburgh, for the election of office-bearers for the ensuing year, on Monday the 28th of November, the following gentlemen were made choice of—

The Duke of Buccleugh, *President*,
Lord Dunsinnan, *Vice President*.
Rt. H. Hen. Dundas, *Secretary*.
Professor John Robison, *Secretary*.
Mr Alexander Keith, *Treasurer*.

Counsellors from the Physical Class.

Mr Benjamin Bell, Dr Gregory,
Mr Greenfield, Dr Rutherford,
Mr Geo Ferguson, Professor Stewart.

Counsellors from the Literary Class.

Professor Ferguson, Lord Dreghorn,
Gen. Fletcher Campbell, Commissioner Edgar,
Mr Mackenzie, Lord Ellick.

Presidents of the Physical Class.

Dr Black, Dr Home,
Dr Hutton, Dr Munro,
Professor Playfair, *Secretaries*.
Dr Walker,

Presidents of the Literary Class.

Mr Baron Gordon, Principal Robertson,
Sir William Miller, Dr Hugh Blair.
Mr Fraser Tytler, *Secretaries*.
Professor Dalzel,

ROYAL COLLEGE OF PHYSICIANS.

Nov. 1. At the annual meeting of the Royal College of Physicians, for election of their office-bearers, the following Gentlemen were chosen into office for the ensuing year:

Dr Duncan, *President*.
Dr Black, *Vice President*.
Dr Menro, *Censors*.
Dr Hay, }
Dr Gregory, *Secretary*.
Dr Spens, *Treasurer*.
Dr Thomas Spens, *Librarian*.
Dr Cochran, *Fiscal*: And,
Mr Robert Boswell, *writer to the signet, Clerk*.

At the meeting of the Royal College of Physicians, the following Gentlemen were received Extraordinary and Ordinary Fellows of the College, viz.

Dr

Dr Augustus Gottlieb Richter, Professor of Medicine at Gottingen—and,
 Dr John Gottlieb Walker, Professor of Anatomy at Berlin.—*Extraordinary Fellows.*
 Dr John Coakley Lettsom of London,
 Dr Nicholas Bindow, residing at present in Edinburgh,
 Dr Thomas Arnold of Leicester—and,
 Dr John Yule of Edinburgh, *Ordinary Fellows.*

Dec. 13th, the Caledonian Hunt elected their office-bearers for the ensuing year, viz.
 Right Hon. Earl of Hyndford, Prefes,
 Wm. Hamilton, Esq. of Withaw, Treasurer,
 Rt. Hon. Earl of Hume,
 Geo. Ramsay, Esq. young-
 er of Barnton, } Counsellors.

It was also settled that the Hunt should hold their next meeting at Dumfries.

MARRIAGES.

Dec. 5. Mr John Bennet, writer in Glasgow, to Miss Agnes Wilson, of that place.

9. William Bell, Esq. sen. of Leith, to Miss Margaret Higgins, of Higgins Neuck.

— William Ramsay, jun. Esq. banker in Edinburgh, to Miss Bethea Hamilton, of Withaw.

10. Mr Alexander Beveridge, farmer at West-Bogie, to Miss Mary Constable.

11. At Ardwall, Johnston Hannay, of Torrs, Esq. to Miss Penelope M'Culloch.

— John Peter Wade, Esq. M. D. in the service of the East-India Company, to Miss Carruthers of Holmains.

15. James Heggie, Esq. jun. of Pitlestie, to Miss Isabella Berry, of Tayfield.

BIRTHS.

Dec. 10. Mrs Turing, wife of John Turing, Esq. merchant in Middleburg, delivered of a son.

— Mrs Hamilton, of Orbiston, of a daughter.

11. Mrs Dundas, of Dundas, of a daughter.

13. Mrs Douglas Maclean Clephan, of Carllogie, of a daughter.

17. Mrs Wood, wife of Dr James Wood, physician in Newcass, of a daughter.

20. The Lady of Sir R. Burnet, Bart. of Leys, of a daughter.

DEATHS.

July —. At Madras, Neil Campbell, Esq. of Duntroon.

Dec. 2. James Somervell, Esq. merchant in Glasgow.

— Henry Flood, Esq. at Farnly in the county of Kilkenny.—After the death of his Lady he has left the whole of his landed property, amounting to more than 4000*l.* a-year, to the University of Dublin, for the

purpose of founding a professorship, and encouraging the study of the Irish or Erse language, for purchasing MSS. and books in that language, and in the classical and modern languages, and six annual premiums for the best compositions in prose and verse of the Irish, Greek, Latin, and English languages.

3. Miss Margaret Brown, daughter of the late William Brown, Esq. of Elliestoun.

4. Thomas M'iver, Esq. late of Dacca, in the kingdom of Bengal, merchant.

— Mr Grant Seton, eldest son of the late James Seton, banker in Edinburgh.

6. James Stewart, Esq. of Crossmount, Ayrshire, aged 104.—Mrs Stewart of Crossmount having died on the 3d, aged 85. Both retained their faculties and health to the last.

— Mrs Sinclair of Barrock.

7. Mrs Isobel Cheap, widow of Mr Henry Knox, late merchant in Dunbar.

10. Sir Alex. Dunbar, of Northfield, Br.

— Mrs Helen Forbes, wife of Mr Alex. Mitchell, merchant in Aberdeen.

12. The Rev. Wm Auld, minister of Mancline, aged 85.

— Lady Mary Campbell, relict of Douglas Campbell, Esq. of Glenfiddle.

14. Mrs Jean Scott, relict of Mr John Cleghorn, brewer in Edinburgh.

— Mrs Elizabeth Thowiddie, wife of the Rev. John Lockhart, of Cambusethan.

15. At Fleurs, Robert Smith, Esq.

— Miss Isobel Durham, sister of the late Adam Cunningham Durham, of Bonnington.

— Alex. Campbell, Esq. of Ballochyle, aged 81.

17. In the parish of Cruden, Alex. Dickie, aged 101.—He retained the use of all his senses to the last, and never had (as he was wont to express it) either a *sure head* or a *sick heart*.—His first wife, Christian Boghouse, died about fifteen years ago, in the 105th year of her age. He married a second wife in his 85th year, who survives him.

— Miss Elizabeth Muirson, of Dunbrae.

18. Mr William Beatson, shipmaster, 12th.

— Mrs Christian Graham, relict of John Stewart, Esq. of Dalguise.

21. John Eiston, M. D. son of Mr John Eiston, solicitor at law.

22. Mrs Isobel Guthrie, spouse of Mr John Redford, merchant in Banff.

23. Mrs Menzies, relict of Jas. Menzies, Esq. of Invergowrie.

24. Mr Jas Rae, surgeon in Edinburgh.

27. Mrs Margaret Smith, wife of George Oswald, of Auchencruive, Esq.

— Mr James Hill, sen. writer in Glasgow.

28. Miss Henrietta Kinloch, daughter of the deceased Sir James Kinloch Nevis, Bt.

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