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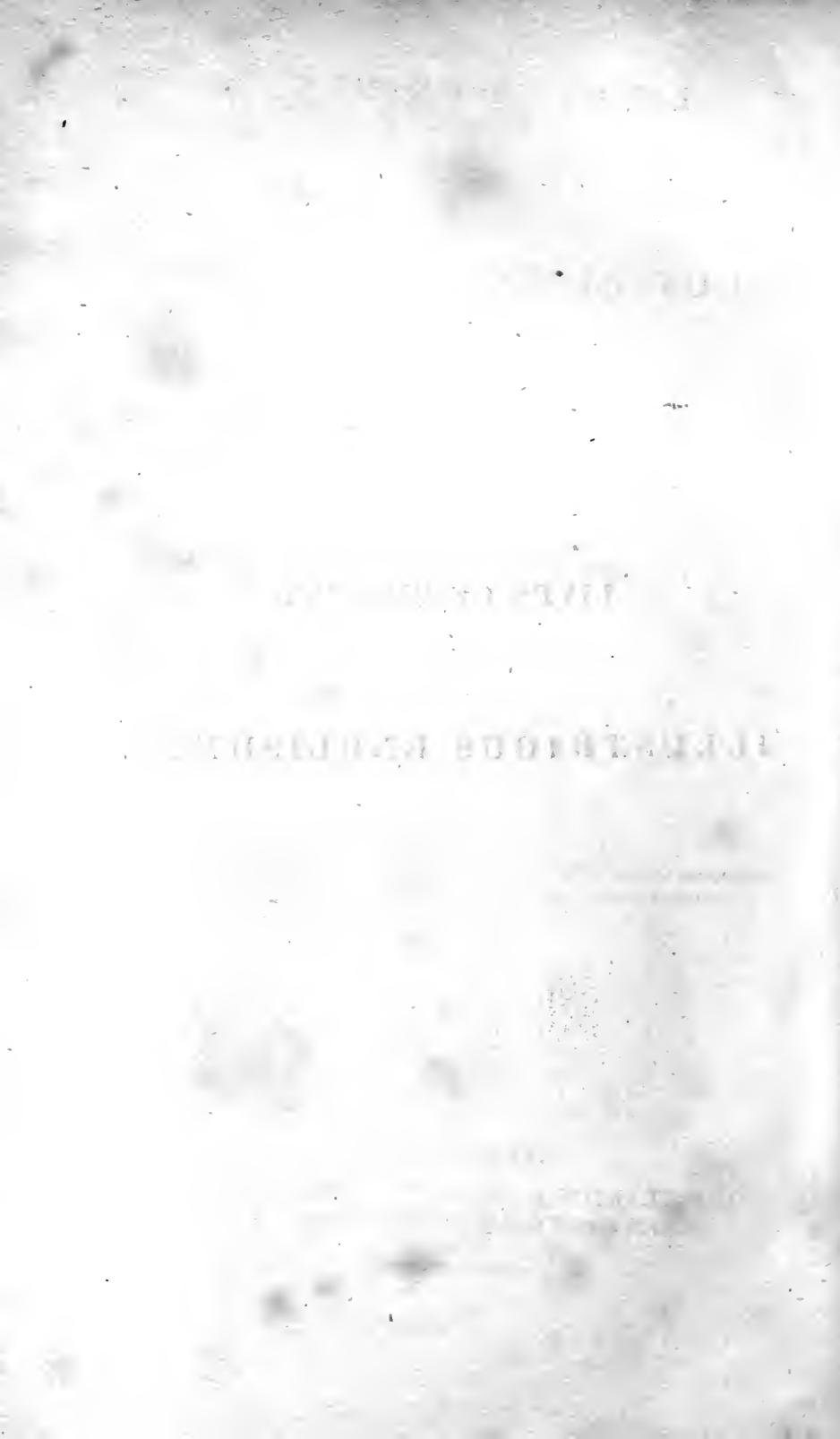




LIVES OF EMINENT

AND

ILLUSTRIOUS ENGLISHMEN.



LIVES OF EMINENT

AND

ILLUSTRIOUS ENGLISHMEN,

FROM

ALFRED THE GREAT TO THE LATEST TIMES,

On an Original Plan.

EDITED BY

GEORGE GODFREY CUNNINGHAM.

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THE HOUSE OF COMMONS

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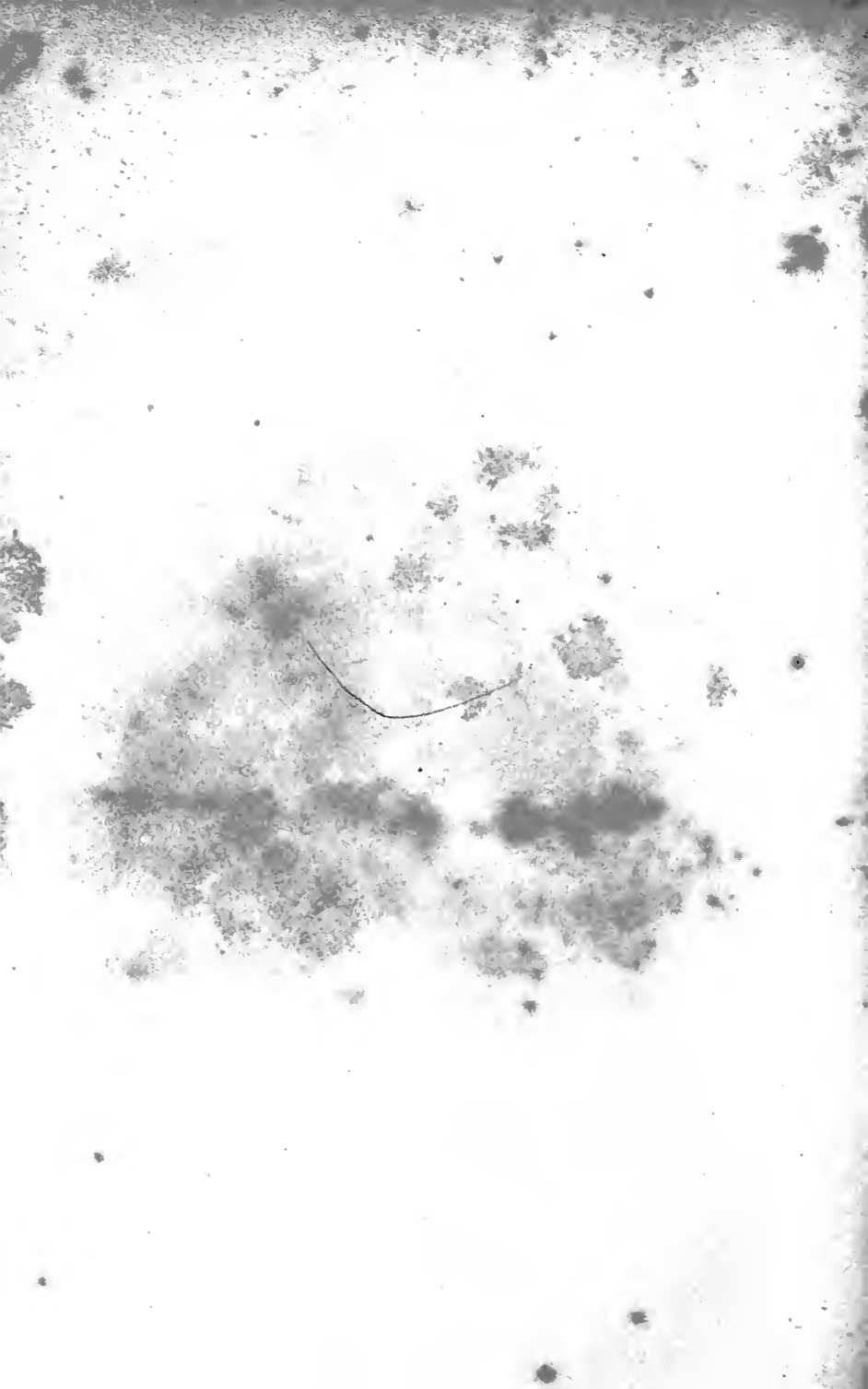
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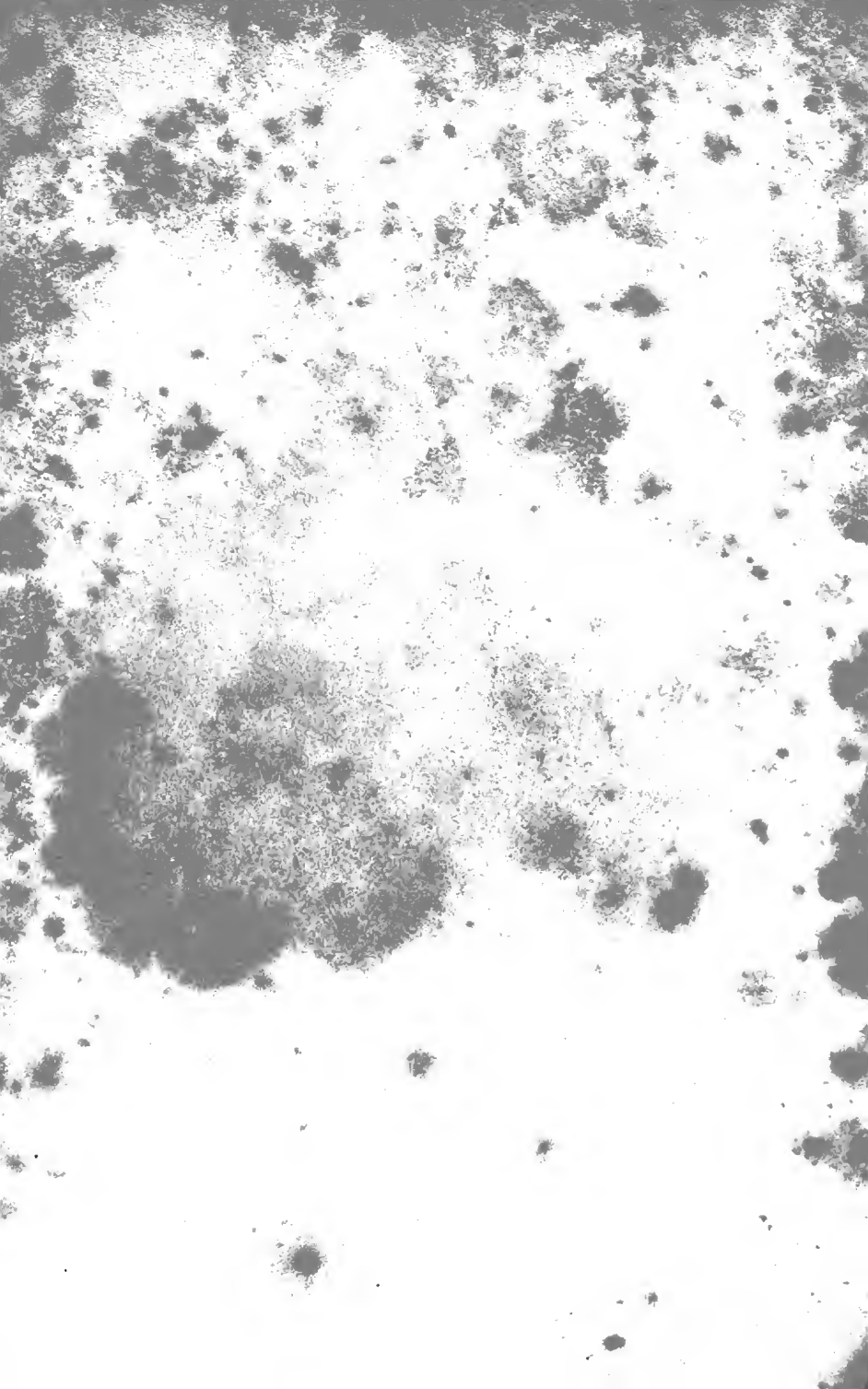
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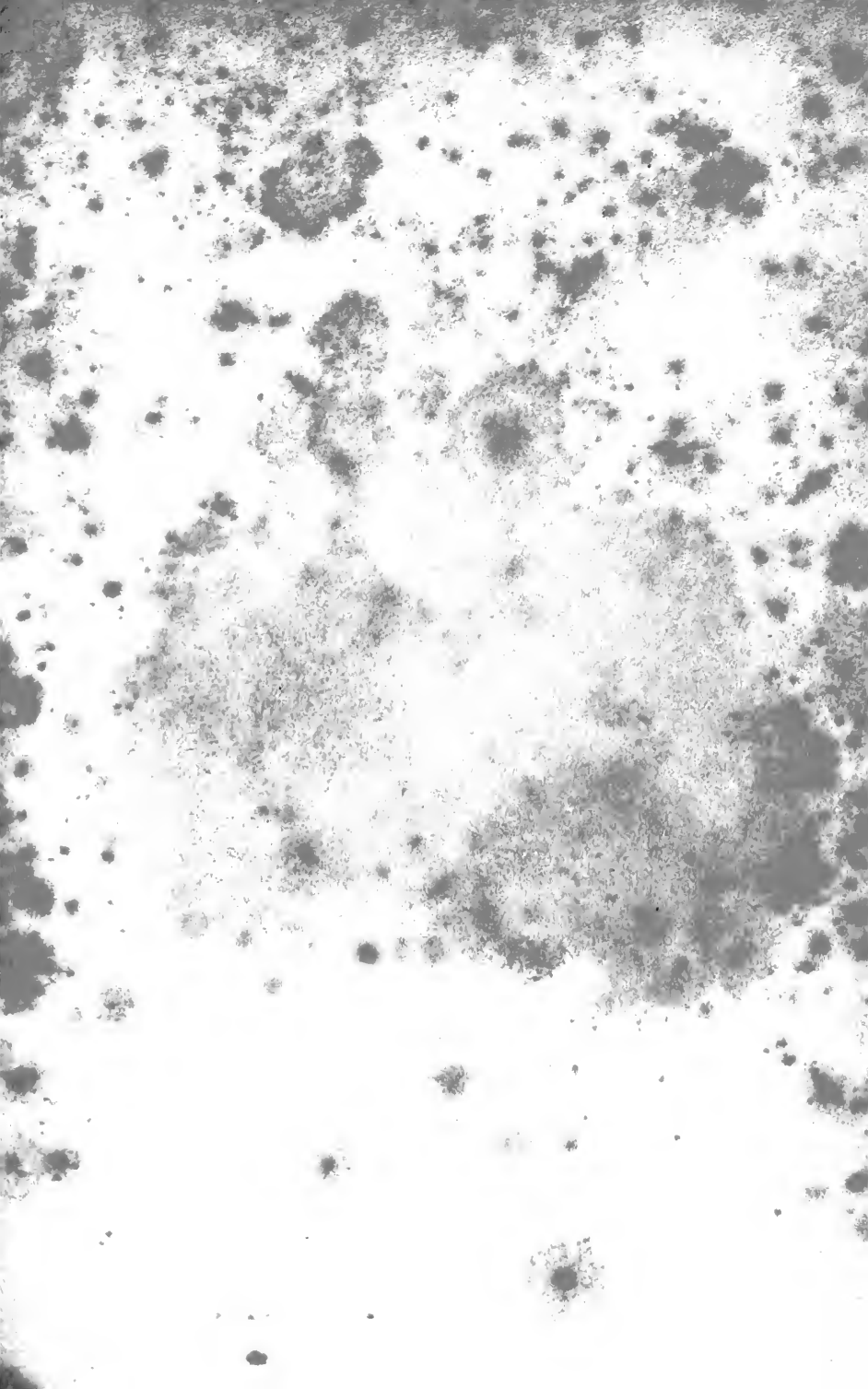


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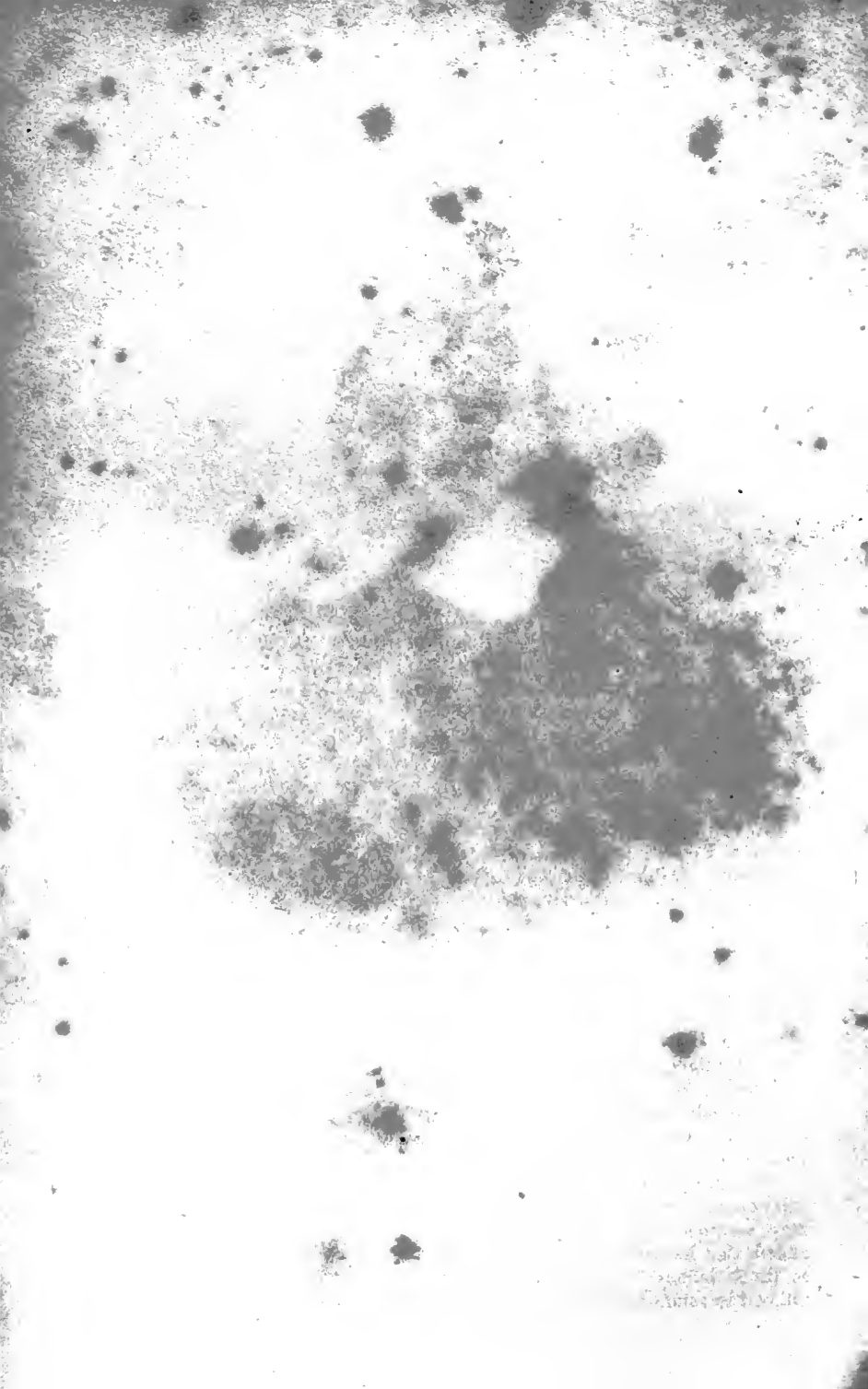
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LIVES OF EMINENT
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II.—ECCLESIASTICAL SERIES.

Bishop Hildesley.

BORN A. D. 1698.—DIED A. D. 1772.

THE subject of this article was the eldest surviving son of the reverend Mark Hildesley, rector of Houghton with Witton, All-Saints, in the county of Huntingdon. He was born on the 9th of December, 1698, at Murston, near Sittingbourne, in Kent. He was educated at the Charter-house; and at the age of nineteen was sent to Trinity college, Cambridge, where he took his degree of A.B. in 1720, and of A.M. in 1724, having been elected a fellow the year preceding. He was ordained deacon in 1722, and in 1723 was appointed domestic chaplain to Lord Cobham.

In 1725 he was nominated a preacher at Whitehall, by Dr Gibson, bishop of London; and from 1725 to 1729 held the curacy of Yelling in Huntingdonshire. In 1731 he was presented by his college to the vicarage of Hitchin in Hertfordshire. At Hitchin—the value of which would not admit the expense of a curate—he began that course of strict attention to the duties of his office which he exhibited throughout life; and having advanced a considerable sum to repair the vicarage-house, he was obliged to add to his labours by undertaking the education of a few pupils. In October, 1735, he was presented to the neighbouring rectory of Holwell, in the county of Bedford. He was selected by the duke of Athole as a proper person to succeed the excellent and venerable Bishop Wilson, who died in 1755; and was accordingly consecrated in Whitehall chapel, after being created D.D. by Archbishop Herring; and on the 6th of August, 1755, was installed in the cathedral of St German on Peel, in the Isle of Man.

His removal took place, as he terms it in one of his letters, at a critical juncture, when the double charge of pupils and a large parochial cure together began to be too heavy for his “weak shoulders.” He added, that he had, “in his new province, as much care, but not quite so much labour.” For some time after his promotion he had been obliged to retain by commendam the rectory of Holwell, on account of

the smallness of his episcopal income, which was too slender to support the dignity of his station. Indeed it appears that the expenses, fees, and other charges attendant, or consequent on, his acceptance of the bishopric, amounted to no less than £928,—a sum which must greatly have embarrassed him. As soon, however, as was possible, he resigned Holwell; and in the same year was presented by the bishop of Durham, Dr Trevor, to the mastership of Sherburn hospital; he had also a prebend of Lincoln given him, but at what time does not appear.

In his regulation of his diocese he made it the invariable rule of his conduct to tread as nearly as possible in the steps of his excellent predecessor, of whom, both in his letters and conversation, he always spoke with a kind of filial respect and veneration. He devoted himself to the various duties of his charge with a generous assiduity, and amongst the very chief of those duties, undertook to execute the arduous task of getting the Holy Scriptures translated into the Manks language, and printed for the use of the native inhabitants. This had been already begun by Bishop Wilson, who, at his own expense, proceeded so far as to print the gospel of St Matthew; and had also prepared for the press a manuscript version of the other evangelists, and the Acts of the Apostles, which afterwards underwent a very careful revision. At first, with the sanction and support of the society for promoting Christian knowledge, Dr Hildesley printed only the New Testament, the Book of Common Prayer, the Christian Monitor, Lewis's Exposition of the Catechism, and Bishop Wilson's Form of Prayer for the use of the Herring-fishery. But the benefactions for this peculiar object came in so far beyond expectation, that, about the year 1766, the society was encouraged to set on foot a Manks version of the Old Testament, which had scarcely been accomplished when the good prelate's health, which was always delicate, showed alarming symptoms of approaching dissolution. He expired on the 7th of December, 1772, deeply regretted by the clergy and inhabitants of his diocese, to whom his amiable manners and active benevolence had endeared him. Bishop Hildesley is known as an author only by a small tract which he published without his name, entitled 'Plain Instructions for Young Persons in the principles of the Christian religion; in six conferences between a minister and his disciple; designed for the use of the Isle and Diocese of Man. By a resident Clergyman.' In two parts, 1762 and 1767.

Alban Butler.

BORN A. D. 1710.—DIED A. D. 1773.

THIS Roman Catholic divine was the second son of Simon Butler, Esq. of Appletree, in the county of Northampton. He was born in 1710, and commenced his education at a school in Lancashire, whence, in his eighth year, he was sent to the English college at Douay. Here his conduct was of the most exemplary kind, and he advanced rapidly in the studies prescribed at that seminary. "He was never reprov'd or punished but once; and then for a fault of which he was not guilty," is the honourable testimony borne to his general conduct by one who was his college-fellow. He generally allowed himself no

more than four hours' sleep, and often passed whole nights in study and prayer.

After completing the usual course of study, he was admitted an alumnus, and appointed professor of philosophy, from which chair he had the honour of introducing the Newtonian philosophy into the college. After teaching a course of philosophy, he was appointed professor of divinity; and soon after he published his 'Letters on the History of the Popes, published by Mr Archibald Bower.' These letters are written in an easy and engaging style, and display various and extensive learning. The object of their author was to point out various errors into which Bower, formerly a Jesuit but then a convert to the episcopalian faith, had fallen; and thus to throw general discredit on a work conceived in a spirit little grateful to a genuine son of the papal church.

In 1745, Mr Butler accompanied the earl of Shrewsbury and the honourable James and Thomas Talbot on their travels through France and Italy. His journal of this tour has been published. On his return he was sent on the English mission,—an employment which he coveted on account of the facilities which a residence in London would afford him for the completion of his great and favourite work, 'The Lives of the Saints;' but to his great disappointment the vicar-apostolic ordered him to join the mission in Staffordshire. Here, however, he did not long remain; for, on the recommendation of Mr Challoner, he was appointed to superintend the education of Edward Howard, the nephew and presumptive heir of Edward duke of Norfolk, whom he accompanied to France for this purpose; but who died before completing his studies at Paris. It was during his residence at Paris, in the capacity of tutor to the young Howard, that Butler completed his 'Lives of the Saints.' His qualifications for this operose work were very considerable. To a perfect command of the Italian, Spanish, and French languages, he added a thorough acquaintance with the Latin and Greek, and some skill as an Orientalist. In exegetical and polemical reading his learning was extensive; he was also skilled in heraldry, and partially acquainted with the medical and cognate sciences. The curious reader will find in the 3d volume of Mr Charles Butler's works a full and valuable specification of the various works of a similar nature to which the author of 'The Lives of the Saints' might have had recourse for the materials of that work. But the extent and minuteness of the investigations pursued by the author in some instances, as in his account of the Manichæans in the life of St Augustine, and of the crusades in the life of St Lewis, prove that his researches were often of the most laborious and original kind. Gibbon has styled our author's Lives "a work of merit;"—"the sense and learning," he adds, "belong to the author—his prejudices are those of his profession." In the first edition the whole notes were omitted at the suggestion of Dr Challoner, who desired to see the work produced at the least possible expense, in order that it might achieve the greatest possible usefulness. The succeeding editions, however, were enriched with these valuable appendages.

Some years after the publication of the 'Lives of the Saints,' Mr Butler gave to the world the 'Life of Mary of the Cross,' a nun in the English convent at Rouen. Of this work Mr Charles Butler says: "It is rather a vehicle to convey instruction on various important duties of a reli-

gious life, and on sublime prayer, than a minute account of the life and actions of the nun."

Mr Butler was chosen president of the English college at St Omer's some time after the publication of his *Lives*, and continued in this office till his decease. He was also appointed vicar-général to the bishops of Arras, St Omer's, Ipres, and Boulogne. These different appointments involved him in a thousand incessant labours; but his intense application enabled him to acquit himself in the whole of them with the highest credit. "Every instant," says the Abbe de la Sepouze, "that Mr Butler did not dedicate to the government of his college he employed in study; and when obliged to go abroad, he would read as he walked along the streets." Among the works which he had projected but did not live to execute, was a treatise on the Moveable Feasts, which was published, however, after his decease, under the direction of Mr Chaloner. He had also meditated writing the lives of Bishop Fisher and Sir Thomas More; and had begun a treatise on the evidences of natural and revealed religion, from which, and his discourses, three volumes were published after his death. Mr Charles Butler admits that, as a preacher, his relative almost wholly failed. "His sermons," he says, "were sometimes interesting and pathetic, but they were always desultory, and almost always immeasurably long."

Mr Butler numbered among his correspondents the learned Lamberini, afterwards Pope Benedict XIV., the celebrated Dr Lowth, and Dr Kennicott. Brotier, in his preface to his edition of Tacitus, calls him "sacrâ eruditione perceleber;" and in the life of the bishop of Amiens he is mentioned as "the most learned man in Europe." He died on the 15th of May, 1773, in the 63d year of his age. His 'Lives of the Saints' were first published in 1745, in 5 vols. 4to. In 1779 an edition was published at Dublin in 12 vols. 8vo. And in 1799-1800 another edition, in the same form, appeared at Edinburgh. A selection and abridgment from it was published at Newcastle in 1799, in 2 vols. 8vo.

Thomas Broughton.

BORN A. D. 1704.—DIED A. D. 1774.

THIS learned divine was born at London, on the 5th of July, 1704, in the parish of St Andrew, Holborn; of which parish his father was minister. At an early age he was sent to Eton school, where he soon distinguished himself by the acuteness of his genius, and the studiousness of his disposition. Being superannuated on this foundation, he removed, about the year 1722, to the university of Cambridge; and, with the view to a scholarship, entered himself of Gonville and Caius college. Here two of the principal objects of his attention were the acquisition of a knowledge of the modern languages, and the study of the mathematics under the famous Professor Sanderson.

On the 28th of May, 1727, Mr Broughton, after taking the degree of bachelor of arts, was admitted to deacon's orders, by Dr Richard Reynolds, bishop of Lincoln. In the succeeding year, on the 22d of September, he was ordained priest, by Dr Edmund Gibson, bishop of London, and proceeded to the degree of master of arts. At this time

he removed from the university to the curacy of Offley, in Hertfordshire. In the year 1739 he was instituted to the rectory of Stepington, in the county of Huntingdon, on the presentation of John, duke of Bedford, and was appointed one of that nobleman's chaplains. Soon after he was chosen reader to the Temple, by which means he became known to Bishop Sherlock, who was then master of it, and who conceived so high an opinion of our author's merit, that, in 1744, this eminent prelate presented Mr Broughton to the valuable vicarage of Bedminster, near Bristol, together with the chapels of St Mary Redcliff, St Thomas, and Abbot's Leigh, annexed. Some short time after, he was collated, by the same patron, to the prebend of Bedminster and Redcliff, in the cathedral of Salisbury. Upon receiving this preferment he removed from London to Bristol, where he married. He resided on his living till his death, which happened on the 21st of December, 1774, in the seventy-first year of his age. He was interred in the church of St Mary Redcliff.

From the time of Mr Broughton's quitting the university till he was considerably advanced in life, he was engaged in a variety of publications, of which the following is a list, taken, in a great measure, from a paper in his own hand-writing: 'Christianity distinct from the Religion of Nature, in three Parts; in answer to Christianity as old as the Creation.'—'Translation of Voltaire's Temple of Taste.'—'Preface to his Father's Letter to a Roman Catholic.'—'Alteration of Dorrel on the Epistles and Gospels from a Popish to a Protestant Book.' Two vols. 8vo.—'Part of the new Edition of Bayle's Dictionary in English, corrected; with a Translation of the Latin and other Quotations.'—'Jarvis's Don Quixote; the Language thoroughly altered and corrected, and the poetical Parts new translated.'—'Translation of the Mottoes of the Spectator, Guardian, and Freeholder.'—'Original Poems and Translations, by John Dryden, Esq. now first collected and published together.' Two vols.—'Translation of the Quotations in Addison's Travels, by him left untranslated.'—'The first and third Olynthiacs, and the four Philippias of Demosthenes (by several Hands), revised and corrected; with a new Translation of the second Olynthiac, the Oration de Pace, and that de Chersoneso: to which are added, all the Arguments of Libanius, and select Notes from Ulpian.' 8vo.—'Lives in the Biographia Britannica.'—'The Bishops of London and Winchester on the Sacrament, compared.'—'Hercules, a Musical Drama.'—'Bibliotheca Historico-Sacra, an Historical Dictionary of all Religions, from the Creation of the World to the present Times.' In two vols. folio, 1756.—'A Defence of the commonly received Doctrine of the human Soul.'—'A Prospect of Futurity, in four Dissertations; with a preliminary Discourse on the natural and moral Evidence of a future State.'—In 1778, a posthumous volume of Sermons on select subjects was published by his son, the Rev. Thomas Broughton, M.A. of Wadham college, Oxford, and vicar of Tiverton near Bath.¹

¹ Biographia Britannica.

William Powell, D. D.

BORN A. D. 1717.—DIED A. D. 1775.

WILLIAM SAMUEL POWELL was born at Colchester, on the 27th of September, 1717. We have no account of his juvenile years. In 1734 he was admitted of St John's college, Cambridge; in 1739, took his degree of A.B.; in 1740, was elected to a fellowship; and in 1741, entered the family of Lord Viscount Townshend, as private tutor to his lordship's second son Charles. In the same year he was ordained deacon and priest, and instituted to the rectory of Colkirk in Norfolk, on the presentation of Lord Townshend.

In 1744 he became principal tutor in his own college, and drew up an able series of lectures on natural philosophy, which continued to be the text-book at St John's until superseded by the more elaborate publications of Dr Wood and Professor Vince. In 1749 Mr Powell proceeded B.D.; at the commencement in 1757 he was created D.D. In the controversy which soon after this last date arose about subscription, Dr Powell took an active share. His commencement sermon was directed principally to the support of subscription and all established forms and usages in the university. He asserted that "young people may give a general assent to the articles, on the authority of others!"

In 1760 he entered into a controversy with Edward Waring, then a candidate for the Lucasian professorship. Waring had published the first chapter of his 'Miscellanea Analytica,' as a specimen of his qualifications for the chair to which he aspired. Powell commented upon this publication in some anonymous 'Observations,' which drew forth a vindication from Waring, who completely demolished his antagonist. On the death of Dr Newcombe, master of St John's, no less than seven candidates, one of whom was Powell, started to succeed him. Powell was the successful candidate, having been unanimously elected master on the 25th of January, 1765.

In the first year of his mastership he established college-examinations, and applied himself sedulously to the improvement of the whole routine of college-business. Mr Jebb's proposals, however, with the same view, were sturdily opposed by the master of St John's, who contended that the business of education, both of government and instruction, is conducted with more success under the domestic discipline of each college than it could be under the direction of the senate; and that whatever reformation was really needed could be easily introduced in the separate colleges by the master and fellows.

Dr Powell died on the 19th of January, 1775. His works, chiefly consisting of pulpit discourses, were edited by his friend Dr Balguy. They are acute and close-reasoned performances, written in a style of great perspicuity and purity. "He was," says Cole, "rather a little, thin man; florid and red; with staring eyes, as if almost choked, or as if the collar of his shirt was too high about his neck. He was a man of a rugged and severe discipline; but virtuous, learned, and by no means beloved: his manners were too rigid and unbending for the age he lived in. As he was a strict disciplinarian, so he was by nature

positive and obstinate, and never to be beat out of what he had once got into his head; yet he was generous in his temper, and when it was proposed improving the college and walks, at an expense of £800, he called the fellows together, recommended a subscription among its former members of note, and set it a-going by putting down £500."

Samuel Ogden, D.D.

BORN A. D. 1716.—DIED A. D. 1778.

SAMUEL OGDEN was born at Manchester in 1716, and educated at the free-school of his native place. In 1733 he was admitted of King's college, Cambridge. He graduated as B.A. at St John's in 1737, and, eventually, proceeded to the degree of S. T. P. In 1739 he became a fellow of his college; in 1744, master of the free-school at Halifax; about 1753, vicar of Damerham in Wiltshire; in 1764, Woodwardian professor at Cambridge; and, in 1766, rector of Lawford in Essex, and of Stansfield in Suffolk. He also held the cure of St Sepulchre's, at Cambridge, where he obtained considerable notoriety as a preacher. He died on the 23d of March, 1778. "His person, manner, and character of composition," says Wakefield, "were exactly suited to each other. He exhibited a large, black, scowling, grisly figure,—a ponderous body, with a lowering visage, imbrowned by the horrors of a sable periwig; his voice was growling and morose, and his sentences desultory, tart, and snappish." His "uncivilized appearance and bluntness of demeanour were," Wakefield adds, "the grand obstacles to his elevation in the church." The duke of Newcastle would, it is said, have taken him to court, if he had been what his grace termed, 'a producible man.' Dr Halifax, the editor of his sermons, and author of a vindication of his writings against some objections which Mainwaring had preferred against them, says that, notwithstanding the sternness, and even ferocity, which he would sometimes throw into his countenance, Ogden was one of the most humane and tender-hearted men ever known. Cole, the Cambridge antiquary, states, that Dr Ogden was an epicure; that he loved a cheerful glass,—had a great turn for banter and ridicule, and used to sit in company in his night-gown and slippers.

Augustus Toplady.

BORN A. D. 1740.—DIED A. D. 1778.

THIS strenuous champion for the Calvinism of the church of England, was born at Farnham, in Surrey, November 4, 1740. His father was a captain in the army, who died at the siege of Carthagera soon after his son's birth. He received the rudiments of his education at Westminster school; but, it becoming necessary for his mother to take a journey to Ireland to pursue some claims to an estate in that kingdom, he accompanied her thither, and was entered at Trinity college, Dublin, at which seminary he took his degree of bachelor of arts. On

taking orders, he was inducted into the living of Broad Hembury in Devonshire. Here he pursued his labours with increasing assiduity, and composed most of his writings. He had for some years occasionally visited London; but in 1775, finding his constitution much impaired by the moist atmosphere of Devonshire, he removed to London entirely, after some unsuccessful attempts to exchange his living for another of equivalent value in some of the middle counties. In London, by the solicitation of his numerous friends, he engaged the chapel belonging to the French reformed, near Leicester-fields; where he preached twice in the week while his health permitted, and afterwards occasionally, as much as he was well able to do. He died August 11, 1778. His body was buried, agreeably to his own desire, in Tottenham-court chapel. It is supposed that his intense application to study, which he frequently pursued through the night to three or four o'clock in the morning, was the means of inducing his disorder and accelerating his end. He had no preferment in the church besides the vicarage of Broad Hembury, which, as his mind could never brook the idea of living in animosity with his parish upon the account of tithes, did not amount, *communibus annis*, to eighty pounds a-year. His publications were, 1. 'The Church of England vindicated from the charge of Arminianism; and the case of Arminian subscription particularly considered; in a Letter to the Rev. Dr Nowell,' 1769.—2. 'The Doctrine of absolute Predestination stated and asserted; with a preliminary Discourse on the Divine Attributes: translated in great measure from the Latin of Jerom Zanchius; with some account of his life prefixed,' 1769.—3. 'A Letter to the Rev. Mr John Wesley, relative to his pretended abridgment of Zanchius on Predestination,' 1770, 2d edition, 1771.—4. 'A Caveat against unsound Doctrines: a Sermon preached at Blackfriars, April 29th, 1770.'—5. 'Jesus seen of Angels; and God's Mindfulness of Man: three Sermons preached at Broad Hembury, Devon, December 25th, 1770.'—6. 'Free thoughts on the projected Application to Parliament for the Abolition of Ecclesiastical subscriptions,' 1771.—7. 'More work for Mr John Wesley: or a vindication of the Decrees and Providence of God from the defamations of a late printed paper entitled "The Consequence proved," 1772.'—8. 'Clerical subscription no grievance: a Sermon at the annual Visitation of the archdeaconry of Exeter, May 12th, 1772.'—9. 'Historical Proof of the Doctrinal Calvinism of the Church of England,' 1774, 2 volumes 8vo.—10. 'Free-will and Merit fairly examined; or men not their own Saviours: a Sermon preached at Blackfriars, May 15th, 1774.'—11. 'Good News from Heaven; or the Gospel's joyful sound: a Sermon preached at the Lock-chapel, June 19th, 1774.'—12. 'The Scheme of Christian and Philosophical Necessity asserted, in answer to Mr John Wesley's tract on that subject,' 1775.—13. 'Joy in Heaven, and the Creed of Devils: two Sermons preached in London,' 1775.—14. 'Moral and Political Moderation recommended:' a Sermon preached on the general fast, December 13th, 1776.—15. 'Collection of Hymns for public and private worship,' 1776.—16. His dying avowal, dated Knightsbridge, July 22d, 1778.

The chief object of his writings, as well as of his sermons, was the defence of Calvinism, and the proof that Calvinism was to be found in the articles, &c. of the Church of England. His creed, says one of his

reviewers, (probably Badcock) was Calvinism in the extreme; and when he reasoned on some of its distinguishing principles, particularly predestination, he discovered no mean talent for disputation. He understood all the niceties of that article; and if his arguments could not convince, his subtleties would confound an Arminian. He would take his adversary on his own ground, and make his own concessions contribute to his defeat. Of this we have a remarkable example related by himself in a letter to Mrs Macauley, in which he tells her of a debate he once had with Mr Burgh, author of the 'Political Disquisitions.' "I should have had," says he, "a sharp onset if he had been in perfect health. Even as it was, he could not forbear feeling my pulse on the article of free will. In the course of our debate I drove him into this dreadful refuge: viz. 'that God doth all he possibly can (these were Mr Burgh's own words) to hinder moral and natural evil, but he cannot prevail: men will not permit God to have his wish.'" On Mr Toplady's asking him if this would not render the Deity an unhappy being? he replied, "No; for he knows that he must be disappointed and defeated, and that there's no help for it: and therefore he submits to the necessity, and does not make himself unhappy about it." Of his defences of Calvinism, his 'Historical Proof' is by far the most able. As a controversialist, in his disputes with Wesley and others, he has been blamed for a degree of acrimony unworthy of his cause; but he possessed a warm and acute imagination, and a degree of zeal which was not always under the guidance of judgment. Against Wesley he may be said to have had a confirmed antipathy, and employed ridicule as well as argument in opposing his opinions and conduct. The last act of his life was to publish what he called his 'Dying Avowal,' in which he contradicted a report circulated by Wesley or his followers, respecting his having changed his sentiments. In this short piece he informs us that his Arminian prejudices received their first shock from reading Dr Manton's sermons on the xviith chapter of John's Gospel. Besides the works above-mentioned, Mr Toplady was the editor for some years of 'The Gospel Magazine,' begun in 1774; and in it, under the article, 'Review of Books,' will be found some of his bitterest philippics against Wesley. Upon the whole, however, he must be considered as one of the ablest of modern writers in defence of Calvinism, and brought a larger share of metaphysical acuteness into the controversy than any man of his time.¹

Bishop Warburton.

BORN A. D. 1698.—DIED A. D. 1779.

THIS extraordinary man was a native of Newark-upon-Trent. His father was an attorney, and at the usual age young Warburton was articled to a gentleman of his father's profession. On completing his clerkship, he practised some time in his native town, but he either appears to have deserted his profession, or to have been deserted by it. After filling for some time the situation of usher in a school, we find

¹ Chalmers.—Life published in 1778, 8vo.—Month. Rev. vol. LXX.

him in deacon's orders in 1723, and in 1726 vicar of Greasley in Buckinghamshire.

In this latter year, Warburton contributed some notes to Theobald's edition of Shakspeare, and also enrolled himself in the literary confederacy against Pope, then lord of the ascendant in the literary world. His notes on the great dramatist, both in this and his own edition, are erudite and ingenious, but singularly perverse in many instances. His biographer, Hurd, has indeed praised "the felicity of his genius in restoring numberless passages to their integrity, and in explaining others," but we greatly doubt the correctness of this view of Warburton's labours on the Shakspearian text: the truth is, he appears either to have understood the mighty dramatist a great deal better than he understood himself, or to have possessed a singular obliquity of mental vision throughout the whole of this task. He is perpetually discovering difficulties where an ordinary mind would perceive none; and rendering what was before clear and simple of apprehension, perplexed and contradictory. His connexion with the inferior wits, or 'dunces,' of the day was, as might have been anticipated, of very short duration; he soon became the intimate friend of Pope, Chesterfield, Murray, and the other leading men of that party.

In 1727, he published an 'Enquiry into the Causes of Prodigies and Miracles,' and in 1736 his famous treatise on the 'Alliance between Church and State.' Towards the conclusion of this piece he announced the approaching publication of his great work, 'The Divine Legation of Moses,' the first volume of which appeared in 1737. Of this work the following account has been given in an interesting article on Hurd's edition of Warburton's works, in the 7th volume of the 'Quarterly Review.' "To the composition of this prodigious performance, Hooker and Stillingfleet could have contributed the erudition, Chillingworth and Locke the acuteness, Taylor an imagination even more wild and copious, Swift, and perhaps Eachard, the sarcastic vein of wit: but what power of understanding, excepting that of Warburton, could first have amassed all these materials, and then compacted them into a bulky and elaborate work so consistent and harmonious?"

"The principle of the work was no less bold and original than the execution. That the doctrine of a future state of reward and punishment was omitted in the books of Moses, had been insolently urged by infidels against the truth of his mission, while divines were feebly occupied in seeking what was certainly not to be found there, otherwise than by inference and implication. But Warburton, with an intrepidity unheard of before, threw open the gates of his camp, admitted the host of the enemy within his works, and beat them on a ground which was now become both his and theirs. In short, he admitted the proposition in its fullest extent, and proceeded to demonstrate from that very omission, which in all instances of legislation, merely human, had been industriously avoided, that a system which could dispense with a doctrine, the very bond and cement of human society, must have come from God, and that the people to whom it was given, must have been placed under his immediate superintendence.

"In the hands of such a champion, the warfare so conducted might be safe; yet the experiment was perilous, and the combatant a stranger: hence the timid were alarmed, the formal disconcerted; even the ve-

teran leaders of his own party were scandalized by the irregular act of heroism; and long and loud was the outcry of treason and perfidy within the camp. Nor is it to be dissembled, that in choosing this new and narrow ground of defence, however adapted to his own daring and adventurous spirit, Warburton gave some cause of alarm, and even of dissatisfaction, to the friends of revelation. They foresaw, and deplored a consequence, which we believe has in some instances actually followed; namely, that this hardy and inventive champion has been either misconceived or misrepresented, as having chosen the only firm ground on which the divine authority of the Jewish legislation could be maintained; whereas that great truth should be understood to rest on a much wider and firmer basis; for could the hypothesis of Warburton be demonstrated to be inconclusive; had it even been discovered—which from the universal knowledge of the history of nations is impossible—that a system of legislation, confessedly human, had actually been instituted and obeyed without any reference to a future state, still the divine origin and authority of the Jewish polity would stand pre-eminent and alone. Instituted in a barbarous age, and in the midst of universal idolatry, a system which taught the proper unity of the Godhead; denominated his person by a sublime and metaphysical name, evidently implying self-existence; which, in the midst of fanatical bloodshed and lust, excluded from its ritual every thing libidinous or cruel, (for the permission to offer up beasts in sacrifice is no more objectionable than that of their slaughter for human food, and both are positively humane,) the refusal in the midst of a general intercommunity of gods, to admit the association of any of them with Jehovah:—all these particulars, together with the purity and sanctity of the moral law, amount to a moral demonstration that the religion came from God.

“Warburton’s ‘Divine Legation’ is one of the few theological and still fewer controversial works, which scholars perfectly indifferent to such subjects will ever read with delight. The novelty of the hypothesis, the masterly conduct of the argument, the hard blows which this champion of faith and orthodoxy is ever dealing about him against the enemies of both, the scorn with which he represses shallow petulance, and the inimitable acuteness with which he exposes dishonest sophistry, the compass of literature which he displays, his widely extended views of ancient polity and religion, but, above all, the rich sunshine of an Italian landscape, illuminates the whole,—all these excellencies will rivet alike the attention of taste, of reason, and erudition, as long as English literature shall exist; while many a standard work, perhaps equally learned and more convincing, is permitted to repose upon the shelf. But it is in his episodes and digressions that Warburton’s powers of reason and brilliancy of fancy are most conspicuous. They resemble the wanton movements of some powerful and half-broken quadruped, who, disdaining to pace along the highway under a burden which would subdue any other animal of his species, starts aside at every turn to exercise the native elasticity of his muscles, and throw off the waste exuberance of his strength and spirits. Of these the most remarkable are his ‘Hypothesis concerning the Origin and late Antiquity of the Book of Job,’ his elaborate ‘Disquisition on Hieroglyphics and Picture-writing,’ and his profound and original ‘Investigation of the Mysteries.’

“Warburton had a constitutional delight in paradox. He read, as

it would appear, among other reasons, for the purpose of ascertaining what had been written on a subject; not that he might adopt or reject, at his discretion, the opinions of others, but that he might be sure of producing what had never been said or thought before. He was like an adventurer projecting a voyage of discovery, who should sit down to study the charts and journals of all his predecessors, neither for direction nor security, but that having been instructed in every route already explored by man, he might penetrate into the unfathomed depths of unknown seas, and ransack the wealth of countries hitherto without a name. Such a spirit, aided by a constitution however strong, and a hand however skilful, while it might occasionally reward the discoverer, and enrich his country with unexpected wealth, would sometimes drive him upon unknown rocks, and sometimes entangle him in inextricable quicksands, where his rashness would at once be regarded as his calamity and his reproach. Such was his ill-starred dissertation on the book of Job, which, besides having incidentally drawn upon him the vengeance of Lowth, missed that praise which Warburton courted more ardently than either utility or truth, that of fortunate boldness, or ingenious and well-supported error. His disgraceful failure on this subject was, however, more than compensated by his wonderful dissertation on hieroglyphical and picture-writing; one of those felicities which seem to be occasionally and extrinsically bestowed upon great genius, and are beyond all power of ordinary effort and meditation. In profundity of research, clearness of deduction, and happiness of illustration, we know of no analysis which will bear a comparison with it. Had Warburton written nothing but the fourth section of the fourth book of the 'Divine Legation,' it would have rendered his name immortal."

The 'Divine Legation' was received with little favour in either university, and was bitterly assailed by a host of antagonists.¹ Our author defended himself with great spirit, and published a second volume in 1741. In 1746, he was chosen preacher of Lincoln's inn through the interest of his friend Murray. In 1750, he published 'Julian, or a Discourse concerning the earthquake and fiery eruption which defeated that emperor's attempt to rebuild the Temple at Jerusalem.' This is an able, erudite, and convincing dissertation on the celebrated passage in Ammianus Marcellinus, wherein that historian records the miraculous manner in which the emperor Julian's attempts to rebuild the Temple were defeated.² The following rules for the qualification of an unexceptionable witness, affording a favourable specimen of Warburton's style, are taken from this piece: "Were infidelity itself, when it would evade the force of testimony, to prescribe what qualities it expected in a faultless testimony, it could invent none but what might be found in the historian here produced. He was a pagan, and so not prejudiced in favour of Christianity: he was a dependent, follower, and profound admirer of Julian, and so not inclined to report any thing to his dishonour. He was a lover of truth, and so would not relate what he knew or but suspected to be false. He had great sense, improved by the study of philosophy, and so would not suffer himself to be deceived:

¹ Richard Bentley is said to have observed of its author, after reading the first part of the work, "This man has a monstrous appetite, but a very bad digestion!"

² This work was highly esteemed by the president Montesquieu.

he was not only contemporary to the fact, but at the time it happened, resident near the place. He related it not as an uncertain hearsay, with diffidence, but as a notorious fact; at that time no more questioned in Asia than the project of the Persian expedition: he inserted it not for any partial purpose in support or confutation of any system, in defence or discredit of any character; he delivered it in no cursory or transient manner, nor in a loose or private memoir, but gravely and deliberately as the natural and necessary part of a composition the most useful and important, a general history of the empire, on the complete performance of which the author was so intent, that he exchanged a court life for one of study and contemplation, and chose Rome, the great repository of the proper materials, for the place of his retirement."

Warburton's next labour was the editing of a uniform edition of his deceased friend and benefactor Pope's works. Warburton had completely gained the confidence of the bard of Twickenham, who is even said to have paid great deference to his criticisms, and to have made numerous alterations on his productions in obedience to his strictures; he introduced 'the Lincolnshire parson' to all his most influential friends, and at his death bequeathed to him one-half of his library, and the whole of his unsold copyrights.

His first government preferment was a prebend of Gloucester, which was conferred upon him in 1753, through the patronage of Yorke, Lord Hardwicke. Warburton had espoused government measures with much warmth, so early as 1745; its patronage, therefore, came late; and he appears never to have forgotten the coldness with which he was so long treated. In a letter to his friend and future biographer, Hurd, written in February, 1766, he says: "I brought, as usual, a bad cold with me to town; and this being the first day I ventured out of doors, it was employed, as in duty bound, at court, it being a levee-day. A buffoon lord in waiting was very busy marshalling the circle; and he said to me, without ceremony,—'Move forward; you clog up the door-way.' I replied with as little, 'Did nobody clog up the king's door—stead more than I, there would be room for all honest men.' This brought the man to himself. When the king came up to me, he asked, 'Why I did not come to town before?' I said, 'I understood there was no business going forward in the house in which I could be of service to his majesty.' He replied, 'He supposed the severe storm of snow would have brought me up.' I answered, 'I was under cover of a warm house.' You see by all this how unfit I am for courts."

In 1755 he was appointed a prebendary of Durham, and in the same year had the degree of D.D. conferred upon him by archiepiscopal mandate. In 1757 he was made dean of Bristol; and, in 1759, was advanced to the bishopric of Gloucester. His publications up to this latter date, besides those already mentioned, were a vindication of Pope from the charge of Spinosism in his 'Essay on Man,'—a Dissertation on the origin of books of Chivalry,—an edition of Shakspeare with notes,—some strictures on Middleton,—animadversions on Bolingbroke's philosophical writings, and an improved edition of the first volume of the 'Divine Legation.'

In 1762 he published his 'Doctrine of Grace.' This work was directed against the opinions of Middleton on the one hand, and John Wesley on the other. It is an exceedingly scurrilous performance. In

1766 he founded a course of lectures at Lincoln's inn, "to prove the truth of revealed religion in general, and of the Christian in particular, from the completion of the prophecies in the Old and New Testament." His death took place on the 7th of June, 1779.

Johnson—than whom no man was better fitted to have been the biographer of Warburton—has given us the following estimate of the bishop's intellectual character: "He was a man of vigorous faculties, a mind fervent and vehement, supplied by incessant and unlimited inquiry with wonderful extent and variety of knowledge, which yet had not oppressed his imagination nor clouded his perspicacity. To every work he brought a memory fully fraught, together with a fancy fertile of original combinations; and at once exerted the powers of the scholar, the reasoner, and the wit. But his knowledge was too multifarious to be always exact, and his pursuits were too eager to be always cautious. His abilities gave him a haughty confidence which he disdained to conceal or mollify; and his impatience of opposition disposed him to treat his adversaries with such contemptuous superiority, as made his readers commonly his enemies, and excited against the advocate, the wishes of some who favoured the cause. He seems to have adopted the Roman emperor's determination, '*Oderint dum metuant.*' He used no allurements of gentle language, but wished to compel rather than to persuade. His style is copious without selection, and forcible without neatness; he took the words that presented themselves; his diction is coarse and impure; and his sentences are unmeasured."

The Quarterly reviewer has supplied us with a fuller sketch of the bishop, from which the following is an extract: "His whole constitution, bodily as well as mental, seemed to indicate that he was born to be an extraordinary man; with a large and athletic person he prevented the necessity of such bodily exercises as strong constitutions usually require, by rigid and undeviating abstinence. The time thus saved was uniformly devoted to study, of which no measure or continuance ever exhausted his understanding or checked the natural and lively flow of his spirits. A change in the object of his pursuit was his only relaxation; and he could pass and repass from fathers and philosophers to Don Quixote, in the original, with perfect ease and pleasure. In the mind of Warburton, the foundation of classical literature had been well laid, yet not so as to enable him to pursue the science of ancient criticism with an exactness equal to the extent in which he grasped it. His master-faculty was reason, and his master-science was theology; the very outline of which last, as marked out by this great man, for the direction of young students, surpasses the attainments of many who have the reputation of considerable divines. One deficiency of his education he had carefully corrected by cultivating logic with great diligence. That he has sometimes mistaken the sense of his own citations in Greek, may perhaps be imputed to a purpose of bending them to his own opinions. After all, he was incomparably the worst critic in his mother-tongue. Little acquainted with old English literature, and as little with those provincial dialects which yet retain much of the phraseology of Shakspeare, he has exposed himself to the derision of far inferior judges by mistaking the sense of passages, in which he would have been corrected by shepherds and ploughmen. His sense of humour, like that of most men of very vigorous faculties, was strong, but extremely

coarse, while the rudeness and vulgarity of his manners as a controversialist removed all restraints of decency or decorum in scattering his jests about him. His taste seems to have been neither just nor delicate. He had nothing of that intuitive perception of beauty which feels rather than judges, and yet is sure to be followed by the common suffrage of mankind; on the contrary, his critical favours were commonly bestowed according to rules and reasons, and for the most part according to some perverse and capricious reasons of his own. In short, it may be adduced as one of those compensations with which Providence is ever observed to balance the excesses and superfluities of its own gifts, that there was not a faculty about this wonderful man which does not appear to have been distorted by a certain inexplicable perverseness, in which pride and love of paradox were blended with the spirit of subtle and sophistical reasoning. In the lighter exercises of his faculties it may not unfrequently be doubted whether he believed himself; in the more serious, however fine-spun his theories may have been, he was unquestionably honest. On the whole, we think it a fair subject of speculation, whether it were desirable that Warburton's education and early habits should have been those of other great scholars. That the ordinary forms of scholastic institution would have been for his own benefit, and in some respects for that of mankind, there can be no doubt. The gradations of a university would, in part, have mortified his vanity and subdued his arrogance. The perpetual collisions of kindred and approximating minds which constitute, perhaps, the great excellence of those illustrious seminaries, would have rounded off some portion of his native asperities; he would have been broken by the academical curb to pace in the trammels of ordinary ratiocination; he would have thought alway above, yet not altogether unlike, the rest of mankind. In short, he would have become precisely what the discipline of a college was able to make of the man, whom Warburton most resembled, the great Bentley. Yet all these advantages would have been acquired at an expense ill to be spared and greatly to be regretted. The man might have been polished and the scholar improved, but the phenomenon would have been lost. Mankind might not have learned, for centuries to come, what an untutored mind can do for itself. A self-taught theologian, untamed by rank and unsubdued by intercourse with the great, was yet a novelty; and the manners of a gentleman, the formalities of argument, and the niceties of composition, would, at least with those who love the eccentricities of native genius, have been unwillingly accepted in exchange for that glorious extravagance which dazzles while it is unable to convince, that range of erudition which would have been cramped by exactness of research, and that haughty defiance of form and decorum, which in its rudest transgressions against charity and manners, never failed to combine the powers of a giant with the temper of a ruffian."

Bishop Newton.

BORN A. D. 1704.—DIED A. D. 1782.

THIS prelate was born at Lichfield, and educated at the grammar-school of that place, and at Westminster school. He took his degree

of M.A. at Cambridge, in 1730, after which he became assistant to Dr Trebeck of St George's church, Hanover-square, London. In 1738, Dr Pearce, afterwards bishop of Rochester, appointed him morning-preacher at Spring-garden. In 1744, he was presented by the earl of Bath to the rectory of St Mary Le Bow, Cheapside. Newton distinguished himself during the commotions of 1745 by his activity in denouncing the sin and crime of rebellion.

In 1749, he published an edition of the 'Paradise Lost,' which was very favourably received, and was one of the first specimens of an English classic 'cum notis variorum.' It is very respectably got up, and contains an elaborate verbal index by the indefatigable Alexander Cruden. Some time after he published 'Paradise Regained,' on the same plan.

In 1754, he published the first volume of his well-known 'Dissertations on the Prophecies;' the second and third volumes appeared in 1758. Pearce, Warburton, and Jortin, are said to have looked over the manuscript of the dissertations, and aided the author with their remarks.

In 1756, he was appointed one of the king's chaplains, and next year received a prebend in Westminster. Soon after this, he married his second wife, Elizabeth, daughter of Viscount Lisburne; and in the same month was promoted to the bishopric of Bristol, and the residentiaryship of St Paul's.

Bishop Newton died in 1782. His collected works were published in the same year, in three volumes 4to. He was a man of piety and erudition; but of no very powerful intellect. His 'Dissertations on the Prophecies' is still a popular work.

Job Orton.

BORN A. D. 1717.—DIED A. D. 1783.

THIS eminent dissenting divine was a native of Shrewsbury. He was educated at the free-school in that town, and afterwards spent a year at Warrington, under the charge of Dr Charles Owen, a dissenting minister.

In August, 1734, he entered Dr Doddridge's academy at Northampton; and in 1738 was chosen assistant in that institution. In 1741 he accepted a call to the pastoral office in his native town, where he continued to labour with great acceptableness and usefulness until the year 1765, when his increasing bodily infirmities compelled him to resign his charge. We shall relate the remaining incidents of his life nearly in the words of Dr Kippis.

Mr Orton's quitting his pastoral connection with the dissenters at Shrewsbury was attended with unhappy consequences. A contest arose with respect to the choice of an assistant to Mr Fownes which at length ended in a separation. The larger number of the society thought it their duty to provide themselves with another place of worship; and with these Mr Orton concurred in opinion. He esteemed himself, says his biographer, bound to countenance them upon every principle of conscience, as a Christian, a dissenter, a minister, and a friend to liberty.

The height to which the matter was carried, rendered Mr Orton's situation at Shrewsbury greatly uncomfortable, and materially affected his health. He found it necessary, therefore, to retire to another place; and at length, in 1766, he fixed at Kidderminster, to which he was principally led that he might have the advice of a very able and skilful physician (Dr Johnstone of Worcester), who always proved himself a faithful and tender friend. He continued at Kidderminster for the remainder of his days; and although prevented by the bad state of his health from ever again appearing in the pulpit, he still retained the same zeal for promoting the great objects of the Christian religion. What he could not perform as a preacher, he was solicitous to effect as a practical writer. Previously to his resignation of the pastoral office his only publications were, his funeral sermon for Dr Doddridge, printed in 1752; a fast sermon in 1756, occasioned by the earthquake at Lisbon; and 'Three Discourses on Eternity, and the Importance and Advantage of looking at Eternal Things,' published in 1764. Such was Mr Orton's ill state of health, together with his attention to the duties of his profession, that it was not till 1766 that he was enabled to give to the world his 'Memoirs of the Life, Character, and Writings of Dr Doddridge.' In 1769, he published a set of sermons, under the title of 'Religious Exercises recommended: or, Discourses on the Heavenly State, considered under the Idea of a Sabbath.' In 1771, he published 'Discourses to the Aged.' Our author's next publication, which appeared in 1774, was entitled 'Christian Zeal; or three Discourses on the Importance of seeking the Things of Christ more than our own.' These seem to have been intended to check the selfish and clamorous zeal which then appeared among the dissenters for matters of a worldly kind, and to direct it to the support and advancement of real practical religion. In 1775, Mr Orton committed to the press three farther discourses, under the title of 'Christian Worship,' which have been translated into Welch. Two volumes of 'Discourses on Practical Subjects' were the production of the next year. Mr Orton's last publication, which appeared in 1777, was entitled 'Sacramental Meditations; or, Devout Reflections on various Passages of Scripture, designed to assist Christians in their attendance on the Lord's Supper, and their Improvement of it.'

Besides these several publications, all of which appeared with his name, Mr Orton, in 1770, was the author of two anonymous tracts, entitled, 'Diatrophes admonished,' and 'Diatrophes re-admonished.' They were written in defence of his excellent friend, Dr Adams, at that time vicar of St Chad's, Shrewsbury, who had been violently attacked by the writer of a piece, which made a considerable noise in its day, called 'Pietas Oxoniensis.' There is one small publication by Mr Orton, hitherto omitted, which was the earliest piece printed by him, having first appeared in 1749, and we apprehend without his name. The title of it is 'A Summary of Doctrinal and Practical Religion, by way of Question and Answer; with an Introduction, showing the Importance and Advantage of a religious Education.' In the course of his ministerial service, he delivered a short and plain exposition of the Old Testament, with devotional and practical reflections. These reflections were afterwards published, from the author's manuscripts, by Mr Gentleman of Kidderminster, in six large volumes, octavo. The

first volume appeared in 1788, and the last in 1791; but the work has not attained any great share of popularity. The other posthumous publication is 'Letters to a young Clergyman,' 1791, 2 volumes, 12mo. Besides Orton's publication of Dr Doddridge's hymns, and of the three last volumes of the Family Expositor, he printed, in 1764, a new edition of the life and death of the Rev. Philip Henry, and prefixed to it an address to the descendants of that eminently pious and worthy divine.

After the publication of the 'Sacramental Meditations' in 1777, Mr Orton's bad state of health no longer permitted him to instruct and edify the world from the press. But he still continued to be useful by his pious example, his affectionate exhortations, and his correspondence with his intimate friends. The degree of D. D. had been conferred upon him many years previously to his decease, but he would never permit himself to be addressed by that title, or prefix it to any of his writings.

In the spring of the year 1783, Mr Orton's complaints multiplied fast upon him. He died at Kidderminster, July 19th, 1783, in the sixty-sixth year of his age. On the twenty-fifth of the same month, agreeably to his own request, he was buried in the chancel of St Chad's church, Shrewsbury.

Benjamin Kennicott, D. D.

BORN A. D. 1718.—DIED A. D. 1783.

BENJAMIN KENNICOTT was born at Totness in Devonshire, about the year 1718, of parents who appear to have had no claims to ancestry or wealth.¹ His father was parish-clerk of Totness church, and probably could afford him but few advantages of education. His youth was passed in obscurity but not in idleness, and his acquirements at last became known to the family of Courtenay, of Painsford, by whom he was patronized and encouraged in his literary pursuits. His first known performance is 'A Poem on the Recovery of Mrs Elizabeth Courtenay from her late dangerous Illness,' written in 1743. This poem—while it can be praised only as an effusion of gratitude—laid the foundation of his future fortune. The Courtenay family interesting themselves in the author enabled him to prosecute his studies. In 1744 he was entered of Wadham college, where he soon proved that he was deserving

¹ Dr King, in his 'Apology, or Vindication of Himself,' upbraids our author as the son of a low mechanic, whom he afterwards styles a cobbler. In answer to this illiberal sarcasm, Kennicott, after drawing a portrait of King with equal spirit and no less acrimony, thus repels the attack on his parent: "But on the right hand (I am now drawing a real character) behold a man born to no fortune, yet above want; in youth, industrious in the station assigned him by Providence; exact in morals; exemplary in his religion: at middle age, loyal in principle; peaceable in practice; enabled to exchange the more active life for a more contemplative; ever warm for the glory of the church of England; concerned for, yet charitable towards those who are not of her communion; qualified by uncommon reading to judge of his own happiness as a protestant and an Englishman; and most effectually recommending to others (with zeal regulated by prudence) the important duties arising from both those characters: and now, in old age, I shall only say, enjoying the prospect of that awful period, which, however favourable to himself, will cause deep distress amongst his numerous surviving friends! Happy would it be for you, Sir, were your latter end to be like his!"

of the patronage conferred upon him. In 1747 he produced 'Two Dissertations: The First on the Tree of Life in Paradise, with some Observations on the Creation and Fall of Man; The Second, on the Oblations of Cain and Abel,' 8vo. The learning displayed in this work was universally applauded, and the vacancy of a fellowship at Exeter college occurring before he could qualify himself to be a candidate by taking his first degree, the university, as a mark of favour, conferred on him the necessary distinction before the usual period. In consequence of a letter from the chancellor, Lord Arran, the university unanimously agreed in convocation to confer on him the degree of B.A. without examination or fees. Soon after he was elected fellow of Exeter college, and on the 4th of May, 1750, took the degree of M.A. Pursuing his studies with great diligence, he, in 1753, published an essay on 'The state of the printed Hebrew Text of the Old Testament.' He now employed himself for several years in searching out and collating Hebrew MSS. It appears, that, when he began the study of the Hebrew language, and for several years afterwards, he was strongly prejudiced in favour of the integrity of the Hebrew text: taking it for granted, that if the printed copies of the Hebrew Bible at all differed from the originals of Moses and the prophets, the variations were very few and quite inconsiderable. In 1748 he was convinced of his mistake, and satisfied that there were such corruptions in the sacred volume as to affect the sense greatly in many instances. In 1758 the delegates of the Oxford press recommended a collation of all those Hebrew MSS. of the Old Testament which were preserved in the Bodleian library, and Archbishop Secker strongly pressed our author to undertake the task, as the person best qualified to carry it into execution. In 1760 he was prevailed upon to give up the remainder of his life to this arduous work; and early in that year he published 'The state of the printed Hebrew Text considered,' wherein he further enforced the necessity of such collation. In the same year he published his proposals, and was encouraged by a prompt and liberal subscription from the universities of Oxford, Cambridge, and Dublin; the archbishops of Canterbury, York, and Dublin; many of the bishops; some noblemen; many of the dissenting ministers and clergymen, and other encouragers of literature. The time he proposed to employ in the work was ten years. On the 6th of December, 1761, he took the degree of B.D., and on the 10th of the same month that of D.D.

The importance of the work on which Dr Kennicott was now engaged was generally acknowledged, and numerous articles of information were received from various parts of Europe. Some, however, doubted the necessity, and some the usefulness of the undertaking. Among others, the professor of divinity at Cambridge, Dr Rutherford, published 'A Letter to the Rev. Mr Kennicott, in which his Defence of the Samaritan Pentateuch is examined, and his Second Dissertation on the State of the printed Hebrew Text of the Old Testament is shown to be in many instances injudicious and inaccurate.' To this Dr Kennicott published an immediate reply, in the postscript to which he declared it to be his resolution not to be diverted from his principal design by engaging in any further controversy. This resolution he was unable to persevere in. An antagonist of a superior order, whose influence was too mighty to be treated with neglect, now made his appearance. This was War-

burton, bishop of Gloucester, then exercising an authority in the world of letters almost without control. This learned writer finding that Kennicott had offered an explanation of a passage in the Proverbs different from his own sentiments, attacked the collation of the Hebrew MSS. in the preface to his 'Doctrine of Grace,' in a style not unusual with him, and calculated to make a very unfavourable impression on the public mind. In answer Dr Kennicott published 'A Sermon preached before the University of Oxford, at St Mary's Church, on Sunday, May 19th, 1765,' in the notes to which he defended himself with great spirit.

In the summer of 1766 he visited Paris for the purpose of examining the MSS. in that place. In November 1767 he was appointed to the office of Radcliffe librarian. In 1768 he published 'Observations on the First Book of Samuel, chap. vi. ver. 19.' 8vo. These were dedicated to Dr Lowth, the earliest and most steady encourager of his projected labours. At length, in the year 1769, within the period of ten years originally stipulated for, the doctor brought his labours on the Hebrew text to a close. His industry had been unremitting; his general rule being to devote to it ten or twelve hours in a day, and frequently fourteen.

In 1776 he gave the public the first-fruits of his long and laborious task by the publication of the first volume of the Hebrew Bible, with the various readings; and this, in 1780, was followed by the second volume, with a general dissertation which completed the work. His last work was entitled 'Remarks on Select Passages in the Old Testament: to which are added, Eight Sermons.' Of this 194 pages were printed in his lifetime, and afterwards published in 1787. He died on the 18th of August, 1783, and was buried in the body of Christ's church.

Bishop Lowth.

BORN A. D. 1710.—DIED A. D. 1787.

ROBERT LOWTH, second son of Dr William Lowth, bishop successively of St David's, Oxford, and London, was born on the 29th of November, 1710, at Buriton in Hants. He received the rudiments of his education at Winchester school. Having resided the requisite number of years in that seminary, he succeeded on the foundation at New college, Oxford, in 1730. He took the degree of M.A. in June, 1737, and continued many years at Oxford improving his talents, but with little notice from the great, and with preferment so small as to have escaped the distinct recollection of some of his contemporaries.

His genius and learning at last forced themselves upon the notice of the illustrious society of which he was a member, and he was placed in a station in which he was eminently qualified to shine. In 1741 he was elected to the professorship of poetry. He was re-elected to the same office in 1743. Whilst he filled this chair he read his admirable lectures 'De sacrâ poesi Hebræorum.' In 1744 Bishop Hoadly collated him to the rectory of Ovington in Hants. The bishop, to this preferment, nine years afterwards, added the rectory of East Weedhay in the same county, and in the interim raised him to the dignity of

archdeacon of Winchester. These repeated favours were acknowledged by Lowth in terms of gratitude. On the 8th of July, 1754, the university of Oxford conferred upon him the degree of D.D. by diploma,—an honour for which he was probably indebted to his prelections on Hebrew poetry, then lately published. He had travelled with Lord George and Lord Frederick Cavendish; and in 1755, the duke of Devonshire being then lord-lieutenant of Ireland, Dr Lowth went to that kingdom as his grace's first chaplain. Soon after this appointment he was offered the bishopric of Limerick; but preferring a less dignified station in his own country, he exchanged it with Dr Leslie, prebendary of Durham and rector of Sedgefield. In November 1765 he was chosen F.R.S. In June 1766 he was, on the death of Dr Squire, preferred to the bishopric of St David's, which, in October following, he resigned for that of Oxford. In April 1777 he was translated to the see of London, vacant by the death of Bishop Terrick; and in 1783 he declined the offer of the primacy on the death of Archbishop Cornwallis.

Having been long afflicted with the stone, and having borne the severest sufferings of pain and sickness with the most exemplary fortitude and resignation, this great and good man died at Fulham on the 3d of November, 1787. On the 12th his remains were privately interred in a vault at Fulham church, near those of his predecessor.

Lowth's literary character is of the very highest stamp. His 'Prelections on Hebrew Poetry' naturally attracted general attention, and the work was received with equal applause at home and abroad. In these prelections the author exhibits himself to the greatest advantage, as a poet, a critic, and a divine; and such is the classic purity of his Latin style, that there is not in it a single phrase to which a critic of the Augustan age could have objected,—an excellence this which neither Milton nor Johnson, nor indeed any other English writer of Latin ever attained, unless perhaps Atterbury and Buchanan be excepted. To the prelections was subjoined a short confutation of Bishop Hare's system of Hebrew metre; which occasioned a letter from Dr Edwards of Clare-hall to Dr Lowth, in vindication of Hare's theory. To this Lowth replied in a 'Larger Confutation,' in which Bishop Hare's system is completely overthrown, and the fallacy upon which it is built accurately investigated.

In 1758 he published 'The Life of William Wykeham, Bishop of Worcester,' with a dedication to Bishop Hoadly, which involved him in a dispute concerning the bishop's decision respecting the wardenship of Winchester college. This controversy was carried on with great ability on both sides. In 1762 Lowth published a 'Short Introduction to English Grammar,' which has gone through many editions. In 1765 he engaged with Bishop Warburton in a controversy which made much noise at the time, and attracted the notice even of royalty. Warburton had attacked some propositions advanced by Lowth in his 'Prælectiones. In the opinion of Dr Johnson, Warburton had the most scholastic learning, and Lowth was the most correct scholar; but in their contests with each other, neither of them, he says, had much argument, and both were extremely abusive. We think the superiority of wit and argument in this contest was on the side of Lowth. The bishop of Gloucester having thrown out a sneer at the university of Oxford and the kind of education which his antagonist must there have received, Lowth retorted in

the following terms: "Pray, my lord, what is it to the purpose where I have been brought up? To have made a proper use of the advantages of a good education is a just praise, but to have overcome the disadvantages of a bad one is a much greater. Had I not your lordship's example to justify me, I should think it a piece of extreme impertinence to inquire where you were bred, though one might possibly plead as an excuse for it, a natural curiosity to know where and how such a phenomenon was produced. It is commonly said that your lordship's education was of that particular kind, concerning which it is a remark of that great judge of men and manners, Lord Clarendon, that it peculiarly disposes men to be proud, insolent, and pragmatical. 'Colonel Harrison was the son of a butcher, and had been bred up in the place of a clerk to a lawyer, which kind of education introduces men into the language and practice of business; and if it be not resisted by the great ingenuity of the person, inclines young men to more pride than any other kind of breeding, and disposes them to be pragmatical and insolent.' Now, my lord, as you have in your whole behaviour, and in all your writings, remarkably distinguished yourself by your humility, meekness, good manners, good temper, moderation with regard to the opinions of others, and modest diffidence of your own, this unpromising circumstance of your education is so far from being a disgrace to you, that it highly redounds to your praise. But I am precluded from all claim to such merit; on the contrary, it is well for me if I can acquit myself of a charge that lies hard upon me, the burden of being responsible for the great advantages which I enjoyed. For, my lord, I was educated in the university of Oxford. I enjoyed all the advantages, public and private, which that famous seat of learning so largely affords. I spent many years in that illustrious society, in a well-regulated course of useful discipline and studies, and in the improving commerce of gentlemen and scholars, in a society where emulation without envy, ambition without jealousy, contention without animosity, excited industry and awakened genius; where a liberal pursuit of knowledge and a generous freedom of thought was raised, encouraged, and pushed forward by example, by commendation, and by authority. I breathed the same atmosphere that the Hookers, the Chillingworths, and the Lockes had breathed before,—who always treated their adversaries with civility and respect,—who made candour, moderation, and liberal judgment as much the rule and law as the subject of their discourse,—who did not amuse their readers with empty declamations, and fine-spun theories of toleration, while they were themselves agitated with a furious inquisitorial spirit, seizing every one they could lay hold on, for presuming to dissent from them in matters the most indifferent, and dragging them through the fiery ordeal of abusive controversy."

In 1778 Lowth published his last great work, 'A Translation of Isaiah.' In this work, to his literary and theological abilities the translator joined an exquisitely critical knowledge of the character and spirit of Eastern poetry. Several occasional discourses of the bishop have been published; they are all worthy of their excellent author.

Of the bishop's poetical pieces none display greater merit than his 'Verses on the Genealogy of Christ,' and 'The Choice of Hercules,' both written in very early life. He wrote a spirited 'Imitation of an Ode of Horace,' applied to the alarming situation of this country in

1745, and some smaller poems. The following inscription on the tomb of his daughter has all the merit of the ancient epitaph, and affords a fine specimen of his lordship's Latinity :

Cara, vale, ingenio præstans, pietate, pudore,
 Et plusquam natæ nomine cara, vale!
 Cara Maria, vale! At veniet felicius ævum,
 Quando iterum tecum, sim modo dignus, ero.
 Cara, redi, læta tum dicam voce, paternas,
 Eja, age in amplexus, cara Maria, redi.

Learning and taste, however, did not constitute Bishop Lowth's highest excellence. His amiable manners rendered him an ornament to his high station, whilst they endeared him to all with whom he conversed. Of his modesty and gentleness we have the testimony of one whose decision will hardly be disputed: "It would answer no end," says his great antagonist, Warburton, "to tell you what I thought of the author of 'Hebrew Poetry' before I saw him. But this I may say, I was never more surprised, when I did see him, than to find him of such amiable and gentle manners,—of so modest, sensible, and disengaged a deportment." Lowth united, indeed, in an eminent degree, the qualities of the gentleman with those of the scholar; he conversed with elegance and wrote with accuracy. His piety had no tincture of moroseness; his charity, no leaven of ostentation.

Francis Blackburne.

BORN A. D. 1705.—DIED A. D. 1787.

THIS celebrated polemic was born at Richmond, Yorkshire, in 1705. After a preparatory course of classical education in the neighbouring schools, he entered the university of Cambridge, 1722, as a pensioner of Catherine hall. He remained at the university five years, during which period he took his bachelor's degree, and at the expiration of which he was ordained a deacon in the church. He had already gained a high reputation for his attainments and devotedness to study; but, being disappointed in his expectation of a fellowship, by reason of the sentiments which he had openly avowed concerning church power and civil liberty, he left the university and lived nearly ten years in retirement with his uncle in Yorkshire.

He had early acquired a fondness for the writings of Locke, Hoadly, and others of the same character, who were distinguished for the freedom and power with which they spoke of general toleration and religious liberty. The spirit which he thus imbibed gave a tone to his future character, and was the ground-work of that toleration and love of liberty which he ever after manifested. In the year 1739 he was settled as a clergyman in Richmond, his native place; and eleven years after, he was appointed archdeacon of Cleveland, by Hutton, archbishop of York. His residence was always at Richmond. On this occasion he is said to have entertained scruples against subscribing the thirty-nine articles, which, however, were removed on his perusing Dr Clarke's

‘Scripture Doctrine of the Trinity,’ and half-a-sheet of arguments, in manuscript, from the pen of Dr Law.

At no distant date from his first settlement he commenced his labours as an author, and, as would be natural to expect, was soon drawn into the field of controversy. A translation of Erasmus’s preface to his paraphrase of Matthew was made at his request, and one of his first publications was a discourse prefixed to this translation. The tendency of this discourse was rather practical than controversial, and was chiefly designed as a preservative against the influence of popery, and an encouragement to study the scriptures. The two or three succeeding pieces which he published were chiefly aimed at the abuses of church power, faults of discipline, and errors of systematic forms of worship and faith. His next subject of controversy was the intermediate state of the soul. Bishop Law, in the appendix to his ‘Theory of Religion,’ had defended the doctrine of the unconscious being of the soul between death and the resurrection. This appendix was attacked with vehemence. Blackburne defended it, and attempted to show, that the scriptures afford no proof of an intermediate state of happiness or misery. The controversy was protracted, and Blackburne came forward several times to meet the arguments of his opponents. In the progress of the discussion, he published remarks on certain passages in Warburton’s ‘Divine Legation,’ and on the account given by that writer of the opinions of the Jews concerning the soul. He at last wrote a historical view of the whole controversy.

But the work which has gained him greater celebrity than any other is ‘The Confessional; or a full and free Inquiry into the Right, Utility, Edification, and Success of establishing systematical Confessions of Faith and Doctrine in Protestant Churches.’ This was published in 1766, and passed through three editions in four years. Its object is well-expressed in the title. This work was the beginning of a controversy which sent many publications into the world, and did not terminate for several years. The following is the language of the author in his preface to the second edition: “The favourable reception which ‘The Confessional’ hath met with from the public, though it will not be admitted as an argument of the merit of the book, is undeniably an argument of something of much more consequence. It is an argument that the love of religious liberty is still warm and vigorous in the hearts of a considerable number of the good people of England, notwithstanding the desponding apprehensions of some good men, that these stiffers had well nigh succeeded in their unrighteous attempt. ‘The Confessional’ hath likewise had the good fortune to make another valuable discovery, namely, that encroachments on religious liberty in protestant communities, by whatever specious pretences they are introduced, can never be defended upon protestant principles.”

About the same time that ‘The Confessional’ was published a vacancy happened in the congregation of dissenters at the Old Jewry, London, by the death of their pastor, Dr Chandler. From the sentiments which Blackburne was known to entertain, it was thought by some persons that he might be induced to leave the established church and accept an invitation to take charge of this society. The proposal was encouraged by some of the friends of the archdeacon, and he was consulted; but he declined the offer.

Blackburne's opposition to the established church, and his continuance in it, have been considered an anomaly not easily to be explained. He died on the 7th of August, 1787, in the eighty-third year of his age. His works were collected and published by his son in seven volumes.

Bishop Law.

BORN A. D. 1703.—DIED A. D. 1787.

THIS prelate was born in the parish of Cartmel, Lancashire, in 1703. His father, who was a clergyman, held a small chapel in that neighbourhood, but the family had been situated at Askham in the county of Westmoreland. He was educated for some time at Cartmel school, afterwards at the free grammar-school at Kendal; from which he went, very well-instructed in the learning of grammar-schools, to St John's, Cambridge. He took his bachelor's degree in 1723, and soon after was elected fellow of Christ's college in that university, where he took his master's degree in 1727.

During his residence here, he became known to the public by a translation of Archbishop King's 'Essay upon the Origin of Evil,' with copious notes; in which many metaphysical subjects, curious and interesting in their own nature, are treated of with great ingenuity, learning, and novelty. To this work was prefixed, under the name of a 'Preliminary Dissertation,' a very valuable piece written by Mr Gay of Sidney college. Our bishop always spoke of this gentleman in terms of the greatest respect. "In the Bible, and in the writings of Locke, no man," he used to say, "was so well-versed." Mr Law also, whilst at Christ's college, undertook and went through a very laborious part, in preparing for the press an edition of 'Stephens's Thesaurus.' His acquaintance, during his first residence in the university, was principally with Dr Waterland, the learned master of Magdalen college; Dr Jortin, a name known to every scholar; and Dr Taylor, the editor of Demosthenes.

In 1737 he was presented by the university to the living of Graystock, in the county of Cumberland, a rectory of about £300 a-year. The advowson of this benefice belonged to the family of Howards of Graystock, but devolved to the university for this turn, by virtue of an act of parliament which transfers to these two bodies the nomination to such benefices as appertain, at the time of the vacancy, to the patronage of a Roman catholic. The right, however, of the university was contested, and it was not until after a lawsuit of two years' continuance, that Mr Law was settled in his living. Soon after this he married Mary, the daughter of John Christian, Esq. of Unerigg, in the county of Cumberland. In 1743 he was promoted by Sir George Fleming, bishop of Carlisle, to the archdeaconry of that diocese; and in 1746 went from Graystock to settle at Salkeld, a pleasant village upon the banks of the river Eden, the rectory of which is annexed to the archdeaconry. But he was not one of those who lose and forget themselves in the country. During his residence at Salkeld, he published 'Considerations on the Theory of Religion;' to which were subjoined 'Re-

fections on the Life and Character of Christ; and an appendix concerning the use of the words *soul* and *spirit* in the Holy Scripture, and the state of the dead there described.

Dr Keene held at this time with the bishopric of Chester the mastership of Peterhouse, in Cambridge. Desiring to leave the university, he procured Dr Law to be elected to succeed him in that station. This took place in 1756, in which year Dr Law resigned his archdeaconry in favour of Mr Eyre, a brother-in-law of Dr Keene. Two years before this—the list of graduates says 1749—he had proceeded to his degree of D.D., in his public exercise for which he defended the doctrine of what is usually called ‘the sleep of the soul.’ About 1760 he was appointed head-librarian of the university; a situation which, as it procured an easy and quick access to books, was peculiarly agreeable to his taste and habits. Some time after this he was appointed casuistical professor. In 1762 he suffered an irreparable loss by the death of his wife; a loss in itself every way afflicting, and rendered more so by the situation of his family, which then consisted of eleven children, many of them very young. Some years afterwards he received several preferments, which were rather honourable expressions of regard from his friends than of much advantage to his fortune. By Dr Cornwallis, then bishop of Lichfield, afterwards archbishop of Canterbury, who had been his pupil at Christ college, he was appointed to the archdeaconry of Staffordshire, and to a prebend in the church of Lichfield, and by his old acquaintance Dr Green, bishop of Lincoln, he was made a prebendary of that church. But in 1767, by the intervention of the duke of Newcastle—to whose interest, in the memorable contest for the high stewardship of the university, he had adhered in opposition to some temptations—he obtained a stall in the church of Durham. The year after this the duke of Grafton, who had a short time before been elected chancellor of the university, recommended the master of Peterhouse to his majesty for the bishopric of Carlisle. This recommendation was made, not only without solicitation on his part, or that of his friends, but without his knowledge, until the duke’s intention in his favour was signified to him by the archbishop.

In or about 1777, our bishop gave to the public a handsome edition, in 3 vols. 4to. of the works of Mr Locke, with a life of the author and a preface. Mr Locke’s writings and character he held in the highest esteem, and seems to have drawn from them many of his own principles; he was a disciple of that school. About the same time he published a tract which engaged some attention in the controversy concerning subscription, and new editions of his two principal works, with considerable additions, and some alterations. Besides the works already mentioned, he published, in 1734 or 1735, a very ingenious ‘Inquiry into the Ideas of Space, Time,’ &c. in which he combats the opinions of Dr Clarke and his adherents on these subjects.

Dr Law held the see of Carlisle almost nineteen years; during which time he only twice omitted spending the summer-months in his diocese at the bishop’s residence at Rose Castle,—a situation with which he was much pleased, not only on account of the natural beauty of the place, but because it restored him to the country, in which he had spent the best part of his life. In 1787 he paid this visit in a state of great weakness and exhaustion; and died at Rose about a month after his

arrival there, on August 14th, and in the eighty-fourth year of his age.

The life of Dr Law was a life of incessant reading and thought, almost entirely directed to metaphysical and religious inquiries; but the tenet by which his name and writings are principally distinguished, is, "that Jesus Christ, at his second coming, will, by an act of his power, restore to life and consciousness the dead of the human species; who by their own nature, and without this interposition, would remain in the state of insensibility to which the death brought upon mankind by the sin of Adam had reduced them." He interpreted literally that saying of St Paul, 1 Cor. xv. 21. "As by man came death, by man came also the resurrection of the dead." This opinion, Dr Paley says, had no other effect upon his own mind than to increase his reverence for Christianity and for its divine founder. He retained it, as he did his other speculative opinions, without laying an extravagant stress upon its importance, and without pretending to more certainty than the subject allowed of. No man formed his own conclusions with more freedom, or treated those of others with greater candour and equity. He never quarrelled with any person for differing from him, or considered that difference as a sufficient reason for questioning any man's sincerity, or judging meanly of his understanding. He was zealously attached to religious liberty, because he thought that it leads to truth; yet from his heart he loved peace. But he did not perceive any repugnancy in these two things. There was nothing in his elevation to his bishopric which he spoke of with more pleasure, than its being a proof that decent freedom of inquiry was not discouraged. He was a man of great softness of manners, and of the mildest and most tranquil disposition. His voice was never raised above its ordinary pitch. His countenance seemed never to have been ruffled; it preserved the same kind and composed aspect, truly indicating the calmness and benignity of his temper. He had an utter dislike of large and mixed companies. Next to his books, his chief satisfaction was in the serious conversation of a literary companion, or in the company of a few friends. In this sort of society he would open his mind with great unreservedness, and with a peculiar turn and sprightliness of expression. His person was low, but well-formed; his complexion fair and delicate. Except occasional interruptions by the gout, he had for the greatest part of his life enjoyed good health; and when not confined by that distemper, was full of motion and activity. About nine years before his death, he was greatly enfeebled by a severe attack of the gout, and in a short time after that, lost the use of one of his legs. Notwithstanding his fondness for exercise, he resigned himself to this change, not only without complaint, but without any sensible diminution of his cheerfulness and good humour. His fault was the general fault of retired and studious characters, too great a degree of inaction and facility in his public station.

Bishop Law was interred in the cathedral of Carlisle, in which a handsome monument is erected to his memory.¹

¹ Life by Dr Paley, written for Hutchinson's 'History of Durham.'

Hugh Farmer.

BORN A. D. 1714.—DIED A. D. 1787.

THIS learned dissenting divine was born in the neighbourhood of Shrewsbury, in the year 1714. He early devoted himself to the ministry, and was educated under Dr Owen of Warrington and Dr Doddridge. He undertook the charge of a congregation in London, and for a time maintained considerable reputation as a preacher. In 1761 he published an essay, entitled 'An Enquiry into the Nature and Design of Christ's Temptation in the Wilderness,' the general intention of which is to show that this part of the evangelical history was only a divine vision premonitory of the labours and offices of our Lord in his future ministry. In 1771 he published a 'Dissertation on Miracles, designed to show that they are arguments of a Divine interposition.' In 1775 he published an 'Essay on the Demoniacs of the New Testament.' His last work appeared in 1783, and was entitled 'The general prevalence of the worship of human spirits in the ancient Heathen nations asserted and proved.' These publications, particularly the two former, involved their author in considerable controversy. They prove their author to have been an original, and sometimes a profound thinker; but they contain views of scriptural doctrine greatly at variance with generally received opinions.

Samuel Badcock.

BORN A. D. 1747.—DIED A. D. 1788.

THIS dissenting minister of distinguished learning and ability, was born at South Molton, Devonshire, in the year 1747. His father was a respectable butcher. His friends being dissenters, he was brought up to their profession, and received a grammar education in his native town. Evincing at an early period a predilection for the ministry, and a propensity to study, he was placed in the dissenting academy, then conducted at Ottery-St-Mary, Devon; and subsequently at another academy kept for the education of the dissenting ministry at Taunton. On completing his studies, he was ordained over an Independent congregation at Beer-Regis in Dorsetshire. He continued here about one year, and removed in 1767 to a larger congregation at Barnstaple. While at Barnstaple he met with some of Dr Priestley's writings, with which at first he was so much fascinated, that he visited the doctor at Calne in Wiltshire, and commenced an intimacy and a correspondence with him. However at first Mr Badcock may have been struck with the apparent learning of Dr Priestley and the boldness of his theories, their true sources did not long remain concealed from his acute and penetrating mind, as will appear in the sequel. After continuing about nine or ten years at Barnstaple, some charges were raised against his character, which he is said to have satisfactorily repelled. However, he quitted the place, and removed to South Molton to take charge of a much smaller

congregation, in the year 1777. Here his stipend being small and inadequate to his wants, he became a writer in several of the London periodicals, among which were 'The London Review,' 'London Magazine,' 'General Evening Post,' 'St James's Chronicle,' and some others. He was also taken notice of and assisted by some distinguished persons in his neighbourhood. In 1780 he became a writer in the 'Monthly Review.' About the same time he took part in the controversy then going on between Dr Priestley, Dr Price, and others, on the materiality of the human soul. Mr Badcock published a small pamphlet, but of great ability, entitled 'A slight sketch of the controversy between Dr Priestley and his opponents.' In 1781 he distinguished himself as the reviewer and opponent of Mr Madan's work, entitled 'Thelyphthora.' The review was considered an eminent display of learning, argumentation, and genius. The same year he wrote a poem under the title of 'The Hermitage.' In the controversy respecting Chatterton, Mr Badcock also took a distinguished part in the character of reviewer. Upon the publication of Dr Priestley's 'History of the corruptions of Christianity,' Mr Badcock undertook the review of it in the Monthly. He bent the chief resources of his learning and genius against that part which relates to the opinions concerning Jesus Christ. Mr Badcock's first article appeared in the 'Monthly Review' for June, 1783. In less than a month Dr Priestley published a 'Reply,' though the conclusion of the article had not yet appeared. The review evidently pained and mortified Dr Priestley to a very high degree, especially as coming from a periodical conducted by some of his friends. He did not, however, know the writer of the article. In the September following appeared the remainder of the review, with an answer to Dr Priestley's defence. It was generally admitted to be a most triumphant refutation of Dr Priestley's opinions, as well as one of the most elaborate specimens of criticism that modern times had furnished.

In the early part of 1783 Dr White of Wadham college, Oxford, and professor of Arabic, was chosen Bampton lecturer for the ensuing year, and highly appreciating Mr Badcock's talents and learning, he took a journey to South Molton for the purpose of engaging his assistance. He readily engaged in the service, and furnished very considerable, and certainly the most able and eloquent, parts of these distinguished sermons. The secret was kept for some years; but at length, after Mr Badcock's death, it was made public in consequence of a note of hand for £500 being found among his papers, signed by Professor White, and which had been given for an engagement into which Mr Badcock had entered to assist Dr White in a history of Egypt. Dr White being compelled after Mr Badcock's death to pay the whole of that sum, he published a statement of the whole of his literary obligations to Mr Badcock, and also to Dr Parr, who had rendered some little assistance in the Bampton lectures. It appears from Dr White's own statement that Badcock furnished nearly the whole of the first lecture, the best part of the 3d, about a fourth of lecture 5th, almost the whole of the 7th, and nearly half of the 8th, with about one-fourth of the notes to the whole volume. Besides these services, Badcock supplied occasionally manuscript sermons to Dr White and some of his friends.

In the year 1786 Mr Badcock quitted the dissenting ministry, and in

the following year was ordained by Dr Ross, bishop of Exeter. His ordination was distinguished by these remarkable facts;—he was not examined in any branches of learning; he received deacon's orders one Sunday, and priest's orders the following. Upon Mr Badcock's saying that he neither expected nor desired such marks of distinction. The bishop replied, "But, Mr Badcock, I choose to distinguish you." He received a curacy at Broad-Clyst, near Exeter. Shortly after his ordination he was constrained through repeated and violent pains in the head to resign his curacy. He became, however, assistant-preacher to Dr Gabriel at the Octagon chapel, Bath. During his residence at Bath he preached and printed a charity sermon which was not published, and also preached an assize sermon that was much admired, and printed after his death. He died at the house of his friend, Sir John Chichester, Bart., in London, on 19th May, 1788, in the 41st year of his age. Besides his publications and writings already mentioned, he was the author of some curious memoirs of the family of Mr John Wesley, and some fugitive pieces. He commenced a history of his native county, some of the materials of which are said—by a writer in 'The Gentleman's Magazine'—to have fallen into the hands of Sir Lawrence Palk. We suspect that the materials here alluded to consisted of the history of the dissenters, and their congregations in that county. The whole of which, or nearly so, has, we believe, been lately published in 'The Congregational Magazine,' under the head of 'Dissenting Statistics for Devonshire.' Mr Badcock was one of the most distinguished literary men of his day. His judgment was singularly acute and comprehensive; his learning profound and various; his genius fertile and lively, but regulated by a most exquisite taste. As a writer his style was both powerful and popular; singularly finished, yet perfectly easy and graceful. It is to be deeply regretted that the printed remains of such a man should consist almost entirely of fragments, patches of other men's sermons, and critiques.

Bishop Shipley.

BORN A. D. 1714.—DIED A. D. 1788.

JONATHAN SHIPLEY was born in 1714, and after having received a liberal education, was sent to Christ church, Oxford, where he graduated about the year 1735, and proceeded to the degree of M. A. in 1738. While at the university, he wrote a monody on the death of Queen Caroline, which was considered of very superior merit. He became a prebendary of Winchester in 1743, and two years afterwards, chaplain to the duke of Cumberland, whom he accompanied to the continent. On his return to England in 1748, he took the degrees of B. D. and D. D., and obtained successively a canonry of Christ church, Oxford, the deanery of Winchester, the livings of Silchester and Chimbolton, and the bishopric of St Asaph. This last preferment took place in 1769, on the death of Bishop Newcombe. He died on the 9th of December, 1788, leaving a son—the celebrated Dean Shipley—and

¹ See Congregational Magazine for 1825.

two daughters, one of whom was married to Sir William Jones. He distinguished himself in the political world chiefly by his hostility to the American war, which, it is supposed, precluded him from further preferment. In 1774 he printed 'A Speech intended to have been spoken on the Bill for altering the Charters of the Colony of Massachusetts Bay.' His collective works, comprising sermons, charges, and parliamentary orations, edited by Mainwaring, were published in 1792. Bishop Shipley was a man of considerable talents and sterling integrity.

Robert Robinson.

BORN A. D. 1735.—DIED A. D. 1790.

ROBERT ROBINSON was born at Swaffham in the county of Norfolk, on the 8th of October, 1735. His father was a native of Scotland. His mother was descended from a respectable family, and to the advantages of a good education she added an amiable temper and gentleness of manners. They had three children, of whom Robert was the youngest. He was put to school when six years old, and soon drew the attention of his teacher, as exhibiting more than usual promise. In the mean time, his father removed from Swaffham, and settled at Scarning. He soon after died, and left the destitute mother to provide for herself and three children. At Scarning was a grammar-school where Lord Thurlow and some other distinguished persons received the rudiments of their education. Desirous of encouraging her son's predilection for learning, Mrs Robinson made an effort to maintain him at this school; but her resources proved inadequate to the expense. So favourable an impression had he made, however, on his teacher, the Rev. Joseph Brett, and so much did this gentleman respect the motives and virtues of the mother, that he kindly offered to instruct his pupil without compensation. On these terms he continued at school till he was fourteen years old, studied French and Latin, and made rapid proficiency in most of the branches commonly pursued at such institutions. The time had now come when it was necessary to decide on his future destination. So many discouragements were in the way of his being a scholar, and so many difficulties to be encountered, that he was finally bound apprentice to a hair-dresser in London. To this new employment he at first devoted himself with commendable industry, received the approbation of his master, and was able to boast of a due proficiency in the mysteries of his trade. But his mind was too active to rest in vacuity; his love of books too strong to be conquered by the routine of a barber's shop. It was his custom to rise at four in the morning, and from that hour till called to his master's service, he was busy in reading such books as he could collect from the cheap stalls, or borrow from his friends.

His thoughts early took a religious bias; and after going to London, a constant attendance on public worship was among his greatest pleasures. Gill, Guise, Romaine, and Whitefield, were his favourite preachers. His diary at this time indicates no small degree of religious enthusiasm, and proves him to have gradually attached himself to the

Methodists. Whitefield, in short, was his adviser and friend, to whom he applied in all cases of spiritual difficulty, and with whom he familiarly corresponded. On one occasion, Whitefield read to his congregation at the Tabernacle, two of Robinson's letters, while the writer was present. Encouraged by the favourable opinion of so distinguished a man, and moved by the advice of his friends, it is not a matter of surprise that he should begin to think himself destined to walk in a broader sphere than the one on which he had entered. So great, indeed, was the esteem and respect which he gained by his genius and good character, that his master was not reluctant to comply with the general voice, and give up his indentures.

At the age of nineteen he commenced preaching among the Methodists. His youth, his amiable manners, his vivacity and native eloquence, drew around him many hearers, and gave a charm to his preaching which could not fail to please. His voice was clear and melodious, his elocution easy and distinct, his language flowing, and all his external accomplishments engaging. These advantages, heightened by a liberal degree of youthful enthusiasm, crowned his first efforts with success, and animated his future exertions. He spared no pains to cultivate the powers which nature had bestowed on him, and frequently declaimed by the hour in private, that he might acquire the habit of a ready delivery, and a free use of language. In this practice the foundation was laid of his subsequent eminence as a public speaker. Among the Methodists, Robinson preached chiefly in Norwich, and different parts of Norfolk and Cambridgeshire. While thus employed he resisted a temptation which deserves to be recorded as a proof of his early integrity and strength of principle. The incident is thus mentioned by Dr Rees in his sermon preached on the occasion of Mr Robinson's death:—"A rich relation, who had promised to provide liberally for him, and who had bequeathed him a considerable sum in his will, threatened to deprive him of every advantage which he had been encouraged to expect, unless he quitted his connexion with the dissenters; but the rights of conscience, and the approbation of God, were superior, in his regard, to every worldly consideration; he preserved his integrity, steadily maintained his principles, and persevered in his connexion with the dissenters, but forfeited the favour of his relation and every advantage, which, living or dying, he had in his power to bestow."

The causes leading to his separation from the Methodists are not distinctly known; but he had not preached with them more than two years, when, at the head of a few persons associated for the purpose, he formed an Independent society in Norwich. At this time he was a Calvinist. He adopted the rules and discipline common to other Independent churches, and administered the ordinances after the same manner. In the year 1759, not long after this society was organized, Mr Robinson was invited to take charge of a Baptist congregation at Cambridge. He was already convinced that adults were the only proper subjects of baptism, and he had himself been baptized by immersion. The Cambridge society was small, and the pecuniary circumstances of its members such as to afford him no more than a very scanty support. When he commenced preaching in Cambridge he was twenty-three years of age, and two years afterwards he was ordained according to

the usual mode of the dissenters. He had been married a little before to a young lady of Norwich.

Mr Robinson's own account of his settlement, written at a later period of his life, will show his prospects to have been not the most flattering. In reference to this subject, he observes,—“The settlement of Robinson seems rather a romantic than rational undertaking, for this pastor was to be maintained. He had not received above ten guineas from his own family for some years; he had no future prospect of receiving any; his grandfather had cut him off with a legacy of half-a-guinea. He had received only a hundred pounds with his wife, and this he had diminished among the Methodists. He had never inquired what his congregation would allow him, nor had any body proposed any thing. They had paid him for the first half-year three pounds twelve shillings and fivepence; they had increased since, but not enough to maintain him frugally; there was no prospect of so poor a people supplying him long, especially should his family increase, which it was likely to do. Besides, the congregation, through the libertinism of many of its former members, had acquired a bad character. These would have been insurmountable difficulties to an older and wiser man; but he was a boy, and the love of his flock was a million to him. His settlement, therefore, on this article, should be no precedent for future settlements.” His congregation, however, grew larger, and the time came when his annual income was increased to more than ninety pounds. At first he lived at Fulbourn, five miles from the place of his Sabbath duties, where he contracted an acquaintance with Mr Graves, a gentleman of property and benevolence, from whom he received many substantial tokens of friendship. He next removed to Hauxton, about the same distance from Cambridge, where he resided for several years, the tenant of a humble cottage, devoted assiduously to his professional labours, and providing for the support of a numerous family and an aged mother. On the Sabbath he often preached three times, and during the week several times in the neighbouring villages. He was intimate with all the surrounding clergy among the dissenters, and had, for his early companions, Rowland Hill and Charles de Coetlogon.

In the midst of his professional labours, he was a diligent student in theology and literature. Free access to the libraries of the university of Cambridge, and conversation with the learned men residing there, enabled him to pursue his studies with advantage. He was an admirer of Saurin, and in 1770 translated and published two of his sermons. The success of his project was quite equal to his expectation, and he afterwards translated at different times, five volumes of sermons selected from Saurin. These have gone through several editions; and, together with a sixth volume by Hunter, and a seventh by Sutcliffe, constitute the works of Saurin as they now appear in the English dress.

While residing at Hauxton, Robinson also published his ‘Arcana, or the Principles of the late Petitioners to Parliament for Relief in Matter of Subscription, in Eight Letters to a Friend.’ These letters were adapted to the times, and attracted a lively attention. The dissenters were making all possible exertions to have the law repealed, which required from them subscription to the articles: Presbyterians and Baptists,—orthodox and heterodox,—united their forces to abolish a law, which operated with equal severity on them all, and which was in itself

so flagrant an encroachment on justice, liberty, the rights of conscience, and the claims of humanity. All rallied under the same banner, and cried out with one voice against the oppression which weighed them down, till, after many unsuccessful struggles, their voice was heard, their petitions heeded, and dissenting ministers and schoolmasters were allowed the privilege of prosecuting their peaceful avocations without violating their conscience by subscribing the thirty-nine articles, or subjecting themselves to a civil penalty by resisting so unholy a requisition. During this struggle for Christian freedom the above letters were written. Clothed in a language always sprightly, they were well-calculated for popular effect; they enter largely into the chief points of the controversy, and, bating some defects of style, and perhaps occasional faults of sentiment, it will be rare to find a more ingenious vindication of the rights and privileges of Christian liberty.

Robinson left Hauxton in 1773, and settled at Chesterton, within two miles of Cambridge. This brought him nearer to the centre of his charge, and the facilities for his literary pursuits were multiplied by his proximity to the university. But his income was not yet adequate to support a family of nine children, and he was compelled to look around him for other sources of emolument. He turned his attention to agriculture. By rigid economy, personal inspection of his affairs, judicious investments, and a spirit of enterprise that never slumbered, he found himself in a few years a thriving farmer, and had the joy to feel, that, by the blessing of Providence, his numerous family was beyond the grasp of want, and the caprice of fortune. Mr Dyer thus speaks of his character as a farmer and economist:—"It would be no less agreeable than instructive, to survey his rural economy and domestic arrangements in his new situation; the versatility of his genius was uncommon; and whether he was making a bargain, repairing a house, stocking a farm, giving directions to workmen, or assisting their labours, he was the same invariable man, displaying no less vigour in the execution of his plans, than ingenuity in their contrivance. The readiness with which he passed from literary pursuits to rural occupations, from rural occupations to domestic engagements, from domestic engagements to the forming of plans for dissenting ministers, to the settling of churches, to the solving of cases of conscience, to the removing of the difficulties of ignorant, or softening the asperities of quarrelsome brethren, was surprising." This is the language of one who lived near him and saw him often.

About the year 1776 Robinson published his 'Plea for the Divinity of Christ.' This topic was now much agitated by reason of the late resignation of Lindsey and Jebb for scruples of conscience concerning the Trinity. Robinson's plea is drawn up with ingenuity, in a popular style and winning manner. Gilded offers were now made to him, if he would have the conscience to slide out of his errors, go up from the unseemly vale of poverty, and take his rest on the commanding eminence of church-preferment. To these overtures he was deaf; from his principles he could not be moved. When Dr Ogden said to him, in trying to unsettle his purpose, "Do the dissenters know the worth of the man?" he replied, "The man knows the worth of the dissenters." The 'Plea' was answered by Lindsey, but Robinson never replied; nor did he write any more in defence of the divinity of Christ.

His sentiments about this time underwent a change. During the latter years of his life he rejected the doctrine of the Trinity, and believed in the subordinate nature of Christ.

In 1777 Robinson published a curious tract, entitled 'The History and Mystery of Good-Friday.' In this pamphlet he traces back the church holy-days to their origin, and proves them for the most part to have arisen out of heathen or Jewish practices, and to derive no authority from the Christian religion. It contains a severe and somewhat rough philippic against the church of England, which boasts of being reformed, and having cast off the abuses of the Romish church, while yet many are cherished as unwarrantable and pernicious as those severed from the old stock. This tract was exceedingly popular, and ran speedily through several editions. But the work which produced greater excitement than any of our author's writings, was a 'Plan of Lectures on the Principles of Nonconformity,' published in 1778. Within a moderate compass it embraces all the points of controversy between the established church and the dissenters. Its manner is original and striking,—the time of its appearance favourable to its currency and interest, for the dissenters' bill was then pending in parliament. In the house of lords this 'Plan of Lectures' was honourably mentioned by Lord Shelburne; and in the house of commons, Burke read passages from it, which he attempted to turn to the disadvantage of the petitioners. Fox repelled his attack, and foiled his attempt. Many articles were written against it, and among others, strictures by Mr Burgess, prebendary of Winchester. Robinson replied to none except the latter, on which he bestowed a few remarks in his preface to the fifth edition.

The next literary enterprise of Robinson, was his translation of Claude's 'Essay on the Composition of a Sermon.' To this essay the translator added a life of the author, remarks on the history of preaching, and a vast body of notes, making together two thick volumes. The notes are written in the author's peculiar manner, full of spirit and vivacity, and discover a prodigious extent of reading. Some of them are valuable, many are highly entertaining; but they seem to have been hastily thrown together, and collected with too little discrimination. They occasionally descend to trifling incidents, anecdotes, and inapposite reflections, equally offensive to good taste, and barren of instruction.

Mr Robinson's celebrated volume of 'Village Sermons' was published in 1786. We have already observed that it was his custom to preach in the neighbouring villages, and frequently he tarried at a place over night, and held religious services early in the morning, before the labourers were gone to their work. In summer these exercises were conducted in the open air, and fully attended. The above volume is composed of discourses delivered on these occasions, and written out afterwards as dictated by the author to an amanuensis. They had evidently been prepared with care in his own mind, and they contain a copiousness of language, a felicity of illustration, and readiness in quoting and applying appropriate passages of scripture, rarely to be witnessed.

The last works in which our author was engaged, were the 'History of Baptism,' and his 'Ecclesiastical Researches.' These were also his largest works, each making a closely printed quarto volume. It had long been a source of regret among the Baptists, that no full and authentic history of their brethren existed; and that their opinions,

character, and progress, had never been represented to the world in the light they deserved. It was at length resolved by some of the leading members of this denomination to supply the deficiency, and appoint a suitable person to write a copious and accurate history. The general voice fixed on Robinson, and in 1781 he was invited by an authorized committee to undertake the task. He complied with the request, and immediately set himself about the gigantic labour of wading through the ecclesiastical records of ancient and modern times, appalled neither by the lumber of antiquity, nor the mountains of volumes which have been raised by the prolific industry of later ages. The 'History of Baptism' was chiefly printed before the author's death, but not published till after that event. It contains a vast fund of historical knowledge on the subject which he professed to treat, and indicates an uncommonly deep and patient examination. The 'Ecclesiastical Researches' was a posthumous work, and, having been left in an unfinished state, is in many respects imperfect.

During the last years of Robinson's life, his health and his intellect gave symptoms of a rapid decline. Of this he appeared to be fully aware; for to a friend, who visited him not long before his death, he said, "You are come to see only the shadow of Robert Robinson." In the spring of 1790, he engaged to preach charity sermons for the benefit of some schools at Birmingham. He left home on the 2d of June in a languid frame of body and mind; but so well did he bear the fatigue of the journey, that he preached twice on the following Sabbath. On Monday evening he was taken ill, and his friends were alarmed; but he gained strength the next day. He retired to rest late in the evening after eating his supper with a good appetite, but was found lifeless in his bed next morning.

In 1807 Mr Flower published the 'Miscellaneous works of Robert Robinson,' in four volumes, to which he prefixed a brief memoir of the author's life and writings. This edition comprises all his works, except the 'History of Baptism,' 'Ecclesiastical Researches,' 'Village Sermons,' and 'Notes to Claude.' Among his best writings are the prefaces to the several volumes of Saurin.

Among the numerous excellencies of Robinson's style, there are some glaring faults. His imagination is brilliant and active, but it rambles without license, and luxuriates without moderation. He never wants an apposite figure to illustrate any position; but his choice is frequently ill-judged, and rests on low images unworthy of his subject. This may be accounted for, perhaps, from the circumstances of his education, and from his invariable habit of bringing down his language to the plain country people to whom he preached. Another fault is want of method and looseness of reasoning. This fault is not perpetual, but it occurs too often. Logic was not his strongest point; he loved not that his fancy should be clogged and hampered by the trammels of the schools; he chose a path of his own, and in his passion for freedom was impatient of the restraints which others have thought so wholesome a branch of discipline, and so useful in checking the exuberance of a prurient imagination, and maturing the decisions of a wayward judgment. It needs hardly be added that his taste partook of those defects; it is sometimes bad, and often not to be commended.¹

¹ Abridged from Memoir by Jared Sparks.

John Wesley.

BORN A. D. 1703.—DIED A. D. 1791.

JOHN WESLEY, the founder of the religious body called Wesleyan Methodists, was born June 17th, 1703. His father, Samuel Wesley, was the son of a nonconformist minister, but studied for the church of England, and was appointed to the livings of Epworth and Wroote, in Lincolnshire. At the former of these places, John; the subject of the present sketch, was born. Both his parents seem to have been distinguished by moral and intellectual worth; in their characters a curious observer might, perhaps, be able to trace certain characteristic features of their son's mind. When six years old he was exposed to imminent peril by a fire which occurred in his father's house. During the bustle of the event, he was left neglected in the nursery, but, being seen from the outside, was taken out just before the falling in of the roof. This escape—a remarkable event in the life of a man who has exerted such an influence on society—he himself seems to have gratefully remembered through life; and—in allusion, it is supposed, to this deliverance, though, perhaps, also with a reference to his religious condition—beneath a portrait of him there was represented a house on fire, accompanied with the motto, “Is not this a brand plucked out of the fire?”¹ At the end of 1715, another and somewhat different kind of domestic alarm occurred in his father's family. This arose from certain noises and appearances by which it seems even the venerable divine and his wife were induced to believe that some supernatural visitant had taken up quarters in their house. John was at this time absent at school; but it may easily be conceived that the circumstances would produce an effect on his mind; and in a narrative which he published in the ‘Arminian Magazine,’ he enters into the particulars of the affair, premising, that when he was very young he heard several letters read, giving an account of strange disturbances in his father's house at Epworth in Lincolnshire; and that when he went down thither in the year 1720, he “carefully inquired into the particulars,”—“spoke to each of the persons who were then in the house, and took down what each could testify of his or her own knowledge.”

At the Charter-house, young Wesley seems to have recommended himself to the master by his proper conduct; and although he appears to have suffered much, when there, from older boys, yet he was accustomed, in later life, to visit the scene where he had spent so many of his earlier days. Even in boyhood, however, according to his own declaration at a later period of his life, his mind was restless and uncomfortable. “I distinctly remember,” says he, “that even in my childhood, even when I was at school, I have often said, They say the life of a school-boy is the happiest in the world, but I am sure I am not

¹ Perhaps it was also in this double reference that, in prospect of a fatal issue to an illness with which he was attacked, he composed for himself the following epitaph: “Here lieth the body of John Wesley, a brand plucked out of the burning, who died of a consumption, in the fifty-first year of his age, not leaving, after his debts are paid, ten pounds behind him,” &c.

happy, for I am not content, and so cannot be happy." When seventeen years of age, he removed to Christ church, Oxford, where, although of cheerful and lively manners, he prosecuted his studies with diligence. Previously to taking orders, he corresponded with his parents on certain topics of religion, among others the doctrine of predestination,—a point so apt to excite the speculation and perplex the mind of a young academic inquirer; and to those well-known practical works, Thomas à Kempis's 'Imitation of Christ,' and Jeremy Taylor's 'Holy Living and Dying,' he seems to have paid particular attention at this period of his life. At length, in the autumn of 1725, he was ordained by Dr Potter, bishop of Oxford. In spite of ridicule on account of his religious strictness, he was elected fellow of Lincoln college in the spring of the following year. "Entering now," says he, "into a new world, I resolved to have no acquaintance by chance, but by choice, and to choose such only as I had reason to believe would help me on my way to heaven. In consequence of this, I narrowly observed the temper and behaviour of all that visited me. I saw no reason to think that the greater part of these truly loved or feared God. Such acquaintance, therefore, I did not choose; I could not expect they would do me any good. Therefore, when any of these came, I behaved as courteously as I could; but to the question, When will you come to see me? I returned no answer. When they had come a few times, and found I still declined returning the visit, I saw them no more." At this time he also began to keep a diary. Within a year after his election, he was chosen moderator of the classes, and Greek lecturer; and we find him at this time laying down a plan of study, comprehending not only divinity, but also classics, logic, metaphysics, morals, Hebrew, Arabic, natural philosophy, poetry, and oratory. He also devoted some attention to the study of mathematics; in allusion to which, however, he says, in a letter to his mother, "I think, with you, that there are many truths it is not worth while to know. Curiosity might be a plea for spending some time upon them, if we had half-a-dozen centuries of lives to come; but it is ill husbandry to spend much of the small pittance now allowed us, in what makes us neither a quick nor a sure return." Soon after this appointment he left Oxford and settled at Wroote as curate to his aged father, in which situation he received priest's orders from Bishop Potter. In two years from the time of entering on his parochial cure, he returned to Oxford, where he acted as moderator at disputations held in the hall of his college. Finding at the university an association of young men devoted to religious pursuits, one of whom was his younger brother Charles—afterwards distinguished as his associate in the cause of Methodism—he became leader of the little society;² and he followed as a religious adviser William Law,

² It seems to have been from the circumstance of a young man at Christ church remarking in reference to this association, as similar to an ancient sect of methodical physicians—"Here is a new set of Methodists sprung up," that this name became characteristic of Mr Wesley's followers. This little society was the nucleus of the two numerous bodies now called the Wesleyan and Calvinistic Methodists, and intimately connected with the great revival of religion which took place in the last century. Mr John Wesley's account is as follows: "In November, 1729, four young gentlemen of Oxford, Mr John Wesley, fellow of Lincoln college; Mr Charles Wesley, student of Christ church; Mr Morgan, commoner of Christ church; and Mr Kirkham, of Meiton college, began to spend some evenings in a week together, in reading chiefly the Greek

the celebrated author of a 'Serious Call.' His correspondence at this time, as well as the conduct he pursued as a member of what was profanely called 'The godly club,' strikingly displays the religious ardour of his mind. "When I observe," says he, in a letter to his mother, "how fast life flies away, and how slow improvement comes, I think one can never be too much afraid of dying before one has learned to live." It seems, however, that neither his piety nor his acuteness sufficiently preserved him from an austerity of habits scarcely accordant with a due regard for self-preservation, and from an oddness of behaviour inconsistent, perhaps, with that laudable prudence, directed by religious principle, and, in its own turn, guiding though not extinguishing religious zeal, for which the academic scene in which he acted may be supposed to have imperatively called.

During his residence at Oxford, Wesley was consulted in reference to a proposal that he should become his father's successor in the living of Epworth. The reasonings of his father and his brother Samuel in favour of his accepting a cure of souls, failed of gaining him over; and if his own account of his susceptibility to be moved from good impressions and cooled in his religious zeal was strictly just, we are not entitled, perhaps, to say, that he was wrong in holding out even against the remonstrances of so estimable a parent as Samuel Wesley. As to the force of his ordination vow, he consulted the prelate by whom he was ordained, and the answer was favourable to his own interpretation. We find him, however, in attendance on the death-bed of his father, who died in April, 1735; and after the decease of the latter, he proceeded to London, to present to Queen Caroline a work, by the late venerable divine of Epworth, on the book of Job. The latter of these events marks an important era in the life of Wesley. On occasion of his visit to London, he was informed, that the trustees of a colony which had been lately established at Georgia, in North America, had resolved to send out religious teachers for the instruction of the Indians and the colonists. A proposal was made to him that he should proceed on the expedition, but in this he declined to acquiesce. His mother, however, when consulted on the subject, replied, "Had I ten sons, I should rejoice that they were all so employed, though I should never see them more,"—and his friends, John Byron and William Law, expressed their approbation of his proceeding to this Christian service. He accordingly embarked at Gravesend, 14th October, 1735. He was accompanied by his brother Charles, and also by Mr Oglethorpe, by whom the co-

Testament. The next year, two or three of Mr John Wesley's pupils desired the liberty of meeting with them, and afterwards one of Mr Charles Wesley's pupils. It was in 1732, that Mr Ingham of Queen's college, and Mr Broughton of Exeter, were added to their number. To these, in April, was joined Mr Clayton, of Brazen-Nose, with two or three of his pupils. About the same time Mr James Hervey was permitted to meet with them and afterwards Mr Whitefield." At the period mentioned in the beginning of this extract, Mr Wesley found his brother Charles "in great earnestness to save his soul;" and he had received the "harmless name of Methodist," before his brother's return; for he adds, "in half-a-year after this my brother John left his curacy at Epworth, and came to our assistance. We then proceeded regularly in our studies, and in doing what good we could to the bodies and souls of men." From all which it appears, that Charles was the first modern Methodist, and that he laid the foundation of the religious societies which continue to be distinguished by that appellation. On the return of his brother to Oxford, however, the management of the society was committed to him; and no one was more fitted for the office.

lony had been founded, and two other individuals of the names of Ingham and Delamotte. In the same ship were twenty-six Moravians. In these Wesley found companions conformable to his own religious habits, but he appears to have been struck with the difference between his own fear of death and the calmness of his German friends, during a storm by which the ship was overtaken on her passage. At length, on the 5th of February, 1736, she anchored in Savannah river, and next day Wesley and his companions landed on an uninhabited island, and having proceeded to a rising ground, knelt down, and offered thanks to the Almighty. The former took up his residence at Savannah with the Moravians. "From ten friends," he says, "I am a while secluded, and God hath opened me a door into the whole Moravian church." His new situation, indeed, he seems to have exceedingly enjoyed. Besides teaching a school, he preached in public, and his services were attended by crowds of people. He discoursed successfully against luxury of dress, and, in accordance with the rubric of the church, insisted on immersion in the baptism of children. He seems to have gone farther than suited the views of certain of the colonists; and before he had resided a year in the colony, a warm opposition had arisen against both his brother and himself. At length he was thrown into a situation alike delicate and annoying. Sophia Causton, a lady related to the chief magistrate of Savannah, having been introduced to Wesley as a religious inquirer, he formed the idea of receiving her in marriage. Referring the matter, however, to the judgment of the Moravians, he yielded to their decision against the propriety of the union. But another scene in connection with this lady remains to be presented. Some time after, he reproved her for certain points of conduct, and even kept her back from the communion. On this a warrant was issued against him, and damages were laid at £1,000. He maintained that nine of the counts against him were not cognizable by the civil court before which he was summoned. Twelve of the jurors, too, opposed the indictment. At last, when month after month had passed, without the matter being brought to a decision, he fixed a day for setting off on his return to England. The magistrates interfered. He on his part declined to give either bond or bail. "I saw clearly," says he, "the hour was come for leaving this place, and soon as evening prayers were over, about eight o'clock, the tide then serving, I shook off the dust of my feet and left Georgia, after having preached the gospel there (not as I ought, but as I was able), one year and nearly nine months." After great difficulties, he, and one or two companions who attended him, arrived at Charlestown. Remaining there several days, he at length set sail for England; and on the passage homeward, he seems to have diligently cultivated his religious feelings. The ship in which he sailed cast anchor in the Downs very shortly after his friend George Whitefield—a name so intimately associated with his own—had set sail for Georgia. Wesley, hearing of his friend's vicinity, transmitted to him a letter advising him to return. Whitefield, however, proceeded; and in his journal, after landing in Georgia, he thus writes: "The good Mr John Wesley has done in America, under God, is inexpressible. His name is very precious among the people; and he has laid such a foundation, that I hope neither men nor devils will ever be able to shake."

On his arrival in London in 1738, Wesley met with three Moravians,

by one of whom, Peter Boehler, he was, according to his own statement, "clearly convinced of the want of that faith whereby alone we are saved;"⁵ and on the 24th of May, when attending a meeting in Aldersgate street, where an individual was reading a preface by Luther to the epistle to the Romans, he felt, he says, that he trusted "in Christ alone for salvation," and "an assurance," he adds, "was given me that he had taken away my sins, even mine, and saved me from the law of sin and death." The same year, he proceeded on a visit to the Moravians at Herrnhut in Germany, whence, after meeting with their celebrated leader, Count Zinzendorf, and observing the doctrine and organization of their society, he returned before the end of the year to England. Here he associated with a religious society which had been organized in London, composed, it would appear, in a great measure of Moravians. A love-feast, at which Whitefield was present, held at the beginning of 1739, is noticed by Wesley as an occasion of great excitement, and thus was ushered in a year remarkable for the bodily agitation, in the form of cries and convulsions, which attended the preaching of the Wesleys. There are certain circumstances by which this feature, so observable in the early history of Methodism, may be, to a considerable extent, explained. The necessity of personal assurance, as well, perhaps, as other favourite doctrines of Wesley, was peculiar, and fitted to produce a powerful effect on minds hitherto unaccustomed to such statements, when eloquently and pointedly enforced. Many, too, of Wesley's hearers seem to have been, in a great degree, destitute of Christian knowledge altogether, until Methodism was brought to bear upon them; so that the subject, or at least certain of its impressive doctrines, may, under his preaching, have fallen with the force of novelty upon their minds. Many of his auditors, too—a great proportion of whom were in the lower ranks—may have been free from that restraint on the public and turbulent expression of feeling which delicacy of manners might have enforced, while some, perhaps, were very willing to court the attention of the preacher by what might be supposed to gratify both his human love of influence, and his religious desire to benefit his hearers. Sincere and salutary as was probably much of the excitement that accompanied his preaching, and real as seem to have been some of the bodily affections that appeared among his auditors, there appears reason to believe that Wesley himself was not without experience of imposture in the case, and it seems that neither he nor his brother Charles had uniformly a very favourable opinion of such displays. "Some very unstill sisters," says the former on one occasion, "who always took care to stand near me, and tried who would cry loudest, since I have had them removed out of my sight have been as quiet as lambs. The first night I preached here, half my words were lost through the noise of their outcries; last night, before I began, I gave public notice that whosoever cried so as to drown my voice, should, without any

⁵ "Peter Boehler," he says, "amazed me more and more by the account he gave of the fruits of living faith, the holiness and happiness which he affirmed to attend it. The next morning I began the Greek Testament again, resolving to abide by the law and the testimony, being confident that God would hereby show me whether this doctrine was of God." A fourth conversation with this excellent man, confirmed him still more in the sentiment, "that faith is—to use the words of our church—a sure trust and confidence which a man has in God, that through the merits of Christ, his sins are forgiven, and he reconciled to the favour of God."

man's hurting or judging them, be gently carried to the farthest corner of the room,—but my porters had no employment the whole night." Still, however, it were worse, perhaps, than rash to represent the bodily affections produced under Wesley's preaching as but a combination of folly and imposture, or to deny that in certain of these instances, there was a peculiar exercise of supernatural influence on the individuals immediately concerned.

It was near Bristol that Wesley commenced his career in England as a field-preacher. Whitefield had led the way by preaching, in the beginning of 1739, to the colliers at Kingswood in the neighbourhood of that city; and on his leaving the situation, Wesley succeeded him—although, according to his own account, he at first "could scarce reconcile himself to this strange way." Latterly, however, he threw aside all doubt as to his line of duty, and to one who expostulated with him on what churchmen considered his 'irregularities,' he replied thus: "As to your advice that I should settle in college, I have no business there, having now no office, and no pupils. And whether the other branch of your proposal be expedient, namely, to accept of a cure of souls, it will be time enough to consider when one is offered to me. But in the mean time, you think I ought to be still; because, otherwise, I should invade another's office. You accordingly ask, how it is that I assemble Christians who are none of my charge, to sing psalms, and pray, and hear the scriptures expounded; and think it hard to justify doing this, in other men's parishes, upon catholic principles. Permit me to speak plainly. If by catholic principles you mean any other than spiritual, they weigh nothing with me: I allow no other rule, whether of faith or practice, than the holy scriptures. But, on scriptural principles, I do not think it hard to justify what I do. God, in scripture, commands me, according to my power, to instruct the ignorant, reform the wicked, confirm the virtuous. Man forbids me to do this in another's parish; that is, in effect, not to do it at all; seeing I have now no parish of my own, nor probably ever shall. Whom, then, shall I hear, God or man? If it be just to obey man rather than God, judge you. A dispensation of the gospel is committed to me, and wo is me if I preach not the gospel. But where shall I preach it upon the principles you mention? Not in any of the Christian parts, at least, of the habitable earth; for all these are, after a sort, divided into parishes. Suffer me to tell you my principles in this matter. I look upon all the world as my parish: thus far, I mean, that, in whatever part of it I am, I judge it meet, right, and my bounden duty, to declare unto all, that are willing to hear, the glad tidings of salvation. This is the work which I know God has called me to: and sure I am that his blessing attends it. Great encouragement have I, therefore, to be faithful in fulfilling the work he hath given me to do. His servant I am, and as such am employed according to the plain direction of his word, as I have opportunity, doing good to all men. And his providence clearly concurs with his word, which has disengaged me from all things else, that I might singly attend on this very thing, and go about doing good." A strong excitement was produced by his ministrations at Bristol, and there, at length, on the 12th of May, the foundation of a meeting-house was laid. According to the advice of certain friends in London, Wesley took on himself the management and responsibility of the undertaking. He con-

fesses that he had not money to satisfy the claims; "but I knew," says he, "the earth is the Lord's, and the fulness thereof, and in his name set out, nothing doubting." After a few months' residence at Bristol, he proceeded to London. On his arrival, at Whitefield's request, he preached in the open air at Blackheath. With the rhapsodies of the French prophets, who had gained considerable influence over certain of the body to which he had attached himself, he appears to have been by no means satisfied, and his visit seems to have greatly contributed to quell certain quarrels and heart-burnings which had taken place in the society. Separation, however, was at hand. The body was composed partly of Moravians, and partly of Methodists or followers of Wesley. An individual of the name of Molther raised his voice against "the outward signs" that attended Wesley's preaching, and also stated certain opinions of his own to which Wesley was opposed. The latter left Bristol, and visited the society in London, of whose altered state he gives a melancholy picture. He explained texts that, according to his ideas, had been misinterpreted, and sought to reclaim such as he deemed in error. He at length went back to Bristol, but soon thereafter returned to London, and headed a secession from the Moravian party; nor did a conference which he held with Zinzendorf himself—who on this occasion visited England—effect a reunion of the Moravians and the Methodists. Whitefield, too, differed in religious sentiment with his early friend; and in 1740, when the former returned from America, he declined to proceed in connection with Wesley.

But the influence of the latter survived these unpleasant separations, as well as the virtual alienation from the church of England in which he had now involved himself. He extended his sphere of operation by visiting the north of England, where he found a congregation collected at Birstall under the care of John Nelson, a lay-preacher. He went on to Newcastle, and there his preaching was attended, as usual, with strong excitement. In returning from this tour, he paid a visit to his native parish of Epworth. An offer to preach in the church which he tendered to the curate being declined, he preached in the open air, not only on the Sunday after his arrival, but on several successive days: "I stood," says he, speaking of one of these occasions, "near the east end of the church, upon my father's tombstone, and cried, 'The kingdom of heaven is not meat and drink, but righteousness, and peace, and joy in the Holy Ghost.'" Here, as elsewhere, his services were accompanied with great excitement among the hearers. The curate, however, seems to have treated him with insult. Nor was it at Epworth alone that he suffered in the cause he had espoused. Obloquy, and occasionally tumult, attended the preaching of the early Methodists. But in the respect and influence which he possessed among his followers, Wesley found what to his mind—warmed with piety, and, apparently, not altogether free from the love of power—perhaps more than counterbalanced the hostility he met with. His popular eloquence, associated with a calculating judgment, and aided by a sense, on the part of the people, of the influence he had exercised in creating the general excitement in which the Methodist church originated, go far to explain the power he exerted over the lay-preachers who, early in the history of Methodism, engaged in the ministry, and over the discipline of the congregations that were successively formed throughout the

country. Besides, even in the midst of his arduous exertions, he seems to have retained the ease and pleasantry of manner which characterized him when an under-graduate at Oxford. These personal qualifications, which fitted him for exercising so great an influence, were brought into immediate bearing on his disciples over the country, and contributed, no doubt, to multiply the number of his followers, by the wandering mode of life which he pursued. In the course of his official movements, he visited not only distant parts of England, but also Ireland and Wales; and even after his marriage—which, from the temper and conduct of his wife, proved an unfortunate one—he proceeded in his itinerating course. “I cannot understand,” says he, “how a Methodist preacher can answer it to God, to preach one sermon, or travel one day less, in a married than in a single state.”

In 1743, Mr Wesley, from “a strong desire to unite with Mr Whitefield, as far as possible,” and to cut off all “needless dispute,” wrote down his sentiments in the following terms: “There are three points in debate, 1. Unconditional election; 2. Irresistible grace; 3. Final perseverance. With regard to the first, unconditional election, I believe, that God, before the foundation of the world, did unconditionally elect certain persons to do certain works; as Paul to preach the gospel: that he has unconditionally elected some nations to receive peculiar privileges, the Jewish nation in particular: that he has unconditionally elected some nations to hear the gospel, as England and Scotland now, and many others in past ages: that he has unconditionally elected some persons to many peculiar advantages, both with regard to temporal and spiritual things; and I do not deny, though I cannot prove it is so, that he has unconditionally elected some persons to eternal glory. But I cannot believe that all those who are not thus elected to glory, must perish everlastingly: or, that there is one soul on earth, who has never had a possibility of escaping eternal damnation. With regard to the second, irresistible grace, I believe,—that the grace which brings faith, and thereby salvation into the soul, is irresistible at that moment: that most believers may remember some time when God irresistibly convinced them of sin: that most believers do, at some other times, find God irresistibly acting upon their souls: yet I believe, that the grace of God, both before and after those moments, may be and hath been resisted: and that, in general, it does not act irresistibly, but we may comply therewith, or may not. And I do not deny, that, in some souls, the grace of God is so far irresistible, that they cannot but believe, and be finally saved. But I cannot believe that all those must be damned in whom it does not thus irresistibly work: or, that there is one soul on earth, who has not, and never had any other grace, than such as does in fact increase his damnation, and was designed of God so to do. With regard to the third, final perseverance, I am inclined to believe that there is a state attainable in this life, from which a man cannot finally fall; and that he has attained this who can say, ‘Old things are passed away; all things’ in me ‘are become new.’” In the course of his experience, he seems to have softened down his ideas of personal assurance as essential to saving faith. He appears, however, to have retained his Arminian sentiments to the end of life, so as to prevent a union being effected between his followers and those of Whitefield, although, before the death of the latter, these two old companions

seem to have renewed, if they had ever given up, their brotherly intercourse with each other. But, as may easily be supposed, he was called to wield the pen of controversy against divines of the English church. Three of his opponents were, Bishop Lavington, Bishop Warburton, and Mr Toplady. The 'Arminian Magazine' he commenced in 1780. This became a regular organ of Methodism; and he had previously established a Methodist school at Kingswood. He remained, however, a minister of the church of England, and had several of the clergy for coadjutors. To one of these, Dr Coke, he gave a commission to go out to America as superintendent of the cause of Methodism in that country, where it obtained a footing before the death of its founder. As to the affairs of the body at home, he was in the habit of conferring with certain of his friends; but he seems to have retained supreme power in his own hands. "I myself," says he, speaking of persons who conferred with him, "sent for these of my own free choice; and I sent for them to advise, not govern me. Neither did I, at any of those times, divest myself of any part of that power which the providence of God had cast upon me without any design or choice of mine. What is that power? It is a power of admitting into, and excluding from, societies under my care; of choosing and removing stewards; of receiving or not receiving helpers; of appointing them when, where, and how to help me; and of desiring any of them to meet me, when I see good. And as it was merely in obedience to the providence of God, and for the good of the people, that I at first accepted this power which I never sought; nay, a hundred times laboured to throw off; so it is on the same considerations, not for profit, honour, or pleasure, that I use it at this day." But in 1784, such a constitution was given to the conference as might secure to them the ecclesiastical superintendence of the Methodist churches after the demise of Wesley, who was now upwards of seventy years of age. "From this time," says Mr Watson, "he felt that he had nothing more to do than to spend his remaining life in the same spiritual labours in which he had been so long engaged; and that he had done all that a true prudence required to provide for the continuance and extension of a work which had so strangely enlarged under his superintendence." The settlement was effected by a legal instrument, enrolled in chancery, called 'A Deed of Declaration,' in which one hundred preachers, mentioned by name, were declared to be "the conference of the people called Methodists." By means of this deed a legal description was given to the term 'conference,' and the settlement of the chapels upon trustees was provided for, so that the appointment of preachers to officiate in them should be vested in the conference, as it had heretofore been in Mr Wesley. The deed also declares how the succession and identity of the yearly conference is to be continued, and contains various regulations as to the choice of a president and secretary, the filling-up of vacancies, expulsions, and all other matters connected with the societies, as forming one general connection. His life, however, was still to be preserved for a considerable time, and when more than eighty years of age, he was a vigorous old man.⁴ Defective as his popular book on medicine

⁴ May 31st, in his eighty-fourth year, he writes: "About five in the evening I preached at Killrail. No house would contain the congregation; so I preached in the

may evince him to have been in physic, he was right, perhaps, in thus accounting for his freedom from infirmity, when now upwards of seventy: "The chief reasons are, my constant rising at four for about fifty years; my generally preaching at five in the morning—one of the most healthy exercises in the world; my never travelling less, by sea or land, than four thousand five hundred miles in a year." At length, when eighty-five years of age, he writes: "I now find that I grow old;" and in 1790, he says, still more specifically: "I am now an old man, decayed from head to foot." Even then, however, he adds: "Blessed be God, I do not slack my labours; I can preach and write still." Next year, in the month of February, he caught cold, and on the 2d of March thereafter the venerable old man expired. On the day before his funeral his body was conveyed to the chapel, where it lay for public inspection, absurdly attired in a clerical dress. The Rev. Mr Richardson, who now lies with him in the same vault, read the funeral-service, in a manner that made it peculiarly affecting. When he came to that part of it, "Forasmuch as it hath pleased Almighty God to take unto himself the soul of our dear brother," &c. he substituted, with the most tender emphasis, the epithet 'father,' instead of 'brother,' which had so powerful an effect on the congregation, that from silent tears they universally burst out into loud weeping. The discourse, by Dr Whitehead, was delivered in the chapel to an astonishing multitude of people. A long inscription was placed upon his tomb; and another afterwards on the marble tablet erected to his memory in the chapel. Of the latter the following is a copy: "Sacred to the memory of the Rev. John Wesley, M.A. sometime fellow of Lincoln college, Oxford; a man in learning and sincere piety scarcely inferior to any; in zeal, ministerial labours, and extensive usefulness, superior, perhaps, to all men since the days of St Paul. Regardless of fatigue, personal danger, and disgrace, he went out into the highways and hedges calling sinners to repentance, and publishing the gospel of peace. He was the founder of the Methodist societies, and the chief promoter and patron of the plan of itinerant preaching, which he extended through Great Britain and Ireland, the West Indies and America, with unexampled success. He was born the 17th of June, 1703; and died the 2d of March, 1791, in sure and certain hope of eternal life, through the atonement and mediation of a crucified Saviour. He was sixty-five years in the ministry, and fifty-two an itinerant preacher. He lived to see, in these kingdoms only, about three hundred itinerant, and one thousand local preachers, raised up from the midst of his own people; and eighty thousand persons in the societies under his care. His name will be ever had in grateful remembrance by all who rejoice in the universal spread of the gospel of Christ. *Soli Deo Gloria!*"

Of his personal appearance, Hampson has given the following accurate description: "His face, for an old man, was one of the finest we have seen. A clear, smooth forehead, an aquiline nose, an eye the brightest and the most piercing that can be conceived, and a freshness of complexion, scarcely ever to be found at his years, and impressive of the most perfect health, conspired to render him a venerable and

open air. The wind was piercingly cold, but the people regarded it not. Afterwards I administered the Lord's supper to about a hundred of them, and then slept in peace."

1791
—03.

most interesting figure." In his demeanour, as in his countenance, "there was a cheerfulness mingled with gravity,—a sprightliness which was the natural result of an unusual flow of spirits, and was yet accompanied by every mark of the most serene tranquillity." Dr Johnson described Mr Wesley's conversation as 'good,' a word sufficiently indicative of his opinion of it; and, on one occasion, having regretted that he spent so little time with him, on a visit, Mrs Hall said, "Why, doctor, my brother has been with you two hours." He replied, "Two hours, madam! I could talk all day, and all night too, with your brother."

As a preacher, he had many qualifications in common with other eminent men, but some peculiar to himself. His attitude in the pulpit was graceful and easy; his action calm and natural, yet pleasing and expressive; his voice not loud, but clear and manly; his style neat, simple, and perspicuous, and admirably adapted to the capacity of his hearers. His sermons were always short: he was seldom more than half-an-hour in delivering a discourse, sometimes not so long. Of the manner and effect of his preaching, the following is an example: The late Rev. Mr Madan was educated for the bar. Some of his companions requested him one evening to go and hear Wesley, who, they were informed, was to preach in the neighbourhood, and then to return to them and exhibit his manner and discourse for their entertainment. With that intention he went to the house of God. Just as he entered the place, Mr Wesley read as his text, 'Prepare to meet thy God!' Amos iv. 12. with a solemnity of accent which excited his attention, and produced a seriousness which increased as he proceeded in exhorting his hearers to repentance. Madan returned to the coffee-room, and was asked by his companions, "if he had taken off the old Methodist." He replied, "No, gentlemen, but he has taken me off!" and from that time forsook their company, and became an eminently useful minister.

The following spirited character of Wesley is given by Nichols, in the fifth volume of his 'Literary Anecdotes': "Where much good is done, we should not mark every little excess. The great point in which Mr Wesley's name and mission will be honoured is this: he directed his labours towards those who had no instructor,—to the highways and hedges,—to the miners in Cornwall, and to the colliers in Kingswood. These unhappy creatures married and buried among themselves, and often committed murders with impunity, before the Methodists sprang up. By the humane and active endeavours of him, and his brother Charles, a sense of decency, morals, and religion, was introduced into the lowest classes of mankind; the ignorant were instructed, the wretched relieved, and the abandoned reclaimed. He met with great opposition from many of the clergy; and unhandsome treatment from the magistrates, who frequently would refuse to check or punish a lawless mob, that often assembled to insult or abuse him. He was, however, one of the few characters who outlived enmity and prejudice, and received, in his latter years, every mark of respect from every denomination. His personal influence was greater than, perhaps, that of any other private gentleman in any country. It was computed that, in 1791, there were in the three kingdoms 80,000 members of this society. He visited them alternately, travelling 8,000 miles every year,—preached three or four times constantly in one day,—rose at four,

and employed all his time in reading, writing, attending the sick, and arranging the various parts of this numerous body of people. Amongst his virtues, forgiveness to his enemies, and liberality to the poor, were most remarkable; he has been known to receive into even his confidence those who have basely injured him; they have not only subsisted again on his bounty, but shared in his affection. All the profit of his literary labours, all that he received, or could collect, (and it amounted to an immense sum, for he was his own printer and bookseller,) was devoted to charitable purposes. Yet with such opportunities of enriching himself, it was doubtful whether the sale of the books would pay all his debts. His travelling expenses were defrayed by the societies which he visited. On a review of the character of this extraordinary man, it appears that, though he was endowed with eminent talents, he was more distinguished by their use than even by their possession. Though his taste was classic, and his manners elegant, he sacrificed that society in which he was particularly calculated to shine,—gave up those preferments which his abilities must have obtained, and devoted a long life in practising and enforcing the plainest duties. Instead of being ‘an ornament to literature,’ he was a blessing to his fellow-creatures; instead of ‘the genius of the age,’ he was ‘the servant of God.’”

Bishop Horne.

BORN A. D. 1730.—DIED A. D. 1792.

GEORGE HORNE, bishop of Norwich, was born on the 1st of November, 1730, at Otham, near Maidstone in Kent, where his father was rector. Of a family of four sons and three daughters, he was the second son, and his education was commenced at home, under the instruction of his father. At thirteen, having made a good proficiency, he was sent to school at Maidstone under the Rev. Deotatus Bye, a man of good principles; and, at little more than fifteen, being elected to a Maidstone scholarship at University college, Oxford, he went thither to reside. About the time when he took his bachelor's degree, in consequence of a strong recommendation from his own college, he was elected to a Kentish fellowship at Magdalen. On June 1st, 1752, he took his master's degree, and in the year following he was ordained by the bishop of Oxford, and soon after preached his first sermon for his friend and biographer, Mr Jones, at Finedon in Northamptonshire.

At the early age of nineteen Horne had imbibed a very favourable opinion of the sentiments of Mr Hutchinson, which he afterwards adopted and disseminated without disguise. Supported by the learning and zeal of his friends, Mr Watson of University college, Dr Hodges, provost of Oriel, and Dr Patten of Corpus, he ably vindicated Hutchinson's principles against the invectives to which their novelty exposed them. That part, however, of the Hutchinsonian controversy which relates to Hebrew etymology was discountenanced by Horne, as in a great measure fanciful and arbitrary. His ‘Apology’ has been universally admired for its temper, learning, and good sense. The question agitated seems rather to involve the very essence of religion, than to concern Mr Hutchinson or his principles. The pamphlet which called forth the

apology was attributed by the public in general, and by Horne himself, to Mr Kennicott of Exeter college,—a man who had distinguished himself by an accurate acquaintance with the Hebrew, and two masterly dissertations, one on ‘The Tree of Life,’ the other on ‘The Sacrifices of Cain and Abel.’

Horne next took an active part in the controversy with Kennicott, on the propriety of collating the text of the Hebrew Bible with such manuscripts as could then be procured, in order to reform the text, and prepare it for a new translation into the English language. Horne strongly objected to the proposal, from a persuasion, among other serious reasons, that the wide principle upon which it was to be conducted might endanger the interest of genuine Christianity. He conceived that the unsound criticism to which the text would be liable by this measure, might afford some additional pretexts for the sceptical cavils of those, who, with affectation of superior learning, had already shown themselves active in discovering imaginary corruptions. About 1756 he had planned and begun to execute his ‘Commentary on the Psalms,’ which he did not complete and publish until twenty years after. It was a work in which he always proceeded with pleasure, and on which he delighted to dwell and meditate.

Soon after the publication of this valuable work, Dr Horne, feeling much concern at the progress of infidelity, to which the writings of Hume, now in great repute, seemed in no small degree to contribute, endeavoured to undeceive the world with respect to the pretended cheerfulness and tranquillity of the last moments of this unbelieving philosopher. He addressed an anonymous ‘Letter to Dr Adam Smith,’ in which, with clear and sound argument, and the most perfect natural good humour, he overthrows the artificial account given in Mr Hume’s life, by allusions to certain well-founded anecdotes concerning him, which are totally inconsistent with it.

In 1784 this letter was followed by his ‘Letters on Infidelity,’ which abound with instruction and entertainment, and are exceedingly well-adapted both to arm the minds of youth against the dangerous tendency of philosophizing infidelity, and to counteract any impressions which its specious garb and licentious easy temper may have already made. The unsoundness of Mr Hume’s opinions, and the futility of his arguments, are displayed in so happy a strain of ridicule, “That none,” says one of his biographers, “but an unbeliever can be angry, or even feel displeased.” The latter part of these letters is employed in attempting to show the fallacy of some miscellaneous objections against Christianity, brought forward by a modern advocate for infidelity.

On a vacancy happening in his college in 1768, he was elected to the office of president of that society. Nearly at the same time he married the daughter of Philip Burton, Esq. of Eltham, in Kent, by whom he had three daughters. The public situation of Mr Horne now made it proper for him to proceed to the degree of D.D. ; and he was also appointed one of the chaplains to the king. In 1776 Dr Horne was elected vice-chancellor of the university of Oxford, which office he held for the customary period of four years. In this situation he became known to Lord North the chancellor, and this, it is probable, prepared the way to his subsequent elevation. In 1781, the very year

after the expiration of his office of vice-chancellor, he was made dean of Canterbury, and would willingly have relinquished his cares at Oxford to reside altogether in his native county of Kent; but he yielded to the judgment of a prudent friend, who advised him to retain his situation at Magdalen. In 1789, on the translation of Bishop Bagot to St Asaph, Dr Horne was advanced to the episcopal dignity, and succeeded him in the see of Norwich. Unhappily, though he was no more than fifty-nine, he had already begun to suffer much from infirmities. "Alas!" said he, observing the large flight of steps which lead into the palace of Norwich, "I am come to these steps at a time of life when I can neither go up them nor down them with safety!" The diocese was not to be long benefited by his piety and zeal. Even the charge which he composed for his primary visitation at Norwich, he was unable to deliver; and it was printed "as intended to have been delivered." From two visits to Bath he had received sensible benefit, and was meditating a third in the autumn of 1791, which he had been requested not to delay too long. He did, however, delay it too long, and was visited by a paralytic stroke on the road to that place. He completed his journey, though very ill; and, for a short time, was so far recovered as to walk daily to the pump-room; but the hopes of his friends and family were of short duration, for on the 17th of January, 1792, in the sixty-second year of his age, he expired.

It does not often fall to the lot of the biographer to record the life of a man so blameless in character and conduct as Bishop Horne. Whatever might be his peculiar opinions on some points, he was undoubtedly a sincere and exemplary Christian; and as a scholar, a writer, and a preacher, a man of no ordinary qualifications. The cheerfulness of his disposition is often marked by the vivacity of his writings, and the sincerity of his heart is everywhere conspicuous in them.

The works of Bishop Horne amount to a good many articles, which we shall notice in chronological order:—1. 'The Theology and Philosophy in Cicero's *Somnium Scipionis* explained, or a brief attempt to demonstrate that the Newtonian system is perfectly agreeable to the notions of the wisest ancients, and that mathematical principles are the only sure ones.' Lond. 1751, 8vo.—2. 'A fair, candid, and impartial state of the Case between Sir Isaac Newton and Mr Hutchinson,' &c. Oxford, 1753, 8vo.—3. 'Spicilegium Shuckfordianum, or a Nosegay for the Critics,' &c. Lond., 1754, 12mo.—4. 'Christ and the Holy Ghost the Supporters of the Spiritual Life,' &c. two sermons preached before the university of Oxford, 1755, 8vo.—5. 'The Almighty justified in Judgment.' A sermon, 1756.—6. 'An Apology for certain Gentlemen in the university of Oxford, aspersed in a late anonymous Pamphlet.' 1756, 8vo.—7. 'A view of Mr Kennicott's method of correcting the Hebrew text,' &c. Oxford, 1760, 8vo.—8. 'Considerations on the Life and Death of John the Baptist.' Oxford, 1772, 8vo. This pleasing tract contained the substance of several sermons preached annually at Magdalen college in Oxford, the course of which had commenced in 1755. A second edition in 12mo. was published at Oxford in 1777.—9. 'Considerations on the projected Reformation of the Church of England. In a Letter to the Right Hon. Lord North, by a Clergyman.' Lond., 1772, 4to.—10. 'A Commentary on the Book of Psalms,' &c. &c. Oxford, 1776, 2 vols. 4to. Reprinted in 8vo. in

1778, and three times since. With what satisfaction this good man composed this pious work, may best be judged from the following passage in his preface:—"Could the author flatter himself that any one would have half the pleasure in reading the following exposition, which he hath had in writing it, he would not fear the loss of his labour. The employment detached him from the bustle and hurry of life, the din of politics, and the noise of folly. Vanity and vexation flew away for a season, care and disquietude came not near his dwelling. He arose fresh as the morning to his task; the silence of the night invited him to pursue it, and he can truly say that food and rest were not preferred before it. Every psalm improved infinitely on his acquaintance with it, and no one gave him uneasiness but the last, for then he grieved that his work was done. Happier hours than those which have been spent in these meditations on the songs of Sion he never expects to see in this world. Very pleasantly did they pass, and move smoothly and swiftly along; for when thus engaged he counted no time. They have gone, but have left a relish and fragrance on the mind, and the remembrance of them is sweet."—11. 'A Letter to Adam Smith, LL. D. on the Life, Death, and Philosophy of David Hume, Esq., by one of the people called Christians.' Oxford, 1777, 12mo.—12. 'Discourses on several subjects and occasions.' Oxford, 1779, 2 vols. 8vo. These sermons have gone through many editions.—13. 'Letters on Infidelity.' Oxford, 1784, 12mo.—14. 'Duty of contending for the Faith, Jude, ver. 3; preached at the primary visitation of the most reverend John, Lord-archbishop of Canterbury, July 1st, 1786. To which is subjoined a Discourse on the Trinity in Unity, Matth. xxviii. 19.' 1786, 4to. These sermons, with fourteen others, preached on particular occasions, and all published separately, were collected into one volume, 8vo, at Oxford, in 1795. The two have also been published in 12mo by the society for promoting Christian knowledge.—15. 'A Letter to the Rev. Dr Priestley, by an Under-graduate.' Oxford, 1787.—16. 'Observations on the Case of the Protestant Dissenters, with reference to the Corporation and Test Acts.' Oxford, 1790, 8vo.—17. 'Charge intended to have been delivered to the Clergy of Norwich at the primary visitation.' 1791, 4to.—18. 'Discourses on several subjects and occasions.' Oxford, 1794, 8vo, vols. 3 and 4,—a posthumous publication. A uniform edition of these and his other works, with his life, by Mr Jones, has been printed in 6 vols. 8vo. Besides these, might be enumerated several occasional papers in different periodical publications, particularly the papers signed Z. in the 'Olla Podrida,'—a periodical work, conducted by Mr S. Monro, a demy of Magdalen college, Oxford.

"Dr Horne," says a recent writer, "was a man of unaffected piety, cheerful temper, great learning, and, notwithstanding his propensity to jesting, dignified manners. He was much beloved in Magdalen college, of which he was president; the chief complaint against him being, that he did not reside the whole of the time in every year that the statutes required. He resigned his headship on being promoted from the deanery of Canterbury to the see of Norwich: the alleged reason was the incompatibility of the duties,—though other heads of houses, when made bishops, have retained their academical situations. He never manifested the least ill-humour himself, and repressed it, but with gentleness, in

others. Having engaged in a party at whist, merely because he was wanted to make up the number, and playing indifferently ill, as he forewarned his partner would be the case, he replied to the angry question, 'What reason could you possibly have, Mr President, for playing that card?'—'None upon earth, I assure you!' On the morning when news was received in college of the death of one of the fellows, a good companion, a bon vivant, Horne met with another fellow, an especial friend of the defunct, and began to condole with him: 'We have lost poor L——.'—'Ah! Mr President, I may well say, I could have better spared a better man.'—'Meaning me, I suppose?' said Horne, with an air that, by its pleasantry, put to flight the other's grief. Horne sometimes condescended to a jocularly which others, as highly placed, but of minds not so playful and good-natured, would have thought beneath them. An under-graduate waited on him according to rule, to ask leave out of college, saying he was going to Coventry. 'Better to go than be sent,' said the president. I have heard him preach at St Mary's before the university, and it was amusing to see how he employed himself during the psalms usually sung before the sermon,—beating time with his open hand upon the cushion,—ever and anon joining in the chant,—then arranging his notes, or wiping his spectacles. His delivery on these occasions was somewhat too familiar, approaching, if the term may be permitted, to the lack-a-daisical: yet he was at once convinced and convincing; it seemed as if he was free and easy in his exterior, because religion was to him interiorly a source of ease, and freedom, and comfort. For one thing he wrote he did deserve to have his wig singed. In a sixpenny pamphlet, in defence of the Corporation and Test Acts, now happily repealed, and of which the repeal was sought at the time of his writing, he answers the argument that the test leads to hypocrisy, the profanation of a sacred rite, and aggravated perjury, by the remark, 'What is this to the dissenters? *they are honest men!*' This is the insolence of domination, which even this mild and good man could not avoid."

Micajah Towgood.

BORN A. D. 1700.—DIED A. D. 1792.

MICAJAH TOWGOOD was born at Axminster, Devon, on the 6th of December, 1700. After having received a good education, he was ordained pastor in 1722 at Moreton-Hampstead; subsequently he removed to Crediton. About the year 1735 he produced a tract, entitled 'Recovery from Sickness.' In 1737 he published a work, entitled 'High-flown Episcopal and Priestley Claims freely examined;' in 1739, 'The Dissenter's Apology,' his most popular publication; in 1741, a pamphlet in favour of the war with Spain; in 1745, a tract against the Pretender's legitimacy; and in 1746, and following years, a series of letters, entitled 'The Dissenting Gentleman's Answer to Mr White.' He was also the author of several minor pieces and some tracts on baptism. In 1761 he accepted the tutorship in an academy for the education of dissenting ministers at Exeter, whither he had previously removed from Crediton. He resigned this office in 1769, but contin-

ned to preach until 1784. His death occurred on the 31st of January, 1792. His sentiments were Arian. Shortly after his decease, a memoir of him was published, in which it is said that "his religious sentiments were such as were deemed highly heretical when he first entered upon public life, on which account he found some difficulty in procuring ordination, and experienced the resentment of bigots long after; but," continues the biographer, "they would be esteemed what is termed orthodox by many in the present day, as he attributed to Christ a high degree of pre-existent dignity, and considered him as a proper object of religious worship."

Thomas Townson, D. D.

BORN A. D. 1715.—DIED A. D. 1792.

DR TOWNSON was educated at a school, which, though in itself obscure—Felsted in Essex—numbered amongst its sons, Wallis and Barrow; and it may be mentioned, as one of the things which contributed to the future purity of Townson's character, that his father expunged from the copies of his school-classics which were put into his hands such passages as could only contaminate; at the same time enjoining him solemnly not to frustrate a father's care by indulging, on his own part, a curiosity that was culpable,—a precaution this which he ever remembered with gratitude, and recommended to the adoption of his friends.

Having obtained a fellowship at Magdalen college, Oxford, he made a tour on the continent with Messrs Drake and Holdsworth. The latter gentleman composed on this occasion, we are told, a journal of what he saw, with some care; he afterwards made the same tour again, when he abridged it; he went a third time, and then he burnt it—a word to the wise. On quitting college, where he lingered a few years after his return, he retired to the livings of Blithfield in Staffordshire, and Malpas in Cheshire; the former presented to him through Lord Bagot, his pupil, the latter by Mr Drake, his fellow-traveller. At Malpas he had for his co-rector—the parish consisting of two mediocrities—the father of Bishop Heber; and the future bishop, then a child, was a frequent visitor of his library, under the inspection, however, of the good doctor; the boy—as it proved afterwards in the man—being somewhat ungentle in his treatment of books, and apt, when he had squeezed his orange, to neglect it.

"Townson's manner of preaching was such, that you would pledge your soul," says his biographer, "on his sincerity. You were sure he longed for nothing so fervently as your salvation; your heart glowed within you, and you went home, resolved to love God above all, and your neighbour as yourself." In distributing bibles and other books of piety, he would often add to their value, in the eyes of those to whom he gave them, by an autograph, to some such effect as the following: 'A present to ———, from one of those who promised for him, at his baptism, that he should renounce the devil and the sinful lusts of the flesh; that he should believe all the articles of the Christian faith; and that he should walk in the commandments of God all the days of his life.'

God grant that these promises may be faithfully and religiously kept, for the comfort of him who made them, and the happiness of him for whom they were made.' Amongst his various literary labours, Dr Townson had composed with great diligence an exposition of the Apocalypse. He had some misgivings respecting the soundness of his foundations; he made it his special prayer, that if his system was wrong, his work might by some means or other be prevented from seeing the light. Obstacle after obstacle held his hand whenever he was about to revise it for the press; and at a later period he said, in allusion to this work, "I once thought I had it all very clearly before me, but I now suspect we know very little of the matter." The French revolution, it seems, had fractured his theory.

It was after a second tour upon the continent, made six-and-twenty years later than the first, and with the son of his former companion, that he settled down to the works on which his character as a theologian is founded, and which recommended him for the Regius professorship to Lord North. But his leaf was now in the sere,—ambition had spared him its noble infirmity,—the rural duties of the pastor were those in which he delighted, and he declined the chair. His years were now numbered, symptoms of dropsy having begun to show themselves; nevertheless, on new year's day, 1792, he was able to preach to his people on Prov. xxvii. 1. "Boast not thyself of to-morrow, for thou knowest not what a day may bring forth,"—a text with which he opened his ministry in that congregation, and with which, as it happened, he now closed it, for this was the last sermon he ever delivered. He breathed his last on the 15th of April, 1792. The clergy of his neighbourhood carried him to his burial; the people thronged about his grave weeping; and to this day the memory of Dr Townson is fresh and unfading in the parish of Malpas.

Dr Townson is best known as the author of 'Discourses on the Gospels,' in which he has pursued a masterly argument for the veracity of the evangelists, and the truth of Christianity.

Bishop Hinchliffe.

BORN A. D. 1731.—DIED A. D. 1794.

THIS learned divine was born in Swallow-street, Westminster, in 1731, where his father was in the humble employment of a stable-keeper. He was educated, however, at Westminster school at the same time with Smith and Vincent, who were afterwards his successors in the headship of that celebrated academy. In 1750 he was elected to Trinity college, Cambridge, where he took his bachelor's degree in 1754, and about the same time became usher of Westminster school. He then took orders, and officiated as morning-preacher of South Audley-street chapel. He continued in these employments—taking his master's degree in 1757—until 1760, when he travelled into Germany, Italy, and France with Mr Crewe, afterwards member of parliament for Cheshire, who, when returned from his tour, settled on Dr Hinchliffe £300 a-year, and made him his domestic chaplain.

During his residence in Italy, he was favoured with an introduction

to the duke of Grafton, who had been contemporary with him at Cambridge, and soon after, in 1764, by the interest of his grace, he was appointed head master of Westminster school, on the resignation of Dr Markham, archbishop of York; but his ill state of health not being suited to such a laborious employment, he was obliged to resign in a few months after he had accepted it. He declined several advantageous offers that were made him if he would travel again; and being very easy in circumstances by the generosity of his friend and pupil, he intended to return and reside at college, when he was solicited by his noble patron to undertake for a few years the office of tutor to the young duke of Devonshire. In consequence of this, Dr Hinchliffe removed to Devonshire-house, and remained there till his grace went abroad. By the joint interest of his two noble patrons, he was presented to the vicarage of Greenwich in 1766. Dr Hinchliffe, it is said, was offered the tuition of the prince of Wales, which important trust he declined, from his predilection, as it is supposed, to what were called whig principles.

On the death of Dr Smith, in 1768, his lordship was elected, through the recommendation of the duke of Grafton, master of Trinity college, Cambridge; and scarce a year had elapsed, when he was raised to the bishopric of Peterborough on the death of Dr Lamb, in 1769, by the interest of the duke of Grafton, then prime minister. It is probable his lordship might have obtained other preferment, had he not uniformly joined the party in parliament who opposed the principle and conduct of the American war. The only other change he experienced was that of being appointed dean of Durham, by which he was removed from the mastership of Trinity college. He died at his palace at Peterborough, January 11th, 1794, after a long illness, which terminated in a paralytic stroke.

His lordship, although a man of considerable learning, published only three sermons, preached on public occasions. He was a graceful orator in parliament, and much admired in the pulpit. Mr Jones, in his life of Bishop Horne, says that "he spake with the accents of a man of sense—such as he really was in a superior degree—but it was remarkable, and, to those who did not know the cause, mysterious, that there was not a corner in the church in which he could not be heard distinctly." The reason Mr Jones assigns, was, that he made it an invariable rule "to do justice to every consonant, knowing that the vowels will be sure to speak for themselves. And thus he became the surest and clearest of speakers: his elocution was perfect, and never disappointed his audience." Two years after his death, a volume of Bishop Hinchliffe's sermons were published; but, probably from a want of judgment in the selection, did not answer the expectations of those who had been accustomed to admire him in the pulpit.

William Romaine.

BORN A. D. 1714.—DIED A. D. 1795.

THIS popular divine was the son of a French protestant who had taken refuge in England on the revocation of the edict of Nantes. He

was born at Hartlepool, on the 25th of September, 1714. After having passed some years at the grammar-school of Houghton-le-Spring, he was sent to Hertford college, Oxford; whence he removed to that of Christ church, where he proceeded B. A. in 1734, and M. A. in 1737.

He was ordained deacon in 1736 by the bishop of Hereford; and officiated for some time as curate of Loe-Trenchard in Devonshire; and afterwards as curate of Banstead and Horton, near Epsom. Sir Daniel Lambert, lord-mayor of London, appointed him his chaplain in 1741. Romaine had previously attracted some notice, by entering into a controversy with Warburton on the opinions avowed by the latter in his 'Divine Legation of Moses.' On the 4th of March, 1739, he preached a sermon before the university of Oxford, which was afterwards published under the title, 'The Divine Legation of Moses demonstrated from his having made express mention of, and insisted so much on, the doctrine of a Future state; whereby Mr Warburton's attempt to prove the Divine Legation of Moses from the omission of a future state, is proved to be absurd, and destructive of all revelation.' This was followed by a second sermon, entitled, 'Future rewards and punishments proved to be the sanctions of the Mosaic dispensation.' In 1742, he published a discourse, entitled, 'Jephthah's Vow fulfilled, and his Daughter not sacrificed,' which he had delivered before the university of Oxford. He was, some time afterwards, however, excluded as a university preacher, for advocating in a sermon called 'The Lord our Righteousness,' those Calvinistic doctrines by his staunch adherence to which he at length became so popular.

In 1748, he obtained the lectureship of St Botolph's, Billingsgate, and subsequently that of St Dunstan's-in-the-west. In 1749, he published an edition of Calasio's Hebrew Concordance; in which he was charged with having given unwarrantable interpretations of certain passages of scripture with a view to support the doctrines of the Hutchinsonians.¹

He was appointed assistant morning-preacher at St George's, Hanover square, in the following year; but on receiving notice "that the crowd of people, attending from various parts, (to hear him preach,) caused great inconvenience to the inhabitants, who could not safely get to their seats," he consented to relinquish his office.

About the year 1752, he was appointed Gresham professor of astronomy; in 1756, he officiated as curate of St Olave's, Southwark; and, in 1759, he became morning-preacher at St Bartholomew the Great, Smithfield. In 1764, he was elected to the rectory of St Andrew, Wardrobe, and St Anne, Blackfriars. In this charge he remained up to the time of his decease, which took place on the 26th of July, 1795. "In his last illness," observes Simpson, "not one fretful or murmuring word ever escaped his lips. 'I have,' said he, 'the peace of God in my conscience, and the love of God in my heart. I knew before the doctrines I preached to be the truths, but now I experience them to be blessings. Jesus is more precious than rubies; and all that can be desired on earth is not to be compared to him.' He was in the full pos-

¹ The original of this work was the concordance of Rabbi Nathan, published at Venice in 1523. A second, and more correct edition, was published at Basl in 1581. The third edition is that of Calasio in four large volumes. Romaine's edition is a very splendid one in four volumes folio. In point of real usefulness, however, it is greatly inferior to Dr Taylor's Hebrew Concordance.

session of his mental powers to the last moment, and near his dissolution cried out, 'Holy, holy, holy, Lord God Almighty! Glory be to thee on high, for such peace on earth and good-will to men!' " His character in private life, although his temper was somewhat irritable, is said to have been remarkably amiable.

Besides his religious tracts, eight volumes of his sermons have been published. His 'Walk of Faith,' and 'Triumph of Faith,' are still deservedly held in high estimation.

"The following singular circumstance is recorded of this eminent divine: After he had been for some time in London, finding his ministry unsuccessful, he resolved on settling in his native county—where he might, probably, have passed his days unnoticed as a curate—and was actually on his way to the water side for the purpose of securing his passage, when a stranger accosted him, and inquired if his name was Romaine. The divine answered in the affirmative. 'So I suspected,' said the stranger, 'by the strong likeness you bear to your father, with whom I was well-acquainted.' A conversation ensued, in the course of which, Romaine admitted that he was about to depart for Durham, in consequence of his failure of obtaining preferment in the metropolis. The stranger, however, persuaded him to abandon his intended voyage, by stating that he thought he had sufficient interest in the parish of St Botolph to procure him the lectureship of that parish, which then happened to be vacant. Success attended his exertions; and Romaine—who considered the stranger's accost as an interposition of divine providence—thenceforth rapidly increased in estimation as a preacher." ²

Thomas Balguy.

BORN A. D. 1716.—DIED A. D. 1795.

THOMAS BALGUY, son of the Rev. John Balguy, was born in 1716. He became archdeacon of Winchester, and was singularly honoured in being called to preach at the consecration of the following bishops:—Shipleigh, Shute, Barrington, North, Hurd, and Moore. All these sermons, with several others, were published. He edited the sermons of Dr Powell, and prefixed a life. In 1782, he published 'Divine Benevolence asserted and vindicated from the reflections of ancient and modern sceptics.' This is said to be a very able performance. He edited and published his father's 'Essay on Redemption,' and subsequently a volume of his own discourses, and a collection of his occasional sermons and charges. He died in 1795, at the age of 79.

Andrew Kippis, D. D.

BORN A. D. 1725.—DIED A. D. 1795.

THIS very respectable and learned divine was born at Nottingham, on the 28th of March, 1725. Both by the father's and the mother's

² Memoir in 'Georgian Era.'

side he was descended from ejected ministers. He received his grammatical education at Sleaford, and applied himself to his studies with so much diligence and success, that he excited the particular attention of Mr Merrivale, who was minister of a congregation of protestant dissenters in that town, and a man of taste and learning. By this gentleman he was much patronized and encouraged in his literary pursuits; he frequently expressed the strongest sense of his obligations to him; and it is supposed to have been by his advice and encouragement that he was first induced to direct his views to the ministry.

In 1741 young Kippis was admitted into the academy for the education of dissenting ministers at Northampton, under the care of Dr Doddridge. Here he applied himself closely to his studies, and by his general conduct greatly recommended himself to his tutor. When Kippis had been five years at Dr Doddridge's academy, he was invited to undertake the pastoral care of a congregation of protestant dissenters at Dorchester; but having, at the same time, received a similar invitation from Boston in Lincolnshire, he preferred that situation, and went to reside there in September, 1746. Here he continued four years; but probably having an inclination to reside nearer the metropolis, in 1750 he became minister of a congregation at Dorking in Surrey. On the death of Dr Obadiah Hughes, he was chosen pastor of the congregation in Prince's-street, Westminster; and he continued to preside over that congregation from 1753 till the time of his death.

His first publication appears to have been a sermon on the advantages of religious knowledge, preached at St Thomas's meeting-house in 1756, for the benefit of the charity school in Gravel-lane, Southwark. The following year he published a discourse concerning the Lord's supper, which passed through several editions. Soon after the commencement of the 'Monthly Review,' he became a writer in that literary journal, and continued to contribute to it for many years. In 1761, a periodical publication was commenced, entitled, 'The Library, or Moral and Critical Magazine,' in which Kippis agreed to take a part. In that work, the history of knowledge, taste, and learning in Great Britain was written by him; together with several miscellaneous essays.

In 1762 he was chosen successor to Dr Benson, as trustee of Dr Daniel Williams's library, in Red-cross-street, London. Dr Rees, speaking of Mr Kippis's election on this occasion, observes, that "this appointment afforded him an additional opportunity of being eminently and extensively useful in a variety of respects. His connection with the general body of protestant dissenting ministers belonging to the cities of London and Westminster, and with many charitable institutions which the liberality of dissenters has established, gave him frequent occasion to exercise his talents for the honour and interest of the cause to which, both by his sentiments and profession, he was zealously attached." As Mr Kippis's literary abilities and acquisitions were now well-known, he was, on the death of Dr Jennings, elected, in 1763, classical and philological tutor to the academical institution for the education of dissenting ministers, supported in London by the funds of William Coward, Esq. In 1766 he published an introductory discourse, which was delivered at the ordination of Mr Samuel Witton, at Lower Tooting, in Surrey. The following year, the university of Edinburgh conferred on him the degree of D.D.

In 1769 he published a sermon on the character of Jesus Christ as a public speaker, which was preached at Bridport, in Dorsetshire, at the ordination of Mr George Waters, and Mr William Youcet. The same year he published a sermon preached at Hackney, on the occasion of the death of Mr Timothy Laughner, who was minister of the Unitarian congregation in that place, and who was succeeded by Dr Price. In 1773 he published 'A Vindication of the Protestant Dissenting Ministers, with regard to their late application to Parliament.' This application was to remove the obligation they were under, as the law then stood, to subscribe the greater part of the articles of the church of England. In this pamphlet Dr Kippis says: "Religion, in every form of it which is consistent with the safety of the state, has an unlimited title to indulgence. I do not, therefore, think that liberty of conscience ought to be confined to Christianity. I am of opinion, that the magistrate has no right to interfere in religious matters, so as to lay any restraint upon, or to prescribe any test to, those who behave as peaceable subjects." At the close of this piece, he adds: "When biography shall relate, in future ages, the learned labours, and the eminent virtues of some of the present bench of bishops, she will at the same time record it with surprise and shame, as a strange inconsistency with their great abilities, and an astonishing blot in their characters, that they were capable of pleading for the continuance of laws which are repugnant to every dictate of wisdom, every precept of the gospel, and every sentiment of humanity." Dr Kippis's piece produced an answer from Dean Tucker, under the title of 'Letter to the Rev. Dr Kippis, occasioned by his Treatise entitled a Vindication,' &c. This controversy was carried on with much civility, however, on both sides. Dr Kippis styled Dr Tucker "the ablest apologist for the church of England;" and the dean says to Dr Kippis, "You, Sir, appear to me in the light of a very able advocate for your cause; and—what is much better, but which, alas! can be said of very few controversial writers—in the light of an honest man. You are, on the whole, a candid and impartial searcher after truth."

In 1777 he undertook the office of editor of the new edition of the 'Biographia Britannica.' This work engaged much of his time and his attention, and he was extremely solicitous to render it truly valuable. In the preface to the first volume he stated his ideas of the principles on which he was so desirous that it should be executed. He says, "It is our wish, and will be our aim, to conduct this publication with real impartiality. We mean to rise above narrow prejudices, and to record, with fidelity and freedom, the virtues and vices, the excellencies and defects of men of every profession and party. A work of this nature would be deprived of much of its utility, if it were not carried on with a philosophical liberality of mind. But we apprehend that a philosophical liberality of mind, whilst we do full justice to the merit of those from whom we differ, either in religious or political opinions, doth not imply in it our having no sentiments of our own. We scruple not to declare our attachment to the great interests of mankind, and our enmity to bigotry, superstition, and tyranny, whether found in papist or protestant, whig or tory, churchman or dissenter. A history that is written without any regard to the chief privileges of human nature, and without feelings, especially of the moral kind, must lose a considerable

part of its instruction and energy." At the close of the preface, Dr Kippis adds:—"Biography may be considered in two lights. It is very agreeable and useful, when it hath no other view than merely to relate the circumstances of the lives of eminent men, and to give an account of their writings. But it is capable of a still nobler application. It may be regarded as presenting us with a variety of events, that, like experiments in natural philosophy, may become the materials from which general truths and principles are to be drawn. When biographical knowledge is employed in enlarging our acquaintance with human nature,—in exciting an honourable emulation,—in correcting our prejudices,—in refining our sentiments,—and in regulating our conduct,—it then attains its true excellence. Besides its being a pleasing amusement, and a just tribute of respect to illustrious characters, it rises to the dignity of science; and of such science as must ever be esteemed of peculiar importance, because it hath man for its object." When he had been some time engaged on the 'Biographia,' he found that the task was too great for him to execute alone, and Dr Towers was joined to him as an associate in this labour.¹

In 1783 he published 'Considerations on the Provisional Treaty with America, and the Preliminary Articles of Peace with France and Spain.' In the course of the same year appeared 'Six Discourses delivered by Sir John Pringle, Bart., when president of the Royal society, on occasion of six annual assignments of Sir Godfrey Copley's medal.' To which was prefixed the life of the author by Dr Kippis, who had been on very friendly terms with Sir John Pringle. In 1786 he published a sermon preached by him at the Old Jewry, on occasion of the foundation of a new academical institution for the education of Unitarian dissenters. Of this academy Dr Kippis became a tutor, and continued such for several years; but he afterwards quitted the office, and at no distant period the institution itself was abolished. Dr Kippis published, in one volume, 4to, in 1788, the life of the celebrated circumnavigator, Captain James Cook; and, in the same year, a life of Dr Nathaniel Lardner, which was prefixed to an edition of his works. In 1791 he published a volume of sermons; and the same year a funeral oration delivered at the interment of Dr Richard Price.

Dr Kippis died on the 8th of October, 1795. His character was that of an excellent and amiable man; his manners were mild and placid; he had great ardour and activity of benevolence, and much of his time was employed in doing good to others. He rose early, and appears always to have been distinguished by his diligence and application. In his life of Dr Doddridge, he says,—“Literary diligence is a matter which I have always earnestly wished to press on every young man of liberal education with whom I have had acquaintance. When accompanied with original genius, it is the parent of all that is great and valuable in science; and where there is not much of original genius, provided there be a natural capacity, it is endued with the power of producing valuable attainments, and of rendering eminent services to the learned world.”

Dr Kippis wrote the preface to 'Edwin and Elfrida,' a legendary

¹ All the new articles and additions to old articles, written by Dr Kippis, had the letter K affixed to them. To the new articles or additions to old articles, written by Dr Towers, the letter T was affixed.

tale by Miss Helen Maria Williams. That ingenious lady wrote a poem to his memory, in which are the following lines:—

“ For him his country twines her civic palm ;
 And Learning's tears his honour'd name embalm ;
 His were the lavish stores, her force sublime,
 Through every passing age has snatch'd from time ;
 His the historian's wreath, the critic's art,
 A rigid judgment, but a feeling heart ;
 His the warm purpose for the general weal,
 The Christian's meekness, and the Christian's zeal ;
 And his the moral worth, to which is given
 Earth's purest homage, and the meed of heaven.”

Ralph Heathcote, D. D.

BORN A. D. 1721.—DIED A. D. 1795.

RALPH HEATHCOTE, an ingenious English divine and miscellaneous writer, was descended of an ancient Derbyshire family, whose property was injured during the civil wars. He was born on the 16th of December, 1721, at Barrow-upon-Soar, in Leicestershire. His father was then curate of that place, but afterwards had the vicarage of Sibleby in that county, and the rectory of Morton in Derbyshire. He died in 1765. His mother was a daughter of Simon Ockley, Arabic professor at Cambridge. He passed the first fourteen years at home with his father, who taught him Greek and Latin. In April, 1736, he was sent to the public school of Chesterfield, where he continued five years under William Burrow, a learned man, and a skilful teacher. In April, 1741, he was admitted sizar of Jesus college, Cambridge, and, in January, 1745, took his degree of A. B., and soon after entered into holy orders.

In March, 1748, he undertook the cure of St Margaret's, Leicester, and the year after was presented to the small vicarage of Barkby in the neighbourhood, which, with his curacy—worth £50 yearly—he says made him “ well to live.” In July, 1748, he took his master's degree, and at the same time withdrew his name from college, having in view a marriage with Miss Margaret Mompesson, a Nottinghamshire lady of good family, which he accomplished in August, 1750, and whose fortune, in his estimation, made him independent.

In 1746 he published, at Cambridge, a small Latin work, entitled ‘ *Historia Astronomiæ, sive de Ortu et Progressu Astronomiæ*,’ 8vo. This is a juvenile, but ingenious performance. In 1752, while the Middletonian controversy on miraculous powers, &c. was still raging, although Dr Middleton himself was dead, he published two pieces, one entitled ‘ *Cursory Animadversions upon the Controversy in general*,’ the other, ‘ *Remarks upon a Charge by Dr Chapman*.’ In 1753 he published ‘ *A Letter to the Rev. Thomas Fothergill, A. M., relating to his Sermon upon the reasonableness and uses of commemorating King Charles' Martyrdom*,’ which Mr Heathcote endeavoured to show was neither reasonable nor useful. These were published without his name; but his pamphlets on the Middletonian controversy attracted the notice of Dr Warburton, who discovered the author, and sending him his com-

pliments, offered him the place of assistant-preacher at Lincoln's-inn, with the stipend of half-a-guinea for each sermon. This was little, but he accepted it, as affording him an opportunity of living in London, and cultivating learned society. He accordingly removed to town in June, 1753, and became one of a club of literati who met once a-week, as he says, "to talk learnedly for three or four hours." The members were Drs Jortin, Birch, and Maty, Mr Wetstein, Mr De Missy, and one or two more.

On the appearance of Lord Bolingbroke's works, he published, in 1755, 'A Sketch of Lord Bolingbroke's Philosophy,' the object of which was to vindicate the moral attributes of the Deity. In the latter end of the same year came out 'The use of Reason asserted in matters of Religion, in answer to a Sermon preached by Dr Patten at Oxford, July 13th, 1755,' whom he accused of being a Hutchinsonian; and the year after, a defence of this against Dr Patten, who had replied. Dr Horne also, a friend to Dr Patten, animadverted on Mr Heathcote's pamphlet; but it seems not to have been long before all their sentiments concurred,—at least the Hutchinsonians could not blame Mr Heathcote more than he blamed himself. "When," says he, "the heat of controversy was over, I could not look into them—the pamphlets—myself, without disgust and pain. The spleen of Middleton, and the petulance of Warburton, had too much infected me." This candid acknowledgment, however, seems to justify Mr Jones' language in his life of Bishop Horne. "A Mr Heathcote, a very intemperate and unmanly writer, published a pamphlet against Dr Patten, laying himself open both in the manner and the matter of it, to the criticisms of Dr Patten, who will appear to have been greatly his superior as a scholar and a divine to any candid reader who shall review that controversy. Dr Patten could not, with any propriety, be said to have written on the Hutchinsonian plan; but Mr Heathcote found it convenient to charge him with it." Warburton, too, who had complimented Mr Heathcote to his face, speaks of him in a letter to Dr Hurd in 1757, as one whose "matter is rational, but superficial, and thin spread." He adds, "he will prove as great a scribbler as Comber. They are both sensible, and both have reading. The difference is, that the one has so much vivacity as to make him ridiculous; the other so little as to be unentertaining. Comber's excessive vanity may be matched by Heathcote's pride, which, I think, is a much worse quality."

In 1763–5, Mr Heathcote preached the Boylean lectures, twenty-four in number, at St James's, Westminster. He published, however, only two of them in 1763, on the 'Being of a God,' which soon passed into a second edition. In 1765, on the death of his father, he succeeded to the vicarage of Sibley, and in 1766 was presented to the rectory of Sawtry-All-Saints, in Huntingdonshire; and in 1768 to a prebend in the collegiate church of Southwell. "These," he says, "in so short a compass may look pompous; but their clear annual income, when curates were paid, and all expenses deducted, did not amount to more than £150." In 1771 he published 'The Irenarch, or Justice of the Peace's Manual,'—a performance which, with some singularities of opinion, was accounted both sensible and seasonable. He was now in the commission of the peace. A second edition of this work appeared in 1774, with a long dedication to Lord Mansfield.

In the summer of 1785 he left London, and resided, for the remainder of his life, principally at Southwell, of which church he became, in 1788, vicar-general. He died May 28th, 1795. To the preceding list of Dr Heathcote's works, we may add that, at the request of Mr Whiston, he wrote the life of Dr Thomas Burnet, the learned master of the Charter-house, prefixed to the edition of his works printed in 1759. In 1767 he published a letter to Horace Walpole, concerning the dispute between Hume and Rousseau. He also published an 'Assize Sermon,' and a pamphlet called 'Memoirs of the late contested election for the county of Leicester,' 1775. His 'Irenarch' and the dedication and notes, he scattered up and down, but without alteration, in a miscellaneous work, published in 1786, entitled 'Sylvia, or the Wood;' an entertaining collection of anecdotes, &c., which was printed in 1788; and in 1789 he had begun another volume of miscellanies, including some of his separate pieces, and memoirs of himself.

Henry Venn.

BORN A. D. 1725.—DIED A. D. 1797.

THIS learned and exemplary divine was descended from ancestors who were clergymen, in a direct line, from the time of the Reformation. The misfortunes of one of them, on account of his attachment to Charles I. during the civil wars, are well-narrated in Dr Walker's 'Account of the Sufferings of the Clergy.' His father, the Rev. Richard Venn, rector of St Antholin's, London, distinguished himself as a noted polemic in his day, particularly, in conjunction with Bishop Gibson, in opposing the promotion of Dr Rundle to a bishopric, on account of a conversation in which the doctor had expressed sentiments rather favourable to deism. Mr Venn also assisted Dr Webster in writing the 'Weekly Miscellany,'—a periodical publication which, under the venerable name of Richard Hooker, laboured zealously in defence of high church principles. He died in 1740, and a volume of his sermons and tracts was published by his widow, the daughter of a Mr Ashton, who was executed in the reign of William III. for being concerned in a plot to bring back the Stuart family.

Henry Venn was born at Barnes in the county of Surrey, in the year 1725. He was educated partly under Dr Pitman, at Market-street, and partly under the Rev. Mr Catcott, rector of St Stephen, Bristol,—a Hutchinsonian divine of great ingenuity and learning, the author of a curious treatise on the deluge, and a volume of excellent sermons. In 1742 Venn was admitted of Jesus college, Cambridge, where he proceeded to the degree of B. A. in 1745, and to that of M. A. in 1749. There being no fellowship vacant in his own college, the fellows of Queen's unanimously elected him a member of their society, in which he continued till his marriage in 1757. The lady to whom he became united was daughter of Dr Bishop of Ipswich, author of an exposition of the creed, and a volume of sermons preached at Lady Moyer's lecture in 1724.

At this period Mr Venn was curate of Clapham, where he was

greatly beloved by the inhabitants, and contracted a close friendship with those eminently good men, Sir John Barnard, and John Thornton, Esq. By way of exhibiting his gratitude to his parishioners, he published and dedicated to them, in 1759, on his resignation of the curacy, a volume of sermons. In that year he was presented to the vicarage of Huddersfield in Yorkshire. Before this removal he had embraced the Calvinistic system, and distinguished himself as one of the heads of Methodism, as it was called, in the establishment.

While at Huddersfield he laboured with unwearied assiduity in his vocation, and his memory will long be cherished with affection and veneration in that extensive parish. His zeal, however, carried him beyond his strength. By his earnest and frequent preaching, in the course of ten years he had materially injured his constitution, and brought on a cough and spitting of blood which rendered him incapable of officiating any longer in so extensive a sphere. He therefore accepted, in 1770, the rectory of Yelling in Huntingdonshire, a crown-living, which was presented to him by his friend the lord-chief-baron Smythe, then one of the commissioners of the great seal. During his residence at Huddersfield he published 'The Complete Duty of Man,' which has gone through seven large editions, including those printed in Ireland and America. The great object of this book is to counteract the principles of the celebrated work which bears the same title.

He continued to reside at Yelling until the month of December, 1796, when, in consequence of a paralytic stroke, which not only shook his bodily frame but his intellect, he removed to the house of his son, the rector of Clapham, where he died in June following. Mr Venn's talents were of some note in his profession.

Joseph Milner.

BORN A. D. 1744.—DIED A. D. 1797.

JOSEPH MILNER was born in the neighbourhood of Leeds, on the 2d of January, 1744. Mr Moore, usher of the grammar-school of Leeds, and afterwards head-master, was his classical instructor till he went to the university. His talents discovered themselves at a very early period. His memory was unparalleled, and retained its strength to the end of his life; for though he himself used to say that it was not so retentive as it had been, nobody else perceived any decay or alteration in that faculty. His tutor, when explaining the Latin or Greek authors, used to apply to Milner's memory in cases of history and mythology. He used to say, "Milner is more easily consulted than the dictionaries or the pantheon; and he is quite as much to be relied on." He told so many and almost incredible stories of his pupil's memory, that a respectable clergyman, at that time minister of St John's church in Leeds, expressed some suspicion of exaggeration. Moore instantly offered to give satisfactory proof of his assertions: "Milner," said he, "shall go to church next Sunday, and without taking a single note at the time, shall write down your sermon afterward. Will you permit us to compare what he writes with what you preach?" The clergyman accepted the proposal; and expressed his astonishment at the event of

this trial of memory: "The lad," said he, "has not omitted a single thought or sentiment in the whole sermon; and frequently he has got the very words for a long way together."

At eighteen years of age, Milner obtained means to enter himself of Catherine hall, Cambridge; and, in spite of many disadvantages, he carried away both the chancellor's medals, in the year 1766. "Milner's strength and excellence, as a classical scholar, consisted," says his brother, "in the soundness of his understanding, the extensiveness of his reading, and the retentiveness of his memory, which enabled him to enter into the spirit of an author, and to develop the meaning of the most obscure and difficult expressions. Similar passages and similar constructions perpetually occurred to his mind, and assisted him in untying knots which were above the art of persons of more confined reading or of less penetration. In the above contest for the medals, most of the candidates had possessed the advantage of being educated at some of the great public schools; and, probably, were much superior to Milner in the knowledge of pronunciation. For besides that the knowledge of the quantity of syllables is usually less attended to in country-schools, the Yorkshire boys are well-known to bring along with them a most unpleasant accent."

Notwithstanding his success, young Milner was unable to maintain himself long at college. He was fortunate enough, however, to obtain the head-mastership of the grammar-school of Hull, with an afternoon-lectureship in the town. Under his auspices, the school, which had dwindled almost to nothing, through the negligence of the former master and assistant, soon acquired very considerable celebrity, which it retained for many years. Isaac Milner has borne honourable and affecting testimony to the kindness of his brother in taking charge of him and furnishing him with the means of prosecuting his studies as soon as his own limited finances enabled him to do so. "Under Providence," says he, "he owes his present honourable and elevated situations as dean of Carlisle and master of Queen's college, and professor of mathematics in the university of Cambridge—indeed, he owes all he has to the kindness of this same brother; and he here willingly acknowledges the obligation with tears of gratitude and affection. 'He made' Isaac 'glad with his acts, and his memorial is blessed for ever.'"¹ The duration of Mr Milner's serious and active ministry is to be reckoned from about the 27th year of his age to his 54th. Not only at Hull, but throughout the kingdom, a very considerable revival of practical religion took place during these years, particularly among the poor and the middle ranks of society. The Methodists had sounded the alarm; and the clergy of the establishment were roused. The scriptures were examined and searched "whether these things were so." The name of Methodist, when applied to such persons as Mr Milner, ceased in a great measure to be disgraceful with thinking people. Some of the bishops even, who had conceived great prejudices against every thing connected with that term, saw abundant reason to alter their judgment. Great numbers of the poorer and of the middle classes of society became truly religious in practice; and almost all persons affected to approve Mr Milner's way of stating the truths of the gospel. In fact, the sentiments which he

¹ Life of the Rev. Joseph Milner.

defended and explained in the pulpit, became so fashionable, that no clergyman was well-received at Hull who opposed or did not support them.

Mr Milner just lived to receive a very ample and decisive testimony of esteem which was shown to him by the mayor and corporation of Hull. Upon the decease of the Rev. T. Clarke, he was chosen vicar almost unanimously. But he survived that event only a few weeks. He died November 15th, 1797.

His brother says he never met with any person who resembled him in two points,—an extreme ignorance of the ways and manners of mankind in their ordinary intercourse with each other,—and, an utter and absolute rejection of disguise in all its shapes. There have lived, perhaps, very few men who appeared so perfectly and so exactly what they really were as Mr Milner did. All his likings and dislikings appeared at once: he practised no temporising measures with any one, but commended and blamed without reserve, and without much consulting the feelings of those who heard him. Whatever he did he did with all his might. Greek, Latin, history, and poetry, chiefly employed the former part of his life; practical religion, or subjects connected with it, the latter. One of the most popular and instructive publications of Mr Milner, is a pamphlet called ‘Some remarkable Passages in the Life of William Howard.’ His answer to Gibbon’s attack on Christianity, though well-known to studious persons, and though highly commended by two learned bishops, has not been so generally dispersed as it deserves. His essays on the ‘Influence of the Holy Spirit’ were exceedingly well-received, and have been of great service in the church. The most arduous and important undertaking of Mr Milner is his ‘History of the Church of Christ,’ which, in spite of the dislike manifested to it by a certain party in the church of England, will continue to be read with pleasure and advantage by serious Christians of every denomination.

Hon. W. B. Cadogan.

BORN A. D. 1751.—DIED A. D. 1797.

THE honourable and reverend W. B. Cadogan was the second son of Lord Cadogan, who married the only daughter of Lord Montfort. He was born January 22d, 1751, and was placed at Westminster school, July 7th, 1757. He distinguished himself by obtaining several prizes, and was for some time what is termed captain of the school.

In the year 1769 he left Westminster to enter Christ church college, Oxford. “It is reported,” says his biographer Cecil, “that he was considered one of the first scholars in his college; and it is certain that he received different sets of books as prizes in literary contests; that he was the reverse of those who are properly termed loungers at the university, I have full evidence; for besides what appeared in his ministry, his private papers are a strong proof of his early industry. When Mrs Cadogan imposed this task upon me, she opened his escrutoire, in order to examine if he had left any thing that it might be proper to add to what had been already printed; and I confess I was surprised at the

quantity of papers covered with his university studies. These occupied much room, besides that which contained a great number of written sermons, and what are called skeletons of sermons, as he, latterly, did not read his discourses. When I say I was surprised at this, it was not so much from observing how greatly his character had differed from that of many, who go to universities merely as a necessary introduction into a particular profession, and pay little regard to other advantages which such seminaries afford; but because, after a long intimacy with him, I had remarked his indisposition to converse on those branches of science which I now found he had so laboriously cultivated. I had imputed the indisposition rather to his having never deeply pursued such subjects, than to what I afterwards found to be the real motive, namely, an habitual delight in, and eager pursuit after, sublimer objects; for latterly he counted all things but dross for the excellency of the knowledge of Christ Jesus his Lord."

In the year 1774 Mr Cadogan was presented—though not yet ordained—to the living of St Giles's, Reading. Earl Bathurst was at that time chancellor, and used to dress so very plainly that those who did not know his person could have no suspicion of his rank in life. When the living of St Giles's became vacant, the chancellor called one morning upon the present Lord Cadogan, then Mr Cadogan, at his house in London. Being informed that Mr Cadogan was not at home, he desired to leave a line for him. The servants kept him in the hall while he wrote a note, politely expressing his intention of presenting Mr Cadogan's son, who he had heard was intended for orders, to the living of St Giles's, as being near the family seat. The note being brought to Mr Cadogan, he opened it with surprise, and inquired of his servants how it came to be written on such dirty paper? They said that they had given the first piece which presented itself to a man who called, and wished to leave his business. "Do you know," replied he in vexation, "that that man is the lord-high-chancellor of England?" It is needless to say that the servants were thunderstruck, and that every proper apology was immediately made to the chancellor.

Soon after Mr Cadogan had entered upon his regular duties, he experienced a remarkable change of religious views. He became, in short, what was called, in derision, a Methodist. Cecil records the following conversation which Cadogan soon after this period had with a nobleman of his own acquaintance: "What," said my lord, "do you mean to do? You have made, or rather marred your fortune, indeed; all hopes of preferment are quite gone!" A stall I believe at Westminster was promised Mr Cadogan and just then given to another, to which his lordship was supposed to allude. Cadogan replied: "I am endeavouring, my lord, to gain preferment in another world, where no one fails who attempts it. All worldly preferment is uncertain; we cannot hold it long, nor secure it one hour. I will therefore endeavour to secure a treasure 'where no moth corrupts, and where no thief can steal.'" "As to that world," replied his lordship, "I know no more about it than others who never were there!" Cadogan answered: "I never saw it, my lord; I know likewise but little about it; but my Bible tells me that 'there remaineth a rest for the people of God;' I believe that book to be divine,—its evidence appears to me irresistible,—I am determined, therefore, to stake my fortune upon what God hath promised in his

word; and the day will soon arrive that will determine who is right." "Well," rejoined his lordship, "you must enjoy your opinion and pay for it." "With all my heart!" replied Mr Cadogan, "I have a faithful God to go to, and am not afraid to trust him. I sometimes, my lord, get a glimpse of that world above, which makes all I see in this poor indeed."

Mr Cadogan's ministry had now become so interesting at Reading that his church could not contain the multitude which attended it. This want of room, however, was much remedied by his erecting a very large gallery, which went nearly round the church; for the whole expense of which he made himself accountable, though, afterwards, it was chiefly defrayed by voluntary subscription. In December, 1782, Mr Cadogan married the widow of Captain Bradshaw of the 78th regiment, private secretary and aid-de-camp to General Vaughan, who was then commander-in-chief of the Leeward islands.

"From his marriage to his death," says his biographer, "little more can be marked—and what could be marked better?—than a steady, determined, and uniform course of laborious attention to the charge committed to him. God, who had given him grace to make so good a profession before many witnesses, honoured his testimony to the awakening and establishing a great number as seals of his ministry, and lively evidences of the power of the word and Spirit of God. In his course, to copy the words of his friend the Rev. T. Pencycross, 'we may admire the beautiful regularity of his conduct, and strict improvement of his time, rising constantly, both in summer and winter, at six in the morning, and, excepting his attendance at breakfast and family prayer, continuing always in his study till twelve; then riding about two hours and visiting that part of his flock which was at a distance; in the afternoon he visited the sick and distressed in the town; and, on Sundays, the Sunday-schools, notwithstanding his three public services.' To this may be added, his regularly preaching a weekly lecture in his church; and his admitting such of his hearers as had not the opportunity at home, to join his evening family worship."

A musical amateur of eminence, who had often observed Mr Cadogan's inattention to his performances, said to him one day, "Come, I am determined to make you feel the force of music; pay particular attention to this piece." It was played. "Well, what do you say now?" "Why, just what I said before." "What! can you hear this and not be charmed? Well, I am quite surprised at your insensibility! where are your ears?" "Bear with me, my lord," replied Mr Cadogan, "since I too have had my surprise; I have often, from the pulpit, set before you the most striking and affecting truths,—I have sounded notes that have raised the dead,—I have said, surely he will feel now; but you never seemed charmed with my music, though infinitely more interesting than yours. I too have been ready to say with astonishment, where are his ears?"

A pious lady whom he visited was making many inquiries and remarks relating to his birth, family, and connections: "My dear madam," said he, "I wonder you can spend so much time upon so poor a subject! I called to converse with you upon the things of eternity." Bishop Lowth, who had long been confined with the gout, one day said, as he sat in pain: "Ah, Mr Cadogan, see what a poor thing it is to be bishop

of London!" "Truly, my lord," replied Mr Cadogan, "I always thought it was a very poor thing to be a bishop of London, if a man possessed nothing better." It may be remarked that the reply came with a better grace, as it came from one who in all probability might have obtained a bishopric had he made it his object.

Viewing him as a minister, he had set out with all the advantages which one of the first schools and universities could afford; but he seems to have soon discovered how miserably deficient that minister must be who stops at the learning of the schools. While he could have distinguished himself as a scholar, the following remark, which he makes upon Mr Romaine, in his funeral sermon, will as strictly apply to himself: "The errors and vices of the heathen, however ornamented by rhetoric or poetry, were disgusting to a heart purified by faith; he therefore turned from profane to sacred literature." The scriptures, indeed, he had studied day and night in their original languages: he had studied them critically, and in their connection, till he was familiar with them beyond most of his cotemporaries. His mind was a concordance and harmony of scripture. He quoted with amazing facility, not at random as some do, who distinguish not sound from sense, but whatever tended to explain or illustrate the point before him. To this may be added, that his diction, like that of the original he studied, was so plain and perspicuous, that the meanest of his hearers might clearly understand him.

"As a preacher," says Cecil, "he certainly stood high; and I may safely affirm this, though his voice was rough, his utterance rather indistinct, and at times unpleasantly monotonous. I am also ready to acknowledge that, like many other useful men, he was more qualified to make the assault than to conduct the siege. His memory indeed was remarkably strong, his mind firm and vigorous, and his discourses studied; but he had little imagination, taste, or ear. Plain and convincing, decisive and commanding, he exhibited truth in the mass, and characters in the general, with great effect; but to discriminate with accuracy, to touch the strings of the heart with skill, and to meet objections in their various forms, were talents he did not possess himself though he knew how to value them in others."

Josiah Tucker.

BORN A. D. 1712.—DIED A. D. 1799.

THIS learned divine, and celebrated political writer, was born at Laugharn, in Carmarthenshire, in 1712. His father was a farmer, and having a small estate left him near Aberystwith in Cardiganshire, he removed thither; and perceiving that his son had a turn for learning, he sent him to Ruthin school in Denbighshire, where he made so great progress in the classics that he obtained an exhibition at St John's college, Oxford. At the age of twenty-three he entered into holy orders, and served a curacy for some time in Gloucestershire. About 1737 he became curate of St Stephen's church, Bristol, and was appointed minor canon in the cathedral of that city. Here he attracted the notice of Dr Joseph Butler, then bishop of Bristol and afterwards of Durham,

who appointed Tucker his domestic chaplain. By the interest of this prelate he also obtained a prebendal stall in the cathedral of Bristol; and on the death of Mr Catcott—well-known by his treatise on the deluge—he became rector of St Stephen. The inhabitants of that parish consist chiefly of merchants and tradesmen,—a circumstance which greatly aided his natural inclination for commercial and political studies.

When the famous bill was brought into the house of commons for the naturalization of the Jews, Tucker took a decided part in favour of the measure, and was indeed its most able advocate; but for this he was severely attacked in pamphlets, newspapers, and magazines; and the people of Bristol burned his effigy, together with his letters on behalf of naturalization.¹ In 1753 he published an able pamphlet on the Turkey trade, in which he demonstrates the evils that result to trade in general from chartered companies. At this period Lord Clare—afterwards Earl Nugent—was returned to parliament for Bristol, an honour he obtained chiefly through the strenuous exertions of Mr Tucker, whose influence in his large and wealthy parish was almost decisive on such an occasion. In return for this favour, the earl procured for him the deanery of Gloucester, in 1758, at which time he took his degree of D.D. So great was the reputation he had now acquired for commercial knowledge, that Dr Thomas Hayter, afterwards bishop of London, who was then tutor to George III., applied to Tucker to draw up a dissertation on this subject for the perusal of his royal pupil. It was accordingly done, and gave great satisfaction. This work, under the title of 'The Elements of Commerce,' was printed in quarto, but never published. Dr Warburton, however, who, after having been member of the same chapter with the dean at Bristol, became bishop of Gloucester, thought very differently from the rest of mankind, in respect to his talents and favourite pursuits, and said once, in his coarse manner, that "his dean's trade was religion, and religion his trade." The dean once remarked in allusion to the coolness which subsisted between him and Warburton: "The bishop affects to consider me with contempt; to which I say nothing. He has sometimes spoken coarsely of me; to which I replied nothing. He has said that religion is my trade, and trade is my religion. Commerce and its connections have, it is true, been favourite objects of my attention, and where is the crime? And as for religion, I have attended carefully to the duties of my parish: nor have I neglected my cathedral. The world knows something of me as a writer on religious subjects; and I will add, which the world does not know, that I have written near three hundred sermons, and preached them all, again and again. My heart is at ease on that score, and my conscience, thank God, does not accuse me."

In 1771, when a strong attempt was made to procure an abolition of subscription to the thirty-nine articles, Dr Tucker came forward as an advocate for them; he admitted, however, that some reformation of the liturgy was wanted, and instanced particularly the Athanasian creed, which he considered as too scholastic and refined for a popular confession of faith. About this time he published 'Directions for Travellers,' in which he lays down excellent rules, by which gentlemen who visit

¹ Mr Seward says, his being burned in effigy was occasioned by an essay he wrote in support of the Hessians who came to settle in England.

foreign countries may not only improve their own minds, but turn their observations to the benefit of their native country. This has become extremely scarce, but there is a part of it reprinted in Berchtold's 'Essay to direct the inquiries of Travellers.'

In 1772, the dean printed a small volume of sermons, in which he explains his views of the doctrines of election and justification, in reference to a very violent dispute then carried on between the Calvinistic and the Arminian Methodists,—the former headed by Messrs Toplady and Hill, and the latter by the Messrs Wesleys and Fletcher. The year following he published 'Letters to the Rev. Dr Kippis, wherein the claim of the Church of England to an authority in matters of faith, and to a power of decreeing rites and ceremonies, is discussed and ascertained,' &c.

When the dispute arose between Great Britain and the American colonies, the dean was an attentive observer of the contest, examining the affair with a very different eye from that of a party-man or an interested merchant, and discovered as he conceived that both sides would be benefited by an absolute separation. The more he thought on this subject, the more he was persuaded that extensive colonies were an evil rather than an advantage to any commercial nation. On this principle, therefore, he published his 'Thoughts upon the Dispute between the Mother Country and America.' He demonstrated that the latter could not be conquered, and that, if it could, the purchase would be dearly bought. He warned this country against commencing a war with the colonies, and advised that they should be left to themselves. This advice startled all parties, and the dean was generally considered as a sort of madman who had rambled out of the proper line of his profession to commence political quack. Our author, however, went on vindicating and enforcing his favourite system, in spite of all the obloquy with which it was treated both in the senate and from the press. As the war proceeded, some intelligent persons began to see more truth and reason in his sentiments, and time demonstrated that he was right. He printed several essays in the newspapers under the title of Cassandra.

When the terrors of an invasion were very prevalent in 1779, the dean circulated, in a variety of periodical publications, some sensible observations in order to quiet the fears of the people. He states at length, and with great accuracy, the numerous difficulties that must attend the attempt to invade this country, and the still greater ones that must be encountered by the invaders after their landing. Those observations were reprinted, with good effect, in the course of the late war. In 1781, he published what he had printed long before, 'A treatise on Civil Government,' in which his principal design is to counteract the doctrines of the celebrated Locke and his followers. This book made a considerable noise, and was attacked by several of the best writers on the democratic side of the question. The year following he closed his political career with a pamphlet entitled 'Cui Bono?' in which he balances the profits and loss of each of the belligerent powers, and recapitulates all his former positions on the subject of war and colonial possessions. His publications after this period consist of some tracts on the commercial regulations of Ireland, on the exportation of woollens, and on the iron trade.

In 1777 he published seventeen practical sermons, in one vol. 8vo.

After he resigned his rectory in Bristol he resided mostly in Gloucester. He died of the gradual decays of age, November 4th, 1799, and was interred in the south transept of Gloucester cathedral, where a monument has been erected to his memory. It should be recorded to his praise, that though enjoying but very moderate preferment—for to a man of no paternal estate, or other ecclesiastical dignity, the deanery of Gloucester is no very advantageous situation—he was notwithstanding a liberal benefactor to several public institutions, and a distinguished patron of merit. About 1790 he thought of resigning his rectory in Bristol, and, without communicating his design to any other person, he applied to the chancellor in whose gift it is, for leave to quit it in favour of his curate, a most deserving man with a large family. His lordship was willing enough that he should give up the living, but refused him the liberty of nominating his successor. On this the dean resolved to hold the living himself till he could find a fit opportunity to succeed in his object. After weighing the matter more deliberately, he communicated his wish to his parishioners, and advised them to draw up a petition to the chancellor in favour of the curate. This was accordingly done, and signed by all of them, without any exception, either on the part of the dissenters or others. The chancellor, touched with this testimony of love between a clergyman and his people, yielded at last to the application; in consequence of which the dean cheerfully resigned the living to a successor well-qualified to tread in his steps.*

III.—LITERARY SERIES.

Thomas Chatterton.

BORN A. D. 1752.—DIED A. D. 1770.

THIS highly gifted but ill-fated youth was the posthumous son of a sexton and petty schoolmaster in Bristol, in which city he was born on the 20th of November, 1752. The first assiduous attempts of his mother to teach him the alphabet were unavailing, and a schoolmaster to whom he was sent at the age of five years, gave up the task in despair. At last some ornamental letters in the title-page of a music-book caught the child's eye, and so effectually arrested his attention that by means of them and similar characters he was led without interruption from A to Z, and at the age of eight years, the first difficulties of reading being overcome, was admitted into Colston's charity-school. Here he continued until he had passed his 14th year, without betraying, to the eye at least of his master, any of those remarkable powers of mind by which he afterwards raised himself to distinction. It is known, however, that at the age of ten, he began to display an avidity for books of all sorts,

* Abridged from Mr Chalmers's notice in Biographical Dictionary, who refers to Gentleman's Magazine, vol. lxix.—Warburton's Letters, 4to. edition, pp. 331, 337.—Seward's Anecdotes.

which he eagerly perused; and it has been proved that he began to write verses at twelve. Amongst his school-exercises he paraphrased one chapter of Job, and several of Isaiah; he also wrote a satire on his upper-master; but in none of these compositions do we discover any striking indication of that vigour and fertility of thought which were so soon to distinguish him.

In his 15th year he was removed from school, and articled to an attorney in Bristol; and now commenced that series of literary frauds by which "the wondrous boy" created so strong a sensation in the republic of letters, and in the contrivance and conduct of which he exhibited such an astonishing combination of knavery and genius. In 1768, when the new bridge of his native city was opened, a paper appeared in 'Farley's Bristol Journal,' entitled 'A Description of the Fryars passing over the old bridge, taken from an ancient manuscript.' This paper, from its appropriate character, and the air of vraisemblance which its author had contrived to infuse into it, excited a good deal of attention, and was ultimately traced to Chatterton, who, after some hesitation, declared that he had got the original among some papers taken from the muniment room of the church of St Mary Redcliffe, in Bristol. These, he said, had been deposited in a very old chest, which had immemorially been called the coffin of Mr Canynge, an eminent merchant, who, during the reign of Edward IV., had either founded or rebuilt the church. The keys belonging to this chest having been lost, and some deeds which it was supposed to contain being wanted, the locks were forced by an order of the vestry in 1727, and the deeds removed, but the other papers which it contained being determined to be of no legal utility, were allowed to be gradually carried off by the then sexton, the father of our Chatterton, who covered the books of his scholars with them, and converted them to a number of equally trifling purposes. On one of his occasional visits to his home, Chatterton said his attention was casually drawn to some writing on a thread-paper of his mother's which with difficulty he decyphered, and found to be a portion of a curious and original MS. His first care, he added, on this discovery, was to secure all the remaining MSS. or portions of MS. still existing with his mother or in the chest; and it was from this source, he affirmed, that he drew the various pieces of ancient poetry which from time to time he now submitted to the public as the compositions of Thomas Canynge, and Thomas Rowley, a priest.

The MSS. of Rowley soon introduced Chatterton to some of the most eminent citizens of Bristol, to whom he presented various specimens of the pretended MSS. and by whose attentions he felt much flattered. In 1769 he sent a specimen of his newly discovered treasure to the Hon. Horace Walpole: these were shown to Gray the poet, and his friend Mason, who immediately pronounced them to be forgeries. In the meantime Chatterton forwarded various communications to the 'Town and Country Magazine,' which were inserted in that publication, and chiefly consisted of pretended extracts from Rowley. In 1770 he composed a poem of 1300 lines, entitled, 'Kew Gardens,' and designed as a satire on the Princess-dowager of Wales and Lord Bute. He now began to display great laxity of speculative principle, and, having quarrelled with some of his earliest and best friends, threatened to put an end to his own existence, and was in consequence turned out of doors

by his master. In this emergency he resolved to seek an asylum in the metropolis, whither he instantly repaired, and where he soon got engaged with various publications. Besides contributing a variety of essays to the daily papers, he projected a history of London, and a history of England, and plunged deeply into the party-politics of the day. But the result disappointed his expectations, and in a few months he was reduced to a state of utter indigence. After an ineffectual attempt to obtain the situation of surgeon in a slave-ship, the unfortunate youth terminated his own existence, on the 25th of August, 1770, by swallowing a dose of arsenic or opium, having previously destroyed all his manuscripts, and left nothing behind him but a few small parchments. His remains were interred in the burying-ground of St Andrew's work-house. Thus died Chatterton,

“The wonder and reproach of an enlightened age.”

That he “passed his life in the fabrication of a lie” is, in spite of the efforts of a Whiter and a Symmons to establish the authenticity of the Rowleian poems, too true.¹ But posterity, while it deprecates the fraud, will ever award the due meed of praise to

“The wondrous youth of Bristowe's plain,
That pour'd in Rowley's garb his solemn strain.”

The poems to which Chatterton appended the name of Rowley were first collected into an 8vo volume by Mr Tyrwhitt, and subsequently in a splendid 4to by Dean Milles. The best edition is that of Southey and Gregory, in 3 volumes 8vo.

¹ The St James' Chronicle, during the rage of the Chattertonian controversy, published the following list of the partizans on each side:—

ROWLEIANS.

Mr Bryant,
Dean Milles,
Dr Glynn,
Mr Henley,
Monthly Review while under Lang-
horne,
Mr E. B. Greene.

ANTI-ROWLEIANS.

Mr Tyrwhitt,
Mr Walpole,
Dr Warton,
Mr T. Warton,
Dr Johnson,
Mr Steevens,
Dr Percy,
Mr Malone,
Mr Gibbon,
Mr Jones,
Dr Farmer,
Mr Colman,
Mr Sheridan,
Dr Lort,
Mr Astle,
Mr Croft,
Mr Hayley,
Lord Camden,
Mr Gough,
Mr Mason,
Mr Knox,
Mr Badcock,
Critical Review,
Gentleman's Magazine.

William Falconer.

BORN A. D. 1730.—DIED A. D. 1770.

THIS ingenious but hapless poet was a native of Edinburgh. His father was in very humble circumstances, and apprenticed him, while yet very young, on board a Leith merchant-vessel. Campbell, the author of 'Lexiphanes,' was among the first to discover symptoms of genius about the youth; he warmly befriended him, and procured him the appointment of mate on board a vessel engaged in the Levant trade. This vessel was afterwards shipwrecked during her passage from Alexandria to Venice, and only Falconer and two of the crew escaped. When about twenty years of age he appears to have contributed several little effusions to the 'Gentleman's Magazine.' They are chiefly of a whimsical cast, and touch on naval life and adventures. In 1762, he published 'The Shipwreck,' the poem which introduced him to public notice, and on which alone his fame rests. Soon after its appearance he was rated a midshipman on board Sir Edward Hawke's ship, the Royal George; and in 1763 was appointed purser of the Glory frigate. He was afterwards transferred to the Aurora frigate, which sailed from England for the East Indies on the 30th of September, 1769, but was never heard of after leaving the Cape, and is supposed to have foundered in the Mozambique channel. The Shipwreck is a poem of great promise. Its versification is exquisite, and its whole construction as nearly perfect as any descriptive piece in the language. It is, perhaps, to a landsman's ear, overloaded with technical terms; but this was probably inseparable from his subject, and invests his verse with the highest claims to those for whose gratification he chiefly wooed the muse.

James Brindley.

BORN A. D. 1716.—DIED A. D. 1772.

THIS celebrated and self-instructed engineer was born at Tunsted in Derbyshire. He received little or no education in his childhood. At seventeen years of age he apprenticed himself to a millwright, near Macclesfield, in Cheshire. In this situation his mechanical genius soon displayed itself in a manner which astonished his master and fellow-workmen, who could not believe that such a ready command of all the resources of their art, as he always evinced when left to himself, could have been acquired by any thing short of a previous and long apprenticeship. It is related of him that his master having undertaken to construct a paper-mill, soon found himself at fault with regard to some part of the machinery; whereupon his apprentice set off one evening a distance of fifty miles to obtain a personal inspection of a paper-mill in operation, and returned the succeeding day with such a thorough comprehension of the parts and working of the machinery, that he not only enabled his master to finish a good paper-mill, but even to introduce various improvements into it.

In 1752, Brindley erected a very powerful water-wheel at Clifton in Lancashire, for the purpose of draining some coal-mines; the complete success of this undertaking introduced him to extensive employment both as a machinist and an engineer. In 1758, the duke of Bridgewater obtained an act of parliament for cutting a canal from Worsley to Salford near Manchester. This undertaking required the execution of several tunnels and aqueducts on the line of the canal, for it was resolved to avoid the construction of locks, so as to render the transit of vessels perfectly free and uninterrupted; and his grace, having full confidence in Brindley's skill and fertile genius, intrusted the whole work to his superintendence. In the execution of it, Brindley evinced consummate skill and the most complete command of all the resources of mechanical art, triumphing over obstacles which thoroughly trained engineers had pronounced insurmountable, and at the same time effecting extensive savings on the original estimates for different parts of the undertaking. In 1766 he began a canal from the Trent to the Mersey, commonly known by the name of the Grand Trunk navigation; he did not live to finish this undertaking, but it owes its success to the skill and ingenuity of his plans. He was also the engineer of the canals from Haywood, in Staffordshire, to Bewdley, and from Birmingham to Wolverhampton, of the Oxfordshire canal, the Calder navigation, and various other works of a similar kind throughout the kingdom.

Brindley died at Turnhurst, in Staffordshire, on the 30th of September, 1772. His life appears to have been shortened by the intense and ceaseless demands made upon his faculties by the number and magnitude of the undertakings intrusted to his management. In these he had little or no assistance from books, or the labours of other men; his resources lay almost entirely within himself. His methods of calculation and designing were in a great measure peculiar to himself, and incommunicable to others; while the results he obtained were always found to be exactly verified in practice.

George Edwards.

BORN A. D. 1693.—DIED A. D. 1773.

THIS very eminent naturalist was born at Westham, in Essex. He received his education at two private seminaries. He was early apprenticed to a London merchant; but it is said that the arrival of a quantity of books on natural history at his master's house, the bequest of a deceased relative, and to which young Edwards had access, determined his taste, and ultimately led him to abandon commercial pursuits for the sake of gratifying his absorbing passion—the pursuit of natural history. A combination of fortunate circumstances enabled him to perform several tours on the continent in early life; amongst other countries he visited and spent a considerable time in Holland, Norway, and France. Being an acute and diligent observer of nature, these excursions greatly enlarged his acquaintance with objects of natural science. His election in 1733, to the office of librarian to the college of physicians, on the recommendation of Sir Hans Sloane, threw open to him the stores of scientific literature in the possession of that body,

and afforded him eminent facilities for the cultivation of his favourite branches.

In 1743, the first volume of his 'History of Birds' was published in 4to; a second volume appeared in 1747; a third in 1750; and a fourth in 1751. These volumes were well-received by the public. The figures are natural, and the drawing and colouring very correct. In 1758 he published a volume entitled 'Gleanings of Natural History,' to which he successively added other two volumes. These seven quarto volumes contain upwards of six hundred subjects in natural history, described and delineated for the first time. Some idea of the extreme accuracy and care of our author and artist may be formed from the account which he himself has given in the third volume of his 'Gleanings' of his exactness in delineating any object. "It often happens," he says, "that my figures on the copper plates greatly differ from my original drawings; for sometimes the originals have not altogether pleased me as to their attitudes or actions. In such cases I have made three or four, sometimes six, sketches or outlines, and have deliberately considered them all, and then fixed upon that which I judged most free and natural to be engraven on my plate." "It is not reasonable," adds he, "to expect that a work of this nature should be highly laboured and finished in the colouring part, because it would greatly raise the price of it, as colouring work in London, when highly finished, comes very dear. The most material part is, keeping as strictly as can be to the variety of colours found in the natural subjects, which has been my principal care; and now, on revising all that have been coloured, I think them much nearer nature than most works of the kind that have been published."

Edwards communicated various papers to the Royal society. He enjoyed the friendship and correspondence of many eminent men, especially of the great Swedish naturalist Linnæus, who highly esteemed his ornithological publications. He died in 1773.

John Hawkesworth.

BORN A. D. 1719.—DIED A. D. 1773.

THIS elegant essayist was born in London. He appears to have early devoted himself to literature, and from the first to have followed letters as his profession. In 1744 he succeeded Dr Johnson in compiling the parliamentary debates for the 'Gentleman's Magazine;' he also contributed various poetical pieces to that miscellany. His papers in the 'Adventurer' attracted the attention of Archbishop Herring, who conferred on him the degree of doctor of civil law. In 1761 he published several dramatic pieces, and his admired tale of 'Almorán and Hamet.' Shortly after the secession of Ruffhead, in 1760, from the review department of the 'Gentleman's Magazine,' Dr Hawkesworth was intrusted with this department. In 1768 he published a good translation of 'Tele-machus.'

In 1772 the lords of the admiralty employed Dr Hawkesworth to draw up an account of the late voyage and discoveries of Captain Cook in the South seas. He received £6000 for this work; but was severely

and justly censured for many objectionable sentiments which he had advanced in his share of the publication. He died in 1773.

Abraham Tucker.

BORN A. D. 1705.—DIED A. D. 1774.

ALTHOUGH the name of Abraham Tucker is not even mentioned in some general biographical dictionaries, and is passed over in silence in Mr Stewart's 'Dissertation on the progress of metaphysical, ethical, and political philosophy,' yet the recommendation of no less illustrious a man than Dr Paley, who says of him in the preface to his 'Moral and Political Philosophy,' "I have found in this writer more original thinking and observation upon the several subjects that he has taken in hand, than in any other, not to say in all others put together;" and the high eulogium pronounced upon him by a still more distinguished name in metaphysical literature, Sir James Mackintosh, sufficiently warrant us to assign him an ample niche in our temple.

Tucker was born in London, of a Somersetshire family, on the 2d of September, 1705. His father, a wealthy merchant, dying soon afterwards, the care of his early education devolved on his maternal uncle, Sir Isaac Tillard, a man of great private worth. Young Tucker received the rudiments of his education at Bishop's Stortford, and in 1721 was entered as a gentleman commoner in Merton college, Oxford. Having passed through the usual course of a liberal education, and particularly applied himself to metaphysics and mathematics, he went into chambers in the Inner Temple about the year 1724, where for some time he devoted himself very assiduously to the study of law. In 1727 he purchased Batchworth castle, near Dorking, where he turned his attention to rural affairs, and spent a good deal of his time in the pursuits and amusements proper to a rich country gentleman. He had no turn for politics, and declined for this reason to offer himself as a representative for his county, though often solicited to do so. On the only occasion on which he ever took a part in public business, his political adversaries thought his appearance sufficiently ridiculous to render it the burden of a burlesque ballad; but Tucker did not feel at all sore upon the matter, and was so much amused with the figure which he made in verse that he set the ballad to music.

Mr Tucker was peculiarly fortunate in his domestic relations; and some of the finest and most touching passages in his great work have a reference to his felicity in this respect. His wife died in 1754, an event which overwhelmed him in the deepest affliction; and it was soon after this, and partly with a view to occupy and divert his mind, that he first turned his attention to the composition of that work which has won for him the approbation of two such competent judges, and is likely to hand his name down to posterity as one of the most distinguished of English metaphysicians. His first appearance as an author was in 1763, when in order to ascertain what reception he was likely to meet with from the public in the character of a writer on ethics, he put forth a sort of feeler in a small octavo volume under the title of 'Freewill, Foreknowledge, and Fate, a fragment by Edward Search.' This book consists, for the

most part, of a long chapter on Freewill, with a running commentary by Cuthbert Comment, a personage who performs the part of an interlocutor, and calls in question several of Search's positions. It was a peculiar conceit of Tucker's never to publish any thing under his own name. His preference for the name of Search—under which the fragments above-mentioned, and the first volumes of the extended work, were published—may be explained by an observation, which repeatedly occurs in his writings, to the effect that all the philosophers who had ever appeared belonged either to the family of the Searches, or that of the Know-alls. The minor works published by Tucker during his lifetime, were 'The Country Gentleman's advice to his Son on the subject of Party Clubs,' which appeared in 1755; a tract, entitled 'Man in quest of himself, by Cuthbert Comment,' being a reply to some strictures which appeared in the Monthly Review in 1763; and a short treatise on 'Vocal Sounds.' Of his great work, 'The Light of Nature,' he made several sketches before he finally decided on the method he should pursue; and after he had ultimately arranged and digested the materials, twice transcribed the whole portion of that part of the work which was published before his death, in his own hand. The first two volumes, in five parts, were published by himself in 1768. For several years previous to his death he was affected with cataracts in his eyes, which terminated at last in total blindness; but with the aid of his daughter, and some mechanical contrivances for writing, he still went on with his work, until, in 1774, the whole was ready for the press. Before, however, the necessary arrangements were concluded for its publication, he was seized with an illness which proved fatal; and, on the 20th of November, 1774, he died as he had lived, with perfect calmness and resignation. The third volume of 'The Light of Nature,' in four parts, was published by his daughter three years after his death. The whole, as bound up, made seven octavo volumes, which were favourably noticed by the reviewers as they came out, but upon the whole attracted no particular attention. A second edition, in eight volumes octavo, was published in 1805; and an excellent abridgment of it by the author of 'An essay on the principles of human action,' in 1807.

The 'Light of Nature' opens with an account of human nature as it exists in this world; the author then proceeds to speak of its capacities with respect to a future life, and of what may be expected either here or hereafter from the government and providence of God, so far as these are unfolded by the light of nature; afterwards he calls in the aid of revelation, investigates its foundation and evidences, explains wherein revelation and nature differ and wherein they agree, and proceeds to consider, with the aid of their united light, some of the most interesting questions respecting the Divine economy, and man's duties, and destiny. The author of the abridgment to which we have already referred, who must be allowed to have made himself a most competent judge, affirms of the larger work: "I do not know of any work in the shape of a philosophical treatise, that contains so much good sense so agreeably expressed. The character of the work is, in this respect, altogether singular. Amidst all the abstruseness of the most subtle disquisitions, it is as familiar as Montaigne, and as wild and entertaining as John Bunce." Dr Parr quotes it repeatedly in the notes to his Spital sermon, and places the author of it at the very head of English mo-

ralists. An equally warm but more discriminating admirer of Tucker, is Sir James Mackintosh, who thus writes of him: "It has been the remarkable fortune of this writer to have been more prized by the cultivators of the same subjects, and more disregarded by the generality even of those who read books on such matters, than perhaps any other philosopher. He had many of the qualities which might be expected in an affluent country gentleman, living in a privacy undisturbed by political zeal, and with a leisure unbroken by the calls of a profession, at a time when England had not entirely renounced her old taste for metaphysical speculation. He was naturally endowed, not indeed with more than ordinary acuteness or sensibility, nor with a high degree of reach and range of mind, but with a singular capacity for careful observation and original reflection, and with a fancy perhaps unmatched in producing various and happy illustration. The most observable of his moral qualities appear to have been prudence and cheerfulness, good nature and easy temper. The influence of his situation and character is visible in his writings. Indulging his own taste and fancies, like most English squires of his time, he became, like many of them, a sort of humorist. Hence much of his originality and independence; hence the boldness with which he openly employs illustrations from homely objects. He wrote to please himself more than the public. He had too little regard for readers, either to sacrifice his sincerity to them, or to curb his own prolixity, repetition, and egotism, from the fear of fatiguing them. Hence he became as loose, as rambling, and as much an egotist as Montaigne; but not so agreeably so, notwithstanding a considerable resemblance of genius; because he wrote on subjects where disorder and egotism are unseasonable, and for readers whom they disturb instead of amusing. His prolixity at last increased itself, when his work became so long, that repetition in the latter parts partly arose from forgetfulness of the former; and though his freedom from slavish deference to general opinion is very commendable, it must be owned that his want of a wholesome fear of the public renders the perusal of a work which is extremely interesting, and even amusing in most of its parts, on the whole a laborious task. He was by early education a believer in Christianity, if not by natural character religious. His calm good sense and accommodating temper led him rather to explain established doctrines in a manner agreeable to his philosophy than to assail them. Hence he was represented as a time-server by free-thinkers, and as a heretic by the orthodox. Living in a country where the secure tranquillity flowing from the Revolution was gradually drawing forth all mental activity towards practical pursuits and outward objects, he hastened from the rudiments of mental and moral philosophy to those branches of it which touch the business of men. Had he recast without changing his thoughts,—had he detached those ethical observations, for which he had so peculiar a vocation, from the disputes of his country and his day,—he might have thrown many of his chapters into their proper form of essays, which might have been compared, though not likened, to those of Hume. But the country gentleman, philosophic as he was, had too much fondness for his own humours to engage in a course of drudgery and deference. It may, however, be confidently added, on the authority of all those who have fairly made the experiment; that whoever, unfettered by a previous system, undertakes the

labour necessary to discover and relish the high excellencies of the metaphysical Montaigne, will find his toil lightened as he proceeds, by a growing indulgence, if not partiality, for the foibles of the humorist; and at last rewarded, in a greater degree perhaps than by any other writer on mixed and applied philosophy, by being led to commanding stations and new points of view, whence the mind of a moralist can hardly fail to catch some fresh prospects of nature and duty."

Oliver Goldsmith.

BORN A. D. 1729.—DIED A. D. 1774.

OLIVER GOLDSMITH, son of the Reverend Charles Goldsmith, was born at Elphin, in the county of Roscommon in Ireland, in the year 1729. His father had four sons, of whom Oliver was the third. After being well-instructed in the classics at the school of Mr Hughes, he was admitted a sizer of Trinity college, Dublin, on the 11th of June, 1744.

While at college he exhibited no specimens of that genius which his maturer years displayed. On the 27th of February, 1749, two years after the regular time, he obtained the degree of B. A. Soon after, he turned his thoughts to the profession of physic; and, after attending some courses of anatomy in Dublin, proceeded to Edinburgh, in the year 1751, where he studied the several branches of medicine under the different professors in that university. His beneficent disposition soon involved him in unexpected difficulties; and he was obliged precipitately to leave Scotland, in consequence of having engaged to pay a considerable sum of money for a fellow-student. A few days after, about the beginning of the year 1754, he arrived at Sunderland near Newcastle, where he was arrested at the suit of one Barclay, a tailor in Edinburgh, to whom he had given security for his friend. By the friendship of Mr Laughlin Maclane and Dr Sleigh, he was soon delivered out of the hands of the bailiff, and took his passage on board a Dutch ship to Rotterdam, whence, after a short stay, he proceeded to Brussels. He then visited great part of Flanders, and after passing some time at Strasburg and Louvain, where he obtained the degree of bachelor in physic, he accompanied an English gentleman to Geneva. Goldsmith made the greater part of his continental tour on foot. He had left England with very little money; but, possessing a body capable of sustaining any fatigue, and a heart not easily terrified by danger, he became an enthusiast to the design he had formed of seeing the manners of different countries. He had some knowledge of the French language, and of music, and he played tolerably well on the German flute, which, from amusement, became at times to him the means of subsistence. His learning produced him a hospitable reception at most of the religious houses that he visited, and his music made him welcome to the peasants of Flanders and Germany. "Whenever I approached a peasant's house towards nightfall," he used to say, "I played one of my most merry tunes, and that generally procured me not only a lodging, but subsistence for the next day; but, in truth"—his constant expression—"I must own, whenever I attempted to entertain persons of a

higher rank, they always thought my performance odious, and never made me any return for my endeavour to please them."

On his arrival at Geneva, he was recommended as a proper person for a travelling tutor to a young man who had been unexpectedly left a considerable sum of money by his uncle. This youth, who was articulated to an attorney, on receipt of his fortune determined to see the world; and, on his engaging with his preceptor, made a proviso that he should be permitted to govern himself; but our traveller soon found that his pupil understood the art of directing in money concerns extremely well, as avarice was his prevailing passion. During Goldsmith's continuance in Switzerland he assiduously cultivated his poetical talents, of the possession of which he had given some striking proofs at the college of Edinburgh. It was from hence he sent the first sketch of his delightful epistle called the 'Traveller,' to his brother Henry, a clergyman in Ireland, who, giving up fame and fortune, had retired with an amiable wife to happiness and obscurity, on an income of only £40 a-year. The great affection Goldsmith bore for his brother is beautifully expressed in the poem above-mentioned, and gives a striking picture of his situation :

" Remote, unfriended, melancholy, slow,
Or by the lazy Scheldt, or wandering Po ;
Or onward, where the rude Carinthian boor,
Against the houseless stranger shuts the door ;
Or where Campania's plain forsaken lies,
A weary waste expanding to the skies ;
Where'er I roam, whatever realms I see,
My heart untravel'd fondly turns to thee :
Still to my brother turns, with ceaseless pain,
And drags at each remove a length'ning chain.
Eternal blessings crown my earliest friend,
And round his dwelling guardian saints attend !
Blest be that spot, where cheerful guests retire
To pause from toil, and trim their evening fire ;
Blest that abode, where want and pain repair,
And every stranger finds a ready chair ;
Blest be those feasts with simple plenty crown'd,
Where all the ruddy family around,
Laugh at the jests or pranks that never fail,
Or sigh with pity at some mournful tale ;
Or press the bashful stranger to his food,
And learn the luxury of doing good !"

From Geneva, Goldsmith and his pupil proceeded to the south of France, where the young man, upon some disagreement with his preceptor, paid him the small part of his salary which was due, and embarked at Marseilles for England. Our wanderer was now left once more upon the world, and encountered a number of hardships in traversing the greater part of France. At length his curiosity being gratified, he bent his course towards England, and arrived at Dover in the beginning of the winter of 1758.

His finances were so low on his return to England, that he with difficulty got to the metropolis. On entering London, his whole stock of cash amounted to no more than a few halfpence! He applied to several apothecaries in hopes of being received in the capacity of a journeyman, but his broad Irish accent, and the uncouthness of his appearance, occasioned him to meet with insult from most of the medical

profession. The next day, however, a chemist near Fish-street, struck with his forlorn condition, and the simplicity of his manner, took him into his laboratory, where he continued till he discovered that his old friend, Dr Sleigh, was in London. That gentleman received him with the warmest affection, and liberally invited him to share his purse till some employment could be procured for him. Goldsmith, unwilling to be a burden to his friend, a short time after eagerly embraced an offer which was made him to assist Dr Milner in his academy at Peckham. He acquitted himself greatly to the doctor's satisfaction for a time; but having obtained some reputation by the criticisms he had written in the 'Monthly Review,' Mr Griffith, the principal proprietor, engaged him in the compilation of it; and, resolving to pursue the profession of writing, he returned to London as the mart where abilities of every kind were sure of meeting distinction and reward. At the close of the year 1759, he took lodgings in Green-arbour court in the Old Bailey, where he wrote several ingenious pieces. Newberry, at that time the great patron of men of literary abilities, took a fancy to our young author, and introduced him to the proprietors of the 'Public Ledger,' in which his 'Citizen of the World' originally appeared, under the title of 'Chinese Letters.' During this time he wrote for the 'British Magazine'—of which Dr Smollett was then editor—most of those essays and tales which he afterwards collected and published in a separate volume. He also wrote occasionally for the 'Critical Review.' It was the merit which he discovered in criticising a despicable translation of Ovid's *Fasti* by a pedantic schoolmaster, and his 'Enquiry into the Present State of Learning in Europe,' which first introduced him to the acquaintance of Dr Smollett.

Fortune now seemed to take some notice of a man she had long neglected. The simplicity of his character, the integrity of his heart, and the merit of his productions, made his company acceptable to a number of respectable persons; and, about the middle of the year 1762, he emerged from his mean apartments near the Old Bailey to the politer air of the Temple, where he took handsome lodgings and lived in a genteel style. The publication of his 'Traveller,' his 'Vicar of Wakefield,' and his 'History of England,' was followed by the performance of his comedy of 'The Good-natured Man,' at Covent-garden theatre. Our doctor, as he was universally called, had now a constant levee of his distressed countrymen gathered around him, whose wants, as far as he was able, he always relieved: he has often been known to leave himself without a guinea, in order to supply the necessities of others. Previous to the publication of his 'Deserted Village,' the bookseller had given him a note for one hundred guineas for the copy. The doctor mentioned this a few hours after to one of his friends, who observed it was a very great sum for so short a performance. "In truth," replied Goldsmith, "I think so too; it is much more than the honest man can afford, or the piece is worth. I have not been easy since I received it; I will therefore go back and return him his note." This he actually did, and left it entirely to the bookseller to pay him according to the profits of the poem, which turned out very considerable. The doctor, however, did not reap a profit from his poetical labours equal to those of his prose. The earl of Lisburne one day at a dinner of the royal academicians, lamented his neglecting the muses, and inquired or

him why he forsook poetry, in which he was sure of charming his readers, to compile histories and write novels? Goldsmith replied: "My lord, by courting the muses I shall starve; but, by my other labours, I eat, drink, have good clothes, and enjoy the luxuries of life."

During the last rehearsal of his comedy, entitled 'She Stoops to Conquer'—which Mr Colman thought would not succeed—on Goldsmith's objecting to the repetition of one of Tony Lumpkin's speeches, being apprehensive it might injure the play, the manager, with great keenness, replied: "Psha, my dear doctor, do not be fearful of squibs, when we have been sitting almost these two hours on a barrel of gunpowder!" The piece, however, contrary to Colman's expectation, was received with uncommon applause by the audience; and Goldsmith's pride was so hurt by the severity of the observation, that it entirely put an end to his acquaintance with the party who made it.

Notwithstanding the great success of his pieces—by some of which, it is asserted, upon good authority, that he cleared £1800 in one year—his circumstances were by no means in a prosperous situation, which might be partly owing to the liberality of his disposition, and partly to an unfortunate habit which he had contracted of gaming, with the arts of which he was very little acquainted, and consequently easily became the prey of those who were unprincipled enough to take advantage of his ignorance. Just before his death he had formed the design of executing a universal dictionary of arts and sciences, the prospectus of which he actually printed and distributed among his acquaintance. In this work several of his literary friends—particularly Sir Joshua Reynolds, Johnson, and Garrick—had promised to assist, and to furnish him with articles upon different subjects. He entertained the most sanguine expectations from the success of it. The undertaking, however, did not meet with that encouragement from the booksellers which he had imagined it would undoubtedly receive; and he used to lament this circumstance almost to the last hour of his existence. He had been for some years afflicted, at different times, with a violent strangury, which contributed not a little to embitter the latter part of his life; and which, united with the vexations he suffered upon other occasions, brought on a kind of habitual despondency. In this unhappy condition he was attacked by a nervous fever, which terminated in his dissolution, on the 4th day of April, 1774, in the forty-fifth year of his age.

His friends, who were very numerous and respectable, had determined to bury him in Westminster abbey; his pall was to have been supported by Lord Shelburne, Lord Louth, Sir Joshua Reynolds, the Hon. Mr Beauclerc, Mr Edmund Burke, and Mr Garrick; but from some unaccountable circumstances this design was dropped, and his remains were privately deposited in the Temple burial ground.

Goldsmith's character is strongly illustrated by Pope in one line: "In wit a man, simplicity a child." The learned leisure he loved to enjoy was too often interrupted by distresses which arose from the openness of his temper, and which sometimes threw him into loud fits of passion; but this impetuosity was corrected upon a moment's reflection, and his servants have been known upon these occasions purposely to throw themselves in his way, that they might profit by it immediately after; for he who had the good fortune to have been reproved was sure of being rewarded for it when the fit of penitence came on. His dis-

appointments at other times made him peevish and sullen, and he has often left a party of convivial friends abruptly in the evening, in order to go home and brood over his misfortunes. As a poet, he was a studious and correct observer of nature, happy in the selections of his images, in the choice of his subjects, and in the harmony of his versification; and, though his embarrassed situation often prevented him from putting the last hand to many of his productions, his 'Hermit,' his 'Traveller,' and his 'Deserted Village,' bid fair to claim a place among the most finished pieces in the English language. The last work of this ingenious author was 'A History of the Earth and Animated Nature,' in eight vols. 8vo, for which production his bookseller paid him £850. The doctor seems to have considered attentively the works of several authors who have wrote on this subject. If there should not be a great deal of discovery or new matter, yet a judicious selection from abundant materials is no small praise; and if the experiments and discoveries of other writers are laid open in an agreeable dress, so pleasing as to allure the young reader into a pursuit of this sort of knowledge, we owe no small obligations to the writer. Our author professes to have had a taste rather classical than scientific, and it was in the study of the classics that he first caught the desire of attaining a knowledge of nature. Pliny first inspired him, and he resolved to translate that agreeable writer, and by the help of a commentary to make his translation acceptable to the public. The appearance of Buffon's work, however, induced the doctor to change his plan, and instead of translating an ancient writer, he resolved to imitate the last and best of the modern, who had written on natural history. The result was one of the most popular if not most scientific works on this branch of science.

Boswell, in his life of Johnson, has given us a vivid sketch of Goldsmith: "No man," says he, "had the art of displaying with more advantage as a writer whatever literary acquisitions he made. 'Nihil quod tetigit non ornavit.' His mind resembled a fertile but thin soil. There was a quick, but not a strong vegetation, of whatever chanced to be thrown upon it. No deep root could be struck. The oak of the forest did not grow there; but the elegant shrubbery and the fragrant parterre appeared in gay succession. It has been generally circulated and believed that he was a mere fool in conversation; but in truth, this has been greatly exaggerated. He had, no doubt, a more than common share of that hurry of ideas which we often find in his countrymen, and which sometimes produces a laughable confusion in expressing them. He was very much what the French call *un etourdi*, and from vanity and an eager desire of being conspicuous wherever he was, he frequently talked carelessly, without knowledge of the subject, or even without thought. His person was short, his countenance coarse and vulgar, his deportment that of a scholar awkwardly affecting the easy gentleman. Those who were in any way distinguished, excited envy in him to so ridiculous an excess, that the instances of it are hardly credible. When accompanying two beautiful young ladies with their mother on a tour in France, he was seriously angry that more attention was paid to them than to him; and once at the exhibition of the Fantoccini in London, when those who sat next him observed with what dexterity a puppet was made to toss a pike, he could not bear that it should have such praise, and exclaimed, with some warmth, 'Pshaw! I can do it better

myself.' He, I am afraid, had no settled system of any sort, so that his conduct must not be strictly scrutinized; but his affections were social and generous, and when he had money he gave it away very liberally. His desire of imaginary consequence predominated over his attention to truth. When he began to rise into notice, he said he had a brother who was dean of Durham, a fiction so easily detected that it was wonderful how he should have been so inconsiderate as to hazard it. He boasted to me at this time of the power of his pen in commanding money, which I believe was true in a certain degree, though in the instance he gave he was by no means correct. He told me that he had sold a novel for four hundred pounds. This was his 'Vicar of Wakefield.' But Johnson informed me that he had made the bargain for Goldsmith, and the price was sixty pounds. 'And, Sir,' said he, 'a sufficient price too, when it was sold; for then the fame of Goldsmith had not been elevated, as it afterwards was, by his "Traveller;" and the bookseller had such faint hopes of profit by his bargain, that he kept the manuscript by him a long time, and did not publish it till after the "Traveller" had appeared. Then, to be sure, it was accidentally worth more money.'

Benjamin Cooke.

BORN A. D. 1730.—DIED A. D. 1793.

THIS composer was educated by Dr Pepusch, under whom his progress was so rapid, that, at twelve, he was competent to the duty of deputy-organist of Westminster abbey. On the decease of Dr Pepusch, in 1752, he became conductor of the Academy of Ancient Music, a post he continued to hold for thirty-seven years. In the same year, he succeeded Bernard Gates, as lay clerk, and master of the boys at Westminster abbey; and in 1762, he was appointed organist. In 1775, he proceeded to the degree of doctor of music, at Cambridge, where he performed, as an exercise, his anthem, 'Behold, how good and joyfully!' In 1782, he was elected organist of St Martin's-in-the-Fields. He died on the 14th of September. His private character was extremely amiable, and he is described by Miss Hawkins, daughter of Sir John, as one of the worthiest and best-tempered men that ever existed. Dr Cooke's compositions—which were chiefly written for the Academy of Ancient Music, and the Catch Club—are characterized by correctness. His chief printed works are, two books of canons, glees, rondos, and duets; 'Milton's Morning Hymn,' and 'Collins's Ode on the Passions.' Amongst the most popular of his secular productions, are 'Thyrsis,' 'When he left me;' and, 'Let Rubinelli charm the Ear;' his chorus, 'I have been Young;' and his glees, 'Hark, hark, the Lark,' 'As the Shades of Eve,' 'How Sleep the Brave,' and, 'In the Merry month of May.'

Jeremiah Markland.

BORN A. D. 1693.—DIED A. D. 1776.

THIS learned and acute critic was son of Ralph Markland, vicar of Childwall, in Lancashire. He was admitted of Christ's hospital, London, in 1704, whence, in 1710, he was sent to the university of Cambridge. In 1717 he was chosen a fellow of St Peter's.

The first publication which introduced him to the notice of the learned world was his 'Epistola critica ad eruditissimum virum F. Hare, in qua Horatii loca aliquot et aliorum veterum emendantur,' Cantab. 1723, 8vo. In 1728 he edited an edition of the 'Sylvæ' of Statius, in which he greatly restored the integrity of the text, and exhibited uncommon felicity of judgment and conjecture. In 1745 he published 'Remarks on the Epistles of Cicero and Brutus,' in which he attempted to prove that these remains were not genuine; he likewise extended his scepticism to some of the orations ascribed to Cicero, which he characterized as "silly and barbarous stuff." Markland was, in this discussion, aided by Tunstall; and opposed by Middleton, and Ross afterwards bishop of Exeter.

About the year 1752 Markland retired into private life, selecting for his retreat the hamlet of Milton, near Dorking in Surrey. In this retirement he edited, by piecemeal, the plays of Euripides, but it was not without much difficulty that his friends prevailed on him to lay his valuable annotations before the public. He died in 1776.

Markland was a truly profound scholar; but his timid and shrinking disposition deprived the world of much of the fruits of his unwearied industry, fine taste, and extensive acquaintance with the stores of classical antiquity. He was a man of high moral integrity and independence of character.

Samuel Foote.

BORN A. D. 1720.—DIED A. D. 1777.

SAMUEL FOOTE, the modern Aristophanes, was born at Truro in Cornwall. He was descended from a very ancient family. His father was member of parliament for Tiverton in Devonshire, and enjoyed the post of commissioner of the prize-office. His mother was heiress of the Dinely and Goodhere families. He was educated at Worcester college, Oxford. "The church belonging to the college fronted the side of a lane, into which cattle were sometimes turned during the night, and from the steeple hung the bell-rope very low in the middle of the outside porch. Foote, one night, slyly tied a wisp of hay to the rope as a bait for the cows, and one of them, after smelling the hay, instantly seized on it, and tugging, made the bell ring, to the astonishment of the whole parish. This trick was several times repeated. Such a phenomenon must be investigated for the honour of Oxford and philosophy, and accordingly the provost with the sexton agreed to sit up one night,

and on the first alarm to run out and drag the culprit to punishment. They waited in the church shuddering for the signal: at last the bell began to toll—forth they sallied in the dark. The sexton was the first in the attack: he cried out ‘It is a gentleman commoner, for I have him by the gown.’ The doctor, who at the same moment caught the cow by the horn, replied, ‘No, no, you blockhead, ’tis the postman, and here I have hold of him by his horn.’ Lights, however, being brought, the true character of the offender was discovered, and the laugh of the town was turned upon Doctor Gower. When Foote was enjoined to learn certain tasks in consequence of his idleness, he used to come with a large folio dictionary under his arm, and repeat his lessons, and then the doctor would give him several wholesome lectures on the dangers of idleness. In this lecture he usually made use of many hard words and quaint phrases, at which the other would immediately interrupt him, and after begging pardon with great formality, would take the dictionary from under his arm, and affect to search up the word, would then pretend he had found it, and say, ‘Very well, Sir; now please to go on.’¹ On leaving the university he commenced student of law in the Temple; but as the dryness of this study did not suit the liveliness of his genius, he soon relinquished it.

In 1741 he married a young lady of good family and some fortune; but their tempers not agreeing, harmony did not long subsist between them. He now launched into all the fashionable foibles of the age, gaming not excepted, and in a few years spent his whole fortune. His necessities at last drove him on the stage, and he made his first appearance at the Haymarket, on the 6th of February, 1744, in the character of Othello. He attempted Lord Foppington likewise, but prudently gave it up. The fact is, Foote never was a good actor in the plays of others. In 1747 he opened a little theatre in the Haymarket, and appeared in a dramatic piece of his own composing, called ‘The Diversions of the Morning.’ This piece consisted of nothing more than the exhibition of several characters well-known in real life, whose style of conversation and expressions Foote very happily hit off in the diction of his drama, and still more happily represented on the stage. This performance at first met with some opposition from the magistrates of Westminster, under the sanction of the act of parliament for limiting the number of playhouses, as well as from the jealousy of the managers of Drury Lane playhouse; but the author being patronized by many of the principal nobility, and other persons of distinction, this opposition was overruled. Having altered the title of his performance, Foote proceeded without further molestation to give ‘Tea in a Morning’ to his friends, and represented it through a run of forty mornings to crowded and splendid audiences.

“This entertainment,” says Galt, “resembled in many respects the kind of monologues which have been so much the delight of our own age by the admirable tact and humour of Mathews. Foote at the time and during his whole life had the peculiar zest of personal mimicry, but Mathews has gone a step farther, by performing alone different imaginary characters in the same manner that Foote imitated the peculiarities of well-known persons. The success of Foote in this novel species of

¹ Galt’s ‘Lives of the Players.’

entertainment excited the jealousy of the great theatres; complaints were made as if he had really immorally violated the law; constables were employed to dismiss his audience, and for a time his career was arrested. But as Mathews holds his 'at Homes,' Foote invited the public 'to Tea,' and his invitation was accepted with avidity. The conception of this entertainment did credit to his eccentric taste and talent. While the audience were sitting wondering what it would be, the manager came forward, and after making his bow, acquainted them 'That as he was training some young performers for the stage, he would, with their permission, whilst tea was getting ready, proceed with his instructions before them;' and he then commenced a series of ludicrous imitations of the players, who, one and all, became exceedingly exasperated against him, but their anger only served to make him more visited. Few amusements were ever so popular."

The ensuing season he produced another piece of the same kind, which he called 'The Auction of Pictures.' This piece also had a very great run. His 'Knights,' the produce of the ensuing season, was a performance of somewhat more dramatic regularity; but still, although his plot and characters seemed less immediately personal, it was apparent that he kept some real characters strongly in his eye in the performance; and the town took upon themselves to fix them where the resemblance appeared to be the most striking.

Foote's dramatic pieces, exclusive of the interlude called 'Piety in Pattens,' are as follow: 'Taste,' 'The Knights,' 'The Author,' 'The Englishman in Paris,' 'The Englishman returned from Paris,' 'The Mayor of Garrat,' 'The Liar,' 'The Patron,' 'The Minor,' 'The Orators,' 'The Commissary,' 'The Devil upon Two Sticks,' 'The Lame Lover,' 'The Maid of Bath,' 'The Nabob,' 'The Cozeners,' 'The Capuchin,' 'The Bankrupt,' and an unfinished comedy called 'The Slanderer.' All these works are only to be ranked among the *petite pieces* of the theatre. In their execution they are loose, negligent, and unfinished; the plots are often irregular, and the catastrophes not always conclusive; but, with all these deficiencies, they contain more character, more strokes of keen satire, and more touches of temporary humour, than are to be found in the writings of any modern dramatist, with the exception of Sheridan.

Foote, finding his health decline, entered into an agreement with Colman for his patent of the Haymarket theatre, according to which he was to receive from Colman £1600 per annum, besides a stipulated sum whenever he chose to perform. After this he made his appearance two or three times in some of the most admired characters; but being suddenly affected with a paralytic stroke one night whilst upon the stage, he was compelled to retire. He was advised to bathe; and accordingly repaired to Brighton, where he apparently recovered his former health and spirits, and was what is called 'the fiddle of the company' who resort to that agreeable place of amusement. A few weeks before his death he returned to London; but, by the advice of his physicians, set out with the intention to spend the winter at Paris and in the south of France. He got no farther than Dover, when he was suddenly attacked by another stroke of the palsy which in a few hours terminated his existence. He died on the 21st of October, 1777, in the 56th year of

his age; and was privately interred in the cloisters of Westminster abbey.

Johnson said of Foote: "He is not a good mimic; but he has art, a fertility and variety of images, and is not deficient in reading. He has knowledge enough to fill up his part: then he has great range for his wit; he never lets truth stand between him and a jest: and he is sometimes mighty coarse." It being observed to him that Foote had a singular talent of exhibiting character, the doctor replied: "No, Sir; it is not a talent, it is a vice: it is what others abstain from." At another time, Dr Johnson, in speaking of his abilities, said, "I don't think Foote a good mimic. His imitations are not like: he gives you something different from himself, without going into other people. He cannot take off any person, except he is strongly marked. He is like a painter who can draw the portrait of a man who has a wen upon his face, and who, therefore, is easily known. If a man hops upon one leg, Foote can hop upon one leg; but he has not a nice discrimination of character. He is, however, upon the whole, very entertaining, with a particular species of conversation, between art and buffoonery. I am afraid, however, Foote has no principle. He is at times neither governed by good manners nor discretion, and very little by affection. But for a broad laugh—and here the doctor would himself gruffly smile at the recollection of it—I must confess the scoundrel has no fellow." "The first time," said the doctor on another occasion, "I ever was in company with Foote, I was resolved not to be pleased—and it is very difficult to please a man against his will. I went on eating my dinner pretty sullenly, affecting for a long time not to mind him; but the dog was so very comical that I was obliged to lay down my knife and fork, throw myself back on my chair, and fairly laugh it out with the rest. there was no avoiding it—the fellow was irresistible."

Thomas Arne.

BORN A. D. 1710.—DIED A. D. 1778.

THOMAS AUGUSTINE ARNE, a celebrated musical composer, was born on the 28th of May, 1710. He was the son of Thomas Arne, upholsterer, Covent Garden, the person supposed to be depicted by Addison, in his well-known character of the Politician, in Nos. 155 and 160 of the *Tatler*. He was educated at Eton, and originally designed for a legal profession; but his passionate love of music ultimately induced his father to consent to his following it professionally.

Under the tuition of Festing, an eminent violin performer, he soon rivalled the skill of his master, and recommended himself to the notice and favour of Farinelli, Senesino, Geminiani, and the other great Italian musicians of the day. His first regular engagement as a public performer was that of leader of the band at Drury Lane, and his first public essay as a composer was the opera of 'Rosamond,' which was brought out in March 1733, and met with considerable success. In 1738 he produced music for Milton's masque of 'Comus.' "In this masque," says Dr Burney, "he introduced a light, airy, original, and pleasing

melody, wholly different from Purcell and Handel, whom all English composers had hitherto pillaged or imitated. Indeed the melody of Arne at this time, and of his Vauxhall songs afterwards, forms an era in English music; it was so easy, natural, and agreeable to the whole kingdom, that it had an effect upon our national taste." Somewhat before this period he married Miss Cecilia Young, a favourite singer and pupil of Geminiani. In 1740 he set Mallet's masque of 'Alfred,' which was presented on the 1st of August, 1740, in Clifden Gardens, before the prince and princess of Wales. It was in this piece that the well-known song 'Rule Britannia,' still one of the most popular of all our political lyrics, was first introduced. To these pieces succeeded the operas of 'Eliza' and 'Artaxerxes,'—the masque of 'Britannia,'—the oratorios of the 'Death of Abel,' 'Judith,' and 'Beauty and Virtue,'—the musical entertainments of 'Thomas and Sally,' the 'Prince of the Fairies,'—the songs in 'As You Like It,' 'The Merchant of Venice,' 'The Arcadian Nuptials,' 'King Arthur,' 'The Guardian Outwitted,' and 'The Rose;' besides a set of harpsichord concertos, innumerable cantatas, songs, catches, and glees, and the two great productions with which he closed his ingenious labours, 'Caractacus' and 'Elfrida.'

The degree of doctor of music was conferred on Arne by the university of Oxford, on the 6th of July, 1759. He died on the 5th of March, 1778, in the 68th year of his age.

His musical character is thus summed up by Dr Burney: "Upon the whole, though this composer had formed a new style of his own, there did not appear that fertility of ideas, original grandeur of thought, or those resources upon all occasions which are discoverable in the works of his predecessor Purcell, both for the church and the stage; yet, in secular music, he must be allowed to have surpassed him in ease, grace, and variety; which is no inconsiderable praise, when it is remembered, that, from the death of Purcell to that of Arne—a period of more than fourscore years—no candidate for musical fame among our countrymen had appeared who was equally admired by the nation at large." Arne professed the Roman Catholic faith, but led a dissipated life, which often betrayed itself in the vulgar personages which occur in his operas.

William Boyce.

BORN A. D. 1710.—DIED A. D. 1779.

THIS eminent musician, chapel-master and organist to George II. and George III., was born in London in 1710. He was distinguished for early musical abilities. In 1734 he was elected organist of Oxford chapel. Among his earliest acknowledged pieces are 'David's Lamentation over Saul and Jonathan,' and his serenata of 'Solomon.' His twelve sonatas, or trios, for two violins and a bass, were reckoned almost equal to those of Corelli. In 1749 he set Mason's ode, composed for the installation of the duke of Newcastle at Cambridge. The university on this occasion conferred on him the degree of doctor in music. His musical drama of the 'Chaplet' was his next piece, and proved very successful. Some of his occasional songs for the Vauxhall

and Ranelagh entertainments were also very popular. On the decease of Greene, in 1757, Boyce was appointed master of the king's band; and, in 1758, on the death of Travers, organist of the chapel-royal. With the assistance of Hayes, he published the compositions in score for the English service by the several English masters of the preceding two centuries, in three vols. folio. His taste and skill in ecclesiastical music were acknowledged by all his contemporaries. His style is simple, powerful, and original. Dr Boyce died in February, 1779, and was interred in St Paul's.

John Langhorne.

BORN A. D. 1735.—DIED A. D. 1779.

THIS pleasing and amiable writer was born at Kirkby-Steven, in Westmoreland. His father was a beneficed clergyman, but died when his son was only four years of age, leaving the superintendence of his education to his mother, who fulfilled her task in a manner which drew the warmest acknowledgments of gratitude from her son in his maturer years.

Young Langhorne's first employment was that of private tutor. He subsequently took orders, and obtained the curacy and lectureship of St John's, Clerkenwell, London. His first publication was a poetical piece, entitled 'Studley Park,' which he appears to have thought unworthy of his genius in after years, for it is omitted in the editions of his poems published under his own superintendence. His 'Letters on Religious Retirement' appeared in 1761; and, in 1763, he published the 'Letters of Theodosius and Constantia,' the idea of which was suggested to him by a well-known tale in the Spectator. Bishop Warburton approved of these attempts to invest religion with the garb of fiction, and seems to have patronized our author. Bishop Hurd also procured him the appointment of assistant-preacher at Lincoln's-inn. His poem, entitled 'Genius and Valour,' was written as a set-off against Churchill's attack on the Scottish character, in his 'Prophecy of Famine.' It was well-received, especially in Scotland, and procured for its author the diploma of D. D. from the university of Edinburgh.

In 1770, the subject of this article, in conjunction with his brother William, minister of Folkstone, in Kent, published a well-executed translation of Plutarch's Lives. In 1776, he translated Milton's Italian Sonnets. He died on the 1st of April, 1779. Besides the works we have mentioned, Langhorne was the author of several minor pieces both in prose and poetry. He was also a contributor to one or two of the periodicals of the day. He is an elegant, but rather feeble writer.

David Garrick.

BORN A. D. 1716.—DIED A. D. 1779.

THIS unrivalled actor was of French extraction, his family having fled from that country to England on the revocation of the edict of

Nantes, in 1685. Peter Garrick, the father of our subject, held a captain's commission in the British army, and was on a recruiting party at Hereford, when his son David was born in the Angel inn of that town. At ten years of age, young Garrick entered the grammar-school in Lichfield, and soon after he began to manifest that genius for dramatical representations which afterwards raised him to the first rank in the histrionic corps. When little more than eleven years of age, he persuaded some of his young companions to join him in acting, before a select audience, 'The Recruiting Officer.' He prevailed on one of his sisters to play the part of the chambermaid; Sergeant Kite, a character of busy intrigue and bold humour, he chose for himself. The ease, vivacity, and humour of the infant Kite, were long remembered at Lichfield. This first attempt of our English Roscius was in 1727.

Not long after this he was invited to Lisbon by an uncle, a considerable wine-merchant in that city; but his stay there was very short, for he returned to Lichfield the year following. Probably the gay disposition of the young man was not altogether suitable to the old man's temper: however, during his short stay at Lisbon, Garrick made himself agreeable to all who knew him, particularly to the English merchants who resided there, and with whom he often dined. After dinner they frequently diverted themselves by placing him upon the table, and calling upon him to repeat verses and speeches from plays, which he did with great readiness, and much to the gratification of his hearers.

"It happened," says Galt, "that in the year 1735 the celebrated Dr Samuel Johnson, a native also of Lichfield, formed a design to open an academy for classical education, and Garrick, at that time turned of eighteen, was consigned to his charge, along with seven or eight other lads, to complete his education. Garrick is said to have commenced his pupilage with earnestness, and to have applied to the classics with a promise of good success: but Johnson grew tired of his undertaking, the employment ill accorded with his reflective genius, and the servile task of inculcating the arid rules of grammar sickened him to disgust. Having struggled with his circumstances for about a year, he resolved to abandon the profession. Garrick, whose activity was becoming adventurous, grew weary of the listlessness of a country town. He longed for a brighter and a busier scene; and having communicated his longings and aspirations to Johnson, he found him animated with congenial sentiments, and they resolved together on an expedition to the metropolis." In March, 1736-7, the two came up to town in company. Soon after his arrival in London, Garrick entered himself of Lincoln's-inn, and also put himself under the tuition of Mr Colson, an eminent mathematician at Rochester; but nothing could divert his thoughts from those pursuits to which his genius so powerfully prompted him. He had a small sum left him by his uncle at Lisbon, and engaged for a short time in the wine trade, in partnership with his brother, Peter Garrick; but the union between the brothers was of brief continuance. Peter was calm, sedate, and methodical; David was gay, volatile, impetuous. To prevent fruitless and daily altercation, by the interposition of friends the partnership was amicably dissolved.

Garrick now prepared himself in earnest for that employment which he so ardently loved, and in which nature designed he should eminently excel. He spent much time in the company of the most eminent actors;

got himself introduced to the managers of the theatre; and tried his talent in the recitation of some particular and favourite portions of plays. Now and then he indulged himself in the practice of mimicry,—a talent which, however dangerous, is never willingly resigned by him who excels in it. Sometimes he wrote criticisms on the action and elocution of the players, and published them in the journals of the day. “At this period,” says Galt, “the stage was in a low condition, and the actors were persons of a humble order of life. In tragedy, declamation roared in a stentorian strain; passion was rant, whining grief, vociferation terror, and drawing the gentle accents and soft solicitations of love; the whole character of the drama partook of the same unnatural extravagance. Comedy was a mingled tissue of farce and buffoonery, and tragedy was divorced from Nature. It is true that Macklin was a discriminating performer, and Quin without doubt an actor of great merit, but still the drama was generally sunk to a low ebb; and the players ascribed, as in later times, the coarseness of their own performances to the corrupted taste of the age; as if corruption were a voluntary vice, and not the gradual effect of mediocre endowment.”

Garrick's diffidence, however, or perhaps the high standard of excellence he had fixed for himself, withheld him from trying his strength at first upon a London theatre. He thought the hazard too great, and embraced the advantage of spending his noviciate with a company of players then about to set out for Ipswich, under the direction of William Giffard and Dunstall, in the summer of 1741. His first effort in public was as Aboan in the play of ‘Oroonoko,’ a part in which his features could not be easily discerned. Under the disguise of a blackened countenance, he hoped to escape being known, should it be his misfortune not to please. Though Aboan is not a first-rate conception, yet the scenes of pathetic persuasion and affecting distress in which that character is involved, will always command the attention of the audience when represented by a judicious actor; and our young player's success was equal to his most sanguine desires. Under the assumed name of Lyddal, he not only acted a variety of characters in plays, particularly Charmont in the ‘Orphan,’ Captain Brazen in ‘The Recruiting Officer,’ and Sir Harry Wildair, but likewise attempted the active feats of the harlequin. In every essay he succeeded in winning the plaudits of his audience.

His first appearance as an actor in London was on the 19th of October, 1741, when he performed the part of Richard III. at the playhouse in Goodman's-fields, for five pounds a-week. His easy and familiar, yet forcible style, in speaking and acting, at first threw the critics into some hesitation concerning the novelty as well as propriety of his manner. They had been long accustomed to an elevation of the voice, with a sudden mechanical depression of its tones, calculated to excite admiration and entrap applause. To a just modulation of words and natural action they had been strangers, at least for some time; but after Garrick had gone through a variety of scenes, in which he gave evident proofs of consummate art and perfect knowledge of character, their doubts were resolved into astonishment and delight. They were more especially charmed when the actor, after having thrown aside the hypocrite and politician, assumed the warrior and the hero. When news was

brought to Richard that the duke of Buckingham was taken, Garrick's look and action, as he pronounced the words—

———"Off with his head!
So much for Buckingham!"

were so powerful, that loud shouts of approbation proclaimed the triumph of the actor and full satisfaction of the audience. The death-scene of Richard always drew forth the loudest gratulations of applause. The same play was acted six or seven times successively. The receipts of the treasury amounted, however, in seven nights, to no more than £216 7s. 6d., and this conveys a certain evidence of what use the kindness, as well as judgment of the manager, is to the growing fame of an actor. Giffard, to a good understanding, joined a sense of honour with great humanity: he saw Garrick's merit, and did all in his power to support it.

Such was the universal approbation which followed our young actor, that the established theatres of Drury Lane and Covent Garden, which had at first rejected his application for employment, became deserted. Garrick drew after him the whole fashionable world; Goodman's Fields was full of the splendour of St James's and Grosvenor-square; and the coaches of the nobility filled up the space from Temple-bar to White-chapel. Pope was persuaded by Lord Orrery to see him in the first flash of his fame. That great man, who had often seen and admired Betterton, was at once struck and charmed with the propriety and beauty of Garrick's action, and told Lord Orrery that he was afraid the young man would be spoiled, for he would have no competitor.

Quin, who had hitherto been esteemed the first actor in tragedy, could not conceal his uneasiness at Garrick's success. After he had been a spectator of his manner in some important character—we believe, Richard the Third—he declared, pettishly, that if the young fellow was right, he and the rest of the players had been all wrong; and upon being told that Goodman's Fields' theatre was crowded every night to see the new actor, he said, "Garrick is a new religion; Whitefield has been followed for a time; but they will all come to church again." Garrick had a quick and happy talent in turning an epigram, and revenged himself on Quin by these lines:

"Pope Quin, who damns all churches but his own,
Complains that heresy infects the town;
That Whitefield-Garrick has misled the age,
And taints the sound religion of the stage;
'Schism,' he cries, 'has turned the nation's brain,
But eyes will open, and to church again!'
Thou Great Infallible, forbear to roar;
Thy bulls and errors are rever'd no more.
When doctrines meet with general approbation,
It is no heresy, but reformation."

Colley Cibber, from whom more candour might have been expected, after he had seen Garrick's Bayes, which the public esteemed a masterpiece of comic humour, said, "Garrick was well enough, but not superior to his own son Theophilus." Mrs Bracegirdle, a celebrated actress, who had left the stage for more than thirty years before Garrick's first appearance, but was still visited by many persons of distinction and taste, thought very differently of this rising genius. In a conversation which she had with Colley Cibber, who spoke of him with an affected

derogation, she reproved his malignity, and generously said, "Come, come, Cibber, tell me if there is not something like envy in your character of this gentleman; the actor who pleases every body must be a man of merit." The old man felt the force of this sensible rebuke; he took a pinch of snuff, and frankly replied, "Why, faith, Bracy, I believe you are right, the young fellow is clever!"

Garrick's weekly income was, at first, very moderate—not exceeding six or seven pounds; but when it became evident that the receipts of the treasury depended chiefly, if not entirely, on his labours, Giffard allowed him a full moiety of the profits, and Garrick exerted himself with new zeal. To a very long and fatiguing character in the play, he would frequently add another in a farce. The distresses which he raised in the audience by his *Lear* and *Richard*, he relieved with the roguish tricks of the 'Lying Valet,' or the diverting humours of 'The Schoolboy.'

In 1742, he entered into a stated agreement with Fleetwood, patentee of Drury Lane, for the annual income of £500. His fame continued to increase at the royal theatre, and soon became so extended, that a deputation was sent from Ireland to invite him to act in Dublin upon very profitable conditions. His success in the Irish capital exceeded all imagination: he was caressed by all ranks of people as a prodigy of theatrical accomplishment, and during the hottest days in the year the playhouse was crowded with persons of fashion and rank. The excessive heat became at last prejudicial to the frequenters of the theatre; and an epidemical distemper, which seized and carried off great numbers, was nick-named the 'Garrick fever.' The season of 1744-5 was that in which Garrick reached the summit of his profession, though he had not then gathered all his glory. He was the *Lear*, the *Richard*, the *Hamlet*, and the *Macbeth* of Shakspeare, or as nearly so as art can approach to nature; but he had also a strong predilection for comedy, and in this season he extended his walk in that line.

In 1744, Garrick made a second voyage to Dublin, and became joint-manager of the theatre there with Sheridan. They met with great success; and Garrick returned again to London in May, 1746, having considerably added to his funds. In the winter of 1746, Garrick and Quin played together at Covent Garden. In 1747, he became joint-patentee of Drury Lane theatre with Mr Lacy. Garrick and Lacy divided the business of the theatre in such a manner as not to encroach upon each other's province. Lacy took upon himself the care of the wardrobe, the scenes, and the economy of the household; while Garrick regulated the more important business of treating with authors, hiring actors, distributing parts in plays, superintending of rehearsals, &c. Besides the profits accruing from his half share, he was allowed an income of £500 for his acting, and some particular emoluments for altering plays, farces, &c. When he opened Drury Lane theatre in 1747, Garrick spoke the well-known and admirable prologue, written for the occasion by his old friend Samuel Johnson.

In 1749, Garrick married Mademoiselle Violetti,—a young lady, who, Davies says, to great elegance of form, and many polite accomplishments, joined the more amiable virtues of the mind. In 1763, 1764, and 1765, he made a journey in France and Italy, accompanied by Mrs Garrick, who, from the day of her marriage till the death of

her husband, was never separated from him. During his stay abroad, his company was courted by many foreigners of high birth and great merit. An Italian prince requested that he would favour him with some very striking or affecting scene in one of the most admired English tragedies; Garrick immediately recited the soliloquy of Macbeth, which is spoken during the instant of time when a dagger is presented to his disturbed imagination. His ardent look, expressive tone, and impassioned action, quite overcame the prince, though almost ignorant of the language employed by the consummate tragedian.

On the death of Lacy, joint-patentee of Drury Lane in 1773, the whole management of the theatre devolved on Garrick; but, in 1776, he sold his share of the patent, and formed a resolution of quitting the stage. He was, however, determined, before he left the theatre, to give the public proofs of his abilities, to delight them as highly as he had ever done in the flower and vigour of his life. To this end, about a fortnight or three weeks previous to his taking his final leave, he presented them with some of the most capital and trying characters of Shakspeare,—with Hamlet, Richard, and Lear, and some other parts which were less fatiguing. Hamlet and Lear were repeated; Richard he acted only once, and by the king's command. He finished his dramatic career with one of his favourite parts, Felix, in 'The Wonder, or a Woman Keeps a Secret.' When the play was ended, Garrick briefly addressed the audience with much visible emotion. He then retired, amidst the tears and acclamations of a crowded and brilliant assembly.

Garrick, when disengaged from business, often attended the debates of the house of commons, especially on such important questions as he knew would bring up all the best speakers of both parties. In the spring of 1777, he happened to be present in the gallery when an altercation occurred between a right honourable member and another honourable gentleman, which proceeded to that degree of warmth that the speaker and the house were obliged to interpose. Whilst the house was in this agitation, a Shropshire member happened to observe Garrick in the gallery, and moved to clear the house. Whereupon Burke rose, and appealed to the honourable assembly, whether it could possibly be consistent with decency and liberality "to exclude from the hearing of their debates a man to whom they were all obliged, one who was the great master of eloquence, in whose school they had all imbibed the art of speaking, and been taught the elements of rhetoric?" He was warmly seconded by Fox and Townshend, both of whom enlarged on the merits of their old preceptor as they termed him, and reprobated the motion of the gentleman with great warmth and indignation. The house almost unanimously concurred in exempting Mr Garrick from the general order to quit the gallery.

In Christmas 1778, Mr and Mrs Garrick were invited to the country-seat of Earl Spencer, where they had frequently been welcome guests. In the midst of much social happiness, Garrick was seized with that illness which carried him off in a few weeks. He died on the 20th of January, 1779. Garrick's disease was pronounced by Mr Pott to be a palsy in the kidneys. On Monday, the 1st of February, the body of Mr Garrick was conveyed from his own house in the Adelphi, and magnificently interred in Westminster Abbey, under the monument of

his beloved Shakspeare. His remains were attended to the grave by persons of the first rank.

"Mr Garrick," says Galt, "was small in stature, but handsomely formed, and his deportment was graceful, easy, and engaging. His complexion was dark, but his countenance was enlivened with black eyes, of singular brilliancy. His voice was distinct, melodious, and commanding, and possessed an inexhaustible compass, or rather seemed to do so, for he managed it with such appropriate discretion that it was never heard pitched beyond his power. It would be unfair towards the character of this great artist, to say that he was never excelled. In some parts others have surpassed him, but all his contemporaries agree that he beggared competition in those characters for which he was most celebrated; and that he never performed any part without impressing his audience with admiration. In every department of the drama he did not exceed all his rivals; but there were characters in which he had none, and in which he gave the passion with the fidelity of nature, and the regularity and beauty of consummate art. His talents as an author were not of the first class; but he possessed, in many of his compositions, an ease and grace of no ordinary kind; and had he not been the glory of the stage, he would have in consequence commanded the respect of posterity for the magnitude and variety of his works as an author, in which capacity, however, he has been praised too much."

Mr Davies says that "Garrick's manner of living was splendid, though somewhat below his income, as became a prudent man. By some he was said to be parsimonious, nay, avaricious; others gave out that he made too great and ostentatious a parade of magnificence, unbecoming the condition of a player. To those who knew the sums he constantly gave away, it would appear that his sole end in acquiring wealth was the benefit of others. I shall not talk of his more public charities and contributions; I mean such actions only as were less known to the world; his benevolence was uniform,—not a sudden start of humour proceeding from whim and caprice, or like scanty streams from a small rivulet; no, his bounty resembled a large, noble, and flowing river,

' That glorified the banks which bound it in.'

It was a very honourable circumstance in his life, that, in the very dawnings of success, when he first tasted of Fortune's favours, and had acquired a very moderate portion of riches, he opened his hand to those who solicited his kindness, and was ready to assist all who applied to him." He was very intimate with an eminent surgeon, a very amiable man, who often dined and supped with Mr and Mrs Garrick. One day after dinner the gentleman declared that his affairs were in such a situation, that, without the assistance of a friend, who would lend him a thousand pounds, he should be at a loss what to do. "A thousand pounds!" said Garrick, "that is a large sum! Well, now, pray what security can you give for that money?" "Upon my word," replied the surgeon, "no other than my own!" "Here's a pretty fellow!" cried Garrick, turning to his wife, "He wants a thousand pounds, and upon his own security! Well, come, I'll tell you one thing for your comfort; I know a man that at my desire will lend you a thousand pounds." He immediately drew upon his banker for that sum, and gave the draft to his friend.

Thomas Gray.

BORN A. D. 1716.—DIED A. D. 1771.

THIS eminent poet was born in Cornhill, London, on the 26th of December, 1716. His grandfather was a considerable merchant; but his father, though he also followed business, is stated to have been of an indolent and reserved temper, so that he rather diminished than increased his paternal fortune. Young Gray received his grammatical education at Eton, under Mr Antrobus, his mother's brother; and, when he left school, entered a pensioner at Peterhouse, Cambridge. While he was at Eton he contracted a particular intimacy with Horace Walpole, and with Richard West, whose father was lord-chancellor of Ireland. When he had been at Cambridge about five years—where he took no degree, because he intended to profess the common law—Horace Walpole invited him to travel with him as his companion. He accepted the invitation, and they arrived at Amiens on the first of April, 1739. Mr Gray's letters contain a very pleasing account of many parts of their journey; but unfortunately, at Florence, Walpole and he quarrelled and parted. Mason—to whom we are chiefly indebted for the materials of our author's life—says, that he was enjoined by Walpole to charge him with the chief blame in their quarrel, candidly confessing that “more attention and complaisance,—more deference to a warm friendship, to superior judgment and prudence,—might have prevented a rupture that gave much uneasiness to them both, and a lasting concern to the survivor.” In the year 1744 a reconciliation was effected between them by a lady who wished well to both parties.

After their separation Mr Gray continued his journey in a manner suitable to his own limited circumstances, with only an occasional servant. He returned to England in September, 1741, and in about two months after buried his father, who had, by injudicious waste of money upon a new house, so much lessened his fortune that Gray thought his circumstances too narrow to enable him, in a proper manner, to prosecute the study of the law. He therefore retired to Cambridge, where he soon after became bachelor of civil law; and where, as Dr Johnson expresses it, “without liking the place or its inhabitants, or pretending to like them, he passed, except a short residence at London, the rest of his life.”

In 1742 Gray wrote his ‘Ode to Spring,’ his ‘Prospect of Eton College,’ and his ‘Ode to Adversity.’ He began likewise a Latin poem, ‘De Principiis Cogitandi.’ He wrote, however, very little, though he applied himself very closely to his studies. In 1750 he published his celebrated ‘Elegy, written in a Country Churchyard,’ which first made him known to the public. In 1753 several of his poems were splendidly published, with designs by Mr Bentley. In 1756 some young men of the college, whose chambers were near his, diverted themselves with disturbing him by frequent and troublesome noises. This insolence, having endured it a while, he represented to the governors of the college; but finding his complaint little regarded, he removed to Pembroke-hall. In 1757 he published ‘The Progress

of Poetry,' and 'The Bard.' This year he had the offer of the poet-laureateship, but declined it. Two years after, he quitted Cambridge for some time, and took an apartment near the British museum, where he resided near three years, reading and transcribing. In 1765 he undertook a journey into Scotland. In 1768, without his own solicitation, or that of his friends, he was appointed regius-professor of modern history in the university of Cambridge. He lived three years after this promotion, and died on the 31st of July, 1771.

The poems of Gray are few in number, but they possess a very high degree of merit. A complete edition of them, with memoirs of his life, including many of his letters, was published by his ingenious friend Mason. Gray was one of the most learned men in Europe. He was well-acquainted both with the elegant and profound sciences. He was extensively read in every branch of history, both natural and civil; had read all the original historians of England, France, and Italy; and was a great antiquarian. Criticism, metaphysics, morals, politics, made a principal part of his study; voyages and travels of all sorts were his favourite amusements; and he had a fine taste in painting, prints, architecture, and gardening. His greatest defect was an affectation in delicacy, or rather effeminacy, and a visible fastidiousness, or contempt and disdain of his inferiors in science. He also had in some degree that weakness which disgusted Voltaire so much in Congreve. Though he seemed to value others chiefly according to the progress they had made in knowledge, yet he could not bear to be considered himself merely as a man of letters; and though without birth, or fortune, or station, his desire was to be looked upon as a private independent gentleman, who read for his amusement. Some of the poems of Gray have been treated with great critical arrogance and injustice by Dr Johnson; but they have been ably defended by several ingenious writers. Perhaps one reason that induced Johnson to attack Gray's poems with so much severity was, that he had obtained great reputation, though he was a Cambridge man; for such prejudices, however absurd, are known to have operated on the mind of Johnson.

David Hume.

BORN A. D. 1711.—DIED A. D. 1776.

THIS celebrated metaphysician, moralist, and historian, was a Scotsman by descent and birth. He was born at Edinburgh in 1711. There was some noble blood in his ancestral line on both sides,—a circumstance of which, in spite of his philosophy, he was always extremely vain. His juvenile years, says his biographer, Mr Ritchie,¹ were not marked by any thing very noticeable. His father died while he was yet an infant, leaving the care of his three children to their mother, a lady of considerable prudence, who, Mr Ritchie says, acquitted herself in this charge with very laudable assiduity, although it appears, from her son's own confession, that his religious education had been so greatly

¹ Account of the Life and Writings of David Hume, Esq. by T. E. Ritchie. London: 1807.

neglected in childhood that he had only a very slight acquaintance with the New Testament.

Being a younger brother, and possessing only a very slender patrimony, he was urged to apply himself to the study of law, on his finishing his academical course; but although his studious disposition, his sobriety, and his industry, gave his family a notion that the law was a proper profession for him, he had already imbibed tastes and feelings of little congeniality with the profession thus designed for him. "I found," says he, "an insurmountable aversion to every thing but the pursuits of philosophy and general learning; and while they fancied I was poring upon Voet and Vinnius, Cicero and Virgil were the authors which I was secretly devouring."² The patrimony of a younger Scottish brother, however, would not allow of entire devotion to a life of letters, without some sources of emolument greater considerably than literature at that period presented to the young aspirant. "My very slender fortune," he says, "being unsuitable to this plan of life, and my health being a little broken by my ardent application, I was tempted, or rather forced, to make a very feeble trial for entering into a more active scene of life. In 1734 I went to Bristol, with some recommendations to eminent merchants; but in a few months found that scene totally unsuitable to me. I went over to France with a view of prosecuting my studies in a country retreat; and I there laid that plan of life which I have steadily and successfully pursued. I resolved to make a very rigid frugality supply my deficiency of fortune, to maintain unimpaired my independency, and to regard every object as contemptible, except the improvement of my talents in literature. During my retreat in France, first at Rheims, but chiefly at La Fleche, in Anjou, I composed my 'Treatise of Human Nature.' After passing three years very agreeably in that country, I came over to London in 1737. In the end of 1738, I published my Treatise, and immediately went down to my mother and my brother, who lived at his country-house, and was employing himself very judiciously and successfully in the improvement of his fortune."

He speaks apparently with much equanimity of the signal failure of his first performance, and he deserves commendation certainly for the good hope he maintained in a crisis so discouraging to every literary adventurer as that through which it was his lot to pass. But there is a curious note subjoined to Mr Ritchie's account of this portion of our philosopher's life, which gives another representation altogether of the affair. In the 'London Review,'³ edited by Dr Kenrick, there is a note, says Mr Ritchie, on this passage in our author's biographical narrative, "rather inimical to the amenity of disposition claimed by him. The reviewer says: 'so sanguine, that it does not appear our author had acquired, at this period of his life, that command over his passions of which he afterwards makes his boast. His disappointment at the public reception of his Essay on Human Nature had indeed a violent effect on his passions in a particular instance; it not having dropt so dead-born from the press but that it was severely handled by the reviewers of those times, in a publication entitled "The Works of the Learned,"—a circumstance which so highly provoked our young phi-

² Autobiography prefixed to 'History of England.'

³ Vol. v. p. 200. Anno 1777.

osopher that he flew in a violent rage to demand satisfaction of Jacob Robinson, the publisher, whom he kept, during the paroxysm of his anger, at his sword's point, trembling behind the counter lest a period should be put to the life of a sober critic by a raving philosopher.' ”

We cannot present the next ten years of Hume's life in fewer words than his own. After affirming that he very soon recovered from the blow thus inflicted on him, and renewed the prosecution of his studies with great ardour, he proceeds thus: “ In 1742 I printed at Edinburgh the first part of my *Essays*: the work was favourably received, and soon made me entirely forget my former disappointment. I continued with my mother and brother in the country, and in that time recovered the knowledge of the Greek language, which I had too much neglected in my early youth. In 1745 I received a letter from the marquess of Anandale, inviting me to come and live with him in England; I found also, that the friends and family of that young nobleman were desirous of putting him under my care and direction, for the state of his mind and health required it.—I lived with him a twelvemonth. My appointments during that time made a considerable accession to my small fortune. I then received an invitation from General St Clair to attend him as a secretary to his expedition, which was at first meant against Canada, but ended in an incursion on the coast of France. Next year, to wit, 1747, I received an invitation from the general to attend him in the same station in his military embassy to the courts of Vienna and Turin. I then wore the uniform of an officer, and was introduced at these courts as *aid-de-camp* to the general, along with Sir Harry Erskine and Captain Grant, now General Grant. These two years were almost the only interruptions which my studies have received during the course of my life: I passed them agreeably, and in good company; and my appointments, with my frugality, had made me reach a fortune, which I called independent, though most of my friends were inclined to smile when I said so: in short, I was now master of near a thousand pounds. I had always entertained a notion, that my want of success in publishing the ‘*Treatise of Human Nature*,’ had proceeded more from the manner than the matter, and that I had been guilty of very usual indiscretion, in going to the press too early. I therefore cast the first part of that work anew in the ‘*Inquiry concerning Human Understanding*,’ which was published while I was at Turin. But this piece was at first little more successful than the ‘*Treatise of Human Nature*.’ On my return from Italy, I had the mortification to find all England in a ferment, on account of Dr Middleton's ‘*Free Inquiry*,’ while my performance was entirely overlooked and neglected. A new edition, which had been published at London, of my *Essays*, moral and political, met not with a much better reception. Such is the force of natural temper, that these disappointments made little or no impression on me. I went down in 1749, and lived two years with my brother at his country-house, for my mother was now dead. I there composed the second part of my *Essays*, which I called ‘*Political Discourses*,’ and also my ‘*Inquiry concerning the Principles of Morals*,’ which is another part of my *Treatise* that I cast anew. Meanwhile my bookseller, A. Millar, informed me that my former publications (all but the unfortunate *Treatise*) were beginning to be the subject of conversation; that the sale of them was gradually increasing, and that new editions were demanded.

Answers by reverends and right reverends came out two or three in a year; and I found by Dr Warburton's railing, that the books were beginning to be esteemed in good company. However, I had a fixed resolution, which I inflexibly maintained, never to reply to any body; and not being very irascible in my temper, I have easily kept myself clear of all literary squabbles. These symptoms of a rising reputation gave me encouragement, as I was ever more disposed to see the favourable than unfavourable side of things; a turn of mind which it is more happy to possess, than to be born to an estate of £10,000 a year."⁴

Whatever may be the literary merit and acuteness of the publications noticed in the above extract, they contain sentiments highly repugnant to every serious and well-disposed mind, as calculated to overturn the first principles of reasoning and belief, and establish only a universal scepticism in the room of all philosophy. Their object is not to show the difficulties and uncertainties which impede knowledge, but to prove that real and certain knowledge is a thing which mortals need not seek after, for it is rendered unattainable to man by the very structure of his understanding. The foundation of this annihilating scepticism had been incautiously laid long before Hume's time, by a no less distinguished and excellent man than John Locke, who, in his celebrated essay, limited all our sources of knowledge to sensation and consciousness; and by representing ideas as actual existences lodged in the mind, resolved every thing into mere consciousness, or the mind's perceptions of itself, and of nothing beyond itself. Hume was but following out this doctrine to its legitimate though startling and absurd consequences, when he chose to deny the existence of an external world, and to reject the universally-received ideas of causation and the uniformity of the laws of nature. It is not to be wondered at that men less irascible than Warburton should have railed at the propounder of such monstrous dogmas as those which Hume had set forth. The general assembly of the Church of Scotland for a time meditated a prosecution of the author of the 'Enquiries;' but were fortunately diverted from a proceeding which would only have defeated its object, by bringing a wretched philosophy into more general notice, and investing its author probably with the attributes of a martyr, and the sympathies which always attach themselves more or less to a persecuted man.

"In 1751," Mr Hume resumes, "I removed from the country to the town, the true scene for a man of letters. In 1752 were published at Edinburgh, where I then lived, my 'Political Discourses,' the only work of mine that was successful on the first publication. It was well received abroad and at home. In the same year was published at London, my 'Inquiry concerning the Principles of Morals;' which, in my own opinion, (who ought not to judge on that subject,) is of all my writings, historical, philosophical, or literary, incomparably the best. It came unnoticed and unobserved into the world. In 1752 the Faculty of Advocates chose me their Librarian, an office from which I received little or no emolument, but which gave me the command of a large library. I then formed the plan of writing the 'History of England;' but being frightened with the notion of continuing a narrative through a period of seventeen hundred years, I commenced with the accession

⁴ Autobiography prefixed to 'History of England.'

of the house of Stuart, an epoch when I thought the misrepresentations of faction began chiefly to take place. I was, I own, sanguine in my expectations of the success of this work. I thought that I was the only historian that had at once neglected present power, interest, and authority, and the cry of popular prejudices; and as the subject was suited to every capacity, I expected proportional applause. But miserable was my disappointment: I was assailed by one cry of reproach, disapprobation, and even detestation; English, Scotch, and Irish, whig and tory, churchman and sectary, freethinker and religionist, patriot and courtier, united in their rage against the man who had presumed to shed a generous tear for the fate of Charles I. and the earl of Strafford; and after the first ebullitions of their fury were over, what was still more mortifying, the book seemed to sink into oblivion. Mr Millar told me, that in a twelvemonth he sold only forty-five copies of it. I scarcely, indeed, heard of one man in the three kingdoms, considerable for rank or letters, that could endure the book. I must only except the primate of England, Dr Herring, and the primate of Ireland, Dr Stone, which seem two odd exceptions. These dignified prelates separately sent me messages not to be discouraged."

We are by no means sure that this first essay of our historian's excited all the clamour, and encountered all the prejudice, here represented. His biographer declares, that, after a diligent search into the literary history of the period, he has been unable to discover any trace of that universal outcry which Hume represents himself as having been assailed with.⁵ We are particularly doubtful of his having rendered himself so obnoxious to the tory party as his language implies. The fact is, he presented himself to the public as the apologist of the Stuarts, in their most unconstitutional measures; and his thinly-concealed dislike to the principles of the settlement of 1688 could not but be grateful to the party in question. There is certainly a tone of vacillation in much that he has written relating to the period in question; he does sometimes confess to the weaknesses of the king, and even pronounces some of his measures worthy of censure; but he takes care to represent the measures of the patriots as unconstitutional and rebellious. If he feels sometimes necessitated to eulogize the virtues and courage of the leading patriots, he hastens to remind the reader of their virulence and fanaticism. These, and other similar marks of trimming and uncertainty, are very ably and eloquently descanted upon by the reviewer of Brodie's 'History of the British Empire,' in the 40th volume of the 'Edinburgh Review;' and are fully and elaborately exposed by Mr Brodie in his able and constitutional work. We shall here quote a few of the reviewer's illustrations of Hume's 'double and discordant tone.' "Thus, after saying of the leaders of opposition in Charles's first parliament, that 'these generous patriots, animated with a warm regard to liberty, saw with regret an unbounded power exercised by the crown, and resolved to seize the opportunity which the king's necessities afforded them, of reducing the prerogative within reasonable compass;' and adding, 'that to grant or refuse supplies was the undoubted privilege of the commons;' he chooses to represent their refusal to grant more than two subsidies till they had been heard on the

⁵ Life by Ritchie, p. 106.

national grievances, as 'a crue. mockery of the sovereign, and a proceeding unprecedented in an English parliament;' and shortly after, stigmatizes the very persons of whom he had spoken in the terms we have now cited, as ambitious fanatics, who advocated 'furious measures,' and 'under colour of redressing grievances, which, during this short reign, could not have been very numerous, proposed to control every part of the government which displeased them.' Of Hampden, he says, in an elaborate character, in itself neither very generous nor very consistent: 'Then was displayed the mighty ambition of Hampden, taught disguise, not moderation, by former restraint; supported by courage, conducted by prudence, embellished by modesty; but whether founded in a love of power or zeal for liberty, is still, from his untimely end, left doubtful and uncertain.' Now, if ambition means any thing, and especially a mighty, disguised, and immoderate ambition, it *must* mean, we should think, a love of power;—but, while such an ambition is assumed as the undoubted basis and denominator of the character, it is admitted to be uncertain whether a love of power had any thing to do with it! But the eloquent writer does not startle even at greater inconsistencies than this, when the object is to lower the character of an anti-royalist. This illustrious person had at one time resolved, it seems, along with Pym and Cromwell, 'to abandon his native country and fly to the other extremity of the globe,'—and then, he who could be actuated only by mighty ambition—founded either in a love of power or a zeal for liberty—is eagerly degraded into a crazy fanatic, who had no other object but 'to enjoy lectures and discourses of any length or form that might please him!' In the same reckless spirit of flagrant inconsistency, or rather perhaps we should say, of alternate candour and partiality, he first represents the people of England at the commencement of the war in these glowing colours. 'Never was there a people less corrupted by vice, and more actuated by principle, than the English at this period. Never were there individuals who possessed more capacity, more courage, more disinterested zeal. To determine his conduct in the approaching contest, every man hearkened with avidity to *the reasons* proposed on both sides.' But, both before and after, while we meet with perpetual and unvarying praise of the gallantry and generous loyalty of those who adhered to the king, we find nothing but invectives and sarcasms upon the furious bigotry, the base hypocrisy, and low arts of popularity, by which their opponents are said to have been actuated. In like manner, he first says of Laud, that, though not exactly a Papist, 'the genius of his religion was the same with that of the Romish, and that not only the puritans believed the church of England to be relapsing fast into that superstition, but the court of Rome itself entertained hopes of regaining its authority in this island, and twice offered him privately a Cardinal's hat,' which he declined with great civility; and then, when he comes to the account of his trial, does not scruple to say, that 'the *groundless* charge of popery, *though belied by his whole conduct*, was continually urged against him.' In the same spirit, when he comes to the agitating scene of the king's trial and condemnation, he first represents it in these words as a proceeding of the most awful grandeur and sublimity. 'The pomp and dignity, the ceremony of this transaction, corresponded to the greatest conception that is suggested in the annals

of human kind! The delegates of a great people sitting in judgment on their supreme magistrate, and trying him for his misgovernment and breach of trust! This, it must be confessed, is, at least, lofty and liberal enough; and would satisfy, we should imagine, the ambition of a professed regicide. But by and by all this theatrical pomp is conjured away, and this magnificent temple of Justice converted into a den of paltry and contemptible assassins. Instead of his judges being really the delegates of a great nation, we find even the parliament by whom they were appointed dwindled into 'a diminutive assembly, no longer deserving that honourable name,' and disavowed by the body of the nation; while they themselves are called 'hypocritical parricides, who, by sanctified pretences, had long disguised their treasons,' and now consummated 'the height of all iniquity and fanatical extravagance.'

It is a piece of whining cant, and nothing better, for Hume to represent all parties of his day as being fired to madness against him for "presuming to shed a generous tear for the fate of Charles I. and the earl of Strafford." No one ever found fault with the historian for shedding 'a decent tear' to the memory of the brilliant, though unprincipled, courtier and his infatuated master. But he must have known well that the cause of indignation found in his volume were the false pretences put forth on behalf of these men. It was Hume's object to canonize them, and he did not scruple either to mutilate or to pervert the truth when necessary for his purpose. Mr Brodie has very ably and laboriously exposed the mean artifices to which this would-be ingenuous historian has had recourse, in order to give the wished-for tone and colouring to documents which he durst not quote entire.

In 1756 Mr Hume published a second volume of his History, containing the period from the death of Charles I. to the Revolution. Of this volume he says: "This performance happened to give less displeasure to the whigs, and was better received. It not only rose itself, but helped to buoy up its unfortunate brother. But though I had been taught by experience, that the whig party were in possession of bestowing all places, both in the state and in literature, I was so little inclined to yield to their senseless clamour, that in above a hundred alterations, which farther study, reading, or recollection, engaged me to make in the reigns of the two first Stuarts, I have made all of them invariably to the tory side. It is ridiculous to consider the English constitution before that period as a regular plan of liberty." In this last sentence we have the great scope and purport of the historian revealed to us. It was his grand object to represent the English government as having been an absolute irresponsible monarchy up to the period of the Stuart dynasty; and consequently Charles as justified in withholding, and the people unreasonable in demanding, those privileges and liberties of the subject which formed the object of the civil war. Hume's theory has been exploded by several able hands; by none more successfully than Mr Hallam⁶ and Mr Brodie, to whose volumes we have pleasure in referring the reader.

The concluding volume of the 'History of England' was published in 1759. Two years afterwards Mr Hume published the earlier part of the English history, in two volumes. His reputation was now estab-

⁶ Constitutional History of England. London: 1829.

lished as a writer, and the profits of his historical volumes, to use his own words, "rendered him not only independent but opulent." In 1763 he accompanied the earl of Hertford's embassy to Paris. He received much attention from the literary circles of that metropolis, and appears to have been highly gratified with his reception. On the departure of Lord Hertford to assume the vice-royalty of Ireland, in 1766, Mr Hume was left *chargé d'affaires* in Paris until the arrival of the duke of Richmond. In 1767 he accepted of an under-secretaryship of state; but in 1769 retired into private life, and fixed his residence in Edinburgh. He spent the remainder of his days in lettered ease and tranquillity. He died on the 25th of August, 1766.

His friend, Dr Adam Smith, has given an account of his latter moments in a letter to Mr Strahan, which is usually appended to the autobiographical sketch of the author attached to his 'History of England.' It is an interesting but a melancholy document, representing as it does a mind of great and unquestionable powers making idle sport of all the tremendous uncertainties which must, even to Hume's sceptical mind, have enveloped the article death.

Mr Hume's merits as an historian are now pretty generally understood, and he is daily losing possession of the public ear. It is impossible to deny to his narrative the praise of great elegance, perspicuity, and seductiveness; but he has been proved to be deficient in the higher qualities of the historian,—in all that enables us to repose confidence in his graceful narrative. We now read every page of his once popular history with extreme suspicion, and a constant watchfulness against being led into error by his artful and insidious eloquence. "Mr Hume's summaries," says the critic already quoted in this article, "Mr Hume's summaries of the conflicting views of different parties at particular eras, have been deservedly admired for the singular clearness, brevity, and plausibility with which they are composed: but, in reality, they belong rather to conjectural than to authentic history; and any one who looks into contemporary documents will be surprised to find how very small a portion of what is there imputed to the actors of the time had actually occurred to them, and how little of what they truly maintained is there recorded in their behalf. The object of the author being chiefly to give his readers a clear idea of the scenes he described, he seems to have thought that the conduct of the actors would be best understood by ascribing to them the views and motives, which, upon reflection, appeared to himself most natural in their situation. In this way, he has often made all parties appear more reasonable than they truly were; and given probability and consistency to events, which, as they actually occurred, were not a little inconceivable. But in so doing he has undoubtedly violated the truth of history, and exposed himself to the influence of the most delusive partialities. Such a hypothetical integration of the opinions likely to prevail in any particular circumstances, seems at all times to have been a favourite exercise of his ingenuity. Very early in life, for example, he composed four Essays, to which he gave the names of the Epicurean, the Stoic, the Platonist, and the Sceptic,—and prefixed to them the following very characteristic notice: 'The intention of these Essays is not so much to explain accurately the sentiments of the ancient sects of philosophy, as to deliver the sentiments of sects which naturally form themselves in the world, and

entertain different ideas of human life and human happiness. I have given each of them the name of the philosophical sect to which it bears the greatest affinity.' These very words, we think, might be applied, with very little variation, to most of the summaries of which we have been speaking. They, too, are mere conjectural views of the different sentiments that may be supposed naturally to arise in the world at particular periods; and they are given under the name of the historical party to which they bear the greatest affinity."

Walter Harte.

BORN A. D. 1700.—DIED A. D. 1774.

WALTER HARTE, a respectable miscellaneous writer, was born about the year 1700, but the precise date cannot now be ascertained. His father was a respectable clergyman of the church of England. Young Harte received his early education at Marlborough school under a Mr Hildrop, to whom he afterwards dedicated some pieces of poetry. He went from this school to Oxford, where he graduated in 1720.

His first publication was a volume of poetry, which appeared in 1727. It attracted Pope's attention, who honoured the author with his friendship and patronage, and prefixed his encomiastic lines amongst others, to the 'Dunciad.' It is said that Harte's reputation was so high amongst his contemporaries as to make it appear a probable thing to not a few of them that he was the author of the 'Essay on Man,' which was first published anonymously. In 1730 he published a poetical 'Essay on Satire,' and in 1735 an 'Essay on Reason.' Pope contributed some lines to both these productions. He afterwards published two sermons preached before the university of Oxford, which were much admired. Betwixt the years 1746 and 1750 he travelled on the continent with Lord Chesterfield's son.

In 1759 he published a 'History of Gustavus Adolphus.' This work, which formed two volumes 4to, was industriously compiled, but its success by no means answered the expectations of the author. His style was rugged and pedantic in an extreme; but when Hawkins, the publisher, ventured to point out some uncouth expressions and phrases, Harte would smile contemptuously at his want of taste, and say—"George, that's what we call writing!" It was also unfortunate for poor Harte that this work should have come out nearly about the same time with historical pieces from the pens both of Hume and Robertson.

His last publication, entitled 'The Amaranth,' contains some very pleasing pieces of poetry of a serious cast.

Francis Fawkes.

BORN A. D. 1721.—DIED A. D. 1777.

FRANCIS FAWKES, a very minor name in English literature, was born in Yorkshire, and educated at Leeds and Cambridge. He took orders, and was first settled at Bramham in his native county, from

which place he removed to the curacy of Croydon, in Surrey, whence Archbishop Herring collated him to the vicarage of Orpington with St Mary Cray, in Kent. In 1774 he exchanged his vicarage for the rectory of Hayes. His first poetical publication was a descriptive poem, entitled 'Bramham Park,' which appeared in 1747. In 1761 he published a volume of 'Original Poems and Translations;' and in 1767 a translation of Theocritus very respectably executed. It is said that Pearce, Jortin, Johnson, Warton, and several other eminent scholars and critics, contributed to the Theocritus. He died in August, 1777.

John Armstrong.

BORN A. D. 1709.—DIED A. D. 1779.

THIS minor English poet was born in the parish of Castleton in Roxburghshire. He studied medicine in the university of Edinburgh, and practised, with considerable repute, in London for several years previous to his death. His literary reputation is chiefly founded on a didactic poem, entitled 'The Art of Preserving Health,' which was published in 1744. He wrote several other pieces both on professional and non-professional subjects; and enjoyed a fair average reputation among the scholars of his day, though his writings are seldom referred to now.

Thomas Amory.

BORN A. D. 1692.—DIED A. D. 1789.

THOMAS AMORY, the son of Counsellor Amory, who attended King William in Ireland, was born in the county of Clare in the year 1692. He is believed to have studied medicine for the purpose of practising as a physician; his design, however, if intended, was never put in execution. In 1755 he published a very remarkable work, entitled 'Memoirs, containing the Lives of several Ladies of Great Britain; a History of Antiquities, Productions of Nature, and Monuments of Art; Observations on the Christian Religion, as professed by the Established Church and Dissenters of every Denomination; Remarks on the writings of the greatest English Divines, and a Review of the Works of the Writers called Infidels, from Lord Herbert of Cherbury to the late Lord Viscount Bolingbroke; with a variety of disquisitions and opinions relative to criticism and manners; and many extraordinary actions: in several Letters,' Lond. 8vo. A second volume was promised, but it never appeared. In 1756 he published the first volume of the life of John Bunce, and the second in 1766, in which it is thought the author intended to sketch his own picture. It is in some sort a continuation of the 'Memoirs.' Mr Amory was likewise author of a letter to the Monthly Reviewers, as also of various religious tracts, poems, and songs. He died in 1789, at the advanced age of ninety-seven.

James Harris.

BORN A. D. 1709.—DIED A. D. 1780.

THIS celebrated philological and grammatical writer was the eldest son of James Harris, Esq. of Salisbury, and the lady Elizabeth Ashley, sister to the celebrated author of the 'Characteristics.' He received his early education at Salisbury, whence he was sent to Oxford at the age of sixteen. Having spent the usual term of study at Wadham college, he became a member of Lincoln's inn, though with no view towards the bar.

In his twenty-fourth year he succeeded, by the death of his father, to a handsome property, and immediately gave himself up to the pursuit of literature, especially the Greek philosophy. In 1744 he published three treatises on Art, the Fine Arts, and Happiness, distinguished by their elegance of style, profound and varied learning, and general correctness of thought and sentiment. In 1751 he published a work, entitled 'Hermes, or a Philosophical Inquiry concerning Universal Grammar.' This is a work of much research and fine taste, although it does not perhaps deserve so high a commendation as has been passed upon it by Lowth and some others. Horne Tooke attacked it with great virulence.

In 1761, Mr Harris was returned one of the representatives for Christ church. In 1763 he became a lord of the treasury, but resigned office with the rest of the ministry in 1765. In 1775 he published a work entitled 'Philosophical Arrangements,' being a portion of a meditated larger work on the Peripatetic logic. His last work was entitled 'Philological Inquiries.' It contains a summary of the critical philosophy of the ancients.

Mr Harris died in 1780. His son, Lord Malmesbury, published a splendid edition of his works in 1801, in two quarto volumes, with a Memoir prefixed. His lordship seems to have formed a pretty just estimate of his respected parent's literary character. He says: "The distinction by which he was most generally known, and by which he is likely to survive to posterity, is that of a man of learning." Mr Harris's treatises will always be admired for their taste and erudition; though little regarded, perhaps, as profoundly philosophical tracts.

Richard Wilson.

BORN A. D. 1713.—DIED A. D. 1782.

THIS artist was of Welsh extraction. He was born in the year 1713. At thirty-five years of age we find him a portrait-painter of some repute in London, for he was employed in 1748 to execute likenesses of the prince of Wales and the duke of York, for their tutor the bishop of Norwich. Edwards says, that in drawing a head Wilson was not excelled by any of his contemporaries,—which is, after all, not saying much for his genius in this line of the art; for, with the excep-

tion of Reynolds—and he was now only rising into notice—all the portrait-limners of the day were wretched daubers.

A visit to Italy, which Wilson was enabled to make in his thirty-sixth year, proved the means of leading him into that department wherein his better genius lay. At first, says Allan Cunningham, “he continued the study and practice of portrait-painting, and, it is said, with fair hopes of success, when an accident opened another avenue to fame, and shut up the way to fortune. Having waited one morning, till he grew weary, for the coming of Zucarelli the artist, he painted, to beguile the time, a scene upon which the window of his friend looked, with so much grace and effect that Zucarelli was astonished, and inquired if he had studied landscape. Wilson replied that he had not. ‘Then I advise you,’ said the other, ‘to try, for you are sure of great success.’ The counsel of one friend was confirmed by the opinion of another. This was Vernet, a French painter,—a man whose generosity was equal to his reputation, and that was very high. One day, while sitting in Wilson’s painting-room, he was so struck with the peculiar beauty of a newly-finished landscape that he desired to become its proprietor, and offered in exchange one of his best pictures. This was much to the gratification of the other; the exchange was made, and with a liberality equally rare and commendable, Vernet placed his friend’s picture in his exhibition-room, and when his own productions happened to be praised or purchased by English travellers, the generous Frenchman used to say, ‘Don’t talk of my landscapes alone, when your own countryman, Wilson, paints so beautifully.’ These praises, and an internal feeling of the merits of his new performances, induced Wilson to relinquish portrait-painting, and proceed with landscape. He found himself better prepared for this new pursuit than he had imagined; he had been long insensibly storing his mind with the beauties of natural scenery, and the picturesque mountains and glens of his native Wales had been to him an academy when he was unconscious of their influence. He did not proceed upon that plan of study, much recommended, but little practised, of copying the pictures of the old masters, with the hope of catching a corresponding inspiration; but he studied their works, and mastered their methods of attaining excellence, and compared them carefully with nature. By this means he caught the hue and the character of Italian scenery, and steeped his spirit in its splendour. His landscapes are fanned with the pure air, warmed with the glowing suns, filled with the ruined temples, and sparkling with the wooded streams and tranquil lakes of that classic region. His reputation rose so fast that he obtained pupils. Mengs, out of regard for his genius, painted his portrait; and Wilson repaid this flattery with a fine landscape.”

Wilson returned to England after a six years’ residence abroad. The sure road to fame now lay before him: landscape-painting, in its true principles, was yet unknown in England, and none were better qualified to become the founder of a new school in that delightful branch of the art than Wilson. But he had to inspire his countrymen with a new taste, before he could hope to cultivate a branch of the art in which he was so eminently qualified to excel with advantage to himself; and this he found no small difficulty in accomplishing. His easy, artless, truthful style, failed to win the attention of such purchasers as gloated on the productions of Barret’s easel, and the equally worthless daubs of

Smith of Chichester; and poor Wilson found it difficult to procure a scanty subsistence by selling the noble creations of his fine genius to pawnbrokers and such sort of customers. He had, however, a confident persuasion that the public taste would yet come round, and that the merits and value of his paintings would, ere long, be felt and acknowledged: "Beechey," he one day said to that artist, "you will live to see great prices given for my pictures, when those of Barret will not fetch one farthing."

In his declining years Wilson was rendered comfortable in his worldly circumstances by the bequest of a relative; but the gift came too late to rescue his genius from the oppressing ills of poverty. His sight was now failing, and his skill of touch forsaking him; his spirits too had been soured and fretted by the neglect with which he had been treated by a public not yet qualified to appreciate his genius. He died in May, 1782.

"As a landscape-painter," says Allan Cunningham, "the merits of Wilson are great; his conceptions are generally noble, and his execution vigorous and glowing; the dewy freshness, the natural lustre and harmonious arrangement of his scenes, have seldom been exceeded. He rose at once from the tame insipidity of common scenery into natural grandeur and magnificence; his streams seem all abodes for nymphs, his hills are fit haunts for the muses, and his temples worthy of gods. His whole heart was in his art, and he talked and dreamed landscape. He looked on cattle as made only to form groups for his pictures, and on men as they composed harmoniously. One day looking on the fine scene from Richmond Terrace, and wishing to point out a spot of particular beauty to the friend who accompanied him, 'There,' said he, holding out his finger, 'see near those houses, there where the figures are.' He stood for some time by the waterfall of Terni in speechless admiration, and at length exclaimed, 'Well done: water, by God!' In aerial effect he considered himself above any rival. When Wright of Derby offered to exchange works with him, he answered, 'With all my heart. I'll give you air, and you will give me fire.' 'Wilson,' says Fuseli, discoursing on art in 1801, 'observed nature in all her appearances, and had a characteristic touch for all her forms. But, though in effects of dewy freshness and silent evening lights few have equalled and fewer excelled him, his grandeur is oftener allied to terror, bustle, and convulsion, than to calmness and tranquillity. He is now numbered with the classics of the art, though little more than the fifth part of a century has elapsed since death relieved him from the apathy of cognoscenti, the envy of rivals, and the neglect of a tasteless public; for Wilson, whose works will soon command prices as proud as those of Claude, Poussin, or Elzheimer, resembled the last most in his fate, and lived and died nearer to indigence than ease.' Wilson's landscapes are numerous, and are scattered as they should be through public galleries and private rooms. They are in general productions of fancy rather than of existing reality; scenes pictured forth by the imagination rather than transcribed from nature, yet there is enough of nature in them to please the commonest clown, and enough of what is poetic to charm the most fastidious fancy. He sometimes indeed painted fac-similes of scenes; but his heart disliked such unpoetic drudgery; for his thoughts were ever dwelling among hills and streams

renowned in story and song, and he loved to expatiate on ruined temples and walk over fields where great deeds had been achieved, and where gods had appeared among men. He was fortunate in little during his life: his view from Kew gardens, though exquisite in colour and in simplicity of arrangement, was returned by the king for whom it was painted; nor was the poetic loveliness of his compositions felt till such acknowledgment was useless to the artist. The names of a few of his principal compositions will show the historical and poetical influence under which he wrought,—the Death of Niobe, Phæton, Morning, View of Rome, Villa of Mæcenas at Tivoli, Celadon and Amelia, View on the river Po, Apollo and the Seasons, Meleager and Atalanta, Cicero at his Villa, Lake of Narni, View on the coast of Baiæ, the Tiber near Rome, Temple of Bacchus, Adrian's Villa, Bridge of Rimini, Rosamond's Pond, Langallon-Bridge, Castle of Dinas Bran, Temple of Venus at Baiæ, Tomb of the Horatii and Curiatii, Broken Bridge of Narni, and Nymphs Bathing."

John Fothergill.

BORN A. D. 1712.—DIED A. D. 1780.

THIS distinguished physician was born near Richmond in Yorkshire. He studied medicine and took the degree of M. D. at Edinburgh. In 1746 he was admitted a licentiate of the London college of physicians. He attained a very extensive practice in the metropolis and realized a handsome fortune, notwithstanding his benevolent disposition, and the large sums which he is known to have given away in charity. There appears to have been a good deal of the religious mystic about Dr Fothergill; but his character was unimpeachable, and his superior skill as a physician very generally admitted by his brethren. He was a munificent patron of scientific and learned men, and expended large sums in the formation of botanical collections. He died in 1780.

William Cole.

BORN A. D. 1714.—DIED A. D. 1782.

THIS industrious antiquary was the son of a gentleman of property in Cambridgeshire, and was born at Little Abington, near Baberham, in that county. After having been placed five years at Eton, he was entered of Clare hall, Cambridge. He afterwards removed to King's college. In 1736 he took the degree of B. A. In 1740 he proceeded M. A. In 1745 he was admitted to priest's orders, and in 1749 colated to the rectory of Hornsey in Middlesex.

In 1765 he accompanied Horace Walpole to France, and at one time thought of settling in that country.¹ He was, however, diverted from

¹ Chalmers is of opinion that Cole was secretly inclined to Romanism, and that to this leaning may be traced his desire to settle in France. See article COLE in 'Biographical Dictionary.'

this design by observing the unsettled state of the country, and by being told that if he died in France the king would claim his papers and personal property in virtue of the *Droit d'Aubaine*.

His passion for antiquarian pursuits manifested itself even in his boyish days. His manuscript collections were very extensive, and, in some departments, of considerable value. They amount to above one hundred volumes small folio. He had early professed to compile an account of the Cambridge scholars, in imitation of Wood's '*Athenæ Oxonienses*.' Chalmers, who appears to have inspected his collections, reports them of little value.

William Emerson.

BORN A. D. 1701.—DIED A. D. 1782.

WILLIAM EMERSON, an eminent and in a great measure self-taught mathematician, was born in the neighbourhood of Darlington. His father was a schoolmaster, and a tolerable proficient in mathematics. Young Emerson was allowed to devote himself entirely to study; and, resting satisfied with a small patrimony, he continued throughout life a diligent student. He was an accomplished musical theorist and a tolerable classical scholar. His publications are rather numerous, and many of them of considerable repute. The following is a list of them: 1. '*The Doctrine of Fluxions*,' 1748, 8vo.; 2. '*The Projection of the Sphere, orthographic, stereographic, and gnomical*,' 1749, 8vo.; '*The Elements of Trigonometry*,' 1749, 8vo.; 4. '*The Principles of Mechanics*,' 1754, 8vo.; 5. '*A Treatise of Navigation*,' 1755, 12mo; 6. '*A Treatise of Algebra, in two books*,' 1765, 8vo.; 7. '*The Arithmetic of Infinites, and the Differential Method, illustrated by Examples*,' 1767, 8vo.; 8. '*Mechanics, or the Doctrine of Motion*,' 1769, 8vo.; 9. '*The Elements of Optics, in four books*,' 1768, 8vo.; 10. '*A System of Astronomy*,' 1769, 8vo.; 11. '*The Laws of Centripetal and Centrifugal Force*,' 1769, 8vo.; 12. '*The Mathematical Principles of Geography*,' 1770, 8vo.; 13. '*Tracts*,' 1770, 8vo.; 14. '*Cyclomathesis, or an easy Introduction to the several branches of the Mathematics*,' 1770, in 10 vols. 8vo.; 15. '*A short Comment on Sir Isaac Newton's Principia; to which is added, A Defence of Sir Isaac against the objections that have been made to several parts of his works*,' 1770, 8vo.; 16. '*A Miscellaneous Treatise, containing several Mathematical Subjects*,' 1776, 8vo.

Henry Home, Lord Kames.

BORN A. D. 1696.—DIED A. D. 1782.

THIS celebrated lawyer, philosopher, and critic, was the son of a Scotch country-gentleman of small fortune, and was born in the year 1696. He was privately educated, and at the age of sixteen was put to learn the profession of a solicitor or law-agent. He had nothing to depend upon but what he could realize by his own exertions, for his father had involved himself in debt very deeply. The branch of the

profession which he was now studying, if it did not offer the most dazzling objects of ambition to a young and ardent mind, presented at least the surest and steadiest road to moderate competency. But young Home was soon fired to aim at greater things than were designed for him. Being sent one evening by his master with some papers to one of the judges, he was admitted to his lordship's presence, and very handsomely treated by him and his daughter; the combination of dignity and elegance which the young man saw in the manners and situation of the venerable judge and his accomplished daughter, so wrought upon his fancy, that, from that moment, he determined that nothing less should satisfy him than the attainment of the highest honours of the legal profession. He commenced a most laborious course of study, as well in the departments of literature and science as in the knowledge more peculiarly appropriate to his intended profession, and made a rapid progress in them all.

In addition to the study of the classical and the principal modern languages, his attention was closely directed to metaphysical investigations. In early life he carried on a correspondence with Andrew Baxter, Dr Clarke, and other celebrated metaphysicians. Dr Clarke had some years before published his celebrated 'Demonstration of the Being and Attributes of God.' Home, at the age of 27, wrote him a long letter, proposing objections to different parts of his treatise. It was a clever but rather forward production, and was briefly answered by the Doctor.

In January, 1724, Home was called to the bar. For some years he had to struggle against the established ascendancy of several able and eloquent seniors in the profession. He did so gallantly, and his exertions were finally rewarded by abundant practice and high reputation. In 1728 he published a volume of 'Remarkable Decisions,' in which he evinced great acuteness and indefatigable industry. In 1732 he published a volume of legal essays, which contributed still farther to advance his professional fame. Business now flowed in upon him; and the road to the attainment of his most ardent hopes was fairly opened to him. His manner as a barrister, says his biographer Lord Woodhouselee, "was peculiar to himself. He never attempted to speak to the passions, or to captivate his hearers by the graces of oratory; but addressing himself to the judgment, and employing a strain of language only a little elevated above that of ordinary discourse,—which even by its peculiar tone and style fixed the attention of the judge, while it awakened no suspicion of rhetorical artifice,—he began by a very short and distinct statement of the facts of the case, and a plain enunciation of the question of law thence arising. Having thus joined issue with his adversary on what he conceived to be the fair merits of the case, he proceeded to develop the principle on which he apprehended the decision ought to rest, and endeavoured with all the acuteness of which he was master to show its application to the question in discussion."

In 1741 Mr Home published, in two volumes fol., 'The Decisions of the Court of Session, from its institution to the present time, abridged and digested under proper heads in the form of a Dictionary.' In 1747 he published a volume of essays on various points of law antiquarianism. In 1751 appeared his 'Essays on the Principles of Morality and

Natural Religion.' This work was occasioned by the appearance of his friend David Hume's 'Philosophical Essays.' Hume had assigned utility as the foundation of morals. This appeared to Home a very dangerous doctrine, as tending to annihilate all distinction of right and wrong in human actions, and to make good and evil depend on the fluctuating opinions of men with respect to the general good. In the Essays he has, therefore, subjected this theory to examination, and succeeded in pointing out its defects though certainly not in erecting a sounder system in its place. Hume's doctrine of cause and effect is also subjected to a rigid scrutiny in the Essays. The conclusion come to by Home on this point is,—that although the connexion between cause and effect is not demonstrable, yet are we assured of its reality: our conviction with respect to it resting on the same ground as that of the fact of our own existence, and the existence of the material world,—the evidence, namely, of intuitive perception, creating a belief that is irresistible, constant, and universal. Some of the doctrines advanced in the Essays, however, proved highly offensive to many, and Home was included with Hume in the proposed vote of censure meditated in the general assembly of the Church of Scotland.

In the month of February, 1752, Mr Kames was elevated to the bench, and took his seat as a lord of session, by the title of Lord Kames. The promotion gave great and universal satisfaction, and he acquitted himself, as a judge, in a manner which commanded the highest approbation of intelligent men. He has been censured by some for severity as a criminal judge, but without just grounds, we think. Amidst his various judicial and public duties, he found means to publish several useful professional works. In 1761 he published a small volume entitled 'An Introduction to the Art of Thinking;' and, in the following year, his most celebrated work, the 'Elements of Criticism,' appeared in three volumes 8vo. "In this elaborate work," says his biographer, "the author proceeds on this fundamental proposition,—that the impressions made on the mind by the productions of the Fine Arts, are a subject of reasoning as well as feeling; and that, although the agreeable emotion arising from what is beautiful or excellent in those productions may be a gift of nature, and, like all other endowments, very unequally distributed among mankind, yet it depends on certain principles or laws of the human constitution which are common to the whole species. Whence it follows, that, as a good taste consists in the consonance of our feelings with these fixed laws, our judgments on all the works of genius are only to be esteemed just and perfect when they are warranted by the conclusions of sound understanding, after trying and comparing them by this standard." These principles are doubtless sound, and Lord Kames deserves to be regarded as the first who reduced the rules of philosophical criticism to the form of a science. We are doubtful, however, of his right to being considered as the discoverer of these principles, which appear to us to have been known from the days of Aristotle.

Lord Kames's next great work is his 'Sketches of the History of Man,' first published in 1774, in two volumes 4to. The leading doctrine of this singular work appears to be, that man originally existed in a state of utter savagism, and that all his subsequent advancement has been the mere result of the progressive development of his natural

powers by natural means. In these 'Sketches,' notwithstanding, there is an affected deference paid to the Mosaic history.

The latter part of his lordship's active life was still crowded with official, public, and literary business. Amidst the overwhelming multiplicity of details to which his attention was perpetually called, he contrived to devote some of his time to rural pursuits and the improvement of the agriculture of his country. He conceived and partly executed the magnificent idea of draining the great moss of Kincardine; and executed very extensive and tasteful improvements on his estate of Blair-Drummond. His constitution was an admirable one, and did not show any signs of breaking up until he had long passed his 'threescore years and ten.' So late as the winter session of 1782 he took his seat on the bench with his brother-judges; but he soon became sensible that he was now tasking nature beyond her feeble strength. After a few days' attendance he took a separate and affectionate farewell of each of his brethren, and, in eight days thereafter, was gently released from the evils of mortality by the friendly hand of death.

Lord Kames's memoirs have been ably drawn up by his friend Lord Woodhouselee, in two volumes 4to. These volumes, besides a very full and acute delineation of their principal subject, contain many interesting sketches of the literary history of Scotland during the greater part of last century.

James Nares.

BORN A. D. 1715.—DIED A. D. 1783.

THIS eminent musical composer was born at Stanwell in Middlesex. His father was steward to the earl of Abingdon. His musical education was begun under Gates, then master of the royal choristers, and completed under Pepusch.

He officiated for some time as deputy to Pigott, the organist at Windsor; but on the resignation of Salisbury, organist of York, in 1734, was chosen to succeed him. It is related that when the old musician first saw his intended successor, he exclaimed, rather angrily, "What! is that child to succeed me?" The child, however, took an early opportunity of playing one of the most difficult services throughout half-a-note below the pitch, which brought it into a key with seven sharps. He went through this difficult task without the slightest error; and on being questioned why he chose to attempt such a thing, he replied, that he only wished to show Mr Salisbury what a child could do."

On the death of Dr. Greene, Nares was appointed organist and composer to his majesty, and created doctor in music at Cambridge. In 1757 he succeeded Gates as master of the royal choristers. He died, generally respected, and highly esteemed for professional attainments, in the beginning of the year 1783.

His published works are numerous, and a large portion of his productions still exist only in MS. He did much to introduce expressive melody into the church-service in place of that uniform chaunt in which some of its finest portions, such as the *Te Deum*, used to be sung.

Henry Brooke.

BORN A. D. 1706.—DIED A. D. 1783.

THIS ingenious writer was a native of Ireland. After passing hastily through Trinity college, Dublin, he came to London, where he was introduced to Swift and Pope as a young man of promising talents. His first publication was a philosophical poem entitled 'Universal Beauty,' which does not appear to have attracted much notice. In 1737 he published a translation of the first three books of Tasso's epic. His next essay was a political squib directed against Walpole, in the shape of a tragedy, entitled 'Gustavus Vasa.' This performance was prohibited by injunction, but its sale was so great that the author is said to have cleared nearly £1000 by it.

His wife now prevailed upon him to return to Dublin, where he obtained the situation of barrack-master from the earl of Chesterfield. In 1745 he published a spirited series of letters to his countrymen, in imitation of Drapier's Letters, with the view of rousing them to put down rebellion and resist threatened invasion. After publishing a variety of pieces, chiefly dramatic, he appeared, in 1766, in the character of a novel writer. In that year he published the first volume of the 'Fool of Quality, or the History of the Earl of Moreland,' which was well-received, and completed in five volumes in 1770. This was long a popular novel; but is now little heard of. It exhibits great knowledge of life, and much acuteness in detecting the secret springs of action; but, in many places, borders on the verge of religious mysticism. His last work was entitled 'Juliet Grenville,' a novel in three volumes. It has not maintained the popularity of the 'Fool of Quality.' Brooke died in 1783. His poetical works were collected in 1778, in four volumes 8vo.

John Scott.

BORN A. D. 1730.—DIED A. D. 1783.

THIS amiable man and pleasing poet was the son of quaker parents. He received his education at the village of Amwell in Hertfordshire, to which place his father had retired from the metropolis. About the age of seventeen young Scott began to write verses. His first essays were published in the 'Gentleman's Magazine,' that great cradle of infant genius. His father's circumstances enabled him to pursue the cultivation of his mind with such facilities as the place afforded him; but these were very limited. The youthful bard's most discerning friend was a humble bricklayer, who had taste enough to perceive some merit in his verses, and to encourage him to further efforts of his muse. In 1760 he published four Descriptive elegies, which were favourably received, and introduced the poet to the notice of Dr Young, and two ladies of much consequence in the literary world at that period,—Mrs Talbot and Mrs Carter. In 1767 Scott married the daughter of his

humble friend and adviser, the bricklayer. She died in childbed in the following year, and her husband honoured her memory with a very pathetic elegy. He married again, however, in 1770. In 1776 he published his 'Amwell,' a descriptive poem, which was much admired in the feeble era of English poetical literature in which it appeared, but is now almost unknown. Besides the publications we have enumerated, Scott was the author of several little useful tracts on parish economy, rural laws, &c. He died in 1783. His life was written by Hoole, the translator of Tasso.

William Hunter.

BORN A. D. 1718.—DIED A. D. 1783.

THE annals of medical science do not present two more splendid names than those of the two brothers, William and John Hunter. William, the elder, was born on the 23d of May, 1718, near Kilbride, in the county of Lanark. He was at first intended for the church, and, with this view, studied divinity at the college of Glasgow for about five years. In 1737 he changed the direction of his studies, and placed himself under the tuition of the afterwards celebrated Dr Cullen, then practising surgery in the small county-town of Hamilton, about eleven miles from Glasgow. After having attended several courses of lectures at Edinburgh, and amongst others those of the elder Monro, he proceeded to London, where he obtained employment from Dr Douglas, who was then engaged in preparing a treatise on the bones, and to whom young Hunter proved a valuable acquisition, in his skill as a dissector and demonstrator.

In 1743 William Hunter contributed a paper to the 'Philosophical Transactions,' on the structure and diseases of the Cartilages. In 1746 he delivered a course of lectures on surgery to a society of naval surgeons. Next year he became a member of the college of surgeons, and visited the anatomical preparations of Albinus in the university of Leyden. In 1750 he obtained the degree of M. D. from the university of Glasgow.

He commenced practice in London soon after his return from Leyden. Like many of his brethren, he found his earliest and most lucrative practice in the obstetrical branch of the profession; but this department was cultivated by him with such distinguished success that he became the first physician-accoucheur in the kingdom, and was appointed physician extraordinary to the queen. How profoundly and successfully he had studied this important branch of the science appears from his splendid work entitled 'The History of the Human Gravid Uterus,' first published in 1775.

In 1756 he became a licentiate of the Royal college of physicians; and, on the death of Dr Fothergill, in 1781, was elected president of that learned body. In 1767 he was chosen a fellow of the Royal society, and in 1782 a foreign associate of the French academy of sciences. He pursued his laborious avocations, as a general practitioner and lecturer, with great diligence, throughout the whole course of his profes-

sional life, and till within a few days of his death, which took place on the 30th of March, 1783.

William Hunter was a man of great acuteness and high original genius in his profession; a profound and sagacious observer, and laborious inquirer. He greatly enriched every department of his profession to which he more especially devoted himself. All his contributions to medical science bear the stamp of original genius, and some of his papers may be regarded as models of philosophical investigation and generalization. He entered on the study of medicine with a determination to aim at a leading place in his profession. It is related of him, that, while on a visit to his native place, after having spent some years in London, he was riding one day with his old preceptor and friend Cullen, who remarked how conspicuous an object in the landscape Long Calderwood, the birth-place of William Hunter, appeared from the point of road which they had just attained: "Yes!" exclaimed Hunter. "But, if I live, it shall be still more conspicuous!"—a prediction amply verified in the sequel of his life. In 1762 he got engaged in a sharp controversy with Dr Alexander Monro (*secundus*) of Edinburgh, as to the precedence of some of their respective discoveries in anatomy. The dispute divided the medical world at the time, and we shall not now attempt to determine it. On the institution of the Royal academy, the king appointed Hunter professor of anatomy in that institution; his prelections in this character were much esteemed by the students, and contributed not a little to advance the arts of painting and design in this country. In 1765 he offered to expend £7000 in the erection of an anatomical theatre; and to found a perpetual professorship of anatomy in connexion with the building, provided government would grant a site for this purpose. This liberal and patriotic offer was neglected by the ministry of the day; but Hunter purchased a piece of ground himself, and erected a spacious amphitheatre and museum upon it, at an expence which ultimately amounted to above £70,000. This museum was bequeathed to the university of Glasgow, and now forms one of the principal points of attraction in that city to literary and scientific men.

Dr Hunter was slender in person, and rather below the middle size, but handsomely formed, and graceful in his deportment. None ever more effectually possessed the power of gaining the confidence of his patients—that prime secret in the curative art.

Samuel Johnson, LL.D.

BORN A. D. 1709.—DIED A. D. 1784.

SAMUEL JOHNSON, the brightest ornament of the 18th century, was born in the city of Litchfield, in Staffordshire, on the 18th of September, 1709. His father, Michael Johnson, was a bookseller, and must have had some reputation in the city, as he more than once bore the office of chief-magistrate. By what casuistry he reconciled his conscience to the oaths required in such stations is not known; but it is certain that he was zealously attached to the exiled family, and that he instilled the same principles into the youthful mind of his son. When

Sacheverel, in his memorable tour through England, came to Litchfield, Mr Johnson carried his son—then not quite three years old—to the cathedral, and placed him on his shoulders that he might see as well as hear the far-famed preacher. But political prejudices were not the only evils which young Sam inherited by descent: from the same source he derived a morbid melancholy, which, though it neither depressed his genius nor clouded his intellect, often overshadowed him with dreadful apprehensions of insanity. From his nurse, too, he contracted scrophula, which made its appearance in him at a very early period, disfigured a face naturally well-formed, and deprived him of the sight of one of his eyes.

His first teacher was a woman who kept a school for young children. When arrived at a proper age for grammatical instruction, he was placed in the free school of Litchfield, of which one Hunter was then head-master,—a man whom his illustrious pupil thought “very severe, and wrong-headedly severe,” because he would beat a boy for not answering questions which he could not expect to be asked. He was, however, a skilful teacher, and Johnson was sensible how much he owed him; for, upon being asked how he had acquired so accurate a knowledge of the Latin tongue, he replied: “My master beat me very well; without that, Sir, I should have done nothing.”

At the age of fifteen Johnson was removed from Litchfield to a school at Stourbridge in Worcestershire, at which he remained little more than a year. He then returned home, where he staid two years without any settled plan of life, or any regular course of study. About this time, however, he read a great deal in a desultory manner; so that when, in his nineteenth year, he was entered a commoner of Pembroke college, Oxford, his mind was stored with a variety of knowledge, and Dr Adams said of him, “he was the best qualified for the university of all the young men that he had ever known come there.”

Concerning his residence in the university, and the means by which he was supported, his two principal biographers contradict each other. According to Sir John Hawkins, the time of his continuance at Oxford is divisible into two periods; Mr Boswell represents it as only one period, with the usual interval of a long vacation. Sir John says that he was supported at college by a Mr Corbet, in the quality of assistant-tutor to his son; Boswell assures us, that, though he was promised pecuniary aid by Mr Corbet, that promise was never in any degree fulfilled. We should be inclined to adopt the knight's account of this transaction were it not palpably inconsistent with itself. He says that the two young men were entered in Pembroke on the ‘same day;’ that Corbet continued in the college two years; and yet that Johnson was driven home in little more than one year, because by the removal of Corbet he was deprived of his pension. Sir John adds, that “meeting with another source—the bounty, it is supposed, of some one or more of the members of the cathedral of Litchfield—he returned to college, and made up the whole of his residence in the university about three years.” Boswell has told us nothing but that Johnson, though his father was unable to support him, continued three years at college, and was then driven from it by extreme poverty. These gentlemen differ likewise in their accounts of Johnson's tutors. Sir John Hawkins says that he had two, Mr Jordan and Dr Adams; Boswell affirms that Dr Adams could

not be his tutor, because Jordan did not quit college till 1731,—the year in the autumn of which Johnson himself was compelled to leave Oxford. Yet the same author represents Dr Adams as saying, “I was Johnson’s nominal tutor; but he was above my mark:”—a speech of which it is not easy to discover the meaning, if it was not Johnson’s duty to attend Adams’ lectures. Jordan was a man of such inferior abilities, that, though his pupil loved him for the goodness of his heart, yet he would often risk the payment of a small fine rather than attend his labours, nor was he studious to conceal the reason of his absence. Upon occasion of one such imposition, he said, “Sir, you have scolded me twopence for non-attendance at a lecture not worth a penny.” For some transgression or absence his tutor imposed upon him as a Christmas exercise the task of translating into Latin verse Pope’s Messiah. The version being shown to the author of the original, he read and returned it with this encomium: “The writer of this poem will leave it a question for posterity whether his or mine be the original.” The particular course of his reading while in college, and during the vacation which he passed at home, cannot be traced. That at this period he read much we have his own evidence in what he afterwards told the king; but his mode of study was never regular, and at all times he thought more than he read. He informed Mr Boswell that what he read solidly at Oxford was Greek, and that the study he was most fond of was metaphysics.

In the year 1731 Johnson left the university without a degree. His father died in the month of December of that year, after having suffered great misfortunes in trade. Young Johnson having, therefore, not only a profession but the means of subsistence to seek, he accepted, in the month of March, 1732, the office of under-master of a free school at Market-Bosworth, Leicestershire; but, disgusted at the treatment which he received from the patron of the school, he, in a few months, relinquished a situation which he ever afterward recollected with horror. Being thus again without any fixed employment, and with very little money in his pocket, he translated and abridged ‘Lobo’s Voyage to Abyssinia,’¹ for the trifling sum, it is said, of five guineas. This was the first attempt which he made to procure pecuniary assistance by means of his pen; and it must have held forth very little encouragement to his commencing author by profession. In 1734 he returned to Litchfield, and issued proposals for an edition of Politian’s Latin poems, with an historical sketch of Latin poetry from the era of Petrarch to the time of Politian. The subscription-list, however, proved inadequate to the expense of publication, and the design was abandoned. Disappointed in this scheme he next offered his services to the editor of the ‘Gentleman’s Magazine,’ but did not agree upon any permanent engagement.

In 1735, being then in his twenty-sixth year, he married Mrs Porter, the widow of a mercer in Birmingham,—a lady whose age was almost double his own; whose external form, according to Garrick and others, had never been captivating, and whose fortune amounted to little more than £800. That she was a woman of superior understanding and talent is extremely probable, both because she certainly inspired him

¹ Published in 1735 by Bettesworth & Hitch, London.

with a more than ordinary passion, and because she was herself so delighted with the charms of his conversation as to overlook his personal disadvantages, which were many and great. He now set up a private academy; for which purpose he hired a large house, well-situated, near his native city; but his name having then nothing of that celebrity which afterwards commanded the attention and respect of mankind, this undertaking did not succeed. The only pupils who are known to have been placed under his care, were the celebrated David Garrick, his brother George Garrick, and a young gentleman of fortune, whose name was Ossely. He kept his academy only a year and a half, and it was during this period of his life that he constructed the plan, and wrote a great part, of his tragedy of 'Irene.'

The respectable character of his parents, and his own merit, had secured him a kind reception in the best families at Litchfield. He was particularly patronized by Mr Walmsley, registrar of the ecclesiastical court,—a man of great worth and of very extensive and various erudition. This gentleman, upon hearing part of 'Irene' read, thought so highly of Johnson's abilities as a dramatic writer, that he advised him by all means to finish the tragedy and produce it on the stage. To men of genius the stage at this period held forth temptations almost resistless; the profits arising from a tragedy, including the representation and printing of it, and the connections which it enabled the author to form, were, in Johnson's imagination, inestimable: flattered, it may be supposed, with these hopes, he set out for London some time in the year 1737, with his pupil David Garrick, leaving Mrs Johnson to take care of the house and the wreck of her fortune. The two adventurers carried with them a warm recommendation from Mr Walmsley to Mr Colson, then master of an academy, and afterwards Lucasian professor of mathematics in the university of Cambridge; but from that gentleman it does not appear that Johnson found either protection or encouragement.

How he spent his time upon his first going to London is not particularly known. His tragedy was refused by the managers of that day; and for some years the 'Gentleman's Magazine' seems to have been his principal resource for employment and support. His connection with Cave, the proprietor of that periodical, ultimately became very close; he wrote prefaces, essays, reviews of books, and poems for it; and was occasionally employed in correcting the communications of other correspondents. When the complaints of the nation against the administration of Sir Robert Walpole became loud, and the famous motion was made on the 13th of February, 1740, to remove him from his majesty's councils for ever, Johnson was pitched upon by Cave to write what was entitled 'Debates in the Senate of Lilliput,' but was understood to be reports of the speeches of the most eminent members in both houses of parliament. These orations—which induced Voltaire to compare British with ancient eloquence—were hastily sketched by Johnson when he was not yet thirty-two years old, while he was little acquainted with the world, and while he was struggling not for distinction but for existence. Perhaps in none of his writings has he given a more conspicuous proof of a mind prompt and vigorous almost beyond conception; for they were composed from scanty notes taken by illiterate persons, and sometimes he had no other hints to work upon except

the names of the several speakers, and the part which they took in the debate.²

His separate publications which at this time attracted the greatest notice were, 'London, a Poem in imitation of Juvenal's third Satire;' 'Marmor Norfolciense, or an Essay on an ancient Prophetic Inscription in Monkish rhyme, lately discovered near Lynne in Norfolk;' and 'A complete Vindication of the Licensers of the Stage from the malicious and scandalous aspersions of Mr Brooke, author of *Gustavus Vasa*.' The poem was published in 1738 by Dodsley. It is universally known and admired. The two pamphlets, which were published in 1739, are filled with keen satire on the government; and though Sir John Hawkins has thought fit to declare that they display neither learning nor wit, Pope was of a different opinion; for, in a note of his preserved by Boswell, he says, that "the whole of the Norfolk prophecy is very humorous."

Mrs Johnson, who went to London soon after her husband, now lived sometimes in one place and sometimes in another,—sometimes in the city and sometimes at Greenwich,—but Johnson himself was usually to be found at St John's Gate, where the 'Gentleman's Magazine' was published. It was here he became acquainted with Savage, with whom he was induced—probably by the similarity of their circumstances—to contract a very close friendship; and such were their extreme and mutual necessities, that they often wandered together whole nights in the streets for want of money to procure them a lodging! In one of these nocturnal rambles when their personal distress was almost incredible, so far were they from being depressed by their situation, that, brimful of patriotism, they traversed St James' square for several hours, inveighed against the minister, and, as Johnson said in ridicule of himself, his companion, and all such patriots, "resolved that they would stand by their country!" In 1744 he published the life of his unfortunate companion,—a work which, had he never written any thing else, would have placed him very high in the rank of authors. "It gives," says Mr Croker, "like Raphael's Lazarus or Murillo's Beggar, pleasure as a work of art, while the original could only excite disgust. Johnson has spread over Savage's character the varnish, or rather the veil, of stately diction and extenuatory phrases, but cannot prevent the observant reader from seeing that the subject of this biographical essay was, as Mr Boswell calls him, 'an ungrateful and insolent profligate;' and so little do his works show of that poetical talent for which he has been celebrated, that, if it had not been for Johnson's embalming partiality, his works would probably be now as unheard-of as they are unread."

In 1749, when Drury-lane theatre was opened under the management of Garrick, Johnson wrote a prologue for the occasion, which, for just dramatic criticism on the whole range of the English stage, as well as for poetical excellence, is confessedly unrivalled. This year is also distinguished in his life as the epoch when his arduous and important work, the 'Dictionary of the English Language,' was first announced to the world by the publication of its plan, or prospectus, addressed to the earl of Chesterfield. From that nobleman Johnson was certainly led to expect patronage and encouragement; and it seems to be equally

² Johnson's reports extend from November 1740 to February 1742-3.

certain that his lordship expected, when the book should be published, to be honoured with the dedication. The expectations of both, however, were disappointed. Lord Chesterfield, after seeing the lexicographer once or twice, suffered him to be repulsed from his door; but afterwards, thinking to conciliate when the dictionary was upon the eve of publication, he wrote two papers in 'The World,' warmly recommending it to the public. This artifice was seen through, and Johnson, in very polite language, rejected his lordship's advances, letting him know that he was unwilling the public should consider him as owing to a patron that which Providence had enabled him to do for himself. This great and laborious work its author expected to complete in three years, but he was certainly employed upon it seven; for we know that it was begun in 1747, and the last sheet was sent to the press in the end of the year 1754. When we consider the nature of the undertaking, it is indeed astonishing that it was finished so soon, since it was written, as he says, "with little assistance of the learned, and without any patronage of the great; not in the soft obscurities of retirement, or under the shelter of academic bowers, but amidst inconvenience and distraction, in sickness and in sorrow." The sorrow to which he here alludes is probably that which he felt for the loss of his wife, who died on the 17th of March, 1752, and whom he continued to lament as long as he lived.

The dictionary did not occupy his whole time; for, to use his own phrase, "he did not set doggedly about it." While he was pushing it forward, he wrote the lives of several eminent men, and various other articles for the 'Gentleman's Magazine;' published an imitation of the tenth satire of Juvenal, entitled 'The Vanity of Human Wishes;' and began and finished 'The Rambler.' This last work, it is hardly necessary to say, was a periodical paper, published twice a-week, from the 20th of March, 1750, to the 14th of March, 1752, inclusive. To give our readers some notion of the vigour and promptitude of the author's mind, it may not be improper to observe, that, notwithstanding the severity of his other labours, all the assistance which he received in the 'Rambler' does not amount to five papers; and that many of the most masterly of those unequalled essays were written on the spur of the occasion, and never seen entire by the author till they returned to him from the press. Soon after the 'Rambler' was concluded, Dr Hawkesworth projected 'The Adventurer' upon a similar plan; and by the assistance of friends he was enabled to carry it on with almost equal merit. For a short time, indeed, it was the most popular work of the two; but the papers with the signature T—confessedly the most splendid in the whole collection—are known to have been communicated by Johnson, who received for each the sum of two guineas. This was double the price for which he sold sermons to such clergymen as either would not or could not compose their own discourses; and of sermon-writing he seems to have made a kind of trade.

Though he had exhausted, during the time that he was employed on the dictionary, more than the sum which the bookseller had offered for the copy, yet, by means of the 'Rambler,' 'Adventurer,' 'Sermons,' and other productions of his pen, he now found himself in greater affluence than he had ever been before; and as the powers of his mind, distended by long and severe exercise, required relaxation to restore

them to their proper tone, he appears to have done little or nothing from the closing of the 'Adventurer' till the year 1756, when he submitted to the office of reviewer in the 'Literary Magazine.' Of his reviews by far the most valuable is that of Soame Jenyn's 'Free Inquiry into the Nature and Origin of Evil.' Never were wit and metaphysical acuteness more closely united than in that criticism, which exposes the weakness, and holds up to contempt the reasonings, of those vain mortals who presumptuously attempt to grasp the scale of existence, and to form plans of conduct for the Creator of the universe. But the furnishing of magazines, reviews, and even newspapers, with literary intelligence, and authors of books with dedications and prefaces, was considered as an employment unworthy of Johnson. It was therefore proposed by the booksellers that he should give a new edition of the dramas of Shakspeare,—a work which he had projected many years before, and of which he had published a specimen which was commended by Warburton. When one of his friends expressed a hope that this employment would furnish him with amusement and add to his fame, he replied: "I look upon it as I did upon the dictionary—it is all work; and my inducement to it is not love or desire of fame, but the want of money, which is the only motive to writing that I know of." He issued proposals, however, of considerable length; in which he showed that he knew perfectly what a variety of research such an undertaking required; but his indolence prevented him from pursuing it with diligence, and it was not published till many years afterwards.

On the 15th of April, 1758, he began a new periodical paper entitled 'The Idler,' which came out every Saturday in a weekly newspaper called 'The Universal Chronicle, or Weekly Gazette,' published by Newberry. Of these essays, which were continued till the 5th of April, 1760, many were written as hastily as an ordinary letter; and one in particular, composed at Oxford, was begun only half-an-hour before the departure of the post which carried it to London. About this time he had the offer of a living, of which he might have rendered himself capable by entering into orders. It was a rectory in a pleasant country, of such yearly value as would have been an object to one in much better circumstances; but sensible, as is supposed, of the asperity of his temper, he declined it, saying, "I have not requisites for the office, and I cannot in my conscience shear the flock which I am unable to feed."

In the month of January, 1759, his mother died at the great age of ninety; an event which deeply affected him, and gave birth to the 41st 'Idler,'—in which he laments that "the life which made his own life pleasant was at an end, and that the gate of death was shut upon his prospects." Soon afterwards he wrote his 'Rasselas, Prince of Abyssinia,' that with the profits he might defray the expenses of his mother's funeral, and pay some debts which she had left. He told a friend that he received for the copy £100, and £25 more when it came to a second edition; that he wrote it in the evenings of one week, sent it to the press in portions as it was written, and had never since read it over. The 'Candide' of Voltaire came out exactly at the same time with 'Rasselas.' "Dr Johnson," says a Quarterly reviewer, "on perusing Voltaire's piece, said, 'If the French novel had appeared ever so little before the English, or, vice versa, it would have been impossible for the author

that published second to have passed with the world for other than the plagiary of the first.' Perhaps the coincidence of plan is not more extraordinary than the equal perfection, in two wholly different styles, of the execution. The two great masters of the age meet on the same field, each armed cap-a-pee in the strength and splendour of his faculties and acquirements; and, looking merely to the display of talent, it might be difficult to strike the balance. But if we consider the impression left as to the moral and intellectual character of the authors respectively, and remember also the different circumstances under which they had conceived and laboured, how clear is the triumph! The one man, in the gloom of sorrow and penury, tasks his strength for a rapid effort, that he may have the means to discharge the expenses of a dear parent's funeral; the other, surrounded by the blaze of universal fame, and in the midst of every luxury that wealth could bring to embellish a romantic retirement, sits down deliberately to indulge his spleen, ready to kick the world to pieces simply because his self-love has been galled by the outbreking insolence of a despot, to whom, during twenty years, he had prostrated himself in the dirtiest abasement of flatteries. How soothing and elevating to turn from the bitter revelry of his cynicism to the solemn sadness of the rival work,—its grave compassion for the vanities of mankind,—its sympathy with our toils and perils,—its indignation even at vice constantly softening into a humble and hopeful charity,—its melancholy but majestic aspirations after the good and the great, philosophy sublimed by faith."

Hitherto, notwithstanding his various publications, he was poor, and obliged to provide by his labours for the wants of the day that was passing over him; but having been, in 1762, represented to the king as a very learned and good man without any certain provision, his majesty was pleased to grant him a pension, which Lord Bute, then first minister, assured him "was not given for any thing he was to do, but for what he had already done." A fixed annuity of £300 a-year, if it diminished his distress, increased his indolence; for, as he constantly avowed that he had no other motive for writing than to gain money, and as he had now what was abundantly sufficient for all his purposes,—as he delighted in conversation, and was visited and admired by the witty, the elegant, and the learned,—very little of his time could now be passed in solitary study. Solitude was indeed his aversion; and that he might avoid it as much as possible, Sir Joshua Reynolds and he, in 1764, instituted a club, which existed long without a name, but was afterward known by the title of the 'Literary Club.' It consisted of some of the most enlightened men of the age, who met at the Turk's Head in Gerard-street, Soho, one evening in every week.

In 1765, when Johnson was more than usually oppressed with constitutional melancholy, he was fortunately introduced into the family of Mr Thrale, one of the most eminent brewers in England, and member of parliament for the borough of Southwark. To the shelter which their hospitable house afforded him for sixteen years, and to the pains which they took to soothe or repress his uneasy fancies, the public is probably indebted for some of the most masterly as well as the most popular works which he ever produced. At length, in October of this year, he gave to the world his edition of Shakspeare, which is chiefly valuable for its preface. In 1767 he was honoured with a private in-

terview with the king in the library at the queen's house. Two years afterwards, upon the establishment of the royal academy of painting, sculpture, &c. he was nominated professor of ancient literature,—an office merely honorary, and conferred on him, as is supposed, at the recommendation of his friend the president.

In the variety of subjects on which he had hitherto exercised his pen, he had forbore, since the administration of Sir Robert Walpole, to meddle with the disputes of contending factions; but having seen with indignation the methods which, in the business of Wilkes, were taken to work upon the populace, he published, in 1770, a pamphlet entitled 'The False Alarm,' in which he asserts, and labours to prove by a variety of arguments founded on precedents, that the expulsion of a member of the house of commons is equivalent to exclusion, and that no such calamity as the subversion of the constitution was to be feared from an act warranted by usage, which is the law of parliament. Whatever may be thought of the principles maintained in this publication, it unquestionably contains much wit and much argument, expressed in the author's best style of composition; and yet it is known to have been written between eight o'clock on Wednesday night and twelve o'clock on the Thursday night, when it was read to Mr Thrale upon his coming from the house of commons. In 1771 he published another political pamphlet, entitled 'Thoughts on the late transactions respecting Falkland's Islands,' in which he attacked Junius, and he ever afterwards pleased himself with the thought of having defeated that consummate political writer.

In 1773 he visited, in company with Boswell, some of the most considerable of the Hebrides, or Western islands of Scotland, and afterwards published an account of his journey. In 1774, the parliament being dissolved, he addressed to the electors of Great Britain a pamphlet entitled 'The Patriot,' of which the design was to guard them from imposition, and teach them to distinguish true from false patriotism. In 1775 he published 'Taxation no Tyranny; in answer to the resolutions and address of the American Congress.' In 1765 Trinity college, Dublin, had created him LL.D. by diploma, and he now received the same honour from the university of Oxford,—an honour with which he was highly gratified. In 1777 he was induced, by a case of a very extraordinary nature, to exercise that humanity which in him was obedient to every call. Dr William Dodd—a clergyman under sentence of death for the crime of forgery—found means to interest Johnson in his behalf, who wrote for him a petition from himself to the king, and an address from his wife to the queen, praying for a commutation of his sentence.

The principal booksellers in London having determined to publish a body of English poetry, Johnson was prevailed upon to write the lives of the poets, and give a character of the works to each. This task he undertook with alacrity, and executed it in such a manner as must convince every competent reader, that, as a biographer and a critic, no nation can produce his equal. The work was published in ten small volumes, of which the first four came abroad in 1778 and the others in 1781. While the world in general was filled with admiration of the stupendous powers of that man, who, at the age of seventy-two, and labouring under a complication of diseases, could produce a work which

displays so much genius and so much learning, there were some circles in which prejudice and resentment were fostered, and whence attacks of different sorts issued against him. These gave him not the smallest disturbance. When told of the feeble though shrill outcry that had been raised, he said, "Sir, I considered myself as intrusted with a certain portion of truth. I have given my opinion sincerely; let them show where they think me wrong."

He had scarcely begun to reap the laurels gained by this performance when death deprived him of Mr Thrale, in whose house he had enjoyed the most comfortable hours of his life; but it abated not in Johnson that care for the interests of those whom his friend had left behind him, which he thought himself bound to cherish, both in duty as one of the executors of his will, and from the nobler principle of gratitude. On this account his visits to Streatham, Mr Thrale's villa, were, for some time after his death, as regularly made on Monday and protracted till Saturday as they had been during his life; but they soon became less and less frequent, and he studiously avoided the mention of the place or the family. Mrs Thrale, now Piozzi, says indeed that "it became extremely perplexing and difficult to live in the house with him when the master of it was no more; because his dislikes grew capricious, and he could scarce bear to have any body come to the house whom it was absolutely necessary for her to see." The person whom she thought it most necessary for her to see may be easily guessed at.

About the middle of June, 1783, his constitution sustained a severe shock by a stroke of the palsy, so sudden and so violent that it awakened him out of a sound sleep, and rendered him for a short time speechless. From this alarming attack he recovered with wonderful quickness, but it left behind it some presages of an hydropic affection; and he was soon afterwards seized with a spasmodic asthma of such violence that he was confined to the house in great pain, while his dropsy increased, notwithstanding all the efforts of the most eminent physicians in London and Edinburgh. He had, however, such an interval of ease as enabled him, in the summer of 1784, to visit his friends at Oxford, Litchfield, and Ashbourne in Derbyshire. The Romish religion being introduced one day as the topic of conversation when he was in the house of Dr Adams, Johnson said, "If you join the papists externally, they will not interrogate you strictly as to your belief in their tenets. No reasoning papist believes every article of their faith. There is one side on which a good man might be persuaded to embrace it. A good man of a timorous disposition, in great doubt of his acceptance with God, and pretty credulous, might be glad of a church where there are so many helps to go to heaven. I would be a papist if I could. I have fear enough; but an obstinate rationality prevents me. I shall never be a papist unless on the near approach of death, of which I have very great terror." His constant dread of death was indeed great, and astonished all who had access to him. This, however, was the case only while death was approaching. From the time that he was certain it was near, all his fears were calmed; and he died on the 13th of December, 1784, full of resignation, strengthened by faith, and joyful in hope.

For a just character of this great man our limits afford not room: we must therefore content ourselves with laying before our readers a

very short sketch. His stature was tall, his limbs were large, his strength was more than common, and his activity in early life had been greater than such a form gave reason to expect; but he was subject to an infirmity apparently of the convulsive kind, and resembling the distemper called St Vitus's dance; and he had the seeds of so many diseases sown in his constitution that a short time before his death he declared that he hardly remembered to have passed one day wholly free from pain. This was undoubtedly the secret of much of that surliness of disposition of which he was often accused. He possessed very extraordinary powers of understanding, which were much enlivened by reading, and still more by meditation and reflection. His memory was remarkably retentive, his imagination uncommonly vigorous, and his judgment keen and penetrating. He read with great rapidity, retained with wonderful exactness what he so easily collected, and possessed the power of reducing to order and system the scattered hints on any subject which he had gathered from different books. It would not perhaps be safe to claim for him the highest place, among his contemporaries, in any single department of literature; for he was not scientifically or profoundly learned; but, to use one of his own expressions, he brought more mind to every subject, and had a greater variety of knowledge ready for all occasions, than any other man that could be easily named. Though prone to superstition, he was, in all other respects, so remarkably incredulous that Hogarth once remarked, that though Johnson firmly believed the bible, he seemed determined to believe nothing but the bible. Of the importance of religion he had a strong sense, and his zeal for its interest was always awake, so that profaneness of every kind was abashed in his presence. The same energy which was displayed in his literary productions was exhibited also in his conversation, which was various, striking, and instructive; like the sage in 'Rasselas,' he spoke, and attention watched his lips,—he reasoned, and conviction closed his periods; when he pleased, he could be the greatest sophist that ever contended in the lists of declamation; and perhaps no man ever equalled him in nervous and pointed repartees. His veracity, from the most trivial to the most solemn occasions, was strict even to severity: he scorned to embellish a story with fictitious circumstances; for what is not a representation of reality, he used to say, is not worthy of our attention. As his purse and his house were ever open to the indigent, so was his heart tender to those who wanted relief, and his soul was susceptible of gratitude and every kind impression. He had a roughness in his manner which subdued the saucy and terrified the meek; but it was only in his manner; for no man possessed a more truly generous heart, and was more loved than Johnson was by those who knew him.

Every one has read that unique piece of biography, 'Boswell's Life of Johnson.' Mr Croker, in his admirable edition of that popular work, says, with equal truth and elegance: "It was a strange and fortunate concurrence, that one so prone to talk, and who talked so well, should be brought into such close contact and confidence with one so zealous and so able to record. Dr Johnson was a man of extraordinary powers, but Mr Boswell had qualities, in their own way, almost as rare. He united lively manners with indefatigable diligence, and the volatile curiosity of a man about town with the drudging patience of a chronicler.

With a very good opinion of himself, he was quick in discerning, and frank in applauding, the excellencies of others. Though proud of his own name and lineage, and ambitious of the countenance of the great, he was yet so cordial an admirer of merit, wherever found, that much public ridicule, and something like contempt, were excited by the modest assurance with which he pressed his acquaintance on all the notorieties of his time, and by the ostentatious (but, in the main, laudable) assiduity with which he attended the exile Paoli and the low-born Johnson! These were amiable, and, for us, fortunate inconsistencies. His contemporaries, indeed, not without some colour of reason, occasionally complained of him as vain, inquisitive, troublesome, and giddy; but his vanity was inoffensive,—his curiosity was commonly directed towards laudable objects,—when he meddled, he did so, generally, from good-natured motives,—and his giddiness was only an exuberant gaiety, which never failed in the respect and reverence due to literature, morals, and religion; and posterity gratefully acknowledges the taste, temper, and talents with which he selected, enjoyed, and described that polished and intellectual society which still lives in his work, and without his work had perished!

‘Vixere fortes ante Agamemnona
Multi: sed omnes illacrymabiles
Urgentur, ignotique longâ
Nocte, carent quia vate sacro.’—HOR.*

Such imperfect though interesting sketches as ‘Ben Jonson’s Visit to Drummond,’ ‘Selden’s Table Talk,’ ‘Swift’s Journal,’ and ‘Spence’s Anecdotes,’ only tantalize our curiosity and excite our regret that there was no *Boswell* to preserve the conversation and illustrate the life and times of Addison, of Swift himself, of Milton, and, above all, of Shakespeare! We can hardly refrain from indulging ourselves with the imagination of works so instructive and delightful; but that were idle, except as it may tend to increase our obligation to the faithful and fortunate biographer of Dr Johnson. Mr Boswell’s birth and education familiarized him with the highest of his acquaintance, and his good-nature and conviviality with the lowest. He describes society of all classes with the happiest discrimination. Even his foibles assisted his curiosity; he was sometimes laughed at, but always well-received; he excited no envy, he imposed no restraint. It was well-known that he made notes of every conversation, yet no timidity was alarmed, no delicacy demurred; and we are perhaps indebted to the lighter parts of his character for the patient indulgence with which every body submitted to sit for their pictures. Nor were his talents inconsiderable. He had looked a good deal into books, and more into the world. The narrative portion of his work is written with good sense, in an easy and perspicuous style, and without (which seems odd enough) any palpable imitation of Johnson. But in recording conversations he is unrivalled;

* “Before great Agamemnon reign’d,
Reign’d kings as great as he, and brave,
Whose huge ambition’s now contain’d
In the small compass of a grave;
In endless night they sleep, unwept, unknown;
No bard had they to make all time their own.”—FRANCIS.

that he was eminently accurate in substance, we have the evidence of all his contemporaries; but he is also in a high degree characteristic—dramatic. The incidental observations with which he explains or enlivens the dialogue are terse, appropriate, and picturesque—we not merely hear his company, we see them !”

Richard Glover.

BORN A. D. 1712.—DIED A. D. 1785.

MR GLOVER, the author of the epic poem of ‘Leonidas,’ was born in 1712. He was the son of a Hamburgh merchant settled in London. His first poetical efforts were made in his sixteenth year, when he wrote some verses in honour of Sir Isaac Newton, which attracted the attention of Dr Pemberton, who thought them of sufficient merit to deserve a place in his view of Sir Isaac’s philosophy, then on the eve of publication. Young Glover was destined by his father to succeed him in business, and accordingly became engaged in the Hamburgh trade after finishing a brief education. But the toils and pursuits of the counting-house failed to estrange him from the society of his loved muses; and, in 1737, he presented his ‘Leonidas’ at the tribunal of public criticism. The award was favourable, and in the course of little more than one year it passed through twelve editions. Lord Cobham, to whom it was dedicated, warmly patronised it; Lord Lyttleton, in the periodical paper called ‘Common Sense,’ praised it in the warmest terms, not only for its poetical beauties but its excellent political tendencies; Fielding lauded it in ‘The Champion;’ and, in a word, the whole old whig interest were moved in its behalf, and hastened to identify the youthful Cato with their own cabal. The bait took, and Glover, whether from vanity or principle, became a keen politician and staunch adherent of the party. He made a conspicuous figure in city politics as early as the year 1739, when, by his influence and activity, he was the means of setting aside the election to the mayoralty of a person who had voted in parliament with the court-party. In the same year he was intrusted with the management of the appeal to parliament which the city-merchants deemed it proper to make against the line of policy then pursuing by Sir Robert Walpole.

To the whig principles thus early adopted by him, he remained a steadfast adherent during the whole of his career. He was indeed too ardent an admirer of political consistency not to have his feelings repeatedly shocked by the conduct of many of his opposition friends; and such were the high Catoic principles which marked his character, that he unhesitatingly broke up his intercourse with any of the party when the disintegrity of their motives appeared sufficiently clear to him. In this feature of his character the reader will discern a striking resemblance to that of ‘the mysterious and formidable shade’ known amongst us by the name of Junius. The resemblance has been followed out with considerable ingenuity by the author of ‘An Inquiry concerning the Author of the Letters of Junius, with reference to the Memoirs of a celebrated Literary and Political character.’¹ The particulars on

¹ London, 1814. 8vo.

which this inquirer founds his presumption in favour of Glover are the following: "He was an accomplished scholar, and had all the advantages that affluent circumstances and the best company could give. He was ever strongly attached to the principles of the constitution; his politics were those of Junius, and he was of the private councils of men in the highest station of the state throughout the greater part of a long and active life. At the time the letters of Junius were written, he had attained an age which could allow him without vanity to boast of an ample knowledge and experience of the world; and during the period of their publication he resided in London, and was engaged in no pursuits incompatible with his devoting his time to their composition: so that, in his letter to Mr Wilkes, he might justly say, 'I offer you the sincere opinion of a man who perhaps has more leisure to make reflections than you have, and who, though he stands clear of business and intrigue, mixes sufficiently for the purpose of intelligence in the conversation of the world.'" To these circumstances some others, which the inquirer indicates, might be added in support of the claims put forward for Mr Glover to the authorship of Junius. For example, Junius was evidently well-acquainted with city concerns and the language of traders and stock-jobbers; he valued himself on his knowledge of financial affairs; he was evidently familiar with the labour of correcting the press and the technical language of printers; he could write poetry apparently with facility; and he seems to have entertained a personal regard for Woodfall his printer. All these points of resemblance may undoubtedly be traced betwixt Glover and Junius, but they will not probably be found to counterbalance the general impression that the letters of Junius were the offspring of a much more brilliant and powerful mind than the author of 'Leonidas,' and the 'Memoirs of a celebrated Character' has evinced in these his principal avowed pieces.

About the year 1744, Glover, disgusted at the scenes of intrigue and faction which his political career had betrayed to him, withdrew altogether from public affairs, and devoted his attention to the prosecution of his mercantile projects. Nor was it until ten years afterwards, when the prospect of the formation of an efficient and liberal ministry under Pitt was first held out to the country, that he was again prevailed upon to resume acquaintance with his friends at the west end of the town. Pitt honoured him with his confidence for a time; but the high-souled poet did not hesitate to withdraw himself from the friendship and favour of even such a man as Pitt when the minister's political conduct had become the subject of his disapprobation. At the accession of George III. Glover was chosen member of parliament for Weymouth, and sat in parliament from 1761 to 1768. In 1775 he retired from public life. His last political act was supporting the claim of the West India planters and merchants at the bar of the house of commons,—for which service his clients voted him a piece of plate of the value of £300. He died in 1785.

Glover's 'Leonidas' amply entitles him to a distinguished place among the poets of his country. It is a piece of stately classic diction; free from turgidity, and considerably varied by incident and description; but its poetry is not of a sufficiently imaginative character for the taste of the present day. His 'Athenaid' is a correct, but compared with the 'Leonidas,' an inferior performance. He was the author of

the celebrated ballad entitled 'Hosier's Ghost,' which was written with a view to rouse the nation, or rather the ministry, who seemed to be the only parties opposed to the general feeling, to a war with Spain. Of his dramatic pieces, entitled 'Boadicea' and 'Medea,' little can be said either in the form of praise or censure. His 'Memoirs,' to which we have already adverted, are written with great impartiality, and contain some curious notices of the motives and intrigues of the principal actors on the political stage in England, from the resignation of Sir Robert Walpole to the establishment of Lord Chatham's second administration.

Thomas Leland.

BORN A. D. 1722.—DIED A. D. 1785.

DR THOMAS LELAND, the well-known translator of Demosthenes, was born in Dublin, and educated at the university in that city. He entered Trinity college in 1737, and was elected a fellow in 1746. In 1748 he took orders.

His first literary production was an edition of the orations of Demosthenes, with a Latin version and notes, which was published in 1754. The first volume of his English translation of the great Greek orator appeared in 1756; the second, in 1761; and the third in 1770. This work raised him to a high rank amongst the scholars of his day. The style is elegant, and the translation, on the whole, correct; although it would require a man of considerably greater powers than Dr Leland, and a more extensive command of all the resources of language, to furnish any thing like an adequate version of those matchless harangues that once "fulmin'd over Greece" with such a potent and resistless energy, and held the most refined and fastidious audience the world ever saw spell-bound and mute with astonishment at the superhuman eloquence of the orator.

The translation of Demosthenes probably suggested Dr Leland's next great work, 'The History of the Life and Reign of Philip, King of Macedon.' This, too, is an able and erudite performance.

In 1763 Dr Leland was appointed professor of oratory in Trinity college. Soon after this he got into controversy with the redoubtable Warburton, who had chosen, in his celebrated 'Doctrine of Grace,' to assert that eloquence was not any real quality, but only a fantastical and arbitrary abuse of language; and that the writers of the New Testament used a barbarous style in writing Greek, being masters of the words only, and not of the idioms, of that language. Against these two propositions Dr Leland read several lectures in his chair of oratory, the substance of which he published in 1764. Hurd answered on the part of Warburton and Leland replied.

In 1773 Dr Leland published a 'History of Ireland, from the invasion of Henry II.,' in three volumes 4to. This is by no means a work of original research, and is of little value, therefore, to the student of Irish history; but it is written in a pleasing style, and forms a good popular work on the subject.

In addition to the works we have mentioned, Dr Leland published

some sermons which were much admired, and after his death, three volumes of pulpit-discourses from his pen were given to the public. He died in 1785.

William Strahan.

BORN A. D. 1715.—DIED A. D. 1785.

THIS eminent printer was a Scotsman by birth, and educated in Scotland. He went as a journeyman-printer to London, while yet a very young man, and by his industry and attention to business gradually rose in the world, until he obtained a share of the patent of king's printer, and became one of the leading publishers in the metropolis. In 1775 he was elected one of the members for Malmesbury, with Charles James Fox for his colleague. He steadily adhered to the liberal party, but lost his seat on the dissolution in 1784, and did not again enter parliament. He died in July 1785.

William Whitehead.

BORN A. D. 1715.—DIED A. D. 1785.

WILLIAM WHITEHEAD, one of our minor poets, was born at Cambridge, and received the rudiments of education at a private school in that city. At the age of fourteen he procured admission to Winchester school, through the interest of Lord Montfort. At this latter seminary, Whitehead bore the character of a quiet pensive boy, fond of reading, and a great scribbler of English verses. In 1735 he was entered of Clare-hall, Cambridge, where he gained the acquaintance and esteem of such men as Powell, Balguy, Ogden, and Hurd.

His first successful poetical production was an imitation of Pope's preceptive style, in a poem 'On the danger of Writing in Verse.' His next publication, the tale of 'Atys and Adrastus,' was still more successful; but the best of his didactic pieces is his 'Essay on Ridicule,' first published in 1743. In 1750 he published a tragedy, entitled, 'The Roman Father,' which still retains its place on the stage, and must therefore be pronounced a successful effort, although we suspect few of our readers ever heard of it. A second effort in this line, entitled 'Creusa,' was less successful, although Mason, the biographer of Whitehead, gives it the preference over 'The Roman Father.'

In 1754, Whitehead accompanied the son of his patron, Lord Jersey, and another young nobleman, to the continent. During this tour he wrote several elegies and odes, which Mason thinks have been unduly neglected by the public. On the death of Cibber, and the refusal of Gray to accept the laureateship, that office was bestowed on Whitehead, whose genius was by no means outraged by its mechanical demands on his powers. He made a good and patient laureate, annually producing his quantum of verse, and occasionally stumbling upon a poetical sentiment or expression; but the dangerous wreath drew down

upon him all the acrimonious abuse and stinging satire of Churchill, who took a particular pleasure in ridiculing Whitehead.

In 1762, he produced 'The School for Lovers,' a comedy, which was unsuccessful, and a humorous poem, entitled, 'Charge to the Poets.' A farce, entitled, 'The Trip to Scotland,' produced in 1770, met with a much better reception than the comedy. His last publication was a piece, entitled, 'The Goat's Beard,' a satire on some of the reigning vices of the day, which was answered by Churchill, in his 'Ass's Ears, a Fable.'

Whitehead died in 1785. He was a man of cultivated taste and amiable disposition, but possessed of no original talent or inventive genius as a poet.

Gilbert Stuart.

BORN A. D. 1742.—DIED A. D. 1786.

THIS miscellaneous writer was a native of Scotland. His father was professor of humanity in the university of Edinburgh, and a man of considerable taste and acquirements. Young Stuart was originally designed for the legal profession; but the study of jurisprudence did not suit his taste and habits. He applied himself early and vigorously, however, to the study of history and the general principles of legislation, and obtained the diploma of LL.D. from the university of Edinburgh, for an essay which he published in his twenty-second year, entitled, 'An Historical Dissertation concerning the Antiquity of the British Constitution.' Some years afterwards he published a work, entitled, 'A View of Society in Europe, in its progress from rudeness to refinement; or, Inquiries concerning the History of Law, Government, and Manners.' This is an able work, and contains some profound reflections, mixed up, however, with many crude and uninformed speculations.

The professorship of civil law in the university of Edinburgh becoming vacant, Dr Stuart was induced to apply for it, but was unsuccessful, and removed soon after to London, where he became one of the principal contributors to the *Monthly Review* from the year 1768 to 1773. He then returned to Edinburgh, where he started a new magazine and review, which was carried on for three years. Dr Stuart was also the author of 'Observations concerning the Public Law and Constitutional History of Scotland,' published in Edinburgh in 1779; 'The History of the Establishment of the Reformation of Religion in Scotland,' published in London in 1780; and 'The History of Scotland, from the establishment of the Reformation to the death of Queen Mary.' In this last work he labours earnestly and ingeniously to vindicate the character of Mary. All these works exhibit great ability, but were much too hastily compiled to take a permanent rank in our historical literature.

Dr Stuart died in 1786. He was a man of strong passions, and disgraced himself by the relentless malevolence with which he endeavoured to write down a brother-historian, Dr Henry.

Thomas Tyrwhitt.

BORN A. D. 1730.—DIED A. D. 1786.

THIS accomplished scholar and critic was the son of the Rev. Dr Robert Tyrwhitt, a canon-residentiary of St Paul's. He was educated at Eton, and Queen's college, Oxford. In 1755 he was elected to a fellowship of Merton's, which he retained until 1762, when he received the appointment of clerk to the house of commons in the room of Mr Dyson, deceased. He had, previously to receiving this appointment, resided some time in the Temple, and applied himself to the study of law.

Towards the close of the year 1765 he was appointed under-secretary at war, by the influence of his friend and patron, Lord Barrington. His constitution, however, proved inadequate to the toils of office, and in 1768 he laid down his employments, and retired into private life. His publications previous to this event consisted of some poetical pieces and translations; 'Observations and Conjectures on some passages in Shakspeare;' and the 'Proceedings and Debates in the House of Commons, in 1620 and 1621,' edited from the original MS. in the library of Queen's college, Oxford.

After his retirement, Mr Tyrwhitt gave himself entirely up to letters, and made many valuable contributions to classical literature. His first publication in this department was some fragments of Plutarch from an Harleian MS. In 1776 he published a Latin dissertation on the fables commonly attributed to Æsop, in which he endeavoured, with much critical acumen and great industry, to trace these fables to another ancient writer of the name of Babrius, of whom some fragments are preserved in Suidas. Besides these, and several other pieces of acute and accurate criticism, Mr Tyrwhitt edited an admirable edition of 'The Canterbury Tales,' to which we have referred in our notice of Chaucer. He had collected materials for a new edition of the 'Poetics' of Aristotle, which were given to the public after his death by Messrs Burgess and Randolph.

Tyrwhitt died on the 15th of August, 1786. He was one of the most accomplished of our English critics. To a profound acquaintance with the ancient classics, he added an intimate knowledge of the literature of modern times, and of his own country in particular. He was a rigorous, but a candid and generous critic; his censure never partook of rudeness, nor his erudition of pedantry.

Soame Jenyns.

BORN A. D. 1703.—DIED A. D. 1787.

THIS amiable man and ingenious writer was the son of Sir Roger Jenyns, one of the Jenyns's of Churchill in Somersetshire. His mother was the daughter of Sir Peter Soame of Hayden in Essex. He studied at Cambridge, but left the university without a degree, in conse-

quence probably of his marriage, which took place when he was very young. He was unfortunate in this connection, and was ultimately obliged to enforce a separation from his wife.

He first appeared as an author in a lively *jeu d'esprit*, entitled 'The Art of Dancing,' which was anonymously published in 1730. He afterwards contributed several pieces to Dodsley's collection, and also wrote some occasional papers in the political journals of the day.

After his father's death he was chosen one of the representatives for the county of Cambridge at the general election in 1742, and held a seat in parliament from this period till the year 1780. He seldom spoke in the house, and indeed seems to have had no great genius for general politics, although, as a member of the board of trade, he devoted much of his attention to the commercial interests of his country.

In 1757 he published his celebrated 'Free Inquiry into the Nature and Origin of Evil.' The subject was totally beyond his powers; but the world is indebted to him for having given occasion to Johnson's exquisite critical essay on the same subject, which appeared in the form of a review of the 'Free Inquiry,' in the *Literary Magazine*. In 1761 Mr Jenyns collected his different pieces, and gave them to the public in two volumes, 12mo.

In 1776 he published 'A View of the Internal Evidence of the Christian Religion,' which gave rise to much controversy. Some maintaining that the writer was an insidious enemy to the cause he professed to plead; while others, with equal warmth, defended the sincerity of the author. Dr Johnson has characterised this work as "a pretty book; not very theological indeed." It is still, however, very highly regarded by many, and is usually inserted in the collection of tracts on the Evidences, although it cannot be regarded as a complete and logical view of the internal argument. The truth is, Jenyns was by no means very clear in his perceptions on any subject; he is an elegant but not an exact writer; and an ingenious, but not an accurate thinker. His 'Disquisitions,' published in his 78th year, afford ample evidence of the justness of these remarks: abounding as they do in paradoxical statements, and exceedingly crude ideas in metaphysics, theology, and political science.

In private life Mr Jenyns was one of the most amiable and exemplary of men. He died on the 13th of December, 1787.

Thomas Gainsborough.

BORN A. D. 1727.—DIED A. D. 1788.

THOMAS GAINSBOROUGH was born at Sudbury in Suffolk, in the year 1727. He early evinced a taste for drawing: at ten he sketched tolerably well,—at twelve he was a proficient in the art in the estimation of his parents and school-companions. Allan Cunningham says, a beautiful wood of four miles extent is still shown in the neighbourhood of Gainsborough's birth-place, "whose ancient trees, winding glades, and sunny nooks, inspired him while he was but a schoolboy with the love of art. Scenes are pointed out where he used to sit and fill his

copy-books with pencillings of flowers and trees, and whatever pleased his fancy."

At fourteen years of age Gainsborough set out for the metropolis with a well-filled sketch-book, rich especially in points and accessories of landscape. His object was to perfect himself in the principles of his art by the instructions of some of the London artists. He appears to have attached himself chiefly to Hayman, one of Hogarth's companions, and Gravelot. At eighteen years of age he returned to his native place, and soon after married an agreeable young woman with some property, with whom he afterwards removed to Ipswich. At this latter place, one of the first to discover the talents of the young artist was Philip Thicknesse, governor of Landguard fort. Thicknesse, who was justly proud of his discovery, says, that when he first became acquainted with Gainsborough, he found that nature had been his only study,—that his eye was accurate, and his conceptions just, though his colouring was at this time bad enough. The governor gave the young artist a commission, and taught him to play the violin, which henceforth engrossed not a little of Gainsborough's attention.

In 1758 Gainsborough removed to Bath, where, as portrait-painting still formed the only lucrative branch of the art followed in Britain, he painted portraits at eight guineas for a time, but gradually enhanced his price, till he had forty guineas for a half, and a hundred for a whole length. Money now began to flow in upon our young artist, who gave as much of his time, however, to his violin as to his palette and brushes. He was at this period music-mad. Jackson of Exeter gives us the following graphic sketch of his friend's music mania:—"In the early part of my life I became acquainted with Thomas Gainsborough the painter; and as his character was perhaps better known to me than to any other person, I will endeavour to divest myself of every partiality, and speak of him as he really was. I am the rather induced to this, by seeing accounts of him and his works by people who were unacquainted with either, and consequently have been mistaken in both. Gainsborough's profession was painting, and music was his amusement; yet there were times when music seemed to be his employment, and painting his diversion. As his skill in music has been celebrated, I will, before I speak of him as a painter, mention what degree of merit he possessed as a musician:—

"When I first knew him he lived at Bath, where Giardini had been exhibiting his then unrivalled powers on the violin. His excellent performance made Gainsborough enamoured of that instrument; and conceiving—like the servant-maid in the Spectator—that the music lay in the fiddle, he was frantic until he possessed the very instrument which had given him so much pleasure, but seemed much surprised that the music of it remained behind with Giardini! He had scarcely recovered this shock, (for it was a great one to him,) when he heard Abel on the viol-di-gamba. The violin was hung on the willow,—Abel's viol-di-gamba was purchased, and the house resounded with melodious thirds and fifths from 'morn to dewy eve!' Many an adagio and many a minuet were begun, but none completed; this was wonderful, as it was Abel's own instrument, and therefore ought to have produced Abel's own music!

"Fortunately my friend's passion had now a fresh object,—Fischer's

hautboy; but I do not recollect that he deprived Fischer of his instrument; and though he procured a hautboy, I never heard him make the least attempt on it. Probably his ear was too delicate to bear the disagreeable sounds which necessarily attend the first beginnings on a wind instrument. He seemed to content himself with what he heard in public, and getting Fischer to play to him in private, not on the hautboy, but the violin. But this was a profound secret, for Fischer knew that his reputation was in danger if he pretended to excel on two instruments.

“The next time I saw Gainsborough it was in the character of King David. He had heard a harper at Bath: the performer was soon left harpless; and now Fischer, Abel, and Giardini, were all forgotten,—there was nothing like chords and arpeggios! He really stuck to the harp long enough to play several airs with variations, and, in a little time, would nearly have exhausted all the pieces usually performed on an instrument incapable of modulation (this was not a pedal-harp,) when another visit from Abel brought him back to the viol-di-gamba. He now saw the imperfection of sudden sounds that instantly die away. If you wanted a staccato, it was to be had by a proper management of the bow, and you might also have notes as long as you please. The viol-di-gamba is the only instrument, and Abel the prince of musicians! This, and occasionally a little flirtation with the fiddle, continued some years; when, as ill luck would have it, he heard Crossdill; but, by some irregularity of conduct, for which I cannot account, he neither took up, nor bought the violincello. All his passion for the bass was vented in descriptions of Crossdill’s tone and bowing, which was rapturous and enthusiastic to the last degree. In this manner he frittered away his musical talents; and though possessed of ear, taste, and genius, he never had application enough to learn his notes. He scorned to take the first step, the second was of course out of his reach; and the summit became unattainable.

“As a painter,” Jackson continues, “his abilities may be considered in three different departments;—portrait, landscape, and groups of figures; to which must be added his drawings. To take these in the above-mentioned order:—

“The first consideration in a portrait, especially to the purchaser, is, that it be a perfect likeness of the sitter; in this respect his skill was unrivalled. The next point is, that it is a good picture; here he has as often failed as succeeded. He failed by affecting a thin washy colouring and a patching style of pencilling. But when, from accident or choice, he painted in the manly substantial style of Vandyke, he was very little if at all his inferior. It shows a great defect in judgment to be from choice wrong, when we know what is right. Perhaps his best portrait is that known among the painters by the name of ‘Blue-boy;’ it was in the possession of Mr Buttall near Newport-market.

“There are three different eras in his landscapes. His first manner was an imitation of Ruysdael, with more various colouring; the second was an extravagant looseness of pencilling, which, though reprehensible, none but a great master can possess; his third manner was a solid firm style of touch. At this last period he possessed his greatest powers, and was—what every painter is at some time or other—fond of varnish. This produced the usual effects; improved the picture for two or three

months, then ruined it for ever! With all his excellencies in this branch of the art, he was a great mannerist; but the worst of his pictures have a value from the facility of execution, which excellence I shall again mention.

“ His groupes of figures are for the most part very pleasing, though unnatural: for a town-girl with her clothes in rags is not a ragged country girl. Notwithstanding this remark, there are numberless instances of his groupes at the door of a cottage, or by a fire in a wood, &c., that are so pleasing as to disarm criticism. He sometimes, like Murillo, gave interest to a single figure: his ‘Shepherd’s Boy,’ ‘Woodman,’ ‘Girl and Pigs,’ are equal to the best pictures on such subjects. His ‘Fighting Dogs,’ ‘Girl warming herself,’ and some others, show his great powers in this style of painting. The very distinguished rank the ‘Girl and Pigs’ held at Mr Calonne’s sale, in company with some of the best pictures of the best masters, will fully justify a commendation which might else seem extravagant.

“ If I were to rest his reputation on one point, it would be on his drawings. No man ever possessed methods so various in producing effect, and all excellent; his washy, patching style was here in its proper element. The subject which is scarce enough for a picture, is sufficient for a drawing; and the hasty, loose handling, which in painting is poor, is rich in a transparent work of bistre and Indian ink. Perhaps the quickest effects ever produced were in some of his drawings, and this leads me to take up again his facility of execution.

“ Many of his pictures have no other merit than this facility; and yet, having it, are undoubtedly valuable. His drawings almost rest on this quality alone for their value; but possessing it in an eminent degree—and as no drawing can have any merit where it is wanting—his works, therefore, in this branch of the art, approach nearer to perfection than his paintings. If the term facility explain not itself instead of a definition, I will illustrate it. Should a performer of middling execution on the violin, contrive to get through his piece, the most that can be said is, that he has not failed in his attempt. Should Cramer perform the same music, it would be so much within his powers, that it would be executed with ease. Now, the superiority of pleasure which arises from the execution of a Cramer, is enjoyed from the facility of a Gainsborough. A poor piece performed by one, or a poor subject taken by the other, give more pleasure by the manner in which they are treated, than a good piece of music, and a sublime subject, in the hands of artists that have not the means by which effects are produced, in subjection to them. To a good painter or musician, this illustration was needless; and yet, by them only, perhaps, it will be felt and understood.

“ By way of addition to this sketch of Gainsborough, let me mention a few miscellaneous particulars. He had no relish for historical painting; he never sold, but always gave away his drawings commonly to persons who were perfectly ignorant of their value.¹ He hated the harpsichord and the piano-forte. He disliked singing, particularly in parts. He detested reading; but was so like Sterne in his

¹ He presented twenty drawings to a lady, who pasted them to the wainscot of her dressing-room. Sometime after she left the house; the drawings, of course, became the temporary property of every tenant.

letters, that if it were not for an originality that could be copied from no one, it might be supposed that he formed his style upon a close imitation of that author. He had as much pleasure in looking at a violin as in hearing it. I have seen him for many minutes surveying in silence the perfections of an instrument, from the just proportion of the model and beauty of the workmanship. His conversation was sprightly, but licentious; his favourite subjects were music and painting, which he treated in a manner peculiarly his own. The common topics, or any of a superior cast, he thoroughly hated, and always interrupted by some stroke of wit or humour. The indiscriminate admirers of my late friend will consider this sketch of his character as far beneath his merit; but it must be remembered that my wish was not to make it perfect, but just. The same principle obliges me to add, that as to his common acquaintance he was sprightly and agreeable, so to his intimate friends he was sincere and honest, and that his heart was always alive to every feeling of honour and generosity. He died with this expression,—‘We are all going to heaven, and Vandyke is of the party.’”

Percival Pott.

BORN A. D. 1713.—DIED A. D. 1788.

THIS very eminent surgeon was born in London. He early evinced a decided partiality for the medical profession, which his kind friend and patron, Dr Wilcox, bishop of Rochester, who had taken charge of his education after his father's death, enabled him to gratify. In 1729 he was apprenticed to Mr Nourse, one of the surgeons of St Bartholomew's hospital, under whose tuition he remained till 1736, when he commenced practice in London. He soon acquired a very large practice, and particular repute as a surgeon; and, in 1749, was elected one of the head-surgeons of St Bartholomew's.

In 1756 he published a treatise on Ruptures; and next year a paper on Congenital hernia, which led to a brief controversy with Dr William Hunter, who claimed priority of discovery. Pott acquitted himself in this dispute with great urbanity; while Hunter exhibited all his characteristic impatience of contradiction and impetuosity. In 1758 Pott published some valuable remarks on *Fistula lacrymalis*, and the best method of its cure. The suggestions contained in this pamphlet led to the discontinuance of Cheselden's mode of cure by actual cautery. In 1760 he published an admirable treatise on injuries of the head, which is still a first-rate authority in surgical science. In successive publications he favoured the medical world with a series of valuable observations on Hydrocele, Hernia of the Bladder, Cataract, Nasal Polypus, Cancer, Fractures and Dislocations. His entire works were published collectively by himself in 4to; but the best edition is that in three volumes, 8vo, edited by his son-in-law, Sir James Earle.

In 1764 Mr Pott was elected a fellow of the Royal society; and in 1786 an honorary fellow of the Royal college of surgeons in Edinburgh. He died in 1788. It was Mr Pott's high honour to impart a degree of security of practice as well as humanity of treatment to British surgery, to which it had never before attained. In place of many of the old

established and barbarous methods by cautery, he substituted operations equally secure and far less torturing to the patient, founded on an accurate knowledge of the structure and relation of the various parts of the human body. Unlike some of his gifted contemporaries, he was open, bland, and courteous in his demeanour to all his professional brethren, even towards those from whose practice his own differed most widely. His writings are models of plain and perspicuous diction.

Thomas Warton.

BORN A. D. 1728.—DIED A. D. 1790.

THOMAS WARTON, a name of some eminence in the literary history of the period now under consideration, was born at Basingstoke in Hampshire, of which place his father was vicar, in the year 1728. At an early age he began to be distinguished as a poet; and, in his first and rudest efforts, discovered the same cast of genius and manner which characterizes all his serious compositions,—a splendid and vigorous fancy delighting to revel amid the chivalrous and romantic. His biographer, Mr Mant, thinks that he has discovered the origin of our poet's peculiar fondness for castle-imagery in an incident of his early days, related by his brother, Dr Joseph Warton. When they were both boys, their father took them to see Windsor castle. The several objects which they saw on this occasion much engaged the attention and excited the admiration of Joseph, but Thomas preserved a profound silence, and spoke little on the way home. The father felt chagrined at this appearance of indifference or apathy on the part of Thomas, and remarked, "Thomas goes on, and takes no notice of any thing he has seen." Joseph, remembering the remark in mature years, when his brother had risen to eminence as a poet, and had given so many indications of his exquisite sensibility to the impressions of such objects and associations as Windsor presents, observed, "I believe my brother was more struck with what he saw, and took more notice of every object than either of us." An ingenious critic has observed, on this speculation of Warton's biographer, "that it is by no means invalidated by that appearance of mute insensibility with which the first impressions are said to have been received. The real sublimity of the object, and the many interesting associations which it is calculated to excite, may be very naturally supposed, at the first moment of observation, to have overpowered his youthful faculties: the ideas left in the memory, which were at first indistinct and distracting, grasped with difficulty, and incapable of being uttered, instead of fading away, may have gradually acquired additional vigour and a permanent influence; and we may be tempted to believe, that the recollection of these early impressions may have contributed to rouse that fond enthusiasm with which, almost at the close of life, he sung the progressive glories of this venerable pile,—the proud and stupendous monument of the rude magnificence of former ages."¹

From the period at which he first quitted his father's roof, at the age

¹ Edinburgh Review, vol. ii. p. 253.

of sixteen, when he became a member of the university of Oxford, till his death, at the age of sixty-three, his life was entirely academical. He indeed held a parochial cure for some time, but his labours in this character were desultory, and to himself probably little agreeable. In 1745, he sent some articles to Dodsley's museum, but his first detached publication was 'The Pleasures of Melancholy.' In 1751 he succeeded to a fellowship, and in the same year he published his excellent satire, entitled, 'Newmarket.' In 1754 he published 'Observations on the Faerie Queene of Spenser,' his favourite poet. It produced an impression highly favourable to his critical talents, and led the way in a department of literature which has since been cultivated with much success amongst us. In 1757, on the resignation of Mr Hawkins, the Oxford professor of poetry, Mr Warton was elected to that office. A variety of minor publications fell from his pen during the interval which preceded the appearance of the first volume of his great work, 'The History of English Poetry,' in 1774. Among these were his life of Sir Thomas Pope, and a splendid edition of Theocritus.

The design of a history of English poetry had been already entertained by Pope, Gray, and Mason, each of whom had made some preparations for the task. But they wanted the indefatigable perseverance which was necessary for the accomplishment of such a labour; and even Warton himself, with all his diligence and varied 'means and appliances' to boot, left the work in an unfinished state. To that portion which he has executed, forming three volumes in quarto, the praise of accuracy and research is unquestionably due; but it has been well observed that there is 'a certain lifeless massiveness' about it which renders the perusal of it an opeiose and dissatisfying labour to a mind of quick perception. It is in fact a great storehouse of learning, from which one may at all times procure what it would probably cost him not a little labour to obtain elsewhere, but the informing spirit of generalization is wanting to it. Still it is a highly respectable work of its kind, and forms the most solid basis of its author's reputation. During the publication of the successive volumes of this work, Mr Warton sent forth various minor literary productions. He took an active part in the Chattertonian controversy, and his 'Enquiry into the authenticity of the poem attributed to Thomas Rowley,' is a very able exposé of that ingenious forgery. His edition of the *Juvenilia* of Milton is a good specimen of that species of commentating, learned but minute to trifling, in which Warton excelled.

In 1782 it was his fortune, or we should better say, perhaps, his misfortune, to be nominated poet-laureate, at the express command of his majesty. He wore the courtly laurel with a better grace than either of his immediate predecessors, but his 'official odes' betray the sickliness of the atmosphere in which they were forced into unnatural life.

Mr Warton enjoyed vigorous and uninterrupted health until a very short time preceding his death, which occurred on the 20th of May, 1790. His character was that of an amiable, accomplished, but retiring man, with sufficient genius and taste to redeem his erudition from the charge of pedantry, but destitute of the higher order of intellectual powers which alone could place him as a poet by the side of his favourites, Spenser and Milton. Mr Mant was informed that Dr Johnson had been pleased to say, on some unrecorded occasion, that Warton was

the only man of genius that he knew without a heart. It is doubtful whether Johnson ever did say this; but, if he did, the charge is not borne out by any thing we know of Warton's private life.

Dr Richard Price.

BORN A. D. 1723.—DIED A. D. 1791.

RICHARD PRICE, a political writer of respectable talent, was born in Glamorganshire in 1723, and was educated at Talgarth, in his native county, whence he removed to a dissenting academy near London. After having for some time resided at Stoke-Newington, he became pastor of an Arian congregation at Hackney, amongst whom he continued to officiate until his death. In the year 1758 he first appeared as an author in a treatise 'On the Foundation of Morals,' in which he opposed Hume's doctrines. This was followed, in 1767, by four dissertations of a religious character, which were favourably received, and, in conjunction with his former publication, procured for him the diploma of D.D. from the university of Glasgow. About the year 1770 he published an excellent treatise on 'Reversionary Payments,' a subject which his mathematical acquirements enabled him to discuss with much originality and ability. Soon afterwards, he appeared as a political arithmetician, in 'An Appeal to the Public on the subject of the National Debt.' In 1775 Dr Price published 'Observations on Civil Liberty, and the Justice and Policy of the War with America.' This work secured for him the esteem of Franklin and the enmity of Burke. Soon after this, he engaged in an epistolary controversy with his friend Priestley, on the subjects of materialism and necessity. We next find him corresponding with the premier himself on the subject of finance. The establishment of the sinking fund was the result of the doctor's exposition of the marvellous augmentation of money by compound interest. Having shown that a penny, improved by annual compound interest at 5 per cent. would, in 1773 years, amount to an inconceivable sum, Dr Price went on to argue that "a state, if there is no misapplication of money, must necessarily make this improvement of any savings which can be applied to the payments of its debts. It need never, therefore, be under any difficulties; for, with the smallest savings, it may, in a little time, as its interest can require, pay off the largest debts." Extravagant and paradoxical as the whole reasoning is, it sufficed to influence the measures of Pitt, and for a time satisfied the nation itself. The breaking out of the French revolution was hailed by Dr Price as an omen of good to all Europe; and in a sermon 'On the Love of our Country,' which he published in 1789, he gave expression to his feelings regarding this event in language which drew upon him the indignation of Burke, and excited that eloquent man to the publication of his famous 'Reflections.' On the 14th of July, 1790, Dr Price closed his public life, by serving in the office of steward at a dinner in commemoration of the French revolution. After this he went into the country, but returned soon again to town in a declining state of health. His friends urged him to reply to the 'Reflections,' but he felt his strength too far gone to attempt the task. In the following spring he was seized

with a complaint which quickly brought him to his grave. Dr Price was a man of considerable powers and great worth of moral character. The general tendency of his political writings is salutary, though his enthusiasm often prompted him to theorize too finely in the science of government. He exercised very considerable influence over public opinion during one of the most eventful periods of modern history, and numbered amongst his correspondents some of the principal leaders in the American and French revolutions.

John Smeaton.

BORN A. D. 1724.—DIED A. D. 1792.

THIS distinguished mechanic and civil engineer was born at Ansthorpe, near Leeds, on the 28th of May, 1724. His father was an attorney, and wished to educate his son for his own profession, but was ultimately compelled to allow the youth to follow the bent of his own genius for mechanics. From a very early age he had discovered a strong propensity towards the arts in which he afterwards so distinguished himself: "his playthings"—to use the words of one of his acquaintances—"were not the playthings of children, but the tools men work with; and he appeared to have greater entertainment in seeing the men in the neighbourhood work, and asking them questions, than in any thing else. At the age of eighteen he used to forge iron and steel with considerable dexterity, and had tools of every sort for working in ivory, wood, and metals."

In the year 1750 he took lodgings in Turnstile, Holborn, where he commenced the business of a mathematical-instrument maker. His ingenious inventions soon introduced him to the notice of men of science in the capital, and in 1753 he was elected fellow of the Royal society, to whose 'Transactions' he subsequently contributed various papers, one of which, entitled 'An Experimental enquiry concerning the natural powers of wind and water to turn mills and other machines depending on a circular motion,' received the society's gold medal in 1759. This paper was the result of experiments made in his 27th and 28th years. In 1754 he visited Holland, and minutely inspected the principal works of the Dutch engineers.

In 1755 the Eddystone light-house was destroyed by fire. Mr Smeaton had not yet practised as an engineer, yet such was the high opinion entertained of his abilities that he was recommended to the proprietors by the president of the Royal society, as upon the whole the person best qualified to superintend the reconstruction of such an edifice, and to overcome, if the thing were at all possible, the numerous obstacles and disadvantages attending the construction of a secure light-house on this spot, which had hitherto been deemed insurmountable. He undertook the work immediately, and completed it in the summer of 1759. His reputation was now established as a civil engineer. In 1764 he was appointed one of the receivers of the Greenwich hospital estates, but resigned that office in 1777, in consequence of the increase of other business. During this last year he completed the erection of new light-houses at the Spurn-head at the mouth of the Humber.

Among other undertakings, he rendered the river Calder navigable; he built the fine bridge over the Tay at Perth; he laid out the line of the great canal connecting the Forth and Clyde; and he secured the piers of the centre arch of London bridge, which had been undermined by the action of the stream, by a very simple expedient. In 1771 he became joint-proprietor with his friend Mr Holmes of the works for supplying Greenwich and Deptford with water. His reputation was now so completely established that no great works were undertaken throughout the kingdom without his opinion being first obtained regarding them; he was constantly consulted in parliament, and was regarded as an ultimate reference on all difficult questions connected with his profession. He made an attempt to retire from public life in 1785, but was prevailed upon to continue his services as engineer to the trustees for Ramsgate harbour. The works at Ramsgate were begun in 1749, but had been conducted with very indifferent success, until Smeaton was called in to superintend them in 1774. He completed the magnificent pier and harbour of this place in 1791, and then established a secure and much-needed place of shelter in the Downs. His health had begun to decline about 1785. Over-exertion at last brought on an attack of paralysis on the 16th of September, 1792, which carried him off on the 28th of the next month, in the 69th year of his age.

Smeaton was a man of indefatigable industry and great moral probity. With ample opportunity of amassing wealth, he rendered its acquisition but a secondary object on all occasions; his first aim always being to execute the task intrusted to him in the most skilful and perfect manner. Had he been more set upon amassing a fortune than he was, he might have received many lucrative appointments besides those which he held. The empress Catherine of Russia attempted to secure his services for her own country by most magnificent offers; but Smeaton preferred to dedicate his time and talents to the service of his country. "The disinterested moderation of his pecuniary ambition," says his daughter, "every transaction in private life evinced; his public ones bore the same stamp; and after his health had withdrawn him from the labours of his profession, many instances may be instanced by those whose concerns induced them to press importunately for a resumption of it: and when some of them seemed disposed to enforce their entreaties by further prospects of lucrative recompense, his reply was strongly characteristic of his simple manners and moderation. He introduced the old woman, who took care of his chambers in Gray's-inn, and, showing her, asserted 'that her attendance sufficed for all his wants.' The inference was indisputable, for money could not tempt that man to forego his ease, leisure, or independence, whose requisites of accommodation were compressed within such limits!" Before this, the Princess de Askoff made an apt comment upon this trait of his character; when, after vainly using every persuasion to induce him to accept a *carte blanche* from the empress of Russia—as a recompense for directing the vast projects in that kingdom—she observed, "Sir, you are a great man, and I honour you! You may have an equal in abilities, perhaps, but in character you stand single. The English minister, Sir Robert Walpole, was mistaken, and my sovereign has the misfortune to find one man who has not his price." In all the social duties of life he was most exemplary; and he was a lover and encourager of real

merit in whatever station of life he found it. His papers, consisting of plans, reports, and treatises on almost every branch of engineering, were published after his death by the society of Civil engineers.

During his own lifetime Smeaton published 'A Narrative of the building, and a Description of the construction of Eddystone Light-house,' from which we learn the following facts connected with the progress and completion of that extraordinary work. The Eddystone light-house is situated on a reef of rocks directly between the Lizard and Start points at the entrance of Plymouth Sound. The first light-house constructed on this spot was entirely carried away in the memorable storm of 26th November, 1703. Its successor was burnt down in 1755. To guard against a repetition of the latter accident Smeaton resolved that his should be entirely of stone. After much time spent in deliberating upon the best form and method of construction, he adopted the model furnished by the trunk of an oak for his building. That tree swells out towards its roots so as to obtain a broad and firm base, while, diminishing as it rises, it again swells out as it approaches towards the insertion of the branches, so as to afford them a secure hold on the trunk. This outline is evidently well-adapted for a light-house exposed to violent storms. The storm spends itself on the broad and circular base without being able to effect a breach, while the curved cornice, or bulging head of the pillar, throws off the heavy seas from the lantern. For the height of twelve feet from the rock the building is solid, of Portland stone faced with Cornish granite. The interior, which consists of four rooms, one above the other, is accessible by a moveable ladder, and surmounted with a glass-lantern 21 feet in height. The height from the lowest point of the foundation to the floor of the lantern is 70 feet. It has withstood, uninjured, every storm since its erection, and bids fair to last for centuries to come.

James Bruce.

BORN A. D. 1733.—DIED A. D. 1794.

JAMES BRUCE was born about the year 1733. His family was descended from one of the brothers, or other collateral relations, of the heroic Robert Bruce, king of Scotland. Robert Bruce of Kinnaird, an eminent presbyterian minister in the reign of James VI., was one of his immediate ancestors. His parents held a respectable rank among the gentry of Stirlingshire in Scotland.

He received a very excellent education at some of the most distinguished seminaries in England. The languages of Greece and Rome,—mathematics, and the sciences dependent upon it,—the arts of design,—the more polished of the European tongues,—and gymnastic exercises,—were comprehended in the curriculum of the youth. His studies were finished at the university of Edinburgh; and the usual course of travel on the continent followed soon after. About the year 1760 young Bruce, then in possession of his paternal estate, was looked upon as one of the most promising young Scotsmen of his age. The late earl of Chatham, whose patronage he courted, was about to have brought him into some employment in the public service at the very time he

himself was suddenly driven from power. The new administration, however, appointed him to the office of British consul at Algiers; and it was recommended to him by the ministers to whom he owed his appointment, to investigate those remains of ancient Roman magnificence of which Africa was believed to contain many specimens, either unknown or but imperfectly known to the curious in Europe. Sweden had just sent, from among the pupils of the great Linnæus, a Hasselquist, a Kalm, and other scientific missionaries, to explore the most distant regions of the earth. The king of Denmark, also, had lately employed a company, consisting of an engineer, a draughtsman, a linguist, a botanist, and a physician, to investigate the history of the ancient and present state of Arabia, and the other most famous countries of the East. The islands scattered throughout the wide expanse of the southern seas were beginning to be numbered by adventurous navigators. France and Spain were sending philosophers to Siberia and to Peru, for the purpose of ascertaining the precise figure of the earth. The love of science, and the beneficent desire to promote the civilization of mankind, seem at this time to have every where inspired a desire to prosecute discoveries. It was not merely a pedantic fancy or a Quixotic dream, therefore, that impelled Bruce to enter on those bold enterprises which he was destined to accomplish. Some time was necessarily spent in the study of the language of the Moorish Arabians, and in fulfilling the functions of his official character, before he could proceed upon his researches. But within no long period after his arrival he boldly committed himself to the dangerous faith of some tribes of wandering Arabs, and advanced, in search of ancient ruins, into regions which no visitant from modern Europe had as yet successfully explored. Associating with his Arabian hosts and guides, and displaying a knowledge of their language and manners which left him scarcely under the disadvantages of a stranger, he was enabled to discriminate the peculiarities of their respective characters with an accuracy of observation perhaps unequalled by any former traveller.

From Africa he passed, in prosecution of greater designs, to the Grecian isles and the coast of Syria. An unfortunate shipwreck damaged his valuable collection of instruments for astronomical observations, but could not deter his resolute mind from its adventurous pursuits. In Syria he surveyed the ruins of Tadmor and Balbec, and executed many valuable drawings of those noble, though mutilated, monuments of ancient art. From Syria he repaired to Egypt. Its great towns,—its pyramids,—the sites and remains of its ancient cities,—the phenomena of the overflowings of its mighty river, the Nile,—the formation of its lower territory,—the comparison of its present local circumstances with its ancient history, joined to the character of its government and inhabitants,—all excited and engaged Mr Bruce's attention. His science, the manly dignity and firmness of his personal character, the advantages arising from the recommendations with which he travelled, and some lucky concurring incidents, introduced him to the friendship and protection of the famous Ali Bey, who was then all-powerful in Egypt, and by this means procured him facilities for observation and inquiry which have rarely been possessed by Europeans in that land.

From Egypt Mr Bruce sailed southward, on the Red sea, to Jidda in the Happy Arabia. From this place he sailed for Masuah, the maritime

key of the entrance into Abyssinia, on the western coast of the Red sea. On this occasion, and during the previous navigation from Suez to Jidda, he surveyed and sounded the Red sea with hydrographical care and skill, by which he was enabled to form a better naval chart of it than the world had hitherto been in possession of. After many perils from the deceit and thievish rapacity of the inhabitants on the eastern frontiers of the Abyssinian empire, our traveller happily made his way to a considerable mercantile town within its confines. The name of Ras Michael, to whom he had been recommended, and who was at this time master of both the king and his kingdom, here afforded him as much security as a stranger could expect to find among a barbarous people, and amid the horrors of civil war; his own intrepid boldness and vigilance,—his noble liberality in the distribution of presents fitted to strike and please the fancy of a rude nation,—some lucky but unexpected incidents,—and the admiration which his dexterity in shooting and horsemanship excited, did all the rest. Mr Bruce arrived at Gondar, the Abyssinian capital, in the midst of one of the fiercest and most afflicting civil wars by which the country had ever been wasted. But even in these circumstances, and among a race so barbarous, the felicity of his genius preserved him safe. The smallpox was at this moment out-rivalling the havoc of war by its terrible devastations throughout all Abyssinia. Our traveller was sufficiently acquainted with the Turkish and English methods of treating the smallpox; and his art rescued from the brink of the grave several lives of which the preservation had been deemed hopeless. The beautiful Ozors Esther, the beloved wife of Michael,—her mother, the Iteghé, whose state as queen-dowager remained inviolate amidst the destructions of civil war,—some gallant youths, the sons and grandsons of these ladies,—grateful for Bruce's medical assistance, and charmed with the mingled boldness and gentleness of his character, quickly became his zealous friends and protectors. When Michael, and with him the young king whom he sustained on the throne, returned from a successful campaign to Gondar, the stranger was presented to them with recommendations which secured a very flattering reception. The king and the minister immediately conceived a warm partiality for him. High offices in the court were offered him; and to obtain the protection necessary to enable him to accomplish the purposes of his journey, he was obliged to accept the government of a small province, and even to enrol himself among the lords of the bed-chamber to the Abyssinian monarch.

To penetrate to the sources of the Nile, and to examine every thing relative to the natural history of the country, had been the first objects of his inquiry when he made his way into Abyssinia. Obtaining at length a feudal grant of the very territory in which the fountains of the Nile had been so long hidden from the European world, he set out to visit them; and after many perils he arrived at what he conceived to be the source of this mysterious river, and drank libations from its well-head more grateful and intoxicating to a romantic traveller than the Falernian of old.

Mr Bruce having accomplished the object of his adventurous journey into Abyssinia, and happily surmounted the tremendous perils of a return through the desert of Sennaar, proceeded gaily down the Nile to Cairo. An act of kindness to one of the officers of Moham-

med Bey, who had by this time supplanted Ali Bey in the administration of the Egyptian government, proved the occasion of introducing Bruce to that ruler with advantages which made the bey willing to gratify him with almost any favour. On this occasion he was not unmindful of the commercial interests of his country. Grateful for the favours he had received from the servants of the British East India company at Jidda, he procured from Mohammed Bey a firman, or letters patent, authorizing the English to transmit their merchandise thither on the payment of more moderate duties than had ever before been exacted from them in any part of the Red sea. This was Bruce's last remarkable transaction with the great men of the East. He soon after sailed from Alexandria, and arrived safe in Europe.

At the British court the African traveller's first reception was sufficiently flattering. His drawings were accepted to enrich the collection of his sovereign, and he was in return presented with the sum of £2000. Proud of his adventures and discoveries, and pleased with the respect and admiration which they attracted, Bruce for a time abandoned himself to exultation, and hoped that a character, tried in an enterprise so perilous and splendid, would not fail to be employed by a discerning king and ministry in some of the most honourable offices his country could bestow. But he was soon to experience the most bitter disappointment. Suspicions were invidiously suggested that his drawings were too exquisitely fine to have been executed, as he pretended, by his own pencil. He was also unfortunate in not knowing to make due concessions in his accounts of what he had seen and achieved to the incredulity of ignorance. In the mean time the public was greatly dissatisfied with his delay to produce a complete narrative of his travels. His friends dreaded lest he should procrastinate a publication which they anxiously longed to obtain, till perhaps his death might for ever frustrate his uncertain intentions of giving it to the world. His enemies maliciously attributed the delay to his consciousness of the imposture and falsehood of his pretensions. The lively De Tott returning into Europe from Turkey and Tartary, pretended to have received from the very servant who had attended Bruce into Abyssinia, an account of the Scottish traveller's adventures in that country, which was directly contradictory of that which Bruce himself had given out. Although Daines Barrington, in a very ingenious paper, refuted the calumny of De Tott, and though all the friends of Bruce were ready to rise up with indignation against this impeachment of his veracity, yet nothing less than the publication of the long-expected narrative by the traveller himself, would now satisfy the suspicions and demands of the public. The task was, after all that he had formerly done, still a difficult one. His astronomical observations were to be revised and verified. It was necessary for him once more to ransack the depths of Grecian and oriental erudition, in order to discover the disagreement or coincidence between what the Jews, Arabs, and Greeks, had recorded, and that which he himself had observed concerning Abyssinia and the other countries of the East. His journals were to be wrought into a regular continuous narrative. His observations on the subjects of natural history were to be carefully compared with the scientific elements of this branch of knowledge, and were, if possible, to be accommodated in his account to the technical phraseology of naturalists. The

beauty of arrangement, the propriety and the graces of style, with all those delicacies of composition which, without long practice, even taste and genius are rarely able to display, were to be attempted by a man, who, though no mean judge of elegance, had long been more attentive to the matter than to the manner of whatever he wrote or read. A considerable period, therefore, was necessarily spent in revising his journals and improving their form. When it was ready for publication, Messrs Robinson of Paternoster-row became the purchasers, not of the copy-right, but of the whole edition. Although the work consisted of five volumes in quarto, yet it experienced a very rapid sale; and in France a translation of it was executed with a degree of haste which almost anticipated the circulation of the original.¹

His last visit to London occurred during the publication of his travels. He returned soon after to Scotland; and the few remaining years of his life were spent either at Edinburgh or at one of his seats in the country. He at length resolved to publish a new edition of his travels in octavo; and, with this view, says one of his anonymous biographers, "anxiously consulted the Rev. Dr Blair, at an interview at which I had accidentally the honour to be present, concerning those alterations which the doctor's exquisite taste as a critic, and his judgment as a man of sagacity and discretion, might suggest as fit to be made for the improvement of the work. That revision of his astronomical facts; that correction and polishing anew of the style; that erasure of indelicacies, whether of vanity or obscenity; that amended arrangement; that more complete and satisfactory detail of Abyssinian manners; which Blair, with friendly criticism recommended, Mr Bruce respectfully consented to execute." It was within a very few months after this interview, that just as he had risen from entertaining a company of friends in his house of Kinnaird, and while he was turning round to conduct some of the ladies from his drawing-room to their carriage, he was suddenly attacked with an apoplectic fit, and expired almost immediately.

Subsequent travellers have amply corroborated Bruce's statements on the points most questioned by the impugners of his veracity. "The British world," says a writer in the Westminster Review, "was undoubtedly greatly to blame in their treatment of Bruce, but the fault was not only on their side. It was weak and unworthy to have rejected the story of a traveller because some jealous critics, conceited of their feeble lights, led the way in abusing him; but Bruce himself was an ungainly person. Proud, irritable, and unbending, he quickly took the alarm at the first symptoms of incredulity, and haughtily abstained from setting those right who had made but one step in error, and who would have been but too happy to have retracted. Those very qualities which contributed to Bruce's success in his hazardous expedition impeded him at home. Six-feet-four in bodily height, and with a corresponding altitude of spirit, gifted with all kinds of accomplishment, corporeal and intellectual, jealous of his honour, proud of his success, glorying in his ancestors, and not by any means esteeming himself least of his race, he

¹ Bruce himself, favouring the undertaking of the French translator, was pleased to enrich his book by the communication of some facts, which respect for the delicacy of the British fair had withheld him from publishing in English, but concerning which he believed that the literary ladies of France would not be so scrupulous.

was not a person to win his way where he was contemned, and that more particularly in the quarter where he rashly deemed he had laid up immortal honour. Some idea of the temper in which he returned from Abyssinia may be formed from the fact of his travelling to Rome immediately on his arrival in Europe, to chastise an Italian marquis who had presumed, during his twelve years' absence, to marry *his* Maria, —the lady he had drank to at the source of the Nile, and the woman he had sighed for in the mountains of Abyssinia, his hope and spirit's consolation when sinking under the simoom of the desert of Nubia, and whom he considered as betrothed to himself. The agreeable anecdote of his making a disbeliever of his travels swallow a raw beefsteak, saying, 'eat that or fight me,' simply proved his antagonist's unwillingness to risk his life, and his own readiness to do so. His admirable reply to Single-Speech Hamilton, his cousin and friend, who said to him one day after dinner, 'Now, Bruce, make us some of those drawings the people think you got Balugani the Italian artist to paint for you.' 'Gerard,' replied Bruce very gravely, 'you made *one* fine speech, and the world doubted its being your own composition; but if you will stand up now here and make another speech as good, we shall believe it to have been your own.' Such an answer set down one objector and proved the author's talent at repartee, but left the question of the drawings exactly where it was. On Bruce's return, worn down with fatigue, beset with the diseases of the desert, and bearing about him all the marks of long and arduous travail, the world naturally expected some extraordinary narrative of his proceedings, and the savans and philosophical *quid nuncs* of the day eagerly crowded round the *nouveau débarqué* for his intelligence: he told them the most striking facts of his experience, without softening them down or preparing the minds of his auditors, and they laughed incredulously. Such a reception was enough to drive the proud Scot into eternal silence, and for seventeen years he never attempted to publish a written account of his travels. This was a fatal mistake: his retreat seemed like the escape of a fainthearted impostor, another inventor of Formosa islands, and when at length his book did make its appearance, it appeared like the tardy bolstering up of an old story: every wretched scribbler was prepared to refute the elaborate lie. Thus the book was condemned before it appeared. It is painful to mortification, even at this time of day, to hear that the copies of the history of Bruce's arduous travels and singular discoveries, were sold in Dublin for waste paper almost immediately after their appearance. Such a fact coming to the ears of a traveller who had encountered the hardships that Bruce had, and in the spirit of nobleness and patriotism that was always uppermost in his breast, were enough to break the heart of an ordinary man. Bruce was now getting into years, his gigantic form had become proportionately large; he lived in retirement on his estate at Kinnaird, amusing himself with astronomy, the perfecting of his drawings, and the management of his estate; he frequently assumed the turban and the relics of his Eastern attire, and indulged in long fits of apparent contemplation, at which time he was probably reverting to the most stirring period of his life, the six years of Abyssinian adventures, during which every day had its event, when he was dwelling amidst scenes, the commonest of which were too extraordinary to be credited in England, and when he was called upon almost every hour for some effort, on the result

of which his existence depended, and, what was far more to him, the honourable termination of his enterprise. These moods naturally astonished his neighbours, who used to exclaim, when they observed him in these moods, 'Eh! the laird's gane daft.' Such was the course of Bruce's life after his return; and certainly this plan of dealing with the public was not the most politic; but Bruce disdained to manage the world which he was entitled to instruct, and for whose information he had gone through so fiery an ordeal."

This is just as well as generous treatment of Bruce's memory. His most recent biographer, Major Head, has vindicated him with equal success, and still more enthusiasm, while he has, at the same time, very fairly stated the principal defects in Bruce's narrative. "In attentively reading the latest edition of Bruce's travels," says the major, "it must be evident to every one that, in point of composition, the work has very great faults. Bruce had an immense quantity of information to give, but he wanted skill to impart it as it deserved; and certainly nothing can be worse than the arrangement of his materials. In his narrative, he hardly starts before we have him talking quite familiarly of people and of places known only to himself; himself perfectly at ease and at home, he forgets that his reader is an utter stranger in the land. He also forgot, or rather he seems never to have considered, that the generality of mankind were not as fond as himself of endeavouring to trace a dark, speculative question to its source. His theories, which, whether right or wrong, are certainly ingenious, constantly break the thread of his narrative; and, like his minute history of all the kings of Abyssinia supposed to have reigned from the time of Solomon to his day, they tire and wear out the patience of the reader. Yet these were evidently very favourite parts of his volumes: and, eager in detailing evidence and arguments which he conceived to be of great importance, he occasionally neglected his narrative, jumbled his facts and dates, and, from his notes having been made on separate slips of paper, he made a few very careless mistakes. For instance, the beautiful Welleta Selasse, long after she was poisoned, is discovered by the reader making love with Amha Yasous! Tecla Meriam, also, reappears some months after he had been drowned. Arkecho is described after the reader has left it; and the palace of Koscam, in which Bruce lived so long, is not described until he had actually bidden adieu to Abyssinia. But Bruce's attention was evidently engrossed by great objects; and though his descriptions are often brilliant, and his sentiments always noble and manly, yet he cared comparatively little about certain parts of his narrative; and in the enormous mass of notes and memoranda which he brought home with him, he arranged a very few of them in their wrong places. But his mistakes, excepting one, were harmless, and absolutely not worth notice, although to the critic they were, of course, gems of inestimable value. The only one which requires explanation is, that, in describing Gondar, he mentions the death of Balugani (his Italian draughtsman) before he mentions his journey to the source of the Nile; and as Balugani died after this journey, Bruce's enemies in general, and Salt in particular, have endeavoured at great length to prove that this error was deliberately intended to rob Balugani of the honour of having accompanied him to these fountains; whereas, it being perfectly well known that Bruce engaged Balugani at a salary of thirty-five

Roman crowns a-month, for the express purpose of accompanying him in his travels, it is not likely that he should have been jealous of his own servant, particularly as, if he had wished to have gone to Geesh without Balugani, he had only to have ordered him to remain at Gondar. But every trifling mistake which Bruce made was distorted, and construed into fraud and deceit. His dates are occasionally wrong; but in his notes, which he brought to England, they are often inserted in so trembling a hand, that it is but too evident they were written on a bed of sickness. Besides this, it must surely be known to every one that, when a man visits such immense countries as Bruce travelled across, his great difficulty is to overlook detail; for, like a hound, if once he puts his nose to the ground he gets puzzled. No man attempts to conduct a trigonometrical survey, and to fill it up at the same time; if he is to determine the grand features of the country, it is impossible that he can be very attentive to its detail; and if he is minute in his detail, he can have looked very little to the general character of the country;—a man cannot study astronomy and botany at the same time."

John Hunter.

BORN A. D. 1728.—DIED A. D. 1793.

JOHN HUNTER, the brother of William, whose life we have already sketched, was born at Long Calderwood in Lanarkshire, in 1728, being his brother's junior by ten years. Dr Adams, his biographer, represents his early education as having been much neglected. Indeed he appears to have been originally intended for a mechanical employment, and was apprenticed for some time to a carpenter and cabinet-maker who had married his sister. He at last expressed a wish to follow his brother William's profession, and was invited by him to come to London, where, under the able instructions of his brother and Messrs Cheselden and Pott, he soon became an able anatomist and surgeon. In 1752 he was entered at St Mary's hall, Oxford, where he remained only two years. Returning to London in 1754, he was admitted by his brother to partnership as a lecturer and demonstrator of anatomy, in which capacity he gave as much satisfaction as his brother himself. His intense application to professional investigations at last injured his health; and symptoms of pulmonary affection appearing, he was induced to go abroad as a staff-surgeon. To this appointment military surgery has been greatly indebted; Hunter's observations on gunshot wounds being among the earliest and best contributions to that important branch of surgery.

Sir Everard Home says, that previous to his going abroad, Hunter had made many important contributions to anatomical science; amongst others he had traced the ramification of the olfactory nerves upon the membranes of the nose, and had discovered the course of some of the branches of the fifth pair of nerves. He remained three years abroad. In 1767 he was chosen a fellow of the Royal society. In 1771 he married the sister of Mr, afterwards Sir Everard, Home; and in the same year he published the first part of his treatise on the teeth and

gums, of which the conclusion appeared in 1778. In a communication to the Royal society, read in 1772, he suggested the existence of a solvent power in the gastric juice, and threw much new light on the function of digestion. In 1773 he commenced a course of lectures on the theory and practice of surgery, chiefly with the view of rescuing his own discoveries and opinions from misrepresentation. In 1776 he was appointed surgeon-extraordinary to the king. About this period he communicated to the Royal society an account of his dissection of three elephants and a torpedo, and a paper on the gilllarvo, or gizzard trout. He also contributed to the Philosophical transactions an account of the electrical organs of the gymnotus, and a paper on the heat of animals and vegetable structures. About three years previous to the death of his celebrated brother, he had an unfortunate dispute with him relative to their respective claims to the discovery of the structure of the placenta. In 1787 he was presented by the Royal society with the Copleyan medal for the best papers on a variety of medical subjects. In 1790 he was appointed surgeon-general of the army. He died suddenly on the 16th of October, 1793.

The investigations of John Hunter are all marked with the stamp of high genius and indefatigable industry. It might be invidious to institute a close comparison betwixt him and his gifted brother; but it is generally allowed by medical men, that John would suffer nothing in the comparison. Like his brother too, he was conscious of his own powers and merit. Dr Garthshore one day entering his museum of comparative anatomy, on which he is said to have expended nearly £100,000, and finding him busily engaged, exclaimed, "Ah, John, you are always at work!" "I am," replied Hunter, "and when I am dead you will not soon meet with another John Hunter." His collection was purchased by government after his death for £15,000, and committed to the charge of the college of surgeons.

Sir William Jones.

BORN A. D. 1746.—DIED A. D. 1794.

THE pen of biography has seldom found more useful and pleasing employment than in delineating this illustrious character, whose name is associated not only with high literary achievements and professional reputation, but with all the graces of polished life, and almost all the more amiable personal virtues. His career was a splendid one; but it became such not so much from the possession of great original powers of mind, as from well-directed talents, supported by extreme perseverance and industry. The lesson, therefore, which a faithful memoir of his life is calculated to set before all, is a highly practical and cheering one. Great as Sir William Jones's attainments unquestionably were, they may be emulated by any one who will bring to the task his energy and perseverance.

Sir William Jones was born in London in the year 1746. His father was a highly respectable teacher of mathematics, who, though able to trace his origin to the ancient chieftains of Wales, was indebted to his own talents for his elevation from the rank of a petty yeoman of Anglesey

to the intimate familiarity and friendship of Sir Isaac Newton, and many other distinguished persons of his day. He died about three years after the birth of his son William, who was left to the care of a mother of unusual accomplishments and merit, whose judicious discipline materially contributed to prepare her son for entering on that splendid career which he was destined to accomplish. "To his incessant importunities for information on casual topics of conversation, which she watchfully stimulated," says his amiable biographer, Lord Teignmouth, "she constantly replied, 'Read, and you will know,'—a maxim, to the observance of which he always acknowledged himself indebted for his future attainments. By this method, his desire to learn became as eager as her wish to teach; and such was her talent of instruction, and his facility of retaining it, that in his fourth year he was able to read, distinctly and rapidly, any English book. She particularly attended, at the same time, to the cultivation of his memory, by making him learn and repeat some of the popular passages in Shakspeare, and the best of Gay's fables." In his seventh year he was sent to Harrow school, then under the superintendance of Dr Thackeray, who soon discovered the worth of his young pupil, and used to say of him that "Jones was a boy of so active a mind, that if he were left naked and friendless on Salisbury plain he would, nevertheless, find the road to fame and fortune." After Dr Thackeray's retirement from Harrow, young Jones continued his studies under the excellent Dr Sumner, with whom he became a great favourite, and who has been heard to declare that his young pupil was a better Grecian than himself. In addition to assiduous and most successful study of the Greek and Roman authors, he acquired a knowledge of the Hebrew language, to which he added, during the vacations, a thorough acquaintance with French and Italian. The name of Jones was long remembered at Harrow, not only for the extent and variety of his attainments, but for his amiable disposition and conciliating manners.

In the seventeenth year of his age he was entered at University college, Oxford, where, besides adding to his stores of classical erudition, he commenced the study of Arabic, in which, with the assistance of a native of Aleppo, he made considerable progress. By the help of Meninski and Gentius, he also gained considerable acquaintance with the modern Persic. During the vacations, which he spent in London, he attended the schools of Angelo for riding and fencing, and read the best authors in Italian, Spanish, and Portuguese, following, in all respects, the plan of education recommended by Milton. In 1765 he accepted the situation of private tutor to Lord Althorp, son of Lord Spencer, and in the year following was appointed to one of the Bennett fellowships. In Lord Spencer's family he continued to prosecute his classical and oriental studies, and commenced his commentaries on Asiatic poetry. He also translated into French Mirza's life of Nadir Shah from the Persian manuscript,—a task which he undertook by the desire of the king of Denmark. These laborious engagements did not prevent him from indulging his ambition for universal accomplishment, by taking private lessons in dancing, and a course of lessons on the Welsh harp, and practising the broadsword with an old pensioner at Chelsea. The winter of 1769 was spent by Mr Jones and his pupil at Nice; in the spring of next year they travelled through a considerable part of France, and returned in August to England. His letters from the continent rarely

contain any description of natural objects, or delineation of natural peculiarities, but are almost exclusively devoted to literary subjects.

Soon after his return to England, Mr Jones left the family of Lord Spencer, and finally dedicated himself to the study of the law as a profession. He took this step avowedly in compliance with the urgent solicitations of his friends; at the same time he admitted, in a letter to his friend, Count Reviezki, that the advice was conformable to his own inclinations; "for," says he, "the only road to the highest stations in this country is that of the law, and I need not add how ambitious and laborious I am." In the summer of 1771 we find him commencing the perusal of Blackstone's Commentaries, and expressing his surprise that the law should be so generally esteemed a dry and irksome study. He had not yet grappled with the year books and reports of the profession, or he would probably have expressed himself with more hesitation on the subject. In a letter to his friend, Dr Bennett, written about this time, he says: "I have learned so much, seen so much, written so much, said so much, and thought so much, since I conversed with you, that were I to attempt to tell half what I have learned, seen, writ, said, and thought, my letter would have no end. I spend the whole winter in attending the public speeches of our greatest lawyers and senators, and in studying our own admirable laws, which exhibit the most noble example of human wisdom that the mind of man can contemplate. I give up my leisure hours to a political treatise on the Turks, from which I expect some reputation; and I have several objects of ambition which I cannot trust to a letter, but will impart to you when we meet. If I stay in England, I shall print my 'De Poesi Asiaticâ' next summer, though I shall be at least two hundred pounds out of pocket by it. In short, if you wish to know my occupations, read the beginning of Middleton's Cicero, pp. 13—18, and you will see my model; for I would willingly lose my head at the age of sixty, if I could pass a life at all analogous to that which Middleton describes."

In 1774 he published his commentaries on Asiatic poetry, which were received with admiration and applause by the whole oriental scholars of Europe. Some time before this his ever-active mind had projected an epic poem on the supposed discovery of Britain by a Tyrian prince, and a history of the Turks, both of which designs, however, were soon laid aside for more serious engagements. He was called to the bar in 1774, and had discovered, as he writes to an intimate friend, that the law was a jealous science, and would admit no partnership with the muses. From this period to the year 1780 his time appears to have been devoted almost exclusively to the duties of his profession, in which, though his practice was not very extensive, his reputation was continually rising. "His researches and studies," says Lord Teignmouth, "were not confined to any one branch of jurisprudence, but embraced the whole in its fullest extent. He compared the doctrines and principles of ancient legislators with the later improvements in the science of law, he collated the various codes of the different states of Europe, and collected professional knowledge wherever it was to be found. In 1780 he was persuaded to offer himself for the representation of Oxford in parliament, but he was ultimately induced to withdraw from the contest. Next year he again appeared as an orientalist in his translation of the seven famous Arabic poems called the 'Moallakat.' In 1782

he published an essay on the Law of Bailments, and the translation of an Arabic poem on Mohammedan law.

In the spring of next year Mr Jones received the appointment of a seat in the supreme court of judicature at Calcutta, through the influence principally of Lord Ashburton. On this occasion the honour of knighthood was conferred upon him. His hopes and exertions had been directed to this appointment from the moment of his entrance on the profession, but the language in which he expresses himself in a letter to Lord Spencer, written while the appointment itself was in suspense, strikingly illustrates the high-toned independence of his character as well as the extent of his ambition: "I certainly wish to have it," he says, "because I wish to have £20,000 in my pocket before I am eight and thirty years old, and then I might contribute in some little degree towards the service of my country in parliament, as well as at the bar, without selling my liberty to a patron, as too many of my profession are not ashamed of doing; and I might be a speaker in the house of commons in the full vigour and maturity of my age, whereas, in the slow career of Westminster hall, I should not, perhaps, even with the best success, acquire the same independent station till the age at which Cicero was killed. But be assured, my dear lord, that if the minister be offended at the style in which I have spoken, do speak, and will speak of public affairs, and on that account should refuse to give me the judgeship, I shall not be at all mortified, having already a very decent competence, without a debt, or a care of any kind." He embarked in April for India, having just married Miss Shipley, the eldest daughter of the bishop of St Asaph, to whom he had been long attached, but whose hand he had disdained to solicit until he had acquired distinction and independence by his own exertions.

In September, 1783, he landed at Calcutta, and he had scarcely entered upon his judicial functions before he established the Asiatic society, which held its first meeting in January 1784. In order the better to promote the views of the society he immediately commenced the study of the Sanscrit, in which he was soon able to converse familiarly. He also amused himself with botany and natural history, in both which sciences he made no mean proficiency. But his most magnificent design was a digest of Hindu and Mahomedan laws, on the model of Justinian, of which, when completed by the labours of native lawyers, he offered himself as the translator. To this most useful undertaking, in which the happiness and welfare of more than twenty millions of native subjects were so materially interested, Sir William devoted himself with an ardour commensurate with its importance. He did not live to finish it, but it has been since completed by Mr Colebrooke.

Unhappily for Sir William, Lady Jones was compelled by bad health to leave India at the close of the year 1793. It was the intention of Sir William to follow her in the beginning of 1794, by which period he hoped to have completed his Digest. But his own health, which had been considerably weakened by repeated attacks of the fever of the country, was assailed at last by an inflammation of the liver, and, after a very short illness, he expired on the 27th of April, 1794. "On the morning of that day," says Lord Teignmouth, "his attendants, alarmed at the evident symptoms of approaching dissolution, came precipitately to call the friend who has now the melancholy task of recording the

mournful event. Not a moment was lost in repairing to his house. He was lying on his bed in a posture of meditation, and the only symptom of remaining life was a small degree of motion in the heart, which after a few seconds ceased, and he expired without a pang or groan."

So closed the life of one of the most learned and amiable of men. Brief as his career was it had been brilliant throughout, and his unexampled industry had enabled him to crowd into it a more varied array of accomplishments than, but for his example, it might have been supposed possible for a man of his years to have acquired. His literary attainments were the most remarkable: they comprised eight languages studied critically, namely, the English, Latin, French, Italian, Greek, Arabic, Persian, and Sanscrit; eight studied less perfectly, but all intelligible with a dictionary, namely, Spanish, Portuguese, German, Runic, Hebrew, Bengali, Hindu, and Turkish; and twelve studied least perfectly, but all attainable, namely, Tibetan, Pali, Phalavi, Deri, Russian, Syriac, Ethiopic, Coptic, Welsh, Swedish, Dutch, and Chinese. In all, twenty-eight languages. His professional acquirements were of a very high order, although he commenced the study of the law at a later period of life than is usual. His essay on the Law of Bailments has been pronounced by competent judges a model of its kind. As a judge his character is unimpeached and unimpeachable. In political sentiments Sir William Jones was a decided whig, but he does not appear ever to have arrived at very profound and exact ideas on the principles of government. Of his religious sentiments we are inclined to form a favourable judgment from the fervour and piety of his written devotions, and the opinion of his excellent biographer. A splendid edition of his works, in six volumes quarto, was published by his widow in 1799

Robert Bakewell.

BORN A. D. 1726.—DIED A. D. 1795.

ROBERT BAKEWELL, a yeoman of considerable property, and author of a new system relative to the breed of domestic animals, was born in 1726 at Dishley in Leicestershire, on the paternal farm which afterwards became his constant residence, and the scene of all his improvements. His education was such as is generally bestowed on people in his rank of life, and extended no further than to writing and arithmetic; but he enjoyed the advantage of an early professional initiation in husbandry, under the auspices of a father, who was a man of a strong and inquisitive mind, and the orderly excellence of whose agricultural labours had long distinguished him as the ablest cultivator of his district. The elder Bakewell died in 1760, but the management of the farm was committed to the son many years before, and at his father's death he had witnessed a series of successful experimental practice, both in stock-breeding and husbandry.

The instructive conversation of his father, and a perusal of the farming and cattle treatises of Ellis of Gaddesden, were the first incentives to improvement experienced by our rural philosopher. Looking around him he beheld nothing worthy of remark, but a stupid and indolent adherence to old customs,—a farming practice without order or econo-

my,—the land foul and starved for want of stock, or stocked with shabby and ill-sorted animals,—and a bare living with difficulty obtained where, with an enlightened and spirited improvement, fortune might have been acquired. Having now conceived certain theoretic notions, with a characteristic spirit of sagacity and enterprise he determined to submit them to the test of experiment, previously to their adoption as fixed principles. He accordingly made occasional tours through the best cultivated parts of the island, especially those most celebrated for their respective breeds of cattle; he also visited Ireland more than once for the same purpose. He viewed on the spot the use and commencement of that cheap, expeditious, and effective mode of husbandry practised in Norfolk, which has since become so deservedly famous; and on that model, and the neat and orderly systems of Holland and Flanders, which he afterwards surveyed, he founded his own, in no respect inferior, and in many far superior to the celebrated originals.

The Lancashire long-horned cattle, the Teeswater and Lincoln sheep, the Berkshire pigs,—in short, all the original and best breeds of the island, now supplied Dishley with well-selected individuals, in order to mix and produce a variety according to the precise ideas of this systematic projector, and thus attain a profitable superiority both in respect to figure and quality. He accordingly went to work to diminish bone and length, or, in his own pithy phrase, “to substitute profitable flesh for useless bone.” Fineness of bone, he argued, and reduction of frame, would produce fineness of flesh, aptitude to fatten, and diminution of offal. The spontaneous tendency to pinguetion would also conduce to quietude of disposition in the animal, and to the more economical and easy satisfaction of the appetite.

Robert Bakewell, having nearly completed his seventieth year, died on the 1st of October, 1795, after a tedious sickness, to which he submitted with a constitutional and philosophical fortitude. He was never married. In person he was tall, broad in the chest and shoulders, and in his general figure exactly tallying with our ideas of the respectable old English yeoman. His countenance, which was benevolent, exhibited, at the same time, intelligence and sagacity. His manners had a rustic, yet polite and pleasing frankness, which rendered him acceptable to all ranks. He delivered himself on every occasion neatly, in few words, and always to the purpose; and his anecdotes and stories—of which he possessed a considerable fund—were listened to with much pleasure.

William Mason.

BORN A. D. 1725.—DIED A. D. 1797

THE name of Mason occupies a larger space in the annals of English literature than is due to his real genius and poetical talents. The truth is, he was more than ordinarily fortunate in the times he fell upon. Had he been born half a century earlier or later he would probably never have emerged from the obscurity of his parsonage,—or been known only as a respectable clergyman cultivating letters and constructing an occasional sonnet on the return of his own or his wife's birth-

day. But it was otherwise and more fortunately ordered for Mason: "he had the good fortune to be born in one of those 'vacant interlunar' periods of literature when a little poetic talent goes a great way,"¹—hence his position, for a time, at the head of the poetical school of his country.

William Mason was born in 1725. His father was vicar of St Trinity hall in the East riding of Yorkshire. In 1742 he was entered of St John's college, Cambridge, where he had Dr Powell for his tutor. Gray says of him at this period of his life: "he was one of much fancy, little judgment, and a good deal of modesty; a good well-meaning creature, but in simplicity a perfect child; he reads little or nothing, writes abundance, and that with a design to make a fortune by it; a little vain, but in so harmless a way, that it does not offend; a little ambitious, but withal so ignorant of the world and its ways, that this does not hurt him in one's opinion; so sincere and undisguised, that no one with a spark of generosity would ever think of hurting him, he lies so open to injury; but so indolent, that if he cannot overcome this habit, all his good qualities will signify nothing at all."

He took his Bachelor's degree in 1745; and probably about this period composed his monody on the death of Pope, of which Mr Hartley Coleridge says: "there is no man of twenty now living who could write half so well as Mason, that would not write much better on such an occasion. So much has been done in the last fifty years to reconcile poetry with reason." Mason's maiden poem is an imitation,—with improvements,—of the then established models of elegiac composition so pleasantly ridiculed by Steele in the 30th No. of the Guardian.² In 1747 he was chosen fellow of Pembroke college, chiefly on the recommendation of Gray; but the master—who probably disliked Mason for his whig politics—objected to the election, "because," says Mason himself, "he will not have an *extraneus* when they have fit persons in their own college." It appears, however, that the master's objections were finally overruled in 1749, in which year also Mason took his master's degree.

In 1748 Mason attacked the Jacobitism of Oxford in his poem of 'Isis,' to which Tom Warton replied in the 'Triumph of Isis.' In 1751 he appeared as a dramatic writer in his 'Elfrida,' in which he says he has attempted to pursue the method of the ancient drama, "so far as it is probable a Greek poet, were he alive, would now do, in order to adapt himself to the genius of our times, and the character of our

¹ Hartley Coleridge.

² "In looking over some English pastorals a few days ago, I perused at least fifty lean flocks, and reckoned up a hundred left-handed ravens, besides blasted oaks, withering meadows, and weeping deities. Indeed, most of the occasional pastorals we have are built upon one and the same plan. A shepherd asks his fellow 'Why he is so pale? if his favourite sheep hath strayed? if his pipe be broken? or Phyllis unkind?' He answers, 'None of these misfortunes have befallen him, but one much greater, for Damon (or perhaps the god Pan) is dead.' This immediately causes the other to make complaints, and call upon the lofty pines and silver streams to join in the lamentation. While he goes on, his friend interrupts him, and tells him that Damon lives, and shows him a track of light in the skies to confirm it; then invites him to chestnuts and cheese. Upon this scheme most of the noble families in Great Britain have been comforted, nor can I meet with any right honourable shepherd that doth not die and live again, after the manner of the aforesaid Damon."

tragedy." Our readers will thank us for laying before them the following strictures on the 'Elfrida,' from the pen of one every way qualified to judge of the measure of success or failure which attended the introduction of this novelty into our poetical literature: "As an accommodation of the ancient drama to modern habits and sympathies," says Mr Hartley Coleridge, "'Elfrida' must be pronounced a decided failure. The unities are indeed preserved; but at the expense of probability and common sense. The chorus, instead of forming a necessary and integral part of the drama, is a mere incumbrance on the action, and at best a divertissement between the acts. But a worse, because a moral fault, is, the unnecessary degradation of the parental character in the person of Orgar. His mock-mendicity, and lying, and skulking, and eves-dropping, and tale-telling, effect no purpose that might not have been better brought about in other ways; and after the discovery of Athelwold's treachery, he is of no use at all, but a dead weight upon the scene. We cannot help thinking that Mason began his 'Elfrida' with an eye to the theatre; but finding the lyric parts, in which his strength lay, overgrow the dramatic, he abandoned that intention, and did not even offer it to a manager. When, however, he had acquired a name, which was likely to fill the house, the elder Colman most unjustifiably produced it at Covent Garden, with his own or somebody else's alterations. Mason was angry at this,—no wonder; and Colman threatened him with a chorus of Grecian washer-women. Mason prudently let the matter drop. He had an irritable anxiety about his reputation, which made him a very unequal match for managers of iron nerve and brazen face; and though he had undoubtedly the right on his side, Colman and the chorus of washer-women would have had the laugh on theirs. In 1776, 'Elfrida' appeared at Covent Garden with the author's own alterations. It was probably heard once or twice with respectful attention, and then heard no more. 'Elfrida' would have sunk in oblivion if Mason had never written 'Caractacus.'"

Mason took orders in 1754, on which occasion, it is said, Warburton thought fit to counsel him against further cultivation of the Muse, as inconsistent, or at least inexpedient, with his sacred profession,—an advice which had all the influence with Mason which his learned bishop's example could add to it. Soon after taking orders, he was appointed chaplain to the earl of Holderness, and accompanied that nobleman on a visit to the continent. On his return to England, in 1756, he was presented to the vicarage of Aston in Yorkshire, where he spent the remainder of his life. In 1757, on the death of Cibber, and the non-acceptance on the part of Gray of the vacant laureateship, the ministry advanced Whitehead to the honours of 'the Butt and Bayes,' but thought it necessary to apologize to Mason for not offering the office to him: their ostensible excuse was that he was in orders,—the true ground of his ineligibility, his politics.

The drama of 'Caractacus' appeared in 1759. "Compared to 'Elfrida,'" says Coleridge, "it is as the well-considered work of a man, to the rash adventure of a boy. It is better, even as a tragedy, than any thing that was produced in Mason's time. It aims at a high mark. It addresses itself to the moral imagination: it recognises a sympathy between the uneasy strivings of the soul of man, and the everlasting

works of nature : it proves its author to have been a true poet in desire and object ; and if, instead of a tragedy, he has given a serious poem in dialogue, let us not quarrel with a golden vase, if it should not exactly correspond with its description in the catalogue." The following choral ode, which occurs in this drama, was considered a *chef d'œuvre* by Mason's contemporaries :

"Mona on Snowdon calls :
 Hear, thou King of mountains, hear !
 Hark, she speaks from all her strings,—
 Hark, her loudest echo rings,—
 King of mountains, bend thine ear !
 Send thy spirits, send them soon,
 Now, when midnight and the moon
 Meet upon thy front of snow ;
 See ! their gold and ebon rod,
 Where the sober sisters nod,*
 And greet in whispers sage and slow.
 Snowdon ! mark, 'tis magic's hour ;
 Now the mutter'd spell has power,—
 Power to rend thy ribs of rock,
 And burst thy base with thunder's shock ;
 But to thee no ruder spell
 Shall Mona use than those that dwell
 In music's secret cells, and lie
 Steep'd in the stream of harmony.

"Snowdon has heard the strain :
 Hark ! amid the wondering grove
 Other voices meet our ear,—
 Other harpings answer clear,—
 Pinions flutter, shadows move,
 Busy murmurs hum 'round,
 Rustling vestments brush the ground ;
 Round, and round, and round they go,
 Through the twilight, through the shade,
 Mount the oak's majestic head,
 And gild the tufted mistleto." †

The author of 'Caractacus,' in strict keeping with the spirit of northern mythology, has put the following battle-hymn into the mouth of 'the warrior' Death :

* "Gray seems to have been much pleased with these lines. Speaking of the advantages and licenses of subjects like Caractacus, drawn from a period of whose manners and opinions scarcely any thing is known, he says, 'They leave an unbounded liberty to pure imagination and fiction, (our favourite provinces,) where no critic can molest, or antiquary gainsay us : and yet (to please me) these fictions must have some affinity, some seeming connexion, with that little we really know of the character and customs of the people. For example, I never heard in my life that midnight and the moon were sisters ; that they carried rods of ebony and gold, or met to whisper on the top of a mountain ; but now I could lay my life that it is all true, and do not doubt it will be found so in some pantheon of the Druids, that is to be discovered in the library at Herculeaneum.' I cannot think 'sober sisters' by any means a happy epithet in the present state of the English language. Sober originally meant sound-minded, self-possessed ; but at present it only implies the absence of ebriety."—*H Coleridge.*

† "This last image, pretty as it is, is far too pretty for the occasion. It would be well in a sportive fairy-tale ; but the Druids, while invoking mysterious powers, in whose existence they had a real, not a poetical belief, could not be in a mood to observe such minute effects."—*Ibid.*

" Fear not now the fever's fire ;
 Fear not now the death-bed groan,—
 Pangs that torture, pains that tire,
 Bedrid age, with feeble moan !
 These domestic terrors wait
 Hourly at my palace-gate :
 And when o'er slothful realms my rod I wave,
 These on the tyrant King and coward slave,
 Rush with vindictive rage, and drag them to their grave.
 But ye, my sons, in this high hour,
 Shall share the fulness of my power.

* * * * *
 Where creeps the nine-fold stream profound
 Her black inexorable round,
 And on the bank,
 To willows dank,
 The shiv'ring ghosts are bound,
 Twelve thousand crescents all shall swell,
 To full-orb'd pride, and fading die,
 Ere they again in life's gay mansions dwell ;
 Not such the meed that crowns the sons of liberty !

" No, my Britons ! battle slain,
 Rapture gilds your parting hour ;
 I that all despotic reign,
 Claim but there a moment's power ;
 Swiftly the soul of British flame,
 Animates some kindred frame,
 Swiftly to life and light exultant flies,
 Exults again in martial extacies,
 Again for freedom fights, again for freedom dies !"

These extracts will impress the reader with a favourable idea of Mason's lyrical powers.

In 1765 he was united to an amiable and accomplished woman, Miss Maria Sherman of Hull, whose death he was called upon to lament within less than twelve months from their nuptials. In 1771 he lost his friend Gray, who bequeathed to him his books and manuscripts. Mason in return performed the duties of editor and biographer to the accomplished bard, in a manner which detracted nothing from the reputation of either. In 1772 he published the first book of his 'English Garden,' of which the fourth and last appeared in 1782. It is a very long and very dull poem.

Politics chiefly occupied the latter part of Mason's life. He opposed the American war, and advocated parliamentary reform ; but a new light latterly broke in upon his mind on these matters, and he followed the course of Burke in abjuring his former tenets, and publishing a new political faith in his 'Palinodia,' which was written in 1794.

For some years previous to his death, he was in the habit of composing an anniversary sonnet on his birth-day. The following, commemorating the completion of his 72d year, is perhaps the last piece of poetry he ever wrote :

" Again the year on easy wheels has roll'd,
 To bear me to the term of seventy-two ;
 Yet still my eyes can seize the distant blue
 Of yon wild Peak ; and still my footsteps bold,
 Unprop'd by staff, support me to behold
 How Nature, to her Maker's mandate true,
 Calls Spring's impartial heralds to the view,

The snow-drop pale, the crocus spik'd with gold :
 And still—thank Heaven—if I not falsely deem,
 My lyre, yet vocal, freely can afford
 Strains not discordant to each moral theme
 Fair Truth inspires, and aid me to record
 —Best of poetic pains !—my faith supreme
 In thee, my God, my Saviour, and my Lord !”

He died in May, 1797, of the consequences of a contusion he had received on his leg.

William Julius Mickle.

BORN A. D. 1734.—DIED A. D. 1788.

THE ingenious translator of ‘*The Lusiad*,’ was the son of a Scottish clergyman of some reputation in the commonwealth of letters, and received his early education at the school of Langholm, of which parish his father was minister. He evinced a decided taste for literature while yet a very young man, but having engaged in some business speculations which proved unfortunate, his attention was for several years turned aside from letters. In 1762 he published a poem, entitled, ‘*Providence, or Arandus and Emilée*,’ which obtained for him the favourable notice of Lord Lyttleton. Mr Chalmers represents his lordship as having, upon the whole, baulked the young poet’s expectations, after exciting them considerably with the promise of his patronage. We do not think, however, that the biographer has made good this charge against his lordship, although it is certain that Mickle encountered not a few of the hardships and uncertainties attendant upon a literary life, after his removal to the English metropolis, and was at last happy to accept the office of a corrector to the Clarendon press at Oxford.

In 1767 he published a poem, which he at first entitled, ‘*The Concubine*,’ but in subsequent editions, ‘*Sir Martyn*.’ This poem is written in the Spenserian stanza, and evinces considerable genius and a good ear for rhythm. It made some noise at the time it appeared, and was attributed to different writers of established reputation. In 1772 he edited a collection of Fugitive pieces, which was published in continuation of Dodsley’s collection, in four volumes, 8vo., by George Pearch. He was now, however, meditating his great work, the translation of ‘*The Lusiad*,’ on which he nearly exclusively employed himself for four years. It was published in 1775, in one volume, quarto; a second edition was called for in 1778. ‘*The Lusiad*,’ in its English dress, was very favourably received both by the English and Portuguese critics, and procured for the translator many civilities from the countrymen of his favourite Camoens, on his visiting Lisbon, in 1779, in the quality of secretary to Commodore Johnstone.

He died in 1788. An edition of his poems, with a biographical sketch, was published in 1794, by Mr Ireland. Of his principal piece, ‘*The Lusiad*,’ it may be safely affirmed, that we possess very few translations of superior merit; it is at once free and literal; a poem fitted “to live in the English language,” and at the same time a faith-

ful mirror to the original epic. His preliminary dissertations are also very favourable specimens of general scholarship.

Thomas Day.

BORN A. D. 1748.—DIED A. D. 1789.

THIS eccentric, but amiable man, was a native of London. He was born on the 22d of June, 1748. His early education was superintended by his mother, a lady of considerable accomplishments: his father having died when he was little more than a year old. Young Day's fortune was handsome,—and he received a first-rate education at the Charter house and Oxford.

On finishing his studies at the university, he spent several successive years on the continent, where he seems to have employed himself in studying the habits of the lower classes, with a view to discover the origin of that universal taint which he found to infect human nature in all existing modifications of society, but for which, unwilling to accept the solution offered by revelation, he long felt himself unable to account. At last he became satisfied, that a defective and injudicious education was the sole root of the mischief; and, with an ardour peculiar to himself, immediately set about instituting a set of experiments, the grand aim and object of which was the production of a woman of faultless mind and manners, whose company, he wisely resolved, should reward him for his labours, and form the solace of his future life. Full of this hopeful scheme, he paid a visit to the foundling hospital at Shrewsbury, where he was permitted to select two female children to be the subjects of his educational experiments. His choice fell upon two girls of twelve years of age; both of interesting appearance, but of different casts of complexion and features; the one, on whom he was pleased to bestow the classical name of Lucretia, was a fair-haired, rosy-cheeked child; the other, who was made to exchange her name for that of Sabrina, was a clear brunette, with dark eyes and raven locks. We subjoin the particulars of this strange bargain, and the result of the experiment, nearly in Mr Chalmers's words:

The girls were obtained on written conditions, for the due performance of which, an intimate friend of Mr Day's, a barrister, became guarantee. The conditions were: that Mr Day should, within twelve months from the period of taking the girls under his charge, bind one of them apprentice to some respectable tradeswoman, and pay one hundred pounds of premium for her, besides maintaining her until she married, or began business for herself, on either of which events he pledged himself to pay her four hundred pounds more. With respect to the one whom he might make choice of for his future partner, at the end of the twelve months' comparative trial, he bound himself to treat her with respect and all necessary kindness, until she should be fitted to fill the station for which he destined her; and, in the event of his changing his mind, to maintain her at board in some respectable family, till she should get married to another, when he would pay her a wedding-portion of five hundred pounds. These preliminaries arranged, Mr Day immediately set out for France, carrying his young charges with him, but unaccom-

panied by a single English servant,—an arrangement by which he thought to subject their infantile minds entirely to his new plan of education, by precluding the possibility of their holding conversation with any others but themselves and their instructor. He soon found he had undertaken no easy task; his pupils teased and perplexed him in a thousand ways he had never before dreamt of; they quarrelled; they cried whenever they were left alone with any person who could not speak English to them; at last they both sickened of small-pox, and poor Day was obliged to nurse them himself. Eight months of this sort of life completely satisfied our experimenter; at the expiry of this period he returned to England, and got rid of Lucretia by placing her with a chamber-milliner. With Sabrina he actually proceeded during some years in the execution of his favourite project; but was at last reluctantly compelled to abandon all hopes of making her his wife. She indeed grew up an accomplished and amiable woman, but fell far short of her protector's *beau ideal* of a wife.¹

At last Mr Day ventured into the bonds of matrimony with a Yorkshire lady, who seems to have made him in all respects an excellent wife. With her he retired to his estates in Essex and Surrey, where he devoted himself to a rural life, and the active discharge of the duties of a country-gentleman. He wrote several political pamphlets, and exerted himself strenuously in behalf of American independence and parliamentary reform. In one of his political tracts, the following remark occurs; it has lost none of its point in the present day: "If there be an object truly ridiculous in nature, it is an American patriot signing resolutions of independence with the one hand, and, with the other, brandishing a whip over his affrighted slaves." His first poetical publication, entitled 'The Dying Negro,' which appeared in 1773, contributed not a little to excite that general abhorrence of the slave-trade, which at last brought about the abolition of the accursed traffic. His other poetical pieces are entitled, 'The Devoted Legions,' and 'The Desolation of America;' they are both of a political cast. But the publication by which Mr Day is most generally, and will be longest known, is the 'History of Sandford and Merton,' one which he wrote for the use of children, and which never fails to prove eminently entertaining at least, if not so deeply and directly instructive as its author hoped it might prove, to juvenile minds. We are told, by an anonymous writer, that Mr Day was, in addition to his qualities as a good citizen and patriot, "an ingenious mechanic, a well-informed chemist, a learned theoretical physician, and an expert constitutional lawyer."²

Mr Day was killed, in 1789, by a kick from a young horse, which, with the view of trying his theory of education on the irrational creation, he was attempting to train and exercise himself.

Wellesley, Earl of Mornington.

BORN A. D. 1735.—DIED A. D. 1781.

THIS nobleman, father of the Duke of Wellington, takes a place in

¹ See Miss Seward's Life of Darwin.

² See article Day in Biographia Britannica.

the annals of British science, as one of the most accomplished theoretical and practical musicians. Daines Barrington, in his 'Miscellanies,' informs us, that he evinced a most precocious musical talent. "His father," says Mr Barrington, "played well, for a gentleman, on the violin; which always delighted the child while in his nurse's arms, and long before he could speak. Nor did this proceed from a love common to other children, of a sprightly noise: as may appear by the following anecdote. Dubourg—who was, thirty years ago, a distinguished player on that instrument—happened to be at the family-seat; but the child would not permit him to take the instrument from his father, till his little hands were held. After having heard Dubourg, however, the case was altered; and there was much more difficulty to persuade him to let Dubourg give back the instrument to his father; nor would the infant ever afterwards permit the father to play whilst Dubourg was in the house." It was not till his ninth year, that he attempted to play on any instrument. An old portrait-painter, who came at this time to the family-seat, gave him some instruction on the violin; and so rapid was his improvement, that in a short time he was able to take part in a concert. Soon afterwards he commenced composer, "from emulation," says Mr Barrington, "of the applause given to a country-dance made by a neighbouring clergyman. He accordingly set to work; and, by playing a treble on the violin, whilst he sung a bass to it, he formed a minuet,—the bass of which he wrote in the treble clef, and was very profuse of his fifths and octaves, being totally ignorant of the established rules of composition. This minuet was followed by a duet for two French horns, whilst the piece concluded by an andante movement: thus consisting of three parts, all of which being tacked together, he called a serenata. At this time he had never heard any music but from his father, sisters, and the old painter."

From the violin our young musician proceeded to the organ. "It is well known," continues Mr Barrington, "that this instrument is more likely to form a composer than any other; and his lordship, in process of time, committed his ideas to writing. As he had, however, never received the least instruction in the abstruse but pleasing science, he wished to consult both Rosengrave and Gemminiani, who, on examining his compositions, told him that they could not be of the least service to him, as he had himself investigated all the established rules, with their proper exceptions." He succeeded to the title of Baron Mornington, on the death of his father, on the 31st of January, 1758. In 1759, he married the eldest daughter of the first Viscount Dungannon; and, on the 2d of October, 1760, he was advanced to the dignities of Viscount Wellesley and Earl of Mornington. He died at Kensington, on the 22d of May, 1781, and was succeeded in his title and estates by his eldest son, Richard, the present marquess of Wellesley. The earl's finest compositions are his glees, especially 'Here in cool grot,' 'By Greenwood tree,' and 'O, Bird of eve.'

John Hamilton Mortimer.

BORN A. D. 1741.—DIED A. D. 1779.

THIS artist was the son of a miller in Sussex, who used to consider himself the lineal descendant of Mortimer, Earl of March. The family possessed a kind of hereditary attachment to the pictorial art, and young Mortimer early became emulous of distinction in the same line, and prevailed upon his father to pay a premium of one hundred guineas for liberty to place him in the studio of the then celebrated Hudson. He soon, however, lost his esteem for Hudson, and transferred himself to the painting-room of Pine, who was then considered an excellent colourist. But an introduction to Cipriani, at that time employed in painting the ceilings and galleries of the duke of Richmond's house, proved of more service to him than all that he had previously gleaned under both of his masters. The duke allowed him to study his collection of paintings and statues; and he soon after obtained several premiums from the Society for the encouragement of arts, for drawings made from the figures in the Richmond gallery.

"The reputation," says Allan Cunningham, "which all allow that Mortimer about this time suddenly acquired, has been ascribed by the biographers to the picture of Edward the Confessor seizing the treasures of his mother, which, in the opinion of Reynolds, excelled the rival painting by Romney so decidedly as to entitle him to the premium of fifty guineas. The tradition of the studios, however, ascribes his first great start in fame to a source more romantic, or at least accidental. It was the fashion in those days for painters to be largely employed in embellishing ceilings, and walls, and furniture; and it may be remembered that the coach of Sir Joshua Reynolds had the seasons painted on the panels: now the state coach which was to convey the king to the house of lords required repair, and Mortimer was called in by the coach-maker to ornament the panels; which he did so successfully, that the people, who crowded to see their young sovereign, bestowed equal attention on the Battle of Agincourt painted on the carriage. The king, it is added, was so much pleased, that he caused the panel to be taken out and preserved, and extended his notice to Mortimer. To this incident is imputed the king's anxiety for the painter's admission into the Royal academy. His success in the contest with Romney, however, whether this story of the panel be true or not, made him more widely known, and inspired him with new confidence in his own powers. He soon after produced a large picture of St Paul preaching to the Britons; and so well was it thought of that the Society of arts presented him with a hundred guineas, and when exhibited in Spring Gardens it so far excelled the works opposed to it, that some were justified in exclaiming, "We have now got an historical painter of our own!" It was indeed a picture of considerable merit,—displaying no little originality of character in some of the heads,—and above all, it was the work of a very young man fresh from the country, who had never been abroad and had studied but little at home."

From this period Mortimer's reputation and consequent practice steadily increased. He showed great versatility of powers, and painted with astonishing rapidity. Unfortunately for himself and art, he became smit with the ambition of imitating the young men of fashion of his day; and in the pursuit of a name amongst the rakes of London, he at once sacrificed time, health, reputation, and fortune. He afterwards married, and recruited his health by a temporary retirement in the country, during which he painted a number of pieces; but his constitution never fully recovered the blow he had given it by his early excesses, and he died at the age of thirty-eight, soon after having been elected, without solicitation, a Royal academician.

Allan Cunningham says of Mortimer: "Had he mastered colour, or turned his mind in time to it, he would have produced pictures worthy of any modern collection. His 'King John signing Magna Charta,'—'The Battle of Agincourt,'—'The Origin of Health,'—'The Tragic and Comic Muses,'—'Sextus consulting Erietho, from Lucan,'—'The Incantation,'—'Vortigern and Rowena,'—and his 'Groups of Banditti,'—are all marked with an air which belong to no other painter. He has at least the merit of looking like himself alone—a merit not small in these latter days of sordid imitation in literature and art. It has been remarked, that he impressed nobleness and truth on the countenances of all his figures; and moreover, that with these noble and beautiful characters his imagination was so amply stored, that, in all his numerous paintings and drawings, there never appeared two that were not different."

Allan Ramsay.

BORN A. D. 1713.—DIED A. D. 1784.

THIS artist was a son of the well-known Scottish poet of the same name, and was born at Edinburgh, in the year 1713. Edwards says, he was a self-taught artist. His father, writing to a friend, in 1736, says of him: "My son Allan has been pursuing his science since he was a dozen years auld: was with Mr Hyffidg in London for some time, about two years ago; has since been painting here like a Raphael: sets out for the seat of the Beast beyond the Alps within a month hence, to be away two years. I'm sweer¹ to part with him, but canna stem the current which flows from the advice of his patrons, and his own inclination." In the summer of 1736, our young artist left Edinburgh for Rome, where he studied three years. On his return to Scotland he commenced portrait-painting, and appears to have been well-patronized, but he soon changed his residence to London, where he was fortunate enough to secure the early patronage of Lord Bute, and of course of the heir-apparent. His high talents, backed by such powerful friends, secured him abundant employment of the most remunerating kind, and he began to amass money so rapidly, that in a very few years he had realized a sum of £40,000. One of his earliest acts, on finding himself

¹ *Sweer*, i. e. *loath*.

possessed of the means, was to pay off his father's debts, and settle an annuity on his unmarried sister.

On the accession of George III., Ramsay was appointed portrait-painter to the court, although Sir Joshua Reynolds was high in reputation at this period. As his majesty was in the practice of presenting portraits of himself and queen to his ambassadors and colonial governors, Ramsay had abundant employment in multiplying the royal likenesses, and was obliged to engage a number of assistants; he invariably, however, says Mr Cunningham, painted the head with his own hand. "It often happened that the king desired the painter to convey his easel and canvass to the dining-room, that he might observe its progress, and have the pleasure of his conversation. The painter, a bold, spirited, well-informed man, perfectly conversant with the state of the various kingdoms of Europe, spoke freely and without disguise; and as he was the only person about the court, save the domestics, who could speak German, the queen more especially found it an agreeable variety to chat with him in her native language. Ramsay, in short, was a great favourite. When the king had finished his usual allowance of boiled mutton and turnips, he would rise and say, 'Now, Ramsay, sit down in my place, and take your dinner.' This partiality produced, of course, abundance of enemies; but they could do him no harm—for he was not dependent upon royal favour; and the extent of his fortune was, at least, as well known, and as sincerely envied, as either his accomplishments, or his courtly success."

Soon after his appointment to be king's painter he revisited Rome, where he chiefly employed himself in copying the Greek and Latin inscriptions in the Vatican,—an employment which, it seems, pleased him much more than strictly professional pursuits. We have the high authority of Dr Johnson for representing our painter as a man of polished education and extensive information. "You will not," says the Doctor, "find a man in whose conversation there is more instruction, more information, or more elegance, than in Ramsay's." Northcote, in his 'Conversations,' speaks of him as follows:—"There was Ramsay, of whom Sir Joshua used to say, that he was the most sensible among all the painters of his time; but he has left little to show it. His manner was dry and timid; he stopped short in the middle of his work, because he knew exactly how much it wanted. Now and then we find tints and sketches which show what he might have been if his hand had been equal to his conceptions. I have seen a picture of his of the queen, soon after she was married, a profile, and slightly done, but it was a paragon of elegance. It was weak in execution, and ordinary in features, but the farthest possible removed from anything like vulgarity. A professor might despise it; but, in the mental part, I have never seen anything of Vandyke's equal to it. I should find it difficult to produce anything of Sir Joshua's that conveys an idea of more grace and delicacy."

Ramsay died at Paris, in 1784. His death was accelerated by an accident in which he dislocated his arm severely, and from the effects of which he never fully recovered.

William Woollett.

BORN A. D. 1735.—DIED A. D. 1785.

THIS excellent engraver was a native of Maidstone in Kent. He gave early indications of that talent, by which he was afterwards to acquire so high a reputation in the spirited likenesses he used to sketch upon his slate of his school-fellows and acquaintances. He was apprenticed, at an early age, to a London engraver. Alderman Boydell was one of the first to discover and patronise the talents of the young artist. Mr Smith, in his life of Nollekins, thus relates the story of Woollett's introduction to the worthy alderman, in the words of the latter: "At this time, the principal conversation among artists was upon Mr Wilson's grand picture of Niobe, which had just arrived from Rome. I, therefore, immediately applied to his royal highness, the duke of Gloucester, its owner, and procured permission for Woollett to engrave it. But before he ventured upon the task, I requested to know what idea he had as to the expense; and, after some consideration, he said he thought he could engrave it for one hundred guineas. This sum was to me an unheard-of-price, being considerably more than I had given for any copperplate. However, serious as the sum was, I bade him get to work, and he proceeded with all possible cheerfulness, for, as he went on, I advanced him money; and though he lost no time, I found that he had received nearly the whole amount before he had half finished his task. I frequently called upon him, and found him struggling with serious difficulties, with his wife and family, in an upper lodging in Green's court, Castle-street, Leicester-fields, for there he lived before he went into Green-street. However, I encouraged him, by allowing him to draw upon me to the extent of £25 more; and, at length, that sum was paid, and I was unavoidably under the necessity of saying,—'Mr Woollett, I find we have made too close a bargain with each other; you have exerted yourself, and I fear I have gone beyond my strength, or, indeed, what I ought to have risked, as we neither of us can be aware of the success of the speculation. However, I am determined, whatever the event may be, to enable you to finish it to your wish, at least to allow you to work upon it as long as another £25 can extend, but there we positively must stop.' The plate was finished; and, after taking a very few proofs, I published the print at five shillings, and it succeeded so much beyond my expectation, that I immediately employed Mr Woollett upon another engraving, from another picture by Wilson; and I am now thoroughly convinced, that had I continued in publishing subjects of their description, my fortune would have been increased ten-fold."

Woollett is chiefly famous as an engraver of landscapes. His foregrounds are admirable for depth and vigour, and the distances for softness and delicacy. He died on the 23d of May, 1785.

His character has been thus drawn by one of his friends: "To say that he was the first artist in his profession, would be giving him his least praise, for he was a good man. Naturally modest and amiable in his disposition, he never censured the works of others, or omitted point-

ing out their merits. His patience, under the continual torments of a most dreadful disorder, upwards of nine months, was truly exemplary; and he died, as he had lived, in peace with all the world, in which he never had an enemy." His most esteemed works are as follow:—A view of the Hermitage of Warkworth, after Hearne,—The Merry Villagers, after Jones,—A Landscape, with Æneas and Dido, after Jones and Mortimer,—A Landscape, with buildings, after John Smith,—Another Landscape, after George Smith, the first premium print,—The Hay-makers, the Apple-gatherers, and the Rural Cot, after the same,—The Spanish Pointer, after Stubbs,—A View of Snowdon, Celadon and Amelia, Ceyx and Aleyone, Cicero at his Villa, Solitude, Niobe, Phæton, and Meleager, and Atalanta, all after Wilson,—The Jocund Peasants, and Merry Cottagers, a pair, after Dusart,—The Fishery, after Wright,—The Boar Hunt, after Pillement,—Diana and Actæon, after Fil. Lauri,—Morning and Evening, a pair, after Swanevelt,—A Landscape, with Figures and a Waterfall, after An. Caracci,—Macbeth and the Witches, after Zuccherelli,—The Enchanted Castle, The Temple of Apollo, Roman Edifices in Ruins, Landscape, with the meeting of Jacob and Laban, all after Claude,—and the Death of General Wolfe, and the Battle of La Hoguc, after West. His principal engravings of portraits were George III., after Ramsay, and Peter Paul Rubens, after Vandyke.

Alexander Runciman.

BORN A. D. 1736.—DIED A. D. 1785.

THIS early artist in the annals of British painting was a native of Scotland, having been born in Edinburgh in the year 1736. His father was an architect,—a profession which in those days brought the artist into contact with painters more frequently, perhaps, than it does now: the pencil being often employed in the embellishments of the ceilings and walls of edifices. Probably the genius of young Runciman was prompted by some of his father's painter-associates; it is certain that he early evinced a decided attachment to the art.

His first crude attempts were made at landscape sketches from nature. At the age of fourteen he was placed in the studio of John and Robert Norris, where, says Allan Cunningham, "he seemed to live and breathe for painting alone. 'Other artists,' said one who had been his companion, 'talked meat and drink,—Runciman talked landscape.'" In 1755 he began to practise on his own account; his success was for a long time dubious, but he consoled himself with the assurance that his hour of fame was coming. "With finer powers," says Mr Cunningham,—"with powers at least bestowed on infinitely finer works, Wilson was starving amid the opulence and the patronage of London; no wonder his fellow-adventurer of the North toiled in vain during five long years at Edinburgh. The great Englishman had, in leaving portraiture, forsaken fortune for fame; and the Scotsman, when he had discovered the barrenness of landscape, only turned to starve in a more conspicuous manner on historical composition. 'The versatility of his talents,' says one of his biographers, 'did not permit him to be great only in one depart-

ment. In 1760 his genius launched into the extensive regions of history painting, where, in delineating human passions, his energetic mind had greater scope than in portraying peaceful fields, the humble cottage, and the unambitious shepherd.' These are, as Fluellen says of the language of Ancient Pistol, as brave words as a man would wish to hear on a summer's day; but they must not disguise the fact of the artist's total failure in landscape, the first-born of his fancy."

In 1766, Runciman visited Italy. He remained about five years in Rome, where he gained acquaintance with Fuseli, a younger but much better-informed man; the two friends were inseparable, and insensibly perhaps—for each would have disdained to be thought the imitator even of the other—fell into the same extravagant style of composition. On his return to his native country, he found an academy of art established in the university of his native city, with a salaried professor. The chair was at the moment vacant, and was offered to Runciman, who accepted it. Sir James Clerk of Pennicuik, in the neighbourhood of Edinburgh, was at this time one of the chief patrons of art in the North. To him Runciman, now an enthusiast in historical painting, submitted the design of a great national work, namely, to embellish his hall at Pennicuik with a series of paintings from Ossian. Sir J. Clerk, says Mr Cunningham, "readily entered into the feelings and wishes of the painter; sketches were made and approved, scaffolds raised; and to work he accordingly went, with all the enthusiasm of one who believes he is earning an immortal name. But there is no work, however much it may be the offspring of one's own heart, that can be accomplished perhaps in the same spirit in which it was commenced. Men of taste, connoisseurs, patrons of the fine arts, were ready, with their dissonance of opinion, to excite pain in the mind of a sensitive artist: pain of mind was aggravated by pain of body; he had to lie so much on his back, while occupied with the ceiling of the hall, that his health failed; while, to add to other vexations, the searching spirit of inquiry and criticism began to sap more and more the lines of circumvallation within which Macpherson had intrenched himself; and that Fingal lived, and that Ossian sung, began to be doubted even among the Scotch. He painted on, nevertheless, and finished his very romantic undertaking."¹

Besides the subjects from Ossian—twelve in number—Runciman painted several classical historical pieces—amongst which were 'Andromeda,' 'The Princess Nausicaa and her Nymphs surprised by Ulysses,' and 'Agrippina landing with the ashes of Germanicus.' He also etched a few of his own paintings. He died in the 49th year of his age, of a disease brought on by his exertions at Pennicuik. "My father," says a correspondent of Allan Cunningham's, "was acquainted with Runciman, whose sketches, I think, are infinitely better than his pictures. Look at his etchings, and remember his gallery at Pennicuik, and then judge if I am severe—such long legs, such distorted attitudes, and such a total want of knowledge or contempt of drapery! I

¹ The gifted writer whose words we now quote, and to whom we have been indebted for so many interesting extracts in our notices of British artists, has volunteered an excellent defence and apology for Runciman's patriotic choice of subjects from Ossian,—his country's real or pretended bard,—in preference to others which might have gained him more favour at least from the critics of the south.

always thought I saw Runciman revived in Fuseli. My father said he was a dissolute, blasphemous fellow, and repeated some of his sayings, which are better forgotten than remembered." One of his biographers, on the other hand, gives him credit for much real worth and goodness of heart, and a candour and simplicity of manners which caused his company to be courted by some of the most eminent literary characters of his time. With respect to his merits as an artist, his friend and scholar, Brown, celebrated for design, says: "His fancy was fertile, his discernment of character keen, his taste truly elegant, and his conceptions truly great. Though his genius seems to be best suited to the grave and serious; yet many of his works amply prove that he could move, with equal success, in the less elevated line of the gay and the pleasing. His chief excellence lay in composition—the noblest part of the art—in which, it is doubtful whether he had any living superior. With regard to the truth, the harmony, the richness, and the gravity of colouring,—in that style, in short, which is the peculiar characteristic of the ancient Venetian, and the direct contrast of the English modern school, he was unrivalled. His works, it must be granted, like all those of the present times, were far from being perfect; but it was Runciman's peculiar misfortune, that his defects were of such a nature, as to be obvious to the most unskilful eyes, whilst his beauties were of a kind, which few have sufficient taste or knowledge in the art to discern, far less to appreciate."

Sir John Hawkins

BORN A. D. 1719.—DIED A. D. 1789.

THE father of Sir John Hawkins was originally a house-carpenter, though descended from the preceding Sir John Hawkins. The title of the family was revived in the subject of the present article, who was born in the city of London, in 1719. He was apprenticed at a proper age to a relative of his father's, a respectable attorney and solicitor, under whom he gained a thorough knowledge of common law, whilst, by a systematic employment of his time, he managed to cultivate letters and gain the acquaintance of several of the leading literary characters of the day.

The first production of his pen was an 'Essay on Swearing,' which he contributed to one of the periodical publications; his next was an 'Essay on Honesty,' which appeared in the 'Gentleman's Magazine' for March, 1739. In 1741 he became a member of the Madrigal club, founded by a brother-attorney of the name of Immyns. He was also admitted a member of the 'Academy of Ancient Music,' which used to meet at the Crown and Anchor in the Strand. To these associations, and his original love of music, we owe Sir John's voluminous work, the 'History of the Science and Practice of Music.' When Johnson instituted his celebrated club, in 1749, Hawkins had the honour of being selected one of its first members. He was at this time in good professional practice, but retired from business a few years afterwards, having received a handsome fortune with his wife, which enabled him to devote himself to literary pursuits and the society of the learned

during the remainder of his life. In 1760 he published an excellent edition of Walton's 'Angler,' of which a fifth and revised impression was published by his eldest son in 1792. The 'History of Music,' after sixteen years' labour and indefatigable research, was published in 1776. It contains a large body of curious and original information, but is a mere storehouse of facts; to the title of a scientific history of music it has no just claim.

In 1761 he was appointed one of the magistrates of Middlesex. In this station he conducted himself with great prudence, and rendered valuable services to the county. His spirited exertions to repress the Brentford and Spitalfield riots, in 1768 and 1769, and his conduct as chairman of the quarter-sessions, procured for him the honour of knighthood, in October, 1772. On the death of his intimate friend Dr Johnson, Sir John undertook to prepare a complete edition of his works with a memoir. His labour was interrupted by the accidental destruction of his library by fire; but he at last completed his intention in 1787. With the discharge of this pious task his literary life terminated. He died in May, 1789, leaving behind him a respectable reputation for abilities, integrity, and patriotism.

William Cullen.

BORN A. D. 1710.—DIED A. D. 1790.

THIS distinguished medical philosopher was a native of Hamilton in Scotland. His father was a member of the legal profession, and factor to the duke of Hamilton. From the grammar-school of his native town, young Cullen proceeded to the university of Glasgow, and thereafter was apprenticed to a surgeon of extensive practice in that city. In his twentieth year he went to London, and soon after obtained an appointment as surgeon to a merchant-vessel trading to the Spanish West Indies. On his return, he spent four years in the further study of his profession, and attended two sessions of the medical classes in Edinburgh.

At the age of twenty-six, Cullen commenced practice in his native town. After residing seven years at Hamilton, he removed to Glasgow, and was soon after permitted to deliver, in the university, courses of the theory and practice of Physic, Materia-medica, and Chemistry. "In entering upon the duties of a teacher of medicine," says his biographer, Dr John Thomson, "Dr Cullen ventured to make another change in the established mode of instruction, by laying aside the use of the Latin language in the composition and delivery of his lectures. This was considered by many as a rash innovation; and some, desirous to detract from his reputation, or not sufficiently aware of the advantages attending this deviation from established practice, have insinuated that it was owing to Dr Cullen's imperfect knowledge of the Latin that he was induced to employ the English language. But how entirely groundless such an insinuation is, must be apparent to every one at all acquainted with his early education, course of studies, and habits of persevering industry. When we reflect, too, that it was through the medium of the Latin tongue that he must have acquired his extensive

knowledge of medical science, it seems absurd to suppose that he was not qualified, like the other teachers of his time, to deliver, had he chosen it, his lectures in that language. We are not left, however, to conjecture with regard to this point; for that Dr Cullen had been accustomed, from an early period of his life, to compose in Latin, appears not only from letters written by him in that language to some of his familiar friends, first draughts of which have been preserved, but also from the fact, that, whilst he taught medicine at Glasgow in his vernacular tongue, he delivered, during the same period, several courses of lectures on Botany in the Latin language. The notes of these lectures still remain among his papers; and I find also, written with his own hand, in the same language, two copies of an unfinished text-book on Chemistry. The numerous corrections of expression which are observable in the first sketches of Dr Cullen's Latin, as well as of his English compositions, show a constant attention on his part to the accuracy and purity of the language in which his ideas were expressed, and a mind always aiming, in whatever it engaged, at a degree of perfection higher than that which it conceived it had already attained."

In 1751 he became regularly attached to the university as regius professor of Physic. In 1755 he was conjoined with Dr Plummer in the chair of chemistry in the university of Edinburgh. In this science Dr Cullen's knowledge and merits as a lecturer were very great; he also delivered an admirable course of clinical lectures, and supplied the materia-medica chair during a vacancy in that professorship in 1760. It was generally expected that he would succeed Dr Rutherford in the chair of Practical medicine; but the doctor had imbibed strong prejudices against Cullen, and only resigned in favour of Dr John Gregory of Aberdeen, who allowed Cullen, however, to give alternate courses with himself. On the death of Gregory, in 1773, Cullen was appointed sole professor of the Practice of physic.

In this chair he acquired great fame and a European reputation; his classes were crowded with pupils from all parts of the continent, and his doctrines gave a new tone altogether to the science of physic, particularly by his theory of the influence of the nervous system on the different functions of the animal economy. He died in 1790. His published works consist of 'Lectures on the Materia-medica;' 'Synopsis Nosologiæ Practicæ,' containing the nosologies of Sauvages, Linnæus, Vogel, and Macbride, as well as his own; a tract on the recovery of persons apparently drowned; and some other minor pieces, besides his great work, entitled, 'First Lines of the Practice of Physic.'

"Cullen," says a reviewer of Dr John Thomson's life of our physician, "is one of those illustrious minds by whom Scotland, during the past century, was raised from comparative insignificance to the very highest rank in literature and science. In no department of intellectual activity has Scotland been more prolific of distinguished talent, than in medicine; and as a medical philosopher the name of Cullen stands, in his native country, pre-eminent and alone. It would be difficult indeed to find in any nation an individual who displayed a rarer assemblage of the highest qualities of a physician. The characters of his genius were prominent, but in just accordance with each other. His erudition was extensive, yet it never shackled the independent vigour of his mind; while, on the other hand, no love of originality made him overlook or

disparage the labours of his predecessors. His capacity of speculation was strong, but counterbalanced by an equal power of observation ; his imagination, though lively, was broken in as a useful auxiliary to a still more energetic reason. The circumstances under which his mind was cultivated, were also conducive to its full and harmonious evolution. His education was left sufficiently to himself to determine his faculties to a free and vigorous energy ; sufficiently scholastic to prevent a one-sided and exclusive development. It was also favourable to the same result, that from an early period of life, his activity was divided between practice, study, and teaching ; and extended to almost every subject of medical science,—all however viewed in subordination to the great end of professional knowledge—the cure of disease.”

John Howard.

BORN A. D. 1726.—DIED A. D. 1790.

THIS illustrious name might perhaps with more propriety have been classed in our political category ; its insertion here, however, will not be productive of any great misapprehension on the part of the reader. This illustrious philanthropist was born on the 2d of September, 1726, at Hackney, in the vicinity of London. His father was a respectable tradesman, of dissenting principles. On leaving school, young Howard was apprenticed to a grocer in the city, but soon after the death of his father, in 1742, finding himself in affluent circumstances, he bought out his indenture, and paid a visit to the continent. In 1752 he married a lady several years older than himself, and of a sickly and infirm constitution ; this union, like most events in Howard's life, was the result of that generous and humane spirit which ever impelled him to sacrifice his own comfort and ease to the welfare of others. The woman he thus made his wife, while he himself was still in the flush of youth, had been his landlady, and had nursed him with great assiduity during a severe illness which he had in her house ; on his recovery, out of gratitude he offered her his hand ; and though for a time she hesitated to avail herself of the offer, and even remonstrated with him on account of the sacrifice he was making, he would take no denial. Unequal as the match was in many respects, they lived in much harmony together until the death of Mrs Howard, in 1755.

In 1756 he left England with the intention of proceeding to Lisbon, in order to witness the effects of the dreadful earthquake which had so recently desolated that city. In the voyage, the packet in which he had embarked was captured by a French privateer, and carried into Brest. He employed himself while in captivity in inquiring into the condition of the English prisoners in France, and, upon obtaining his release, made such representations to the English government as led to a remonstrance addressed to the French court which procured better treatment for the prisoners of war at Brest, Morlaix, and Dinan. Perhaps it was this incident in Howard's life which so powerfully directed the current of his philanthropy in after life towards the state of prisons, and prison and penitentiary discipline. He did not however immediately enter upon that 'circumnavigation of charity,' as Burke ex-

presses it, which he afterwards undertook, and in which he gained for himself so imperishable a name in the annals of mankind. He married a second time soon after his return to England; and spent several years in retirement on his own estate, happy in the society of a beloved wife, and finding abundant employment of a kind most congenial to his disposition in promoting the comfort of his numerous tenantry. He was often heard to declare that this was the happiest period of his life; but his felicity was destined to receive a fatal interruption by the death of his lady in 1765. To relieve his mind a little from the depression occasioned by this event, he visited the continent in 1767, and repeated his visit in 1769.

In 1773 he was appointed high-sheriff of Bedfordshire, and, though a dissenter, accepted the office, which he saw would afford him greater facilities than he had yet possessed for exercising true and patriotic benevolence. He examined minutely into the state of the county-prisons, and, on discovering the gross abuses which prevailed in their management, he resolved to attempt a reform of the entire system of prison-discipline. With this view he visited in person nearly all the county-gaols in England, and, in March, 1774, laid the result of his investigations before the house of commons. The house passed a vote of thanks to Mr Howard, and he had the satisfaction of seeing different bills brought in and passed for the regulation and improvement of prisons. In the month of December, 1774, he, in conjunction with Mr Whitbread, contested the election for the borough of Bedford; his colleague was ultimately declared duly elected, and he himself lost his election by only four votes.

The years 1775 and 1776 were spent by Mr Howard in visiting the prisons of France, Flanders, Holland, Switzerland, Germany, Scotland, and Ireland; and in 1777 he published the result of his observations, to which he added an appendix in 1780. This publication created a great sensation, and led to the correction of numerous abuses in the penitentiary and prison-discipline of various continental states as well as that of Great Britain. From 1780 to 1784 Howard was engaged in extending his inquiries into the state of foreign prisons; his character was now European, and highly appreciated in every court on the continent; wherever he went he was received with marked attention, and his suggestions were seldom neglected. His friends in England would have erected a statue to his honour, but abandoned their intention in consequence of his earnest and repeated entreaties. Towards the end of 1785 he set out on a visit to the principal lazarettos of Europe; on his return he visited the English hulks, after which he published the result of his investigations, and announced his intention of revisiting Russia and Turkey, in the hope of becoming more extensively useful to his fellow-creatures. He set off, accordingly, from London in the summer of 1789, and had made his way to Cherson on the Dnieper, when he was arrested by the hand of death, on the 20th of January, 1790. It is said that one great object he had proposed to himself in this journey was to try the effects of James's powder as a febrifuge; and that in his attendance, with this view, upon a prisoner labouring under malignant fever, he caught the disease, which carried him off in a few days' illness.

His death was announced in the London Gazette as a national cala-

mity, and lamented by all the friends of humanity throughout Europe. A monumental statue, from the chisel of Bacon, was erected to his memory in St Paul's. Mr Howard was a man of deep piety as well as the purest and most exalted philanthropy. His intellectual powers were not of the highest order, but his indefatigable industry and scrupulous love of truth eminently fitted him for the office he undertook, namely, the collecting of materials for minds of a higher order to generalize. His religious views may be generally described as those of a Calvinistic dissenter. His life has been written by different hands. The last and most extensive memoir of him, is from the pen of Dr Baldwin Brown, one volume quarto. It is an accurate, but somewhat heavy compilation.

Adam Smith.

BORN A. D. 1723.—DIED A. D. 1790.

THE celebrated author of the 'Inquiry into the Nature and Causes of the Wealth of Nations,' was born at Kirkcaldy, in Scotland, on the 5th of June, 1723. His father was comptroller of the customs at that small port. When a child of about three years of age, this future enlightener of his race was carried off by a gang of gipsies from his uncle's house; their traces, however, were come upon, and the young philosopher, fortunately for the world, was rescued from the inglorious society into which he had thus early fallen. His education was begun at a school in his native town. Originally of a feeble constitution, and thus precluded from the more boisterous sport of boyhood, young Smith early found his chief amusement in books, for which he displayed an extraordinary passion; and, as his memory was unusually retentive, he soon acquired a large fund of miscellaneous knowledge. In 1737, he was sent to the university of Glasgow, where he remained three years; in 1740, having obtained an exhibition on Snell's foundation, he removed to Baliol college, Oxford. His intention at first seems to have been to take orders in the church of England; but he must have relinquished this idea soon after he removed to Oxford. While at the latter university, he appears to have chiefly devoted himself to the study of mental philosophy and the classics.

After a residence of about seven years at Oxford, he returned to Scotland, and, in the winter of 1748, read lectures in Edinburgh, on rhetoric and the belles lettres, under the patronage of Lord Kames. In 1751, he was elected professor of logic in the university of Glasgow; in the following year, upon the death of Mr Craigie, the successor of Hutcheson, he was removed to the chair of moral philosophy, in the same university, which he held for a period of thirteen years. His lectures were greatly admired, and drew many students to Glasgow. The 'Theory of Moral Sentiments,' which was first published in 1759, formed the chief part of the ethical division of his course of moral philosophy; his celebrated 'Inquiry' was also first sketched out for the concluding part of this course, in which the lecturer examined those political regulations which are founded upon principles of expediency only, as distinct from those which are established upon the immutable principles of justice.

In 1763, Mr Smith resigned his professorship in consequence of having accepted an invitation to travel with the young duke of Buccleugh, on the continent. In company with this nobleman, and Sir James Macdonald, Mr Smith spent three years abroad, and made the personal acquaintance of Necker, D'Alembert, and other leading characters in Paris. On his return to Scotland, he betook himself to his mother's house, at Kirkaldy, where he spent ten years in almost close retirement, meditating, and arranging the materials of his immortal work, the 'Wealth of Nations,' which he at last gave to the world, in the beginning of 1776, in two volumes, 4to. Of this work, an able writer in the Westminster Review thus speaks: "Adam Smith was probably the first who thought of embracing in one view all the topics which are within the province of the economist. Before his time, it is true, many of them had been separately and incidentally handled by others: to him, however, we are indebted, not only for the discovery and development of many important principles, but for the first tolerable attempt to show their mutual relation and dependence. When the 'Inquiry into the Nature and Causes of the Wealth of Nations' was given to the world, the foundation of the science of Political Economy was laid. But although Adam Smith's work shed a new light among mankind, much was left to be done by those who might follow in his track. Like all other discoverers, like Bacon, Locke, and Newton, he did not attain perfection, but he pointed out the road. Adam Smith has the merit of having been the first to show, that every man is the best guardian of his own interest, and that, in the pursuit of wealth, the public interest and that of every individual are the same; that security to property is the only protection required at the hands of the legislator; and that any attempt on his part to prescribe the channels in which labour and capital shall flow, or any precautions to prevent a man from ruining himself, cannot be otherwise than injurious. His work, however, is not without defects. In the first place, it is greatly deficient in method and arrangement. The reader is sometimes led from a most instructive investigation of general principles into a discussion of minute and uninteresting details, quite unworthy of admission into such a work. The opinions, too, are often crude, and hastily adopted; and the reasonings sometimes exhibit a degree of looseness which, although not at all surprising considering the period at which he lived, was hardly to be expected from so profound a writer. His work, accordingly, has afforded many a handle to those who, either from interest or from indolence, are watchful to seize every plausible opportunity of impugning the fundamental principles of the science."

After a residence of nearly two years in London, whither he had gone soon after the publication of the 'Inquiry,' he returned to Scotland, on his appointment as one of the commissioners of excise. He was now, in addition to a pension of £300 a year which the duke of Buccleugh had settled upon him, in receipt of a handsome income, which enabled him to pass the remainder of his life in a learned ease, amid the best society of the Scottish metropolis. He died in 1790.

Dr Adam Smith was unquestionably one of the master-spirits of his age. His 'Inquiry' is classed by Sir James Mackintosh, with Locke's 'Essay on the Human Understanding,' the treatise of Grotius on the 'Law of War and Peace,' and Montesquieu's 'Spirit of Laws,' as "the

works which have most directly influenced the general opinions of Europe during the two last centuries." His 'Theory of Moral Sentiments' has been eulogised in the following eloquent terms by Dr Thomas Brown, in his 'Lectures on the Philosophy of the Human Mind': "Profound in thought, it exhibits, even when it is most profound, an example of the graces with which a sage imagination knows how to adorn the simple and majestic form of science, that is severe and cold, only to those who are themselves cold and severe, as in those very graces it exhibits, in like manner, an example of the reciprocal embellishment which imagination receives from the sober dignity of truth. In its minor details and illustrations, indeed, it may be considered as presenting a model of philosophic beauty, of which all must acknowledge the power, who are not disqualified by their very nature for the admiration and enjoyment of intellectual excellence; so dull of understanding as to shrink with a painful consciousness of incapacity at the very appearance of refined analysis, or so dull and cold of heart, as to feel no charm in the delightful varieties of an eloquence that, in the illustration and embellishment of the noblest truths, seems itself to live and harmonise with those noble sentiments which it adorns. It is chiefly in its minor analyses, however, that I conceive the excellence of this admirable work to consist. Its leading doctrine I am far from admitting. Indeed it seems to me as manifestly false, as the greater number of its secondary and minute delineations appear to me faithful, to the fine lights, and faint and flying shades, of that moral nature which they represent. According to Dr Smith, we do not immediately approve of certain actions, or disapprove of certain other actions, when we have become acquainted with the intention of the agent, and the consequences, beneficial or injurious, of what he has done. All these we might know thoroughly, without a feeling of the slightest approbation or disapprobation. It is necessary, before any moral sentiment arise, that the mind should go through another process, that by which we seem for the time to enter into the feelings of the agent, and of those to whom his action has relation in its consequences, or intended consequences, beneficial or injurious. If, by a process of this kind, on considering all the circumstances in which the agent was placed, we feel a complete sympathy with the passions or calmer emotions that actuated him, and with the gratitude of him who was the object of the action, we approve of the action itself as right, and feel the merit of the agent; our sense of the propriety of the action depending on our sympathy with the agent, our sense of the merit of the agent on our sympathy with the object of the action. If our sympathies be of an opposite kind, we disapprove of the action itself as improper, that is to say, unsuitable to the circumstances, and ascribe not merit but demerit to the agent. In sympathizing with the gratitude of others, we should have regarded the agent as worthy of reward; in sympathizing with the resentment of others, we regard him as worthy of punishment. Such is the supposed process in estimating the actions of others. When we regard our own conduct we in some measure reverse this process; or rather, by a process still more refined, we imagine others sympathizing with us, and sympathize with their sympathy. We consider how our conduct would appear to an impartial spectator. We approve of it, if it be that of which we feel that he would approve; we disapprove of it

if it be that which we feel by the experience of our own former emotions, when we have ourselves, in similar circumstances, estimated the actions of others, would excite his disapprobation. We are able to form a judgment as to our own conduct, therefore, because we have previously judged of the moral conduct of others, that is to say, have previously sympathized with the feelings of others; and but for the presence, or supposed presence, of some impartial spectator, as a mirror to represent to us ourselves, we should as little have known the beauty or deformity of our own moral character, as we should have known the beauty or ugliness of our external features without some mirror to reflect them to our eye."

The philosopher who has furnished us with so clear an exposition of Dr Smith's theory of morals, has, at the same time, supplied us with a most satisfactory and luminous refutation of the theory in his 80th lecture, to which we can only refer the reader. The essential error of the sympathetic theory, he justly remarks, is "the assumption, in every case, of those very moral feelings which are supposed to flow from sympathy,—the assumption of them as necessarily existing before that very sympathy in which they are said to originate."

A volume of posthumous essays was published by Dr Smith's literary executors in 1795. It contains an exquisite fragment of the history of Ancient Astronomy. Had the author lived to complete this piece, it would have probably been accounted the most finished production of his pen.

John Berkenhout.

BORN A. D. 1730.—DIED A. D. 1791.

THIS extensive miscellaneous writer was of Dutch family, but was born near Leeds, in the year 1730, and received the early part of his education in that town. His father designed him for the mercantile profession, and with this view sent him, at an early age, to Germany, in order to acquire a thorough knowledge of the principal language of modern commerce. Having visited Berlin in company with some English noblemen, he fell in with a near relation of his father's in the person of the Baron Bielfeldt, at whose instigation he accepted a commission in a Prussian regiment of foot. In 1756, on the breaking out of the war between England and France, he entered into the English service. On the conclusion of peace in 1760 he betook himself to the study of medicine at Edinburgh, and in 1765 graduated at Leyden. On returning to England, he settled at Isleworth in Middlesex, where he remained till his death in 1791.

His first publication was a useful little Botanical manual, entitled, 'Clavis Anglica Linguæ Botanicae,' published at London, in 1764. His next was a Pharmacopœia, which went through several editions in his lifetime. In 1769–71 he published 'Outlines of the Natural History of Great Britain and Ireland,' in three volumes. In 1777 appeared the first volume of a projected 'Biographical History of British Literature' from his pen; but the work appears to have been dropped after the publication of one volume. In 1778 he accompanied the commissioners appointed to treat with America. The mission was not allowed to

proceed further than New York ; but Berkenhout made his way to Philadelphia alone, where he remained for some time, until becoming suspected of being in correspondence with Lord North, he was thrown into prison. He appears, however, to have sustained only a short confinement ; and on his return to Britain he obtained a pension for his political services. In 1780 he published a small essay, entitled ' *Lucubrations on Ways and Means.*' Some of his propositions, on the head of taxation, were adopted by the minister, and his successor, Pitt. In 1788 appeared his ' *First Lines of the Theory and Practice of Philosophical Chemistry.*' The last production of his prolific pen, was ' *Letters on Education,*' addressed to his son at Cambridge, in two vols. 12mo. 1790. Berkenhout was a clever well-informed man, of indefatigable industry, and who had the knack of communicating information in an easy and popular style ; he was a useful, but by no means an original writer.

Major Houghton.

BORN A. D. 1740.—DIED CIR. A. D. 1791.

THIS enterprising traveller, who was one of the first to offer himself to the African association as an explorer of the unknown regions of the Niger, was an Irishman by birth. In 1779 he appears to have acted as fort-major at Goree, under General Rooke. In this situation he acquired some knowledge of the languages and manners of different African tribes ; and his general qualifications for the enterprise now projected being such as to satisfy his employers, he sailed from England on the 16th of October, 1790. Having arrived at the mouth of the Gambia river, he proceeded to Medina, the capital of the state of Woolli. His despatches from this place to his employers were lost at sea ; but it appears from private letters which reached this country that he was well-received at Medina, and very sanguine as to the ultimate success of his enterprise. A series of misfortunes, however, soon overclouded his prospects : " A fire, the progress of which was accelerated by the bamboo roofs of the buildings, consumed with such rapidity the house in which he lived, and with it the greatest part of Medina, that several of the articles of merchandise, to which he trusted for the expenses of his journey, were destroyed ; and, to add to his affliction, his faithless interpreter, who had made an ineffectual attempt on his goods, disappeared with his horse and three of his asses ; a trade gun, which he had purchased on the river, soon afterwards burst in his hands, and wounded him in the face and arms ; and though the hospitable kindness of the people of the neighbouring town in Barraconda was anxiously exerted for his relief, yet the loss of his goods, and the consequent diminution of his travelling fund, were evils which no kindness could remove."

On the 8th of May, 1791, Houghton left Medina and proceeded, through the territories of the king of Bondou, towards Bambouk. At the latter city he was kindly received by the sovereign of the Bambouk country, who presented him with a purse of gold on his starting for Timbuctoo. His last despatches to the association bore date the 24th of July, 1791 ; Dr Laidley indeed received a note from him, dated the

1st of September, in which he announced himself as being in good health, and pursuing his way to Timbuctoo; but no further intelligence was ever received from him. It appears that he perished while endeavouring to penetrate into the Ludamar territory. He had engaged with some Moorish traders at Jarra to accompany them to Tisheet; but was treacherously plundered and deserted by them on the road. He made his way back to Jarra, and died there.

Francis Grose.

BORN A. D. 1731.—DIED A. D. 1791.

THIS eminent antiquary was the son of a jeweller at Richmond. He early manifested a taste for the study of heraldry and antiquarian pursuits, and his father, taking advantage of his predilection, obtained for him a place in the herald's office, which he held till the year 1763. His father left him a comfortable independence; but falling into habits of dissipation, he soon squandered away his property, and was forced to rouse his naturally inert disposition into something like activity, in order to obtain for himself a decent maintenance. He had received a good classical and general education, and to this he united a fine taste, and considerable skill in drawing. Encouraged by his friends, he now undertook his 'Views of Antiquities in England and Wales,' which he first began to publish in numbers in 1773. He completed this work in three years; it took well, and afforded him at once profit and reputation. Encouraged by its success, he added two more volumes to the original work; and, in 1790, published a series of views of ancient remains in Scotland, which was also favourably received. It was his intention to illustrate the antiquities of Ireland in the same manner; but he was suddenly carried off by apoplexy, soon after his arrival in Dublin on his intended tour through that country.

The works of this antiquarian have been long favourites with the public, and still maintain a good price at sales. The prints are neatly and accurately executed; and the letter-press descriptions are clear, concise, and often amusing, though they can bear no comparison with our more recent contributions to topographical lore. Grose's literary history, says a friend, "respectable as it is, was exceeded by his good humour, conviviality, and friendship. Living much abroad, and in the best company at home, he had the easiest habits of adapting himself to all tempers; and, being a man of general knowledge, perpetually drew out some conversation that was either useful to himself or agreeable to the party." Grose, to a stranger, says Noble, might have been supposed not a surname, but one selected as significant of his figure, which was more of the form of Sancho Panza than Falstaff, but he partook of the properties of both; he was as low, squat, and rotund as the former, and not less a sloven,—he equalled him too in his love of sleep, and nearly so in his proverbs; in his wit he was a Falstaff,—he was the butt for other men to shoot at, but the shaft always rebounded with double force.

The following is a list of his works: 1st, 'The Antiquities of England and Wales,' 8 vols. 4to and 8vo.—2d, 'The Antiquities of Scotland,'

2 vols. 4to. and 8vo.—3d, 'The Antiquities of Ireland,' 2 vols. 4to. and 8vo. This was a posthumous work, and edited by Mr Ledwich.—4th, 'A Treatise on Ancient Armour and Weapons,' 1785, 4to.—5th, 'A Classical Dictionary of the Vulgar Tongue,' 1785, 8vo.—6th, 'Military Antiquities; being a History of the English army, from the Conquest to the Present time,' 1786-8, 2 vols. 4to.—7th, 'The History of Dover Castle,' 1786, 4to.—8th, 'A Provincial Glossary, with a Collection of Local Proverbs,' 1788, 8vo.—9th, 'Rules for drawing Caricatures,' 1788, 8vo.—10th, 'Supplement to the Treatise on Ancient Armour,' 1789, 4to.—11th, 'A Guide to Health, Beauty, Honour, and Riches; being a collection of humorous advertisements pointing out the means to obtain these blessings,' 8vo.—12th, 'The Olio; a Collection of Essays,' 1793, 8vo.

Thomas Blacklock.

BORN A. D. 1721.—DIED A. D. 1791.

THOMAS BLACKLOCK was born, of English parents, at Annan in Scotland. He lost his sight by small-pox when six months old; but his parents contrived to communicate the elements of knowledge to him. They read the more popular English authors to him; and his memory being tenacious, he soon acquired familiar acquaintance with the works of Spenser, Milton, Prior, Pope, and Addison. His predilection for poetry manifested itself at the early age of twelve; there is a copy of verses which he wrote at this tender age given in his works. His talents, and the peculiarity of his situation as one who had never known the blessing of sight,—or at least could have received very few ideas through that sense,—attracted the attention of a physician, who invited him to Edinburgh, and sent him to the university, where he acquired a respectable knowledge of Greek and Latin, and obtained the acquaintance of David Hume, who interested himself warmly on his behalf, and, among other services, promoted the publication of an edition of his juvenile poems. Mr Spence, professor of poetry at Oxford, also introduced him to the English public in a very friendly notice prefixed to the quarto edition of his poems.

In 1759 he received license as a preacher of the gospel in connection with the church of Scotland. His occupation and habits at this period of his life are thus related by an intimate friend: "His manner of life was so uniform that the history of it during one day, or one week, is the history of it during the seven years that our personal intercourse lasted. Reading, music, walking; conversing and disputing on various topics in theology, ethics, &c. employed almost every hour of our time. It was pleasant to hear him engaged in a dispute, for no man could keep his temper better than he always did on such occasions. I have known him frequently very warmly engaged for hours together, but never could observe one angry word to fall from him: whatever his antagonist might say, *he* always kept his temper. He was, however, extremely sensible to what he thought ill usage; and equally so whether it regarded himself or his friends; but his resentment was always confined to a few satirical verses, which were generally burnt soon after."

"I have frequently admired," the same friend adds, "with what readiness and rapidity he could sometimes make verses. I have known him dictate from thirty to forty verses—and by no means bad ones—as fast as I could write them; but the moment he was at a loss for a verse, or a rhyme, to his liking, he stopt altogether, and could very seldom be induced to finish what he had begun with so much ardour." Mr Spence corroborates this account, and says that all those who ever acted as his amanuenses agree in ascribing to him great rapidity and ardour of composition. "He never could dictate till he stood up; and, as his blindness made walking about without assistance inconvenient or dangerous to him, he fell insensibly into a vibratory sort of motion of his body, which increased as he warmed with his subject and was pleased with the conceptions of his mind."

In 1762 he married a most respectable lady, whose tender assiduities and intelligent conversation formed the great solace of his future life. About the same time he was advanced minister of the town and parish of Kirkcudbright, on a presentation from the crown; but the parishioners objected to the appointment, and after a painful contest he resigned the presentation and accepted of a small annuity in its stead. With this slender provision he returned to Edinburgh, where he supported himself by receiving a few boarders and pupils into his house.

In 1767 he received the diploma of D.D. from Aberdeen,—a courtesy for which he was indebted probably to his friend and correspondent Dr Beattie, who entertained a high respect for his talents, and consulted him on several of his publications. Dr Blacklock died in 1791.

Besides his poems, Dr Blacklock was the author of the following works: 'An Essay towards Universal Etymology,' 8vo. 1756; 'Paraclesis, or Consolations deduced from Natural and Revealed Religion,' 1767; 'Two Discourses on the Spirit and Evidences of Christianity,' from the French of Armand, 1768; 'A Satirical Panegyric on Great Britain;' 'The Graham,' an heroic ballad, in four cantos; 'Remarks on the Nature and Extent of Liberty,' &c.; and an article on the education of the Blind, in the *Encyclopædia Britannica*. The last was written in 1783, at which time he was afflicted with occasional deafness, as well as blindness,—an event that greatly distressed him, as he was passionately fond of music, and generally carried in his pocket a small flageolet on which he was in the habit of frequently playing a few favourite tunes. Mackenzie, author of 'The Man of Feeling,' who published an edition of Blacklock's poems, with a life, in 1793, says: "His first idea of learning to play on this instrument he used to ascribe to a circumstance, rather uncommon, but which to a mind like his, susceptible at the same time and creative, might naturally enough arise, namely, a dream, in which he thought he met with a shepherd's boy, on the side of a pastoral hill, who brought the most exquisite music from that little instrument."

The following singular anecdote is recorded of our blind poet: Having retired from table one day, much fatigued, one of his companions, alarmed at the length of his absence, went into his bed-room a few hours afterwards, and finding him as he supposed awake, prevailed upon him to return to the dining-room. When he entered the room, two of his acquaintances were engaged in singing, and he joined in the concert, modulating his voice, as usual, with taste and elegance, without

missing a note or a syllable; and, after the words of the song were ended, he continued to sing, adding an extempore verse, full of beauty, and quite in the spirit of the original. He then went to supper, and drank a glass or two of wine, but was observed to be occasionally absent and inattentive. By and by, he was heard speaking to himself, but in so slow and confused a manner as to be unintelligible. At last, being pretty forcibly roused by Mrs Blacklock, who began to be alarmed for his intellects, he awoke with a sudden start, unconscious of all that had happened, having been the whole time fast asleep. He once spoke of a sunbeam as "something pointed;" he also said, that "a brisk tune was much more like the rays of the sun than a melancholy one."

Sir Richard Arkwright.

BORN A. D. 1732.—DIED A. D. 1792.

THIS distinguished mechanic was born of humble parents at Preston in Lancashire, on the 23d of December, 1732. He was the youngest of thirteen children, and was apprenticed to a barber while yet very young. About the year 1760, he appears to have forsaken the suds and razor, and become an itinerant collector of hair for the wig-makers. It was while pursuing this avocation that his attention was first directed towards mechanics. He became acquainted with a clock-maker at Warrington, of the name of Kay, who assisted him in executing some of his mechanical projects, and probably communicated to him some general ideas respecting the mechanical powers and their different modes of application. For a time his fancy was occupied with the usual whim of embryo mechanical projectors,—the discovery of a perpetual motion; but, fortunately for his country as well as himself, his attention was soon turned towards another object.

The demand for cottons was now occasioning a much greater demand for cotton-thread than the English spinners could supply. The weavers at that period had the weft they used spun for them by the females of their family; and now "those weavers," says Mr Guest, in his 'History of the Cotton Manufacture,' "whose families could not furnish the necessary supply of weft, had their spinning done by their neighbours, and were obliged to pay more for the spinning than the price allowed by their masters; and even with this disadvantage, very few could procure weft enough to keep themselves constantly employed. It was no uncommon thing for a weaver to walk three or four miles in a morning, and call on five or six spinners, before he could collect weft to serve him for the remainder of the day; and when he wished to weave a piece in a shorter time than usual, a new ribbon, or gown, was necessary to quicken the exertions of the spinner." In this state of things James Hargraves, a Blackburn carpenter, constructed a machine which enabled a spinner to spin eight threads at once; and soon after Arkwright and his friend Kay directed their combined attention to the invention of a machine for facilitating the spinning of cotton-thread, and in a short time completed a model of the famous spinning-frame, which they at first attempted to erect in Preston, but afterwards took to Nottingham, where, with the pecuniary assistance of Messrs Need

and Strutt, stocking-weavers, they erected a spinning-mill driven by horses, and took out a patent for the machine.

“The machinery for which Arkwright took out his patents,” says the able writer of those popular volumes, ‘The Pursuit of Knowledge under Difficulties,’ “consisted of various parts, his second specification enumerating no fewer than ten different contrivances; but of these, the one that was by far of greatest importance, was a device for drawing out the cotton from a coarse to a finer and harder twisted thread, and so rendering it fit to be used for warp as well as weft. This was most ingeniously managed by the application of a principle which had not yet been introduced in any other mechanical operation. The cotton was in the first place drawn off from the skewers on which it was fixed by one pair of rollers, which were made to move at a comparatively slow rate, and which formed it into threads of a first and coarser quality; but at a little distance behind the first was placed a second pair of rollers, revolving three, four, or five times as fast, which took it up when it had passed through the others, the effect of which would be to reduce the thread to a degree of fineness so many times greater than that which it originally had. The first pair of rollers might be regarded as the feeders of the second, which could receive no more than the others sent to them; and that, again, could be no more than these others themselves took up from the skewers. As the second pair of rollers, therefore, revolved, we will say, five times for every one revolution of the first pair, or, which is the same thing, required for their consumption in a given time five times the length of thread that the first did, they could obviously only obtain so much length by drawing out the common portion of cotton into threads of five times the original fineness. Nothing could be more beautiful or more effective than this contrivance; which, with an additional provision for giving the proper twist to the thread, constitutes what is called the water-frame or throstle.

“Of this part of his machinery, Arkwright particularly claimed the invention as his own. He admitted, with regard to some of the other machines included in his patent, that he was rather their improver than their inventor; and the original spinning machine for coarse thread, commonly called the spinning-jenny, he frankly attributed in its first conception to a person of the name of Hargraves, who resided at Blackburn, and who, he said, having been driven out of Lancashire in consequence of his invention, had taken refuge in Nottingham; but, unable to bear up against a conspiracy formed to ruin him, had been at last obliged to relinquish the farther prosecution of his object, and died in obscurity and distress.

“There were, however, other parties as well as Arkwright in these new machines, and who would not allow that any of them were of his invention. As to the principal of them, the water-frame, they alleged that it was in reality the invention of a poor reed-maker, of the name of Highs, or Hayes, and that Arkwright had obtained the knowledge of it from his old associate Kay, who had been employed by Highs to assist him in constructing a model of it a short time before Arkwright had sought his acquaintance. Many cotton-spinners, professing to believe this to be the true state of the case, actually used Arkwright’s machinery in their factories, notwithstanding the patent by which he

had attempted to protect it; and this invasion of his monopoly was carried to such an extent, that at last he found himself obliged to bring actions against no less than nine different parties."

Arkwright was unsuccessful in the first instance in establishing his patent; but in February, 1785, he obtained a verdict in the court of Common Pleas which reinstated him in his former monopoly. This decision, however, was reviewed by a *scire-facias* in the court of King's bench. "The principal evidence," says the writer above quoted, "on which it was attempted to be shown that the water-frame was not invented by Arkwright, was that of Highs, of Kay, and of Kay's wife, the substance of which was, that the double rollers had been originally contrived by Highs in the early part of the year 1767, while he was residing in the town of Leigh; that he had employed his neighbour and acquaintance Kay to make a model of a machine for him upon that principle; and that Kay, upon meeting with Arkwright a short time after, at Warrington, had been persuaded by him to communicate to him the secret of Highs' invention, on the understanding, as it would appear, that the two should make what they could of it, and share the advantages between them. The evidence of each of the witnesses corroborated, so far as the case admitted, that of the others; Highs stated that he had been first informed of the manner in which Arkwright had got possession of his invention by Kay's wife, who, on her part, swore that she recollected her husband making models, first for Highs, and afterwards for Arkwright, although she could not speak with any distinctness to the nature of the machine; while Kay himself acknowledged the treachery of which he had been guilty, and gave a particular account of the manner in which he said that Arkwright had contrived to obtain from him the secret of Highs' invention. Highs also stated that, upon meeting with Arkwright in Manchester, some years after he had taken out his patent, he charged him with the source from which he had derived the machine; to which Arkwright said nothing at first, but afterwards remarked that, if any person, having made a discovery, declined to prosecute it, he conceived any other had a right, after a certain time, to take it up and obtain a patent for it, if he chose. This famous trial lasted from nine o'clock in the morning till half-past twelve at night, and excited the greatest interest, both among those more immediately concerned, and among the public generally. Among the witnesses examined were Mr Cumming, the well-known watchmaker, Mr Harrison, the son of the inventor of the marine chronometer, Dr Darwin, and the since celebrated James Watt. The result was a verdict again invalidating the patent; which, on a motion being made for a new trial, the court refused to disturb. Arkwright after this never took any further steps to vindicate his patent rights."

After an expenditure of above £12,000, Arkwright and his partners began to reap the fruits of their perseverance and industry. In a few years they realized immense fortunes.

"We have access to know," says a writer in the 46th volume of the Edinburgh Review, "that none of Sir Richard Arkwright's most intimate friends, and who were best acquainted with his character, ever had the slightest doubt with respect to the originality of his invention. Some of them indeed could speak to the circumstances from their own personal knowledge, and their testimony was uniform and consistent.—

Such also seems to be the opinion now generally entertained among the principal manufacturers of Manchester. In proof of this, we may again refer to Mr Kennedy's valuable paper in the 'Manchester Memoirs.' Mr K. is one of the most eminent and intelligent cotton-manufacturers in the empire; and it is of importance to remark, that, although he was resident in Manchester in 1785, when the last trial for setting aside Sir Richard's patent took place, and must, therefore, have been well-acquainted with all the circumstances connected with it, he does not insinuate the smallest doubt as to his being the real inventor of the spinning-frame, nor even so much as once alludes to Higs. On their first introduction, Sir Richard Arkwright's machines were reckoned by the lower classes as even more adverse to their interests than those of Hargraves; and reiterated attacks were made on the factories built for them. But how extraordinary soever it may appear, it was amongst the manufacturers that the greatest animosity existed against Sir Richard Arkwright; and it required all that prudence and sagacity for which he was so remarkable, to enable him to triumph over the powerful combination that was formed against him. After the Lancashire manufacturers had failed in their attempts to get his patent set aside in 1772, they unanimously refused to purchase his yarn; and when his partners, Messrs Strutt and Need, had commenced a manufacture of calicoes, the manufacturers strenuously opposed a bill to exempt calicoes from a discriminating duty of 3d. a-yard laid on them, over and above the ordinary duty of 3d., by an old act of parliament. Luckily, however, the manufacturers failed of their object; and in 1774, an act of parliament was obtained (14 Geo. III. cap. 72.) for the encouragement of the cotton manufacture, in which fabrics made of cotton are declared to have been lately introduced, and are allowed to be used as 'a lawful and laudable manufacture,' the duty of 6d. the square yard on such cottons as are printed or stained being at the same time reduced to 3d. But this disgraceful spirit of animosity, which must, had it been successful, have proved as injurious to the interests of the manufacturers as to those of Sir Richard Arkwright, did not content itself with actions in the courts of law, or a factious opposition to useful measures in parliament, but displayed itself in a still more striking and unjustifiable manner. For it is a fact, that a large factory, erected by Sir Richard Arkwright at Birkacre, near Chorley in Lancashire, was destroyed by a mob, collected from the adjacent country, in the presence of a powerful body of police and military, without any one of the civil authorities requiring them to interfere to prevent so scandalous an outrage! Fortunately, however, not for himself only, but for his country and the world, every corner of which has been benefited by his inventions, Sir Richard Arkwright triumphed over every opposition. The same ingenuity, skill, and good sense which had originally enabled him to invent his machine and get it introduced, enabled him to overcome the various combinations and difficulties with which he had subsequently to contend.

"Sir Richard Arkwright never enjoyed good health. During the whole of his splendid and ever-memorable career of invention and discovery, he was labouring under a very severe asthmatic affection. A complication of disorders at length terminated his truly useful life, in 1792, at his works, at Cromford, in the sixtieth year of his age. He was high-sheriff of Derbyshire in 1786; and having presented a con-

gratulatory address to his majesty on his escape from the attempt on his life by Margaret Nicholson, received the honour of knighthood. No man ever better deserved his good fortune, or has a stronger claim on the respect and gratitude of posterity. His inventions have opened a new and boundless field of employment; and while they have conferred infinitely more real benefit on his native country than she could have derived from the absolute dominion of Mexico and Peru, they have been universally productive of wealth and enjoyments. 'The originality and comprehensiveness of Sir Richard Arkwright's mind,' says Mr Bannatync, 'was perhaps marked by nothing more strongly than the judgment with which, although new to business, he conducted the great concerns his discovery gave rise to, and the systematic order and arrangement which he introduced into every department of his extensive works. His plans of management, which must have been entirely his own, as no establishment of a similar nature then existed, were universally adopted by others; and after long experience, they have not yet, in any material point, been altered or improved.'

Robert Adam.

BORN A. D. 1728.—DIED A. D. 1792.

THIS eminent architect was a native of Scotland. He was born at Kirkaldy in the year 1728, and received his education in Edinburgh. His father's profession was that of an architect, and the son early resolved to follow the same occupation. After studying the elements of his art in his own country, he went to Italy, where he remained several years. In 1757 he visited the remains of Dioclesian's palace at Spalatro, and executed a series of plans and drawings of these magnificent ruins, which were afterwards published in one volume, folio. On his return to Britain he was much employed, in conjunction with his brother, by the nobility and gentry throughout the kingdom, and designed many splendid mansions. In 1773, the two brothers commenced the publication of a series of their principal architectural designs. In their preface, they state, that with respect to the novelty and variety of the designs, they have not trod in the paths of others, nor derived aid from their labours. "In the works," they write, "which we have had the honour to execute, we have not only met with the approbation of our employers, but even with the imitation of other artists, to such a degree, as in some measure to have brought about, in this country, a kind of revolution in the whole system of this useful and elegant art." This is an ambitious statement, but is borne out by facts. Mr Adam, says his biographer, "introduced a total change in the architecture of his country; and his fertile genius in elegant ornament was not confined to the decoration of buildings, but has been diffused into almost every branch of architecture. His talents extended beyond the line of his own profession; he displayed, in his numerous drawings in landscape, a luxuriance of composition, and an effect of light and shadow, which have scarce ever been equalled. To the last moment of his life he displayed an increasing vigour of genius, and refinement of taste; for in the space of one year, preceding his death, he designed eight

great public works, besides twenty-five private buildings ; so various in their style, and so beautiful in their composition, that they have been allowed, by the best judges, sufficient of themselves to establish his fame unrivalled as an artist." Among the finest designs of Robert Adam, are the college and the register office in Edinburgh.

Sir Robert Strange.

BORN A. D. 1721.—DIED A. D. 1792.

THIS celebrated artist was born in Pomona, one of the Orkney islands, on the 14th of July, 1721. His family originally came from Fifeshire. He was at first destined for the profession of the law ; but becoming disgusted with the monotony and confinement of a writer's office, he relinquished the study, and entered himself on board a man-of-war, in which he made a cruise to the Mediterranean. A nautical life, he soon discovered, did not suit his genius either, and he was on the point of resuming his law studies, when accidental circumstances brought to light his taste for drawing, and introduced him to the favourable notice of a drawing-master in Edinburgh, who prevailed upon his friends to apprentice the young and promising artist to him.

The breaking out of the rebellion of 1745 for a time interrupted our artist's career ; smit with a passion for military glory, and instigated, it is said, by the hopes of winning the hand of a fair lady, a keen Jacobite, he buckled on a sword, and followed Prince Charles's fortunes, in the troop styled the Life-guards. After the defeat of the Chevalier's hopes, Strange narrowly escaped capture and execution. He lay for some months concealed in the Highlands, where he suffered the extreme of peril and destitution. At last he ventured from his place of concealment, and for a time gained a precarious support by the sale of small drawings of the rival leaders in the late campaign. The lady of his love at last rewarded his sufferings and constancy with her hand ; and in company with her he proceeded to Paris, where he studied for some time under the celebrated Le Bas, and learned from him the use of what is called the dry point, or needle.

In 1751 he settled in London, and soon established a reputation for himself, though the field was already in possession of such artists as Ryland, Bartolozzi, and Woollett. So conscious was he of his powers, and of the dignity of his art, that he dared to incur the displeasure of royalty itself, by refusing to engrave an ill-executed portrait of his majesty ; yet, in 1760, he solicited and obtained permission to engrave West's painting of the apotheosis of the king's children—the only engraving he ever executed after an English artist. In the latter year he visited the continent, and made designs from the most distinguished foreign masters. In 1787 he received the honour of knighthood. He died in 1792, regretted by all who knew him, and leaving no equal in his line of art.

He executed about fifty plates from pictures of the most celebrated foreign masters. The following is nearly a complete list of them : Charles I. ; two portraits, after Vandyke—The Children of Charles I., and Henrietta Maria, his Queen, with the Prince of Wales and Duke of York, after

the same master—St Cecilia, after Raffaele—The Virgin and Infant Christ, with Mary Magdalene, St Jerome, and two Angels, after Correggio—Venus reclining, Venus and Adonis, and Danaë, all after Titian—Mary Magdalene, penitent; The Death of Cleopatra, Fortune flying over a Globe, Venus attended by the Graces, and the Chastity of Joseph, all after Guido—The Virgin, with St Catherine and Angels, contemplating the Infant Jesus sleeping, after C. Maratti—Christ appearing to the Virgin after his Resurrection, Abraham sending away Hagar, Esther before Ahasuerus, and the Death of Dido, all after Guercino—Belisarius, after Salvator Rosa—Romulus and Remus, after Pietro da Cortona—Cæsar repudiating Pompeia, after the same—Sappho consecrating her Lyre to Apollo, after Carlo Dolce—The Martyrdom of St Agnes, after Domenichino—The Choice of Hercules, after Nicholas Poussin—and the Return from Market, after Ph. Wouvermann.

Sir Joshua Reynolds.

BORN A. D. 1723.—DIED A. D. 1792.

MR FARRINGTON, in his brief notice of the life of Sir Joshua Reynolds, describes the state of art in this country at the period when that eminent painter began his career, in the following terms: "It was the lot of Sir Joshua Reynolds to be destined to pursue the art of painting at a period when the extraordinary effort he made came with all the force and effect of novelty. He appeared at a time when the art was at its lowest ebb. What might be called an English school had never been formed. All that Englishmen had done was to copy, and endeavour to imitate, the works of eminent men, who were drawn to England from other countries by encouragement, which there was no inducement to bestow upon the inferior efforts of the natives of this island. In the reign of Queen Elizabeth, Frederigo Zuccherò, an Italian, was much employed in England, as had been Hans Holbein, a native of Basle, in a former reign. Charles I. gave great employment to Rubens and Vandyke. They were succeeded by Sir Peter Lely, a native of Soest in Westphalia; and Sir Godfrey Kneller came from Lubec to be, for a while, Lely's competitor: and after his death, he may be said to have had the whole command of the art in England. He was succeeded by Richardson, the first English painter that stood at the head of portrait-painting in this country. Richardson had merit in his profession, but not of a high order: and it was remarkable, that a man who thought so well on the subject of art, and more especially who practised so long, should not have been able to do more than is manifested in his works. He died in 1745, aged 80. Jervais, the friend of Pope, was his competitor, but very inferior to him. Sir James Thornhill, also, was contemporary with Richardson, and painted portraits; but his reputation was founded upon his historical and allegorical compositions. In St Paul's cathedral, in the hospital at Greenwich, and at Hampton Court, his principal works are to be seen. As Richardson in portraits, so Thornhill in history painting was the first native of this island, who stood pre-eminent in the line of art he pursued at the period of his

practice. He died in 1732, aged 56. Horace Walpole, in his 'Anecdotes of Painting,' observes, that 'at the accession of George I., the arts were sunk to the lowest state in Britain.' This was not strictly true. Mr Walpole, who published at a later time, should have dated the period of their utmost degradation to have been in the middle of the last century, when the names of Hudson and Hayman were predominant. It is true, Hogarth was then well-known to the public; but he was less so as a painter than an engraver, though many of his pictures representing subjects of humour and character are excellent; and Hayman, as a history painter, could not be compared with Sir James Thornhill. Thomas Hudson was a native of Devonshire. His name will be preserved from his having been the artist to whom Sir Joshua Reynolds was committed for instruction. Hudson was the scholar of Richardson, and married his daughter; and after the death of his father-in-law, succeeded to the chief employment in portrait-painting. He was in all respects much below his master in ability; but being esteemed the best artist of his time, commissions flowed in upon him; and his business, as it might truly be termed, was carried on like that of a manufactory. To his ordinary heads, draperies were added by painters who chiefly confined themselves to that line of practice. No time was lost by Hudson in the study of character, or in the search of variety in the position of his figures: a few formal attitudes served as models for all his subjects; and the display of arms and hands, being the more difficult parts, was managed with great economy, by all the contrivances of concealment. To this scene of imbecile performance, Joshua Reynolds was sent by his friends. He arrived in London on the 14th October, 1741, and on the 18th of that month he was introduced to his future preceptor. He was then aged seventeen years and three months. The terms of the agreement were, that provided Hudson approved him, he was to remain four years: but might be discharged at pleasure. He continued in this situation two years and a half, during which time he drew many heads upon paper; and in his attempts in painting, succeeded so well in a portrait of Hudson's cook, as to excite his master's jealousy. In this temper of mind, Hudson availed himself of a very trifling circumstance to dismiss him. Having one evening ordered Reynolds to take a picture to Van Haaken the drapery painter; but as the weather proved wet, he postponed carrying it till next morning. At breakfast, Hudson demanded why he did not take the picture the evening before? Reynolds replied, that 'he delayed it on account of the weather; but that the picture was delivered that morning before Van Haaken rose from bed.' Hudson then said, 'You have not obeyed my orders, and shall not stay in my house.' On this peremptory declaration, Reynolds urged that he might be allowed time to write to his father, who might otherwise think he had committed some great crime. Hudson, though reproached by his own servant for this unreasonable and violent conduct, persisted in his determination: accordingly, Reynolds went that day from Hudson's house to an uncle who resided in the Temple, and from thence wrote to his father, who, after consulting his neighbour Lord Edgecumbe, directed him to come down to Devonshire." From this statement it would appear that Reynolds was little indebted to the skill of his predecessors or instructors for his future eminence in art; and that it is

not without reason he has been styled 'the founder of the British school of painting.'

On being dismissed by the jealous old painter, he returned to his father's house, at Plympton in Devonshire, where he pursued, though in rather a desultory manner, his studies as a painter. He records of himself that he felt no little difficulty in shaking off the tame and insipid style to which his eyes had been so much habituated in Hudson's studio; but he succeeded nevertheless in drawing some fine and vigorous portraits in a style of his own, and so ably, that on seeing some of these juvenile performances at the distance of thirty years, he lamented that in so great a length of time he had made so little progress in his art.

In 1749 Reynolds visited Rome for the first time. "Here," says his biographer and pupil, Northcote, "his time was employed in such a manner as might have been expected from one of his talents and virtue. He contemplated with unwearied attention, and ardent zeal, the various beauties which marked the style of different schools and different ages. He copied and sketched in the Vatican such parts of the works of Raphael and Michael Angelo as he thought would be most conducive to his future excellence; and, by his well-directed studies, acquired that grace of thinking, to which he was principally indebted for his subsequent reputation as a portrait-painter." The following is Sir Joshua's own account of his feelings on first beholding the works of Raphael, in the Vatican: "It has frequently happened," he says, "as I was informed by the keeper of the Vatican, that many of those whom he had conducted through the various apartments of that edifice, when about to be dismissed, have asked for the works of Raphael, and would not believe that they had already passed through the rooms where they are preserved; so little impression had those performances made on them. One of the first painters now in France once told me, that this circumstance happened to himself, though he now looks upon Raphael with that veneration which he deserves from all painters and lovers of the art. I remember very well my own disappointment when I first visited the Vatican; but on confessing my feelings to a brother student, of whose ingenuousness I had a high opinion, he acknowledged that the works of Raphael had the same effect upon him, or rather, that they did not produce the effect which he expected. In justice to myself, however, I must add, that though disappointed and mortified at not finding myself enraptured with the works of this great master, I did not for a moment conceive, or suppose, that the name of Raphael, and those admirable paintings in particular, owed their reputation to the ignorance and prejudice of mankind; on the contrary, my not relishing them, as I was conscious I ought to have done, was one of the most humiliating circumstances that ever happened to me. I found myself in the midst of works, executed upon principles with which I was unacquainted: I felt my ignorance, and stood abashed."

Reynolds spent nearly three years in Italy in studying the great works of ancient and modern art at Rome, Parma, and Venice. He returned to England in the autumn of 1752, and commenced portrait-painting amidst the envy and opposition of his brother-artists in the metropolis. They freely and bitterly criticised his productions, and pronounced his style and mannerism a dangerous innovation on the es-

established rules and principles of the art. He was nothing daunted by their strictures, and in his turn criticised them with equal severity and greatly more justice. He thus describes the artists with whom he had to contend in the commencement of his career. "They have got a set of postures, which they apply to all persons indiscriminately; the consequence of which is that all their pictures look like so many sign-post paintings; and if they have a history or a family piece to paint, the first thing they do is to look over their common-place book, containing sketches which they have stolen from various pictures; then they search their prints over and pilfer one figure from one print, and another from a second; but never take the trouble of thinking for themselves." But nothing seems to have annoyed him so much as the temporary success of a German artist of the name of Liotard, whom the caprice of some wealthy and fashionable people elevated into a sudden and totally undeserved popularity about this time. Undismayed, however, by such manifestations of the low state of taste, Reynolds wrought on perseveringly, and was at last rewarded by finding the current of public admiration setting in strongly towards himself. His portraits of Admiral Keppel, and of two of the Greville family, in the characters of Cupid and Psyche, were greatly admired, and people of fashion began to crowd to his studio. "The force and felicity of his portraits," says Northcote, "not only drew around him the opulence and beauty of the nation, but happily gained him the merited honour of perpetuating the features of all the eminent and distinguished men of learning then living."

In 1755, his price was twelve guineas for a head only, and for half and whole lengths in proportion. In 1761, he removed from St Martin's lane, to Leicester square, and set up his carriage with a proportionate establishment. He was the original proposer of the Literary club. Having a decided taste for letters himself, and loving to mix conviviality with learning, he early attached himself to the society of such men as Johnson, Goldsmith, Garrick, and Burke. His income was at this time little short of £6000 per annum.

The history of the institution of the Royal academy is intimately connected with the biography of Reynolds. Mr Farrington informs us that, in 1760, "a plan was formed by the artists of the metropolis to draw the attention of their fellow-citizens to their ingenious labours; with a view both to an increase of patronage, and the cultivation of taste. Hitherto works of that kind produced in the country were seen only by a few; the people in general knew nothing of what was passing in the arts. Private collections were then inaccessible, and there were no public ones; nor any casual display of the productions of genius, except what the ordinary sales by auction occasionally offered. Nothing, therefore, could exceed the ignorance of a people who were in themselves learned, ingenious, and highly cultivated in all things, excepting the arts of design. In consequence of this privation, it was conceived that a public exhibition of the works of the most eminent artists could not fail to make a powerful impression; and if occasionally repeated, might ultimately produce the most satisfactory effects. The scheme was no sooner proposed than adopted; and being carried into immediate execution, the result exceeded the most sanguine expectations of the projectors. All ranks of people crowded to see the delight-

ful novelty ; it was the universal topic of conversation ; and a passion for the arts was excited by that first manifestation of native talent, which, cherished by the continued operation of the same cause, has ever since been increasing in strength, and extending its effects through every part of the empire. The history of our exhibitions affords itself the strongest evidence of their impressive effect upon public taste. At their commencement, though men of enlightened minds could distinguish and appreciate what was excellent, the admiration of the many was confined to subjects either gross or puerile, and commonly to the meanest efforts of intellect ; whereas, at this time, the whole train of subjects most popular in the earlier exhibitions have disappeared. The loaf and cheese, that could provoke hunger, the cat and canary-bird, and the dead mackarel on a deal-board, have long ceased to produce astonishment and delight ; while truth of imitation now finds innumerable admirers, though combined with the high qualities of beauty, grandeur, and taste. To our public exhibitions, and to arrangements that followed in consequence of their introduction, this change must be chiefly attributed. The present generation appears to be composed of a new, and at least, with respect to the arts, a superior order of beings. Generally speaking, their thoughts, their feelings, and language on these subjects differ entirely from what they were sixty years ago. No just opinions were at that time entertained on the merits of ingenious productions of this kind. The state of the public mind, incapable of discriminating excellence from inferiority, proved incontrovertibly that a right sense of art in the spectator can only be acquired by long and frequent observation ; and that, without proper opportunities to improve the mind and the eye, a nation would continue insensible of the true value of the fine arts. The first or probationary exhibition, which opened April 21st, 1760, was at a large room in the Strand, belonging to the society for the encouragement of arts, manufactures, and commerce, which had then been instituted five or six years. It is natural to conclude, that the first artist in the country was not indifferent to the success of a plan which promised to be so extensively useful. Accordingly, four of his pictures were for the first time here placed before the public, with whom, by the channel now opened, he continued in constant intercourse as long as he lived. Encouraged by the successful issue of the first experiment, the artistical body determined that it should be repeated the following year. Owing, however, to some inconveniences experienced at their former place of exhibition, and also to a desire to be perfectly independent in their proceedings, they engaged, for their next public display, a spacious room near the Spring Gardens' entrance into the Park ; at which place the second exhibition opened, May 9th, 1761. Here Reynolds sent his fine picture of Lord Ligonier on horseback, a portrait of the Rev. Laurence Sterne, and three others. The artists had now fully proved the efficacy of their plan ; and their income exceeding their expenditure, affording a reasonable hope of a permanent establishment, they thought they might solicit a royal charter of incorporation ; and having applied to his majesty for that purpose, he was pleased to accede to their request. This measure, however, which was intended to consolidate the body of artists, was of no avail : on the contrary, it was probably the cause of its dissolution ; for in less than four years a separation took place, which led to the establishment of the

Royal academy, and finally to the extinction of the incorporated society. The charter was dated January 26th, 1765; the secession took place in October, 1768; and the Royal academy was instituted December 10th in the same year." Professorships were likewise established in connexion with the academy. Dr Johnson was appointed professor of ancient literature, and Goldsmith professor of ancient history. These distinctions, however, were merely honorary; and Goldsmith somewhat whimsically observed of his: "There is no salary annexed; and I took it rather as a compliment to the institution than any benefit to myself. Honours to one in my situation are something like ruffles to a man that wants a shirt." Reynolds, who was elected president, and knighted on the occasion, received his honours with great satisfaction, and volunteered those admirable 'Discourses' on art which he afterwards gave to the world in a collected form, and which still constitute the best body of critical instruction that the artist possesses; they are, to use the words of Sir Thomas Lawrence, "golden precepts, which are now acknowledged as canons of universal taste." The delivery of these discourses was not particularly happy, considering the great taste of the speaker in other respects. His deafness prevented his being well able to modulate his voice. Northcote was of opinion that the real cause was, "that as no man ever felt a greater horror at affectation than he did, so he feared to assume the orator, lest it should have that appearance; he therefore naturally fell into the opposite extreme, as the safest retreat from what he thought the greatest evil.—It is related, that on one of the evenings when he delivered his discourse, and when the audience was, as usual, numerous, and composed principally of the learned and the great, the Earl of C., who was present, came up to him, saying, 'Sir Joshua, you read your discourse in so low a tone, that I could not distinguish one word you said.' To which the president with a smile replied, 'That was to my advantage.' Sir Joshua's exertions to raise the character of the Academy were not confined to his discourses alone; as from its first opening, until the year 1790, inclusive, it appears that he sent no less than two hundred and forty-four pictures to the various exhibitions."

In 1773 Sir Joshua visited Paris. On his return he visited Oxford, where he was received with distinction, and created a doctor of civil law at the same time with his friend Dr Beattie. The Ugolino was painted this year. Of this celebrated production of Sir Joshua's pencil, Allan Cunningham says, "The subject is contained in the Comedia of Dante, and is said by Cumberland to have been suggested to our artist by Goldsmith. The merit lies in the execution; and even this seems of a disputable excellence. The lofty and stern sufferer of Dante appears on Reynold's canvass like a famished mendicant, deficient in any commanding qualities of intellect, and regardless of his dying children who cluster around his knees. It is indeed a subject too painful to contemplate; it has a feeling too deep for art, and certainly demanded a hand conversant with severer things than the lips and necks of ladies, and the well-dressed gentlemen of England. It is said to have affected Captain Cooke's Omiah so much that he imagined it a scene of real distress, and ran to support the expiring child. The duke of Dorset paid the artist four hundred guineas, and took home the picture. His next piece, the Children in the Wood, arose from an acci-

dent. A beggar's infant, who was his model for some other picture, overpowered by continuing long in one position, fell asleep, and presented the image of one of the babes, which he immediately secured. No sooner had he done this than the child turned in its sleep, and presented the idea of the other babe, which he instantly sketched, and from them afterwards made the finished picture. Accident often supplies what study cannot find; for nature, when unrestrained, throws itself into positions of great ease and elegance." In 1775 Johnson sat to him. The portrait represents him as reading with the book raised almost close to his eye. This was very displeasing, Northcote tells us, to Johnson, who, when he saw it, reproved Sir Joshua for painting him in that manner and attitude, saying, "It is not friendly to hand down to posterity the imperfections of any man." Sir Joshua himself esteemed it as characterizing the person represented, and therefore as giving additional value to the portrait. Of this circumstance Mrs Thrale says, "I observed that he would not be known by posterity for his defects only, let Sir Joshua do his worst:" and when she adverted to his own picture painted with the ear-trumpet, and done in this year for Mr Thrale, she records Johnson to have answered, 'He may paint himself as deaf as he chooses; but I will not be blinking Sam.'

On the 12th of May 1776, says Northcote, "I took my leave of Sir Joshua Reynolds, to take my chance in the world, and we parted with great cordiality. He said I was perfectly in the right in my intentions, and that he had been fully satisfied with my conduct whilst I had been with him; also, that he had no idea I should have staid with him so long, 'but now,' added Sir Joshua, 'to succeed in the art, you are to remember that something more is to be done than that which did formerly; Kneller, Lely, and Hudson, will not do now.' I was rather surprised to hear him join the former two names with that of Hudson, who was so evidently their inferior as to be out of all comparison."

Sir Joshua now lived in dignity, and even splendour. He had raised his price to fifty guineas, and was employed to as great an extent as he chose to accept commissions. The latter part of his life was little varied. He visited Flanders, and wrote an account of his tour, chiefly professional in its information and strictures. In 1784 he succeeded Ramsay as painter to the court. In the following year he executed his picture of the Infant Hercules strangling the serpents, for the empress of Russia. His next performances of celebrity were some designs for Alderman Boydell's edition of Shakspeare, amongst which the most celebrated is the Death of Cardinal Beaufort.

In July, 1789—up to which period Sir Joshua had, with the exception of a slight paralytic stroke in 1782, enjoyed almost uninterrupted health—he felt a sudden decay of sight in his left eye. While finishing the portrait of the marchioness of Hertford, says Allan Cunningham, "he laid down the pencil, sat a little while in mute consideration, and never lifted it more." He made his appearance in the academy, for the last time, in 1790, when he took leave of the students, in an address, in which he expressed his enthusiastic admiration of Buonarotti, saying: "I should desire that the last words which I should pronounce in this Academy, and from this place, might be the name of Michael Angelo." Sir Joshua died, after a confinement of three months, on the 23d of

February, 1792. He was interred in one of the crypts of St Paul's cathedral, by the side of Sir Christopher Wren.

His affectionate pupil, Mr Northcote, has given us the following sketch of Sir Joshua's character, manners, and person:—"With respect to his character as a man, to say that Sir Joshua was without faults, would be to bestow on him that praise to which no human being can have a claim: but when we consider the conspicuous situation in which he stood, it is surprising to find that so few can be discovered in him; and certainly he possessed an equanimity of disposition very rarely to be met with in persons whose pursuit is universal reputation, and who are attended and surrounded in their perilous journey by jealous competition. 'His native humility, modesty, and candour, never forsook him, even from surprise or provocation, nor was the least degree of arrogance or assumption visible to the most scrutinizing eye in any part of his conduct.'¹ He was not annoyed by that fluctuation of idea and inconstancy of temper which prevent many, with equal desire for fame, from resolving upon any particular plan, and dispose them to change it even after they have made their election. He had none of those eccentric bursts of action,—those fiery impetuosities,—which are supposed by the vulgar to characterize genius, and which frequently are found to accompany a secondary rank of talent, but are never conjoined with the first. His incessant industry was never wearied into despondency by miscarriage, nor elated into negligence by success. All nature and all art combined to form his academy. His mind was constantly awake,—ever on the wing,—comprehensive, vigorous, discriminating, and retentive. His powers of attention were never torpid. He had a strong turn and relish for humour in all its various forms, and very quickly saw the weak sides of things. Of the numerous characters which presented themselves to him in the mixed companies in which he lived, he was a nice and sagacious observer. There was a polish even in his exterior illustrative of the gentleman and the scholar. His general manner, deportment, and behaviour, were amiable and prepossessing; his disposition was naturally courtly. He always evinced a desire to pay a due respect to persons in superior stations, and certainly contrived to move in a higher sphere of society than any other English artist had done before him. Thus he procured for professors of the arts a consequence, dignity, and reception, which they had never before possessed in this country. In conversation he preserved an equable flow of spirits, which rendered him at all times a most desirable companion,—ever ready to be amused, and to contribute to the amusement of others. He practised the minute elegancies, and, though latterly a deaf companion, was never troublesome.

"As to his person,—in his stature Sir Joshua Reynolds was rather under the middle size, of a florid complexion, roundish blunt features, and a lively aspect,—not corpulent, though somewhat inclined to it, but extremely active,—with manners uncommonly polished and agreeable. In conversation, his manner was perfectly natural, simple, and unassuming. He most heartily enjoyed his profession, in which he was both fortunate and illustrious, and I agree with Mr Malone, who says he appeared to him to be 'the happiest man he had ever known.' He

¹ Burke.

was thoroughly sensible of his rare lot in life, and truly thankful for it; his virtues were blessed with their full reward."

The following estimate of Reynolds as an artist, is from the pen of his friend Burke:—"Sir Joshua Reynolds was, on many accounts, one of the most memorable men of his time. He was the first Englishman who added the praise of the elegant arts to the other glories of his country. In taste—in grace—in facility—in happy invention—and in the richness and harmony of colouring, he was equal to the greatest masters of the renowned ages. In portrait he went beyond them; for he communicated to that description of the art, in which English artists are most engaged, a variety, a fancy, and a dignity, derived from the higher branches, which even those who professed them in a superior manner did not always preserve when they delineated individual nature. His portraits remind the spectator of the invention and the amenity of landscape. In painting portraits he appeared not to be raised upon that platform, but to descend upon it from a higher sphere." Mr Allan Cunningham's estimate of our painter's merits is more discriminating, and more correct perhaps, than that we have just quoted. "Sir Joshua's historical paintings," says Mr Cunningham, "have little of the heroic dignity which an inspired mind breathes into compositions of that class. His imagination commonly fails him, and he attempts to hide his want of wings in the unrivalled splendour of his colouring, and by the thick-strewn graces of his execution. He is often defective even where he might have been expected to show the highest excellence: his faces are formal and cold; and the picture seems made up of borrowed fragments, which he had been unable to work up into an entire and consistent whole.

"His single poetic figures are remarkable for their unaffected ease, their elegant simplicity, and the splendour of their colouring. Some scores of those happy things he dashed off in the course of his life, and though they are chiefly portraits, they have all the charm of the most successful aerial creations. The Shepherd Boy is one of his happiest. Of children he seems to have been remarkably fond; nor can one forbear imagining that he has romped or ridden with them on the parlour broom, sorrowed with them over the loss of their favourite birds, smiled with them on their being endowed with new finery, and enjoyed all the mixed surprise and triumph expressed in the face of Muscipula on catching a mouse in a trap. It is true that they are all children of condition, with their nurses wet and dry,—that their clothes are of the finest texture and the latest fashion,—and that we are conscious of looking at future lords and ladies. But nature overpowers all minor feelings, and we cannot refrain from doing involuntary homage to the genius of the painter who has gladdened us with the sight of so much innocence and beauty.

"To some of his poetic figures I cannot afford such praise, though the grace of their composition and the singular sweetness of their looks raise them far above censure. By what he considered a classical refinement upon his professional flattery of improved looks and glowing colours, he suffered some of the fairest of his sitters to be goddesses and nymphs, and painted them in character. This was the commonplace pedantry of painting; it had been the fashion for centuries. Lely and Kneller caused the giddy madams of the courts of the Stuarts to stalk

like Minervas or Junos, though they had naturally the dispositions of Venus or of Danæ; and Reynolds, who had equal loveliness and infinitely more purity to portray, indulged his beauties with the same kind of deification. In truth, it is only worthy of a smile.

“The portraits of Reynolds are equally numerous and excellent, and all who have written of their merits have swelled their eulogiums by comparing them with the simplicity of Titian, the vigour of Rembrandt, and the elegance and delicacy of Vandyke. Certainly, in character and expression, and in manly ease, he has never been surpassed. He is always equal—always natural—graceful—unaffected. His boldness of posture and his singular freedom of colouring are so supported by all the grace of art—by all the sorcery of skill—that they appear natural and noble. Over the meanest head he sheds the halo of dignity; his men are all nobleness, his women all loveliness, and his children all simplicity: yet they are all like the living originals. He had the singular art of summoning the mind into the face, and making sentiment mingle in the portrait. He could completely dismiss all his preconceived notions of academic beauty from his mind, be dead to the past and living only to the present, and enter into the character of the reigning beauty of the hour with a truth and a happiness next to magical.”

William Robertson, D. D.

BORN A. D. 1721.—DIED A. D. 1793.

THIS eminent historian was the son of a Scottish clergyman. He was born at Borthwick in Mid Lothian, in the year 1721, and received the rudiments of education at Dalkeith grammar-school. In 1733 he removed with his family to Edinburgh, on his father being appointed one of the ministers of that city. Having passed his preliminary studies at the university of Edinburgh, he entered the divinity-hall, and, in 1741, received license to preach. In 1743 he was presented to the living of Gladsmuir, in East Lothian. The emoluments of this country-charge did not exceed £100 per annum; yet he contrived not only to support himself respectably upon it, but also to afford board and education to his six sisters and a younger brother, all of whom, by the death of their parents, were thrown nearly destitute upon his hands at this juncture.

In 1751 Mr Robertson entered into the married state. He had now acquired considerable reputation as a preacher, and was considered one of the ablest speakers in the General Assembly. His defence of his friend Home, who held a parochial charge in the same county, but had incurred the censure of not a few of his brethren for having written the tragedy of Douglas, was a remarkably able and eloquent pleading. On the 1st of February, 1759, the public was surprised and delighted by the appearance of his ‘History of Scotland’ during the reigns of Queen Mary and James VI. He had not formed the plan of this work until after his settlement at Gladsmuir; but he had devoted himself to it with unremitting industry, and its success far exceeded his most sanguine expectations. Before the end of the first month, he was desired

by his publisher to prepare a second edition; and he lived to witness the fourteenth edition called for. Horace Walpole, Warburton, Hume, and almost all the leading literary characters of the day, hastened to compliment and congratulate the author. "Every ear is fatigued," said the historian of England, in a letter to Mr Robertson, "by noisy, and endless, and repeated praises of the History of Scotland." "I believe," he adds, "there is scarce another instance of a first performance being so near perfection."

Previous to the publication of the 'History of Scotland,' Mr Robertson had been presented, by the magistrates of Edinburgh, to one of the city churches: with the success of that work, preferments crowded upon him. In the same year he was appointed chaplain of Stirling castle; in 1761, he was named one of his majesty's chaplains in ordinary for Scotland; in 1762, he was chosen principal of the university of Edinburgh; and, in 1764, the office of historiographer royal for Scotland was revived in his favour, with a salary of £200 per annum attached to it. The next historical work published by Mr Robertson, was his 'History of Charles V.:' but before engaging in the preparation of this work, he is known to have seriously meditated a History of England. His friend Hume had already executed such a task in a masterly manner; but he was of opinion that the two works would not prejudice each other; that both "might maintain their own rank; have their own partizans; and possess their own merit, without hurting each other." It is known too, that government encouraged the design; but ultimately, and perhaps fortunately for the fame of the clerical historian, the projected history of England was abandoned for another, but a splendid subject, and one too in which he had no rival already in the field. 'The History of the Reign of the Emperor, Charles V.,' was first published in three volumes quarto, in 1769. His friend Hume was again the first to congratulate him on the new laurels he had acquired by this noble specimen of historical composition; he said that it nearly stood alone in its own department of literature for elegance, dignity, and philosophical acumen; and that it excelled, in a sensible degree, his former performance. Voltaire also hastened to express his unbounded admiration of the new work; and the empress of Russia sent the author a snuff-box set with brilliants, as a mark of her esteem and approbation. Mr Dugald Stewart is of opinion, that of all Dr Robertson's works, his Charles V. is "that which unites the various requisites of good writing in the greatest degree."

After an interval of eight years, Dr Robertson produced his 'History of America,' in two volumes quarto. Of this work, Mr Stewart says: "Although it contains many passages, equal, if not superior, to any thing else in his writings, the composition does not seem to me to be so uniformly polished as that of his former works; nor does it always possess, in the same degree, the recommendations of conciseness and simplicity." The greatest blot in this work, and one which unfortunately affects, in a serious degree, the historian's character itself, is the disposition which perpetually reveals itself throughout his pages, to palliate or apologise for the atrocities committed by the Spaniards in their American conquests. The Spanish court expressed their gratitude to their apologist, by causing him to be elected a member of the Royal academy of history at Madrid. It has been alleged that the kindness

of the Spanish court, in supplying him with materials for this performance, seduced him into this unworthy compromise.

Dr Robertson's historical labours closed with the publication, in 1791, of 'An Historical Disquisition concerning the Knowledge which the Ancients had of India.' He was now in his sixty-eighth year; and although this performance exhibits no marks of age and declining faculties, yet his health had now begun to give way, and he soon after retired to his country-seat in the neighbourhood of Edinburgh, where he died on the 11th of June, 1793.

"The general strain of Dr Robertson's compositions," says Mr Dugald Stewart, "is flowing, equal, and majestic; harmonious beyond that of most English writers, yet seldom deviating in quest of harmony into inversion, redundancy, or affectation." "The histories of Robertson," says another critic, "abound in the finest descriptions, the most pleasing delineations of character, the most dignified and judicious mixture of reflections; and, more especially, they are distinguished by a style of narration, at once manly, copious, and easy. But all these descriptions, delineations, reflections, and even this narrative itself, are too general for practical use and application. The politician and political economist will search those writings in vain for the accurate details of fact which they have a right to expect from one who investigates the subjects of particular men and nations. We will not, by any means, go so far as to say, with Johnson, that the substance of Robertson's works is like a guinea wrapt up in a wool pack; but we think that the mass of the historian's gold has come from a mint, where the beauty of the die is rather more attended to than the accuracy of the marks which prevent falsification, and give the coin its uses and currency. In this instance, indeed, there is no light weight; but he who possesses the powers of ornament may give base metals a similar appearance. In plain terms, Dr Robertson appears to have studied grace and dignity more than usefulness. He has chosen those features of every figure which he could best paint, rather than those which were most worthy of the pencil. His buildings are more remarkable for that symmetry and those ornaments which would please a common observer, than for the Doric strength which adapts them for lasting use; that internal arrangement which is necessary to the purposes of inhabitancy, or even that accuracy of proportion in the external parts, which is as much required by the eye of a learned architect, as chasteness of ornamental design. The charms of Robertson's style, and the full flow of his narration, which is always sufficiently minute for ordinary readers, will render his works immortal in the hands of the bulk of mankind. But the scientific reader requires something more than periods which fill his ear, and general statements which gratify by amusing: he even requires more than a general text-book,—a happy arrangement of intricate subjects, which may enable him to pursue them in their details. It is not always enough that proportions should be stated by general terms of comparison. A period may look finer for the want of figures; and common readers will certainly be satisfied with the words more and less. Those who alone, as Lord Bolingbroke says, deserve the name of historical readers, require to be told how much more and how much less. When we repair to the works of Robertson for the purpose of finding facts, we are instantly carried away by the stream of his narrative, and

forget the purpose of our errand to the fountain. As soon as we can stop ourselves, we discover that our search has been vain, and that we must apply to those sources from which he drew and culled his supplies."¹

George Colman.

BORN A. D. 1733.—DIED A. D. 1794.

GEORGE COLMAN, the Elder, was born at Florence, in the year 1733. His father was British resident at the court of the grand duke. He graduated at Oxford in 1758, and studied for the law, but afterwards forsook the dry profession of jurisprudence for literature, and especially the department of the drama. In 1760, his first dramatic piece, 'Polly Honeycomb,' was acted at Drury-lane. In the succeeding year he produced 'The Jealous Wife;' and, in 1756, in conjunction with Garrick, 'The Clandestine Marriage.' When Foote retired from the Haymarket theatre, Colman purchased his share, and for several years managed the affairs of that dramatic community with considerable success. He died in August, 1794. He was an accomplished classical scholar, and holds a respectable place among the writers of comedy.

Horace Walpole, Earl of Orford.

BORN A. D. 1718.—DIED A. D. 1797.

HORACE WALPOLE, the third son of Sir Robert Walpole, occupied from his birth a station in the eyes of the world which commanded immediate attention to every display of the faculties of his mind, and he may be said to have entered the world with that claim on its attention which less fortunate men have not acquired without delay, disappointment, and labour. He was born in the year 1718, and educated at Eton school, where he became acquainted with Gray. Both entered the university of Cambridge about the year 1734, and Walpole, who was a member of King's college, wrote on the 2d of February, 1738, the earliest of his avowed productions, verses in memory of King Henry VI, the founder of that institution,—a piece which may be ranked at the aggregate merit of university prize poems. At college he is said to have indulged in religious enthusiasm so far as to join his friend Ashton in praying with the prisoners in the castle. He soon, however, changed his opinions, and, with the natural reverse to overturned enthusiasm, did not limit himself to the scepticism which an argumentative or reflecting mind might have chosen. He is reported to have said: "Fontenelle's dialogues on the plurality of worlds, first rendered me an infidel. Christianity and a plurality of worlds are, in my opinion, irreconcilable. . . . Atheism I dislike. It is gloomy, uncomfortable; and, in my eye, unnatural and irrational. It certainly requires more credulity to believe that there is no God, than to believe that there is. This fair crea-

¹ Edinburgh Review, vol. ii. pp. 240, 241.

tion, those magnificent heavens, the fruit of matter and chance! O, impossible! I go to church sometimes in order to induce my servants to go to church. I am no hypocrite. I do not go in order to persuade them to believe what I do not believe myself. A good moral sermon may instruct and benefit them. I only set them an example of listening, not of believing."¹

In the summer of the year 1738, having arrived at majority, he was appointed inspector-general of the exports and imports, which office he afterwards exchanged for that of usher of the exchequer, a less troublesome duty, which required the appending of very few signatures excepting those required to draw the salary. His father being then at the height of power, and like a patriot resolved to throw his children on their country, was busy in procuring sinecures for his family. That portion of them which fell to the lot of Horace, consisting of five several offices, produced, according to calculations from his own admissions, £3,900, while the commissioners of inquiry reckoned them at £6,300,² and his biographers, probably with a nearer approach to truth, generally name his income as amounting to about £5,000 a-year. It is at all events known that all that was left him as a hereditary fortune by his father was £5,000, of which only £1,000 was ever paid; and that the elegant luxuries of Strawberry-hill were maintained from situations for which he has been lavish before the public in praise of the generosity and disinterestedness of his father.³ Walpole appears to have had no early desire to shine as a politician, and being called upon neither by ambition nor necessity to shape to himself a steady course through life, his pursuits were desultory, and the powers of his mind untried. He left his father during the most active period of his administration, proceeding to France in March 1739, when he was accompanied by Gray in a ramble over various parts of the continent. In May 1741, these uncongenial spirits had a dispute at Reggio, which terminated in a dissolution of their friendship,—a circumstance of which Walpole candidly accepts the blame, on the very complacent ground that he should have spared a weaker brother and allowed latitude to the peculiar temper of Gray. It is to his honour to add, that although no longer the friend, he did not condescend to become the enemy of the illustrious poet. On his return from the continent, Walpole entered the brief and unimportant theatre of his political existence, by being chosen in June, 1741, as representative of the borough of Callington in Cornwall: commencing his career in that parliament which overthrew the greatness of his father. The only active part which he undertook in the debates was a single act of filial propriety and affection,—an answer to the motion on the 23d March, 1742, for an inquiry into the conduct of Sir Robert Walpole.⁴

His subsequent political acts may here be briefly traced. If a mind so versatile and fickle can be said to have adopted any political principles, it is apparent that he was long opposed to the enemies of his father, although he finally became reconciled to and even on friendly

¹ Walpoliana, vol. i. pp. 75, 76.

² Vide a clever party-examination of the subject, Quarterly Review, vol. xix. p. 8.

³ 'Account of my conduct relative to the places I hold under Government.' Works, vol. ii. p. 364.

⁴ Vide copy of his speech in the introduction to his 'Memoirs of the last ten years of the Reign of George II.' p. 17.

terms with many of them, while he turned his chief wrath against those he looked upon as insidious friends. Among the former were Grenville and Pitt, and of the latter the two Pelhams and Lord Hardwicke: of Mr Pelham he could frequently speak with calmness, even with a tinge of praise,—but his brother the duke of Newcastle never received anything at his hands but the most loathing contempt, expressed at every suiting opportunity with Protean variety of bitterness. He used to compare the respective merits of the two brothers with those of his father and his uncle Horace, as parallel cases, drawing the degree of eminence in favour of his father. His uncle he considered as one of those who had betrayed or deserted Sir Robert; and no other reason can be assigned for his enmity to the amiable Lord Hardwicke than the intimacy between that peer and his own relative. Family pride, one of the strongest guides of his conduct, has not prevented him from characterizing his epistles and memoirs with a fund of fractious abuse of his uncle and his family. “His mind,” he says, “was a strange mixture of sense allayed by absurdity, wit by mimicry, knowledge by buffoonery, bravery by meanness, honesty by selfishness, impertinence by nothing.” On another occasion he speaks of the family as follows: “I must now notify to you the approaching espousals of the most illustrious Prince Pigwiggin (so he termed his cousin) with Lady Rachel Cavendish, third daughter of the duke of Devonshire: the victim does not dislike it! My uncle makes great settlements, and the duke is to get a peerage for Pigwiggin, upon the foot that the father cannot be spared out of the house of commons. Can you bear this old buffoon making himself of consequence, and imitating my father!”⁵ The versatility of his political feelings is shown in his alternate abuse and praise of Fox,—abuse and praise, indeed, in which he has reached the highest flight of political wavering by making them simultaneous; for while he purposely prepared a supplementary number of the ‘World,’ bestowing fulsome praise on that gentleman, his memoirs during the same period continually stamp his name with the brand of ridicule and censurè.⁶ His relative, General Conway, was the only person to whom as a friend or a political supporter he remained steadfast. He publicly defended him in ‘A Counter-address to the public on the late dismissal of a general officer,’⁷ and it has been maintained, not without justice, that the uninterrupted, and always affectionate correspondence between the cousins, from 1740 to 1784, proves that Horace Walpole was not entirely destitute of a feeling of friendship. That the sluices of his heart, however firmly they might have been shut to his rivals in literature and the arts, could be opened to a man of noble birth, his own relation, is indeed evident from several portions of this correspondence. “Nothing,” he writes his friend in 1744, “could prevent my being unhappy at the smallness of your fortune, but its throwing it into my way to offer you to share mine. As mine is so precarious by depending on so precarious a constitution, I can only offer you the immediate use of it. I do that most sincerely. My places still (though my Lord W. has cut off three hundred pounds a-year to save himself the trouble of

⁵ Letters to Sir Horace Mann, vol. ii. p. 324.

⁶ ‘A World Extraordinary,’ Works, i. p. 190. vide Memoirs.

⁷ Works, vol. ii. p. 549.

signing his name ten times for once,) bring me in near two thousand pounds a-year. I have no debts,—no connections: indeed no way to dispose of it particularly. By living with my father, I have little real use for a quarter of it. I have always flung it away all in the most idle manner. But, my dear Harry, idle as I am, and thoughtless, I have sense enough to have real pleasure in denying myself baubles, and in saving a very good income to make a man happy, for whom I have a just esteem and most sincere friendship.”⁸

In 1747 he sat as member for his hereditary borough of Castle-Rising. In January, 1751, he was so far the friend of the minister as to move the address in the house of commons.⁹ In the April following he made an application to Mr Pelham to extend the post of collectorship of the customs, which depended on the lives of his two brothers, to his own life;¹⁰ the request was refused, and the month of May found him, by the admission of his own memoirs, the opponent of the ministry. In 1753, when the education of the prince of Wales was a favourite handle to the opposition, he allows himself to have been the author of a fabricated memorial which bore to have been subscribed by several persons of high rank and influence, reprobating the dangerous method of education which was presumed to be pursued by the governors of the heir apparent.¹¹ In 1757 he made use of his influence and powers of invective in defence of the unfortunate Admiral Byng,—a measure in which it has been questioned whether he was chiefly urged by a sense of justice, or a feeling of opposition to the enemies of the admiral; and during the same year he recommended to Fox a plan for destroying the influence of the duke of Newcastle, by procuring from the king a *carte blanche* to Pitt, for the disposal of the treasury-offices and dissolving the parliament.¹² Much about the same period he accepted the Chiltern hundreds, in order to succeed his cousin, just become Lord Walpole, in the representation of Lynn Regis, “the corporation of which had such reverence for his father’s family, that they would not bear distant relations while he had sons living.”¹³ In 1767 he voluntarily closed his political career by a letter addressed to the mayor of Lynn, announcing his resignation on account of his disgust at the progress of ministerial corruption, which the son of Sir Robert Walpole fears “will end in the ruin of this constitution and country!”¹⁴

Let us now turn from his politics to his literature and the subjects in which he indulged his taste. In the earlier years of his manhood he wrote several fugitive morsels of poetry, which, though reprinted in his works, have fallen into deserved oblivion. In 1746 he wrote a ‘Scheme for taxing Message-cards and Notes,’—a joint satire on fashion and legislation, which, along with many similar attempts from his pen, fails to please from the assumed gravity having too close a resemblance to reality. In 1747 he wrote a description of the mansion-house of Houghton, under the title ‘Odes Walpolianæ;’ and in 1753 commenced a series of articles in the ‘World,’ which, though at the period of their appearance the subjects of conversation in the fashionable world, are

⁸ Works, vol. v. p. 17.

⁹ Memoirs.

¹⁰ Works, vol. ii. p. 264.

¹¹ Memoirs, vol. i. p. 262.

¹² Ibid. p. 222.

¹³ Unpublished Letter, quoted Preface to Memoirs, p. 14.

¹⁴ Walpoliana, Biographical Sketch, p. 18.

not now likely to attract much attention. But in this portion of his memoirs we must not omit an event which occupies an important feature in his life—whether as a man of literature or of taste—the construction of his celebrated mansion of Strawberry-hill. In 1747 he purchased, at Twickenham, a small cottage which had been built by Mrs Chenevix, the proprietor of a toyshop as celebrated in the fashionable world as the mansion of her noble successor afterwards became. He describes it himself “a little new farm that I have taken just out of Twickenham. The house is so small that I can send it you in a letter to look at: the prospect is as delightful as possible, commanding the river, the town, and Richmond park, and being situated on a hill, descends to the Thames through two or three little meadows, where I have some Turkish sheep and two cows, all studied in their colours for becoming the view.”¹⁵ Here he amused himself for some time in planting wood, and in planning devices in Gothic architecture which might strike the attention without the addition of the massive profusion of the original Gothic,—a task in which he succeeded to a considerable extent. The library and dining-parlour were built in 1753; the gallery, round tower, great cloister, and cabinet, in 1760 and 1761. He filled this model with antiquities and works of art, not for the purpose of acquiring fame as a patronizer of artists, but to procure the much less admired reputation of being the proprietor of their labours.

But the chief event in the history of Strawberry-hill is the establishment of a private press, from which some of the odes of Gray, and almost all of Walpole's own works first issued. Here, in 1768, he printed and distributed among his chosen friends fifty copies of ‘The Mysterious Mother;’ the solitary work in which he has shown the presence of a great intellect. That a person possessed of the taste, discernment, and desire of fame, which so amply characterized Horace Walpole, should have chosen a plot so laboriously redolent in all that is disgusting and revolting, is a problem not to be easily solved. The example of Ford, who deprived the world of his noblest effort by a crime against taste not so complicated, might have taught him to beware of an attempt which has effectually sealed up the better part of his fame: for few who know Horace Walpole, know him as the author of the noblest tragedy of the age. In almost every other portion of his writings he has struck the human passions, even the most absorbing of them, with a light though sometimes venomous weapon; but here he has called them up in all their terrors, and chosen their methods of operation with the energy and applicability of one who had made them the subject of his serious meditations; nor is he wanting in those nervous outpourings of the mind which seemed to have departed from English poetry since the days of the early dramatists. That a work so powerful and full of mind should have been the mere effect of imitation—as some who have compared it with the other works of the author have presumed—is a theory not easily to be believed. The limited number of copies of the ‘Mysterious Mother’ excited considerable curiosity and anxiety to be acquainted with its contents. In 1783 some one possessed of a copy commenced a series of extracts from it in Woodfall's Public Advertiser. Walpole sent a letter to the publisher, ear-

¹⁵ Letters to Sir Horace Mann, vol. ii. p. 293.

nestly requesting that the extracts might be discontinued, offering to remunerate the publisher for the supposed loss which might so be caused, and making his usual statement of carelessness of literary fame, and a wish that such a work might not be published to the world and known as his: he was at the very same period printing the 'Mysterious Mother' for an edition of his works, which his death prevented him from completing. His avowed contempt of literary fame was one of the most curious parts of his very artificial character: he was everlastingly avowing it, and accompanying his avowals with new works.

His 'Historic Doubts on the Life and Reign of King Richard the III.' is a work of some research, which has been the means of demolishing a few prejudices; but the references are in some cases erroneous, and he has endeavoured to show his contempt of the prejudices of others, by displaying counter-prejudices of his own. He gave this production to the world with an easy carelessness as to its reception; but he visited Hume with acrimony for having answered some portions, and was more unreasonably censorious on poor Guthrie, who had been so unfortunate as to anticipate the better parts of his argument. The Rev. Mr Masters wrote some 'Remarks' on this work, which were admitted into the transactions of the Antiquarian society. Walpole wrote 'Observations' on these remarks, and ceased to have any connection with the society, of which he had been previously a zealous member.¹⁶ His many attempts to disclaim literary ambition have only served satisfactorily to prove that he was inordinately possessed of it; but his pride would not allow him to drudge for fame,—it was the ambition that Horace Walpole should be so great in all things that he could stoop to touch what others aspired to embrace. The catalogue of royal and noble authors stands as a species of apology for the son of a great prime minister defiling his hands with author's ink; and in the extreme barrenness of the field he has at least produced rational precedents for whatever is vapid, idle, and uninvestigated in his own productions. The 'Anecdotes of Painters and of Engravers' present us with a richer field, both as to the method and the matter; but here he was preceded by a careful working literary man, and the finished touches of critical elegance, with a light sprinkling of acidity, were perhaps all he added to the investigations of Vertue. In a literary life of Walpole it is necessary to notice the 'Castle of Otranto,' more on account of the popularity it achieved than the critical praise it deserves. This production he ushered into the world as a translation of an Italian romance. The imposture, we believe, was not detected; for, in presenting a plain and unexplained story of superstition, with no illustration of a moral truth, and no interesting picture of the human intellect working under the effects of some known national superstition, he did not exceed in literary merit the works of the middle ages. When preserving the mystery of its authorship he very aptly said of it himself, "It was fit for nothing but the age in which it was written."¹⁷ In a letter to his friend Cole he describes a dream on which he founded the general outline of the romance. He mentions that he finished it in less than two months. He is elsewhere made to say: "I wrote the 'Castle of Otranto' in eight

¹⁶ Nichol's Literary Anecdotes, vol. i. p. 690.

¹⁷ Letter to Hannah More: Works, vol. v. p. 580.

days, or rather eight nights; for my general hours of composition are from ten o'clock at night till two in the morning, when I am sure not to be disturbed by visitants.¹⁸

It remains for us now to notice two similar branches of his writings, which will be attached to his name as long as it exists—his Letters and his Memoirs. The former covering a considerable period, and addressed to numerous individuals, form a vast mass of literary matter. They are the pure emanations of his varying thoughts, and full of life. But these effervescences of his thoughts contain little feeling; all the passing events of the time hurry past each other without distinguishing marks—the death of his great father and of his dog Patapan are mentioned in the same letter in terms pretty similar. Had Chatterton seen the heartlessness of these productions, he would not have fallen into the mistake of applying to Walpole as the patron of genius. There is one point, however, in which the writer does enter with heart, both in the Memoirs and the Letters—the low scandal of the court; in this he indulges with indiscriminate luxuriance. Yet he could abstractly express very noble sentiments. Take the following specimen, where, speaking of the prospect of a war with France in 1744, he says: “As a man I feel my humanity more touched than my spirit. I feel myself more an universal man than an Englishman! We have already lost seven millions of money and thirty thousand men in the Spanish war; and all the fruit of all this blood and treasure is the glory of having Admiral Vernon’s head on alehouse signs! For my part, I would not purchase another duke of Marlborough at the expense of one life. How I should be shocked, were I a hero, when I looked on my own laurelled head on a medal, the reverse of which would be widows and orphans! How many such will our patriots have made!”¹⁹ The ‘Memoirs of the last ten years of the Reign of George II.’ were carefully concealed from those who might have detected and resented the falsehoods of the author, and thrown unchallenged on a later age. The memorandum, bearing date 19th August, 1790, forbidding them to be looked at until the son of Lady Waldegrave, who should be earl of Waldegrave, reached the age of 25 years, was duly attended to, and this receptacle of foul thoughts was not exposed to the light until 1822.²⁰ The general character of this work much resembles that of his letters.

Towards the latter end of his days, Horace Walpole was afflicted with fits of an hereditary gout which a rigid temperance failed to remove. In 1791, by the death of his nephew, he succeeded to the title of Orford, at a period of his life when the pride of title, and the influence of increased fortune, had no charms for him, and the toils of additional greatness overbalanced the pleasures. He died at Berkeley square, on the 2d of March, 1797, in the eightieth year of his age, leaving his printed works and manuscripts to his friend Mr Berry and his two daughters, and the tenancy of his mansion of Strawberry-hill to Mrs Damer.

¹⁸ Walpoliana, vol. i. p. 22.

¹⁹ Letters to Sir Horace Mann, vol. ii. p. 9.

²⁰ Introduction to the Memoirs.

Thomas Linley.

BORN A. D. 1735.—DIED A. D. 1795.

THIS very eminent musician and composer was originally a carpenter. His musical talents accidentally attracted the notice of Mr Chilcot, organist at Bath, who procured for him instructions in the theory and practice of music, and had the gratification of seeing his pupil take a high rank amongst British musicians. His principal compositions are 'Zelima and Azore,' 'The Camp,' 'The Spanish Rivals,' and 'The Strangers at Home.' He also wrote several glees and canzonets, and accompaniments to the original airs in 'The Beggar's Opera.' His compositions are distinguished for delicacy, simplicity, and tenderness.

His son Thomas Linley, the younger, born at Bath in 1756, was likewise distinguished for his musical talents, and in the opinion of no less an authority than Mozart, would, had he lived a few years longer, have risen to great eminence in the musical world. At seventeen he composed an anthem in full score, which was sung in Worcester cathedral, at the meeting of the three choirs, on the 8th of September, 1773. After having completed his musical studies at Florence he returned to England, and became the leader of his father's concerts and oratorios at Bath. As a theatrical composer, he obtained great applause by the share he had with his father in the opera of 'The Duenna,' and the music which he wrote for 'The Tempest,' on its revival at Drury Lane theatre; where he led the band, when his father and Sheridan (his brother-in-law) were proprietors. But his most delightful production was the music to Dr Lawrence's Ode on the Witches and Fairies of Shakspeare; which was performed at Drury Lane the first year of his appearance in that orchestra. "The rich variety of the contrast in the witch and fairy music," says the author of the 'Dictionary of Musicians,' "the wild solemnity of the one, and the sportive exuberance of the other, keep the attention alive from the first bar of the overture, to the close of the ode." This promising young man was drowned on the 7th of August, 1778, by the upsetting of a boat on a piece of water at Grimsthorpe, the seat of the duke of Ancaster.

Josiah Wedgewood.

BORN A. D. 1730.—DIED A. D. 1795.

THE father of this ingenious person was a Staffordshire potter. He possessed a small entailed estate, but Josiah being a younger son, was left to push his way in the world for himself. This he did most profitably for his country as well as himself, by directing his exclusive attention to his father's business, and the improvement of the art. It was about the year 1760 that he began to carry into operation the results of his discoveries and researches in what might be designated the chemistry of pottery; and in 1763 he obtained his first patent for a superior kind of ware which received the name of Queen's ware.

Hitherto the Staffordshire potteries had produced no article at all approaching in fineness of texture, durability, and elegance of appearance to this new ware; the tables of our gentry were chiefly indebted to French skill for their services of china and earthen-ware. Mr Edgewood's invention, however, was speedily patronised by the queen and the nobility, and soon drove the foreign ware out of the English market. Its materials consisted of the finest white clays of Devon and Dorsetshire, mixed with ground flint, and coated with a vitreous glazing. Continuing his experimental researches, with the able assistance of his partner Mr Bentley, he afterwards introduced several other beautiful manufactures into the trade. Among these were: 1st, Terra cotta, resembling porphyry, granite, and other siliceous stones; 2d, Basaltes, a black porcelain, capable of resisting the action of acids and fire, and receiving a fine polish; 3d, A white porcelain of the same properties as the preceding; 4th, Jasper, a white porcelain of exquisite beauty, and capable of receiving through its whole substance, from the mixture of metallic calces, the same colour which these calces give to glass or enamel in a state of fusion; 5th, Bamboo, or cane-coloured biscuit porcelain; and 6th, A porcelain biscuit of excessive hardness, approaching to that of agate, and well-adapted for the formation of mortars and other vessels exposed to great pressure. Not contented with the discovery of new materials for his art, Mr Wedgwood directed much of his attention to the improvement of the forms and embellishments of his ware: and his fine taste enabled him, in this respect also, to communicate a great impulse to the manufacture. Indeed, the beautiful and classical forms which were for the first time introduced into our English potteries under his auspices, may be considered as having exerted no small influence over the entire national taste, vitiated as it had been by the contemplation of the monstrous Chinese outlines, and tasteless and unsymmetrical forms from the Dutch and French potteries.

Mr Wedgwood had originally received a very limited education; but the habits of his mind were vigorous, and he ultimately acquired an eminent degree of scientific as well as practical knowledge. His communications to the Royal society were highly esteemed; and his invention of the pyrometer, or instrument for measuring high degrees of heat, was a valuable boon conferred on chemistry. To his energy and enterprise his native county is greatly indebted for the improvement of its facilities of trade and communication. He was the original projector of the Grand Trunk canal, uniting the rivers Trent and Mersey, and enabling the potters of Staffordshire to obtain their materials from Devonshire, Dorset, and Kent, at a low charge of transit. The scheme of this canal was opposed by a very strong party both in and out of parliament; but the indefatigable perseverance of its projectors triumphed over all obstacles. He was also the founder of 'The General Chamber of the Manufacturers of Great Britain.'

He died in 1795 in possession of an immense fortune, the produce of his own industry and enterprise, an extensive scientific reputation, and an unblemished character.

John Sibthorp.

BORN A. D. 1758.—DIED A. D. 1796.

THIS eminent botanist was the youngest son of Dr Humphrey Sibthorp, Oxford professor of botany. He was educated at Oxford, and obtained a Radcliffe travelling fellowship. He then went to Edinburgh, where he studied medicine, and afterwards visited France and Switzerland. In 1783 he succeeded his father as professor of botany at Oxford. In 1784 he visited Germany, whence he set out, by way of Italy, for Greece. His object in all these journeys was the extension of that science to whose cultivation he had devoted his life; and especially, in so far as Greece was concerned, the illustration of the writings of the ancient botanist, Dioscorides.

The first sketch of his 'Flora Græca,' which comprises about eight hundred and fifty plants, "may be considered," says the author, "as containing only the plants observed by me, in the environs of Athens, on the snowy heights of the Grecian Alp Parnassus, on the steep precipices of Delphis, the empurpled mountains of Hymettus, the Pentele, the lower hills about the Piræus, the olive grounds about Athens, and the fertile plains of Bœotia. The future botanist, who shall examine this country with more leisure, and at a more favourable season of the year, before the summer sun has scorched up the spring plants, may make a considerable addition to this list. My intention was to have travelled by land through Greece; but the disturbed state of this country, the eve of a Russian war, the rebellion of its bashaws, and the plague at Larissa, rendered my project impracticable." Dr Sibthorp, subsequently, made numerous additions to the above catalogue, so that the number of species collected, from an investigation of all his manuscripts and specimens for the materials of his 'Prodromus Floræ Græcæ,' amounts to about three thousand.

In 1789 he was elected a member of the Royal society. In 1794 he set out on a second tour to Greece, his object still being the extension of his favourite science. In this excursion he made the complete circuit of the Morea, and greatly enriched his Greek Flora. Unfortunately, he caught a severe cold during his travels, from the effects of which he never recovered. He returned to England in the autumn of 1795, and died at Bath in the month of February, 1796. He left, by his will, a freehold estate to the university of Oxford, for the purpose of first publishing his 'Flora Græca,' in ten folio volumes, with one hundred coloured plates in each, and a Prodromus of the same work, in octavo, without plates. When these were published, the annual sum of £200 was to be paid to a professor of rural economy, and the remainder of the rents of the estate applied to the purchase of books for the professor. He also left to the university the whole of his collections, drawings, and books of natural history, botany, and agriculture.

Edward Gibbon.

BORN A. D. 1737.—DIED A. D. 1794.

THE celebrated historian of the 'Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire' was born at Putney, on the 27th of April, 1737. His father was a private gentleman of fortune. In his ninth year he was sent to a private academy, and, in his eleventh, was placed at Westminster school. His health proving delicate he was removed from the latter seminary, and placed under the private tuition of Mr Francis, the well-known translator of Horace. In April, 1752, he was matriculated of Magdalen college, Oxford, where he spent fourteen months in a very profitless manner: not that he was devoid of capacity or application, but, according to his own account, for want of proper tutorage, and skilful and vigilant professors.

While at Oxford he fancied himself made a convert to the Roman Catholic faith by the perusal of Bossuet's 'Exposition of the Catholic Doctrine,' and the works of Parsons the Jesuit. In the sketch he has left us of himself he says: "To my present feelings, it seems incredible that I should ever believe that I believed in transubstantiation. But my conqueror oppressed me with the sacramental words, 'This is my body;' and dashed against each other the figurative half-meanings of the protestant sects. Every objection was resolved into omnipotence; and, after repeating, at St Mary's, the Athanasian creed, I humbly acquiesced in the mystery of the real presence." On his arrival in London, he was admitted a member of the Romish church, in June, 1753. His father was highly indignant at his religious conversion, and sent him, in consequence, to Lausanne, in Switzerland, where he resided in the house of Mr Pavillard, and "spent nearly five years with pleasure and profit." His tutor, who was a Calvinistic minister, spared no effort to recover him from his Papistical errors; and his exertions, aided by the mature reflections of his pupil, were at length successful. "The various articles of the Romish creed," says our author, "disappeared like a dream; and, after a full conviction, on Christmas-day, 1754, I received the sacrament in the church of Lausanne." During his stay in this city, he made rapid progress in his studies; and, besides opening a correspondence with the chief literati of the continent, acquired a knowledge of French and Italian, and perfected his acquaintance with the Greek and Latin languages. Speaking of his first residence at Lausanne, he says: "Whatever have been the fruits of my education, they must be ascribed to the fortunate banishment which placed me at Lausanne. If my childish revolt against the religion of my country had not stripped me in time of my academical gown, the five important years so liberally improved in the studies and conversation of Lausanne, would have been steeped in port and prejudice among the monks of Oxford." To his classical acquirements while at Lausanne, he added the study of Grotius, Puffendorf, Locke, Montesquieu, and Pascal. In the midst too of his studies and reading he contrived to fall in love with a young lady, of whom he has left us the following account: "I saw," he says, "and loved. I found her learned, without pedantry; lively in

conversation; pure in sentiment; elegant in manners. She permitted me to make her two or three visits in her father's house. I passed some happy days there in the mountains of Burgundy, and her parents honourably encouraged the connection. In a calm retirement, the gay vanity of youth no longer fluttered in her bosom. She listened to the voice of truth and passion, and I might presume to hope I had made some impression on a virtuous heart. At Crassy and Lausanne, I indulged my dream of felicity; but, on my return to England; I soon discovered that my father would not hear of this strange alliance. After a painful struggle, I yielded to my fate. I sighed as a lover; I obeyed as a son: my wound was insensibly healed by time, absence, and the habits of a new life. My cure was accelerated by a faithful report of the tranquillity and cheerfulness of the lady herself; and my love subsided into friendship and esteem. A rich banker of Paris, a citizen of Geneva, had the good fortune and good sense to discover and possess this inestimable treasure; and, in the capital of taste and luxury, she resisted the temptation of wealth, as she had sustained the hardships of indigence. The genius of her husband has exalted him to the most conspicuous station in Europe; and Mademoiselle Curchod is now the wife of M. Necker."

In 1758 he received permission to return home. His father received him with kindness, and left him to consult his own tastes in the future employment of his time. Fortunately for his literary career he found it difficult to establish himself in an extensive and general acquaintance, which flung him upon his books for entertainment and mental occupation. "I had not been endowed," he says, "by art or nature, with those happy gifts of confidence and address, which unlock every door and bosom." To his books then he gave himself up by a kind of necessity; and from this period he began to accumulate that immense and multiform erudition which was to support him through the composition of his great work.

In 1761 he appeared for the first time as an author in a small volume entitled 'Essai sur l'étude de la Litterature.' It was written in the French language, and attracted considerable attention in Paris; in England it was scarcely noticed. To amuse himself and gratify his father, he now accepted a commission in a militia regiment; but "a wandering life of military servitude" did not approve itself altogether to his genius and habits, though he retained his commission till the regiment was disbanded in 1763, and was afterwards pleased to hint that the historian of the Roman empire was somewhat aided in his magnificent task by the military knowledge he had acquired while a captain of the Hampshire grenadiers! During his military service his active mind would not allow him to remain altogether without a master-object. Hume and Robertson were gaining rich trophies in the field of historical literature, and the young soldier was even then ambitious of emulating their example. He tells us, that, among the subjects which suggested themselves to him as fit themes for him to exercise his pen upon, were the expedition of Charles VIII. into Italy,—the crusade of Richard I.,—the Barons' wars against John and Henry III.,—the history of the Black Prince,—the life of Sir Philip Sydney,—of the marquess of Montrose,—of Sir Walter Raleigh,—the history of Swiss liberty,—and the history of Florence under the Medici.

In 1763 he again visited the continent. From Paris he proceeded to Lausanne, where he formed acquaintance with Mr Holroyd, afterwards Lord Sheffield, who subsequently became the editor of his works. After a stay of eleven months amongst his old friends, he proceeded to Italy. It was at Rome, as "he sat musing amongst the ruins of the capitol, while the bare-footed friars were singing vespers in the temple of Jupiter, the idea of writing the decline and fall of the city first started to his mind." He returned from Italy in 1765, and again entered the militia—to please his father—as lieutenant-colonel commandant; but resigned the situation on the death of his father, in 1770. The interval between these periods was passed by him, partly in the country, and partly in London, where, in conjunction with other travellers, he established a weekly convivial meeting under the name of 'The Roman Club.' Alluding to this period of his life, he says, "I lamented that, at the proper age, I had not embraced the lucrative pursuits of the law or of trade, the chances of civil office or India adventure, or even the fat slumbers of the church." Still his active mind was making fresh acquisitions, all of a kind which fitted him for his great approaching task. By way of preparatory trial, perhaps, in the winter of 1767, he sketched the first book of a History of the Revolution in Switzerland; in the same year, in conjunction with a learned Swiss, he published a few Nos. of a literary periodical in French, under the title 'Memoires Literaires de la Grand Bretagne.' His next performance was 'Critical Observations on the Sixth book of the Æneid.' The object of this tract was to confute the arrogant Warburton in his hypothesis of the descent of Æneas to hell. It was an easy task in competent hands; but the selection of such an antagonist indicated great confidence in his own powers on the part of Gibbon.

In 1775 Gibbon was elected member of parliament for Liskeard. He was now actively engaged upon his great work, and did not allow his new duties to encroach greatly upon his historical labours. "At the outset," he says, "all was dark and doubtful; even the title of the work, the true era of the decline and fall of the empire, the limits of the introduction, the division of the chapters, and the order of the narrative; and I was often tempted to cast away the labour of seven years;" "three times did I compose the first chapter, and twice the second and third, before I was tolerably certain of their effect." At length, on the 17th of February, 1776, the first volume of 'The Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire' was given to the public. Its success was instantaneous and decided; congratulations were showered upon him from every side; and, what gratified him most, both Hume and Robertson hastened to compliment him on his performance. A very able writer in the 'Eclectic Review,' in an elaborate and pious article upon Gibbon's 'Miscellaneous Works,' has given it as his opinion that our historian had a decided advantage over his two great contemporaries in his subject. "It would be mere waste of time," says he, "to do more than solicit the attention of our readers to the question, in order to convince them how far a history of England, or that of a single though striking reign in the annals of Scotland, or even that of the hero Charles V. and the Reformation, with the noble appendage of America,—how far such subjects are excelled in grandeur by the 'Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire.' Whatever relates to the fortunes of that immense political

fabric, must necessarily command the attention of every reader, merely because it does relate to it. For, should we even suppose one so ignorant as barely to know, in general, that so vast and powerful an empire did once exist in a state of enviable prosperity, and that at present scarce a vestige of it remains,—with what silent attention would he listen to the narration of that man who should engage to lead him, step by step, through every intermediate scene of decay, from the one state to the other! But, if we suppose the reader to be possessed of some literature, who then can describe with what breathless eagerness of expectation such a one would attend a companion, who should offer to conduct him in safety, through the almost chaotic gulf which separates the two smiling regions of Ancient and Modern history? And, what adds much to our author's merit in this instance, his subject did not fall to him by chance. It was his own deliberate choice. It will appear from the publication now before us how long he hesitated, how profoundly he meditated, how often he tried, how many other subjects he adopted and rejected, before he finally fixed upon that which now furnishes so solid a foundation for his fame. A devout mind may even be pardoned for starting the question, whether the subject were not designed him by Divine Providence, so evidently were his studies directed to his great object, long before it became his decided choice. And, as the accidental fall of an apple supplied our immortal philosopher with the first germ of his theory of universal gravitation, so did the accidental contemplation of the Eternal City in ruins generate in the mind of our great historian the first clear hint of pursuing her, through her gradual fall, from the height of power and majesty to that state of feebleness and neglect in which he then beheld her."

Mr Gibbon was not, however, permitted to enjoy his laurels in peace. His disingenuous attack upon Christianity, contained in the 15th and 16th chapters of his history, called up a host of indignant vindicators of religion, amongst whom were Dr Watson, afterwards bishop of Landaff, Mr Davis of Oxford, Dr Priestley, and Sir David Dalrymple. The historian affected to treat them all with contempt, with the exception of Dr Watson, whose unanswerable 'Apology for Christianity' compelled his respect as well as defied his powers of refutation.

On the dissolution of North's ministry, Gibbon turned his thoughts again towards Lausanne; and, in September 1783, he once more established himself at that favourite spot with his library around him, which he brought from England for the purpose of completing his history before he should return to his native country. In four years he completed his task. "It was," he says, "on the day, or rather night, of the 27th of June, 1787, between the hours of eleven and twelve, that I wrote the last lines of the last page, in a summer-house in my garden. After laying down my pen, I took several turns in a *berceau*, or covered walk of acacias, which commands a prospect of the country, the lake, and the mountains. The air was temperate, the sky was serene, the silver orb of the moon was reflected from the waters, and all nature was silent. I will not dissemble the first emotions of joy, on the recovery of my freedom, and, perhaps, the establishment of my fame. But my pride was soon humbled, and a sober melancholy spread over my mind, by the idea that I had taken an everlasting leave of an old and agreeable companion, and that whatsoever might be the future date of my history,

the life of the author might be short and precarious. I will add two facts, which have seldom occurred in the composition of six, or at least five, quartos: First—My rough manuscript, without any intermediate copy, has been sent to press. Second—Not a sheet has been seen by any human eyes, excepting those of the author and the printer. The faults and merits are exclusively his own." With the manuscript copy of these volumes he set out for England, where he remained until their publication, a few weeks after which he again returned to Lausanne, probably intending to spend the remainder of his life there. From this resolution, however, the events of the French revolution appear to have deterred him. He again returned to England in May, 1793. Towards the close of that year he became seriously diseased by hydrocele, the result of an old rupture, under the effects of which he suddenly sank on the 15th of January, 1794.

We cannot sum up our historian's merits in a more useful and satisfactory manner than in the language of the Eclectic reviewer already quoted: "If the historian would be luminous," says this anonymous writer, "he must be quite familiar with his subject. The pages of Gibbon have been pronounced luminous by no trifling authority, and that in the presence of an august assembly, whose undissenting silence may be taken for assent. Judge, then, what powers, as well as labours, are supposed before a man can be thoroughly acquainted with such an extent of story, so diversified in whatever can diversify a subject of that kind. Our other historians had indeed some variety of laws and manners to contend with; but, after all, the one never goes far out of England, and the other rarely for any length of time leaves the precincts of modern Europe; (for when we are speaking of events properly historical, America must be put out of the question;) while Gibbon, besides what relates to other parts of the world, had to trace Europe through a total and radical change in its religion, its geography, and its languages. With what prodigious diversity of manners was he bound to make himself familiar, who had a subject so various and extensive to illustrate. When Robertson at one time proposed taking for his subject the age of Leo X. and the revival of arts, he was soon induced to lay aside all thought of it, when reminded by his friend Hume, that he could not possibly have or acquire the intimate acquaintance with the imitative arts, which he would find absolutely requisite, if he would do perfect justice to his subject. How many subjects of equal difficulty with this had Gibbon to study, before he could worthily commence historian of the Roman empire. But then, he made the best possible use of his time and opportunities. In the closet he read and extracted books; in society he observed and studied men; and even when engaged in the camp as a militia-officer, he embraced the occasion of making himself familiar with military tactics. One subject, and only one, he never examined to the bottom; but on the head of religion, as we shall treat it at large hereafter, we shall say no more at present. But what, after all, is the real state of the case? Is Mr Gibbon indeed a luminous writer? In some respects undoubtedly he is; in others, the praise of luminousness must be refused him. If we attend to the different branches of his subject, by the light of the Roman critic's rule—

—'cui lecta potenter erit res,
Nec facundia deseret hunc, nec lucidus ordo;'

we shall be enabled to make the requisite distinction. There are two points of view in which he was sufficiently versed in the scenes he describes to treat them luminously. On the grand and leading features of his history he appears to have profoundly meditated, until they presented themselves to his mind in the clearest and most distinct order. What may be termed the separate acts of the piece, are indeed exhibited in a masterly manner. As specimens we would adduce the preliminary survey of the Roman empire in its prosperity: likewise the manner in which the connection is traced between that empire and the new Persian; the various migrations of the Goths and Vandals, and especially those of the Huns. It is impossible to have read Gibbon, without obtaining an increased clearness in our view of the several grand changes of the civilized world, by means of which ancient and modern history are linked together. Again: by indefatigable study of such writers as describe the manners and customs of the several countries and ages, which constitute the varying scene of his history, he had become so intimately acquainted with the modes of thinking and acting peculiar to those times and countries, as to have almost attained the clearness of a contemporary author. He enters, and enables his reader to enter, not into the thoughts only, but into the very feelings of the different characters which he describes. A familiar acquaintance of the emperor Julian, for instance, could scarcely have described with greater precision whatever constitutes the chief interest of that important reign. But in what may more properly be called historical painting, he is not equally happy. Rarely does he present to us those affecting pictures in which a whole train of action seems to pass before our eyes. In this respect he is greatly inferior to his two northern rivals. Their histories are read with an interest which is quite independent on the desire of information. We are imperceptibly drawn along by the mere charm of the story; and, having once entered upon their works, cannot easily be persuaded to lay them aside. But Gibbon is read as a task; a pleasing task indeed,—at times perhaps an engaging one,—but still a task."

"Of the style of our author," says the same critic, "the prevalent feature is art. Not only is it highly laboured, but it exhibits marks of art and labour in its whole structure. Mr Gibbon's acknowledged character as a writer, among his friends, seems to have been, that there was no thought, however original or complicated, which he could not force to assume a decent verbal dress:

'If you have thoughts and can't express them,
Gibbon will teach you how to dress them,'—

was said of him by those who knew him well. But he did not possess what is justly considered as the perfection of art, the talent of concealing it. In all his works, and especially in his history, the traces of the tool are every where visible. He appears to have taken Tacitus for his model, and like that author, to have aimed continually at making his words say as much as possible. It is indeed astonishing, how he contrives to express the minutest shade of a thought, by an unusual collocation, or more emphatic use of common words; and what a multiplicity of views he has the art to combine in the same sentence. His vindication of himself against the misinterpretation of some of his phrases, gave him

an opportunity of pointing out in those particular cases, how very delicately they were poised. We may give as an instance the word *accused*, which, according to his own explanation, was purposely employed without addition, to signify that the martyr Nemesion might or might not be guilty of robbery. The bishop Eusebius presumed, on the authority of the centurion under whom the reputed delinquent served, that he was innocent; the Pagan magistrate who passed sentence upon him, presumed, as a Pagan, that he was guilty. One thing only was certain—he was accused. But Mr Gibbon's style, to be rightly and fully appreciated, ought to be studied. A single reading will seldom give us a thorough conception of all he means to convey. On a repeated perusal, when the whole connexion has become tolerably familiar to the mind, new light breaks in upon us; and we are surprised to find the entire thought, with all its appurtenances, much richer than we had at first apprehended."

Robert Burns.

BORN A. D. 1759.—DIED A. D. 1796.

ROBERT BURNS was born on the 25th day of January, 1759, in the parish of Alloway, a short distance from the town of Ayr in Scotland. He was of humble parentage, his father being a small farmer, who won his bread by the daily labour of his own hands. In his sixth year, Robert, the eldest child of the family, was sent to school, where he was taught to read and write, and became a good English scholar, though, to use his own words, "it cost the schoolmaster some thrashings." To these acquirements he afterwards added a knowledge of French, together with the elements of Latin and Geometry.

He early evinced a taste for reading, in which it was his good fortune to be encouraged by his parents, who, though poor and struggling hard to maintain their family, knew and appreciated the value of knowledge, and were nobly solicitous to bestow a decent education on their children. Among the books which our future poet had read before he attained his 17th year, he has himself enumerated the following: Salmond's and Guthrie's Geographical Grammar, The Spectator, Tooke's Pantheon, Locke's Essay on the Understanding, Stackhouse's History of the Bible, British Gardener's Directory, Taylor's Scripture Doctrine of Original Sin, Hervey's Meditations, Derham's Physico and Astro-Theology, and several of our English poets. The latter were the decided favourites in this list. Blind Harry's rude metrical Life of Sir William Wallace, and a Miscellaneous Collection of Songs, which had come into his possession, formed his earliest poetical readings. Allan Ramsay's Poems, including his exquisite pastoral of the 'Gentle Shepherd,' and the poems of Robert Fergusson, 'The Seasons' of Thomson, Pope's works, and some of Shakspeare's plays, were all greedily and oft perused by him, before he had ever composed a single stanza. He could not therefore be regarded as uneducated or illiterate; his mind was early stored with such knowledge as lay within his reach; he had as much learning, probably, as Shakspeare himself, to commence authorship upon; and better models than the immortal dramatist to

form his ear and train his fancy, before he conceived the idea of rivalling Ramsay and Fergusson, the most popular of his own country's bards.¹

Robert was approaching the close of his sixteenth year, when he first "committed the sin of rhyme." The occasion of his first effort at poetry, was a juvenile attachment to "a bonnie, sweet, sonsie lass." "I was not so presumptuous," he says, "as to imagine that I could make verses like printed ones, composed by men who had Greek and Latin; but my girl sung a song, which was said to be composed by a small country laird's son on one of his father's maids, with whom he was in love; and I saw no reason why I might not rhyme as well as he: for, excepting that he could shear sheep, and cast peats—his father living in the moorlands—he had no more scholar-craft than myself. Thus with me began my love and poetry." The production thus alluded to is the little ballad commencing—

"Oh! once I loved a bonnie lass"—

which Burns himself has characterized as "a very puerile and silly performance;" yet, it has been justly remarked by Mr Lockhart, it contains, here and there, lines of which he need hardly have been ashamed at any period of his life.

Long after the conception of his first youthful passion—which, he assures us, was as pure as a poet's first love should be—Robert Burns remained a youth of gentle and rather retiring habits. In 1781, we find him expressing himself, in a letter to his father, in the following correct and dignified strain of feeling and expression: "My health is nearly the same as when you were here, only my sleep is a little sounder, and on the whole I am rather better than otherwise, though I mend by very slow degrees. The weakness of my nerves has so debilitated my mind, that I dare neither review past wants, nor look forward into futurity; for the least anxiety or perturbation in my breast produces most unhappy effects on my whole frame. Sometimes, indeed, when for an hour or two my spirits are a little lightened, I glimmer a little into futurity; but my principal, and indeed my only pleasurable employment is looking backwards and forwards in a moral and religious way; I am quite transported at the thought, that ere long, perhaps very soon, I shall bid an eternal adieu to all the pains, and uneasiness, and disquietudes of this weary life; for I assure you I am heartily tired of it; and if I do not very much deceive myself, I could contentedly and gladly resign it.

'The soul, uneasy, and confined at home,
Rests and expatiates in a life to come.'

It is for this reason I am more pleased with the 15th, 16th, and 17th verses of the 7th chapter of Revelation, than with any ten times as many

¹ With the known extent of Burns' juvenile reading before us, we are at a loss to understand upon what principles Mr Carlyle, in his celebrated article on Lockhart's Life of Burns, in the 48th volume of the Edinburgh Review, should persist in representing him as entirely a self-taught genius,—who owed nothing to the existing literature of his country; but who sprung forward at a sudden bounce "from the deepest obscurity," and snatched the palm of poesy "without help, without instruction, without model, or with models only of the meanest sort." This is not true; and, perhaps if it were, it would not greatly detract from the merits and fame of Burns.

verses in the whole Bible, and would not exchange the noble enthusiasm with which they inspire me for all that this world has to offer. As for this world, I despair of ever making a figure in it. I am not formed for the bustle of the busy, nor the flutter of the gay. I shall never again be capable of entering into such scenes. Indeed I am altogether unconcerned at the thoughts of this life. I foresee that poverty and obscurity probably await me, and I am in some measure prepared, and daily preparing to meet them." This letter, says Dr Currie, "written several years before the publication of his poems, when his name was as obscure as his condition was humble, displays the philosophic melancholy which so generally forms the poetical temperament, and that buoyant and ambitious spirit, which indicates a mind conscious of its strength. At Irvine, Burns at this time possessed a single room for his lodgings, rented perhaps at the rate of a shilling a-week. He passed his days in constant labour, as a flaxdresser, and his food consisted chiefly of oatmeal, sent to him from his father's family. The store of this humble though wholesome nutriment, it appears, was nearly exhausted, and he was about to borrow till he should obtain a supply. Yet even in this situation his active imagination had formed to himself pictures of eminence and distinction. His despair of making a figure in the world, shows how ardently he wished for honourable fame; and his contempt of life, founded on this despair, is the genuine expression of a youthful and generous mind. In such a state of reflection and of suffering, the imagination of Burns naturally passed the dark boundaries of our earthly horizon, and rested on those beautiful creations of a better world, where there is neither thirst, nor hunger, nor sorrow, and where happiness shall be in proportion to the capacity of happiness." In a letter to his old school-master, under the date of 15th January, 1783, he begins to reveal something of a more ambitious and impatient spirit; he appears conscious of the possession of strength, and anxious to put it forth, yet hardly knowing where or how to begin: "I seem," he says, "to be one sent into the world, to see and observe; and I very easily compound with the knave who tricks me of my money, if there be any thing original about him, which shows me human nature in a different light from any thing I have seen before. In short, the joy of my heart is to 'study men, their manners, and their ways;' and for this darling subject, I cheerfully sacrifice every other consideration. I am quite indolent about those great concerns that set the bustling, busy sons of care agog; and if I have to answer for the present hour, I am very easy with regard to any thing further. Even the last, worst shift of the unfortunate and the wretched does not much terrify me: I know that even then, my talent for what country folks call 'a sensible crack,' when once it is sanctified by a hoary head, would procure me so much esteem, that even then I would learn to be happy. However, I am under no apprehensions about that; for though indolent, yet so far as an extremely delicate constitution permits, I am not lazy; and in many things, especially in tavern matters, I am a strict economist; not, indeed, for the sake of the money; but one of the principal parts in my composition is a kind of pride of stomach; and I scorn to fear the face of any man living: above every thing, I abhor as hell, the idea of sneaking in a corner to avoid a dun—possibly some pitiful, sordid wretch, who in my heart I despise and detest. 'Tis this, and this alone, that endears

economy to me. In the matter of books, indeed, I am very profuse. My favourite authors are of the sentimental kind, such as Shenstone, particularly his 'Elegies;' Thomson; 'Man of Feeling'—a book I prize next to the Bible; 'Man of the World;' Sterne, especially his 'Sentimental Journey;' Macpherson's 'Ossian,' &c.; these are the glorious models after which I endeavour to form my conduct, and 'tis incongruous, 'tis absurd to suppose that the man whose mind glows with sentiments lighted up at their sacred flame—the man whose heart distends with benevolence to all the human race—he 'who can soar above this little scene of things'—can he descend to mind the paltry concerns about which the terræfilial race fret, and fume, and vex themselves! O how the glorious triumph swells my heart! I forget that I am a poor, insignificant devil, unnoticed and unknown, stalking up and down fairs and markets, when I happen to be in them, reading a page or two or mankind, and 'catching the manners living as they rise,' whilst the men of business jostle me on every side, as an idle incumbrance in their way."

From the circulation of a few manuscript songs and rhyming epistles, the name and reputation of a poet began at last to attach to Robert Burns; while, unfortunately for his own peace, he also became distinguished in the rustic circle of his acquaintances for his wit and convivial pleasantry. Meanwhile his prospects in Scotland became more and more clouded; the farm of Mossgiel, which he now rented in company with his brother, disappointed their expectations, and he found himself on the eve of bankruptcy. He now resolved to go to Jamaica as an overseer; and in order to provide himself with the means of defraying his passage, some of his friends prevailed on him to publish a few of his poems. A subscription was proposed, and was earnestly promoted by some gentlemen who were glad to interest themselves on behalf of poetical merit; it was soon crowded with the names of a considerable number of the inhabitants of Ayrshire, who, says a correspondent of the Monthly Magazine for March, 1797, "sought not less to gratify their own passion for Scottish poetry, than to encourage the wonderful ploughman. At Kilmarnock, were the poems of Burns, for the first time, printed. The whole edition was quickly distributed over the country. It is hardly possible,"—this contemporary of our poet goes on to say,—"to express with what eager admiration and delight they were every where received. They eminently possessed all those qualities which most invariably contribute to render any literary work quickly and permanently popular. They were written in a phraseology, of which all the powers were universally felt; and which being at once antique, familiar, and now rarely written, was hence fitted to serve all the dignified and picturesque uses of poetry, without making it unintelligible. The imagery, the sentiments, were at once faithfully natural and irresistibly impressive and interesting. Those topics of satire and scandal in which the rustic delights,—that humorous imitation of character, and that witty association of ideas familiar and striking, yet not naturally allied to one another, which has force to shake his sides with laughter,—those fancies of superstition, at which he still wonders and trembles,—those affecting sentiments and images of true religion, which are at once dear and awful to his heart,—were represented by Burns with all a poet's magic power. Old and young, high and low, grave and gay,

learned or ignorant, all were alike delighted, agitated, transported. I was at that time resident in Galloway, contiguous to Ayrshire, and I can well remember, how that even plough-boys and maid-servants would have gladly parted with the wages which they earned the most hardly, and which they wanted to purchase necessary clothing, if they might but procure the works of Burns. A copy happened to be presented from a gentleman in Ayrshire to a friend in my neighbourhood. He put it into my hands, as a work containing some effusions of the most extraordinary genius. I took it, rather that I might not disoblige the lender, than from any ardour of curiosity or expectation. 'An unlettered ploughman, a poet!' said I, with contemptuous incredulity. It was on a Saturday evening; I opened the volume, by accident, while I was undressing, to go to bed; I closed it not, till a late hour on the rising Sunday morn, after I had read over every syllable it contained." This publication realized a sum of about twenty pounds for the young poet. It came very seasonably, he says: "as I was thinking of indenturing myself for want of money to procure my passage. As soon as I was master of nine guineas—the price that was to waft me to the torrid zone—I took a steerage passage in the first ship that was to sail from the Clyde; for 'Hungry ruin had me in the wind.' I had been some days skulking from covert to covert, under all the terrors of a gaol; as some ill-advised people had uncoupled the merciless pack of the law at my heels. I had taken the last farewell of my few friends,—my chest was on the road to Greenock,—I had composed the last song I should ever measure in Caledonia—'The Gloomy night is Gathering Fast,'—when a letter from Dr Blacklock to a friend of mine, overthrew all my schemes, by opening new prospects to my poetic ambition."

No one can doubt the excellent motives which induced the amiable and ingenious Blacklock to take the young rustic bard by the hand, and introduce him into the society of the metropolis: yet who is there acquainted with Burns's melancholy history who does not regret the luckless hour in which he first put foot in Edinburgh? It was not necessary to fan the flame of his genius that he should move in the company of the rich, the learned, and the great over the face of the earth; he needed not the intoxicating fumes of flattery to inspire him for poetic effort; he was born a poet, and needed nothing external to himself to enable him to assert and maintain his birthright. Most truly as well as eloquently has Mr Carlyle written, in the article already referred to: "A man like Burns might have divided his hours between poetry and virtuous industry,—industry which all true feeling sanctions, nay prescribes, and which has a beauty, for that cause, beyond the pomp of thrones; but to divide his hours between poetry and rich men's banquets was an ill-starred and inauspicious attempt. How could he be at ease at such banquets? What had he to do there mingling his music with the coarse roar of altogether earthly voices, and brightening the thick smoke of intoxication with fire sent him from heaven?" It was in the beginning of the winter of 1786 that Burns came to Edinburgh. By Dr Blacklock he was received with every kindness, and soon introduced to the wide circle of the good old man's literary acquaintances. "It needs no effort of imagination," says Mr Lockhart, "to conceive what the sensations of an isolated set of scholars (almost all either clergymen or professors) must have been in the presence of this big-

boned, black-browed, brawny stranger, with his great flashing eyes, who, having forced his way among them from the plough-tail, at a single stride, manifested in the whole strain of his bearing and conversation, a most thorough conviction that in the society of the most eminent men of his nation, he was exactly where he was entitled to be; hardly deigned to flatter them by exhibiting even an occasional symptom of being flattered by their notice; by turns calmly measured himself against the most cultivated understandings of his time in discussion; overpowered the *bon mots* of the most celebrated convivialists by broad floods of merriment, impregnated with all the burning life of genius; astounded bosoms habitually enveloped in the thrice-piled folds of social reserve, by compelling them to tremble—nay to tremble visibly—beneath the fearless touch of natural pathos; and all this without indicating the smallest willingness to be ranked among those professional ministers of excitement, who are content to be paid in money and smiles for doing what the spectators and auditors would be ashamed of doing in their own persons, even if they had the power of doing it; and last, and probably worst of all, who was known to be in the habit of enlivening societies which they would have scorned to approach, still more frequently than their own, with eloquence no less magnificent; with wit, in all likelihood still more daring; often enough, as the superiors whom he fronted without alarm might have guessed from the beginning, and had, ere long, no occasion to guess, with wit pointed at themselves.”

A new edition of his poems was now loudly demanded. He sold the copy-right to Mr Creech for one hundred pounds; but his friends, at the same time, suggested and actively promoted a subscription for an edition to be published for the benefit of the author, ere the bookseller's right should commence. Those gentlemen who had formerly entertained the public of Edinburgh with the periodical publication of the papers of ‘The Mirror,’ having again combined their talents in producing ‘The Lounger,’ were at this time about to conclude this last series of papers; yet, before the Lounger relinquished his pen, he dedicated a number to a commendatory criticism of the poems of the Ayrshire bard. That criticism is now known to have been written by Lord Craig, one of the senators of the college of justice. The subscription-papers were rapidly filled; the ladies, especially, vied with one another who should be first to subscribe, and who should procure the greatest number of subscribers for the poems of a bard who was now, for some moments, the idol of fashion. The Caledonian Hunt—a gay club, composed of the most opulent and fashionable young men in Scotland—professed themselves the patrons of the Scottish poet, and eagerly encouraged the proposed re-publication of his poems. Six shillings was the subscription-money demanded for each copy, but many voluntarily paid half-a-guinea, a guinea, or two guineas; and it was supposed that the poet might derive from the subscription, and the sale of his copy-right, a clear profit of at least seven hundred pounds.

The bucks of Edinburgh, says the writer of the notice of Burns, which appeared so shortly after the poet's death in the Monthly Magazine, accomplished in regard to him that in which the boors of Ayrshire had failed. “After residing some months in Edinburgh, he began to estrange himself, not altogether, but in some measure, from the so-

ciety of his graver friends. Too many of his hours were now spent at the tables of persons who delighted to urge conviviality to drunkenness, in the tavern, in the brothel, on the lap of the woman of pleasure. He suffered himself to be surrounded by a race of miserable beings who were proud to tell that they had been in company with Burns, and had seen Burns as loose and as foolish as themselves. He now also began to contract something of new arrogance in conversation. Accustomed to be among his favourite associates what is vulgarly but expressively called 'the cock of the company,' he could scarcely refrain from indulging in similar freedom and dictatorial decision of talk, even in the presence of persons who could less patiently endure his presumption. Thus passed two winters, and an intervening summer, of the life of Burns. The subscription-edition of his poems, in the meantime appeared; and although not enlarged beyond that which came from the Kilmarnock press, by any new pieces of eminent merit, did not fail to give entire satisfaction to the subscribers. He at one time, during this period, accompanied for a few weeks, into Berwickshire, Robert Ainslie, Esq., a gentleman of the purest and most correct manners, who was accustomed to soothe the toils of a laborious profession, by an occasional converse with polite literature, and with general science. At another time he wandered on a jaunt of four or five weeks through the Highlands, in company with the late Mr William Nicol,—a man who had been before the companion and friend of Dr Gilbert Stuart,—who in vigour of intellect, and in wild yet generous impetuosity of passion, remarkably resembled both Stuart and Burns,—who, for his skill and facility of Latin composition, was perhaps without a rival in Europe,—but whose virtues and genius were clouded by habits of Bacchanalian excess."

We now behold Burns richer than perhaps he had ever dreamed of being in worldly substance; richer too in fame and in all that constitutes the external semblance of happiness; but poorer and more miserable at least than he had ever dreaded he might become: for he is now "maddened with the fever of mere worldly ambition, and through long years the disease will rack him with unprofitable sufferings, and weaken his strength for all true and nobler aims."² "He was now at last to fix upon a plan for his future life. He talked loudly of independence of spirit, and simplicity of manners; and boasted his resolution to return to the plough. Yet still he lingered in Edinburgh, week after week, and month after month,—perhaps expecting that one or another of his noble patrons might procure him some permanent and competent annual income, which should set him above all necessity of future exertion to earn for himself the means of subsistence,—perhaps unconsciously reluctant to quit the pleasures of that voluptuous town-life to which he had for some time too willingly accustomed himself. An accidental dislocation or fracture, confining him for some weeks to his apartment, left him leisure for serious reflection; and he determined to retire from town without longer delay. None of all his patrons interposed to divert him from his purpose of returning to the plough, by the offer of a small pension, or any sinecure place of moderate emolument, such as might have given him competence without withdrawing him from his poetical

² Carlyle.

studies. It seemed to be forgotten that a ploughman thus exalted into a man of letters, was unfitted for his former toils, without being regularly qualified to enter the career of any new profession; and that it became incumbent upon those patrons who had called him from the plough,—not merely to make him their companion in the hour of riot,—not simply to fill his purse with gold for a few transient expenses,—but to secure him, as far as was possible, from being ever overwhelmed in distress, in consequence of the habits of life into which they had seduced him. Perhaps, indeed, the same delusion of fancy betrayed both Burns and his patrons into the mistaken idea that,—after all which had passed,—it was still possible for him to return to the homely joys and simple toils of undissipated rural life.

“In this temper of mind, and state of his fortune, a farm and the excise were the objects upon which his choice ultimately fixed for future employment and support. Mr Alexander Wood, the surgeon who attended him during the illness occasioned by his hurt, no sooner understood his patient’s wish to seek a resource in the service of the excise, than he effectually recommended the poet to the commissioners of excise; and the name of Burns was enrolled in the list of their expectant officers. Peter Millar, Esq., of Dalswinton, deceived, like Burns himself, and Burns’s other friends, into an idea that the poet and exciseman might yet be respectable and happy as a farmer, generously proposed to establish him in a farm, upon conditions of lease which prudence and industry might easily render exceedingly advantageous. Burns eagerly accepted the offers of this benevolent patron; and two of the poet’s friends were invited to survey a farm in Dumfriesshire which Mr Millar offered. A lease was granted to him at that annual rent which his own friends declared the due cultivation of his farm might easily enable him to pay; what yet remained of the profits of his publication was laid out in the purchase of farm-stock; and Burns, with his Jane,—whom he had now married,—took up their residence upon his farm. For a time all went well. The neighbouring farmers and gentlemen, pleased to obtain for an inmate among them the poet by whose works they had been so highly delighted, kindly sought his company and invited him to their houses. He himself found an inexpressible charm in sitting down beside his wife at his own fire-side,—in wandering over his own grounds,—in once more putting his hand to the spade and the plough,—in forming his inclosures, and managing his cattle. Even his engagements in the service of the excise did not, at the very first, threaten necessarily to debase him by association with the mean, the gross, and the profligate, to contaminate the poet, or to ruin the farmer.³

“But it could not be: it was not possible for Burns now to assume that soberness of fancy and passions,—that sedateness of feeling,—those habits of earnest attention to vulgar cares,—without which success in his new situation was not to be expected. A thousand difficulties were to be encountered and overcome,—much money was to be expended,—much weary toil was to be exercised, before his farm could be brought into a state of cultivation, in which its produce might enrich the occupier. The prospect before him was, in this respect, such as might well

³ Monthly Magazine. No. XIX.

have discouraged the most stubbornly laborious peasant,—the most sanguine projector in agriculture; and much more, therefore, was it likely that this prospect should quickly dishearten Burns, who had never loved labour, and who was, at this time, certainly not at all disposed to enter into agriculture with the enthusiasm of a projector. Besides all this," says the writer in the Monthly Magazine, "I have reason to believe that the poet had made his bargain rashly, and had not duly availed himself of his patron's generosity. His friends from Ayrshire were little acquainted with the soil, with the manures, with the markets, with the dairies, with the modes of improvement in Dumfriesshire: they had set upon his farm rather such a value of rental as it might have borne in Ayrshire, than that which it could easily afford in the local circumstances in which it was actually placed. He himself had inconsiderately submitted to their judgment, without once doubting whether they might not have erred against his interests; and the consequence was, that he held his farm at too high a rent, contrary to his landlord's intention. The business of the excise too, as he began to be more and more employed in it, distracted his mind from the care of his farm, led him into gross and vulgar society, and exposed him to many unavoidable temptations to drunken excess such as he had no longer sufficient fortitude to resist. Amidst the anxieties, distractions, and seducements, which thus arose to him, home became insensibly less and less pleasing; even the endearments of his Jane's affection began to lose their hold on his heart; and he became every day less and less unwilling to forget in riot those gathering sorrows which he knew not to subdue. Mr Millar, and some other of his friends, would gladly have exerted an influence over his mind, which might have preserved him, in this situation of his affairs, equally from despondency and from dissipation. But Burns's temper spurned all control from his superiors in fortune. He resented, as an arrogant encroachment upon his independence, that tenor of conduct by which Mr Millar wished to turn him from dissolute conviviality, to that steady attention to the business of his farm without which it was impossible to thrive in it. His crosses and disappointments drove him every day more and more into dissipation; and his dissipation tended to enhance whatever was disagreeable and perplexing in the state of his affairs. He sunk by degrees into the boon companion of mere excisemen; and almost every drunken fellow who was willing to spend his money lavishly in the ale-house could easily command the company of Burns. The care of his farm was thus neglected; waste and losses consumed his little capital; he resigned his lease into the hands of his landlord; and finally retired with his family to the town of Dumfries, determining to depend entirely for the means of future support upon his income as an excise-officer."

Yet during these unfortunate years of farming his talents and powers of observation seem to have suffered no eclipse; his fancy remained unimpaired; and many of his finest compositions were the production of this period of his life,—particularly his wild and humorous tale of 'Tam o'Shanter,' and those exquisite songs, and re-castings of old Scottish ballads which he contributed to Thomson's collection of national songs and melodies, and for which, in the pride of conscious inspiration, he refused to accept of any pecuniary emolument, choosing rather to make his task a labour of love only.

The crisis of Burns's life was now arrived. From the period of his removal to Dumfries his dissipation became still more deeply habitual. Mr Carlyle has touched upon the last years of the unfortunate poet's life with great beauty of thought, and a profound discrimination of the moral and intellectual features of the sinking man. "Flushed with irregular excitement, exasperated alternately by contempt of others, and contempt of himself, Burns was no longer regaining his peace of mind, but fast losing it for ever. There was a hollowness at the heart of his life, for his conscience did not now approve what he was doing. Amid the vapours of unwise enjoyment, of bootless remorse, and angry discontent with fate, his true loadstar, a life of poetry with poverty, nay, with famine if it must be so, was too often altogether hidden from his eyes. And yet he sailed a sea, where, without some such guide, there was no right steering. Meteors of French politics rise before him, but these were not his stars. An accident this, which hastened, but did not originate, his worst distresses. In the mad contentions of that time, he comes in collision with certain official superiors; is wounded by them; cruelly lacerated, we should say, could a dead mechanical implement, in any case, be called cruel: and shrinks in indignant pain, into deeper self-seclusion, into gloomier moodiness than ever. His life has now lost its unity: it is a life of fragments; led with little aim beyond the melancholy one of securing its own continuance,—in fits of wild false joy, when such offered, and of black despondency when they passed away. His character before the world begins to suffer: calumny is busy with him; for a miserable man makes more enemies than friends. Some faults he has fallen into, and a thousand misfortunes; but deep criminality is what he stands accused of, and they that are not without sin, cast the first stone at him! For is he not a well-wisher of the French revolution, a Jacobin, and therefore in that one act guilty of all? These accusations, political and moral, it has since appeared, were false enough; but the world hesitated little to credit them. Nay, his convivial Mécénases themselves were not the last to do it. There is reason to believe that, in his later years, the Dumfries aristocracy had partly withdrawn themselves from Burns, as from a tainted person, no longer worthy of their acquaintance. That painful class, stationed in all provincial cities, behind the outmost breastwork of gentility, there to stand siege and do battle against the intrusions of Grocerdom and Grazierdom, had actually seen dishonour in the society of Burns, and branded him with their veto: had, as we vulgarly say, *cut* him! We find one passage in this work of Mr Lockhart's, which will not out of our thoughts: 'A gentleman of that county, whose name I have already more than once had occasion to refer to, has often told me that he was seldom more grieved, than when riding into Dumfries one fine summer evening about this time to attend a county ball, he saw Burns walking alone, on the shady side of the principal street of the town, while the opposite side was gay with successive groups of gentlemen and ladies, all drawn together for the festivities of the night, not one of whom appeared willing to recognise him. The horseman dismounted, and joined Burns, who on his proposing to cross the street said: "Nay, nay, my young friend, that's all over now;" and quoted, after a pause, some verses of lady Grizzel Baillie's pathetic ballad:

“His bonnet stood ance fu' fair on his brow,
His auld ane look'd better than mony ane's new;
But now he lets't wear ony way it will hing,
And casts himsell dowie upon the corn-bing.

O were we young, as we ance hae been,
We sud hae been gallopping down on yon green,
And linking it over the lily-white lea!
And werena my heart light I wad die.”

It was little in Burns's character to let his feelings on certain subjects escape in this fashion. He, immediately after reciting these verses, assumed the sprightliness of his most pleasing manner; and taking his young friend home with him, entertained him very agreeably till the hour of the ball arrived.”

But we must hasten to the closing scene of the poet's life. He had been for some months confined by sickness, towards the close of the year 1795. In the month of January following, he imprudently exposed himself, and brought on a relapse, under the effects of which his constitution rapidly sunk. Sea-bathing for a while recruited him, and his friends began to flatter themselves with hopes of his recovery; but the hand of death was upon him; he was brought back to his own house under an accession of fever, and expired in three days thereafter, on the 21st of July, 1796.

The character of Burns, moral and literary, as a man and as a poet, has received very ample discussion and illustration, in the pages of Currie, Walker, Lockhart, Cunningham, and Hogg, who have all successively essayed the office of Burns's biographer, and that with great though of course unequal merit and success. We are inclined to think, however, with Mr Carlyle, that the real problem of Burns's biography, has not been adequately solved by any of these writers; that their biographies are deficient in a philosophical induction, from their own facts and documents, towards the true character of the man and bard. Mr Carlyle, as he was the first to point out the omission and defect, so he has also done the most to supply and rectify it, in that profound and highly original article of criticism, to which we have made such repeated reference in the course of our own brief notice. It is, indeed, to be regretted, that with such profound talents for the true exposition and analysis of character, he should choose to clothe his thoughts in so fuliginous a diction as that which pervades the article in question, though not quite to the same amount as in some of his other contributions to periodical criticism; nevertheless we refer our readers to the entire article, in full confidence that it will nobly repay an attentive perusal. With one further extract from it, we must conclude the present notice. “All that remains of Burns, the writings he has left, seem to us, as we hinted above, no more than a poor mutilated fraction of what was in him; brief, broken glimpses of a genius that could never show itself complete; that wanted all things for completeness: culture, leisure, true effort, nay, even length of life. His poems are, with scarcely any exception, mere occasional effusions, poured forth with little premeditation, expressing, by such means as offered, the passion, opinion, or humour of the hour. Never in one instance was it permitted him to grapple with any subject with the full collection of his strength, to fuse and mould it in the concentrated fire of his genius.

To try by the strict rules of art such imperfect fragments, would be at once unprofitable and unfair. Nevertheless, there is something in these poems, marred and defective as they are, which forbids the most fastidious student of poetry to pass them by. Some sort of enduring quality they must have: for, after fifty years of the wildest vicissitudes in poetic taste, they still continue to be read; nay, are read more and more eagerly, more and more extensively; and this not only by literary virtuosos, and that class upon whom transitory causes operate most strongly, but by all classes, down to the most hard, unlettered, and truly natural class, who read little, and especially no poetry, except because they find pleasure in it. The grounds of so singular and wide a popularity, which extends, in a literal sense, from the palace to the hut, and over all regions where the English tongue is spoken, are well worth inquiring into. After every just deduction, it seems to imply some rare excellence in these works. What is that excellence? To answer this question will not lead us far. The excellence of Burns is, indeed, among the rarest, whether in poetry or prose; but, at the same time, it is plain and easily recognised—his sincerity, his indisputable air of truth. Here are no fabulous woes or joys; no hollow fantastic sentimentalities; no wiredrawn refinings, either in thought or feeling: the passion that is traced before us has glowed in a living heart; the opinion he utters has risen in his own understanding, and been a light to his own steps. He does not write from hearsay, but from sight and experience; it is the scenes he has lived and laboured amidst that he describes: those scenes, rude and humble as they are, have kindled beautiful emotions in his soul, noble thoughts, and definite resolves; and he speaks forth what is in him, not from any outward call of vanity or interest, but because his heart is too full to be silent. He speaks it, too, with such melody and modulation as he can; ‘in homely rustic jingle;’ but it is his own, and genuine. This is the grand secret for finding readers and retaining them; let him who would move and convince others, be first moved and convinced himself. Horace’s rule, *Si vis me fere*, is applicable in a wider sense than the literal one. To every poet, to every writer, we might say: Be true, if you would be believed. Let a man but speak forth with genuine earnestness the thought, the emotion, the actual condition, of his own heart, and other men, so strangely are we all knit together by the tie of sympathy, must and will give heed to him. In culture, in extent of view, we may stand above the speaker, or below him; but in either case, his words, if they are earnest and sincere, will find some response within us; for in spite of all casual varieties in outward rank, or inward, as face answers to face, so does the heart of man to man.”

James Macpherson.

BORN A. D. 1738.—DIED A. D. 1796.

WHETHER it be true or not “that Fingal lived, and that Ossian sung,” the editor or author of the Ossianic poems deserves a high place in our literature; granting that these poems are, in respect of their claims to high antiquity, a gross deception; still it must be allowed,

that the man who could plan and execute such a deception in the style, and with the success it has been done in this instance, was no common man. If Scotland never possessed a bard called Ossian, who sung the deeds of Fingal in strains worthy of that hero's prowess, she has at least in Macpherson a bard of no ordinary gifts, who has proved himself "capable not only of making an enthusiastic impression on every mind susceptible of poetical beauty, but of giving a new tone to poetry throughout all Europe,"—for such, unquestionably, was the first result of the publication of those extraordinary poems. Though some sneered, and many doubted; yet many more were enraptured at the discovery of a new school of poetry, and hastened, by imitating its style and manner, to enrol themselves amongst its disciples.

James Macpherson was the son of a small Scottish farmer in the parish of Kingussie, Inverness-shire. He received the rudiments of education at one of the parish schools in the district of Badenoch, and completed it at King's college and Marischal college, Aberdeen. After leaving college he taught the parish school of Ruthven in Badenoch for a few years; but at the period of his first appearance as an editor of the fragments of the Gaelic muse, he filled the office of private tutor in Graham of Balgowan's family. Two years previous to his assuming the character of a literary antiquary, he had published a poem in six cantos, entitled 'The Highlander.' We have not seen this book, but it is described by a very competent critic as "a common-place tale, full of those descriptions of natural scenery which were impressed on Macpherson's mind by his residence in a romantic and mountainous country, and which few poets have either conceived so warmly or painted so well." It was in the year 1761 that Macpherson surprised the world by the publication of 'Fragments of Ancient Poetry, collected in the Highlands of Scotland, and translated from the Gaelic or Erse Language.' These fragments were exceedingly well-received, and a subscription was set on foot to enable the editor to continue his researches for similar relics of Gaelic literature. Thus aided and encouraged, Macpherson threw up his tutorship, and took a journey through the Highlands, in real or pretended search after the poetical remains of the native bards of former ages.

In 1762, he again presented the public with further relics of Gaelic poetry. His gift this time was nothing less than an entire epic on the deeds of Fingal, a Caledonian hero, contemporary with Caracalla, who was in Britain A. D. 208. The author of this epic was also announced to be Ossian, a son of the hero himself. The public received this work with equal raptures and equal credulity; and were rewarded for their faith and discernment, by the discovery and publication of another epic by the same ancient bard, called 'Temora,' and several minor pieces by the same hand. This volume was not quite so successful as its predecessor. The editor, emboldened by previous success, had become less careful of appearances, and adduced only an unsatisfactory array of authorities for the 'Temora.' In fact, the whole poem, with the exception perhaps of the death of Oscar, was the editor's own composition. Still there were not a few believers in the actual existence of the originals of all that Macpherson had given to the public in the character of an editor. Amongst others, Gray, the poet, Dr Blair, Edinburgh, Home, the author of 'Douglas,' and Dr Fergusson, were de-

ceived by the pretended evidence offered by Macpherson, who in the meantime went abroad as secretary to Governor Johnstone, then appointed to Pensacola. He returned to England in 1766; and in 1771 published a work entitled 'An Introduction to the History of Great Britain and Ireland,' which did not excite much attention. In 1773 he published a translation, in what may be called Ossianic prose, of the Iliad. This was an exceedingly unfortunate attempt, and drew upon him the ridicule of mostly all the existing literary journals.

Macpherson's literary mortifications were now commencing. In 1773 Johnson made his celebrated tour in Scotland and the Hebrides, in the course of which he made occasional inquiries after the sources whence Macpherson pretended to have drawn his poems. The result, whether dictated by prejudice or not, was decided, and expressed in the narrative of this tour, which Johnson gave to the public in 1775, in the following words: "I believe they (the poems of Ossian) never existed in any other form than that which we have seen. The editor or author never could show the original; nor can it be shown by any other. To revenge reasonable incredulity by refusing evidence, is a degree of insolence with which the world is not yet acquainted; and stubborn audacity is the last refuge of guilt." It will not be thought any evidence in Macpherson's favour that he attempted to answer this very decided opinion by bullying the Doctor. He addressed a menacing letter to Johnson, which the latter answered in the following terms: "Mr James Macpherson, I received your foolish and impudent letter. Any violence offered to me I shall do my best to repel; and what I cannot do for myself, the law shall do for me. I hope I shall never be deterred from detecting what I think a cheat, by the menaces of a ruffian. What would you have me retract? I thought your book an imposture; I think it an imposture still. For this opinion, I have given my reasons to the public, which I here dare you to refute. Your rage I defy. Your abilities, since your Homer, are not so formidable; and what I hear of your morals inclines me to pay regard not to what you shall say, but to what you shall prove. You may print this if you will. S. J."¹ Macpherson attempted not a reply to this indignant retort.

In 1775, however, he again appeared as an author, in a work entitled, 'The History of Great Britain, from the Restoration to the Accession of the House of Hanover.' He also wrote two or three political pamphlets in support of ministers, during the American crisis; and was appointed British agent to the nabob of Arcot. The latter appointment was a highly lucrative one. He obtained, in connexion with it, a seat in parliament in 1780, but he never attempted to speak in the house. He died at his seat of Belville, near Inverness, on the 17th of February, 1796. His body, at his own request, was carried to Westminster, and buried in Poet's corner. He left £1000 to defray the expense of a publication of the originals of his Gaelic translations. This was executed under the sanction of the Highland Society of London, in 1807; but let it be remembered that all the manuscripts are in Macpherson's own hand-writing, and therefore are not entitled to be taken in evidence.

The reader who is curious to enter into the full merits of the Ossi-

¹ Boswell.

anic controversy, may consult Dr Blair's Dissertation,—the Report of the Highland Society, London: 1805,—Dr Graham's Essay, Edinburgh: 1807,—and the 2d chapter of Dr Brown's 'History of the Highlands and Highland Clans,' vol. i. Glasgow: 1834,—for the arguments on behalf of the authenticity of these poems; and on the counter-side, Laing's edition of the poems of Ossian, Edinburgh: 1805,—Johnson's Tour,—and a very able and impartial critique in the 6th volume of the Edinburgh Review, from which we make the following extract.

“It is remarkable that the arguments produced for the poems of Ossian, have all reference to Macpherson's first publication, in which, doubtless, he thought it necessary to preserve a certain degree of caution, and to give as much authenticity to his poems as he could, consistently with his plan of kneading them into a cake of the right leaven for the sentimental and refined critics, whom it was his object to fascinate. Every tradition or morsel of ancient poetry which he could pick up, seems to have been carefully inserted in what seemed to be an advantageous and even prominent place; so that each piece was sure to recal to the Highlander some traditionary fact or legendary story with which he was well-acquainted, and which, perhaps, few were displeased to recognise in a garb so different from its native and rude dress, as to interest the admirers of poetry through all Europe. The weaving a web in which truth and falsehood should be warped and blended together in inseparable union, was too material an object for Macpherson to neglect any means to accomplish it. We should, therefore, even without the very respectable testimonies which have been brought forward by the Highland Society, have been most willing to believe that he made every exertion in his power to collect the remnants of legendary tales relating to the Fions, simply because it was his obvious interest to do so, if he meant to carry on his intended imposture with the least prospect of success. We also have no doubt that he was able to recover manuscripts perhaps of some antiquity, containing copies of the ballads, which he afterwards wrought up into epic poems. Nay, we are willing to go a good deal further, and to allow that Macpherson may have collected and used many original poems now lost. Indeed, as is well-stated by Mr Mackenzie, much difficulty must have arisen in the course of the Committee's investigation, ‘from the change of manners in the Highlands, where the habits of industry have now superseded the amusement of listening to the legendary narrative, or heroic ballad; where, consequently, the faculty of remembering, and the exercise of repeating such tales and songs, are altogether in disuse, or only retained by a very few persons of extremely advanced age, or feeble health.’ But still the great question remains to be solved,—Did Macpherson's translation of these poems, however numerous, correspond to the tone and spirit of the original; or were the expressions, the sentiment, the description in the greater part of them, his own; the story and the names alone adopted from the Gaelic?

On this point, we cannot help thinking that Mr Laing ought to have printed with the Ossian of Macpherson, the ballads on which it is in part founded, and which are also referred to, both by individuals in the Highlands, and by the Committee themselves, as forming some of his originals. We have endeavoured to supply this deficiency, by giving

extracts from them in the course of our investigation ; and, considering that much allowance ought to be made for the debased state of poetry preserved by oral tradition, we have endeavoured to select the most poetical passages. Still, however, the reader must have observed a prodigious and irreconcilable difference betwixt the Ossian of Macpherson and such of those ballads as come forward altogether unsophisticated. The latter agree in every respect with the idea we have always entertained of the poetry of a rude people. Their style is unequal ; sometimes tame and flat ; sometimes turgid and highly periphrastic ; sometimes they rise into savage energy, and sometimes melt into natural tenderness. The subject of most is the battle or the chase : Love, when introduced, is the love of a savage state. Ossian comes to the dwelling of Branno of silver cups, and demands his daughter in marriage : she is betrothed, without being consulted, and gives her hand to Ossian, whom she had then seen for the first time. In manners, the heroes are as rough as the ladies are frank and condescending. The wrangling which pervades their counsels, the jealousies betwixt Fingal and Gaul, are peculiar to a savage tribe ; since the latter (we grieve to speak it) did not hesitate to knock the tuneful Carril upon the head for disputing with him the property of a beef steak dressed with onion sauce ; (Appendix to the Report, No. XXII.) It is surely unnecessary to contrast these barbarous chiefs with the followers of Macpherson's Fingal : there, all is elegance, refinement, and sensibility ; they never take arms, but to protect the feeble, or to relieve beauty in distress ; they never injure their prisoners, nor insult the fallen : and as to Fingal himself, he has all the strength and bravery of Achilles, with the courtesy, sentiment, and high-breeding of Sir Charles Grandison. But this difference is neither the most striking nor the most indelible mark of Macpherson's manufacture. He has not only refined and polished the manners of his heroes, but he has added to the tales a system of mythology, and a train of picturesque description and sentimental effusion, of which there is not the least trace in any Gaelic originals, saving those of Smith and Kennedy. The ghosts, which are the eternally recurring subject of simile and of description, we cannot trace in any Gaelic ballads. Macpherson was probably puzzled about his mythology, which the critics of that time thought essential to an epic poem. Christianity was out of the question, since it must have brought his heroes to a later period than was convenient ; and it being a matter of great risk to imitate George Psalmanazaar, by inventing for the Fenii a new system of supernatural belief, he was forced to confine himself to the vulgar superstition concerning the spirits of the departed, common to the Highlanders with the ignorant in all nations, and which, if it promised nothing very new or striking, had the advantage of not exposing him to detection. The translator of Fingal seems indeed to have resolved, with the steward in Gay's 'What-d'ye-call-it,' that the reader should not only have ghosts, but a plurality of them ; and, though attended with great effect on some particular occasions, the frequent and useless appearance of these impotent phantoms, impresses us rather with contempt, than with fear and reverence. The situation of Ossian himself is another circumstance which Mr Macpherson has heightened and improved, so as to produce much poetical effect. In the genuine poems, indeed, he often alludes to his age ; but the frequent

and pathetic reflections—those effusions of sentiment, sometimes beautiful, and sometimes bombastic, are only to be found in Macpherson's version. In the original, the Wooing of Evirallin is addressed to a young woman who had refused Ossian a drink, unless on certain conditions, which the aged bard was incapable of accepting. She then applied to him the contemptuous epithet of old dog. 'He is a dog,' answered the bard, 'who is not compliant; I tell you, wanton girl, I was once valiant in battle, though I am now worn out with years. When we went to the lovely Evir of the shining hair,' &c. This is, by Macpherson, thus happily altered and applied to Malvina, the widow of Oscar; 'a fictitious personage,' says Mr Laing, 'for whom there is no foundation even in tradition.' 'Daughter of the hand of snow, I was not so mournful and blind, I was not so dark and forlorn, when Evirallin loved me; Evirallin with the dark brown hair, the white-bosomed daughter of Branno.'

"We would not wish the Gaël to misunderstand us. We do not affirm that their ancestors were incapable of generous or kindly feelings; nor do we insist that their poetry, to be authentic, should be devoid of occasional sublimity, or even elegance. We only say, that the character of all rude poetry, whether in diction or sentiment, is inequality; that bursts of generosity, flowing from the feeling of the moment, and not from the fixed principles acquired in a civilized society, will always be attended by an equally capricious and irregular exertion of the angry passions. We believe it is Byron who mentions, that an Indian, who had just saved his life, was going, an hour after, to murder him for throwing away a mussel shell. The passions and feelings of men in a savage state, are as desultory as their habits of life; and a model of perfect generosity and virtue, would be as great a wonder amongst them, as a fine gentleman in a birth-day suit. Neither is it a sufficient answer, that Ossian may have exaggerated the virtues of his countrymen, as is ingeniously urged in the Report, p. 150. Ossian, however gentle or generous his natural disposition, can hardly be supposed to have formed for his countrymen an ideal standard of perfection, depending on a refinement drawn from the internal resources of his own mind, and inconsistent with all he witnessed around him. We might also have expected to have met with some peculiarities respecting the manners of the ancient Celts, in genuine poems of the length of Macpherson's. But, alas, what hints of this kind occurred in the original ballads or legends, were rejected by the fastidious delicacy of their translator; and what is substituted in their place is obviously drawn from sacred or classical poetry. Thus, the daughters of Morven mourned for Lorma one day in the year, as the daughters of Israel mourned yearly four days for the victim of Jephthah's vow; and, we fear, no better authority than the fables concerning the passage of the Styx will be found for the ghosts hovering on the Lake of Lego, until the song of the bards had dismissed them to the winds. 'The honour of the spear' is also mentioned and explained as a tournament, when the natives of Argyleshire were strangers to the use of horses, except for draught, as the rest of Europe were to the tourney, which certainly was not introduced before the 10th century."

Sir William Chambers.

BORN A. D. 1726.—DIED A. D. 1796.

THIS architect was descended of the ancient Scottish family of Chalmers, barons of Tartas in France. His grandfather, a Scottish merchant, suffered considerably in his fortune by supplying Charles XII. of Sweden with military stores and money, which that monarch repaid in the adulterated coin his necessities compelled him to issue. Sir William's father went over to Sweden to endeavour to recover a portion of the family property; his family accompanied him, and the subject of this article was born at Stockholm, about the year 1726.

His father returned to England in 1728, and at a proper age sent him to school at Rippon, in Yorkshire. At the age of sixteen he was sent as a supercargo to Canton, in a ship belonging to the Swedish East India company. "These," says Allan Cunningham, "were certainly tender years for situations of mercantile trust and adventure, and the fact implies the appearance of early talents and prudence. It seems too that the boy—for such we must at these years regard him—extended his views beyond merchandise: on reaching Canton he saw and admired the picturesque buildings and gardens of the Chinese, and having acquired some skill in drawing at school, made as many sketches as sufficed for a little publication on his return home. These engravings, though recommended by the skilful hands of Grignion and Rooker, were sharply censured by the critics, and the taste of Chambers was questioned and assailed; there was more zeal than discretion in all this; for surely whoever widens the sphere of knowledge, and makes us acquainted with the taste or the scientific skill of a distant nation, is, more or less, our benefactor. At the age of eighteen, and after he had made one voyage to the east, says one of his biographers, he abandoned all commercial pursuits: another, with more probability, gives him the advantage of two visits to China, and continues his connection with the sea till his twenty-second year; but neither of them says any thing of his early architectural studies; and we are left to imagine that he acquired his knowledge in his own way. It is curious to observe the blossoms of the tree transforming into fruit; and it is still more curious and instructive to watch the human mind rough-shaping its own purposes; the stripling, who built houses of snow and fortifications of sand, rising into an architect, and working in more stable materials."

Abandoning, however, commercial pursuits, he followed, says Hardwicke, "the natural bent of his genius, and travelled into Italy—for the purpose of studying the science of architecture, not only by measuring and drawing the invaluable remains of antiquity, but likewise those admirable productions of the revivors of the arts which distinguished the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries. He carefully examined and studied, with unwearied application, the works of Michael Angelo, Sangallo, Palladio, Scamozzi, Vignola, Peruzzi, Sanmichele, Bernini, and other Italian architects, whose designs were in general guided by the rules of the ancients, but whose extraordinary talents, exalting them above the character of mere imitators, produced an originality in their composi-

tions that fully established their fame, and pointed them out as the fittest models for succeeding artists. Mr Chambers knew how to distinguish and to combine all the excellencies of those great men, and his intuitive good taste and sound judgment led him also to examine into the merits of those French architects, whose productions have since been so much esteemed and applauded, among whom Claude Perrault and Jules Mansard held the most distinguished rank. At Paris he studied under the celebrated Clerisseau, and acquired from him a freedom of pencil in which few excelled him."

On his return to England, he was fortunate enough to obtain the patronage of Lord Bute, who introduced him as architectural drawing-master to the heir-apparent. His first work was a villa for Lord Besborough at Rochampton in Surrey, the portico in particular of which was greatly admired.

In 1759, he published a treatise on civil architecture. Such a work was eminently a desideratum in English literature, and, being ably executed, was received with great favour. In 1765, he published an account of his improvements on the Royal gardens at Kew, which did less for his reputation than the preceding work. These improvements were in the Chinese style, and consequently little adapted to English tastes and gardening. The king of Sweden, however, was graciously pleased to confer on him the order of the Polar star in return for a present of the finished drawings of the gardens.

In 1772, Sir William published a 'Dissertation,' the object of which was to recommend the oriental style of gardening to the taste of the British public. In his introduction Sir William was pleased to handle Capability Brown, as he was called—a man of infinitely greater taste in landscape-gardening—very rudely. Brown did not retaliate himself; but was amply revenged by the appearance of an 'Heroic Epistle' addressed to his rival, and now known to have been the conjunct work of Horace Walpole, and Mason the poet. It commences thus :—

" Knight of the Polar Star, by fortune placed
To shine the cynosure of British taste;
Whose orb collects in one refulgent view
The scatter'd glories of Chinese virtù;
And spreads their lustre in so broad a blaze,
That kings themselves are dazzled while they gaze!
O let the muse attend thy march sublime,
And with thy prose caparison her rhyme;
Teach her, like thee, to gild her splendid song
With scenes of Yuen-Ming, and sayings of Li-Tsong."

It must be acknowledged, says Mr Cunningham, that the lofty and cumbrous language of Sir William's Dissertation is imitated with much skill in the Epistle, and that the poet has aptly caparisoned his rhyme from the turgid sentences of the architect. "In their lofty woods," says Chambers, "serpents and lizards, of many beautiful sorts, crawl upon the ground, and innumerable monkeys, cats, and parrots clamber upon the trees. In their lakes are many islands, some small, some large,—amongst which are seen stalking along, the elephant, the rhinoceros, the dromedary, the ostrich, and the giant baboon. They keep in these enchanted scenes a surprising variety of monstrous birds, reptiles, and animals, which are tamed by art, and guarded by enormous

dogs of Tibet, and African giants in the habits of magicians. Sometimes in this romantic excursion the passenger finds himself in extensive recesses, surrounded with harbours of jessamine, vines, and roses; where beauteous Tartarean damsels, in loose transparent robes that flutter in the air, present him with rich wines, and invite him to taste the sweets of retirement on Persian carpets and beds of Camusakiu down." This passage is thus imitated by the authors of the 'Heroic Epistle':

"Nor rest we here, but at our magic call
 Monkeys shall climb our trees, and lizards crawl;
 Huge dogs of Tibet bark in yonder grove,
 Here parrots prate, there cats make cruel love;
 In some fair island will we turn to grass,
 With the queen's leave, her elephant and ass;
 Giants from Africa shall guard the glades
 Where hiss our snakes, and sport our Tartar maids;
 Or, wanting these, from Charlotte Hayes we bring
 Damsels alike adroit to sport and sting."

Sir William had much of the fashionable business of the day. Under Burke's reform, he was appointed surveyor-general. His chef d'œuvres are his stair-cases, particularly those at Lord Besborough's, Lord Gower's, and the Royal and Antiquarian societies. His designs for interior arrangements are also excellent. The terrace behind Somerset house is a very bold and successful conception.

He died on the 8th of March, 1796.

Thomas Reid.

BORN A. D. 1710.—DIED A. D. 1796.

THIS eminent metaphysician was the son of a clergyman in the north of Scotland. He received the rudiments of education at the parish school of Kincardine, and at the early age of twelve was sent to the Marischal college of Aberdeen. At college he particularly distinguished himself in mathematics. Having attended the divinity hall he received license to preach; but being nominated to the office of librarian, he did not enter the church immediately. While holding this office he occasionally taught the mathematical classes for his friend Mr John Stewart.

In 1737 he was presented to the living of New Machar in the neighbourhood of Aberdeen, where he at first experienced the most violent opposition from his parishioners, although he ultimately succeeded in completely possessing himself of their esteem and affections. "We fought against Mr Reid when he came," said some of them to his successor, "and we would have fought for him when he went away."

He resigned his pastoral charge on being appointed, in 1752, professor of philosophy in King's college, Aberdeen. Previous to his appointment he had published a very acute paper in the 'Philosophical Transactions' for 1748, entitled, 'An Essay on Quantity, occasioned by reading a Treatise in which simple and compound ratios are applied to Virtue and Merit.' The treatise alluded to was Hutcheson's 'Enquiry into the Origin of our ideas of Beauty and Virtue,' in which that philoso-

pher had absurdly attempted to subject the degrees of merit to mathematical laws. In 1764 Mr Reid gave to the world his celebrated 'Inquiry into the Human Mind, on the Principles of Common Sense.' It excited a great deal of opposition from the disciples of the old school of metaphysics; but procured for him the moral philosophy chair in the university of Glasgow, on the resignation of Smith, in 1765. In the active discharge of the duties of this chair, Dr Reid employed himself till the year 1781, when he withdrew from the labour of public teaching, and devoted his attention to the preparing his manuscript for the press. In 1785 he published his 'Essays on the Intellectual Powers;' and in 1788, completed his system of philosophy by the publication of his 'Essays on the Active Powers.'

After this period Dr Reid occasionally amused himself with the composition of an essay for a philosophical society of which he was a member. His last effort of this kind was entitled 'Physiological Reflections on Muscular Matter.' This paper was written in his 86th year, and betrays no indications of senility. Dr Reid died on the 7th of October, 1796.

Dr Reid's great achievement as a mental philosopher, is his subversion of the ideal system, or that hypothesis which represents the immediate objects of perception to be certain images or pictures of external objects conveyed by the senses to the sensorium. The process of reasoning by which he was led to call in question this long-established theory is very fully delineated by his able biographer Mr Stewart, from which we extract the following passage: "In his 'Essays on the Intellectual Powers,' he acknowledges that in his youth he had, without examination, admitted the established opinions on which Mr Hume's system of scepticism was raised; and that it was the consequences which these opinions seemed to involve, which roused his suspicions concerning their truth. 'If I may presume,' says he, 'to speak my own sentiments, I once believed the doctrine of ideas so firmly, as to embrace the whole of Berkeley's system along with it; till finding other consequences to follow from it, which gave me more uneasiness than the want of a material world, it came into my mind, more than forty years ago, to put the question, What evidence have I for this doctrine, that all the objects of my knowledge are ideas in my own mind? From that time to the present, I have been candidly and impartially, as I think, seeking for the evidence of this principle; but can find none, excepting the authority of philosophers.' In following the train of Dr Reid's researches, this last extract merits attention; as it contains an explicit avowal, on his own part, that at one period of his life, he had been led, by Berkeley's reasonings, to abandon the belief of the existence of matter. The avowal does honour to his candour, and the fact reflects no discredit on his sagacity. The truth is, that this article of the Berkleian system, however contrary to the conclusions of a sounder philosophy, was the error of no common mind. Considered in contrast with that theory of materialism, which the excellent author was anxious to supplant, it possessed important advantages, not only in its tendency, but in its scientific consistency, and it afforded a proof, wherever it met with a favourable reception, of an understanding superior to those casual associations which, in the apprehensions of most men, blend indissolubly the phenomena of thought with the objects of

external perception. It is recorded as a saying of Mr Turgot, (whose philosophical opinions in some important points approached very nearly to those of Dr Reid,) that 'he who had never doubted of the existence of matter, might be assured he had no turn for metaphysical disquisitions.' The importance which he assigned to this part of his speculations, and the singular modesty and candour with which he continued to speak of his own achievements, after he had in a great measure effected a complete revolution in this branch of philosophy, may be discovered in the following passage of a letter to Dr Gregory, in 1790. "It would be want of candour not to own, that I think there is some merit in what you are pleased to call my philosophy; but I think it lies chiefly in having called in question the common theory of ideas or images of things in the mind being the only objects of thought; a theory founded on natural prejudices, and so universally received as to be interwoven with the structure of language. Yet were I to give you a detail of what led me to call in question this theory, after I had long held it as self-evident and unquestionable, you would think, as I do, that there was much of chance in the matter. The discovery was the birth of time, not of genius; and Berkeley and Hume did more to bring it to light than the man that lit upon it. I think there is hardly any thing that can be called mine in the philosophy of the mind, which does not follow with ease from the detection of this prejudice. I must therefore beg of you, most earnestly, to make no contrast in my favour to the disparagement of my predecessors in the same pursuit. I can truly say of them, and shall always avow, what you are pleased to say of me, that but for the assistance I have received from their writings, I never could have wrote or thought what I have done."

The most prominent features of Dr Reid's character, says his biographer, "were,—intrepid and inflexible rectitude;—a pure and devoted attachment to truth;—and an entire command (acquired by the unwearied exertions of a long life) over all his passions. Hence, in those parts of his writings where his subject forces him to dispute the conclusions of others, a scrupulous rejection of every expression calculated to irritate those whom he was anxious to convince, and a spirit of liberality and good-humour towards his opponents, from which no asperity on their part could provoke him, for a moment, to deviate. In private life no man ever maintained more eminently or more uniformly, the dignity of philosophy, combining with the most amiable modesty and gentleness, the noblest spirit of independence. The only preferments which he ever enjoyed, he owed to the unsolicited favour of the two learned bodies who successively adopted him into their number; and the respectable rank which he supported in society, was the well-earned reward of his own academical labours. The studies in which he delighted, were little calculated to draw on him the patronage of the great; and he was unskilled in the art of courting advancement, by 'fashioning his doctrines to the varying hour.' As a philosopher, his genius was more peculiarly characterized by a sound, cautious, distinguishing judgment; by a singular patience and perseverance of thought; and by habits of the most fixed and concentrated attention to his own mental operations;—endowments which, although not the most splendid in the estimation of the multitude, would seem entitled, from the history of science, to rank among the rarest gifts of the mind.

With these habits and powers, he united (what does not always accompany them) the curiosity of a naturalist, and the eye of an observer; and, accordingly, his information about every thing relating to physical science, and to the useful arts, was extensive and accurate. His memory for historical details was not so remarkable; and he used sometimes to regret the imperfect degree in which he possessed this faculty. I am inclined however to think, that in doing so, he underrated his natural advantages; estimating the strength of memory, as men commonly do, rather by the recollection of particular facts, than by the possession of those general conclusions, from a subserviency to which such facts derive their principal value. Towards the close of life, indeed, his memory was much less vigorous than the other powers of his intellect; in none of which could I ever perceive any symptom of decline. His ardour for knowledge too remained unextinguished to the last; and when cherished by the society of the young and inquisitive, seemed even to increase with his years. What is still more remarkable, he retained, in extreme old age, all the sympathetic tenderness, and all the moral sensibility of youth; the liveliness of his emotions, wherever the happiness of others was concerned, forming an affecting contrast to his own unconquerable firmness under the severest trials. Nor was the sensibility which he retained, the selfish and sterile offspring of taste and indolence. It was alive and active wherever he could command the means of relieving the distresses, or of adding to the comforts of others; and was often felt in its effects, where he was unseen and unknown.—Among the various proofs of this, which have happened to fall under my own knowledge, I cannot help mentioning particularly (upon the most unquestionable authority) the secrecy with which he conveyed his occasional benefactions to his former parishioners at New Machar, long after his establishment at Glasgow. One donation, in particular, during the scarcity in 1782,—a donation which, notwithstanding all his precautions, was distinctly traced to his beneficence,—might perhaps have been thought disproportionate to his limited income, had not his own simple and moderate habits multiplied the resources of his humanity.”

Mary Wollstonecraft.

BORN A. D. 1759.—DIED A. D. 1797.

MARY, daughter of Edward-John and Elizabeth Wollstonecraft, was born on the 27th of April, 1759. Her mother was of the family of the Dixons of Ballyshannon in Ireland, her paternal grandfather a manufacturer in Spitalfields, from whom her father is supposed to have inherited property to a considerable amount. Mr Wollstonecraft's family consisted of six children, (three sons and three daughters,) of whom Mary was the second. It does not appear that Mr Wollstonecraft (who near the period of his daughter's birth occupied a farm on Epping Forest) was brought up to any profession. Nor is it certain whether the subject of our narration received her existence in London or on the Forest, where the first five years of her life were principally spent. She gave early indications of those strong feelings and vigo-

rous powers of mind which led to the subsequent incidents and exertions of an eventful life. It is possible that the restraint which she is said to have experienced, and the severity under which she occasionally suffered from the irascible and capricious temper of her father, might tend to rouse that indignant impatience of injustice and oppression which formed a distinguishing feature of her maturer character.

In 1768 her father removed from the Forest to a farm near Beverley in Yorkshire, where he resided with his family for six years. During this interval his daughter occasionally frequented a day-school in the neighbourhood. From Beverley Mr Wollstonecraft repaired to a house in Queen's Row, Hoxton, near London, with a view of engaging in commerce. Mary Wollstonecraft had now entered her sixteenth year. About this period she became acquainted with a Mr Clare, a near neighbour, a clergyman, a man of taste, and a humorist, to whom she was indebted for encouragement and assistance in the cultivation of her mind, and at whose house she frequently passed days and weeks. By the wife of Mr Clare she was introduced to a young person of her own sex, Frances Blood, who resided in the village of Newington, and for whom, on their first interview, she conceived a friendship that partook of all the fervour of her character. Frances Blood, two years older than her friend, is described as having been an accomplished and exemplary young woman; an affectionate intercourse and correspondence succeeded between them, in which the aspiring temper of the younger was roused to emulation by the superior attainments of the elder, who undertook to be her instructor, and whose lessons were received with grateful delight.

In 1783 Mary Wollstonecraft, who had now entered her twenty-fourth year, in conjunction with her friend Frances, and sisters, formed and executed a plan for the opening of a day-school in the village of Islington: from Islington they thought proper, in the course of a few months, to transfer their residence to Newington-Green. The health of her friend, Frances Blood,—whose character, though amiable, was timid and feeble,—now began to decline; disappointment and indulged grief had impaired her constitution, and symptoms of a consumption appeared for which she was advised to try the effects of a southern climate. In the beginning of the year 1785 she accordingly set sail for Lisbon, having previously suffered herself to be prevailed upon to accept, on her arrival, the hand of a gentleman who had for some time past paid his addresses to her. The affectionate solicitude of Mary Wollstonecraft induced her to quit for a time her school, and to subject herself to various inconveniences, for the purpose of passing over to Portugal, to administer aid and consolation to her friend; but a short period before her arrival at Lisbon, the lady in question was prematurely delivered,—a crisis which proved fatal both to the mother and child.

In 1785 she, for the first time, appeared as an authoress, in a duodecimo pamphlet, entitled 'Thoughts on the Education of Daughters,' for the copy-right of which she obtained ten guineas from Mr Johnson, bookseller in St Paul's church-yard. Disgusted with the disappointments that had attended her project of public tuition, she now determined to resign her school, and accept a proposal made to her of residing in the family of Lord-viscount Kingsborough, in the capacity of

private governess to his daughters. In the summer of 1787, she repaired with Lord Kingsborough and his daughters to Bristol, whence they had projected a tour to the continent; this purpose was soon afterwards relinquished, and Mary closed her engagements with the family. At Bristol, the small volume entitled 'Mary, a Fiction,' was composed, in which is delineated, under fictitious circumstances, a glowing picture of the writer's peculiar sentiments and character, as connected more especially with her affection for her deceased friend, Frances Blood.

Having quitted Bristol and arrived at the metropolis, she commenced, with avidity, her literary career. Her novel, which had not yet passed the press, she prepared for publication, and made some progress towards an Oriental tale, 'The Cave of Fancy,' which was afterwards relinquished. At this period she also produced a little work, 'Original Stories from Real Life,' for the use of children. From the suggestion of her publisher, she applied herself to the acquisition of the French, Italian, and German languages, with a view of qualifying herself for translation; and, in pursuance of this plan, translated in part, 'The New Robinson,' from the French, in which, however, before its conclusion, she was anticipated. She also abridged and altered 'Young Grandison,' from the Dutch; and compiled, on the model of Dr Enfield's Speaker, 'The Female Reader.' In the Analytical Review, instituted by Mr Johnson in the middle of the year 1788, Mary Wollstonecraft was induced to take a considerable share; she also employed herself in translating from the French a work by M. Necker, on the importance of religious opinions; she abridged from the same language Lavater's Physiognomy; and compressed Salzmann's 'Elements of Morality,' a German production, into a publication in three volumes duodecimo, which produced a correspondence between herself and the author, who, in a subsequent period, returned the compliment, by translating into German the 'Vindication of the Rights of Woman.' These miscellaneous avocations comprehended a period of three years, from the autumn of 1787 to the autumn of 1790. In the intervals of her engagements, she enjoyed and profited by the literary society in which she occasionally mingled under the hospitable roof of her friend Johnson. Among others may be mentioned, as men whose friendship she held in high estimation, Mr George Anderson, accountant to the board of control; Mr Bonnycastle, the mathematician; Mr Fuseli, the painter; and Dr George Fordyce.

The literary exertions of Mary Wollstonecraft, though productive of some pecuniary emolument, had not yet been of a nature to obtain public distinction; her progress had been silent and unambitious; the period, says her enthusiastic biographer, had now arrived, when her daring genius asserted its powers and assumed its prerogatives. The publication of Burke's 'Reflections on the French Revolution,' in November 1790, stimulated into action Mary's newly acquired political ardour; she hastened to answer that brilliant work, and in a strain of impetuous reasoning and eloquent indignation, combated the arguments of this great champion of establishments. Accustomed to rapid composition, hers appeared foremost of the numerous answers provoked by this extraordinary production, and was received with considerable applause by the public.

A just confidence in her own talents, increased probably by the suc-

cess of this publication, now induced her to essay her strength on a subject that affected her still more,—a subject on which she had oft and deeply meditated,—a ‘Vindication of the Rights of Woman.’ “In the cause of half the human race,” says her biographer, “she stood forth, deprecating and exposing, in a tone of impassioned eloquence, the various means and arts by which women had been forcibly subjugated, flattered into imbecility, and invariably held in bondage. Dissecting the opinions, and commenting upon the precepts of those writers who, having expressly considered the condition of the female sex, had suggested means for its improvement, she endeavours with force and acuteness to convict them of narrow views, voluptuous prejudices, contradictory principles, and selfish though impolitic ends. It is but justice to add, that the principles of this celebrated work are to be found in Catherine Macauley’s Treatise on Education.”

In the close of the year 1792 Mary Wollstonecraft quitted England on a tour to France, with a view, as she expressed herself to a friend on the eve of her departure, “to lose in public happiness the sense of private misery.” She proposed only an excursion of a few weeks, but protracted her stay in Paris for more than two years. Four months after her arrival in Paris, she commenced an acquaintance with a Mr Gilbert Imlay, a native of North America, which, “without the forms,” says her biographer, “had with her all the sanctity and devotedness of a matrimonial engagement!” We pass over the narrative of this extraordinary connexion in silence. Suffice it to say, it proved as miserable for both parties as might have been anticipated. Imlay soon formed another attachment, and poor Mary, in the depth of her wretchedness, attempted to commit suicide.

In the beginning of April 1796, Mrs Wollstonecraft, as her apologist now calls her, removed to lodgings at Pentonville, in the neighbourhood of Someton, in which resided Mr Godwin, the celebrated author of ‘Caleb Williams.’ Mr Godwin had casually met Mrs Wollstonecraft in a mixed company, previously to her excursion to the continent, when, from some difference in their principles, they parted with impressions mutually unfavourable. Their acquaintance was now renewed in more favourable circumstances, and terminated in Mrs Wollstonecraft becoming Mrs Godwin. A production in which she had for some time been engaged, was now announced to the public under the title of ‘The Wrongs of Woman,’ being designed to exemplify those evils—as she regarded them—arising out of the laws and customs of civil institutions, more peculiarly appropriate to her sex. She had likewise planned a series of letters on the management of infants, to be subjected to the revision of a medical friend, the introductory letter of which has appeared in her posthumous works: also a series of books for the instruction of children, a fragment of which, found among her papers, has been since published.

In the midst of these schemes and employments, Mrs Godwin was cut off in child-bed, on the 10th of September, 1797. Her remains were interred in the church-yard of St Pancras, Middlesex, where a plain monument is erected to her memory, bearing the following inscription:—“Mary Wollstonecraft Godwin, author of ‘A Vindication of the Rights of Woman.’ Born 27th April, 1759, died 10th September, 1797.”

In estimating the character of this singular woman, we freely concede

to her eulogist, that the powers and resources of her mind, amidst the disadvantages of her sex and station, bespeak talents of the highest order; that her conceptions were bold and original; and that she manifested great freedom of thinking and courage in stemming popular opinions. It does not appear that she was acquainted with any science, or pretended to learning in its appropriate sense; her knowledge of the French language had been incidentally acquired for colloquial purposes, and the business of translation; with the latter view, she had also applied herself to the German. Confiding in the strength of her faculties, and the richness of her imagination, she paid but little attention, even in her native language, to grammatical propriety,—an error of which, in the latter periods of her life, she became fully sensible. Her person was above the middle height, and well-proportioned; her form full; her hair and eyes brown; her features pleasing; her countenance changing and impressive; her voice soft, and though without great compass, capable of modulation.¹

Richard Farmer, D. D.

BORN A. D. 1735.—DIED A. D. 1797.

RICHARD FARMER was born at Leicester in the year 1735. His early education he received at Leicester, under Mr Andrews, and left it with the character of being estimable for temper and talents. He entered, when of proper age, a pensioner at Emanuel college, Cambridge, when Dr Richardson was master; his tutors were Mr Bickham and Mr Hubbard. Dr Richardson was a good-humoured man, warmly attached to tory principles, and no less strict in the minutiae of college discipline. It was matter of triumph to him to have been present, when a boy, at the trial of Sacheverell; and so rigid a disciplinarian was he, as to punish the wearing of a neckcloth—which at that time was deemed unacademical—instead of a stock, with the same strictness as a deviation from moral rectitude. On this view of Richardson's character a wag wrote a copy of verses, closing with these lines,

A crime like this all human nature shocks,—
He wore large neckcloths in the room of stocks!

The same strictness was preserved by Richardson, when Dr Jebb introduced a Grace into the senate-house for public examination. Dr Jebb was a zealous whig, and his grace, in the judgment of Richardson, carried the appearance of dangerous innovation. Dr Richardson at the same time was old and feeble; but he chose to be carried to the senate-house: and when his shrill voice, on giving his vote, could scarcely be heard, he cried out to one of the masters, inquiring whose voice it was, "It was I, master, it was I; I came to save the university!" Dr Richardson was author of a folio volume written in Latin, on the prelates of England.

Dr Farmer, while an under-graduate, was neither distinguished for any gross vices nor for any extraordinary qualities. He was, however,

¹ Abridged from an anonymous memoir.

known to be a man of reading, distinguished rather for sprightly parts than profound speculations, and much esteemed in the circle of his friends. His bachelor of arts degree he took in the year 1757, and ranked as what is called a senior optime; he was of the same year with Dr Waring and Dr Jebb, the two first men of the year. The degree, though an inconsiderable one, and particularly so in 1757, procured him notice in the college, and he contested the silver cup given at Emanuel college to the best graduate of the year, with Mr Sawbridge, brother to the alderman of that name, but was unsuccessful.

In 1760 he took his master of arts degree, and succeeded, as classical tutor, to Mr Bickham, who went off to the valuable living of Loughborough in Leicestershire, in the gift of Emanuel college. The first books that he lectured in were Euclid's Elements, Aristophanes, Tully's Offices, the Amphitryon of Plautus, and Hurd's Horace. In later periods he lectured in Quintilian, Grotius de Veritate Religionis Christianæ, and the Greek Testament. In discharge of the part of his office more immediately classical, Dr Farmer was entitled to considerable respect. He was a good scholar. But theology and mathematics were not his favourite studies. He did not give lectures in Euclid many years, but in Grotius and the Greek Testament he continued to lecture till he resigned the tuition. In the year 1767 he took the degree of bachelor in divinity. About this time he was appointed one of the preachers of Whitehall; an engagement that required him to be in London a certain number of months in the year, a situation favourable to one now becoming a collector of books. Farmer, though his expenses at that time were few, was as yet possessed of but a limited income, and now more particularly occupied his time in reading our old English authors. In a course of years, indeed, he collected many valuable books, and as his income increased, he could occasionally gratify a more expensive taste; but, generally speaking, he was as often seen at the end of an old book stall, as in the splendid shops of more respectable booksellers, and the sixpence a-piece books were to him sometimes of more value than a Baskerville classic, or a volume printed at Strawberry-Hill. In this way he gradually got together an immense number of books, good, bad, and indifferent, which at length sold for more than £2000. In the year 1766 he published the first edition of his valuable Essay on the learning of Shakspeare, addressed to Joseph Cradock, Esq., of Gumley-Hall in Leicestershire. A second edition was called for in the following year. It appeared with only a few corrections of style, but no additional information. A third was printed in 1789, without any additions except a note at the end, accounting for his finally abandoning his intended publication of the Antiquities of Leicester. The Essay is also given at large in Mr Steevens' and Mr Reed's edition of Shakspeare, printed in 1793.

The first piece of preferment obtained by Farmer was most probably given him as a token of esteem, no less than as a testimony to his literary merit. This was the chancellorship of Lichfield and Coventry, bestowed on him by his friend Bishop Hurd. A prebendary stall was also conferred on Farmer by the same prelate when afterwards advanced to that see. On the death of Dr Richardson, in the year 1775, he was chosen master of Emanuel college by the fellows of that society, Mr Hubbart, the senior fellow, declining it on account of age

and infirmities. He now took his doctor of divinity's degree, and was shortly after succeeded in the tutorship by a man of great taste and learning, Mr afterwards Dr Bennet, bishop of Cloyne. He next obtained, on the death of Dr Barnardiston, the office of principal librarian : these two appointments he was fairly entitled to from his literary character. In the same year he served, in his turn, the office of vice-chancellor of the university, and was presented by the minister of the day, Lord North, with a valuable piece of preferment, a prebend of Canterbury. The offer of a bishopric was twice made him by Mr Pitt, but declined. The truth is, the solemnity and formality of the episcopal character would have sat but awkwardly on Farmer. He chose to move without restraint, and to enjoy himself without responsibility : to use his own language to a friend, "one that enjoyed the theatre and the Queen's Head in the evening, would have made but an indifferent bishop." A piece of preferment, however, was soon conferred on him by Mr Pitt, no less agreeable to his taste, in point of situation, than valuable in point of income,—a residentiaryship of St Paul's. This was given him in exchange for the prebend of Canterbury. It was agreeable to his taste, as requiring three months' residence in the capital, and only three, in the year ; enabling him to enjoy in succession his literary clubs in London, and his literary retreat at Cambridge.

The various editors of Shakspeare, not excepting Johnson, are to be ranked among the admirers and friends of Farmer. Steevens, Malone, Reed, &c. have all borne testimony to the merit of his Essay. In this work Dr Farmer fully demonstrates, that our immortal poet was more indebted to nature than to art, and that his matters of fact were deduced from our old chronicles and romances, and from translations of the classics, not from original writers. It is well-known that the other side of the question had been maintained by most of the critics and commentators on Shakspeare,—Pope, Theobald, Warburton, Upton, Grey, Dodd, and Whalley. The purport of this pamphlet, and the province of the author of it, cannot be better explained than in Farmer's own words : " I hope, my good friend—he is addressing Mr Cradock—you have acquitted our great poet of all piratical depredations on the ancients, and are ready to receive my conclusion. He remembered perhaps enough of his schoolboy learning, to put the *hig, hag, hog*, into the mouth of Sir Hugh Evans, and might pick up in the writers of the time, or the course of his conversation, a familiar phrase or two of French or Italian ; but his studies were most demonstratively confined to nature and his own language. In the course of this disquisition, you have often smiled at all such reading as was never read, and possibly I may have indulged it too far : but it is the reading necessary for a comment on Shakspeare. Those who apply solely to the ancients for this purpose, may with equal wisdom study the Talmud for an exposition of Tristram Shandy. Nothing but an intimate acquaintance with the writers of the time, who are frequently of no other value, can point out his allusions, and ascertain his phraseology. The reformers of his text are equally positive and equally wrong. The cant of the age, a provincial expression, an obscure proverb, an obsolete custom, a hint at a person, or a fact no longer remembered, hath continually defeated the best of our guessers : you must not suppose me to speak at random, when I assure you, that from some forgotten book or

other, I can demonstrate this to you in many hundred places, and I almost wish that I had not been persuaded into a different employment."

The latter years of Dr Farmer's life were pretty equally divided between Emanuel college and the residentiary house at Amen-corner. His literary friends, as usual, engaged much of his time. Dr Farmer died after a long and painful illness in 1797.

Charles Macklin.

BORN CIR. A. D. 1690.—DIED A. D. 1797.

THIS veteran of the stage used to assert vehemently that he was born in the last year of the seventeenth century; there is pretty good evidence, however, that he was an infant of about two months old on the day of the ever-memorable battle of the Boyne, 1st July, 1690. His father was a Presbyterian, and his mother a Roman Catholic; he himself was known in his youth by the soubriquet of 'Wicked Charley,' and 'The Wild Irishman,'—appellations sufficiently indicative of his habits of life. He used to refer his earliest predilection for the stage to the circumstance of his having been employed by a lady, who was fond of private theatricals, to perform the part of Monimia in 'The Orphan,' when he was quite a boy.

He came to England when about sixteen years of age, after having broke his apprenticeship with a saddler. For some time he acted in the capacity of a waiter in a London tavern; but, at his mother's desire, he returned to Ireland, and continued with his parents until accident threw him in the way of some strolling players. They offered to engage him; the temptation was too great for a youth of his dispositions and roving habits; he joined company with them, and roamed about the country for some time as a strolling actor.

In a year or two after, he paid a second visit to England, and spent some time in different itinerant companies, till at last he obtained an engagement in the metropolis. In 1725, he made his debut at the Lincoln's Inn theatre, in the part of Alcander, in 'Œdipus.' We have his own authority for stating that he was unsuccessful: "I spoke so familiarly," he used to say, "and so little in the hoity-toity tone of the tragedy of that day, that the manager told me I had better go to grass for another year or two."—He accordingly joined a strolling company in Wales; but, before leaving London, having had the good fortune to win £400 at the gaming table, he furnished himself with a female companion, and for some time rambled about the country in the dress and style of a man of fashion.

In September, 1730, he again appeared on the metropolitan boards in the character of Sir Charles Freeman; in the winter of the same year he enacted the part of an Irish witness in the 'Coffee-house Politician.' In 1735, in a dispute with a fellow-actor, he gave him a blow, which occasioned his death, and was in consequence tried for murder, but found guilty of manslaughter only. "The dispute," says his biographer, "originated about a wig, which Hallam (the other actor) had on in Fabian's 'Trick for Trick,' and which Macklin claimed as his

property ; in a warmth of temper he raised his cane, and gave him a fatal stroke in the eye."

Macklin reached the summit of his fame in 1741, when the first attempt was made to revive the 'Merchant of Venice,' which had not been acted since 1701. Lord Lansdowne had adapted the play to the state of the stage and the prevailing taste ; but for a long time nobody was found qualified to perform the character of Shylock, until Macklin offered to come forward ; and being favoured by nature with a set of features well-calculated to express the malignity of the character, it was allotted to him. As Lord Lansdowne attended all the rehearsals, Macklin became acquainted with his lordship, and experienced some liberal marks of his patronage. Macklin was not deficient in self-confidence ; but he often declared, that when he was to go upon the stage in the character of Shylock, his alarm and perturbation were ready to get the better of his resolution : " For," said he, " the pit, in those days, was the resort of learning, wealth, and dignity ; lawyers, merchants, college doctors, and church-dignitaries, constituting so formidable a tribunal, as might have shaken the nerves of the hardiest veteran of the stage, much more a tyro in the art." His success in the part, and the extempore couplet that was pronounced in the theatre the same evening, by Pope,

" This is the Jew
That Shakspeare drew,"

raised him at once into notice.

The following is his own account of what took place when the appointed evening arrived :—" When the long expected night at last came, the house was crowded, from top to bottom, with the first company in town. The two front rows of the pit, as usual, were full of critics. I eyed them," said Macklin, " I eyed them, Sir, through the slit in the curtain, and was glad to see them there ; as I wished, in such a cause, to be tried by a special jury. When I made my appearance in the green-room, dressed for the part, with my red hat on my head, my piqued beard, my loose black gown, and with a confidence which I had never before assumed, the performers all stared at one another, and evidently with a stare of disappointment. Well, Sir, hitherto all was right, till the last bell rung : then, I confess, my heart began to beat a little ; however, I mustered up all the courage I could, and recommending my cause to Providence, threw myself boldly on the stage, and was received by one of the loudest thunders of applause I ever before experienced. The opening scenes being rather tame and level, I could not expect much applause ; but I found myself well-listened to : I could hear distinctly in the pit, the words, ' Very well—very well, indeed ! this man seems to know what he is about.' These encomiums warmed me, but did not overset me. I knew where I should have the pull, which was in the third act, and accordingly, at this period I threw out all my fire ; and, as the contrasted passions of joy for the merchant's losses, and grief for the elopement of Jessica, open a fine field for an actor's powers, I had the good fortune to please beyond my most sanguine expectations. The whole house was in an uproar of applause ; and I was obliged to pause between the speeches to give it vent, so as to be heard. The trial scene wound up the fulness of my reputation.

Here I was well-listened to, and here I made such a silent, yet forcible impression on my audience, that I retired from this great attempt most perfectly satisfied. On my return to the green-room, after the play was over, it was crowded with nobility and critics, who all complimented me in the warmest and most unbounded manner; and the situation I felt myself in, I must confess, was one of the most flattering and intoxicating of my whole life. No money, no title could purchase what I felt."

Our actor was soon after this enlisted, by Fleetwood, in the Drury Lane corps. While in this situation, he quarrelled with Quin, then the despot of the theatre, and, being expert in the pugilistic art, left such marks of his prowess upon him, that the latter could not proceed in the part of Manly, in the 'Plain Dealer,' without making an apology to the audience. This affair had nearly terminated in a duel, if the kindness of Fleetwood had not intervened, and effected at least an apparent reconciliation. Quin once observed, speaking of Macklin, "If God writes a legible hand, that fellow's a villain;" and once seriously addressed Macklin himself, in the following manner:—"Mr Macklin, by the lines, I should rather say, by the cordage of your face, you ought to be hanged!"

In 1744, Macklin attempted to open the Haymarket theatre with a tribe of green performers, his pupils. The speculation failed, however, and he returned to Drury Lane in the following winter. In 1748, he acted in Dublin. In 1753, he affected to take a formal leave of the stage, with an epilogue for the occasion written by Garrick; but in 1758 he again appeared on the boards in Dublin, and in the following year brought out his amusing farce of 'Love à la Mode.' He produced two other clever pieces, entitled 'The True-born Irishman,' and the 'Man of the World.'

In 1784 he accepted an engagement to perform in Dublin. He was at this period, at the lowest computation, eighty-five years of age; but more probably he was ninety-five; yet he continued to perform his principal characters with almost undiminished force and vivacity, until the 7th of May, 1789, when he took his final leave of the stage, in the character of Shylock. He proved unable for the effort. When the night arrived, he went dressed into the green room, and said to Mrs Pope, "My dear, are you to play to-night?"—"To be sure I am. Don't you see I am dressed for Portia?"—"Ah! very true, I had forgot; but who is to play Shylock?" He said this in a tone of feeble sadness, that distressed all who heard it; but Mrs Pope, rousing herself, answered, "Why, you! Are not you dressed for the part?" He put his hand to his forehead, and said, pathetically, "God help me!—my memory has, I fear, left me." He went, however, upon the stage, but was only able to deliver two or three speeches, at the termination of which he looked helplessly round, and exclaiming, "I can do no more!" quitted the stage for ever. He survived his retirement eight years.

George Keate.

BORN A. D. 1729.—DIED A. D. 1797.

THIS amiable man and entertaining writer was descended of an ancient and opulent family. He was educated at the school at Kingston, after quitting which, he repaired to Geneva, and resided there some years. Having finished the tour of Europe, he commenced student in the Inner-Temple, and was called to the bar, although he did not practise, either not meeting with much encouragement in the profession, or perhaps not possessing the application requisite to make himself a master of it. His first literary performance was 'Ancient and Modern Rome,' a poem written at Rome in the year 1755, and published in 1760. Soon after, he printed 'A short Account of the Ancient History, Present Government, and Laws of the Republic of Geneva.' This work he dedicated to Voltaire. In 1762, he produced an 'Epistle from Lady Jane Gray to Lord Guildford Dudley;' and in 1763, 'The Alps,' a poem, which, for truth of description, elegance of versification, and vigour of imagination, greatly surpasses all his other poetical productions. In 1764, he produced 'Netley Abbey;' and in 1765, the 'Temple Student, an Epistle to a Friend,' in which he smartly and agreeably rallies his own want of application in the study of the law, and intimates his irresistible penchant for the belles lettres. In 1773, he published 'The Monument in Arcadia,' a dramatic poem, founded on a well-known picture of Poussin. In 1781, he collected his poetical works in two volumes, with a dedication to Dr Heberden, including a number of new pieces never before printed, and an excellent portrait of himself. Of these pieces, one was 'The Helvetiad,' a fragment, written at Geneva in the year 1756. He had intended to compose a poem of some length, on the subject of the emancipation of Switzerland from the oppression of the House of Austria, and had even settled the plan of his work, when he acquainted M. Voltaire with his intention, who advised him rather to employ his time on subjects more likely to interest the public attention: "For," said he, "should you devote yourself to the completion of your present design, the Swiss would be much obliged to you, without being able to read you, and the rest of the world would care little about the matter." In the year 1781 he published an epistle to Angelica Kauffman. The last, and perhaps best, of all his compositions, and which did the most honour to his genius and his liberality, was 'The Account of the Pelew Islands,' which he drew up for Captain Wilson, and published in 1788: this work is written with great elegance, and compiled with much care. Mr Keate's life passed without any vicissitudes of fortune, inheriting a large patrimonial estate, which he increased by prudent attentions. He died June 27, 1797. He was a member both of the Royal and the Antiquarian society.¹

¹ Monthly and Gentleman's Magazines.

Thomas Pennant, LL. D.

BORN A. D. 1726.—DIED A. D. 1798.

THIS eminent naturalist was born in 1726. At Wrexham, in the county of Denbigh, he received the first rudiments of his education, thence he was removed to Fulham, in the vicinity of the metropolis, and was put under the care of Mr Croft, a schoolmaster of some celebrity, with whom he resided until he was deemed fit for Oxford. Within the walls of Oriel college he applied himself, among other branches of knowledge, to the study of jurisprudence, it being the design of his father to bring him up to the bar: but it does not appear that he ever followed the law as a profession, or even entered himself of any of the inns of court, which is a preparatory step, and one absolutely indispensable to all such as are desirous of pleading in our municipal courts. His mind indeed had taken another bent, for at a very early age he had imbibed a strong predilection for natural history, in consequence of a trifling accident;¹ and this circumstance decided his future pursuits in life.

Mr Pennant made a tour into Cornwall from Oxford, in 1746 or 1747, in the course of which he paid a visit to, and resided during some time at the house of Dr William Borlase of Ludgvan, who in the kindest manner made him acquainted with every thing there deemed worthy of notice; and it was in that county, so celebrated for its subterraneous riches, that he first conceived a strong passion for every thing that appertained to the mineral kingdom. The knowledge obtained on this occasion, not only proved serviceable to him as a naturalist, but, in all probability, tended not a little to regulate his conduct as a proprietor of mines. His passion for natural history had induced him to cultivate an acquaintance with the learned and elaborate Linnæus, whose studies have tended so much to simplify, arrange, and illustrate this branch of science. He had accordingly commenced a correspondence with him in the year 1755, and it was in consequence of this intercourse that Mr Pennant received what he considered as the first and greatest of all his literary honours; for in 1757 he was elected a member of the Royal society of Upsal, at the express instance of the illustrious Linnæus, with whom he continued to communicate until age and infirmities obliged the former to desist. In 1761 he began his 'British Zoology,' which, when completed, consisted of one hundred and thirty-two plates on imperial paper. Peter Pallon was the painter of the various subjects; he is represented as an excellent artist, but rather too fond of gaudy colouring. The engraver was Mazel, to whose skill and integrity he bears the most unequivocal testimony. George Edwards, the celebrated ornithologist, at first conceived some jealousy of this undertaking, but it soon subsided into friendship, and he presented many original drawings to our author. This work, to the

¹ "A present of the Ornithology of Francis Willoughby, Esq., made to me when I was about the age of twelve, by my kinsman, the late John Salisbury, Esq., father of the fair and celebrated writer, Mrs Piozzi, first gave me a taste for that study, and incidentally also for that of natural history in general, which I have since pursued with my constitutional ardour."—*The Literary Life of the late T. Pennant, Esq.*, p. 1.

expense of which several gentlemen contributed, does not appear to have succeeded equal to his expectations, in consequence of his using folio instead of a quarto page. He however behaved nobly on the occasion, for he dedicated the profits arising from the sale to the benefit of the Welsh charity school, near Gray's Inn, London.

Incited perhaps by a recent domestic calamity—the loss of a good and amiable wife—he determined to travel on the continent. He accordingly left London in February, 1765, and repaired to France. While there he was fortunate enough to form an acquaintance with the celebrated Count de Buffon, who treated him with great politeness and attention, notwithstanding Mr Pennant had made a comparison in his ‘British Zoology,’ between this philosophical foreigner and his own countryman, the religious Mr Ray, highly disadvantageous to the former. On his return to England, Mr Pennant finished his Zoology, a work which had been interrupted by his journey; and in about two years afterwards he was elected a fellow of the Royal society.

In 1768, at the request of Mr Benjamin White, bookseller in Fleet street, the ‘British Zoology’ was republished in two volumes octavo, illustrated with seventeen plates; for his permission on this occasion he received one hundred pounds, which he most generously vested in trustees for the Welsh charity school. Much about the same time Mr Pennant was gratified by seeing the folio edition translated into German and Latin, by M. de Murre of Nuremberg, with the plates copied and coloured by ingenious foreign artists. Mr Pennant's reputation was now so well-established both at home and abroad, that learned societies of all kinds were anxious to nominate him one of their associates; accordingly, in March, 1769, he was elected a member of the Royal academy of sciences of Drontheim in Norway, which was signified in a polite letter from the prelate of that see. In 1770 he published an octavo volume in addition to his ‘British Zoology,’ with numerous plates, additions, and descriptions.

He had long conceived a desire to visit the northern parts of this island, and, accordingly, in the course of 1771 he undertook a journey thither. An account of it was published soon after, under the title of ‘A Tour in Scotland,’ and such was the favourable reception it experienced, that the whole impression was purchased, and another immediately printed and sold. He subsequently visited and described the Hebrides. In 1773 appeared the octavo edition of his ‘Genera of Birds.’ In 1777 he published a fourth volume of the ‘British Zoology,’ which included the vermes, and the crustaceous and testaceous animals of our isle. Next year appeared his first volume quarto, of a tour through North Wales, and a new edition of his ‘Synopsis of Quadrupeds,’ in two volumes quarto, also his ‘Free Thoughts on the Militia Laws.’ The ‘Arctic Zoology,’ two volumes quarto, appeared in 1785, and added greatly to the author's fame, for it was speedily translated into French and German.

A hiatus of two or three years appears about this period in the literary life, and even the literary rambles, of our author; this was occasioned by another “happy marriage.” During the unhappy contest with the colonies, Mr Pennant appears to have been on the side of coercion; instead of considering the guilt and shame attendant on that struggle to have originated in imprudent and dishonest counsels, he

seemed to think that the fault lay with those who were intrusted with the direction of our armies. Being deeply impressed with this idea, he now published a work entitled 'American Annals, an Incitement to Parliament Men to inquire into the conduct of our Commanders in the American war.' He however omitted this tract in subsequent editions of his works, being, as he observes with much amiable discretion, "unwilling to revive the memory of the most deplorable event in all the annals of Great Britain." Happily for the interests of literature, but a small portion of our author's life was dedicated to politics; he was now employed on an account of London, for he had been accustomed during many years to walk about the capital with his note-book in his hand, and had collected a variety of materials. In 1790 appeared the first edition of this work, and in a short time two more large impressions were called for. It was now supposed that the labours of Mr Pennant as an author had closed; but in 1793 appeared his 'Literary Life, written by himself.' This contains a most copious account of his writings and peregrinations, besides a variety of curious particulars relative to the genealogy and descent of all the great Cambro-British families.

As the advertisement prefixed to the last work we have mentioned exhibits a good specimen of the style and manner of the author, we shall insert it here. "The title page announces the termination of my authorial existence, which took place on March 1, 1791. Since that period I have glided through the globe a harmless sprite; have pervaded the continents of Europe, Asia, and Africa, and described them with the same authenticity as Gemelli Careri, or many other travellers, ideal or real, who are at this day read with avidity and quoted with faith. My great change is not perceived by mortal eyes. I still haunt the bench of justices; I am now active in hastening levies of the generous Britons to the field. However unequal, I still retain the same zeal in the service of my country; and twice since my departure have experienced human passions, and have grown indignant at injuries offered to my native land; or have incited a vigorous defence against the lunatic designs of enthusiastic tyranny, or the presumptuous plans of fanatical atheists, to spread their reign and force their tenets on the contented moral part of their fellow creatures. May I remain possessed with the same passions till the great *Exorcist* lay me for ever. The two last numbers in the following pages are my post-existent performances. Surviving friends, smile on the attempt! Surviving enemy, if any I can now have, forgive my errors!

"Tu manes, ne læde meos.

"THOMAS PENNANT."

It was now imagined that the pen of our author had been "hung up for ever;" this however was not the case, notwithstanding his own allusion to the archbishop of Grenada, for the year 1795 ushered in 'The History of the Parishes of Whiteford and Holywell.' In Mr Pennant the arts found a constant encourager and most munificent patron; in respect to book-prints, he indeed remains unrivalled, as perhaps the works of no English author ever contained an equal number of the same kind and size. In the 'British Zoology,' folio edition, we find one hundred and thirty-two; the quarto possesses no less than two hundred and eighty-four; the 'Tour in Scotland' has one hundred and thirty-four, and that in Wales fifty-three. In his 'Literary Life' he

reckons up eight hundred and two, and these, when added to his works since that period, will amount to near nine hundred. In his diet and manner of life Mr Pennant was very simple. He retired to bed by ten, and rose both winter and summer by seven, when he instantly shaved; he enjoyed a few glasses of wine after dinner, but carefully avoided supper, which he considered as "the meal of excess." It was in this manner that life glided away, and that he enjoyed a "green old age," assailed by but few ailments, until his seventy-second year.

James Hutton.

BORN A. D. 1726.—DIED A. D. 1797.

THIS celebrated theorist was the son of an Edinburgh merchant. He was born in that city on the 3d of June, 1726. He entered the university of Edinburgh at the age of fourteen, and studied mathematics under the celebrated Maclaurin, though without exhibiting any partiality for the abstract sciences. He was at first designed for the profession of the law; but was ultimately allowed to gratify his uncontrollable propensity to chemical studies, and to choose the profession of medicine as most nearly allied to his favourite pursuits. After attending the medical lectures in his native city, he repaired to the continent, and took the degree of M.D. at Leyden, in 1749.

Towards the close of the last-mentioned year he arrived in London, where overtures were made to him by a friend for the establishment of a sal-ammoniac manufactory; he listened to the proposal at first, but afterwards relinquished the idea and also the hopes of practising medicine, and turned his attention to agriculture. With the view of acquiring a practical knowledge of farming, he resided, for some years, with a Norfolk farmer, and ultimately took a farm in Berwickshire, which he managed with great skill and success. His friend, induced by his vicinity, established the projected sal-ammoniac works in this county, and Hutton ultimately became an active partner in the concern.

It was shortly after his taking up his residence in Norfolk that he first began to turn his attention to those mineralogical and geological inquiries in which he was afterwards to attain so high a reputation. In a letter to Sir John Hall, written in 1753, he says that he had then become so fond of studying geology that he was perpetually poring into every pit and ditch and bed of a stream that crossed his path. He did not, however, begin to give his geological ideas arrangement and permanent shape for many years after this period. About the year 1768, having let his farm to advantage, he removed to Edinburgh, where he pursued his chemical and geological researches. In 1774 he made a mineralogical tour into Wales; and in 1777 he gave to the world his first publication, in an essay entitled 'Considerations on the Nature, Quality, and Distinctions, of Coal and Culm.' The chief object Dr Hutton had in view in this publication was to prove that the small-coal of Scotland was identical in nature with that of the English collieries, and ought, therefore, to be carried coastwise duty free. He proved

successful in his object, and the small-coal of Scotland was soon afterwards exempted from duty.

Soon after the original institution of the Royal society of Edinburgh, Dr Hutton communicated to that society the outlines of his celebrated theory of the Earth. Another paper from his pen, a theory of Rain, also appeared in the first volume of the society's Transactions. In 1792 he published 'Dissertations in Natural Philosophy,' in which he approaches to Boscovick's views on various points of natural science. In a succeeding publication, entitled 'An Investigation of the Principles of Knowledge,' he boldly attempted to revive the Berkleian hypothesis. In 1794 he published 'Dissertations on the Philosophy of Light, Heat, and Fire;' and, in 1795, his 'Theory of the Earth,' being a republication, with large additions, of his essays in the Edinburgh Transactions.

Dr Hutton's health had begun to decline in 1792. He had intervals of convalescence, but died on the 26th of March, 1797. He was an amiable man in private life; of an active slender person, with sharp features, lofty forehead, and a quick eye.

The Huttonian theory of the formation of the earth bears considerable resemblance to that first propounded by Professor Pallas of Russia in 1791, but is more consistent and better supported by argument and evidence. It supposes all the materials of our globe to have at one time existed in an unmixed state, and to have acquired their present arrangement and form by the action of two powerful agents, fire and water. By the continued action of water on former continents, of which they are the ruins, the present materials of the surface of our globe have been thrown loosely together; while their consolidation has been effected by the action of a powerful subterranean fire. The expansive power of this active internal fire has since elevated the strata from the bosom of the sea, and given them the various shapes and inclinations they now exhibit. Those substances which are unstratified owe their origin to perfect fusion; whereas stratified bodies have been only softened by heat, and in this state penetrated by other substances in a state of fusion. The following is Mr Playfair's eloquent exposition of the Huttonian geology:

"Such, according to Dr Hutton's theory, are the changes which the daily operations of waste have produced upon the surface of the globe. These operations, inconsiderable if taken separately, become great, by conspiring all to the same end, never counteracting one another, but proceeding through a period of indefinite extent, continually in the same direction. Thus every thing descends, nothing returns upwards; the hard and solid bodies every where dissolve, and the loose and soft no where consolidate. The powers which tend to preserve, and those which tend to change the condition of the earth's surface, are never in equilibrio: the latter are in all cases the most powerful, and in respect of the former, are like living in comparison of dead forces. Hence the law of decay is one which suffers no exception: the elements of all bodies were once loose and unconnected, and to the same state nature has appointed that they should all return.

"It affords no presumption against the reality of this progress, that, in respect of man, it is too slow to be immediately perceived: the utmost portion of it, to which our experience can extend, is evanescent, in comparison with the whole, and must be regarded as the momentary

increment of a vast progression, circumscribed by no other limits than the duration of the world. Time performs the office of integrating the infinitesimal parts of which this progression is made up; it collects them into one sum, and produces from them an amount greater than any that can be assigned.

“While on the surface of the earth so much is every where going to decay, no new production of mineral substances is found in any region accessible to man. The instances of what are called petrifications, or the formation of stony substances by means of water, which we sometimes observe, whether they be ferruginous concretions, or calcareous, or, as happens in some rare cases, siliceous stalactites, are too few in number, and too inconsiderable in extent, to be deemed material exceptions to this general rule. The bodies thus generated, also, are no sooner formed, than they become subject to waste and dissolution, like all the other hard substances in nature; so that they but retard for a while the progress by which they are all resolved into dust, and sooner or later committed to the bosom of the deep.

“We are not, however, to imagine, that there is nowhere any means of repairing this waste; for, on comparing the conclusion at which we are now arrived, viz. that the present continents are all going to decay, and their materials descending into the ocean, with the proposition first laid down, that these same continents are composed of materials which must have been collected from the decay of former rocks, it is impossible not to recognise two corresponding steps of the same progress; of a progress, by which mineral substances are subjected to the same series of changes, and alternately wasted away and renovated. In the same manner, as the present mineral substances derive their origin from substances similar to themselves; so, from the land now going to decay, the sand and gravel forming on the sea-shore, or in the beds of rivers; from the shells and corals which in such enormous quantities are every day accumulated in the bosom of the sea; from the drift-wood, and the multitude of vegetable and animal remains continually deposited in the ocean; from all these we cannot doubt that strata are now forming in those regions to which nature seems to have confined the powers of mineral production; from which, after being consolidated, they are again destined to emerge, and to exhibit a series of changes similar to the past.

“How often these vicissitudes of decay and renovation have been repeated, it is not for us to determine; they constitute a series, of which, as the author of this theory has remarked, we neither see the beginning nor the end,—a circumstance that accords well with what is known concerning other parts of the economy of the world. In the continuation of the different species of animals and vegetables that inhabit the earth, we discern neither a beginning nor an end; and in the planetary motions, where geometry has carried the eye so far both into the future and the past, we discover no mark, either of the commencement or the termination of the present order. It is unreasonable, indeed, to suppose, that such marks should any where exist. The Author of nature has not given laws to the universe, which, like the institutions of men, carry in themselves the elements of their own destruction. He has not permitted, in his works, any symptom of infancy or of old age, or any sign by which we may estimate either their future or their past duration.

He may put an end, as he no doubt gave a beginning, to the present system, at some determinate period; but we may safely conclude that this great catastrophe will not be brought about by any of the laws now existing, and that it is not indicated by any thing which we perceive."¹

William Enfield.

BORN A. D. 1741.—DIED A. D. 1797.

WE are indebted for the present notice of this amiable man to the friendly pen of his literary associate Dr Aikin.

Dr William Enfield, Unitarian minister in Norwich, was born at Sudbury, in 1741, of parents in a humble walk of life, but of very respectable character. His amiable disposition and promising talents early recommended him to the Rev. Mr Hextall, the dissenting minister of that place, who took great care of his education, and infused into his young mind that taste for elegance in composition which ever afterwards distinguished him. In his 17th year, he was sent to the academy at Daventry, then under the direction of Dr Ashworth, where he passed through the usual course of instruction preparatory to the office of the ministry; and with such success did he cultivate the talents of a preacher, and of an amiable man in society, that on leaving the academy, he was at once chosen, in 1763, minister of a respectable congregation in Liverpool. In that agreeable town he passed seven of the happiest years of his life, very generally beloved and esteemed. He married in 1767. His literary reputation was extended, during his residence in this place, by the publication of two volumes of sermons, which were well-received.

About 1770, he was invited to take a share in the conduct of the academy at Warrington, and also to occupy the place of minister to the dissenting congregation there, both vacant by the death of Mr Seddon. "His acceptance of this honourable invitation,"—says Dr Aikin,—“was a source of a variety of mixed sensations and events to him, of which anxiety and vexation composed too large a share for his happiness. No assiduity on his part was wanting in the performance of his various duties; but the diseases of the institution were radical and incurable; and perhaps his gentleness of temper was ill-adapted to contend with the difficulties, in matter of discipline, which seem entailed on all dissenting academies, and which, in that situation, fell upon him, as the domestic resident, with peculiar weight. He always, however, possessed the respect and affection of the best disposed of the students; and there was no reason to suppose that any other person, in his place, could have prevented that dissolution which the academy underwent in 1783.”

During the period of his engagement there, his indefatigable industry was exerted in the composition of a number of works, mostly indeed of the class of useful compilations, but containing valuable displays of his powers of thinking and writing. The most considerable was his 'Institutes of Natural Philosophy,' a clear and well-arranged compendium of the leading principles, theoretical and experimental, of the sciences com-

¹ 'Illustrations of the Huttonian Theory.' Edin. 1802.

prised under that head. And it may be mentioned, as an extraordinary proof of his diligence and power of comprehension, that on a vacancy in the mathematical department of the academy—which the state of the institution rendered impossible to supply by a new tutor—he prepared himself, at a short warning, to fill it up, and did fill it with credit and utility, though this abstruse branch of science had never before been a particular object of his study.

He continued at Warrington two years after the academy had broken up, taking a few private pupils. In 1785, receiving an invitation from a dissenting congregation at Norwich, he accepted it; and first fixed his residence at Thorpe, a pleasant village near the city, where he pursued his plan of taking a limited number of pupils to board in his house. He afterwards removed to Norwich itself; at length, fatigued with the long cares of education, he entirely ceased to receive boarders, and only gave private instructions to two or three select pupils. This too he at last discontinued, and devoted himself solely to the duties of his congregation, and the retired and independent occupations of literature. Besides the literary performances already mentioned, Dr Enfield completed, in 1791, the laborious task of an abridgment of 'Brucker's History of Philosophy,' which he comprised in two volumes quarto. "Perhaps," says Dr Aikin, "at the time of his decease, there was not in England a more perfect master of what is called the middle style in writing,—combining the qualities of ease, elegance, perspicuity, and correctness, entirely free from affectation and singularity, and fitted for any subject. If his cast or thought was not original, yet it was free, enlarged, and manly, of which better proof needs not be adduced than those papers, which, under the title of 'The Enquirer,' have so much gratified the liberal readers of the Monthly Magazine.¹ They display a vigour and maturity of mind which show the value of long-thinking and long-living in strengthening the understanding and giving tone to the powers of decision."

Edward Waring.

BORN A. D. 1734.—DIED A. D. 1798

THIS distinguished mathematician was the son of a wealthy farmer in the neighbourhood of Shrewsbury. He received the earlier part of his education at Shrewsbury freeschool, whence he removed to Cambridge, and was admitted of Magdalen college on the 24th of March, 1753. Here his talents for abstruse calculation soon developed themselves; and, at taking his degree, he was considered a prodigy in those sciences which make the subject of the bachelor's examination. The name of Senior wrangler,—or the first of the year,—was thought scarcely a sufficient distinction for one who left all his competitors so immeasurably behind.

The Lucasian professorship became vacant before Waring was of sufficient standing for the next, or master's degree, which is a necessary qualification for that office; yet it was almost generally acknowledged that the university could furnish no man so well-qualified as our young

¹ Dr Aikin was, at this time, editor of this periodical.

mathematician to fill the chair of Barrow, Newton, Whiston, Cotes, and Saunderson ; and the defect in his honorary titles was supplied by royal mandate, through which he became master of arts in 1760, and shortly afterwards was appointed Lucasian professor.

Mr Waring was originally intended for the medical profession, and took his degree of M. D. in 1767 ; he never attempted, however, to practise a profession for which he could not acknowledge any enthusiasm, and for which, indeed, he was in a great measure unqualified by a certain *mauvaise honte* of manner which he never could get over. He passed his life in the study of the abstract sciences, and chiefly on his own estate at Plaisley near Shrewsbury, where he died in August, 1798.

“Wishing to do ample justice to the talents and virtue of the professor,” says an able cotemporary of his own, “we feel ourselves somewhat at a loss in speaking of the writings by which alone he will be known to posterity. He is the discoverer, according to his own account, of nearly four hundred propositions in the analytics, and the account is scarcely exaggerated ; yet we have reason to believe that the greater part of these discoveries will sink into oblivion ; and that posterity will be as little attentive to them as his own cotemporaries. If, according to his own confession, ‘few thought it worth their while to read even half of his works,’ there must be some grounds for this neglect, either from the difficulty of the subject, the unimportance of the discoveries, or a defect in the communication of them to the public. The subjects are certainly of a difficult nature, the calculations are abstruse, yet Europe contained many persons not to be deterred by the most intricate theorems. Shall we say then that the discoveries were unimportant ? If this were really the case, the want of utility would be a very small disparagement among those who cultivate science with a view chiefly to entertainment and the exercise of their rational powers. We are compelled then to attribute much of this neglect to a perplexity in style, manner, and language ; the reader is stopped at every instant, first to make out the writer’s meaning, then to fill up the chasm in the demonstration. He must invent anew every invention ; for, after the enunciation of the theorem or problem, and the mention of a few steps, little assistance is derived from the professor’s powers of explanation. Indeed, an anonymous writer, certainly of very considerable abilities, has aptly compared the works of Waring to the heavy appendages of a Gothic building, which add little of either beauty or stability to the structure.

“A great part of the discoveries relate to an assumption in Algebra, that equations may be generated by multiplying together others of inferior dimensions. The roots of these latter equations are frequently terms called negative, or impossible ; and the relation of these terms to the coefficients of the principal equation is a great object of inquiry. In this art the professor was very successful, though little assistance is to be derived from his writings, in looking for the real roots. We shall not, perhaps, be deemed to depreciate his merits, if we place the series for the sum of the powers of the roots of any equation, among the most ingenious of his discoveries ; yet we cannot add, that it has very usefully enlarged the bounds of science, or that the algebraist will ever find occasion to introduce it into practice. We may say the same on many ingenious transformations of equations, on the discovery of im-

possible roots, and similar exertions of undoubtedly great talents. They have carried the assumption to its utmost limits; and the difficulty attending the speculation has rendered persons more anxious to ascertain its real utility; yet they who reject it may occasionally receive useful hints from the ‘Miscellanea Analytica.’

“The first time of Waring’s appearing in public as an author, was, we believe, in the latter end of the year 1759, when he published the first chapter of the ‘Miscellanea Analytica,’ as a specimen of his qualifications for the professorship; and this chapter he defended, in a reply to a pamphlet (by Dr Powell) entitled, ‘Observations on the first Chapter of a book called Miscellanea Analytica.’ Here the professor was strangely puzzled with the common paradox, that nothing divided by nothing may be equal to various finite quantities, and has recourse to unquestionable authorities in proof of this position. The names of Maclaurin, Saunderson, De Moivre, Bernouilli, Monmort, are ranged in favour of his opinion; but Dr Powell was not so easily convinced, and returns to the charge, in the ‘Defence of the Observations;’ to which the professor replied in a ‘Letter to the Rev. Dr Powell, Fellow of St John’s College, Cambridge, in answer to his Observations, &c.’ In this controversy, it is certain that the professor gave evident proofs of his abilities; though it is equally certain that he followed too implicitly the decisions of his predecessors. No apparent advantage, no authority whatever, should induce mathematicians to swerve from the principles of right reasoning, on which their science is supposed to be peculiarly founded.

“The ‘Proprietates Algebraicarum Curvarum,’ published in 1772, necessarily labour under the same defects with the ‘Miscellanea Analytica,’ the ‘Meditationes Algebraicæ,’ published in 1770, and the ‘Meditationes Analyticæ,’ which were in the press during the years 1773, 1774, 1775, and 1776. These were the chief and the most laborious works edited by the professor; and in the ‘Philosophical Transactions’ is to be found a variety of papers, which alone would be sufficient to place him in the first rank in the mathematical world.¹

“For these papers, the professor was, in 1784, deservedly honoured by the Royal society with Sir Godfrey Copley’s medal; and most of them afford very strong proofs of the powers of his mind, both in abstract science and the application of it to philosophy,—though they labour in common with his other works under the disadvantage of being clothed in a very unattractive form. The mathematician who has resolution to go through them, will not only add much to his own knowledge, but be usefully employed in dilating on those articles for the benefit of the more general reader. We might add in this place a work written on

¹ The nature of them may be seen from the following catalogue:—Vol. liii. page 294, Mathematical Problems.—liv. 193, New Properties in Conics.—lv. 143, Two Theorems in Mathematics.—lxix. Problems concerning Interpolations—86, A general Resolution of Algebraical Equations.—lxxvi. 81, On Infinite Series.—lxxvii. 71, On finding the Values of Algebraical Quantities by converging series, and demonstrating and extending propositions given by Pappus and others.—lxxviii. 67, On Centripetal Forces. ib. 588, On some Properties of the Sum of the Division of Numbers.—lxxix. 166, On the Method of correspondent Values, &c. ib. 185, On the Resolution of attractive Powers.—lxxx. 146, On infinite Series.—lxxxiv. 385—415, On the Summation of those Series whose general term is a determinate function of z , the distance of the term of the Series.

morals and metaphysics in the English language;² but as a few copies only were presented to his friends, and it was the professor's wish that they should not have a more extensive circulation, we shall not here enlarge upon its contents.

"In the mathematical world the life of Waring may be considered as a distinguished era. The strictness of demonstration required by the ancients had gradually fallen into disuse, and a more commodious though almost mechanical mode by Algebra and Fluxions took its place, and was carried to the utmost limit by the professor. Hence many new demonstrations may be attributed to him, but four hundred discoveries can scarcely fall to the lot of a human being. If we examine thoroughly those which our professor would distinguish by such names, we shall find many to be mere deductions,—others, as in the solution of biquadratics, anticipated by former writers. But if we cannot allow to him the merit of so inventive a genius, we must applaud his assiduity; and, distinguished as he was in the scientific world, the purity of his life, the simplicity of his manners, and the zeal which he always manifested for the truths of the gospel, will entitle him to the respect of all who do not esteem the good qualities of the heart inferior to those of the head."

James Boswell.

BORN A. D. 1740.—DIED A. D. 1799.

JAMES BOSWELL was born at Edinburgh, on the 29th October, 1740. He was the eldest son of Alexander Boswell of Auchinleck, the representative of a very ancient and respectable family, and one of the senators of the college of justice, the supreme civil court in Scotland. He received his early education at the schools and in the university of Edinburgh, where his father's professional pursuits necessarily fixed his residence. During his attendance at the university, the powers which he displayed in his exercises, and in the societies of his fellow-students, excited an applause which warmed his opening mind with hopes of future literary greatness.

Some eminent Scotsmen, such as Hume, Kames, and Robertson, had about this time distinguished themselves in literature. Those ancient prejudices by which the Scots had been too long withheld from the liberal cultivation of art were beginning to disappear; and a theatre for the exhibition of the works of the English drama had, in spite of presbyterian prejudices, been established at Edinburgh. Passionately desirous to flutter and shine among the young and fashionable, as well as ambitious to merit the esteem of the learned, Boswell, the farther he entered upon the scenes of life, became still more ardently the votary of wit and of the literary arts. The vanity of literary and colloquial eminence was thus early rooted in Boswell's bosom, and became his ruling passion. He learned to account it the supreme felicity of life to sparkle in gay convivial converse over wine, and to mingle with passionate delight in the society of professed wits. He was encouraged to

² Its title is: 'An Essay on the Principles of Human Knowledge.'

try his fortune, far too rashly, as a youthful author; and to send to the press various levities in poetry and prose which had been much more wisely condemned to the fire. Of these several appeared in a small collection of original poems, by Scottish gentlemen, which was, about this time, published at Edinburgh. Boswell's pieces in this collection possess scarcely any other merit than that of a giddy vivacity. It was fortunately enriched with some more precious materials, the compositions of Dr Thomas Blacklock, Gilbert Gordon, Esq. of Halleaths, and Jerome Stone, rector of the school of Dunkeld. A series of letters between Boswell and his friend, the Hon. Andrew Erskine, were, with similar imprudence, published about the same time, but certainly not at all to the honour of either of the young gentlemen.

Thus far young Boswell's life had been gay and flattering: he was now to launch farther out upon the ocean of the world. In the choice of a professional destination, he hesitated between a life of literature and business, and one of idleness and fashion. Had it not been for his father's authority, the latter would have gained his preference; but Lord Auchinleck, believing that the lively talents of his son could not fail of success at the bar, urged him to become a lawyer, with flatteries, promises, and some threats, which at last subdued James's passion for a red coat, a cockade, and a commission in the Guards. A sort of compromise took place between the father and the son; in consequence of which, the latter obtained permission, with a suitable pecuniary allowance, to visit London, to study the civil law at Utrecht, and to make the tour of Europe before he should finally fix himself at home as a practising advocate. On his arrival in the metropolis, his passion for the acquaintance of men of great intellectual eminence had, in the first instance, the merit of saving him from the emptiness of mere foppery, as well as from brutal and profligate debauchery. Even in the society of a Wilkes and a Foote, in their loosest and most convivial hours, it was not possible that there should not be more of "the feast of reason and the flow of soul" than of sensual grossness.

The eloquence of the 'Rambler,' being of that gorgeous and strongly discriminated character which most easily engages the attention of youth, had powerfully impressed the imagination of Boswell during his studies at Edinburgh. Johnson's 'Dictionary,' presenting its author in the character of the great censor and dictator of the English language, aided and confirmed the impression. When, in addition to this, he learned that Johnson's conversation was not less rich and original than his books, there needed nothing more to make him earnestly ambitious of the great lexicographer's acquaintance. He found in Johnson, when the desired introduction was at last obtained, not precisely what he had imagined, but something of a different cast altogether from that which his hopes and wishes had taught him to expect. Almost from the very first days of their acquaintance, he gladly haunted the presence of the illustrious moralist, and watched and preserved the treasures which fell from his lips as if he had already determined to become his biographer. Attentions so respectfully flattering are not easily resisted by either philosophers or heroes; Johnson could not but become partial to an admirer who professed to court his company almost with the humble devotion of a mortal attending the footsteps of a divinity, who was himself a youth of genius, fortune, and fashion, and who ardently

professed to be ambitious of nothing so much as of making eminent improvement in piety, virtue, and liberal intelligence.

Satiated at length with the enjoyments of London, Boswell departed, with a new flutter of hopes and wishes, to pursue knowledge and pleasure in those new varieties of form in which they might present themselves on the continent. At Utrecht he studied law for some time under an eminent civilian. From Utrecht, he, after a while, continued his travels through Germany into Switzerland. The ambition of becoming known to eminent men, was still one of his predominant foibles; and to the unspeakable gratification of that passion of his, he had the felicity of being, in his tour through Germany, the travelling companion of the Right Honourable George Keith, the last Earl Marischal of Scotland. In Switzerland, the Lord Marischal introduced his young countryman to Rousseau, who then, an exile from France and Geneva, resided at Motiers in Neufchatel, under the protection of the great king of Prussia. Boswell, in due time, found occasion to tell the world how fondly he had visited Jean-Jaques-Rousseau; how kindly he had been received by the solitary philosopher; and with what flattering and confidential commendations a man so discerning and so suspicious had deigned to honour his merits! Boswell had also the pleasure of visiting the patriarch of Ferney, and the delight of hearing him deal out sarcasms and malicious fictions, the inspirations of fear and envy, against a rival wit and philosopher who was as vain and jealous as himself.

Having seen the lions in Germany and Switzerland, Boswell hastened away over the Alps to Italy. Addison had visited and celebrated the republic of San Marino; Boswell resolved to visit that of Corsica. The Corsicans, after struggling with various success, for a long course of years, to throw off the yoke of the Genoese, were at last about to be transferred to masters against whose power their efforts would be vain; at this moment they enjoyed, in the interior parts of the isle, a miserable independence purchased at the expense of almost all besides that was precious in life. Their last generous exertions to secure the prize of liberty had, more than all the former, drawn upon them the admiration and the eager sympathy of Europe. The fame of Paoli and the Corsicans had greatly interested the curiosity of Boswell, as a young Scottish whig, even before he saw Rousseau; Rousseau's conversation and eulogy of Paoli completed the charm. The Genevan philosopher was too cautious, however, to give Boswell more than an indirect letter of introduction to the Corsican general, who received him with kindness and respect, and entertained him with liberal hospitality. Paoli and his Corsicans could not help expressing, in Boswell's hearing, their wishes that they might obtain the protection and aid of Britain; and Boswell, in the Don Quixote-like fervour of his imagination, was almost moved, when these wishes met his ear, and when he saw himself lodged, feasted, and attended in ceremonious state, to believe himself a British ambassador, deputed to declare Britain the tutelary divinity of Corsican freedom. After he retired from the court of Paoli, he was politely received, and entertained with courteous hospitality, by the French officers on the isle. He returned at last to the Italian continent, vain of his expedition, and gratefully boasting of all the favours and honours which it had procured him.

On his return to Britain, in compliance with the wishes of his literary friends, he gave to the public those observations which he had made in the Corsican part of his travels. The book is written in pure, lively, correct, and easy style of composition. With the anecdotal sprightliness of Boswell himself, it mingles in no sparing proportion a seasoning of the erudition of his friend Lord Hales, and of the light philosophical speculation of Lord Kames. An ill-natured critic might say, that the Paoliana, which fill a part of this volume, are at least not superior to the jests of Joe Miller, or Swift's well-known Essay. But the author's friends praised the book; the world, in general, were amused with it; and Boswell was made superlatively happy.

About this time he submitted to the usual course of trials which the candidates for admission into the Scottish faculty of advocates are required to undergo before they can be received into it as members. He passed through these trials with honour. On his being called to the bar, the heir to a considerable estate, and enjoying already an ample allowance from his father, he did not feel the strong necessity of pleading causes that he might live. Hence, content with the praise of colloquial talents and of captivating social qualities, he suffered men of far inferior powers, without other merit save that of plodding assiduity, to outstrip him in his juridical career, and to engross that business at the bar which their clients would much rather have committed to him. Though perhaps never a deeply learned and acutely discriminating counsellor, he might undoubtedly have soon attained, if he himself had so chosen, to almost unrivalled eminence as a pleader. He was a man of the kindest affections towards all his domestic relations; yet, carried away by his irresistible passion for that gay and enlightened society in which he was qualified to shine, he still hastened impatiently away to London, as soon as the vernal or autumnal vacation of the court of Session commenced, leaving a lovely and excellent wife to languish for his return, and consuming in his own personal expenses too large a proportion of an income which had been better appropriated to family uses.

It was in the year 1773, that he at last prevailed with Dr Johnson to accompany him in an autumnal journey through the Highlands and the Western Isles of Scotland. Johnson joined him at Edinburgh, nearly at the commencement of the vacation of the court of Session for that season. Boswell with pride introduced his great literary friend to all the best company in the Scottish metropolis, and carried him to view every object which he supposed likely to give him clear and not unfavourable notions of the state of the arts, manners, and wealth of Scotland. Leaving Edinburgh,—they crossed the frith of Forth,—passed through Fife to St Andrew's,—and after sighing over the ruins of its cathedral and dilapidated colleges, proceeded across the Tay to Aberbrothwick. They were made burgesses of Aberdeen; were lulled to sleep in Slains castle by the winds breaking on its battlements and the billows dashing against its base; looked in vain for the weird-sisters on the heath on which Macbeth heard those doubtful prophecies which urged him to his fate; talked of savages and shopkeepers with Lord Monboddo; and 'per varios casus,' arrived at length at Inverness. From Inverness they travelled across the isthmus of the Highlands to Glenelg. Ferried over from the Scottish continent to the isle of Skye, the greatest of the Hebudæ, they then wandered about for a while

among these isles, charmed with the kind and luxurious hospitality of the insular chieftains, and interested by the simplicity and peculiarity of Highland manners. At last they returned within the bourne of lowland life. Johnson, having talked down the Edinburgh-men, departed for London; and Boswell betook himself for the winter to the ungrateful business of the Scottish bar. The world expected a book or two to be the results of the Hebrudean travels of Boswell and Johnson; nor were they disappointed. Within a reasonable length of time after Johnson's return to London, appeared his account of his 'Journey to the Western Isles of Scotland.' Boswell's little bark, although not quite so soon launched as the great first-rate of his friend, was, however, to sail attendant on its triumph. His 'Tour to the Hebrides' did not appear in print till a number of years after. It was then received by the public with an avidity which even exceeded that with which Johnson's book had been bought and read. It is filled chiefly with the detail of Johnson's conversation and minutest acts during the journey. It added also lights, shades, drapery, and colouring, to that great portrait of the Scottish Highlands, which Johnson had drawn with a pencil careless of all but the primary and essential proportions and the grandest effects: it showed Boswell to have acquired new acuteness of discernment, and new stores of knowledge, since he wrote his 'Account of Corsica;' but it at the same time proved him to have busied himself about trifles, till trifling was almost all the business of which he was capable; it evinced the truth of Johnson's observation of him, "that he wanted bottom!"

From the era of this famed Hebrudean excursion till the time of his father's death, Boswell's life ran on in its usual tenor, undistinguished by any remarkable change in its circumstances or habits. He continued to make frequent visits to London,—to linger as long as possible upon every visit, amidst the fascinating society to which his presence was there acceptable,—and to leave it upon every occasion of his return to Scotland with the reluctance and depression of one driven into exile from a scene of pure unmingled joy. His predilection for London determined him at length entirely to relinquish the Scottish bar for the English bar, and he entered himself as a student at the Temple. Lord Auchinleck soon after died, and James, as his eldest son, succeeded to the possession of the family estates. The rents exceeded not fifteen hundred pounds a year; a jointure to his mother-in-law was to be paid out of this income; and James himself was but a life-renter, enjoying the produce but bound up by a strict entail from impairing the capital. For a little he found the change in his condition not unpleasant; but his revenue was soon experienced to be inadequate to his wishes. Mrs Boswell's health began to decline; the affairs of his estate for a time detained him from revisiting London; his wonted fits of low spirits occasionally returned; and his ordinary happiness quickly settled rather under than above the same mediate level as before. He had hopes that Mr Pitt, with the generous gratitude of a youthful heart, would reward his services with a place or pension; but Mr Pitt found it easier to put him off with a simple complimentary letter. Upon a subsequent occasion he ventured to offer himself a candidate for the representation of the county of Ayr; but other interests quickly threw him at a distance in the competition

He at length fixed his residence in London, and offered himself as a candidate for business at the English bar. His beginnings were here also not unpromising. By the favour of Lord Lonsdale he obtained the respectable appointment of Recorder of Carlisle. He attended the judges in pursuit of business upon several of their circuits; and was sometimes retained to plead in a Scottish appeal. But his habits of conviviality, his character for flighty gaiety incompatible with eminence in business, the lateness of the time in life at which he made the attempt, and perhaps also his want of perseverance, soon stopped him short in his career of juridical practice in England as before in Scotland. His first ardour was gradually extinguished; he relinquished the hope of becoming more eminent in Westminster-hall than he had been in the parliament-house at Edinburgh; he even resigned the office of Recorder of Carlisle, and resolved henceforth to court only the praise of literature and colloquial sprightliness.

It was extremely fortunate for the lovers of literary anecdote, and of the memory of Johnson, that he was driven to adopt this resolution. Having treasured up with wonderful diligence the better part of what had fallen from his late friend Johnson, in many of the conversations in which he had excited or listened to Johnson's wisdom and colloquial eloquence, from the commencement of their acquaintance to the period of his friend's death, he now undertook to compose a biographical account of that great man, in which those treasured gleanings from his colloquial dictates should be carefully interwoven. This book was, with much care and pains, composed, conducted through the press, and presented to the public. By the public it was at first sight received with some measure of prejudice against it; for who could suppose that he who could not make up a moderate octavo, without introducing into it a number of trifles unworthy to be written or read, should have furnished out two copious quartos of the biography of a single man of letters, otherwise than by filling them with trifles. But every reader was soon pleasingly disappointed. It was found to exhibit an inimitably faithful picture of the mingled genius and weakness, the virtues and vices, the sound sense and pedantry, the benignity and passionate harshness, of the great though not consummately perfect man, the train of whose life it endeavoured to unfold. Johnson was seen in it, not as a solitary figure, but associated with those groups of his distinguished contemporaries with which it was his good fortune, in all the latter and more illustrious years of his life, often to meet and converse. It displayed many fine specimens of the manner in which, in the latter part of the eighteenth century, literature and philosophical wisdom were liable to be carelessly intermingled in the ordinary conversation of the best company in Britain. It preserved a thousand precious anecdotal memorials of the state of arts, manners, and policy among us during this period, such as must be invaluable to the philosophers and antiquarians of a future age.

The publication of this work was the last eminently-conspicuous event in Boswell's life. He died on the 19th of June, 1799.¹

¹ Abridged from a memoir in the 'Monthly Magazine' for 1803.

Joseph Black.

BORN A. D. 1728.—DIED A. D. 1799.

THE foundation of philosophical chemistry was laid in Britain by Dr Cullen. Until about the year 1730, chemistry, in this country at least, was little else than the art of preparing medicines; and the only business of its public professors was to impart to medical students some little knowledge of the principal chemical agents and their action, with an exclusive view to the methods of preparing the different articles of the pharmacopœia. Dr Cullen's chemical prelections in the college of Glasgow first conferred something like the dignity of a science upon chemistry; and it was his lectures that first incited and directed Black to that course of research which ended in the establishment of the great doctrine of latent heat, and those discoveries respecting lime and magnesia which conducted other chemists to the true theory of gases.

Joseph Black was born of British parents at Bourdeaux in France, in the year 1728. He spent in Bourdeaux and its vicinity the first twelve years of his life, at the end of which period he was sent to Belfast, where he received the rudiments of his literary education, which he completed in the university of Glasgow. In the course of his studies, he does not appear to have entered very deeply into the abstract sciences; his predilection for chemistry was early and decided, and he passed his time chiefly in the investigations of experimental philosophy. In making choice of a profession he selected that of medicine, as being the most nearly related to his favourite studies.

He graduated at Edinburgh in 1754. His inaugural dissertation printed on this occasion contains an outline of one of his great discoveries,—the nature of the alkaline earths and the properties of fixed air. It was entitled 'De Humore acido a cibus orto et Magnesia alba.' In 1756 he communicated his ideas on this subject at greater length in a paper which he read before a philosophical society in Edinburgh.¹ Nothing could exceed in simplicity the methods which our chemist pursued in conducting his researches even at this early period of his investigations. "In the same year," he says, "in which my first account of these experiments was published, namely 1757, I had discovered that this particular kind of air, attracted by alkaline substances, is deadly to all animals that breathe it by the mouth and nostrils together; but that if the nostrils were kept shut, I was led to think that it might be breathed with safety. I found, for example, that when sparrows died in it in ten or eleven seconds, they would live in it for three or four minutes when the nostrils were shut by melted suet. And I convinced myself, that the change produced on wholesome air by breathing it, consisted chiefly, if not solely, in the conversion of part of it into fixed air. For I found that by blowing through a pipe into lime-water, or a solution of caustic alkali, the lime was precipitated, and the alkali was rendered mild. I was partly led to these experiments by some observations of Dr Hales,

¹ 'Essays, Physical and Literary.' Edinburgh: 1757

in which he says that breathing through diaphragms of cloth dipped in alkaline solution, made the air last longer for the purposes of life. In the same year, I found that fixed air is the chief part of the elastic matter which is formed in liquids in the vinous fermentation. Van Helmont had indeed said this, and it was to this that he first gave the name *gas silvestre*. It could not long be unknown to those occupied in brewing or making wines. But it was at random that he said it was the same with that of the grotto del Cane in Italy—but he supposed the identity, because both are deadly—for he had examined neither of them chemically, nor did he know that it was the air disengaged in the effervescence of alkaline substances with acids. I convinced myself of the fact, by going to a brew-house with two phials, one filled with distilled water, and the other with lime-water. I emptied the first into a vat of wort fermenting briskly, holding the mouth of the phial close to the surface of the wort. I then poured some of the lime-water into it, shut it with my finger, and shook it. The lime-water became turbid immediately. Van Helmont says that the *dunste*, or deadly vapour of burning charcoal, is the same gas silvestre; but this was also a random conjecture. He does not even say that it extinguishes flame; yet this was known to the chemists of his day. I had now the certain means of deciding the question, since, if the same, it must be fixed air. I made several indistinct experiments as soon as the conjecture occurred to my thoughts; but they were with little contrivance or accuracy. In the evening of the same day that I discovered that it was fixed air that escaped from fermenting liquors, I made an experiment which satisfied me. Unfixing the nozzle of a pair of chamber bellows, I put a bit of charcoal, just red hot, into the wide end of it, and then quickly putting it into its place again, I plunged the pipe to the bottom of a phial, and forced the air very slowly through the charcoal, so as to maintain its combustion, but not produce a heat too suddenly for the phial to bear. When I judged that the air of the phial was completely vitiated, I poured lime-water into it, and had the pleasure of seeing it become milky in a moment."² The course of investigation thus opened up for the first time was afterwards pursued by Cavendish and Priestley, and undoubtedly conducted them to those brilliant discoveries which have rendered their names immortal in the annals of chemical science.

In the same year, 1756, Dr Black was appointed to the chair of chemistry and anatomy in Glasgow, vacant by the resignation of his preceptor, Cullen. From this period his attention was necessarily much occupied by the routine of teaching. Before the year 1763, however, he had brought his next grand set of experiments and inquiries on the absorption of heat to a conclusion. He removed from Glasgow to Edinburgh in 1766, where he again succeeded Cullen as professor of chemistry. From this period, says his biographer Mr Robison, he "formed the firm resolution of directing his whole study to the improvement of his scholars in the elementary knowledge of chemistry. He saw too many of them with a very scanty stock of previous learning; he had many from the workshop of the manufacturer, who had none at all; and he saw that the number of such hearers must increase with the increasing activity and prosperity of the country: and these appeared to

² Lectures, vol. ii. pp. 87, 88.

him as by no means the least important part of his auditory. To engage the attention of such pupils, and to be perfectly understood by the most illiterate, was therefore considered by Dr Black as his most sacred duty. Plain doctrines, therefore, taught in the plainest manner, must employ his chief study. That no help may be wanting, all must be illustrated by suitable experiments, by the exhibition of specimens, and the management of chemical processes. Nice and abstruse philosophical opinions would not interest such hearers; any doctrines, inculcated in a refined manner, and referring to elaborate disquisitions of others, would not be understood by the major part of an audience of young persons, as yet only beginning their studies. To this resolution Dr Black strictly adhered, endeavouring every year to make his courses more plain and familiar, and illustrating them by a great variety of examples in the way of experiment. No man could perform these more neatly and successfully. They were always ingeniously and judiciously contrived, clearly establishing the point in view, and never more than sufficed for this purpose. While he scorned the quackery of a showman, the simplicity, neatness, and elegance, with which they were performed, were truly admirable. Indeed the *simplex munditiis* stamped every thing that he did. I think it was the unperceived operation of this impression that made Dr Black's lectures such a treat to all his scholars. They were not only instructed, but (they knew not how) delighted; and without any effort to please, but solely by the natural emanation of a gentle and elegant mind, co-operating, indeed, with a most perspicuous exhibition of his sentiments, Dr Black became a favourite lecturer; and many were induced, by the report of his students, to attend his courses, without having any particular relish for chemical knowledge, but merely in order to be pleased. This, however, contributed greatly to the extending the knowledge of chemistry; and it became a fashionable part of the accomplishment of a gentleman."

Dr Black's only publications, subsequent to his Edinburgh appointment, were a paper on the effects of boiling upon water in disposing it to freeze more readily, printed in the 'London Philosophical Transactions' for 1774, and an analysis of the water of some hot springs in Iceland, in the 'Edinburgh Philosophical Transactions' for 1791. He died in 1799.

Mr Robison has given us an interesting sketch of the personal habits and general demeanour of this illustrious philosopher. "I have already observed," says he, "that when I was first acquainted with Dr Black, his aspect was comely and interesting. As he advanced in years his countenance continued to preserve that pleasing expression of inward satisfaction, which, by giving ease to the beholder, never fails to please. His manner was perfectly easy, and unaffected, and graceful. He was of most easy approach, affable, and readily entered into conversation, whether serious or trivial. His mind being abundantly furnished with matter, his conversation was at all times pertinent and agreeable; for Dr Black's acquirements were not merely those of a man of science. He was a stranger to none of the elegant accomplishments of life. He therefore easily fell into any topic of conversation, and supported his part in it respectably. He had a fine, or accurate musical ear, and a voice which would obey it in the most perfect manner; for he sung,

and performed on the flute, with great taste and feeling; and could sing a plain air at sight, which many instrumental performers cannot do. But this was science. Dr Black was a very intelligent judge of musical composition; and I never heard any person express so intelligibly the characteristic differences of some of the national musics of Europe. I speak of Dr Black as I knew him at Glasgow. After his coming to Edinburgh, he gave up most of those amusements. Without having studied drawing, he had acquired a considerable power of expression with his pencil, both in figures and in landscape. He was peculiarly happy in expressing the passions; and seemed, in this respect, to have the talent of a history painter. He had not any opportunities of becoming a connoisseur; but his opinion of a piece of painting, or sculpture, was respected by good judges. Figure, indeed, of every kind, attracted his attention;—in architecture, furniture, ornament of every sort, it was never a matter of indifference. Even a retort or a crucible was to his eye an example of beauty or deformity. His memorandum-books are full of studies (may I call them) of this sort; and there is one drawing of an iron furnace, fitted up with rough unhewn timber, that is finished with great beauty, and would not disgrace the hand of a Woollett. Naturally, therefore, the young ladies were proud of Dr Black's approbation of their taste in matters of ornament. These are not indifferent things; they are features of an elegant mind, and they account for some part of that satisfaction and pleasure which persons of all different habits and pursuits felt in Dr Black's company and conversation. I think that I could frequently discover what was the circumstance of form, &c. in which Dr Black perceived or sought for beauty,—it was some suitableness or propriety; and he has often pointed it out to me, in things where I never could have looked for it. Yet I saw that he was ingeniously in the right. I may almost say, that the love of propriety was the leading sentiment of Dr Black's mind. This was the first standard to which he appealed in all his judgments; and I believe he endeavoured to make it the directing principle of his conduct. Happy is the man whose moderation of pursuits leaves this sentiment in possession of much authority. Seldom are our judgments greatly wrong on this question; but we too seldom listen to them."

The merits of Black as a chemical philosopher, have been lost sight of amid the brilliant and rapid discoveries of his successors, though, as has been most justly observed, theirs have been only the glories of rearing a system of which he had laid the firm foundations. M. De Luc and the French academicians made an ungenerous attempt to deprive Black of the merits of his great discovery,—the doctrine of latent heat; but his countrymen have successfully vindicated his claim to this most important and fundamental theory. M. Wilcke, secretary to the Stockholm academy, published in the 'Memoirs' of that association, for 1772, a paper on the quantity of heat absorbed by snow when it melts. This was, however, just ten years after the publication of Black's discovery. The publications of Lavoisier and Laplace on the same subject were full twenty years later, and Dr Irvine and Dr Crawford had in the interval prosecuted their master's researches with great success, and proved that every substance in nature has a specific heat of its own.

Before Black laid the foundation of a new era in chemistry, the chemists of Europe were universally possessed with a mistaken faith in the

phlogistic theory of Stahl. According to them, all combustible bodies are compounds,—one of their constituents being what he called phlogiston. During combustion this phlogiston makes its escape, and the other constituents remain behind. A metal, for example, according to the Stahlian theory, is a compound of a calx and phlogiston; and when it is burnt, the phlogiston flies off and the calx remains. But it was very soon discovered that when a metal has undergone combustion, the calx which remains is heavier than the metal was before it was burnt. To meet this difficulty chemists gravely asserted that phlogiston was not merely destitute of weight, but actually endowed with a principle of levity! This phlogiston of Stahl, then, was “evidently no inference from induction, even as modified and altered by his followers; neither was it the hypothesis of any peculiar qualities in the matter of heat: it was the assumption of a substance, different from every other with which we are acquainted, endued with qualities repugnant to the universal properties of matter, and capable of producing every effect which the inventors might wish to explain. Phlogiston was indeed denominated the matter of heat and light; but it might as well have been called the reguline principle; and then, instead of saying that the escape of the matter of heat and light causes the calcination of metals, the followers of Stahl would have said, that the escape of the reguline principle causes the combustion of inflammable bodies. It is evident that no specific effect, no subordination to the laws of chemical affinity, was ever ascribed to the substance which affects our sense with the feeling of heat, until Dr Black, from the most faithful and cautious examination of obvious facts, found that this substance is capable of uniting with bodies, so as not to affect our senses with the peculiar feeling of heat, and yet to produce upon those bodies the most important changes,—in the same manner that an acid, when combined with an alkali, ceases to taste sour, while it destroys the acidity of the alkali, and forms a third body, possessing the noxious qualities of neither. This physical law, discovered by the strictest induction, is applicable to the explanation of an infinite number of phenomena: its operations actually occur in almost every chemical experiment, and its influence is perceived in all the great processes of nature.”

Joseph Towers, LL.D.

BORN A. D. 1737.—DIED A. D. 1799.

THIS literary and political, rather than ecclesiastical character, was a native of Sherborne, in Dorsetshire. His father was a bookseller, in very limited circumstances, and he himself received only a very partial education. In 1754, he was apprenticed to a printer; and, on learning his trade he came to London, where he for some time supported himself by working as a journeyman-printer.

In 1763, he appeared as an author, in a work entitled, ‘A Review of the Genuine Doctrines of Christianity;’ subsequently, having married a lady with some property, he opened a bookseller’s shop; but in 1774 he resigned trade, having been chosen pastor of a congregation at Highgate. In 1778, he was nominated morning preacher to a congregation

at Newington, on the removal of Dr Price to Hackney. In 1779, the university of Edinburgh conferred on him the degree of LL. D.

On the formation of the 'Society for Constitutional information,' Dr Towers was ballotted for, and appointed secretary. In this capacity he was laid under arrest in 1794, and examined before the Privy council, relative to the proceedings of a club which enumerated amongst its members, the dukes of Norfolk and Richmond, the earls of Effingham and Derby, Sir William Jones, Sheridan, Dr Price, Mr Erskine, and many other distinguished names. On this occasion the Doctor exhibited great firmness as well as prudence, and was dismissed without trial by the intercession of the primate. On the establishment of the society of 'Friends of the People,' Dr Towers was of course enrolled a member.

Dr Towers was a man of extensive information, liberal principles, and great energy and decision of character. He lived a laborious and useful life up to the period of his death in 1799. He compiled the greater part of the 'British Biography,' also between fifty and sixty articles in the new edition of the 'Biographia Britannica.' In 1773 he published 'An Examination into Sir J. Dalrymple's attack on the memory of Sydney and Russell;' in 1774, a 'Letter to Dr Johnson, occasioned by his Political Pamphlets;' in 1786, an 'Essay on the Life and Writings of Dr Johnson;' and, in 1788, 'Memoirs of the Life and Reign of Frederick III.'

Robert Merry.

BORN A. D. 1755.—DIED A. D. 1799.

BETWEEN the classical school of Gray and the school of nature founded by Cowper, there arose a set of poets in England who strove to introduce into the native literature a style of composition and sentiment singularly mawkish and affected. Of this new school—on which its own founders conferred the name of Della Cruscan—Robert Merry was accounted *facile princeps*.

"The first foundation of the gentleman, in young Merry"—to use the words of a biographer of his own school—"was laid by that great literary character, Dr Parr." From the Doctor he went to Christ church, Oxford. It was at first intended that he should study law; and with that view, after leaving the university, he entered of Lincoln's inn; but he speedily forsook Coke and Littleton for a commission in the horse-guards. He joined that honourable corps at a period when, according to our Della Cruscan authority, "it was difficult to decide whether the devotion to the rosy god and Cyprian goddess did not outdo its zeal in the service of Bellona."

A military life, however,—even in such a gay corps as the horse-guards,—"did not long engage his heart." Our hero threw up his commission, and betook himself to Florence, where our 'English Eneas' was for a while captivated and entranced by the charms of an 'Italian Dido?' But even Dido's influence was as short-lived as that of Bellona. The "waters of the gilded Po," which had once "extinguished the ambition of a Phaeton," now "contributed to quench the flame of our

hero." Literary ambition next took possession of our hero's heart; he applied himself to the study of Italian, and at last reached the summit of literary glory in being elected "a member of the celebrated academy Della Crusca."

"The judicious and learned Mrs Piozzi" was also at this time in Florence, and exercising her literary gifts in a publication of her own, called 'The Florentine Miscellany.' She had the good fortune to enlist the newly elected associate of the Della Crusca in her band of contributors; but alas! "while wit and taste," says our leading authority, "were thus publicly diffused through the elegant part of the world, private scandal did not want for publishers. Tales were circulated, which, according to the late and learned Lord Mansfield's doctrine, could not fail to be deemed great libels. And these becoming every day more current, failed not to give great uneasiness to the innamorato as well as to his friends. Mr Merry's indignation at the authors of these reports urged him to take up the pen of satire in revenge. He employed it in ridiculing the greater part of the circle, and in some measure occasioned its breaking up. This incident hastened his return to his native country, and gives a proper occasion to speak of his poetical taste and acquirements."

Our Della Cruscan biographer goes on to tell us that as Mr Merry "had the qualities of a poet by nature," it was nothing in the least wonderful that he should at last think of turning his attention to the composition of poetry; and that "the approbation his first essays in the art experienced fully justified the great expectation formed of his future productions. Many of his pieces," we are assured, "have been rather impromptu flights to Parnassus than studied compositions. They show, however, the author's powers; and while they give pleasure to the present age they will not fail to secure him the admiration of posterity. Of his beautiful verses and fugitive-pieces published in the 'World,' under the title Della Crusca, &c. it is unnecessary to speak; they are fresh in every one's memory. Of his satirical and witty epigrams published in the 'Argus,' under the signature of Tom Thorne, it is equally needless to make mention. During the last months of that paper's existence, it might be truly said, a certain Rose was never without a Thorne. As a specimen of the keenness of our poet's epigrammatic wit, we give," continues our eulogist, "the few following instances:—

THE LONDON ROSE.

The Rose is called the first of flowers
In all the rural shades and bowers;
But O! in London 'tis decreed,
The Rose is but a dirty weed.

THE HOT-HOUSE ROSE.

From genial heat, the hot-house Rose
Expands and blushes, thrives and blots;
But the poor Rose will fade and rot
Whene'er the House becomes too hot.

ON ANOTHER SUBJECT.

When Truth her rending scourge applies,
The hirelings roar with streaming eyes
They crowd together and complain,
They cannot bear so great a pain.

“ Upon a ministerial newspaper affixing *his* adopted signature to some verses of a very different nature and tendency, he wrote the following,

IMPROMPTU.

The slavish print, that's dead to shame,
In fury for departed fame,
Has even robb'd me of my name :
Alas ! my nose is out of joint ;
Yet what's a Thorne without a point ?”

Our epigrammatist next directed his brilliant talents to dramatic composition ; but we are gravely told that “ he was not superficial enough to succeed in this walk. He disdained to sacrifice judgment to perverted taste, and therefore was not calculated to please a vitiated palate. His tragedy of ‘Lorenzo,’ represented at Covent Garden house,—and his ‘Magician no Conjuror,’—while they prove his various turn of mind, equally manifest to those who knew the writer, that he was biassed to the undertaking without due consideration. His native fire,” we are next assured, “flames out in his odes. Some of these give room to think that had he employed himself chiefly in the lyric species of poetry, he might have filled a most honourable place between Pindar and Horace.(1) In confirmation of which assertion reference may be had to the odaic song he wrote for the 14th of July, the anniversary of the fall of the Bastile, and which was repeated in full chorus, with so much applause, in the year 1791, at the Crown and Anchor tavern. The ‘Laurel of Liberty’ he wrote also, and presented it to the National convention, who did honour to the author by the manner in which it was received.”

The French revolution drew Merry to Paris, where, we are informed, he favoured the young legislature with a short treatise, in English, on the nature of free government, which also was graciously received by the convention ; “honourable mention being made of it in their journals.” Our poet and legislator, however, did not feel himself quite at ease in Paris : “Revolution upon revolution greatly affected his sensibility ; for, although he was robust of frame, his nerves did not correspond with his muscular strength.” For these excellent reasons, “he quitted the scene of sanguinary contention,” and once more betook himself to England. His next adventure we must relate in the words of his Della Cruscan pupil.

“ Upon his marriage with the celebrated actress Miss Brunton, a prospect opened to him of living at his ease by the joint production of that lady's talents and his own pen ; but unfortunately the pride of those relations upon whom he had most dependence, was wounded by the alliance, and he was constrained, much against Mrs Merry's inclination, to take her from the stage. This he did as soon as her engagement at the theatre expired, which was in the spring of 1792. They both returned from the continent in the summer of 1793 (for Mrs Merry had accompanied him to France,) and from that date they cannot be said to have formed any settled plan, unless their retiring to America in 1796 may be so considered. Occasionally, in the above interval, Mr Merry wrote for a periodical paper ; and some of the best poetry in the ‘Telegraph’ was the production of his pen. His ‘Signior Pittachio,’ written at this period, must ever be deemed a most happy production of keen satire, unsurpassed by any thing in ancient or modern times. (!) No

minister in any age had been so ridiculed before. But our author had seen that the thunder of reason and truth had been as ineffectually tried to change the state of affairs as his squibs of satire and ridicule; he therefore began to think of seeking in a distant country what he despaired of ever finding in this. He was not long in resolving. He snatched up a pen, and wrote, partly in tears, partly in ink, an adieu to his native land. These affecting lines are in print, and the occasion and subject of them are fresh in the minds of his dearest friends, to whom upon his taking leave he said, in the words of Oroonoko:—

————— ‘ This last farewell :
Be sure of one thing that will comfort us,—
Whatever world we are next thrown upon,
Cannot be worse than this.’

Considering this a mere sketch of a life in what is called the *grande monde*, we have not touched upon any of the incidents of our hero's early age. Trifling as they may be thought by some persons, they will no doubt one day engage the pen of some abler hand, who shall undertake fully to satisfy public curiosity, by prefixing his whole life to a collection of his classical works.”

Mr Merry died suddenly at Baltimore in Maryland. The hopes of his biographer remain yet unfulfilled. No collection of his ‘classical works’ has yet been called for by an undiscerning public; and of his tremendous satires, unrivalled odes, and matchless epigrams, not one is now remembered; the memory of the founder of the Della Cruscan school of English poetry has, however, been embalmed for the admiration of future generations in Mr Gifford's ‘Bæviad and Mæviad.’

Burnett, Lord Monboddo.

BORN A. D. 1714.—DIED A. D. 1799.

JAMES BURNETT, one of the Scottish lords of Session, was descended from the ancient family of the Burnetts of Leys in Kincardineshire, and was born at the family seat of Monboddo, in the latter part of the year 1714. He was first educated at the parish school of Laurencekirk, whence he went to King's college, Aberdeen; after the usual course there he went to the continent, and studied civil law at the university of Groningen. Having passed successfully through his juridical studies, he was received a member of the Faculty of advocates in Edinburgh in 1738, and speedily rose into considerable repute and practice at the bar.

During the rebellion in 1745, while the administration of justice in the northern capital was interrupted, he went to London, where he gained the acquaintance of several of the literati of the day, and particularly of Mallet, Thomson, and Armstrong. These visits, like his contemporary Boswell, he became fond of repeating during the vacations of court; so that he kept up his acquaintance with the leading literary men of the day, long after most of his contemporaries were laid in the dust.

In 1767 he was promoted to the bench, by the title of Lord Monboddo, on the death of Lord Milton. In 1773 he surprised the literary

world by the publication of his work 'On the Origin and Progress of Language,'—a work full of profound and varied erudition and whimsical ideas, but intended chiefly to vindicate the honours of Grecian literature and metaphysics of the Greeks. With the same capital view his lordship afterwards published his huge treatise, in six 4to volumes, on 'Ancient Metaphysics.' His notions of the origin of language, arts, and sciences were much akin to those of the ancient Epicureans as detailed by Lucretius in his 5th book. He carried his admiration of the ancients to an excessive and foolish pitch, contending not only for their mental but in all respects physical superiority over the modern race of mortals, whom he was fond of representing as an exceedingly degenerate race, and degenerating still in each successive generation. Yet there was nothing about his lordship's manner which indicated any thing like heartlessness towards his racè, or even any want of the amenities of life in his general manners. Boswell carried Johnson to see Monboddo, when on their tour to the North. Lord Monboddo, says Boswell, "received us at his gate most courteously; pointed to the Douglas arms upon his house, and told us that his great-grandmother was of that family. 'In such houses,' said he, 'our ancestors lived, who were better men than we.' 'No, no, my lord!' said Dr Johnson, 'we are as strong as they and a great deal wiser.' This was an assault upon one of Lord Monboddo's capital dogmas," continues Boswell, "and I was afraid there would have been a violent altercation in the very close, before we got into the house. But his lordship is distinguished not only for 'Ancient Metaphysics,' but for ancient *politesse*,—'*la vieille cour*,'—and he made no reply."

Lord Monboddo died in 1799. As a judge he was ever considered able, upright, and assiduous in the discharge of his duties.

William Withering.

BORN A. D. 1741.—DIED A. D. 1799.

THIS excellent botanist was the son of a respectable apothecary at Wellington, Shropshire. He studied at the university of Edinburgh, and graduated in 1766.

In 1774, after having practised for a short time at Stafford, he removed to Birmingham, where he soon got into a very extensive and lucrative practice. In 1776 he published a 'Botanical Arrangement' of British plants, in two vols. 8vo. The first edition of this work was little more than a translation of Hudson's 'Flora Anglica,' published in 1762, which last was an adaptation of Ray's synopsis to the system of Linnæus. The third edition of the 'Arrangement,' however, published in four vols. 8vo. in 1796, was so much improved and enlarged as to be justly considered an original work.

In 1783 Dr Withering published a translation of Bergmann's 'Outlines of Mineralogy;' and in 1785 a very valuable professional treatise on the use of fox-glove as a diuretic. Besides these publications he communicated a variety of papers to the Royal society. He died in 1799.

William Melmoth.

BORN A. D. 1710.—DIED A. D. 1799.

THIS accomplished scholar and elegant writer was son of William Melmoth, Esq., of Lincoln's inn, the author of a very popular treatise entitled 'The Great Importance of a Religious Life,' which was ascribed by Walpole to the first earl of Egmont. He was educated for his father's profession, and appointed a commissioner of bankrupts, by Sir John Eardley Wilmot, in 1756. He seems, however, to have spent the greater part of his life in retirement and the cultivation of polite literature.

He first appeared as an author in 1742, in a volume of letters under the name of Fitzosborne, in which he has discussed various topics, moral and literary, with much acuteness of reasoning and elegance of diction. In 1747 he published a translation of Pliny's Letters, in two volumes; and in 1753 a translation of Cicero's Letters, in three volumes. He subsequently published translations of Cicero's treatises 'De Amicitia' and 'De Senectute.' All these are remarkably elegant works, though the translator has perhaps enfeebled the energy of the originals by the extreme care and polish which he has bestowed upon the style of his English version. He died at Bath in 1799.

John Bacon.

BORN A. D. 1740.—DIED A. D. 1799.

THIS celebrated sculptor was the son of a cloth-worker in Southwark, Surrey. His parents were poor, and his education very limited. He discovered an early taste for the arts of design, and having apprenticed himself, at the age of fourteen, to a porcelain-maker, he was employed in modelling those little figures which appear in bas relief on some articles of pottery, and occasionally too in painting figures on plates and dishes. He might never have risen from this humblest walk in the profession of art, had his genius not been excited to higher attempts than the modelling of sheep and shepherdesses by the small clay models used by sculptors in those days which were sent to the pottery furnace to be hardened. These at once stimulated his ambition and directed his taste; and so rapidly did he improve his taste and execution by the contemplation of the models thus supplied him, that at the age of nineteen he obtained a premium of ten guineas from the Society of arts for a model in clay; by the same society he was subsequently awarded other premiums to the amount of above £200, in the course of fifteen years. On the establishment of the Royal academy he became a student, along with Banks and Nollekins, and in 1769 he received, from the hands of Reynolds, the first gold medal for sculpture given by the academy.

"The subject," says Mr Allan Cunningham, "was Æneas bearing Anchises from the burning of Troy,—the figures some twenty inches

high and the relief small,—and I suspect one of his unsuccessful antagonists was Banks; for among the models of the latter I have observed two reliefs of the same subject, both of considerable merit. His reputation was farther established by the exhibition of his statue of Mars: West, when he saw it, said to one of his brethren, ‘If this is his first essay, what will this man be when he arrives at maturity?’—an observation creditable to both, yet proving that Bacon’s earlier works had failed in making an impression on the painter. The statue obtained for our sculptor the personal notice of the archbishop of York, a gold medal from the Society of arts, and his election as an associate of the Royal academy itself in the year 1770. Looking at it with eyes accustomed to the marbles of ancient Greece and modern Italy, we are apt to feel some surprise that it should have awakened so much emotion. But if we consider the state of sculpture at that period in England, we will soften the severity of our comparisons, and rank it with the best of those statues made upon academic principles,—correct in outline, accurate in proportions,—nicely balanced in action and skilfully modelled, and deficient only in that heroic sentiment and true touch of soul, which can animate and kindle the rudest shape, and without which forms worthy of Olympus are but clods of the valley. The statue is naked, of the size of life, with more of the soft graceful look of Adonis than of the fiery energy of Mars.”

Bacon’s advancing reputation now encouraged him to open a studio in the city, and “commence his contest for bread and fame.” By the kindness of Dr Markham he was employed to model a bust of the king for the hall of Christ church, Oxford. This he executed in a manner which entirely pleased both his majesty and the Oxonians; and, what was of still greater consequence to his further success, his address and whole bearing proved agreeable to royalty. Soon after this he removed from Wardour-street to Newman-street, where, it is said, a friendly builder provided him with a handsome suite of rooms entirely at his own risk in the first instance: saying that he should never look for any return for the money he had laid out until the artist was quite capable of giving it. He now executed various works in marble for both private and public commissions. One of the earliest public monuments that came from his chisel was that in honour of the illustrious Chatham, ordered by the city corporation for their guild-hall. This monument is in the allegorical taste of the day, but certainly much superior to the great mass of its contemporaries. Cunningham, perhaps with justice, censures it for a certain violence of action,—it is wanting in that character of calmness and repose which seems so essential to perfect effect in sculpture. Shortly after this he fabricated an antique head of a Jupiter Tonans, and exhibited it as such to his brother-artists, who took the bait, and supposing it to be really an antique, were loud and unanimous in its praise. “He often remarked,” says his biographer, the Rev. Mr Cecil, “on the affectation of many with respect to the antique, who are without taste for selecting what is really excellent in it. ‘Call it,’ said he, ‘but an antique, and people begin immediately to find some beauty. Look at that figure in the corner of my study,—can you see any thing in it? Yet many who come here and at first take no notice of it, as soon as they hear it is a cast from the antique, begin to admire! Had I made it a few years ago it would not have

produced me a shilling.' ” Bacon was probably stimulated to this piece of deception by the criticism of Banks and some other brother-artists, who complained of the “want of antique feeling” perceptible in his compositions.

In 1780 Bacon had reached the zenith of fame and prosperity; commissions flowed in upon him in greater abundance almost than he could execute, and he still retained that most important accessory to an artist's success in the metropolis,—the favour of the court. On the death of the earl of Chatham, Bacon, not without the practice of some disingenuous finesse, and by availing himself also of his influence with the royal ear, obtained the commission from government for his monument. He executed it with considerable power and effect; but it betrays the prevailing faults of the sculptor's style. It is altogether too gorgeous, and evidently framed *ad captandum*. It is not the conception of a mind possessed with the highest faculties of the art; it is only that of one who knows what will please and strike generally. It wants simplicity and unity of design.

His next popular works were the monuments to Major Pierson in Westminster abbey, and to Mrs Draper (the Eliza of Sterne) in Bristol cathedral, and the bronze recumbent figure of Thames in the court of Somerset-house. All these, and former works, were greatly surpassed, however, by his monumental statues of Samuel Johnson and John Howard, placed on the right and left of the entrance to the choir of St Paul's; the former erected in 1785, the latter ten years later. Mr Cunningham has the following remarks on Johnson's statue: “It represents the sage and critic in the attitude of profound thought,—his head, neck, arms, and feet are bare, and over him is thrown a robe which reaches to the pedestal, displaying, amid the arrangements of its folds, the manly form which it covers. There is an air of surly seriousness about it which corresponds with the character of the man,—he stands musing and pondering; there is enough of good portraiture to satisfy those who desire likeness in statues,—and of poetical skill and treatment in the costume to please those who, while they covet simplicity, are sensible that modern dress is injurious to the dignity of sculpture. At the foot of this fine figure is an inscription, from the pen of Dr Parr, in a language which ten millions out of twelve that see it cannot read, and in which the works that render the name of Johnson famous are not written. To come a step lower, there is a period inserted between every word. In the ancient inscriptions, which this professes to imitate, similar marks are placed, but then spaces were not left between the words. In short, the mark in the old Latin inscriptions had a meaning—the dot in the modern pedantic epitaphs has no meaning at all, and merely embarrasses the sense.” The ingenious critic has stepped a little out of his way, and, as it seems to us, to no very good purpose, in the latter part of these strictures. In works of taste only the purest models of taste should be employed even to the minutest accessories; and there can be little question that, besides the powerful effects of association which must ever accompany the use of that noble language on the remains of which our earliest taste is formed, its mechanism is incomparably more beautiful than that of any modern language, and better fitted, therefore, for embodying the graceful in thought and expression. Johnson himself would have shuddered at

the idea of an English inscription being placed on his monument. As to the points or periods inserted between each word, we have always thought, that though the same necessity no longer exists for their use, yet their introduction in lapidary inscription has always a pleasing effect on the eye; and perhaps suggests to the mind the calm and measured tone in which the epitaphs of the illustrious dead should be pronounced.

Bacon continued in active employment and the full exercise of all his faculties, almost up to the moment of his death, which took place on the 6th of August, 1799. He was buried in Tottenham Court chapel, where a plain tablet bears the following inscription from his own pen: "What I was as an artist seemed to me of some importance while I lived; but what I really was as a believer in Christ Jesus is the only thing of importance to me now."

His merits as an artist are unquestionably very great. He did not enjoy the advantage of studying the works of ancient art in early life, but perhaps this was in his favour. It threw him upon the native resources of his own mind, and was perhaps the origin of his success, by driving him into a style of his own, into which he "infused more good English sense" than any preceding artist.

In his private character he was amiable and decidedly pious. "His habits," says Cecil, "were frugal, but not penurious. This statement I feel warranted to assert, though I am sensible it has been and probably will be denied. Being favoured by the public with the execution of most of the principal pieces which have been done of late, he could not but acquire considerable property; but the prudence which, as a father of a large family and in a precarious profession, he deemed it necessary to observe,—the plain and careless style of every thing about his house,—the envy of some interested contemporaries,—and, above all, the motives of his conduct being greatly misunderstood, gave occasion to the objections which have been raised against his liberality. That there was sometimes the appearance of parsimony cannot be denied; and also that he has been known to lament a disposition towards it, while he dilated, as he frequently did, on the odiousness of the sin." "He has," says Mr Bacon, junior, "been thought hard and irritable when little mistakes have been made; but if he was at any time little it was in little things; for in greater affairs he always manifested a noble character of mind. He would give a considerable sum of money to some pious or charitable design on that very day in which he would burn his fingers by sparing paper in lighting a candle. I am ready to concede that Mr Bacon did not possess that splendour of bounty proportioned to his means, by which some religious characters have distinguished themselves and put a dignity upon their profession. His original circumstances had begotten close habits; they had become even natural to him; and he had, from sentiment and from principle, a disapprobation of the expensive habits of the present day. His manner of living was that of the last age, and he thought such an example best for a large family, among whom his property was to be divided. I however mention, on the best authority, that as he had observed his own infirmities and those of the tender part of his family to increase, he had determined soon to enlarge his expenses for ease and retirement as far perhaps as Christian prudence and its charitable requirements would permit."

Notwithstanding his defective early education he continued to obtain a considerable amount of various knowledge, and to write respectably, as the following quotation from an article which he furnished to Rees's edition of Chambers's Dictionary, will testify: "It is probable," he observes, "that sculpture is more ancient than painting, and if we examine the style of ancient painting, there is reason to conclude that sculpture stood first in the public esteem; as the ancient masters have evidently imitated the statuaries even to their disadvantage; since their works have not that freedom of style, more especially with respect to their composition and drapery, which the pencil might easily acquire to a greater degree than that of the chisel; but as this is universally the case, it cannot be attributed to any thing else besides the higher estimation of the works on which they have formed themselves. Which is the more difficult art, has been a question often agitated. Painting has the greatest number of requisites, but at the same time her expedients are the most numerous; and therefore we may venture to affirm, that whenever sculpture pleases equally with a painting, the sculptor is certainly the greatest artist. Sculpture has indeed had the honour of giving law to all the schools of design, both ancient and modern, with respect to purity of form. The reason perhaps is, that being divested of those meretricious ornaments by which painting is enabled to seduce its admirers, it is happily forced to seek for its effect in the higher excellencies of the art; hence elevation in the idea as well as purity and grandeur in the forms, is found in greater perfection in sculpture than in painting. Besides, whatever may be the original principles which direct our feelings in the approbation of intrinsic beauty, they are without doubt very much under the influence of association. Custom and habit will necessarily give a false bias to our judgment; it is therefore natural, and in some measure reasonable, that those arts which are temporaneous should adapt themselves to the changes of fashion. But sculpture, by its durability, and consequent application to works of perpetuity, is obliged to acquire and maintain the essential principles of beauty and grandeur, that its effect on the mind may be preserved through the various changes of mental taste."

Thomas Banks.

BORN A. D. 1735.—DIED A. D. 1805.

CONTEMPORARY with Bacon was Thomas Banks, the son of the duke of Beaufort's land-steward; born in the close of the year 1735. He received a better education than Bacon, and entered on his professional career under fairer auspices. His father intended him to follow the profession of an architect, and with this view placed him under Kent, at that time the "unlimited monarch in architecture;" but he does not appear to have devoted himself very zealously to the instructions of his master. Sculpture obtained his early homage; and when the doors of the Royal academy were first opened, he had made such proficiency in the art as to obtain the instant notice of Sir Joshua Reynolds. Let it be remembered, however, that at this time Banks had attained the mature age of thirty-three; and had given himself sedu-

leusly to the cultivation of his favourite art for many years, as appears from the number of premiums which had been awarded him by the Society of arts between the years 1763 and 1769.

There was this difference betwixt the rising sculptors Bacon and Banks, that while the works of the former affected nothing of the antique, those of the latter were pervaded by its spirit; in the language of Sir Joshua, Banks's "mind was ever dwelling on subjects worthy of an ancient Greek." His classical group of Mercury, Argus, and Io, was so much approved of by the academicians, that they resolved to give the sculptor an opportunity of studying at Rome. He was now in his thirty-seventh year, but his spirit was young enough, and his enthusiasm for art sufficiently strong, to prompt him, married man as he was, to set out for 'the Eternal city,' with the prospect of remaining three years abroad.

On his arrival in Rome he took lessons in some of the practical manipulations of his art from Capizzoldi. "There is nothing more beautiful in the whole range of art," says Allan Cunningham,—who has an unquestionable right to be heard on such a point,—“than to see a skilful person hold the chisel upon a piece of fine sculpture,—to observe the perfect confidence with which one hand guides the tool while the other gives the blow, and this in places requiring such neatness and delicacy of handling, that the smallest slip would be fatal, and a button weight of more than the proper force maim the marble for ever. Banks was not insensible of the value of a skilful man's instructions: 'Your good friend, Capizzoldi, has been truly kind to me;' he thus writes to Smith, who introduced him, 'he has improved me much by the instructions he has given me in cutting the marble, in which the Italians beat us hollow.' This reproach, if just then, is no longer merited; from the studios of British sculptors much exquisite workmanship is constantly sent into the world, rivalling in softness and delicacy, and surpassing in vigour, even the marvellous marbles of Canova." While at Rome our sculptor proved a most laborious and successful student. He executed several works which were pronounced first-rate by the Italian connoisseurs, especially a figure of Love catching a moth or butterfly, of which his biographer says, that "perhaps for grace, symmetry of form, and accuracy of contour, it has scarcely been equalled by a modern hand, and might almost vie with those productions of the ancients to which his admiration as well as emulation had been so constantly directed."

After a residence of seven years in Rome, Banks returned to England. He found Bacon in full fame and almost exclusive employment, and in vain attempted to obtain a share of public patronage. After much patient waiting, his spirit sickened at the indifferent reception he had met with in his own country, and he accepted a proposal from the court of Russia to transfer his studio from London to Petersburg. He soon perceived, however, that his fortunes were not likely to be greatly benefitted by his change of country, and, after an absence of two years, again presented himself in London.

Soon after his re-establishment in the metropolis, he was fortunate enough to attract the attention of a wealthy patron, a man also of taste and learning, in Mr Johnes of Hafod, the well-known translator of Froissart. For this gentleman, Banks executed various works, chiefly

classical subjects: amongst others, Thetis dipping the Infant Achilles; and Thetis and her nymphs ascending from the sea to condole with Achilles. For these and other works he was made an academician. His admission-gift to the academy was the figure of a fallen Titan, which has been much admired for its anatomical truth.

Fortunately for himself and his fame, our sculptor's next work was of a class and character to which his chisel had been altogether a stranger. Hitherto we have seen it employed only on classical compositions,—groups from the antique conceived in the spirit of ancient poetry,—beautiful but cold poetical abstractions: it was now to be exercised on a simple subject,—the simplest almost that nature could offer. This was a monument to the infant daughter of Sir Brooke Boothby, now in Ashbourne church, Derbyshire. “Simplicity and elegance,” says Dr Mavor, “appear in the workmanship—tenderness and innocence in the image. On a marble pedestal and slab, like a low table, is a mattress, with the child lying on it, both likewise in white marble. Her cheek, expressive of suffering mildness, reclines on the pillow, and her little fevered hands gently rest on each other near to her head. The plain and only drapery is a frock, the skirt flowing easily out before, and a ribbon sash, the knot twisted forward as it were by the restlessness of pain, and the two ends spread out in the same direction with the frock. The delicate naked feet are carelessly folded over each other, and the whole appearance is as if she had just turned in the tossings of her illness, to seek a cooler or an easier place of rest.” The exhibition of this work at Somerset-house did more to extend Banks's name, and procure him commissions, than all the works of infinitely greater labour, both as regards conception and execution, that had hitherto proceeded from under his chisel.

Banks's last work was the monument to Captain Westcott, in St Paul's. It is, like most of this class of works of that day, allegorical and unimpressive; the effect does not correspond with the execution. The same objection applies with perhaps still greater force to his monument to Sir Eyre Coote in Westminster abbey. On this subject the following remarks are so admirable that we feel great pleasure in giving to them what additional currency our pages can confer: “It is singular to find, that with the peculiar excellency which distinguishes our national sculpture, more of merit should not exist in our museums and public monuments. Perhaps boards of official trustees and committees of taste may not form the best school of arts. The events of the last thirty years ought to have led to a different result. During the late wars, the eminent men who have fallen in the service of their country have been but too numerous, and parliament has been profuse (perhaps to a fault) of monuments to commemorate their glory and their loss. Those would have opened the noblest field for the artist. The higher feelings connected with national glory, with the attachment of free citizens to a free state, would, we might hope, have stimulated the enthusiasm of the artist. Here we might have anticipated, that ‘in those mansions where the mighty rest,’ the names of our departed statesmen and warriors would have been handed down to posterity by the successful efforts of our great artists. We cannot imagine any object much more deeply interesting than a collection of monuments thus created by national gratitude for public services and for departed

genius. Our shrines were worthy of being well-filled. Westminster, in all its poetic beauty, connected as it is with historical remembrances, and with those houses of parliament where our statesmen and sages had acquired their fame; St Paul's, only second to the most noble of Christian temples, round whose vault our trophies might have been placed and banners hung, and with names to commemorate like those of Chatham, Fox, Pitt, Nelson, Abercromby, Moore, and Byron,—these ought to have led to the erection of a series of monuments worthy of Great Britain. The tombs of these great men, bearing simple but expressive inscriptions, would have furnished new motives to the young, and fresh energy to those who labour for honourable distinction :

— non è solo
per gli estinti la tomba—

The living would have been worshippers in a real temple of British gratitude; and the sensation which every scholar feels in visiting the tombs of 'the starry Galileo,' of Michael Angelo, of Machiavel, of Alfieri, Filangieri ('qui gloriam literariam honestavit') in the Santa Croce, would, in our country, and under our popular institutions, have been increased a thousand fold. But our national monuments have been, generally speaking, failures. We have in the first place failed, by the extent to which the system has been injudiciously carried. The currency has been depreciated by an over-issue. The excitement produced by a great name is neutralized, on finding it succeeded by one memorable only for a coronet, a mitre, or a prebendal stall. Our second mistake has been in the character of the usual designs. Our monuments want all individuality. They seek to personify abstract feelings, rather than to record particular greatness or worth. The veiled form of allegory suits not any strong emotion. The figures of Courage or Wisdom, however well-drawn or mythologically represented, speak a much less eloquent language to the heart than the forms of Nelson or of Romilly. The shaft of death, the trumpet of fame, and even the anchor of Britannia herself, deserve to be laid upon the shelf, with the darts, torches, crooks and pipes, which are banished by sense and taste even from the verses of school-boys. 'Toutes les glaces du nord,' observes Boileau on a similar subject, 'ne sont pas plus froides que ces pensées.' Who that has admired the simple statue of Newton in Trinity Chapel, would wish to see it replaced by an Urania with her sphere, even though her eight sisters were summoned to her assistance? Who would prefer the inflated bombast of the French school, as furnishing a design for the monument of Napoleon, to the following picturesque lines of Manzoni?

'O! quante volte el tacito
Morir d'un giorno inerte
Chimati i rai fulminei,
Le braccia al sen conserte,
Stella—e dei di che furono
L'assalse il sovenir!'"

Edinburgh Review, vol. XLIII. pp. 509-10.

George Steevens.

BORN A. D. 1736.—DIED A. D. 1800.

THIS celebrated annotator on the writings of our great dramatist received his classical education at Kingston-upon-Thames and Eton, and at King's college, Cambridge. In private life he appears to have been of a capricious and unamiable temper. The grand and almost exclusive aim of his life was the illustration of Shakspeare.

In 1766 he published twenty of Shakspeare's plays, in four volumes, 8vo. In 1773, with the assistance of Dr Johnson, he published an illustrated edition of the poet's whole works, in ten volumes 8vo, of which a second edition appeared in 1785, and a third, in fifteen volumes, in 1793. Mr Steevens possessed that knowledge which qualified him, in a superior degree, for the illustration of Shakspeare; and without which the most critical acumen would have proved abortive. He had, in short, studied the age of Shakspeare, and had employed his persevering industry in becoming acquainted with the writings, manners, and laws of that period, as well as the provincial peculiarities, whether of language or custom, which prevailed in different parts of the kingdom, but more particularly in those where Shakspeare passed the early years of his life. This store of knowledge he was continually increasing by the acquisition of the rare and obsolete publications of a former age, which he spared no expense to obtain. In the preparation of the edition of 1793 for the press, he gave an instance of editorial activity and perseverance almost without example. To this work he devoted a period of eighteen months; and during that time he left his house every morning at one o'clock, with the Hampstead patrol, and proceeded, without any consideration of the weather or the season, to his friend Isaac Read's chambers, in Barnard's Inn, where he was allowed to admit himself, and found a room prepared to receive him, with a sheet of the Shakspeare letter-press ready for correction. There was every book which he might wish to consult, and to Mr Read he could apply, on any doubt or sudden suggestion, to a knowledge of English literature perhaps equal to his own. This nocturnal toil greatly accelerated the printing of the work; as while the printers slept the editor was awake; and thus, in less than twenty months he completed his last splendid edition of Shakspeare, in fifteen large octavo volumes. Mr Steevens was a good classical scholar. He possessed a very handsome fortune, which he managed with discretion, and was enabled by it to gratify his wishes, which he did without any regard to expense, in forming his distinguished collections of classical learning, literary antiquity, and the arts connected with it. The latter years of his life he chiefly passed at Hampstead, in unvisitable seclusion, and seldom mixed with society but in booksellers' shops, or the Shakspeare gallery, or the morning conversation of Sir Joseph Banks. He bequeathed his valuable Shakspeare, illustrated with near 1500 prints, to Lord Spencer; his Hogarth perfect, with the exception of one or two pieces, to Mr Windham; and his corrected copy of Shakspeare, with 200 guineas, to his friend Mr Read. Besides his edition of Shakspeare, Mr Steevens made several contributions to Hogarth's

Biographical anecdotes, and the 'Biographia Dramatica.' He was also the author of a poem entitled 'The Frantic Lover,' which appeared in Dodsley's Register.

Daines Barrington.

BORN A. D. 1727.—DIED A. D. 1800.

THE honourable Daines Barrington was the fourth son of John Shute, first Lord-viscount Barrington. He studied at Oxford, and was afterwards called to the bar, where he was esteemed a sound lawyer but no pleader. He received a number of government appointments in succession, and might probably have risen to a high judicial station, had he manifested any ambition that way; but his love of literature withdrew him in a great measure from public life, and he ultimately retired from the practice of the law in order to devote himself to his favourite studies. His first publication was his 'Observations on the Statutes,' 1766, 4to. In 1773 he added an English translation and notes to Mr Elstob's edition of the Saxon translation of Orosius, ascribed to King Alfred. In 1775 he published some 'Tracts on the Probability of reaching the North Pole;' and in 1781, 'Miscellanies on various subjects.' He was also the author of several papers in the 'Archæologia,' and in the 'Philosophical Transactions.'

He died on the 11th March, 1800. A particular enumeration of all his works is given in the 3d volume of Nichols's 'Literary Anecdotes.' His 'Observations upon the Statutes' is an exceedingly able performance. Its object was to obtain the repeal of obsolete and useless statutes, and to digest and consolidate all acts relating to the same subject, into one uniform statute. His tracts on the North-west passage were republished by Colonel Beaufoy in 1818.

Thomas Dimsdale.

BORN A. D. 1711.—DIED A. D. 1800.

THOMAS DIMSDALE, Baron of the Russian empire, was the son of an apothecary near Epping in Essex. He studied medicine and surgery in the London hospitals, under Symonds and Girle, and commenced the practice of his profession at Hertford about the year 1734.

In 1745 he attended the duke of Cumberland's army in the campaign against the Scottish rebels. In 1761 he took his degree as physician. In 1768 he was invited to the Russian court to inoculate her imperial majesty, Catherine, and her son the grand-duke. He obeyed the requisition, and was most munificently rewarded by a gift of £10,000, an annuity of £500, and the title of a Baron of the empire, with perpetual descent to his family. He was strongly urged to take up his abode in Russia, but declined the liberal overtures which were made to him with this view; he was also treated with great condescension by Frederick III. of Prussia, while passing through Berlin on his return home.

In 1776 he published observations on the method then in use of

inoculating for small-pox. In 1780 he was chosen a representative in parliament for the borough of Hertford. In 1781 he was again called to the Russian court to inoculate the two sons of the grand-duke, and was again most liberally rewarded for his trouble.

In 1790 he retired from public life. He spent the remaining ten years of his life in the midst of his family and a few select friends; and expired at the advanced age of eighty-nine, on the 30th of December, 1800

Hester Chapone.

BORN A. D. 1727.—DIED A. D. 1801.

THE maiden-name of this popular authoress was Mulso. Her family was a respectable one in Northamptonshire. She was born in 1727, and is said to have attempted the composition of a romance before she had finished her tenth year. Richardson, the novelist, admired her greatly, and took every opportunity of introducing her to public attention as an accomplished and highly moral writer.

The first productions of hers which were given to the world were, the interesting story of *Fidelia*, in 'The Adventurer'; and a poem prefixed to her friend Mrs Carter's translation of *Epictetus*; but her name only became known on the publication of a deservedly popular work, 'Letters on the Improvement of the Mind, addressed to a Young Lady.' "This was printed in 1773, and will long, it is to be hoped, maintain its place in the library of young women. It is distinguished by sound sense, a liberal as well as a warm spirit of piety, and a philosophy applied to its best use, the culture of the heart and affections. It has no shining eccentricities of thought,—no peculiarities of system,—it follows experience as its guide, and is content to produce effects of acknowledged utility by known and approved means. On these accounts, it is perhaps the most unexceptionable treatise that can be put into the hands of female youth. These letters are particularly excellent in what relates to regulating the temper and feelings. Their style is pure and unaffected, and the manner grave and impressive. Those who choose to compare them in this respect with another widely circulated publication addressed about the same time to young women, (Dr Fordyce's sermons,) will probably be of opinion, that the dignified simplicity of the female writer is much more consonant to true taste, than the affected prettinesses and constant glitter of the preacher. Mrs Chapone soon after published a volume of 'Miscellanies,' containing one or two moral essays, and some elegant poems. The poems—which have the merit of many beautiful thoughts and some original images—seem not to have been sufficiently appreciated by the public; for they were not greatly noticed, owing perhaps to the mode of their publication." Mrs Chapone died on the 25th of December, 1801.

Jonathan Battishill.

BORN A. D. 1738.—DIED A. D. 1801.

THIS composer discovered a genius for music at a very early age; and having an excellent voice, he was placed in the choir of St Paul's at nine years of age. He afterwards became an articled pupil with Mr Savage, and, at the expiration of his engagement, came forth one of the first extempore performers in the country. Soon after he left Mr Savage, he composed some songs for Sadler's Wells, which almost immediately became very popular, especially the celebrated hunting-song, 'Away! to the copse lead away!' About the year 1764 he assisted Michael Arne, son of Dr Arne, in the composition of the opera of 'Alcmena.'

"In this piece," says Dr Busby, in a brief memoir of our composer, "though its success was far from equal to its deserts, there were some choruses which, for their science, dignity, and fire of expression, deserve to be classed with the greatest productions in that species of composition; while several of his airs, particularly the two bass songs, 'Pois'd in Heaven's eternal Scale,' and 'Thus when young Ammon marched along,' both sung by Champness, strongly picture his energy and vigour of imagination, and prove that he felt the character for which they were written. This piece was shortly afterwards succeeded by the 'Rites of Hecate,' a musical drama, in which his powers were again displayed in an eminent degree; especially in the song, 'A fond Father's bliss is to number his race,' the melody of which is particularly rich and dignified.

"But neither these avocations, nor the attention demanded by his pupils, wholly diverted his mind from cathedral composition. Retiring occasionally from the gay and busy concerns of life, he indulged that propensity which had its birth in the choir, and produced a number of anthems, the excellencies of which have been universally confessed and admired. Among them we have particularly to name his 'Call to remembrance,' the artful and close imitations of the first movement of which are inimitably fine, while the beauty and sweetness of melody in the other movements is every where original and striking. He also, at the express desire of the reverend Charles Wesley, brother of the celebrated John Wesley, set to music a collection of Hymns, written by that gentleman, the melodies of which are peculiarly elegant, yet exceedingly chaste and appropriate.

"In the catch and glee style he has given the most convincing examples of his diversity of taste and ingenuity; in evidence of which it is only necessary to mention his 'O my Clarissa, cruel fair'—'I lov'd thee, beautiful and kind'—'Consign'd to dust beneath this stone'—'Here on his back lies Sir John Keeling'—and 'Ye birds for whom I rear'd this grove.' About the year 1770 he was among the candidates for the gold-medal given by the Noblemen's catch-club at the Thatched house, St James's-street, to the composer of the best cheerful glee, which medal he obtained by his charming and well-known glee for three voices, 'Underneath this myrtle shade.' As proofs of the beauty and

originality of his fancy in ballad-composition, every one will admit the charming pastoral melody of 'Ye Shepherds and Nymphs of the grove,'—the mellifluous and affecting air of 'When Damon languished at my feet,' sung by Mrs Baddely, in the tragedy of 'The Gamester,'—the expressive passages in 'When beauty on the Lover's cheek,' and above all, his popular and universally admired 'Kate of Aberdeen,' the beauty and sweetness of which will be felt and acknowledged in this country as long as taste for vocal music exists."

Battishill died on the 10th of December, 1801. For the last thirty years of his life his name seldom appeared in the list of publishing composers. In the opinion of Dr Busby, nothing but greater application was wanting to this composer to have made him "the greatest musician this country ever produced, Purcell excepted."

John Millar.

BORN A. D. 1735.—DIED A. D. 1801.

JOHN MILLAR, professor of law in the university of Glasgow, and one of the ablest political and historical writers of the last century, was the son of a clergyman in the neighbourhood of Edinburgh. He was sent to college at Glasgow in his eleventh year, where, notwithstanding his extreme youth, he made a highly respectable appearance in the literary classes. He was originally intended for the ministerial profession, but was permitted to gratify his own preference for the bar.

After having completed his full literary curriculum, he attended the lectures of Dr Adam Smith; after which he entered as tutor into the family of Lord Kames. "It seldom happens," says one who had been a pupil of Mr Millar, "that we can trace the genealogy of a literary progeny so correctly as the two circumstances, which have now been mentioned, enable us to do that of Mr Millar's future studies. It is perfectly evident to all who are acquainted with their writings, that his speculations are all formed upon the model of those of Lord Kames and Dr Smith, and that his merit consists almost entirely in the accuracy with which he surveyed, and the sagacity with which he pursued the path which they had the merit of discovering. It was one great object of both those original authors, to trace back the history of society to its most simple and universal elements,—to resolve almost all that has been ascribed to positive institution into the spontaneous and irresistible development of certain obvious principles,—and to show with how little contrivance or political wisdom the most complicated and apparently artificial schemes of policy might have been erected. This is very nearly the precise definition of what Mr Millar aimed at accomplishing in his lectures and publications; and when we find that he attended the lectures of Dr Smith, and lived in the family of Lord Kames, we cannot hesitate to ascribe the bent of his genius, and the peculiar tenor of his speculations, to the impressions he must have received from those early concurrences."

In 1760 Mr Millar was called to the bar; but having married early in life, he was soon after induced to relinquish the very flattering prospects which it presented for the more certain emoluments of professor

of law in the university of Glasgow, to which chair, by the interest of Lord Kames and Dr Smith, he was immediately appointed. He filled this situation for nearly forty years in a manner highly beneficial to the university and most honourable to himself.

He taught two classes of civil law; in the first, prelecting on the Institutions,—in the second, on the Pandects of Justinian. Besides teaching the civil law—which was more peculiarly the duty of his office—he gave each session a course of lectures on government; he also taught, every second year, a class of Scotch law; and for a few years before his death he delivered a course of lectures on the law of England. His nephew and biographer, Mr Craig, says he “never wrote his lectures; but was accustomed to speak from notes, containing his arrangement, his chief topics, and some of his principal facts and illustrations. For the transitions from one part of his subject to another, the occasional allusions, the smaller embellishments, and the whole of the expression, he trusted to that extemporaneous eloquence which seldom fails a speaker deeply interested in his subject. In some branches of science, where the utmost precision of language is requisite to avoid obscurity or error, such a mode of lecturing may be attended with much difficulty, and several disadvantages; but in morals, in jurisprudence, in law, and in politics, if the professor make himself completely master of the different topics he is to illustrate, if he possess ideas clear and defined, with tolerable facility in expressing them, the little inelegancies into which he may occasionally be betrayed, the slight hesitation which he may not always escape, will be much more than compensated by the fulness of his illustrations, the energy of his manner, and that interest which is excited, both in the hearer and speaker, by extemporaneous eloquence.” “Not satisfied,” continues Mr Craig, “with explaining his opinions in the most perspicuous manner in his lecture, Mr Millar encouraged such of the students as had not fully comprehended his doctrines, or conceived that there was some error in his reasonings, to state to him their difficulties and objections. With this view, at the conclusion of the lecture, a little circle of his most attentive pupils was formed around him, when the doctrines which had been delivered were canvassed with the most perfect freedom. Before a professor can admit of such a practice, he must be completely master of his subject, and have acquired some confidence in his own quickness at refuting objections, and detecting sophistry. A few instances of defeat might be injurious to his reputation, and to the discipline of the class. But should he possess a clear comprehension of all the bearings of his system, joined to quickness of understanding, and tolerable ease of expression, he will derive the most important advantages from the unrestrained communications of his pupils. He will learn where he has failed to convey his ideas with accuracy, where he has been too concise, or where imperfect analogies have led him into slight mistakes; and he will easily find a future opportunity to introduce new illustrations, to explain what has been misapprehended, or correct what was really an error. To the student such a practice insures accurate knowledge; it teaches the important lesson of considering opinions before adopting them; and gives an additional incitement to strict and vigilant attention. Accordingly, to be able to state difficulties with propriety, was justly looked upon, by the more ingenious

and attentive students, as no slight proof of proficiency; and to be an active and intelligent member of the fireside committee, never failed to give a young man some consideration among his companions."

In 1771 he published a work entitled, 'The Origin of the Distinction of Ranks: or an Inquiry into the circumstances which give rise to Influence and Authority in the different Members of Society.' In this work he has embodied the principal portion of his lectures in civil law under the head 'Rights of Persons,' and also a brief view of the first part of his lectures on government. It was received in a very flattering manner by the public, and has gone through several editions.¹

In 1787 he published the first volume of his 'Historical View of the English Government.' It was Mr Millar's design in this publication to exhibit an historical view of the English government from the earliest periods of its independent existence down to the present times, under the three great general heads of its existence as a feudal aristocracy, then as a feudal monarchy, and lastly as, what he has called, a commercial government. The first form of government prevailed from the establishment of the Saxon down to the Norman conquest. The second, according to Mr Millar's views, extends from the Conquest to the accession of the House of Stuart. The third form was established by the Revolution in 1688. The manuscript of this portion of the work, however, was left in an unfinished state on the death of the author. That portion which had the benefit of his revision and preparation for the press, forms, in the London edition of 1803, four vols. 8vo. The first part of this performance contains some admirable dissertations on the origin of the feudal system, and the philosophy of government in general. In the second part his chief object seems to be to correct the erroneous representations of Hume, and to prove that the government of England was never, at any period, an absolute government. He does not scruple to say that Charles I. was justly beheaded, although he is inclined to think that it was an inexpedient measure to put him to death. He argues that a republic is the most suitable form of government either for a very small or a very extensive country; but he is very unmerciful towards the protector of England's commonwealth. He eulogizes the prince of Orange, and seems to regret that James II. was not made to share the fate of Charles. The fourth volume contains some very interesting essays on the history of law, the progress of the fine arts, and the philosophy or economy of commerce and manufactures.

Mr Millar died in 1801. His private character was highly amiable. "His uncommon vivacity, good humour, and ingenuity, made his conversation delightful to persons but little addicted to literary pursuits; while the extent and variety of his information, the closeness and accuracy of his reasoning, and the readiness and originality of his illustrations, enabled him to make a distinguished figure in more select and cultivated societies. 'On the subject of politics,' Mr Craig states with great candour, 'he argued always with zeal; and, towards the end of his life, with a considerable degree of keenness. He, who had refused the offer of a lucrative place, which might have introduced him to

¹ It is to the 4th edition of this work (Edinburgh, 1806, 8vo.) that Mr Craig's biographical notice of the author is prefixed.

higher honours, because he feared that his acceptance might be construed into an engagement to support an administration whose measures he condemned, had little allowance to make for those who sacrificed their principles to their interest. Ever steady and consistent himself, he was apt to suspect the purity of the motives from which all violent and sudden changes in political opinion arose; without perhaps making a due degree of allowance for that alarm, which, however hurtful in its consequences, was the natural result of the blind fanaticism of several popular societies. On a subject too, which he had studied with the utmost care, he naturally might be rather impatient of ignorant and presumptuous contradiction; nor could his mind brook the imputations which, at a season of political intolerance, were so liberally passed on all the opposers of ministerial power. Arguing frequently under considerable irritation of mind, perhaps unavoidable in his particular circumstances, it is not impossible that expressions may have escaped him which might afford room for mistake or misrepresentation."

In his politics, it is scarcely necessary to say he was a decided whig, and would not perhaps have refused the appellation of republican. In domestic politics, he usually adhered to the measures of the marquess of Rockingham and Fox; he was a warm friend to the extension of the elective franchise, and sympathized deeply with the French people in their great movement on behalf of the natural rights and liberties of mankind.

William Heberden.

BORN A. D. 1710.—DIED A. D. 1801.

THIS eminent physician and accomplished scholar was born in London, and educated at schools there and at Cambridge. In 1730 he obtained a fellowship of St John's college, and began to direct his attention to medicine. He took the degree of M.D. in 1739, and practised physic in the university for above ten years. During this period he read a yearly course of lectures in *Materia Medica*.

In 1746 he became a fellow of the Royal college of physicians, and two years afterwards, settled in London, where he quickly rose into very extensive practice. In 1778 the Royal society of medicine in Paris enrolled him amongst its associates. He lived to the advanced age of ninety-one years, and died in peace on the 17th of May, 1801.

Dr Heberden was a deeply pious man, of great gentleness of disposition, and amiable manners. His professional eminence was undisputed while he lived, and his writings hold a very high place in the medical literature of Europe. His son published an edition of his Commentaries on the History and Cure of Diseases in the original Latin, with an English translation, and memoir of the author, in 1802. His communications to the 'Medical Transactions' are numerous and important; he has also some papers in the Transactions of the Royal society. In 1763 an edition of the 'Supplices Mulieres' of Euripides, with Markland's notes, was printed at the sole expense of Dr Heberden, to whom that eminent scholar was greatly indebted and strongly attached. Dr Heberden was one of the writers of the 'Athenian Letters.'

Robert Orme.

BORN A. D. 1728.—DIED A. D. 1801.

THE father of this historian of our East Indian transactions was a physician in the service of the honourable Company. Robert was born in the Travancore country, in 1728, but was sent to England for his education, and entered at Harrow school when only six years of age. On leaving school he was placed for twelve months in the office of the accountant-general of the African company, to obtain a general notion of foreign commercial transactions. He then embarked for Calcutta, where he arrived in 1742, and was immediately engaged in the civil service of the Company.

He returned to England in 1752, and was in frequent communication with government on the best plans for supporting British interests in Hindostan, and consolidating our East Indian territories. In 1754 he again embarked for India on being appointed by the court of directors a member of the council of Fort St George. During the years 1757-8 he filled the office of commissary and accountant-general in India; but his health obliged him to return to Britain in 1760.

Settling in London, he employed himself in drawing up a 'History of the Military Transactions of the British nation in Hindostan from the year 1745.' The first volume of this work, bringing down the history to 1756, was published in 1763, and extremely well-received by the public. The Company marked their sense of its merits by giving him free access to all their records, and appointing him their historiographer with a salary of £400 per annum.

To obtain the most accurate information respecting the struggle with the French power in India, which was to form the leading subject of the second volume of his history, Mr Orme visited France in 1773, where he was well-received, and liberally furnished with authentic documents. In 1778 he published his second volume, containing a narrative of our East Indian transactions from 1756 to 1763, with an examination of the Rise and Progress of English commerce in Bengal, and an account of the Mahomedan power in Hindostan from its establishment in 1800.

In 1782 Mr Orme published 'Historical Fragments of the Mogul Empire of the Morattoes, and of the English concerns in Indostan, from the year 1659.' This was his last publication. His health had been giving way for many years. He retired from the metropolis in 1792, and spent the remaining years of his life at Ealing, where he died in 1801. He bequeathed his books and papers to the East India company, in whose library they now remain.

Mr Orme appears to have discharged his public duties with great zeal and high ability; his private life is represented to have been respectable and amiable. He lived in habits of intercourse and correspondence with most of the eminent literary characters of his day, and appears to have enjoyed their confidence and esteem.

His first and principal historical work is formed on the historic models of antiquity. It is minute in its details, and laboured in its

descriptive passages and delineations ; but seldom aims at what may be called the philosophy of history, or at those large and comprehensive views which are now expected from the historian of nations. Its style is neat and often spirited. The 'Historical Fragments' are written in an inferior manner. They are at once more laboured and less effective. The following is a fair specimen of our author's style. Having mentioned the seizure of Surat, Mr Orme proceeds thus :—

“Aurengzebe felt the disgrace, as well as the detriment of the insult ; and foresaw it might be repeated, until the city were better fortified ; which required time ; unless Sevagi were coerced by the strongest necessity of self-defence. The whole army of the Decan invaded his territory, the conduct of the war was committed to Jysing, the Rajah of Abnir ; who had a secret instruction to entice Sevagi to Delhi, but preferred the nobler exercise of the sword, until the active and obstinate resistance of Sevagi produced a solemn assurance of safety from Aurengzebe himself ; on which he set out for Delhi, accompanied by a decent retinue, and his eldest son. He had formed several excellent officers, worthy of trust, and ordered them to keep up his whole force, under the usual strictness, and ready to move at his call ; but forbade them to trust any letters from himself, unless confirmed by the verbal messages of particular persons whom he took with him, in appearance as menial servants. He was received by Aurengzebe with much courtesy ; which continued, until the ladies of the seraglio, incited by the wife of Chaest Khan, in revenge for the death of her son, and the disgrace of her husband, solicited Aurengzebe, not unwilling, to destroy him. But the high Omrahs said they had no other security for their own lives, than the word of the king, and that the Hindoo Rajahs would revolt at such a breach of faith to one of their own condition. Sevagi, at the public audience, upbraided Aurengzebe with the intention, and said that he thought Chaest Khan and Surat had taught him better the value of such a servant ; then drew his dagger to stab himself ; but his arm was stopped. Aurengzebe condescended to soothe him, repeated his first assurance of safety, and requested his service in the expedition he was preparing against Candahar. Sevagi replied, he could command no troops but his own, and was permitted to send for them. Nevertheless his dwelling and all his doings were narrowly watched. He sent his letters by his trusty messengers, who carried orders very different from the letters. His army moved into Guzerat, on the road to Delhi, and small parties, too small to create suspicion, were sent forward, one beyond another, with the fleetest horses. When the foremost reached its station, Sevagi and his son were carried out of their dwelling at night in covered baskets, such as fruit and repasts are sent in from persons of distinction to one another ; and a boat, as for common passengers, was waiting at the extremity of the city. They passed the river unsuspected, when Sevagi giving the boatman money, bid him go and tell Aurengzebe, that he had carried Sevagi and his son across the Jumna ; then mounting with the first party, they set off at speed, and recrossed the river at a ford lower down ; after which their track and stations were through an unfrequented circuit to the west of the great cities, and amongst the mountains. The son, who had not yet reached his growth, emulating his father, sunk, and died in the way, of fatigue ; and the father, leaving attendants to perform the obsequies

of his funeral pile, pushed on until he joined his army in Guzerat ; which he turned with burning vengeance against the Mogul's lands, wheresoever they were not appeased by money, or opposed by strong situations. Surat, as the most scornful defiance, Sevagi reserved to himself. A new wall was begun, but far from finished ; and the inhabitants, to prevent his troops from entering the city, as well as to remove them from the manufacturing villages around, capitulated with him in his camp, for a ransom, which he did not raise to excess, as he intended to come again for more. The Rajah Jysing was again employed to oppose him, and, as before, with instructions to persuade his return to Delhi ; to which Sevagi replied, that he did not think Aurengzebe such a fool, as to think him such a one, to trust himself a second time to the man who had once deceived him."

Erasmus Darwin.

BORN A. D. 1731.—DIED A. D. 1802.

ERASMUS DARWIN, an English physician, celebrated as a philosopher and poet, was born on the 12th of December, 1731, at Elston, or Elveston in Nottinghamshire, where his father, Robert Darwin, Esq. barrister, had a country seat. He was educated at Chesterfield under the care of the Rev. Mr Burrows. At this early period of life he is said to have exhibited more than usual talent ; he excelled in classical learning and mechanics, though from an early acquired dislike to mathematics he never became a proficient in the physical sciences. It does not appear to be certain at which university he studied first ; our biographer says that in 1753 he went to Edinburgh, and in two years after entered at St John's college, Cambridge, where he took the degree of Bachelor in medicine in 1755 ; another says that after graduating in Cambridge he went to pursue his studies in Edinburgh. Both may be correct. He wrote a thesis, when graduating in Cambridge, on the motion of the heart and arteries, as caused by the stimulating qualities of the blood. One of the earliest of his poems appeared on the occasion of the death of Frederick, prince of Wales ; it will be found among the collection of verses which appeared on that occasion at Cambridge, but it does not display any extraordinary talent.

In Nottingham, where he first commenced practice as a physician, he remained but a short time, having been unsuccessful ; he removed therefore to Litchfield in 1756. He had not been long there, when a fortunate circumstance occurred, which gave him considerable celebrity. An eminent physician of the place, who had for a long time monopolized the medical practice in Litchfield, had pronounced a young man, ill of a fever, to be beyond the power of medicine ; when Darwin was consulted as a last resource. By a different plan of treatment from that proposed by his competitor, Darwin was successful in restoring the patient to health. His reputation was thus early established, and his practice increased rapidly, so that the other gentleman was obliged to depart from the field, when Darwin succeeded to all his practice. In 1757 he married his first wife. This lady, a Miss Howard of Litchfield, was at that time only eighteen years of age, and is spoken of in the most flatter-

ing terms, as remarkable for strong understanding, refined taste, ingenious sweetness, delicacy, and fortitude. Unfortunately, her health suffered much when she became a mother; but, by the utmost attention and the exercise of the highest skill on the part of her talented husband, she was enabled to live for thirteen years. Of five children only three lived beyond the period of infancy. One, an attorney at Derby, was possessed of respectable talents and excellent dispositions, but being of a melancholy temperament, he put an end to his existence at an early age. Charles was educated as a physician, and exhibited unusual talents, but died before he was twenty-one years of age. Robert became a physician at Shrewsbury, where he attained considerable eminence.

In 1778 Dr Darwin was employed in the family of Colonel Pole of Radburn in Derbyshire. During his intercourse with Mrs Pole, he had many opportunities of remarking in her that superiority of intellectual and moral qualifications, which induced him afterwards to solicit her hand. The death of Colonel Pole, in 1780, enabled him to do so, and he married her in 1781. From this union he experienced much happiness, and had several additions to his family. Very soon after this time, he left Litchfield and settled in Derby, where he soon was extensively engaged in practice.

From a very early period of life Dr Darwin had been accustomed to the writing of poetry, and many anonymous pieces of his appeared in the periodical publications of the day. It is dangerous, however, for a medical man to appear before the world as a poet, if he desires to succeed in the practice of his own profession; and therefore Darwin, warned by the examples of Akenside and Armstrong, refrained from the disclosure of his secret till his reputation as a medical man was somewhat established. His first acknowledged work was entitled the 'Botanic Garden,' in one part of which he describes the economy of vegetation, in another the loves of the plants, illustrated with scientific notes. This appeared in 1791, the second part being published from motives of policy a short time before the other. The popularity of this work was at first considerable, but it was short-lived; its merits will be afterwards examined. On this work he had been engaged for a very long time previous to its publication.

In 1794 he published the first volume of his greatest work, entitled 'Zoonomia, or the laws of Organic life.' This volume was entirely theoretical, and contains a development of his metaphysical notions respecting the operations of the mind and body. The second volume, containing an application of these principles to the science and art of medicine, appeared in 1796. His subsequent works, which are of much less merit, are, an Essay on female education, published in 1795; 'Phytologia, or the Philosophy of Agriculture and Gardening,' in 1800; and a posthumous poetical work, 'The Temple of Nature, or the Origin of Society.' While in Derby, he was one of those most active in the formation of a Philosophical society, of which he became president.

In 1801 he retired from practice, and went to spend the remainder of his life in an estate left to him by his son, called the Priory. But his health was now broken, and he did not live long to enjoy his retirement. He had been subject to inflammation in the lungs, and soon after his removal from Derby, he was taken ill of that disorder. By repeated blood-letting he obtained considerable relief, but on the 10th April, 1802, he

had a relapse from which he never recovered. It does not appear that the nature of his disorder was well-understood, but during his life it was believed to consist in inflammation of the lungs. He died on the 18th of the same month, in the 71st year of his age; when his body was examined, nothing could be found that satisfactorily explained the cause of his death. His family consisted at that time of a widow and six children.

The character of Dr Darwin as a man, as a physician, as a poet, and as a philosopher, deserves attentive consideration.

The personal appearance of Darwin was not prepossessing. His form was rather unwieldy, and his movements were awkward, which, added to a defect in his speech, were serious impediments to his success as a medical man. But the qualities of his mind amply compensated for any bodily defects. Though the form of his countenance was far from agreeable, a kindness of disposition and a lively spirit imparted to it a power of pleasing even greater than that possessed by ordinary persons to whom nature had been more favourable in point of personal appearance. Though extremely benevolent and generally gentle in his manner, he was sometimes hasty and impatient of opposition. On such occasions he is said to have been by no means sparing of the lash of sarcasm, which his commanding talents rendered it easy for him to apply. He met occasionally with Dr Johnson when the latter visited Litchfield, but from some cause, which does not appear to be known, there existed no cordiality between them. He had a failing by no means uncommon to great minds, being rather fond of admiration, and far from insensible to flattery. Yet with the inconsistency which usually characterizes persons of such feelings, he was unsparing in his ridicule of all persons in whom he discovered the same propensities. He was inclined to be sceptical,—though the name of Deist, which has been applied to him, does not appear to be well-deserved. On the subject of his speculative opinions on religious matters, we are possessed of little information; he was connected with no church, but many parts of his works contain very exalted religious sentiments. He was at least a man of excellent moral character, and of a most benevolent disposition. As a physician, he was guided by that sound judgment, and originality of thought, which we find in many parts of his writings. He was an accurate and an attentive observer of nature, and he is known to have been in general eminently successful.

The early poetical works of Dr Darwin are not distinguished in any uncommon degree. The most successful of his works, the 'Botanic Garden,' was for a time excessively popular; but it has now fallen out of notice, and is perhaps rated even below its real value.¹ The subject is perhaps an unfortunate one,—for a poem on a philosophical subject can seldom be pleasing to the multitude, however much its beauties may appear to the few who can appreciate the philosophical value, without being unmindful of the poetical merits, of the piece. Allegorical descriptions of philosophical subjects must, to become and remain popular, be treated with great delicacy; if not peculiarly successful, there is but a step between it and the ridiculous; and while an approach to this may for a time remain unobserved from a connection with no-

¹ See Blackwood's Magazine, vol. v. p. 153.

velty of design and elegance of expression, the effect produced soon wears off, and the only lasting impression is that of disgust. However undeserving the work of Dr Darwin may be of such feelings, it cannot be denied that there are not many minds that will turn from a perusal of his 'Botanic Garden,' without at least a feeling of satiety. There is much elegance of diction and loftiness of expression, but these are too often supplanted by passages, the good taste of which is doubtful, and in which the bombastic takes the place of the lofty. The notes appended to this poem are often very good, and contain many shrewd observations on philosophy and natural history. The last poetical work of Dr Darwin never was popular, and is now almost forgotten, though but little inferior to the 'Botanic Garden.' It describes the production of life; the reproduction of life; the progress of mind, and of good and evil. It illustrates to a certain extent the metaphysical opinions advanced in the 'Zoonomia.' The originality of Dr Darwin's poetry has been doubted, though no proof has been given of his having stolen from any author. A philosophic poem by Henry Brooke, entitled 'Universal Beauty,' published in 1736,—and a Latin poem by De la Croix; entitled 'Connubia Florum,' are mentioned as the sources from which much of his imagery and the general plan of his 'Botanic Garden' may have been drawn; but we have no reason to derogate from the merit of Darwin, such as it is, from all that has been said in proof of the connection of his work with these.

The fame of Darwin rests with better reason on his greatest work, the 'Zoonomia.' This most ingenious work is now little read, yet it is so much deserving of being known, that we shall not scruple to spend a little time in stating the principles which are laid down in it. The subject of the work is, the laws of organic life, under which title we find a description of the operations of the intellect and of the living body in health and disease. The application of the above title to these leads us to expect a *material* theory; and though by some subtlety of reasoning this conclusion may perhaps be avoided, the general impression which a perusal of the work conveys, is certainly this, that Darwin was a materialist. The first principle of the theory of Darwin is, that all activities consist in motion. "Motion," he says, "considered as a cause, precedes every effect; and considered as an effect, immediately succeeds every cause." He makes a distinction between spirit and matter, the former commencing or producing motion, the latter receiving and communicating it. The motions of matter are those of gravitation, chemistry, and life. Of the motions of spirit he says nothing; but from his supposition that motion may be predicated of spirit as a cause or effect of material motion, it is obvious that his ideas of the distinction between spirit and matter are by no means well-defined. The avowed objects of his researches are the vital motions. By the term sensorium Darwin describes not only the immediate organ of sense, the source of nervous energy in the brain, but that principle to which our sensations are ultimately carried, and from which our volitions emanate. Our senses cannot recognise its existence, except through the medium of its effects, and it is therefore that principle which is in general called mind and principle of life. To this principle, however, he ascribes functions much more limited than those which metaphysicians in general are inclined to ascribe to it. The operations of

thought and association are situated in the organs of sense; the sensorium can only perceive, or be brought into a state of pleasure or pain, and it can *will*, or exist in a condition which is immediately followed by certain motions of the bodily organs. He conceives these conditions of perceiving and willing to be active, and to consist in what he denominates sensorial motions. All ideas, according to his theory, have a relation to objects of sense, both in their origin, and in our perceptions or comprehension of them. This principle is a correct one, though not recognised as such by all philosophers. It may not be improper to illustrate it a little here, as it is not very fully brought out in the work of Darwin. The mind is first brought into action by receiving certain impressions from external objects through the organs of sense, and to these objects and impressions alone, its feelings and judgments have for a time a direct reference. More lately abstract ideas are formed, and when these are analyzed, we find them to be merely generalizations of processes connected with external objects, or mere metaphorical descriptions of what we cannot comprehend, effected by means of terms drawn from conceptions of the qualities and processes of matter. Our idea of a spirit is only a negative one,—it *is not* matter, its properties are *not* those of matter. Our idea of benevolence implies a conception of a train of circumstances connected solely with matter. Thus far an accurate fundamental principle may be drawn from the words of Darwin. But he ventures further than mere observation will carry him. He draws a parallel between the states of mind which arise from external impressions, and those which are produced by the internal operations of the mind itself. He considers that if it be admitted as proved that a certain state of motion is present in the act of sensation, the same must be present when the operation of the intellect has any reference to that sensation. Hence his definition of an idea,—“That notion of external things, with which our organs of sense originally make us acquainted,—a contraction, motion, or configuration of the fibres which constitute the immediate organ of sense.” In this definition we observe some correct and some erroneous principles; though it must be acknowledged that the error is the more prominent feature. The term *idea*, is taken in a limited sense, and signifies that which we *comprehend*,—which is illustrated by the words with which a German author (Bartels, Pathog. Physiol.) commences his work,—“We can only form an idea of that which our understanding can bring within the limits of a description, and so, as it were, *comprehend*.” Of an object thus comprehended we may be said to have an idea; in other words, we describe it in terms which our understanding can admit of. Our ideas are thus comprehended only in so far as they can be described in terms originally applied to material objects. This principle runs through the whole structure of language. In this sense our ideas have all a relation to external things, and may be said to be originally made known to us by our organs of sense. But for our notions drawn from matter we could never have had an idea of an immaterial substance,—we conceive the absence of those qualities which are present in matter; further than this we can have neither idea nor conception of any qualities peculiar to immateriality, we can only imagine that such may exist. When we come therefore to the description of the activities of immaterial substances, we must restrict ourselves to the simple state-

ment of sequences of phenomena. We may form an idea of them by analogical description; but we do not comprehend the acts themselves, we only comprehend the description of a similar process supposed to be carried on by material agents. Having therefore no proper conception of such substances or their modes of action, we may use what terms we please to describe them, so long as we keep to acknowledged metaphor; but when we attempt to speak with certainty, and to use the terms in their literal sense, we overstep the boundaries of true philosophy, and are apt to wander in hypothesis and error. In the use of the term *originally* in the definition of Dr Darwin, there is some ambiguity, if not error. If it be understood to imply that the materials on which all our conceptions are founded, are drawn from a series of impressions, it is correctly employed. But the sense in which Dr Darwin uses it, implies more probably that any idea may be produced without reflection by the simultaneous existence of certain bodily conditions. Our ideas are acknowledged to be built up of materials drawn from the senses, but even some of those which have a direct relation to objects of sense, are not states of mind produced by a single impression, but they are abstractions and generalizations formed by the workings of the intellect on a series of impressions. Such are our notions of weight, of solidity, of space, and of time, which can be represented by no mere bodily condition. But Dr Darwin thinks that as impressions are necessary to the formation of ideas, there must be a state of body at once equivalent to the aggregate of the impressions and to the mental conception. From the principles already advanced, this theory is evidently without foundation; and though we cannot deny the possibility of it, we say that we have no right to come to such a conclusion. The second part of the definition contains a description of Dr Darwin's notion on this subject, which is, on the grounds we have stated, to be considered as a mere hypothesis resting on nothing and explaining nothing. There is some peculiarity in Dr Darwin's definition of sensation and perception; but he uses the terms at different times in a manner which shows that his meaning is by no means well-defined, at least it is difficult to trace the connection between his definitions and the use which he makes of the words. Sensation is defined at one place to be a consciousness of pleasure or pain, without reference to the influence of external objects; at another place the term is used as descriptive of the change in the sensorium originating in affection of the organ of sense. Perception is, according to him, a consciousness of pleasure or pain, along with an activity of the organ of sense, which, having a reference to the object or process which caused the sensation, is equivalent to what he calls an idea. Sensation then is a condition of the sensorium capable of being produced by the influence of external objects acting on the organs of sense, and by the action of these organs independent of external impression. We are naturally led to inquire into the supposed nature of this last process. The sequences, according to which mental conditions arise without immediate external influence, are generally denominated association; in other words, we describe under this name the general relation of cause and effect in which our thoughts and feelings stand to one another. In the common theory there is no attempt made to describe the nature of the changes and modes of action of the thinking principle in the act of as-

sociation. But Darwin, consistently with his notion of the nature of our ideas, describes association to consist in sequences of motions in the organ of sense. As these have all a reference to motions originally produced by the influence of external objects, he considers that there is not an imagined analogy between the conditions produced by association and those produced by external impression, but an absolute identity. The conditions, or, as he calls them, motions of the sensorium, are only two; *sensation*, or consciousness of a condition originating in the organ of sense,—and *volition*, which may arise from the same cause, but differs in being followed by an activity in the bodily organs. It is difficult, on account of the ambiguity of Dr Darwin's language, and the indefinite manner in which he uses many terms, to comprehend exactly what he understands by these conditions of the sensorium. If we have rightly comprehended him, his theory consists in supposing that the activities of the mind are performed by material organs, and that the sensorium is the passive recipient of impression which excites in it the states which we call pleasure, pain, and desire. When expressed in ordinary language then, and divested of the notions of material agency, the theory of Darwin does not present that absurd appearance which we are accustomed to expect. His *sensorium* is what we call the conscious principle; his *sensorial motions* are the passive feelings of the mind; his *fibrous contractions* include all that we call operations of the intellect, and the processes of sensation and bodily activity. At different times Darwin falls into confusion, by speaking of volition or the act of willing, when he should have spoken of desire; by mistaking the conceptions which we form of impressions for the impressions themselves,—the state of mind which results from a comparison of the relations of material qualities for the state of body which the influence of these qualities produces. He errs also in his notion of association, especially in its relation to volition. It is impossible for us to enter at length on the discussion of this subject here; those who would have the subject of association set in a proper point of view, must refer to the lectures of the late Dr Thomas Brown.

Dr Darwin goes on to state the nature of the motions in which he considers the different vital processes to consist. The first are called irritative motions, which he defines thus: "That change or motion of the sensorium which is caused by the impulses of external bodies, which either simply subsides, or is succeeded by sensation, or produces fibrous motions." The second, or sensitive motions, consist in that change of the sensorium which constitutes pleasure or pain, which either simply subsides, or is followed by volition, or produces fibrous motions. The third are voluntary motions, consisting in that exertion or change of the sensorium which constitutes desire or aversion, either simply subsiding or being succeeded by fibrous contractions, when it is termed volition. The fourth are associate motions; that exertion or change of the sensorium which accompanies fibrous motions, and either simply subsides, or is succeeded by sensation or volition, or produces other fibrous motions. This division has been thoroughly examined by Dr Brown, in his observations on the 'Zoonomia.' For the details, that work must be consulted; we may here state the general objections which are there supported. 1. The sensorial power, admitting its existence, is incapable of change. 2. Admitting it to be capable of change,

we are not justified in ascribing similar effects to dissimilar causes: irritation, sensation, volition, and association are not therefore different.

3. Admitting Dr Darwin's opinions to be just, the parts of his division are not opposed, but mutually involved. 4. Admitting the parts to be opposed, the division is incomplete, as there are many phenomena of life which cannot be reduced to any of the four classes of sensorial motions. 5. That Dr Darwin has not affixed precise ideas to the sensorial faculties, but uses them in a different sense in different parts of his work. This theory combines the functions of life with those of intellect. As an example of irritative motion, not followed by sensation but by fibrous motion, we may take the action of the heart. This vital process is explained by the theory of Darwin in the following manner. The blood acts upon the root of the nervous system through the medium of the nerves which are sent to the heart; the sensorium becomes conscious of this irritation, but not of a sensation, and this state is followed by an action of the nervous system and a contraction of the heart. All this is extremely complicated; how much more properly is the process explained in the modern language of physiology: that the stimulus of the blood causes the heart to contract; that the sensibility of the heart to this stimulus depends on its connexion with the nervous system; that the irritability of this system is a property which we may observe, but cannot explain. As a proof of the connection of the cause of voluntary with that of involuntary motions, Darwin produces an instance of a man who could stop the action of his heart by an exertion of will. This is a strong case, but it does not prove all that he has assumed. The sensitive motions are illustrated by the ordinary sensations, and by the pleasure or pain produced by our ideas. The voluntary motions require no illustration. We may object, in passing, to the distinction between desire and aversion, and pleasure and pain, as well as to the description of the former as conjoined with volition, independent of the latter. The theory of associate motions is most objectionable, both in so far as it is applied to the theory of ideas, and to that of bodily motions. By means of it Darwin explains habits of mind and body in a very imperfect manner. An investigation of the subject, if entered upon, must necessarily become too long for a work of this-kind. The same cause prevents us from entering upon a consideration of the merits of the theory as applied to the question of the origin of different classes of ideas, emotions, and volitions. Those who are interested in the subject, will find much information in the observations of Dr Brown. The conclusions, to which this ingenious author has come in relation to this part of the 'Zoonomia,' are, that the explanations given by Dr Darwin are either contrary to fact, or inconsistent with his own principles. In detailing his views of stimulus and exertion, the opinions of Darwin with respect to the sensorial power are more fully developed. The brain is the organ which forms or secretes the sensorial fluid; and the motions of irritation, &c., expend it. Rest is necessary for recruiting the powers of the system which too long exercise, by the expenditure of the whole power of the sensorium, may extinguish altogether, and produce death. This is entirely hypothetical, and will not stand a close investigation. In speaking of the propensity to motion, he says, that "if the exertion of organs of sense and muscles be for a while intermitted, some quantity of sensorial power must be accumulated, and

a propensity to activity of some kind ensue from the increased excitability of the system." This is a mere verbal explanation, and as Dr Brown observes, the accumulated sensorial power may be supposed to increase the energy of individual acts, but not to give a propensity to exertion. In the chapter on Vegetable animation, we find the author led very far into hypothetical speculation. He attempts to prove that vegetables are possessed of consciousness, of sensation, of volition, and of passions,—that they are, in a word, a class of peculiarly organized animals. As might have been expected, the proofs adduced are far from being conclusive, though the reasoning is amusing and ingenious. The opinions on instinct, which are next brought forward, are by no means very inaccurate, if we divest them of their connection with the theory of fibrous motions. The object is to prove that instinctive motions and instinctive acts are in some cases the results of the influences of external causes upon our organs of sense, in others they are the results of experience, and imply the exercise of the reasoning faculties. The illustrations given are not always happy, and he sometimes wanders beyond the proper limits of his subject, to indulge in fanciful speculations. In the section on the Catenation of Motions, the mental process of association, the mental and bodily propensities and habits, the cause and effect in volition, are all referred to sensorial and organic motions. The conditions of sleep, reverie, vertigo, and drunkenness, are described in the terms of the theory with great ingenuity, but not with much success. In sleep, the volition is suspended,—the sensitive, the irritative muscular, and the associate motions continue. In reverie the irritative motions occasioned by internal stimuli continue, the influence of those that arise from external stimuli is suspended; the sensitive motions are under the regulation of the will; the voluntary and associate motions continue. Vertigo is described as the consequence of irregular associate motions of various organs. Drunkenness is ascribed to diminished voluntary power. We shall not attempt to investigate these positions,—an examination of them will be found in the work of Dr Brown. The application of the theory already described to the different operations of the body in health and disease, is the subject of several sections of the work, but a review of them would not be interesting to the general reader. The same may be said of the disquisition on generation and ocular spectra which conclude the first volume.

The second volume of the 'Zoonomia' is divided into two parts; the first "containing a catalogue of diseases distributed into natural classes, according to their proximate causes, with their orders, genera, and species, and with their modes of cure;" the second "containing the articles of the materia medica, with an account of the operation of medicines."—The nosological system of Darwin is founded on his theory of vital motions; diseases are therefore divided into four classes, which include diseases of irritation, of sensation, of volition, and of association. Each of these classes is subdivided into orders, according as the disease consists of increased, decreased, or retrograde motions, with the exception of the diseases of volition, which can arise only from increase or diminution of action. A still further division is made of the orders into genera. In the first, second, and third classes, the generic characters are drawn from the part of the body affected; in the fourth, they are founded on the nature of the catenation of motions supposed to be

present,—one genus consisting of deranged association of irritative motions, another of sensitive motions, and so on. It would be endless, were we to attempt to enumerate and comment upon the different parts which compose this system. A few examples of the diseases attributed to each class, will be quite sufficient for our present purpose. In the first class we find irritative fever, warm sweat, chronic rheumatism, teething, worms, acuteness of the senses, fainting, coldness in fevers, rickets, dropsies, scrofula, colic, impaired senses, iliac passion, catarrh, diabetes, palpitation. In the second class are included deglutition, hiccough, inflammations, various inflammatory affections, cutaneous diseases, various fevers, and mental affections. Among diseases of volition, we find convulsive and spasmodic diseases, insanity, fatigue, sleep, night-mare, apoplexy, folly. Among diseases of association, we have the following :—flushing of the face after dinner, toothache from grating sounds, eruption of smallpox, gout, involuntary laughter, life of an egg, indigestion from cold feet, pain of the little finger from sympathy, St Vitus' dance, laughter, periods of the gout, diarrhœa from fear, nausea from ideas, voluntary vomiting, sickness against rain!—a most motley group, it must be acknowledged. The first observation that suggests itself on reading over this system is, that Dr Darwin uses the term disease in a different sense from that in which it is used by medical writers in general. He uses it to denote what others would call a symptom,—if this be kept in view, the work would not be a useless one, if it performed all that it professes; for a physiological description of the nature, origin, and effects of all those conditions of the body, which may appear as symptoms of diseases, is a desideratum in the science of medicine. In the work of Darwin, there are, doubtless, many observations remarkable for their originality and accuracy; but they are obscured and overwhelmed by the mass of theoretical speculations, founded on the metaphysical theory of the author. Very far from despicable, also, are those hints respecting the practice of medicine, which he has appended to most of the descriptions of diseases. That part of the theoretical speculations of Darwin which has attracted the greatest attention, is his doctrine of fever. We shall not attempt an analysis of his very extended examination of this subject, but shall briefly state the doctrine itself. The foundation of the theory of Darwin had been long before known to the public in that of Brown, the so-called Brunonian system. According to Brown, all diseases consist in accumulated or exhausted excitability,—accumulation being produced by rest, exhaustion by exercise. Brown had omitted to explain the means whereby the accumulation of sensorial power took place. This omission is supplied by Dr Darwin, who supposes the brain to secrete the sensorial power or fluid. In the words of Dr Mason Good,—“All this is intelligible; but when beyond this, he endows his sensorial fluid with a mental as well as a corporeal faculty, and makes it the vehicle of ideas as well as of sensations,—he wanders very unnecessarily from his subject, and clogs it with all the errors of materialism.” The same author describes, in the most intelligible terms that we can find, the doctrine of fever. “In applying the doctrine of sensorial power to fever, he considers the occasional causes, whatever they may be, as inducing a quiescence or torpor of the extreme arteries, and the subsequent heat, as an inordinate exertion of the sensorial power hereby accumulated to

excess." The objections which have been urged against this doctrine are numerous, but no where are they set in so clear a light as in the work of Dr Good. This writer is inclined to agree with the first assumption, that the first effect of the causes of fever consists in a quiescence or torpor of the extreme arteries, a position far from being incontrovertible. On this account he admits the possibility of the explanation being applied to the phenomena of a single febrile paroxysm; but as it applies no further, it must be fundamentally erroneous. "For when the sensorium has exhausted itself of its accumulated irritability, the disease should cease." But this is not the case. It is therefore said, that in consequence of this exhaustion going too far, a second torpor, producing accumulation of energy, is brought on, and the new paroxysm is caused by the expenditure of the accumulation. "Admitting this, for a moment, it must be obvious that the first or torpid stage alone could ensue; for the system being now quite exhausted, the quiescence can only be supposed to recruit the common supply necessary for health; we have no reason to suppose, nor is any held out to us, that this quantity can again rise to a surplus. Yet it must be further remarked that, in continued fevers, we have often no return of torpor or quietude whatever, and, consequently, no means of re-accumulating irritability; but one train of preternatural action and exhaustion, till the system is completely worn out. To this objection, the Darwinian hypothesis seems to be altogether without a reply."

The treatise on the *materia medica* is arranged according to the effects of medicines upon the irritative motions. It is by no means so much deserving of notice as the former parts of the work, so that we may pass it over without further observation.¹

James Beattie.

BORN A. D. 1735.—DIED A. D. 1803.

THE close of the eighteenth century presents us with four names of eminence in the annals of our poetical literature, though of very different merit, and possessing little in common with each other,—these are Beattie, Darwin, Burns, and Cowper. We have already glanced at two of these, and we should now, in chronological order, take up Cowper; but we prefer to close the list of the poetical names of this century with that of Cowper, who forms a clearer connecting link betwixt the poets of the last and present century, than the author of 'The Minstrel,' and exercised a much greater influence on the poetical destinies of the succeeding generation.

Dr James Beattie was born in Kincardineshire in 1735. His father was a shopkeeper in the village of Laurencekirk, and also rented a small farm in the neighbourhood. James was the youngest of six children. He was sent to the university of Aberdeen in 1749, where he obtained a bursary by public competition, and remained four years en-

¹ Edinburgh Encyclopædia. Darwin's Zoonomia. Brown's Observations. Aikin's Diet. 'The study of Medicine,' by John Mason Good, vol. ii.—Annals of Medicine for 1798. Blackwood's Magazine, vol. v. Stewart's Philosophical Essays.

gaged in preparatory studies for entering the ministry. He finished his course of study in a manner which gave the greatest satisfaction to his teachers; but his merits failed for a time to procure him any substantial patronage, and he was glad to support himself for a period of four years by teaching a small country school. In 1758 he obtained an usher's place in the grammar-school of Aberdeen, and was soon taken notice of by the distinguished men who at this time adorned the university, and by whose recommendation he was appointed at the early age of twenty-five professor of moral philosophy and logic in Marischal college,—a situation which he filled till within a short period of his death. On his election to this chair Dr Beattie had such men as Campbell, Reid, Gerard, and Gregory, for his professorial associates, and he maintained an intimate friendship with all these great men to the close of their respective lives.

The first publication of Dr Beattie was a volume of juvenile poems, which appeared in 1760. The author has sufficiently marked his estimate of these effusions, by the fact that in subsequent editions of his poetical pieces they were nearly all of them omitted. His biographer, Sir William Forbes, has attempted to save a few of them from what he considers unmerited oblivion; but most readers will be of opinion that he had better consulted the reputation of his friend by resigning them to the fate their author desired for them. In 1763 he made his first visit to London. In 1765 he published a poem entitled 'The Judgment of Paris,' which was not very favourably received. In this year he formed an acquaintance with the poet Gray. In 1767 he married, and appears to have begun his 'Minstrel,' and 'Essay on Truth.' The latter work was intended as an antidote to the sceptical philosophy of Hume then getting into fashion. It made its appearance in 1770, and took amazingly with the more serious portion of the public, especially in England. The dignitaries of the English church were beyond measure delighted with it, and pressing offers were made to him of speedy advancement if he would consent to take orders in the church of England. To an intimation by Dr Porteous that a living worth £500 was at his service, Dr Beattie replied in the following terms: "I wrote the 'Essay on Truth,' with the certain prospect of raising many enemies, with very faint hopes of attracting the public attention, and without any views of advancing my fortune. I published it, however, because I thought it might probably do a little good, by bringing to nought, or at least lessening the reputation of, that wretched system of sceptical philosophy, which had made a most alarming progress, and done incredible mischief to this country. My enemies have been at great pains to represent my views, in that publication, as very different; and that my principal, or only motive was, to make a book, and if possible, to raise myself higher in the world. So that if I were now to accept preferment in the church, I should be apprehensive that I might strengthen the hands of the gainsayer, and give the world some ground to believe, that my love of truth was not quite so ardent, or so pure, as I had pretended. Besides, might it not have the appearance of levity and insincerity, and by some, be construed into a want of principle, if I were, at these years (for I am now thirty-eight) to make such an important change in my way of life, and to quit, with no other apparent motive than that of bettering my circumstances, that church of which

I have hitherto been a member? If my book has any tendency to do good, as I flatter myself it has, I would not, for the wealth of the Indies, do any thing to counteract that tendency; and I am afraid that tendency might in some measure be counteracted, (at least in this country,) if I were to give the adversary the least ground to charge me with inconsistency. It is true, that the force of my reasonings cannot be really affected by my character: truth is truth, whoever be the speaker; but even truth itself becomes less respectable when spoken, or supposed to be spoken, by insincere lips. It has also been hinted to me, by several persons of very sound judgment, that what I have written, or may hereafter write, in favour of religion, has a chance of being more attended to, if I continue a layman, than if I were to become a clergyman. Nor am I without apprehensions (though some of my friends think them ill-founded) that, from entering so late in life, and from so remote a province, into the church of England, some degree of ungracefulness, particularly in pronunciation, might adhere to my performances in public, sufficient to render them less pleasing, and consequently less useful."

In the summer of 1771 Dr Beattie paid a second visit to London, and was introduced to all the literary society of the metropolis. He repeated his visit in 1773, on which occasion he was admitted an honorary doctor of law at Oxford, had an interview with royalty, and received a substantial mark of favour in an annual pension of £200. Towards the close of the year 1773, there was a proposal for transferring Dr Beattie to the university of Edinburgh: this he declined chiefly, it would appear, from the dread of having to encounter there many machinations and subtle inventions of the sceptical philosophers, whose head-quarters he deemed Edinburgh to be, and who, he appears to have thought, would certainly plot his destruction if he was so foolhardy as to place himself within their reach. The reader will often be reminded of poor John Dennis's dread of the French court in perusing that portion of Dr Beattie's voluminous correspondence which relates to this matter. "There are about thirty pages of anxious elaborate correspondence on this subject, which illustrate, more than any thing we have lately met with, the importance of a man to himself, and the strange fancies that will sometimes be engendered between self-love and literary animosity. With no better grounds of apprehension than we have already mentioned, Dr Beattie writes:—'Even if my fortune were as narrow, &c. I would still incline to remain in quiet where I am, rather than, by becoming a member of the university of Edinburgh, place myself within the reach of those who have been pleased to let the world know that they do not wish me well;—not that I have any reason to mind their enmity, &c. My cause is so good, that he who espouses it can never have occasion to be afraid of any man.' If he had actually been in danger of poison or stilettoes, he could not have used other language. He proceeds afterwards: 'As they are singular enough to hate me for having done my duty, and for what I trust (with God's help) I shall never cease to do, (I mean for endeavouring to vindicate the cause of truth, with that zeal which so important a cause requires,) I could never hope that they would live with me on those agreeable terms on which I desire to live with all good men,' &c. And in another epistolary dissertation on the same subject, he adds,

with some reference to the members of the Edinburgh university, which we are persuaded was without foundation. 'I should dislike very much to live in a society with crafty persons, who would think it for their interest to give me as much trouble as possible; unless I had reason to think that they had conscience and honour sufficient to restrain them from aspersing the innocent.'

Dr Beattie published a volume of Essays in 1776, and another in 1783; a treatise on the Evidences of Christianity in 1786, and an outline of his academical lectures in 1790. These constituted all his prose publications. The first canto of the 'Minstrel' was published in 1771. It took well, probably more in consequence of its author being already known by his 'Essay on Truth.' It is by no means a poem of the highest order; yet it contains some beautiful descriptions and fine sentiments, and will always be read with pleasure by gentle and cultivated minds. The author makes the following remarks upon his own poem in his letters to Lady Forbes: "Again your ladyship must have observed, that some sentiments are common to all men; others peculiar to persons of a certain character. Of the former sort are those which Gray has so elegantly expressed in his 'Church-yard Elegy;' a poem which is universally understood and admired, not only for its poetical beauties, but also, and perhaps chiefly, for its expressing sentiments in which every man thinks himself interested, and which, at certain times, are familiar to all men. Now the sentiments expressed in the 'Minstrel,' being not common to all men, but peculiar to persons of a certain cast, cannot possibly be interesting, because the generality of readers will not understand, nor feel them so thoroughly as to think them natural. That a boy should take pleasure in darkness or a storm,—in the noise of thunder, or the glare of lightning; should be more gratified with listening to music at a distance, than with mixing in the merriment occasioned by it; should like better to see every bird and beast happy and free, than to exert his ingenuity in destroying or insnaring them,—these, and such like sentiments, which, I think, would be natural to persons of a certain cast, will, I know, be condemned as unnatural by others, who have never felt them in themselves, nor observed them in the generality of mankind. Of all this I was sufficiently aware before I published the 'Minstrel,' and therefore never expected that it would be a popular poem." What follows, however, as it partakes of anecdote, will probably be more interesting to most readers. "I find you are willing to suppose, that, in Edwin, I have given only a picture of myself as I was in my younger days. I confess the supposition is not groundless. I have made him take pleasure in the scenes in which I took pleasure, and entertain sentiments similar to those, of which, even in my early youth, I had repeated experience. The scenery of a mountainous country, the ocean, the sky, thoughtfulness and retirement, and sometimes melancholy objects and ideas, had charms in my eyes, even when I was a school-boy; and at a time when I was so far from being able to express, that I did not understand my own feelings, or perceive the tendency of such pursuits and amusements; and as to poetry and music, before I was ten years old I could play a little on the violin, and was as much master of Homer and Virgil, as Pope's and Dryden's translations could make me."

In 1796 Dr Beattie lost a favourite son, his only surviving child.

This event, says his biographer, completely unhinged his mind,—“the first symptom of which, ere many days had elapsed, was a temporary but almost total loss of memory respecting his son. Many times he could not recollect what had become of him; and after searching in every room of the house, he would say to his niece, Mrs Glennie, ‘You may think it strange, but I must ask you if I have a son, and where he is?’ She then felt herself under the painful necessity of bringing to his recollection his son Montagu’s sufferings, which always restored him to reason. And he would often, with many tears, express his thankfulness that he had no child, saying, ‘How could I have borne to see their elegant minds mangled with madness!’ When he looked for the last time on the dead body of his son, he said, ‘I have now done with the world:’ and he ever after seemed to act as if he thought so. For he never applied himself to any sort of study, and answered but few of the letters he received from the friends whom he most valued. Yet the receiving a letter from an old friend never failed to put him in spirits for the rest of the day. Music, which had been his great delight, he could not endure, after the death of his eldest son, to hear from others; and he disliked his own favourite violoncello. A few months before Montagu’s death, he did begin to play a little by way of accompaniment when Montagu sung: but after he lost him, when he was prevailed on to touch the violoncello, he was always discontented with his own performance, and at last seemed to be unhappy when he heard it. The only enjoyment he seemed to have was in books, and the society of a very few old friends. It is impossible to read the melancholy picture which he draws of his own situation about this time, without dropping a tear of pity over the sorrows and the sufferings of so good a man thus severely visited by affliction.” From this time Dr Beattie’s health gradually declined. In 1799 he was struck with paralysis. He lingered in a hopeless state till June 1803, when death relieved him from all mortal infirmity.

A great portion of Dr Beattie’s correspondence is before the public in Sir William Forbes’s splendid biographical volumes. We are not sure that the Doctor’s memory has reaped much advantage from the care and industry of his literary executor in this respect. They are full of trite criticisms and egregious common-places; and what is still worse, in many instances appear to have been nothing better than “a commerce of mutual flattery.” An anonymous author says of this portion of Dr Beattie’s literary remains, that “the reader is sometimes tempted to suspect that he has been called to be present at a farce, where the principal persons are flattering for a wager. During the perusal, we have been obliged again and again to endeavour to drive out of our imagination the idea of a meeting of Chinese mandarins,—where the first bows to the floor,—and then the second mandarin bows to the floor,—and then the first mandarin bows again to the floor; and thus they go on till friendship is satisfied or tired.”

Of his great work, the ‘Essay on the Nature and Immutability of Truth,’ little is now said. Indeed we question if it is read by one in twenty students of mental philosophy. It betrays greater warmth of temper than powers of reasoning, and abounds with such babyish interjections, as “Fy on it! Fy on it!” “Ye traitors to human kind!” “Ye murderers of the human soul!” “Vain hypocrites!” &c. &c. What-

ever, says the Edinburgh reviewer of Sir William Forbes's volumes, "may be the excellence of the common-sense school of philosophy, he certainly has no claim to the honours of a founder. He invented none of it; and it is very doubtful with us, whether he ever rightly understood the principles upon which it is rested. It is unquestionable, at least, that he has exposed it to considerable disadvantage, and embarrassed its more enlightened supporters, by the misplaced confidence with which he has urged some propositions, and the fallacious and fantastic illustrations by which he has aimed at recommending them. His confidence and his inaccuracy, however, might have been easily forgiven. Every one has not the capacity of writing philosophically; but every one may at least be temperate and candid; and Dr Beattie's book is still more remarkable for being abusive and acrimonious, than for its defects in argument or originality. There are no subjects, however, in the wide field of human speculation, upon which such vehemence appears more groundless and unaccountable, than the greater part of those which have served Dr Beattie for topics of declamation or invective."

Richard Owen Cambridge.

BORN A. D. 1717.—DIED A. D. 1802.

RICHARD OWEN CAMBRIDGE, though not possessed of high claims to literary fame, was throughout an extended life one of those writers who, without any great share of intellectual power, keep themselves nevertheless pretty prominently before the public, and maintain a position always respectable, if not commanding, in the commonwealth of letters. He was born in London, in the year 1717. His father dying soon after the birth of his son, the care of his education devolved on his mother and his maternal uncle. He was sent at an early period to Eton school, where he enjoyed the friendship of Bryant, Gray, West, Horace Walpole, Lord Sandwich, and several other youths, who afterwards rose to eminence in the political or literary world. From Eton, he removed to St John's college, Oxford: but he left the university without a degree. In 1737 he became a member of Lincoln's inn, but was never called to the bar. Relieved from the necessity of exertion for his maintenance, having been born to a considerable fortune, and remarkably exempt, as his biographer informs us, from "those passions which usually incline men to exchange domestic enjoyments for the toil of public business," he contented himself with admission to a large and distinguished circle of society, amongst whom he could enjoy the pleasures of polished intercourse, and receive the respect due to his various talents and accomplishments. In 1741 he entered into the married state, and settled at his family-seat of Whitminster in Gloucestershire, where he wrote the 'Scribleriad,' a mock-heroic poem, which was published in 1751, and amused himself with improving his estate. He afterwards removed to Twickenham, where he continued to reside during the remainder of his life. In 1761 he published his 'History of the War on the coast of Coromandel,' a work elegantly and simply written, but which has been superseded by the more elaborate work of Mr Dowe.

He at one time meditated a larger work on Indian affairs, but gave up the design, probably as much in consequence of his aversion to any thing like the toils of authorship, as of the commencement of Mr Orme's work. Occasional contributions to periodical papers, particularly 'The World,' and the composition of some little poetical pieces and *vers de société*, were better suited to his habits and cast of mind, and with these he often amused himself. In the more advanced period of his life, it does not appear that the honourable and envied appellation of 'Fortunate senex' could ever be more appositely applied than to Mr Cambridge. He lived esteemed for his learning and accomplishments, and beloved for every amiable quality, and he expired without a sigh, in the bosom of his family, on the 17th of September, 1802. About a year after his death, his son, the Rev. George Owen Cambridge, published a splendid edition of all his works, with the exception of his history of the Comandiel war, to which he prefixed an account of his life and writings.

Jacob Bryant.

BORN A. D. 1715.—DIED A. D. 1804.

JACOB BRYANT, an eminent philological writer, was born at Plymouth in Devonshire, where his father had an office in the customs, and after receiving his grammatical education at Eton, was removed to King's college, Cambridge, where he obtained a fellowship, and took the degree of M. A. in 1744. His love of literature gained him great reputation, but, declining to take orders, he formed a connection with the Marlborough family, and superintended their education. This connection probably arose from his acquaintance with the late duke when at Eton. Mr Bryant afterwards attended his Grace, as secretary, in his military expeditions, as well as at the board of ordnance, of which the duke was master-general. Upon the death of his patron, Mr Bryant settled at Cypenham in Berkshire, and though possessed of only a small income, refused the situation of master of the Charter-house, which was tendered to his acceptance, preferring to devote the remainder of his days to the pursuit of literature. His first avowed publication appeared in 1767, entitled 'Observations and Enquiries relating to various parts of Ancient History; containing Dissertations on the wind Euroclydon, on the Island of Melite,—with an account of Egypt in its most early state, and of the Shepherd Kings,' in 4to. This volume abounds with learned researches and adventurous conjectures, but in the latter part of his life he relinquished some of the opinions which he had therein broached. In 1774 appeared the first two volumes of his most celebrated work, 'The Analysis of Ancient Mythology,' which was followed by a third volume in 1776. This work met with many admirers, but at the same time subjected the author to a good deal of severe criticism, chiefly on account of Mr Bryant not being sufficiently acquainted with the oriental languages to avoid the errors which exposed him to such animadversion; but, even admitting all its errors, the work will constitute an epoch in literature, and even do honour to its author's name and country. The general object of Mr Bryant's work was to sap the cause of infidelity, by establishing the truth of the scriptures, and

tracing the earliest history of mankind, as related in the inspired volume, through the traditional remains of all nations. Infidels therefore were alarmed, and numerous attacks were made upon it, chiefly masked under the pretence of defending ancient opinions. An extreme taste for paradox and conjecture may be traced in the subsequent publications of Mr Bryant. He printed an anonymous tract, entitled 'Vindiciæ Flavianæ,' being a defence of the disputed passage in the history of Josephus, relative to Jesus Christ. The ingenuity of this defence made converts of many who had formerly considered that passage spurious, and among these was the late Dr Priestley. Mr Bryant, being a firm believer in Divine revelation, had nothing so much at heart as to convince others, and to this end exerted all his learning and all his powers. His work addressed to Lady Pembroke, 'On the Christian Religion,' his 'Observations upon the Plagues inflicted upon the Egyptians,' Lon. 1794, 8vo., the 'History of Balaam,'—'The Standing still of the Sun,'—and the 'Histories of Samson and Jonah,' are all works directed to this great end. He endeavoured to prove the antiquity and authenticity of the poems ascribed to Rowley; and wrote a book, in reply to Chevalier, to show that the city of Troy was a nonentity, and the war between the Greeks and Trojans a pure fiction of Homer. His last publication, on 'The Sentiments of Philo Judæus, concerning the Logos, or Word of God,' Lon. 1797, 8vo., must be regarded as a failure. Mr Bryant's object in it was to vindicate the doctrine of the Trinity, and to oppose Arianism in particular, yet he reduces himself to assert that the Son was in personality "produced in time,"—an assertion evidently bordering upon, if not identical with, the seminal point of Arianism. This accomplished scholar and devout Christian died in the month of November, 1804, at his house at Cypenham, in his 89th year. His death was occasioned by a rasure of the skin against a chair, in reaching a book from a shelf. He bequeathed his library to the college in which he was educated at Cambridge, and left considerable sums to be applied to charitable purposes. Mr Bryant had from early life a delicate constitution. His manners were distinguished for urbanity; and his conversation was cheerful, entertaining, and instructive.

William Cowper.

BORN A. D. 1731.—DIED A. D. 1800.

"FROM the days of Pope there had been no failure of poetical talent in this country: poets of originality, as well as power, had appeared, but none were so conspicuous, either by their faults or excellence, as to influence the style of their contemporaries, though there were some who obtained a great reputation, and others who deserved and will have secured a lasting one. Collectively, they had produced this good, that, by presenting new, and in some respects, worthier objects of admiration, they in great measure weaned the nation from that idolatry of Pope, which, if it had continued, would have flattened our poetry to the level of the French taste. Thomson recalled the aspirant to the love of natural scenery, and the feelings connected with it, for which the school of Pope had neither eyes nor hearts. Young struck a chord (and with a

powerful hand) which vibrated in every mind that was either under the influence of sorrow, or constitutional melancholy, or religious enthusiasm: how large a portion of mankind are included within his sphere! The 'Night Thoughts,' therefore, have been translated into most of the European languages, if not into all; and wherever they have been translated, they are popular among those classes to whom they are addressed. Glover was for a time so highly extolled, that Smollett, in his 'History of England,' mentions 'Leonidas' among the glories of the reign of George II.; and Smollett did this, not in sympathy with the political feeling by which the poem had been cried up, but in deference to the public opinion which that cry had succeeded in forming. There was, however, something to support it. Pope had sent the English Homer into the world, laced, ruffled, periwigged, and powdered, in a full dress court suit of embroidery. Glover introduced Leonidas, like a Quaker, in drab, without ornament, without elegance, without any appearance of muscular strength; but grave, decorous, and respectable, and with an air of moral dignity. The poem derived from its subject a kind of elevation, which in some degree supplied the place of passion and of power. Mason, like Glover, formed his poetry upon the Grecian model, though there are perhaps no two poets who are more completely dissimilar in manner. Mason possessed a finer ear, a more active imagination, and a richer flow of language and of thought. There was a promise of higher excellence in his early productions than in any other compositions of that age,—a liveliness, and vigour, and aspiration, which might have produced great things, if, as his mind matured, he had thrown off his cumbrous and affected alliteration, his florid excrescences, and the trammels of his stiff and elaborate style. But Mason was not a happy man; he yielded to a splenetic disposition, and suffered his powers to wither away in discontent. The place, however, which he holds among English poets he will maintain, and it is not a low one. He and his friend Gray were assailed with some ridicule, but their fair claims were fairly acknowledged by their contemporaries, they enjoyed a high degree of reputation, and they were the most influential poets of their age. Gray, indeed, left no followers possessed of skill, and patience, and industry, to compose in mosaic, as he had done, but the cast of his poetry appeared in that of the succeeding generation, and our lyrics for a while were marked as strongly by his manner, as they had been a century before by Cowley's. The truer lyric strain and higher poetical qualities of Collins obtained no notice. It is a fact which ought never to be forgotten by those who would know what is the worth of contemporary opinion, when left to itself, that Collins' Odes remained, for many years after their publication, utterly neglected and almost unknown, insomuch that when the poet acquired a small fortune by bequest, he returned to the bookseller the sum which he had received for the copyright, repaid him all his expenses, and committed the large remains of the impression to the flames. It was not till nearly thirty years after his death, that Cowper had ever heard his name. He saw it first in Johnson's 'Lives of the Poets,' and was so little impressed with what he saw there, that he called him a poet of no great fame, and appears not to have formed the slightest conception of his powers. John Dyer is another poet of that age, almost as much neglected at the time as Collins, and hardly yet estimated by the public so highly as he deserves. A sneer is re-

corded of some critical visitor to whom the Fleece was shown by Dodsley soon after its publication. The man of letters, as he esteemed himself, and was supposed to be, after glancing into a few pages, and expressing a contemptuous opinion, asked what was the author's age, and being told that he was far advanced in life, replied, 'then he will be buried in woollen.' It is well for this 'critical visitor' that his name has not been preserved, for if it had, he would assuredly have been gibbeted with this jest about his neck. Erroneous judgments in the court of criticism are always, sooner or later, reversed by time, and heavy damages are then awarded against those by whom they were pronounced. In an evil hour for himself did Bishop Hacket (good, and learned, and meritorious as he was) call Milton a petty schoolboy scribbler. Winstanley was not more fortunate in saying that 'his fame was gone out, like a candle in a stink;' and Burnet drew upon himself more popular censure by the unlucky sentence in which he spoke of one Prior, than by all the inaccuracies of his statements and his style.

"Mr Wordsworth has paid a just tribute to the merit of this delightful writer, who was gifted with a painter's eye and a poet's heart.

Bard of the Fleece, whose skilful genius made
That work a living landscape, fair and bright;
Nor hallowed less with musical delight
Than those soft scenes through which thy childhood stray'd,
Those southern tracts of Cambria 'deep embay'd,
By green hills fenced, by ocean's murmur lull'd;"
Though hasty fame hath many a chaplet cull'd
For worthless brows, while in the pensive shade
Of cold neglect she leaves thy head ungraced;
Yet pure and powerful minds, hearts meek and still,
A grateful few, shall love thy modest lay,
Long as the shepherd's bleating flock shall stray
O'er naked Snowdon's wide aerial waste,
Long as the thrush shall pipe on Grongar Hill.'

"Another eminent poet of those days, Akenside, (who was a friend of Dyer's,) attained at once to a high reputation, from which nothing will be abated by the judgment of posterity. Our language contains few poems so attractive to young and generous minds of the higher class, as the 'Pleasures of Imagination,' for its rich but not redundant diction, for its full and sonorous versification, always sweet and sustained, but never cloying, and for its general elevation of manner, thought, and sentiment. Something may be learned from his after-version of the same poem, by comparing the sobriety and chastened manner of mature years with the luxuriance of his youthful style. The poet may also learn from it a more important lesson,—never to employ his best years in re-modelling a work of his youth. It is vain to suppose, that the thoughts, and feelings, and opinions of forty can ever be made to assimilate in one composition, with those of twenty; this is no more possible than it would be for a painter to improve the likeness in a portrait by retouching it from the face of the original, after an equal lapse of years. One of our old thoughtful writers has said, in melancholy or in bitterness, that

'Old age doth give, by too long space,
Our souls as many wrinkles as our face.'

It had been said before him by Montagne, '*elle nous attache plus de*

rides en l'esprit qu'au visage; et ne se void point d'ames, ou fort rares, qui en vieillissant ne sentent l'aigre et le moisi.' The proper effect of age is to ripen what is generous, and to soften and mellow what was harsh; this is its natural tendency when not counteracted by untoward circumstances,—its sure effect, when aided by genuine religion. We have seen a countenance which, in youth, might have been deemed stern, and in middle age, austere, settled, in advanced years, into an expression

'Kind as the willing saints, and calmer far
Than in their sleep forgiven hermits are.'

"But—not to digress farther, as if the very recollection of Montagne had brought with it a rambling spirit—it is certain that time acts as surely and as strongly upon the mind, as upon the bodily features, and therefore the task upon which Akenside employed the latter years of his life was in itself unwise. With less trouble, less vexation, and less expense of time, he might have completed a poem of equal magnitude and importance upon a new design, have satisfied himself better, and established his claim to a higher rank in the literature of his country. None of these poets affected what may be called the current poetry of their age, and they had passed away when Hayley rose into notice, Mason being the only survivor of those who have been mentioned. A change was preparing, and may be traced to Winchester, which, under Dr Warton, had become a nursery of poets. If any man may be called the father of the present race, it is Thomas Warton, a scholar by profession, an antiquary, and a poet by choice; and by nature one of the best tempered and happiest of men. The influence of Collins, (who had been his schoolfellow and friend,) of Gray, and of Mason, may be perceived in his poems; but they are more strongly tinged by his romantic and chivalrous reading, and by the spirit of our elder poets.

'Nor rough nor barren are the winding ways
Of hoar antiquity, but strewn with flowers.'

Thus he expressed himself, and the truth of this was exemplified in all his writings. No man could at that time have written such poems, unless his studies had qualified him to become the historian of English poetry; nor could any one have composed that history who had not been born a poet."¹

We could not find a fitter introduction to the memoir now before the reader, than this able and judicious survey of the state of the poetical world when Cowper arose amongst us. The distinguishing characteristics of his more immediate predecessors are touched with a light but masterly hand; and we are the better able to judge of what Cowper achieved for English poetry, by having thus previously passed in review the acts and deeds of the poets of his own age.

William, son of the reverend Dr John Cowper, chaplain to George II., was born at Berkhamstead in Hertfordshire, at his father's rectory, on the 26th of November, 1731. He received his earlier education at a day-school in his native village, and under Dr Pitman of Market-street. He was then sent to Westminster school, which he left in 1749. When called to choose a profession, he selected that of the bar, and was

¹ London Quarterly Review, vol. xxxi.

articled to an eminent attorney. He does not appear, however, to have paid much attention to his legal studies: "I did actually live," he says, in one of his letters to his amiable cousin, Lady Hesketh, "three years with Mr Chapman, a solicitor; that is to say, I slept three years in his house; but I lived, that is to say, I spent my days in Southampton Row, as you very well remember. There was I, and the future lord-chancellor (Thurlow), constantly employed from morning till night in giggling and making giggle, instead of studying law." On leaving Mr Chapman, he took chambers in the Middle Temple; and formed an intimacy with his late schoolfellows, the elder Colman, Bonnel, Thornton and Lloyd, the two first of whom he assisted in their celebrated periodical, 'The Connoisseur.'

Soon after he went to the Temple, a cloud of dejection settled heavily upon him. He met accidentally with Herbert, and some of the beautiful inspirations in which that writer threw off the restraints of the bad taste which prevailed, and followed his own taste and feeling, went to the heart of Cowper, and touched the string which was then silent, but was afterwards waked into deep and full vibration. He tells us distinctly, that it was the piety of that devout writer which gave him such a hold upon his mind. Inspired by the example, he attempted to secure the peace which religion alone could give: but not being aware that such peace is not to be found till the whole heart consents to this direction of the feeling, nor indeed till familiarity has made it easy and sweet, he gave over his attempts in despair, because he did not find at once the relief which he expected. As often as his mind attempted to rise, the strong hand of his disorder bound it down. He gives us a remarkable instance of this in his own narrative. At the time alluded to, he went into the country. While there, he walked one day to some distance from the village, and sat down in a retired spot, which commanded a noble prospect both of land and sea: the land-view was quiet and lovely, and the sun shone bright upon the sleeping ocean. Suddenly, as if a new sun had been kindled in the heavens, his soul was lighted up with joy, and filled with a glow of gratitude to the Power, to which he felt that he was indebted for this unexpected blessing. Unfortunately he returned to his old associations, and the benefit of this restoration was lost. The effect here described was precisely similar to what he tells us of his latter periods of depression. He rose in the morning, he says, 'like an infernal frog out of Acheron, covered with the ooze and mud of melancholy;' but as the sun rose higher, his gloom gradually cleared up, its depth and duration depending upon the brightness of the day. In all this we see the misfortune of a man, whose heart longed to commune with the grand and beautiful works of nature, but was compelled to remain in the cells and caverns of the town,—who needed to associate with the contemplative and thoughtful, but was driven to the society of the busy or the gay,—who had a mind formed for poetical musing, but had not yet discovered where his strength lay,—whose soul was made for devotion, but never had been taught to rise; and who, in addition to all these unfavourable circumstances, was afflicted with a disorder, which palsies every faculty of body and spirit at the time when the man most needs exertions of power.

Situated as Cowper was, those difficulties, which in better times might have operated as springs to his active and powerful mind, became

so many dead weights to him. Difficulties came thick and fast. His resources were so few and small, that an attachment, which, so far as we can discover from slight intimations, was returned by the object of his affection, was broken off by the friends of the parties: and not merely did this privation interfere with his happiness; he had the prospect of actual poverty before him. Affrighted at this vision, he eagerly grasped at the place of reading-clerk to the house of lords, which a friend offered him, and forgot that the nervous shyness, which made a public exhibition of himself 'mortal poison,' would render it impossible for him ever to discharge its duties. The moment this difficulty occurred to him, it covered his mind with gloom. But he had not resolution to explain himself to his friend; and though they passed great part of every day together, it was only by letter that he could bring himself to propose that this office should be exchanged for that of clerk of the journals, which required no public appearance, and was also in the gift of his patron. No sooner had he applied for the change as a personal favour, than his friend generously consented to it, though it disappointed his kind purpose, and even, from particular circumstances, exposed his integrity to suspicion. Thus, where a single word would have saved him from much suffering, it was one which he had not strength to speak; and yet, hardly had his mind been set at rest on this subject, before it was called upon to make a similar but still greater exertion. For reasons, of which it is enough to say, that they were not personal, he was threatened with a public examination before the house, before he entered upon the duties. This made him completely wretched; he had not resolution to decline what he had not strength to do: the interest of his friend, and his own reputation and want of support, pressed him forward to an attempt, which he knew from the first could never succeed. In this miserable state, like Goldsmith's traveller, 'to stop too fearful and too faint to go,' he attended every day for six months at the office where he was to examine the journals in preparation for his trust. His feelings were like those of a man at the place of execution, every time he entered the office door, and he only gazed mechanically upon the books, without drawing from them the least portion of the information which he wanted. A single letter to his cousin, Lady Hesketh, shows how helpless and hopeless was his condition; he had not strength to stand self-sustained, and he had not courage or confidence to reveal to his friends the torture which was wasting the living fibre of his heart. Perhaps those only, who have been in a condition in which the lightest touch is to the mind like sharp iron to the naked nerve, can sympathize with the heart-sick delicacy which prevented his making another appeal to the friend, who seems to have been actuated throughout simply by the wish to serve him. As the time drew nigh, his agony became more and more intense; he hoped and believed that madness would come to relieve him; he attempted also to make up his mind to commit suicide, though his conscience bore stern testimony against it; he could not by any argument persuade himself that it was right, but his desperation prevailed, and he procured from an apothecary the means of self-destruction. On the day before his public appearance was to be made, he happened to notice a letter in the newspaper, which to his disordered mind seemed like a malignant libel on himself. He immediately threw down the

paper and rushed into the fields, determined to die in a ditch, but the thought struck him that he might escape from the country. With the same violence he proceeded to make hasty preparations for his flight; but while he was engaged in packing his portmanteau his mind changed, and he threw himself into a coach, ordering the man to drive to the Tower wharf, intending to throw himself into the river, and not reflecting that it would be impossible to accomplish his purpose in that public spot. On approaching the water, he found a porter seated upon some goods: he then returned to the coach and was conveyed to his lodgings at the Temple. On the way, he attempted to drink the laudanum, but as often as he raised it, a convulsive agitation of his frame prevented its reaching his lips; and thus, regretting the loss of the opportunity, but unable to avail himself of it, he arrived, half-dead with anguish, at his apartment. He then shut the doors and threw himself upon the bed with the laudanum near him, trying to lash himself up to the deed: but a voice within seemed constantly to forbid it, and as often as he extended his hand to the poison, his fingers were contracted and held back by spasms. At this time some one of the inmates of the place came in, but he concealed his agitation, and as soon as he was left alone, a change came over him, and so detestable did the deed appear, that he threw away the laudanum and dashed the vial to pieces. The rest of the day was spent in heavy insensibility, and at night he slept as usual: but on waking at three in the morning, he took his pen-knife and lay with his weight upon it, the point towards his heart. It was broken and would not penetrate. At day-break he arose, and passing a strong garter round his neck, fastened it to the frame of his bed: this gave way with his weight, but on securing it to the door, he was more successful, and remained suspended till he had lost all consciousness of existence. After a time the garter broke and he fell to the floor, so that his life was saved: but the conflict had been greater than his reason could endure. He felt for himself a contempt not to be expressed or imagined; whenever he went into the street, it seemed as if every eye flashed upon him with indignation and scorn: he felt as if he had offended God so deeply, that his guilt could never be forgiven, and his whole heart was filled with tumultuous pangs of despair. Madness was not far off, or rather madness was already come.

In this distressing condition he was placed under the charge of the amiable and well-known Dr Cotton of St Alban's, from whom his deplorable case received the most humane as well as scientific attention. When he had recovered so far as to be able to leave the care of the physician and retreat into the country, he became acquainted with the family of Unwin, to which he was indebted for so much of the comfort of his later years. Wherever he felt at ease his manners were said to be singularly attractive; and this family seem to have had a simplicity and warm-hearted kindness which offered him precisely the social resources which he wanted, besides having the advantage of being able to sympathize with him in all his religious feelings. After residing with them two years, the circumstances of the family were changed by the death of Mr Unwin, and, at the suggestion of Mr Newton, they went to reside near him in Olney, the scene of his pastoral labours. In Mrs Unwin, a woman of intelligence as well as excellence, who was seven years older than himself, he found a counsellor as well as friend, who

was so much interested in his welfare, that after her children, who were both of mature years, left her, she made it her duty and pleasure to devote her life to him. Beside the all-engrossing subject of which his heart was full, he spent his time in exercise, conversation, and music, in which he always delighted. It does not appear that he engaged seriously in writing any thing more than the 'Olney Hymns,' which he undertook in conjunction with his friend Mr Newton; but as he wrote with great facility, these were trifles which made but small demands upon his mind. This period of his life seems to have been more tranquil and serene than any other. There are not many letters, but those are on the subject nearest his heart, and are written in a cheerful spirit, which seems to show that there was nothing morbid in his devotion. There is nothing in the least presumptuous or intrusive in his manner: he speaks of himself in terms of unfeigned humility, stating his own sentiments with manly freedom, but never complaining of others because their feelings did not keep pace with his own. This way of life seems much more favourable to the health of his mind than the more brilliant period when he stood out before the gaze of men; for, however much he endeavoured to guard himself against excessive sensibility to the world's opinion, it is manifestly impossible that any man should be indifferent to censure or praise, and he of all mankind was least likely to present a breast of steel to the critic's blow. He succeeded much better in guarding himself against the temptations of flattery, than against the depressing effect of censure. His letters betray the consternation with which he looked for the critical sentence of Johnson, and the almost bodily fear in which he waited for the signal from the Doctor's heavy gun, which should give notice whether the poet was to live or die. He was delighted with a line from Franklin, which, though it betrayed no great poetic enthusiasm, showed that he had discernment to see the substantial excellence of the new candidate for fame. Throughout Cowper's life, he seems to have been deeply wounded by neglect and scorn, whether as a poet or a man. When he first went to Huntingdon as an invalid stranger, some one had spoken of him as 'that fellow Cowper;' and he does not disguise the satisfaction which it gave him to prove that he was by birthright a gentleman. He never was reconciled to the neglect which he experienced at the hands of Thurlow, who was once his intimate friend. He had once playfully engaged to provide for Cowper, if he ever had the power; but when he became lord-chancellor, he followed the example of Pharaoh's chief butler,—a person who has found more imitators than most others recorded in the Scripture. It was not to be expected, that a coarse and somewhat savage individual like Thurlow, could sympathize much with one so gentle and refined; nor would it have been easy to provide for him, except by a pension; but all that Cowper wished from him was an assurance that he was not forgotten, and it is a disgrace to Thurlow that this small measure of attention to his feelings was never paid.

After eight years of health, in the year 1773 Cowper's depression returned, and soon deepened into an impenetrable gloom. No enjoyments, no cares, nor duties, could find the least access to his mind; he did not show the least interest in the society of his friends, nor gratitude for their kindness, though they were unwearied in their exertions to rescue him from his distress. Mr Newton, though he was sometimes

injudicious in his treatment of Cowper, proved himself a faithful friend on this occasion; and Mrs Unwin attended him with a kindness and self-devotion which were requited by his lasting gratitude and affection. But nothing would avail; he remained in a state of helpless despondency for five years, all the while in utter despair of salvation; and when he began to recover, it was five years more before he regained sufficient firmness to throw off his anxiety, and return to the world again. It was at this period that he helped forward his restoration by taking care of the tame hares which he has made so celebrated. The narrative in which he describes them was first published in the 'Gentleman's Magazine,' and has since been found in almost every edition of his works, where it always has been, and always will be, a favourite page to lovers of nature.

When he was so far restored as to be able to write, Mrs Unwin, with a judgment which does her honour, urged him to employ his mind upon poetical subjects; and as this had always been a favourite pursuit, without his being aware of the richness and variety of his powers, he was easily induced to make the exertion. He made a beginning early in life, and one or two specimens, preserved by Hayley, show the same vigour of thought and expression which distinguish his later writings. 'Table Talk' was the earliest of the pieces which compose his first volume, and the rest were written at the suggestions of friends, on subjects which happened to strike his imagination. Original and powerful as these poems were, they were very slow in winning their way to the public favour; the sale was far from rapid, and the critical verdicts of literary tribunals did not tend to increase their circulation. One of the reviews declared that they were evidently the production of a very pious gentleman, without one spark of genius. But, considering all circumstances, this was not surprising; the versification of the day was such as Pope had left it, and ears accustomed to the even flow of his numbers were startled by the bolder grace of Cowper's lines; it seemed like absurd presumption, in one unknown to fame, to step so widely from the beaten path; and, as every one knows, literary independence is not easily forgiven. Then, too, the preface by Mr Newton was of a nature to alarm light readers: it was written with more solemnity than was called for by the occasion; he does not seem to have admired the play of Cowper's humour, though it was one of his most remarkable powers; the poet studiously apologizes for it in his letters to Newton, assuring him that it was introduced in order to gain a hearing from the thoughtless, on the same principle that induces parents, in giving physic to their children, to touch the brim of the cup with honey.

Though the immediate success of his first volume was not great, it was sufficient to encourage one who never had a very exalted opinion of his own powers; and having at this time a new and animated companion, Lady Austen, who had much influence over him, and used it to induce him to write, he commenced a new poem, 'The Task,' which was completed and given to the world in 1785. This work was at once successful, and placed him at the head of all the poets of the day. But all the while that he was thus fortunate in gaining reputation, he was a prey to his constitutional melancholy, believing himself unfit to engage in religious exercises, and entirely cut off from the hope of salvation. A domestic incident, too, tended to destroy the happiness which he

might have received from his literary fame. He was obliged to give up the society of Lady Austen, in deference to the feelings of Mrs Unwin, who felt herself eclipsed by this new companion. Mrs Unwin has been generally condemned for this jealousy, as if it proceeded from a narrow mind; but there are several circumstances to be taken into view. It does not appear that she ever complained of the ascendancy of Lady Austen. Cowper perceived that she was dispirited, and for this there was sufficient reason. She felt that she was the person on whose care and kindness he had leaned for years. She had devoted her life to secure the happiness of his; and in his seasons of melancholy he had required a self-devotion to his welfare which very few were able or willing to give. While she had done all this for him, Lady Austen had only amused him, and it was not in human nature to behold the interest, to which she was entitled by years of hardship, thus transferred to a more entertaining companion, without regret. Cowper knew that there was cause for her uneasiness, and at once made the sacrifice which he felt was her due. The loss was soon after supplied by Lady Hesketh, his cousin, said to have been a woman of fine understanding and remarkable social powers, who was often an inmate in the same household with him, and faithful to him to the last. Soon after his renewal of personal intercourse with her, and about a year after the separation from Lady Austen, he went to reside at Weston, at the instance of the Throckmortons, a wealthy family, who spent the summer in that village. It was time to leave Olney, if we may judge from reports circulated concerning them, which accused them of fashionable dissipation. These foolish reports reached Mr Newton in London, and he, with a singular want of good sense, transmitted them to Cowper; and this, at the time when the poor invalid was "miserable," as he himself says, "on account of God's departure from him, which he believed to be final, and was seeking his return, in the path of duty and by continual prayer." The Throckmortons were Catholics, and his intercourse with them, which began while he was still in Olney, might have occasioned this rumour to his disadvantage. Cowper was above those miserable prejudices against other sects and sentiments, which are sometimes inculcated as a duty. Speaking of a gentleman, who had been recommended to him by one of his friends, he says, "As to his religion, I leave it,—I am neither his bishop nor his confessor. A man of his character, and recommended by you, would be welcome here, were he a Mahometan or Gentoo." We consider it among the best proofs of the elevation of his character, that, while he never attempted to conciliate public favour by softening down his most unpopular opinions, and even considered silence as a sort of treason to the King of kings, he proved that this rigid faithfulness arose from conviction, not from passion, by allowing others to declare their sentiments as freely as he expressed his own.

His literary undertakings, thus far, had not been of a kind which exacted severe labour; they were sufficient to engage and interest, but not to tax and exhaust his mind. But when he found the benefit of being employed, he seems to have thought that it would be well to put himself under a necessity for exertion; he therefore undertook the gigantic enterprise of translating Homer, and thus, in avoiding the danger of doing too little, ran headlong into the danger of doing too much. He thought, like the rest of the world, that Pope had not succeeded; but

he ascribed his failure to his moving in the fetters of rhyme; and it does not seem to have occurred to him, that no translation, however exact and worthy of the original, could ever equal the demands of scholars or the imaginations of the unlearned. This enterprise was not fortunate in any point of view. It rather wearied than employed him; it added nothing to his literary fame; and when it was completed it left a vacancy of mind, in which, having neither strength for labour nor power to live without it, he was open at once to the attacks of his depression. These were deferred for a time by various literary plans which he formed; but in 1794 the cloud settled upon his mind, and it remained in eclipse to the last.

A pension of £300 per annum was now procured for him from government, through the influence of Earl Spencer, and shortly afterwards he was removed by his friend and kinsman, the Rev. Dr Johnson, to Dereham in Norfolk,—his faithful friend Mrs Unwin accompanying him. From this period our poet's efforts at composition were few and fitful; he occasionally retouched his translation of Homer, or penned a few stanzas on any thing that happened to catch his fancy; sometimes too he addressed a letter to his friend Lady Hesketh; but his fine mind was now so completely swayed by his diseased imagination, that he was altogether unfit for any sustained and continuous mental labour. Symptoms of dropsy appeared in his constitution towards the beginning of the year 1800; and the disease made such rapid progress as to terminate his life on the 25th of April. His remains were deposited in Dereham church, where Lady Hesketh placed a marble-tablet to his memory, with a poetical inscription from the pen of the poet's friend and biographer, Hayley.

As a poet, Cowper was a man of great genius, and in a day when poetry was more read than at present, enjoyed a popularity almost unexampled. The strain of his writing was familiar even to homeliness. He drew from his own resources only; throwing off all affectation and reserve, he made his reader acquainted with all his sentiments and feelings, and did not disguise his weaknesses and sorrows. There is always something attractive in this personal strain when it does not amount to egotism, and he thus gained many admirers, who never would have been interested by poetry alone. The religious character of his writings was also a recommendation to many, beside those who favoured views of that subject similar to his own. There were those who felt, like Burns, that "bating some scraps of Calvinistic divinity, the 'Task' was a noble poem." There was a wide sympathy, a generous regard for all the human race expressed in it, which gave his readers a respect for his heart. Then, too, his views of nature were drawn from personal observation; all his readers could remember or at any time see those which precisely resembled the subjects of his description. He associated no unusual trains of thought, no feelings of peculiar refinement, with the grand and beautiful of nature, while at the same time the strain of his sentiment was pure, manly, and exalted. By addressing himself to the heart universal, and using language such as could be understood by the humble as well as the high, he influenced a wider circle than any poet who went before him; and by inspiring a feeling of intimacy, a kind of domestic confidence in his readers, he made his works "household words," and all who shared his feelings became interested in his fame. His change in the style of English versification, though it seemed

wild and lawless at the time, was a great improvement upon his predecessors. There was an artificial elegance in the measure of Pope, which, however pleasing to the musical ear, was a restraint upon the flow of sentiment, and sometimes wearied with its sweetness. Cowper's bold freedom, though it seemed at first like uncouth roughness, gained much in variety of expression, without losing much in point of sound. It offended, because it seemed careless, and as if he respected little the prevailing taste of his readers; but it was far from being unpolished as it seemed. He tells us, that the lines of his earlier poems were touched and retouched, with fastidious delicacy: his ear was not easily pleased; and yet, if we may judge from one or two specimens of alterations, his corrections very often injured what they were meant to repair. 'Expostulation,' which treats the sins of his country in a solemn tone of remonstrance and warning, is an admirable poem; it breathes a spirit resembling that of one of the ancient prophets,—grave, dignified, and stern. Its sound is that of a trumpet blown to warn the people,—a sound which wakes no angry passion, but before which the heart stands still and listens with a shuddering chill of dread. 'Conversation' is next in excellence; it is written in a fine strain of humour, not with the "droll sobriety" of Swift, nor the grave irony of Fielding, but with a wit peculiarly his own, such as makes his letters the best English specimen of that kind of writing, and at times affords a singular contrast with his gloom. 'The Task' is a work of more pretension than his other writings, we mean in its form; for it has no singleness of subject, and is in fact a collection of poems, in each of which the topic which affords the name serves only as a text, to which the images and sentiments of the writer are attached by the most capricious and accidental associations. One advantage of this freedom is, that it affords an agreeable variety; it excludes nothing above or beneath the moon; it requires no unity of thought or manner, and permits the poet to pass from the serious to the playful, at his pleasure, without formal apology or preparation. Cowper certainly availed himself of the privilege, and made his readers acquainted with all his feelings, circumstances, and opinions, affording a curious example of a man, reserved to excess in social life, and almost erring on the side of frankness in his writings, if we can possibly call that frankness excessive, which simply tells what all the world was burning to know. For we must consider that his previous works had made him known sufficiently to gain him the reputation of a genius, at a time when such stars were not common in the British sky. He made his first appearance, too, in the maturity of his years and powers,—no one had beheld his rising,—no one had marked him till he suddenly emerged from the cloud. There was a natural desire to know who and what he was,—and all such questions were answered in the poem, in a manner which rendered his readers familiar with his powerful mind and amiable heart. They found much to respect in the vigour of his understanding, which refused to be enslaved by inherited prejudices, and manifested every where a manly love of freedom and of truth; nor could any one help admiring his singleness of heart, and the openness with which he declared its emotions. The effect of the work was greater than can now be imagined: it conducted many to the pure fountains of happiness which are found by those who commune with nature, and many to those sources of religious peace, which keep on flowing when all earthly springs are dry. It tended to

make man feel an interest in man, and opened the eyes of thousands to those traditional abuses, which are detested as soon as the attention of the world is directed full upon them; and in a literary point of view, it gladdened the hearts of all who felt an interest in English poetry, by reviving its old glories at the moment when the last beam of inspiration seemed to have faded from the sky.

Those who take their impression of Cowper's translation of Homer from tradition may perhaps think it an entire failure. A failure the critical world has pronounced it; but it may be well to inquire whether it would be possible to satisfy the public expectation, and whether any one could possibly have succeeded better? We think it evident that the failure arose from the nature of the undertaking: it was an attempt to convey an idea to English readers of writings which are called inimitable, and therefore untranslatable. There is something undefined and obscurely great in the idea which the world has of the Homeric inspiration; and, unless the translator could give his work the same antiquity, and surround it with the same glory of classical associations, it might present a perfect image of the simple greatness of the original, without awakening any similar feeling. An English Homer,—a Homer of the eighteenth century,—was condemned beforehand. Every critic could feel safe in pronouncing it wholly unworthy of the original; and the public, discouraged by their blind guides, felt no interest in proceeding to inquire whether their judgment was just. Had they expected anything like what they were likely to find; had they exacted nothing more than talent and industry were able to do; had they, in a word, looked for a translation, instead of a new original, their reasonable expectations would have been fully answered. We recommend to our readers, who feel an interest in the reputation of Cowper, and lament his failure in this great undertaking, to consider what they may reasonably look for, and having thus given some distinctness to their views, to read the work. This will be doing justice to the translator, and, if we may trust our own experience, they will find their candour amply repaid. At the same time, we do not think Cowper's versification remarkably happy. It was wrought with infinite pains, and corrected and revised, till the music satisfied his ear; but in the 'Task,' and in the translation, he pleases more by expressive and eloquent language than by any peculiar sweetness in the sound. But whatever gratification the work may afford will be counterbalanced by the reflection, that it consumed time and labour that might have been better spent upon original writings: these would have been far less exhausting to his mind and spirits, while they brought infinitely greater returns of fame.

Many of Cowper's smaller pieces, in which he followed the suggestions of his own feelings without waiting for others to prescribe his subject, and urge him to write, are among the most beautiful exhibitions of his power. The lines addressed to Mary, his faithful and devoted friend, who made so generous a sacrifice of all other enjoyments to the single one of securing his comfort, of guarding him against the assaults of disease, and sustaining him when the blow had fallen, are one of the most affecting tributes which genius ever paid to virtue. And the lines addressed to his mother, on receiving her picture from a friend, are equally touching and sweet. Nothing could exceed the sacredness with which every thing connected with her was treasured in the sanctuary of his soul; early as he lost her guidance, he had felt the loss in after

life as the beginning of all his sorrows; he had felt as if, had Providence spared her a little longer, she might have given a direction to his feelings that would have saved him from some of those trials which had almost broken his heart; she was the angel of his visions, the bright spirit which always stood before him in his imaginations of heaven. He remembered her as young, beautiful, and holding a relation to him which inspired the deepest reverence and affection. So firmly was her image set in his remembrance that not a day ever passed without his thinking of her, and calling up those recollections of his childhood connected with her which no time could wear away; and now, when he stands in the valley of departing years, and, on looking back, sees the light of the sun, which is set to him, still shining on the hills of youth, from which he came down so long ago, he writes with a sensibility and pathetic earnestness, which fills every heart with sympathy, and we had almost said, every eye with tears.

But in these days, when living poets are but little read and the dead "forgotten lie," we are taking up more time than many of our readers will think necessary, in speaking of the life and genius of Cowper. But he claims our notice, as a man remarkable both for his intellectual history and power, the former being extraordinary almost without example, and the latter such as is not often exceeded. As respects an interest in poetry, also, we live in such times as usually follow a period of great intellectual excitement,—times, when the public taste grows indifferent, and gentle harps are struck altogether in vain. We want some one to come forward in the spirit and power of Cowper, who shall speak in a voice which shall compel the world to listen,—and in a voice, too, which religion and virtue, as well as literary taste, can hear with applause. We are confident that such a one will appear; whatever may be said of new directions given to the mind in this self-complacent age, so long as the mind exists, it will treasure poetry as an art which does much to exalt it; there never will be a time when cultivated minds will cast this pearl away. It may be valued at some periods more than at others; it may be less regarded now than it has been in former times; but these are only transient and passing changes,—it will survive them all, and will last as long as the world endures.¹

¹ We are indebted for the greater part of this interesting notice of our popular and truly English poet to an article on Taylor's 'Life of Cowper,' which appeared in the 'North American Review' for January, 1834. We had nothing to offer our readers approaching in excellence to this able and delightful piece of critical biography; and our only regret is, that our limits precluded us from transferring the entire article to our pages.

HISTORICAL INTRODUCTION

TO NINTH PERIOD,

EXTENDING

**FROM THE FRENCH REVOLUTION TO THE ACCESSION OF
WILLIAM IV.**

WITH

BIOGRAPHICAL NOTICES

OF

Eminent Englishmen

WHO FLOURISHED DURING THAT PERIOD.

HISTORICAL INTRODUCTION

TO THE READER

FROM THE EDITOR

EDITORIAL NOTE

Editorial Note

THE EDITOR'S NOTE

HISTORICAL INTRODUCTION

TO

NINTH PERIOD.

French Revolution—Sketch of the General European system previous to the breaking out of the Revolution—Political results of the Revolution—Leading political characters of Great Britain contemporary with that event—Pitt—Fox—Sheridan—Burke—Erskine—Military names—Ecclesiastical names—Review of English literature—Its present aspect.

No event since the emigration of the tribes who overturned the Roman occidental empire—with the single exception of the Reformation—has produced consequences so important to the entire political and literary system of Europe and its dependencies as the French revolution. The equilibrium of the political system, it is true, had been threatened more than once in the course of the three foregoing centuries, by various individual princes, and particular occurrences; but never before had it been so shaken to its very foundations, or supplanted by a totally new order of things. Before the year 1789, when the French revolution burst forth and drew the attention of all the nations and sovereigns in Europe, none either of the larger or smaller States which, subsequent to the Middle ages, had grown up into a fixed political form, had entirely disappeared from the political system of Europe, though several of them had been reduced in power and extent of territory.

The first impulse towards a new modification of the existing order of things throughout Europe was undoubtedly communicated by the American revolution. Dr Von Schmidt has drawn the following rapid sketch of the situation and prospects of the old governments of Europe at the formation of the North American confederacy.

“Germany presented nothing more than the shadow of a political body united in one common confederacy; the imperial governments, as also the administration of the federal laws, were without energy, and united efforts to repel invasions from abroad had not been witnessed since the fear of Turkish power had ceased to operate. The larger states had outgrown their obedience, and often ranged themselves in opposition to the head, which was scarcely able to protect either itself or the weaker states against injuries. The internal affairs of the individual vassal states were exclusively conducted according to the will of

their regents; the energy and importance of the representative popular states were become dormant; and the standing armies which had been introduced by degrees even into the smallest principalities, since the peace of Westphalia, being perfectly foreign to the hearts and dispositions of the people, threw an astonishing weight into the scale of unlimited sovereignty. Being mercenary soldiers recruited from every nation, modelled upon a system of subordination, and raised by Frederick of Prussia to the highest pitch of perfection, they had been accomplices in diffusing this system of despotism over all the relations of the state, and in leaving the people who were freed from military services, nothing but the acquisition of gain. If in Germany, where the imperial crown represented a mere shadow, deprived of power and consequence, the mighty vassals were all; in France the crown was every thing, after it had subdued the powerful barons of the country. The people represented, indeed, one body, but were deprived, like the several German states, of all political weight, and were arbitrarily subjected to every impulse of the government. The same was the case with Spain and Portugal, where religious intolerance more powerfully suppressed every utterance of contrary opinions, and every doctrine which might lead to a deviation from the maxims of the state, so intimately connected with those of the priesthood. Italy, parcelled out amongst different powers, presented upon the whole, the same political aspect as Germany, only with this difference, that it was totally divested of the shadow of unity, which the latter at least appeared to present. Upper, and a great part of middle Italy, being dismembered, were entirely subservient to foreign impulse. The lower part, with the fertile island on the other side of the Pharos, presented, to be sure, since 1735, the outward appearance of one national whole, but was too weak to withstand the fate of the more powerful Bourbon families, from which, according to treaties, it had derived its sovereigns. There reigned in the papal state alone, which could not derive its weight from its worldly sovereignty, but from the spiritual supremacy of its ruler, the ancient maxims of the Romish pontificate, with the economical state faults of a clerical government. But the consideration and the power of the former were visibly sunk; the journeys of the pope of that period to Vienna, were like the contemporary ones of the hierarch of Thibet to China, rather prejudicial than favourable to spiritual dignity; and the faulty internal administration of the state seemed to invite every attempt at innovation. The republics on the east and the west of the Adriatic gulf, were, since the rise of the other great naval states, only the ruins of past glory, sinking daily into insignificance. But notwithstanding this, neither was the image of former greatness blotted from their memories, nor a proper feeling for it extinguished in the minds of the inhabitants of the luxuriant peninsula. The pride of the more noble fed itself on the sublime remains of Roman antiquity; and the monuments of the golden age of the family of Medicis indemnified a people given to the arts, and full of imagination for the loss of present grandeur, and kept up a lively anticipation of a better futurity, founded on the merits of its ancestors. Helvetia, hemmed in between Italy, Germany, and France, by its mountains, continued in the peaceable enjoyment of its liberties through the respect its venerable age had universally diffused. Nevertheless, the disturbances at Geneva, and

the increased spirit of emigration, were sufficient to indicate that a people who become indifferent to the present order of things, would willingly have recourse to a system of innovation, and that the ancient ties which had held the Swiss nation so many centuries together, were gradually relaxing. The dissolution of the existing form of government, in the north-western Netherlands, was more visibly approaching. The unwieldiness of their disorganized union had no remedy to administer to the decline of their commerce and naval power, which became more and more felt, being a natural consequence of the daily concentration of the larger states; and it was evident that the fate of the republic would be decided by a blow from abroad.

“The British islands, at that time the only country in Europe which united under a monarchical head, moderate, but on that account more solid principles of freedom, with an equal balance of the different powers of the state, were at the commencement of the American disturbances in a progressive state of the most flourishing prosperity. For this happy condition they were indebted to their freedom and eligible commercial situation, together with the inexhaustible treasures nature had deposited in their mines of coal and iron, on the existence of which the industry of their diligent inhabitants is principally founded. Political ebullition existed in no higher degree than was necessary to give proper life, and less, perhaps, than was necessary to preserve it in all its purity, a constitution which, long since acquired after the most bloody struggles, was more deeply rooted in the modes of thinking, and in the manners and customs of the nation, than it was imprinted on them by the letter of the law. The government had sufficient leisure to direct its attention abroad, and by means of hostile enterprises, and political treaties, which must sooner or later give a naval power a decided ascendancy, held out a helping hand to the commercial spirit of the people who aimed at making (and with increasing hopes of success) the remainder of the world tributary to it, for the productions of its fabrics and manufactures. The plan of supporting commerce upon territorial acquisitions, and of forming an empire out of the conquered provinces of India, whose treasures should flow back to the queen of cities on the Thames, was already fully developed, and the exasperation against the western colonies was to be attributed as much to a mistaken commercial interest as to a spirit for dominion. The ingredients of the British national character, ever more coldly repulsive than amiable or attractive in its nature, had produced an almost universal antipathy not alone of the public mind, but also of the individual affections, against a people in so many points of view so highly respectable, and being unceasingly fed by that envy which every species of superiority involuntarily creates, produced the most conspicuous influence in the development of subsequent events.”

The spirit of emancipation caught from the New world spread itself first over the Old. It first caught in France. The political movements in that country disturbed the whole European system,—shook its so long preserved equilibrium, and in the end annihilated it. And not merely so, but the influence of the political principles and ideas which were then developed in France, and the powerful shocks which her successive victories inflicted, threatened almost all the states of Europe with a revolution like her own; in several European kingdoms such a change of

constitution and dynasty actually ensued ; and several more or less important states in the very centre of the European system were utterly annihilated. Amidst the storms of the French revolution was nursed the political regeneration of Europe, as once the ecclesiastical regeneration of the same quarter of the world had been born amid the tempest of religious contentions. For within the last forty years the most important principles of natural and political rights : viz., that the state rests upon a compact between the rulers and the ruled ; that all citizens of a free state are equal in the eyes of the law ; that without the freedom of the press civil liberty is not supposed to exist ; that all public burdens should be borne by all the subjects of the state ; and that the highest authorities of the state are responsible for the administration of the government ;—these great principles are now recognised as forming the basis of the social system, and have infused a new life into the political existence of a large portion of Europe. Unhappily the spirit of conquest, which was perhaps forced upon France, by the necessity of giving to the enemies of the new order of things employment at home, in order to prevent their interference abroad, was fatal to the beneficial results of the revolution. The rapid conquests achieved by Napoleon drew the eyes and hearts of a people fond of glory and full of a military spirit, from their internal affairs, to foreign conquests ; and, while they were subduing a world, they were themselves subdued by the same power. Then came the empire of Napoleon, to be in its turn overthrown by the confederacy of nations,—not merely of kings and their armies, but of nations, instigated partly by their own wrongs, and partly by the promises of their rulers, to rise in mass, and do what neither their kings nor their armies had been able to perform. It was the people of Europe that at length overthrew Napoleon.

It is to the great actors in our own country, in the political movements now glanced at, that our attention is to be first invited in the political series of this section. We shall employ Mr Croly's graphic pen in a few comparative sketches of the great political leaders at the commencement of the period on which we now enter. "England had never before seen such a phalanx armed against a minister. A crowd of men of the highest natural talents, of the most practised ability, and of the first public weight in birth, fortune, and popularity, were nightly arrayed against the administration, sustained by the solitary eloquence of the young chancellor of the exchequer. Yet Pitt was not careless of followers. He was more than once even charged with sedulously gathering round him a host of subaltern politicians, whom he might throw forward as skirmishers,—or sacrifices, which they generally were. Powis, describing the 'forces led by the right honourable gentleman on the treasury bench,' said, 'the first detachment may be called his body-guard, who shoot their little arrows against those who refuse allegiance to their chief.' This light infantry were of course soon scattered when the main battle joined. But Pitt, a son of the aristocracy, was an aristocrat in all his nature, and he loved to see young men of family around him ; others were chosen for their activity, if not for their force, and some, probably, from personal liking. In the later period of his career, his train was swelled by a more influential and promising race of political worshippers, among whom were Lord Mornington, since Marquess Wellesley ; Ryder, since Lord Harrowby ; and Wilberforce,

still undignified by title, but possessing an influence, which, perhaps, he values more. The minister's chief agents in the house of commons, were Mr Grenville (since Lord Grenville) and Dundas. Yet, among those men of birth or business, what rival could be found to the popular leaders on the opposite side of the house,—to Burke, Sheridan, Grey, Windham, or to Fox, that

‘ Prince and chief of many throned powers,
Who led the embattled seraphim to war.’

Without adopting the bitter remark of the duke de Montausier to Louis the Fourteenth, in speaking of Versailles:—‘ Vous avez beau faire, sire, vous n’en ferez jamais qu’un favori sans mérite,’ it was impossible to deny their inferiority on all the great points of public impression. A debate in that day was one of the highest intellectual treats: there was always some new and vigorous feature in the display on both sides; some striking effort of imagination or masterly reasoning, or of that fine sophistry, in which, as was said of the vices of the French noblesse, half of the evil was atoned by the elegance. The ministerialists sarcastically pronounced that, in every debate, Burke said something which no one else ever said; Sheridan said something that no one else ought to say, and Fox something that no one else would dare to say. But the world, fairer in its decision, did justice to their extraordinary powers; and found in the Asiatic amplitude and splendour of Burke; in Sheridan’s alternate subtlety and strength, reminding it at one time of Attic dexterity, and another of the uncalculating boldness of barbarism; and in Fox’s matchless English self-possession, unaffected vigour, and overflowing sensibility, a perpetual source of admiration.

“ But it was in the intercourse of social life that the superiority of opposition was most incontestable. Pitt’s life was in the senate; his true place of existence was on the benches of that ministry which he conducted with such unparalleled ability and success: he was, in the fullest sense of the phrase, a public man; and his indulgences in the few hours which he could spare from the business of office, were more like the necessary restoratives of a frame already shattered, than the easy gratifications of a man of society: and on this principle we can safely account for the common charge of Pitt’s propensity to wine. He found it essential, to relieve a mind and body exhausted by the perpetual pressure of affairs: wine was his medicine: and it was drunk in total solitude, or with a few friends from whom the minister had no concealment. Over his wine the speeches for the night were often concerted; and when the dinner was done, the table council broke up only to finish the night in the house. But with Fox, all was the bright side of the picture. His extraordinary powers defied dissipation. No public man of England ever mingled so much personal pursuit of every thing in the form of indulgence with so much parliamentary activity. From the dinner he went to the debate, from the debate to the gaming-table, and returned to his bed by day-light, freighted with parliamentary applause, plundered of his last disposable guinea, and fevered with sleeplessness and agitation; to go through the same round within the next twenty-four hours. He kept no house; but he had the houses of all his party at his disposal, and that party were the most opulent

and sumptuous of the nobility. Cato and Antony were not more unlike, than the public severity of Pitt, and the native and splendid dissoluteness of Fox. They were unlike in all things. Even in such slight peculiarities as their manner of walking into the house of commons, the contrast was visible. From the door Pitt's countenance was that of a man who felt that he was coming into his high place of business. 'He advanced up the floor with a quick firm step, with the head erect, and thrown back, looking to neither the right nor the left, nor favouring with a glance or a nod any of the individuals seated on either side, among whom many of the highest would have been gratified by such a mark of recognition.' Fox's entrance was lounging or stately, as it might happen, but always good-humoured; he had some pleasantry to exchange with every body, and until the moment when he rose to speak, continued gaily talking with his friends.

"Of all the great speakers of a day fertile in oratory, Sheridan had the most conspicuous natural gifts. His figure, at his first introduction into the house, was manly and striking; his countenance singularly expressive, when excited by debate; his eye large, black, and intellectual; and his voice one of the richest, most flexible, and most sonorous, that ever came from human lips. Pitt's was powerful, but monotonous; and its measured tone often wearied the ear. Fox's was all confusion in the commencement of his speech; and it required some tension of ear throughout to catch his words. Burke's was loud and bold, but unmusical; and his contempt for order in his sentences, and the abruptness of his grand and swelling conceptions, that seemed to roll through his mind like billows before a gale, often made the defects of his delivery more striking. But Sheridan, in manner, gesture, and voice, had every quality that could give effect to eloquence. Pitt and Fox were listened to with profound respect, and in silence, broken only by occasional cheers; but from the moment of Sheridan's rising, there was an expectation of pleasure, which to his last days was seldom disappointed. A low murmur of eagerness ran round the house; every word was watched for, and his first pleasantry set the whole assemblage in a roar. Sheridan was aware of this; and has been heard to say, 'that if a jester would never be an orator, yet no speaker could expect to be popular in a full house, without a jest; and that he always made the experiment, good or bad; as a laugh gave him the country gentlemen to a man.' In the house he was always formidable; and though Pitt's moral or physical courage never shrank from man, yet Sheridan was the antagonist with whom he evidently least desired to come into collision, and with whom the collision, when it did occur, was of the most fretful nature. Pitt's sarcasm on him as a theatrical manager, and Sheridan's severe, yet fully justified retort, are too well known to be now repeated; but there were a thousand instances of that 'keen encounter of their wits,' in which person was more involved than party.

"Burke was created for parliament. His mind was born with a determination to things of grandeur and difficulty.

*Spumantemque dari, pecora inter inertia, votis
Optat aprum, aut fulvum descendere monte leonem.'*

Nothing in the ordinary professions, nothing in the trials or triumphs of private life, could have satisfied the noble hunger and thirst of his

spirit of exertion. This quality was so predominant, that to it a large proportion of his original failures, and of his unfitness for general public business, which chiefly belongs to detail, is to be traced through life. No Hercules could wear the irresistible weapons and the lion's skin with more natural supremacy; but none could make more miserable work with the distaff. Burke's magnitude of grasp, and towering conception, were so much a part of his nature, that he could never forego their exercise, however unsuited to the occasion. Let the object be as trivial as it might, his first instinct was to turn it into all shapes of lofty speculation, and try how far it could be moulded and magnified into the semblance of greatness. If he had no large national interest to summon him, he winged his tempest against a turnpike bill; or flung away upon the petty quarrels and obscure speculations of the underlings of office, colours and forms that might have emblazoned the fall of a dynasty.

“Erskine, like many other characters of peculiar liveliness, had a morbid sensibility to the circumstances of the moment, which sometimes strangely enfeebled his presence of mind; any appearance of neglect in his audience, a cough, a yawn, or a whisper, even among the mixed multitude of the courts, and strong as he was there, has been known to dishearten him visibly. This trait was so notorious, that a solicitor, whose only merit was a remarkably vacant face, was said to be often planted opposite to Erskine by the adverse party, to yawn when the advocate began. The cause of his first failure in the house, was not unlike this curious mode of disconcerting an orator. He had been brought forward to support the falling fortunes of Fox, then struggling under the weight of the ‘coalition.’ The ‘India Bill’ had heaped the king’s almost open hostility on the accumulation of public wrath and grievance which the ministers had with such luckless industry been employed during the year in raising for their own ruin. Fox looked abroad for help; and Gordon, the member for Portsmouth, was displaced from his borough, and Erskine was brought into the house, with no slight triumph of his party, and perhaps some degree of anxiety on the opposite side. On the night of his first speech, Pitt, evidently intending to reply, sat with pen and paper in his hand, prepared to catch the arguments of this formidable adversary. He wrote a word or two; Erskine proceeded; but with every additional sentence Pitt’s attention to the paper relaxed; his look became more careless; and he obviously began to think the orator less and less worthy of his attention. At length, while every eye in the house was fixed upon him, he, with a contemptuous smile, dashed the pen through the paper, and flung them on the floor. Erskine never recovered from this expression of disdain; his voice faltered, he struggled through the remainder of his speech, and sank into his seat dispirited and shorn of his fame. But a mind of the saliency and variety of Erskine’s, must have distinguished itself wherever it was determined on distinction; and it is impossible to believe, that the master of the grave, deeply-reasoned, and glowing eloquence of this great pleader, should not have been able to bring his gifts with him from Westminster-hall to the higher altar of parliament. There were times when his efforts in the house reminded it of his finest effusions at the bar. But those were rare. He obviously felt that his place was not in the legislature; that no man can wisely hope for more than one

kind of eminence ; and except upon some party emergency, he seldom spoke, and probably never with much expectation of public effect. His later years lowered his name ; by his retirement from active life, he lost the habits forced upon him by professional and public rank ; and wandered through society, to the close of his days, a pleasant idler ; still the gentleman and the man of easy wit, but leaving society to wonder what had become of the great orator, in what corner of the brain of this perpetual punster and story-teller, this man of careless conduct and rambling conversation, had shrunk the glorious faculty, that in better days flashed with such force and brightness ; what cloud had absorbed the lightnings that had once alike penetrated and illumed the heart of the British nation."

The naval and military annals of the period now under review, present some of the most illustrious names in British history :—Abercromby—Moore—Nelson—Collingwood—and a host of warriors, whose names are familiar as household words, and synonymous with all that is glorious in the history of their country during the long and universal struggle amongst the powers and nations of Europe, heralded by the French revolution, will pass in review before us, affording us frequent and fit opportunity for detailing the progress and leading events of that mighty struggle, the voice of which has scarcely yet died from our ears, and the effects of which are still visible and palpable around us.

In ecclesiastical affairs—strictly so called—we shall have little to notice ; but a few brilliant names belong to this period, or rather have stretched themselves into it from the period immediately preceding, such as Paley, Horsley, Hurd and Watson.

When we look back upon the history of English literature, we observe various eras distinctly marked in its shining progress. The first epoch of our classical literature is that which followed the invention of printing, and the revival of ancient learning on the continent. This was the age of Chaucer, Spencer, and Shakspeare. The influence of classical learning had not as yet made itself deeply and universally felt through the intellect of our country. The religious and literary revolutions of the age had roused up the spirit into vigorous action, but had not yet moulded the character and impressed the direction of its efforts. Thus we find the literary achievements of this period of our history to be merely, as it were, the instinctive exertions of the newly-awakened mind, not the reasoned evolutions of the enlarged and meditative intellect, or the sacred fruits of principles and morality. The soul of Shakspeare, the master-spirit of this illustrious era, manifestly drew its inspiration entirely from within. Glorifying in the consciousness of strength, it spurned at all guidance, and overpassed all bounds ; under the impulse of its own free energies, it gave vent to the exhilarated sense of power, sometimes in sublime aspirations, and sometimes in fantastic gambols ; now entangling itself in the low thickets of conceit, now making itself pavilions in the clouds, and setting its nest among the stars.

In the second period of English literature, the original talent of the nation was cultivated and moulded to an unparalleled degree by the study of classical learning ; and if we regard merely the exertion of power by the human mind, we shall, with very little hesitation, assign to this era the most distinguished place in the literary history of England.

'There were giants in these days upon the earth.' He who is not familiar with their productions can have no conception of the infinite resources of our intellect and our tongue. This was the age of Bacon and of Milton, of Taylor and of Howe. There is about all its remains a conscious strength that never seeks to hide itself under the shelter of general phrases and professions of imperfection; and the very multiplicity of division which has been objected to the literature of this age is a proof of the remark. It dares to grapple at art with every subject it undertakes to meet, and pursues it through all the windings of the dialectical labyrinth; while we of this more refined and less venturous generation are continually professing that it is not our intention to treat the subject in all its fulness and extent, with a thousand other cant phrases by which we seek to conceal our inability, under the mask of unwillingness. Where is the man now-a-days, who would dare to say with Bacon: "These are the meditations of Francis of Verulam, which, for posterity to know, he counteth it their interest." Or with Milton:—

"My adventurous song,
Which, with no middle flight, intends to soar
Above the Aonian mount, while it pursues
Things unattempted yet in prose or rhyme."

Nursed in the schools, where as yet physical science was but a ridiculous collection of vague theories and fantastic principles, and where intellectual philosophy was nothing but a jargon of uncouth phraseology, metaphysical subtlety, and barren disputation, the minds of the great men of this age were directed to theological and classical learning as the only objects of study which yielded any thing like use or satisfaction. Hence arises the peculiar character of the literature of England under the greater part of the Stuart dynasty, savouring, as it does, to such an extent, of classic erudition, and formed by a classic standard. If we take Milton as an exemplification of the literary spirit of this age, in the same way as we employed the genius of Shakspeare to typify the last, we shall find this marked difference between their manner, in as far as that does not depend on original distinction of talent—that while the latter follows freely wherever the varying impulse of his mind leads him, the former has a distinct end always in view, and is urged on in his course by excitements drawn as much from acquired standards of judgment, as from the native tendencies of his genius. Shakspeare pursues at random the glorious thoughts which flash and undulate before his eyes. Milton never loses sight of Helicon, and the summit of the Aonian mount is that by which he measures the elevation of his song. A similar distinction may be stated in general between the literature of the one era and that of the other. The one is that of intellectual strength, self-prompted and self-directed; the other is that of mental power, guided by a classical spirit, and measuring itself by a classical standard. On the confines of these two ages, and combining in his mighty intellect the characteristic excellencies of both, stands the illustrious Bacon. From the former he derived that fearless consciousness of innate strength which enabled him to leave the old and trodden path of intellectual thought, and invent for future generations a new organ of knowledge. With the latter, he participated that intimate familiarity with antiquity, which enabled him to draw from its stores.

the bright and beautiful classical illustration that so abundantly adorns his works.

As yet, the literary character of the English language, though full of vigour, riches, and depth, was deficient in refinement and delicacy. As the progress of the tongue, however, and the influence of classical taste growing out of classical erudition, advanced, literary composition was freed from these defects. Among the first great authors who contributed to these results is to be numbered the illustrious Locke; and during the greater part of last century, the process going on upon our literature was a process of gradual improvement in polish, exactness, and system. The natural influence of these changes was much increased in reference to poetical composition, by the prevalence of French tastes and opinions which followed the Restoration. A complete revolution took place in the character of our poetry, and instead of its former exuberance, freedom, and energy, it became distinguished by a hard and artificial brilliance, weight, and penetration.

Towards the end of last century, the way began to be prepared for a return from art to nature, by the genius of Gray, of Goldsmith, and especially of Cowper. And the revolution has, in our own day, been carried into complete effect by a host of genius, which, in its amount and its activity, is altogether unrivalled in the history of literature. The literature of our day cannot be described by any distinct and definite character like that of former ages. There is such a quantity, such a restlessness, such a versatility of talent in operation throughout the literary world, as makes it impossible to fix on any separate name, study, or peculiarity, by which to designate it. There have been men, it is freely confessed, in former ages, whose consecrated names shall be sphered higher in the firmament of renown, and shall blaze with more dazzling lustre through the dark depths of time, than any single star of that galaxy of intellectual splendour which glorifies our horizon. But never before was so thickly-clustered a constellation seen in the heaven of literature, and never was the hemisphere so full of light. Nor is it merely the amount of literary talent and general information by which our age is distinguished, that claims our attention. A still more remarkable phenomenon, which indeed may be regarded as the cause of the former, is the extreme restlessness of effort with which this talent and this knowledge are operating. 'Many are running to and fro, and knowledge is increased.' The intellect which is diffused through all classes of society will remain dormant in none. '*Scribimus indocti doctique;*' titled and plebeian, rich and poor, soldiers and sailors, are equally candidates for intellectual fame, and through the thousand channels of the press, inundate and fertilize the land with ever-flowing thought. Formerly, to print a book used to be an awful thing. The literary adventurer stood full in the eye of the world, he could not hope to pass muster in the multitude of his associates, or to elevate his pigmy intellect on stilts without the artifice being discovered. But now, such are the crowds that throng into the arena from every side, that no feeling of awe or of peril has room to visit any adventurer—and then, if he succeed, what can he do better than try again?—If he fail, still what better can he do than try again?—Thus it is, that the whole empire of literature exhibits the spectacle of fierce commotions, canons the most ancient and venerable disregarded, the old paths forsaken, and restless

talent wandering over the whole amplitude of things in search of novelty and originality. Nor is the variety of intellectual capacity in our day less striking than its amount or its activity. All the endless diversities of scientific research, and speculative or imaginative literature, are pursued by innumerable votaries. Sciences whose very names were before unknown, are daily added to the vocabulary of philosophy. Poetry is pouring a thousand streams of inspiration through the land, and learning is enlarging her boundaries on every side.

Yet proud as we are of all this energy and all this achievement, we must confess that there is room for apprehension in reference to the prospects of literature. For, let us ask, what is the general taste of readers, and what the general object of authors in the present day? Are not both descriptions of individuals in a great measure the slaves of originality, excitement, poignancy, and effect? From the tales of the nursery to the addresses of the pulpit, effect is every thing. Never has it been thought necessary to employ so many artifices in order to sweeten the useful and medicinal potion, and trick men into knowledge and virtue. Our children are not suffered to hear useful truth addressed to them in that direct and simple manner, in which, after all, they apprehend it most readily, and feel its influence most strongly; but they must have it presented to their minds, disguised under narrative, or enveloped in the mysteries of a game at tetotum. In the same way are we apparently regarded as great children, and from day to day our admiration is solicited, and too often obtained, by what has nothing of intrinsic worth to recommend it, and only dazzles us by its gilding and its garnishing. Few or none can trust themselves to speak simply, and the public do not seem willing to hear what is simply told them. This hankering after effect to the exclusion of suitable regard to the substance, is a very dangerous system, which imperiously requires to be counteracted. The loss is, that to be extravagant is so much more easy than to be simply great, that for one who is the latter, a thousand literary men make themselves the former. The simple writers of our age, the Stewarts, the Halls, the Campbells, are among the least prolific; and, for this simple reason, that in one ingot of their gold there is more value condensed, than the price of all the tinsel which an ordinary writer would sprinkle over whole bales of his flimsy gauze, the very 'woven wind' of the ancients. It was a similar taste, in ancient times, that gave birth to the conceits of Ovid, the epigrams of Tacitus, the coarse dark copiousness of Lucan, and the insane turgidity of Statius. All these were men of the loftiest genius, but they prostituted their talents to the embraces of a vitiated taste, and the offspring was ill-favoured and ill-starred.

I.—POLITICAL SERIES.

George IV.

BORN A. D. 1762.—DIED A. D. 1830.

IT was on the 8th of September 1761, that his majesty, George the Third, espoused Sophia Charlotte, daughter of the duke of Mecklenburg-Strelitz; and on the twelfth of August, in the following year, she presented him with a son and heir to his own great delight, and the universal joy of the British empire. Ineffable as is the contempt which is expressed at the present day for the superstitious trust reposed in omens by the heathen ancients, yet nothing of any consequence occurs without being attended by signs in which the Christian multitude discern either fortunate or disastrous predictions. It has thus been carefully recorded and handed down, that the birth of the royal infant happened on the anniversary of the Hanover accession, and the same day was rendered trebly auspicious, by the arrival at London of waggons containing an immense quantity of treasure, the fruits of the capture of a Spanish galleon off Cape St Vincent by three English frigates. A few days after his appearance in this world, his Royal Highness was created Prince of Wales, by patent, and would have been completely crushed under the load of honours that devolved upon him, had their weight been of a kind to be physically felt: Duke of Cornwall, Hereditary High-steward of Scotland, Duke of Rothsay, Earl of Carrick, and Baron of Renfrew, were his other titles,—being those to which the eldest son of the British throne is born. In December, 1765, when not quite three years of age, the prince of Wales received a deputation from the society of ancient Britons, on St David's day, and, in answer to their address, said,—“He thanked them for this mark of duty to the king, and wished prosperity to the charity,”—an early development of that talent for public speaking, which he is said to have possessed! In the same year he was invested with the order of the garter, along with the earl of Albemarle, and the hereditary prince of Brunswick.

When the prince had attained an age at which it was deemed necessary for his education to commence, it was determined that it should be conducted on a private plan; and Lord Holderness, “a nobleman of considerable attainments, but chiefly recommended by dignity of manner and knowledge of the court,” was appointed his governor, and Dr Markham, subsequently archbishop of York, and Cyril Jackson, were named preceptor and sub-preceptor. This measure excited a violent outcry; it was said that the heir to the throne should receive a public education at one of the great schools; and this opinion Mr Croly strenuously advocates. It did not, however, produce any effect, and the whole course of instruction which the prince underwent was private, though the preceptorship was twice changed. The duke of Montague, Hurd, bishop of Litchfield, and the Rev. Mr Arnold, formed the last

preceptorial trio. Dr Markham, on entering upon his important duties, asked the king how he wished to have the young princes treated: "Like the sons of any private gentleman," was the reply. "If they deserve it, let them be flogged. Do as you did at Westminster." Markham, it is said, did not fail to act up to the spirit of these instructions, and his pupils, under the terror of the rod, speedily acquired a most respectable proficiency in the classics. Firmness, indeed, and occasional severity, were necessary in dealing with the youthful heir-apparent, who early betrayed a proud and wilful spirit. When not eleven years of age, his father having given him some offence, the pert boy revenged himself by shouting at the door of the king's closet, "Wilkes, and number Forty-five, for ever!" The discipline established by Markham and Jackson seems to have suffered little or no relaxation during the preceptorship of their successors.

In January, 1781, when the prince was but little more than eighteen, he was declared of age, "on the old ground that the heir-apparent knows no minority;" and a separate establishment, on a small scale, having been assigned him at Kew, he now became in a measure his own master. In 1783, when about to take his place in the legislature, arrangements were commenced for supplying him with an income, and at the instigation of the king, the parliament voted him an annual revenue of £50,000, besides an outfit of £100,000. The sum of £60,000 for the outfit had been originally proposed by the king, but it was increased in consequence of the demand of the cabinet, known by the name of the Coalition cabinet, some of the members of which, especially Fox, insisted for a time upon making the grant of £100,000 a year. This, however, the king resolutely refused to allow, "for the double reason of avoiding any unnecessary increase to the public burdens, and of discouraging those propensities which he probably conjectured in the prince." In the following November he took his seat among the peers, and for some short time supported government; but he soon joined the opposition, and obtained popularity at the expense of his father's displeasure, who saw him with deep regret becoming daily more and more entangled in the trammels of a party opposed to the administration, and sharing in all the sensual excesses and fashionable follies to which some of its leaders were notoriously addicted. At length, during the great contest between the coalition and Pitt, some offence being taken at his sitting under the gallery of the house of commons during the debates, where his presence, it was said, might tend to influence the votes, he suddenly avowed his disgust for politics, and abandoned himself wholly to pleasure.

Soon after his establishment at Kew, the prince formed an attachment to a beautiful and accomplished actress of the name of Robinson. She was a married woman, and lived to reap the bitter fruits of her wickedness and delusion, in being abandoned by the prince to poverty and neglect on his forming a new attachment. The object of his second amour was the famous Mrs Crouch, on whom the prince for a while lavished presents with reckless prodigality; though with the fickleness of youth he almost immediately formed another connection with a Roman Catholic lady of the name of Fitzherbert. Mr Croly finds an excuse for the "propensities" of the prince in the "peculiar circumstances of his time." He pleads that the prince commenced his

public career in the midst of that luxurious and dissipated period which ensued upon the peace of 1782.¹ "His rank alone," he continues, "would have secured him flatterers, but he had higher titles to homage. He was then one of the handsomest men in Europe: his countenance open and manly; his figure tall and strikingly proportioned; his address remarkable for easy elegance, and his whole air singularly noble. His contemporaries still describe him as the model of a man of fashion, and amusingly lament over the degeneracy of an age which no longer produces such men. But he possessed qualities which might have atoned for a less attractive exterior. He spoke the principal modern languages with sufficient skill; he was a tasteful musician; his acquaintance with English literature was, in early life, unusually accurate and extensive; Markham's discipline, and Jackson's scholarship, had given him a large portion of classical knowledge; and nature had given him the more important public talent of speaking with fluency, dignity, and vigour. Admiration was the right of such qualities, and we can feel no surprise if it were lavishly offered by both sexes. But it has been strongly asserted, that the temptations of flattery and pleasure were thrown in his way for other objects than those of the hour; that his wanderings were watched by the eyes of politicians; and that every step which plunged him deeper into pecuniary embarrassment was triumphed in, as separating him more widely from his natural connexions, and compelling him in his helplessness to throw himself into the arms of factions alike hostile to his character and his throne."

In 1787 the prince had involved himself in debt to such an amount, that it was found necessary to solicit parliament, not only for a sum sufficient to liquidate his obligations, but also for an increase of his income, the salary first granted having proved quite inadequate for his royal propensities. The debate upon the grant was of a highly animated character, and in the course of it the prince was not spared. He was befriended by the opposition, with Fox at its head, having thrown himself into the arms of that party who were endeavouring in every way to drive Pitt from his ministerial seat. But in this instance, as in most others, the latter succeeded in carrying his point; in consequence of which £161,000 were issued out of the civil list to pay the prince's debts, and £20,000 for the completion of Carlton house, but no augmentation of his income was allowed. "Hopeless of future appeal, stung by public rebuke, and committed before the empire in hostility to the court and the minister, the prince was now thrown completely into Fox's hands." In October, 1788, George III. was afflicted with a mental disease which totally incapacitated him for the duties of government. We have already noticed the measures contemplated and contended for by the two leading political parties of the day on this crisis; the king, however, recovered before the preliminary arrangements for the entrance of the prince upon the regency had been completed. On his father's recovery, the prince solicited an interview with him,—probably for the purpose of explaining his conduct during the recent debates in parliament on the regency question,—but the application was sternly refused. From this period up to the moment when the king again became the victim of his former malady, the

¹ See our 5th volume, p. 310.

prince mixed no more with politics, and abandoned himself to "pursuits still more obnoxious than those of public ambition." About this time he is said to have been enamoured of the beautiful duchess of Devonshire, who was then separated from her husband; but his advances do not appear to have been in the least encouraged. He also formed an attachment for the countess of Jersey: still his affection towards Mrs Fitzherbert suffered little abatement. A sumptuous residence was prepared for her at Brighton; her furniture and equipages were magnificent; and in diamonds, she is said to have been as rich as Queen Charlotte. For some time previously to 1790, the prince had patronized horse-racing and pugilism; but, in that year, having attended a prize-fight in which one of the boxers was killed, he ceased to support the ring; and in 1791 he disposed of his stud on account of some suspicion being attached to his conduct with regard to a race. Yet in the midst of his dissipation, foppery, and extravagance, he was not altogether destitute of laudable ambition. It is supposed that he attempted, but without success, to obtain the vicegerency of Ireland; and also vainly solicited the favour of being permitted to join the British forces under the duke of York in Holland.

We have already seen the prince relieved from an enormous debt accumulated in the short space of three years; within a brief period he had again plunged himself into still greater pecuniary difficulties, to extricate himself from which he consented to a match with his cousin the princess Caroline Amelia Elizabeth, born on the 17th of May, 1768, daughter of George the Third's favourite sister and the duke of Brunswick. The bride-elect was in her twenty-seventh year, high-spirited, accomplished, of a prepossessing appearance, and, according to the journals of the day, "of great taste in dress, and much goodness of heart." On her arrival in this country, which took place on the 5th of April, 1795, she was received by the prince with flattering politeness and respect; by the king with great cordiality; but by his consort with decided coolness. The marriage was celebrated at the chapel-royal, St James's, on the 8th, and on the next day the prince and princess proceeded to Windsor. Lady Jersey accompanied the prince's household, and her presence, as might have been anticipated, soon produced a rupture between their royal highnesses, which eventually terminated in a separation. Mr Croly has as usual found out many apologizing circumstances on behalf of the prince in this affair; but there is no concealing the foul stain which it attaches to the character of his royal highness; and we give our entire concurrence to the following strictures on that portion of Mr Croly's work which relates to the prince's marriage and separation, from the pages of one of his reviewers. "For the better understanding the moral of this affair, it is requisite to consider the various parties as private individuals; to judge them by the rules we should employ in estimating the conduct of persons of our own condition in life. So long as they are placed at a distance, and invested with the trappings of royalty, we shall be led involuntarily to consider them a different order of beings, endowed with different feelings, and subject to different laws from those which we ourselves acknowledge. Let us then suppose a young man in ordinary life indulging in every species of extravagance, and so pressed by his debts, as to be ready to take any desperate course to escape from them. He ap-

plies to his father for assistance. The father's answer is, "Marry, and you shall be freed from your difficulties." At this period the young man, besides other indulgences, permits himself the luxury of two mistresses. In spite of the blandishments of these ladies, in spite of the love of what he terms liberty, the debts drive him to marriage. A wife is found and proposed to him—he accepts her. She is young, a stranger; about to be separated from her family, and to confide herself and her happiness to the guardianship of one whom she supposes to be a high-minded gentleman. It is requisite that this young and comparatively helpless stranger should be escorted to the house of her future husband, and that when there, she should have a number of female attendants. What would be said of any man in private life, who should choose for the escort of his bride one of his former mistresses; who should place that mistress as an attendant on his young wife; should point her out as a sort of instructress in the ways of her newly-acquired country? Besides having one mistress under the same roof with his wife, besides placing that mistress at his wife's table, he renews his former connexion with his second mistress, provides her with a splendid establishment, and for this second mistress completely separates himself within a few months after his marriage from the poor young woman, whom for his own selfish purposes he had made his wife. He does this on no pretext, but that of his own wishes. He does it openly and totally regardless of the misery he creates in the bosom of his innocent and cruelly-neglected wife. Now let it be remarked, that any man who had acted thus in private life would have been hooted out of society, while there are few epithets expressive of disgust and abhorrence, that would not have been used to characterize his conduct. It is customary to admit without dispute the claim that is generally made to politeness, as a quality peculiarly remarkable in the character of the late king. They who make the claim, and they who admit it, seem to have strange opinions on the subject of politeness. If the term be used merely to signify grace in making a bow, knowledge of the petty observances in fashionable life which mean nothing, but are employed only as a species of free-masonry to distinguish those who belong to the class, possibly, though here we are inclined to doubt, the king might have been polite,—but if by politeness is meant carefulness to render one another happy, in as far as petty observances and little services in society permit, if we mean watchfulness not to wound the feelings of others, an ever-wakeful desire to lend an aid to those who need it, to shield the weak, to gratify the wishes, to study the convenience, and to soothe the petty misfortunes of others, in short, if by politeness is intended a wish to make, and the making, the intercourse of life in as far as we are able a means of happiness, then it may be boldly asserted that the late king was not polite. To be polite in this sense a man must to a great degree cease to be selfish, but no act of the king's life seems to have been guided by any principle but that of self-gratification—and to such lengths did this principle lead him, that in boyhood it made him brutal to his mistress; in manhood forgetful even of common decency to his wife. One of the grand tests ordinarily used to distinguish a polite and courteous gentleman is his treatment of women. But it is not merely in mannerly courtesy that he is distinguished,—a thousand observances of idle respect and mocking defer-

ence will not atone for one insult, one act of ungenerous wanton forgetfulness. What artificial courtesy could so well distinguish the character of a man's mind, could so well lay bare his real feelings, and mark the worth of his so-styled polite observance, as the cruel insult, nay, brutality of making a strumpet the companion of his wife? 'Tis strange that such things should be before the public, and at the same time that nauseous panegyrics respecting the 'finest gentleman in Europe' should be a moment tolerated. Excusing for an instant his neglect of his wife, excusing his making her a sacrifice to his convenience, excusing his having two mistresses and his not discarding those mistresses, but superadding a wife to his establishment,—waiving all mention of these grave delinquencies, why, it may be asked, not treat that wife with decent respect? Why make his house a brothel, and put his young wife into it? Why, if his own extravagancies led him to marry, should he make his wife bear all the inconveniencies and miseries of the union?—A generous man would have said, 'My own folly has led to this painful situation,—it is but just, therefore, that I should bear the burthen,—the union is not agreeable to me, but nevertheless I alone ought to suffer the misery resulting from it, thus paying the price of my own folly and extravagance. Others, and those innocent, ought not to be punished for my misdeeds.' He would consequently have lived in harmony with his wife and behaved to her with kindness and respect. If his love for his mistress had been too strong to be resisted, one commonly careful, one but ordinarily alive to the feelings of others—would at least have practised secrecy and decorum in the illicit connexion: thus shielding his poor wife from the misery of knowing his criminal faithlessness. But no, such was not the mode in which the prince was accustomed to reason. Self was his god, and self alone he worshipped. It was convenient to have his mistress in his own house, therefore he had her there. It would have required care and some little trouble to have practised secrecy, therefore he blazoned his neglect. It was gratifying to his vanity to have a dashing establishment for his second mistress, Mrs Fitzherbert, therefore he had one. But let any father put the question to himself,—'What would be my feelings if my daughter were treated thus? What should I say of him, being of my own rank in life, who thus cruelly neglected and wantonly insulted her?' If the conduct be revolting in private life, by what art can it be extenuated, when the parties are a prince and princess? If the daughter of a private gentleman, if the daughter of a peasant would be sheltered from such treatment by the indignant voice of public opinion, is there any reason why the daughter of a duke should not be equally defended? If the rude hind, who should have been equally reckless in his behaviour, would have been visited by the execration of his people, what is the circumstance which exonerates the conduct of a prince from equal animadversion?"

In 1803, on this country being threatened with invasion, the prince made a spirited effort to obtain a higher and more responsible appointment than that which he held in the army as colonel of the 16th regiment of light dragoons. His application did not meet with that attention which he expected, and on his further importunity, it was intimated to him by Mr Addington, that "the king's opinion being fixed, he desired that no further mention should be made to him upon the subject."

The prince now addressed a very energetic and dutiful letter to his father, under date the 6th of August, 1803, in which, after noticing the previous correspondence with Mr Addington, he again urged his request in the following terms: "I ask to be allowed to display the best energies of my character,—to shed the last drop of my blood, in support of your Majesty's person, crown, and dignity; for this is not a war for empire, glory, or dominion, but for existence. In this contest, the lowest and humblest of your Majesty's subjects have been called on: it would therefore little become me, who am the first, and who stand at the very footstool of the throne, to remain a tame, an idle, a lifeless spectator of the mischiefs which threaten us, unconscious of the dangers which surround, and indifferent to the consequences which may follow. Hanover is lost; England is menaced with invasion; Ireland is in rebellion; Europe is at the foot of France: at such a moment, the Prince of Wales, yielding to none of your servants in zeal and affection, to none of your subjects in duty, to none of your children in tenderness and affection, presumes to approach you, and again to repeat those offers which he already made through your Majesty's ministers. A feeling of honest ambition, a sense of what I owe to myself and to my family, and above all, the fear of sinking in the estimation of that gallant army, which may be the support of your crown, and my best hope hereafter, command me to persevere, and to assure your Majesty with all humility and respect, that, conscious of the justice of my claim, no human power can ever induce me to relinquish it. Allow me to say, Sir, that I am bound to adopt this line of conduct by every motive dear to me as a man, and sacred to me as a prince. Ought I not to come forward in a moment of unexampled difficulty and danger? Ought I not to share in the glory and victory, when I have every thing to lose by defeat? The highest places in your Majesty's service are filled by the younger branches of the royal family; to me alone no place is assigned; I am not thought worthy to be even the junior major-general of your army. If I could submit in silent submission to such indignities, I should indeed deserve such treatment, and prove to the satisfaction of your enemies and my own, that I am entirely incapable of those exertions which my birth, and the circumstances of the times, peculiarly call for. Standing so near the throne, when I am debased, the cause of royalty is wounded. I cannot sink in the public opinion, without the participation of your Majesty in my degradation; therefore every motive of private feeling and of public duty induce me to implore your Majesty to review your decision, and to place me in that situation which my birth, the duties of my station, the example of my predecessors, and the expectations of the people of England entitle me to claim. Should I be disappointed in the hope which I have formed; should this last appeal to the justice of my sovereign, and the affection of my father, fail of success, I shall lament in silent submission his determination; but Europe, the world, and posterity, must judge between us."

To this communication the king replied briefly in these terms: "My dear son,—Though I applaud your zeal and spirit, of which, I trust, no one can suppose any of my family wanting, yet, considering the repeated declarations I have made of my determination on your former applications to the same purpose, I had flattered myself to have heard no further on the subject. Should the implacable enemy so far succeed as

to land, you will have an opportunity of showing your zeal at the head of your regiment; it will be the duty of every man to stand forward on such an occasion, and I shall certainly think it mine to set an example in defence of every thing that is dear to me, and to my people."

On the second of October, 1803, the prince addressed a letter to his brother, the commander-in-chief, remonstrating with him on his having been passed over in the extensive promotion that had just taken place in the army. In his reply to the communication, the duke of York said: "In the year 1795, upon a general promotion taking place, at your instance I delivered a letter from you to his majesty, urging your pretensions to promotion in the army, to which his majesty was pleased to answer, that before he had appointed you to the command of the 10th light dragoons, he had caused it to be fully explained to you, what his sentiments were with respect to a Prince of Wales entering into the army, and the public grounds upon which he never could admit of your considering it as a profession, or of your being promoted in the service; and his majesty, at the same time, added his positive command and injunctions to me never to mention this subject again to him, and to decline being the bearer of any application of the same nature, should it be proposed to me; which message I was of course under the necessity of delivering to you, and have constantly made it the rule of my conduct ever since; and indeed I have ever considered it as one of the greatest proofs of affection and consideration towards me, on the part of his majesty, that he never allowed me to become a party in this business." This discussion—the whole of which was published soon after—procured the prince some return of the popularity which he had so long forfeited.

In 1804, his royal highness claimed the right of superintending the education and health of his infant-daughter, the princess Charlotte. The good king, his father, interposed his authority in behalf of his "beloved niece," as he termed her, and insisted that she had a natural right to the guardianship of her own daughter; but to prevent unseemly disputes in his family, he resolved—on the principle that the young heiress-apparent belonged to the state—to take her under his own protection. The prince opposed this arrangement; but the king continued firm, and the young princess was placed at Warwick house.

In 1805, when the royal pair had been for some years living in a state of separation, the duke of Sussex informed the prince, that Sir John Douglas had made known to him some circumstances respecting the behaviour of the princess, which might, if true, not only affect the honour of his royal highness, but also the succession to the throne. Sir John and Lady Douglas having made a formal declaration of certain charges against the princess, this declaration was submitted to Lord Thurlow, who gave it as his opinion that the matter must be referred to the king. In consequence of this opinion, and some further examinations, a warrant was issued by his majesty, dated the 29th of May, 1806, directing and authorizing Lord Erskine as lord-chancellor, Lord Grenville as first lord of the treasury, Earl Spencer as one of his majesty's principal secretaries of state, and Lord Ellenborough as chief-justice of the court of king's bench, to inquire into the truth of the allegations, and to report to him thereon. These commissioners first examined on oath the principal informants, Sir John Douglas, and Charlotte his wife,

who both positively swore, the former to his having observed the fact of the pregnancy of her royal highness ; and the latter, not only that she had observed it, but that her royal highness had not made the least scruple of talking about it with her. Lady Douglas further deposed that, in the year 1802, the princess was secretly delivered of a male child, which had been brought up in her own house, and under her own inspection. The commissioners reported that there was no foundation whatever for believing that the child living with the princess was the child of her royal highness. That child was beyond all doubt born in the Brownlow-street hospital, on the eleventh of July, 1802, of the body of Sophia Austin, and was first brought to the princess's house in the month of November following. "It appears," continued the commissioners, "that as, on the one hand, the fact of pregnancy and delivery are, to our minds, satisfactorily disproved, so, on the other, we think that the circumstances to which we now refer, particularly those stated to have passed between her royal highness and Captain Manby, must be credited until they shall receive some decisive contradiction ; and, if true, are justly entitled to the most serious consideration." Immediately on the receipt of a copy of this report, the princess of Wales addressed a letter to his majesty, in which she solemnly asserted not only her innocence as to the weightier parts of the charge preferred against her, but her freedom from all the indecorums and improprieties which had been imputed to her by the lords-commissioners, upon the evidence of persons who spoke as falsely as Sir John and Lady Douglas themselves. With respect to Sir Sidney Smith she said, that "if his visiting frequently at Montague house, both with Sir John and Lady Douglas, and without them ; at luncheon, dinner, and supper ; and staying with the rest of the company till twelve or one o'clock, or even later ; if these were some of the facts which must give occasion to unfavourable interpretations, they were facts which she could never contradict, for they were perfectly true." She admitted also, that Sir Sidney had often visited her at early hours in the morning, and that she had been alone with him on several occasions. "But," she added, "if suffering a man to be so alone is evidence of guilt, from whence the commissioners can draw any unfavourable inference, I must leave them to draw it ; for I cannot deny that it has happened frequently, not only with Sir Sidney Smith, but with many others ; gentlemen who have visited me ; tradesmen who have come for orders ; masters whom I have had to instruct me in painting, music, and English ; that I have received them without any one being by. I never had any idea that it was wrong thus to see men of a morning. There can be nothing immoral in the thing itself : and I have understood it was quite usual for ladies of rank and character to receive the visits of gentlemen in the morning, though they might be themselves alone at the time. But if this is thought improper in England, I hope every candid mind will make allowance for the different notions which my foreign education and habits may have given me." On the 17th of August, she again wrote to the king, requesting that she might have authenticated copies of the report, and of the declarations and dispositions on which it proceeded. Having received these papers, the princess submitted them to her legal advisers, Lord Eldon, Percival, and Sir Thomas Plomer ; and on the second of October she transmitted to his majesty an elaborate

letter on the subject. Nine weeks having elapsed without any reply; the princess again wrote, expressing her anxiety to learn whether she might be admitted to the royal presence; in reply, her royal highness was informed, that her vindication had been referred to his majesty's confidential servants, who had given it as their opinion that it was no longer necessary for his majesty to decline receiving the princess into his royal presence; but, at the same time, he hoped that such conduct would be in future observed by her as might fully justify these marks of paternal regard and affection which the king always wished to show to every part of the royal family. The princess no sooner received this communication than she named a day on which, if agreeable to his majesty, she would throw herself in filial duty and affection at his feet. The day, however, was at first postponed by his majesty, who informed the princess, that, at the request of the prince of Wales, he declined to see her until her vindication had been examined by the lawyers of the prince; and until his royal highness had been enabled to submit the statement which he proposed to make thereon. The princess remonstrated in strong terms against this interposition, and trusted that his majesty would recall his determination not to see her till the prince's answer respecting her vindication was received. After a lapse of three weeks, the princess informed his majesty that, having received no intimation of his pleasure, she was reduced to the necessity, in vindication of her character, to resort to the publication of the proceedings upon the inquiry into her conduct, and that the publication alluded to would not be withheld beyond the following Monday. This letter was dated the 5th of March, soon after which Percival and his friends were intrusted with the seals of office; and when the ministerial arrangements were completed, a minute of council was made, dated the 22d of April, 1807, wherein it was humbly submitted to his majesty, that it was essentially necessary, in justice to her royal highness, and for the honour and interests of his majesty's illustrious family, that the princess of Wales should be admitted into his presence, and be received in a manner due to her rank and station. Notwithstanding this advice, it does not appear that she was ever restored to complete favour, and her intercourse with her daughter was also laid under great restraint. Nothing, however, occurred that is publicly or officially known till January, 1813, at which period the princess was so much debarred from the society of her daughter, that she determined to write to the prince-regent on the subject. In her letter—which was transmitted to ministers—she dwelt with great force upon the injustice of widening the separation between mother and daughter, which she considered as not only cutting her off from one of the few domestic enjoyments which she still retained, but as countenancing those calumnious reports which had been proved to be unfounded. In consequence of this letter, which appeared in a daily journal, the prince-regent directed that the whole of the documents relating to the investigation of 1806 should be referred to the privy-council to report whether the intercourse between the princess and her daughter should continue under restriction. In virtue of this appointment, the members of the council assembled on the 23d of February, when they reported that, in their opinion, it was highly fit and proper that the intercourse between the princess of Wales and the princess Charlotte should continue to be subject to re-

gulation and restraint. On the 1st of March the princess addressed a letter to the speaker of the house of commons, in which she complained that the tendency of this report—a copy of which had been transmitted to her by Lord Sidmouth—was to cast aspersions upon her honour and character. Thus assailed by a secret tribunal, before which she could not be heard in her own defence, she was compelled, she said, to throw herself upon the house, and to require that the fullest investigation might be instituted into the whole of her conduct during her residence in this country. On the 5th of March, C. Johnstone, after avowing that he had no concert with, or authority from, the princess, submitted to the house of commons a motion for an address to the prince-regent, requesting him to desire that a copy of the report made to his majesty on the 14th of July, 1806, touching the conduct of her royal highness the princess of Wales, be laid before the house, with a view to an inquiry—while the witnesses on both sides were still living—into all the allegations, facts, and circumstances, appertaining to that investigation,—a proceeding which, in his opinion, was due to the honour of her royal highness, the safety of the throne, and the tranquillity of the country. Lord Castlereagh, in opposing the motion, said that the house could not consider the papers called for at all necessary to remove any apprehension as to the successor to the throne. The innocence of the princess of Wales, he added, had been established in the report of the members of two successive administrations; and if a prosecution had not been instituted against her accusers, it arose only from a wish to avoid bringing such subjects before the public. The motion was overruled; the princess was declared free from imputation; and addresses of congratulation poured in from all quarters of the kingdom.

To return from this melancholy digression to other events in the prince's life. In 1805 the prince encouraged the coalition of Grenville and Fox against Pitt, and on the death of the latter statesman, in the following year, his royal highness contributed, by his exertions and influence, to procure the return of his friend Fox to political power. But by the death of that celebrated statesman, soon after his acceptance of office in 1806, the chief connecting link between the whigs and his royal highness was broken; he still, however, for some time continued to act with, and to be governed in political affairs by their advice. In October, 1810, George the Third became again deranged. On the 20th of December, Percival, chancellor of the exchequer, moved three resolutions, declaring the personal exercise of the royal authority suspended,—that it was necessary to provide the means of supplying the defect in such a manner as the exigency of the case might require. Sir Francis Burdett denied the competency of parliament to decide, and advised an appeal to the people; and Mr. George Ponsonby, for the whigs, read the following resolution as an amendment: "That an humble address be presented to his royal highness the prince of Wales, requesting that his royal highness will be pleased to take upon him, during the indisposition of the king, and no longer, the government of this realm; and administer the same in the name and in the behalf of his majesty, under the style and title of 'Regent of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland.'" After a long debate ministers carried their resolutions, and a restricted regency-bill was framed, under which

the prince entered upon his new functions. His royal brothers, however, deemed it necessary to present their protest against the bill. This document stated in substance: That, understanding that it was intended to propose to the two houses the measure of supplying the royal authority by the appointment of a regency, with certain limitations and restrictions, they felt it to be their duty to declare, that it was the unanimous opinion of all the male branches of his majesty's family, that they could not view this mode of proceeding without alarm; as a regency so restricted, was inconsistent with the prerogatives which were vested in the royal authority, as much for the security and benefit of the people, as for the strength and dignity of the crown itself; and they, therefore, solemnly protested against this violation of the principles which placed their family upon the throne.

On assuming the reins of government the prince acted with great firmness and discretion. As soon as the regency-bill had passed, he intrusted the preparation of his answer to the parliamentary addresses on the occasion to Lords Grey, Grenville, and Moira. The assistance of the latter was, however, declined by the two former; who, in consequence of their varying in opinion, not only with each other but also with the regent, adopted language which was at once unsatisfactory to his royal highness and to themselves. The prince then solicited Sheridan to assist him in drawing up an answer more consonant to his views; Lords Grey and Grenville agreed to the draught prepared by Sheridan, but warmly remonstrated on his interference. Soon after, and as much to the surprise of the minister as to the disappointment of the whigs, the prince-regent declared his intention of continuing the premier, Spencer Percival, in office. On the 19th of June, 1811, he gave a gorgeous fête at Carlton-house, in celebration of the king's birth-day; and, with a view to benefit trade, intimated his wish that the whole of his guests should appear in articles of British manufacture. By these and other measures he acquired so much popularity, that, on his attending a representation of 'Cato' at Covent Garden, when John Kemble delivered the two following lines the spectators indulged in an enthusiastic burst of applause which continued for several minutes—

"Thy virtues, prince, if I foresee aright,
Will one day make thee great."

The restrictions on the regency ceased in 1812, and expectations were entertained that the whigs would speedily take office. The regent, in a letter addressed to the duke of York, expressed a wish that "some of those persons with whom the early habits of his life were formed would strengthen his hands, and constitute a part of his government." The duke immediately made known the sentiments of his brother to Lord Grey; but the whig leaders peremptorily refused to coalesce with the existing ministry, their differences of opinion embracing almost all the leading features of the policy of the empire. On one subject their sentiments were especially at variance: they were so firmly persuaded of the necessity of a total change in the system of governing Ireland, and the immediate repeal of those civil disabilities under which so large a portion of the people in that country laboured, on account of their religious opinions, that to recommend to parliament that repeal would be the first advice which they would feel it their duty to offer to his

royal highness. All hope of forming an extended administration was therefore at an end. The ministry now consisted of two parties, at the head of one of which was Percival, and of the other the marquess of Wellesley. The differences between these statesmen were partly personal, and partly political; the marquess would not serve under Percival, though he had no objection to serve with him, or to serve under either the earl of Moira or Lord Holland; and when it appeared that the regent intended to continue Percival at the head of his councils, the marquess resigned his office, and the seals of the foreign department were transferred to Lord Castlereagh. On the 19th of March, Lord Barrington moved an address to the prince-regent, beseeching him to form such an administration as might most effectually call forth the entire confidence and energies of the united kingdom. Earl Grey stated the points on which Lord Grenville and himself had declined a union with the existing administration. He said that it was formed on the express principle of resistance to the Catholic claims; a principle loudly proclaimed by the person at its head, from the moment he quitted the bar to take a share in political life. With respect to the disputes with America, he wished to bear in mind the principle so well expressed by the late Edmund Burke, that, "as we ought never to go to war for a profitable wrong, so we ought never to go to war for an unprofitable right." On making bank-notes a legal tender, an impassable line of separation existed between him and the present ministry; and as to the war in the peninsula, it was his wish that we should not proceed on the present expensive scale, without having some military authority as to its probable result. He further complained of an unseen and separate influence behind the throne,—the existence of which was denied by Lord Mulgrave.

On the assassination of Percival in May, 1812, the marquess of Wellesley was authorized to form an administration; but Lords Grey and Grenville still held out. The negotiation consequently failed; and on the 8th of June, 1812, the earl of Liverpool was chosen first lord of the treasury.

The visit of the allied sovereigns to this country, in the year 1814, afforded the regent a favourable opportunity of exhibiting his princely magnificence in a succession of fêtes given to his illustrious visitants. His royal highness attended them to Oxford, and also dined with them at two sumptuous entertainments in the city of London,—the one given by the merchants, and the other by the lord-mayor and corporation. During his progress through the streets, on these occasions, he was hissed, and many of the mob vociferated "Your wife! where's your wife?" He was so incensed at this reception, that he made a resolution—which he never broke—never to dine in the city again. Notwithstanding his resentment, however, he conferred the dignity of a baronet on the lord-mayor, Domville, because, as he said, it had always been customary for the sovereign, on visiting his faithful city of London, to confer a mark of favour on its chief magistrate.

In 1817 the prince was fired at on returning from the opening of parliament. The perpetrators of this act were never discovered. The death of the Princess Charlotte which occurred this year, and of his mother which took place in the following year, greatly afflicted the

regent, who, amidst all his other faults, was never chargeable with any want of parental or filial affection.

The demise of George the Third took place on Saturday, the 29th of January, 1820,—on the following Monday the new monarch was proclaimed. For some days after his accession he laboured under inflammation in the chest, which had nearly proved fatal, but on the 10th of February he was declared convalescent. A new parliament assembled in April, and the king opened his first session in person. His levees and drawing-rooms at this period were much crowded; and, generally speaking, he appeared to be popular. Preparations were soon commenced for his coronation; but, on the 12th of July, that ceremony was indefinitely postponed, in consequence of the unexpected return of Queen Caroline from Italy. She arrived in London on the 6th of July. On the afternoon of her arrival the following message was delivered to both houses of parliament: “The king thinks it necessary, in consequence of the arrival of the queen, to communicate to the house of lords certain papers respecting the conduct of her majesty since her departure from this country, which he recommends to the particular and earnest attention of the house. The king felt an anxious desire to prevent all disclosures and discussions which must necessarily prove painful to his feelings; but the step adopted by the queen leaves him no alternative. The king has the fullest confidence that the house of lords will adopt that course of proceeding which becomes the justice of the case, and is due to the honour and dignity of the crown.” On the Thursday following the committee was nominated in the house of lords, but her majesty transmitted the following communication: “The queen thinks it necessary to inform the house of commons, that she has been induced to return to England in consequence of the measures pursued against her honour and her peace for some time by secret agents abroad, and lately sanctioned by the conduct of the government at home. In adopting this course, her majesty has had no other purpose whatsoever but the defence of her character, and the maintenance of those just rights which have devolved upon her by the death of that revered monarch, in whose high honour and unshaken affection she had always found her surest support. Upon her arrival, the queen is surprised to find that a message has been sent down to parliament, requiring its attention to written documents; and she learns, with still greater astonishment, that there is an intention of proposing that these should be referred to a select committee. It is this day fourteen years since the first charges were brought forward against her majesty. Then, and upon every occasion during that long period, she has shown the utmost readiness to meet her accusers, and to court the fullest inquiry into her conduct. She now, also, desires an open investigation, in which she may see both the charges and the witnesses against her,—a privilege not denied the meanest subject of the realm. In the face of the sovereign, the parliament, and the country, she solemnly protests against the formation of a secret tribunal to examine documents, privately prepared by her adversaries, as a proceeding unknown to the law of the land, and a flagrant violation of all the principles of justice. She relies with full confidence upon the integrity of the house of commons for defeating the only attempt she has any reason to fear. The queen cannot forbear to add, that even before any proceedings were resolved upon, she had

been treated in a manner too well-calculated to prejudge her case. The omission of her name in the liturgy; the withholding the means of conveyance usually afforded to all the branches of the royal family; the refusal even of an answer to her application for a place of residence in the royal mansions; and the studied slight, both of English ministers abroad and of the agents of all foreign powers over whom the English government had any influence,—must be viewed as measures designed to prejudice the world against her, and could only have been justified by trial and conviction.”

In the house of commons repeated adjournments took place on the grounds of negotiation, and on the 20th the following papers were laid before the house. The first of these documents is a note from Lord Liverpool, furnishing instructions to Mr Brougham as to his mode of proceeding in the affairs of her majesty:—

“APRIL 15, 1820.

“The act of the 54th Geo. III. cap. 160, recognised the separation of the prince-regent from the princess of Wales, and allotted a separate provision for the princess. This provision was to continue during the life of his late majesty, and to determine at his demise. In consequence of that event it has altogether ceased, and no provision can be made for her until it shall please his majesty to recommend to parliament an arrangement for that purpose. The king is willing to recommend to parliament to enable his majesty to settle an annuity of £50,000 a-year upon the queen, to be enjoyed by her during her natural life, and in lieu of any claim in the nature of jointure or otherwise, provided she will engage not to come into any part of the British dominions, and provided she engages to take some other name or title than that of queen; and not to exercise any of the rights or privileges of queen, other than with respect to the appointment of law-officers, or to any proceedings in courts of justice. The annuity to cease upon the violation of these engagements, viz. upon her coming into any part of the British dominions, or her assuming the title of queen, or her exercising any of the rights or privileges of queen, other than above excepted, after the annuity shall have been settled upon her. On her consent to an engagement upon the above conditions, Mr Brougham is desired to obtain a declaration to this effect, signed by herself; and at the same time a full authority to conclude, with such person as his majesty may appoint, a formal engagement upon these principles.”

The following is the reply:—

“The queen commands Mr Brougham to inform Lord Liverpool that she has received his letter, and that the memorandum of April 15, 1820, which the proposition made through Lord Liverpool had appeared to supersede, has also been now submitted to her majesty for the first time. Her majesty does not consider the terms there specified as at all according with the condition upon which she informed Lord Liverpool yesterday that she would entertain a proposal,—namely, that it should be consistent with her dignity and honour. At the same time she is willing to acquit those who made this proposal of intending any thing offensive to her majesty; and Lord Liverpool's letter indicates a disposition to receive any suggestion which she may offer. Her majesty retains the same desire which she commanded Mr Brougham yesterday to express, of submitting her own wishes to the authority of parliament, now

so decisively interposed. Still acting upon the same principle, she now commands Mr Brougham to add, that she feels it necessary, before making any farther proposal, to have it understood that the recognition of her rank and privileges as queen must form the basis of any arrangement which can be made. The moment that basis is established, her majesty will be ready to suggest a method by which she conceives all existing differences may be satisfactorily adjusted."

In the first conference held by the advisers of both the royal parties, Mr Brougham and Mr Denman, on the part of the queen, stated that, under all the circumstances of her majesty's position, they would not say that her majesty had any insuperable objection to living abroad; on the contrary, if such foreign residence were deemed indispensable to the completion of an arrangement so much desired by parliament, her majesty might be prevailed upon to acquiesce; but then that certain steps must be taken to remove the possibility of any inference being drawn from such compliance, and from the inquiry not being proceeded in, unfavourable to her majesty's honour, and inconsistent with that recognition which is the basis of these negotiations; and her majesty's law-officers suggested, with this view, the restoration of her name to the liturgy. To this it was replied, that the king's government would, no doubt, learn with great surprise, that a question of this important nature had now been brought forward for the first time, without having been adverted to in any of the previous discussions, and without being included amongst the heads to be now treated of; that the liturgy had been already regulated by his majesty's formal declaration in council, and in the exercise of his majesty's legal authority; that the king, yielding his own feelings and views to the wishes of parliament, could not be understood—in the absence of inquiry—to alter any of those impressions under which his majesty had hitherto deliberately and advisedly acted; and that, as it was at the outset stated, the king could not be expected to retract any thing, no hope could be held out that the king's government would feel themselves justified in submitting such a proposition to his majesty.

To this it was answered, that although the point of the liturgy was certainly not included by name amongst the heads to be discussed, her majesty's law-officers felt themselves entitled to bring it forward in its connection with the question of her majesty's residence abroad. It was further contended, that the alteration in the liturgy was contrary to the plain sense and even letter of the statute; and that it was highly objectionable upon constitutional grounds, being contrary to the whole policy of the law respecting the security of the succession, and liable to be repeated in cases where the succession itself might be endangered by it; and therefore it was said that a step so taken might well be retraced without implying any unworthy concession. It was also urged, that the omission having been plainly made in contemplation of legal or parliamentary proceedings against her majesty, it followed, when those proceedings were to be abandoned, that the omission should be supplied; and it followed, for the same reason, that supplying it would imply no retraction. It was replied, that his majesty had decided that her majesty's name should not be inserted in the liturgy, for several reasons not now necessary to discuss; that his majesty had acted under legal advice, and in conformity to the practice of his royal predeces-

sors; and that the decision of his majesty had not been taken solely with a view to intend proceedings in parliament of or at law. Independent of the inquiry instituted before parliament, his majesty had felt himself long since called upon to adopt certain measures to which his majesty, as head of his family, and in the exercise of his prerogative, was clearly competent. These acts, together with that now under consideration, however reluctantly adopted, and however painful to his majesty's feelings, were taken upon grounds which the discontinuance of the inquiry before parliament could not affect, and which his majesty could not, therefore, be expected to rescind. The principle, fairly applied, would go, in truth, no further than to replace the parties in the relative position in which they stood immediately before her majesty's arrival, and before the king's message was sent down to both houses of parliament.

After further discussion upon this point, it was agreed that the duke of Wellington and Lord Castlereagh should report to the cabinet what had passed, and come prepared with their determination to the next conference.

Her majesty's law-officers then asked whether, in the event of the above proposition not being adopted, any other proceeding could be suggested on the part of his majesty's government, which might render her majesty's residence abroad consistent with the recognition of his right, and the vindication of her character; and they specially pointed at the official introduction of her majesty to foreign courts by the king's ministers abroad. Upon this it was observed, that this proposition appeared open to the same difficulty in point of principle: it was calling upon the king to retract the decision formally taken and avowed on the part of his majesty,—a decision already notified to foreign courts; and to render the position of his majesty's representatives abroad, in relation to her majesty, inconsistent with that of their sovereign at home; that the purposes for which this was sought by the queen's law-officers was inconsistent with the principle admitted at the commencement of the conference, and was one that could not be reasonably required to be accomplished by the act of his majesty,—namely, to give to her majesty's conduct that countenance which the state of the case, as at present before his majesty, altogether precluded. At the same time it was stated, that while his majesty, consistently with the steps already adopted, could not authorize the public reception of the queen, or the introduction of her majesty at foreign courts by his ministers abroad, there was nevertheless every disposition to see that branch of the orders already given faithfully and liberally executed, which enjoined the British ministers on the continent to facilitate, within their respective missions, her majesty's accommodation, and to contribute to her personal comfort and convenience.

All overtures for a compromise being finally rejected, a secret committee of peers made its report on the 4th of July, in the following terms:—"Ordered to report, that the committee have examined, with all the attention due to so important a subject, the documents laid before them; and they find that these documents contain allegations supported by the concurrent testimony of a great number of persons in various situations of life, and residing in different parts of Europe, which deeply affect the honour of the queen, charging her majesty with an adulterous

connection with a foreigner, originally in her service in a menial capacity, and attributing to her majesty a series of conduct highly unbecoming her majesty's rank and station, and of the most licentious character. These charges appear to the committee to be calculated so deeply to affect, not only the honour of the queen, but also the dignity of the crown, and the moral feeling and honour of the country, that, in their opinion, it is necessary they should become the subject of a solemn inquiry, which, it appears to the committee, may best be effected in the course of a legislative proceeding, the necessity of which they cannot but most deeply deplore."

On the subsequent day, Lord Dacre presented a petition from the queen praying to be heard by her counsel the same day; Lord Dacre then moved that counsel should be called in, but the motion was negatived.

The earl of Liverpool then proposed the following bill of pains and penalties:—

"An act to deprive her majesty Queen Caroline Amelia Elizabeth of the title, prerogatives, rights, privileges, and exemptions of queen-consort of this realm, and to dissolve the marriage between his majesty and the said Caroline Amelia Elizabeth.

"Whereas, in the year 1814, her majesty Caroline Amelia Elizabeth, then princess of Wales, and now queen-consort of this realm, being at Milan, in Italy, engaged in her service in a menial situation, one Bartolomeo Bergami, a foreigner of low station, who had before served in a similar capacity.—And whereas, after the said Bartolomeo Bergami had so entered the service of her royal highness the said princess of Wales, a most unbecoming, degrading intimacy commenced between her royal highness and the said Bartolomeo Bergami.—And whereas, her royal highness not only advanced the said Bartolomeo Bergami to a high station in her royal highness's household, and received into her service many of his near relations, some of them in inferior, and others in high and confidential situations about her royal highness's person; but bestowed upon him other great and extraordinary marks of favour and distinction; and conferred upon him a pretended order of knighthood, which her royal highness had taken upon herself to institute without any just or lawful authority.—And whereas, her royal highness, whilst the said Bartolomeo Bergami was in her said service, further unmindful of her exalted rank and station, and of her duty to your majesty, and wholly regardless of her own honour and character, conducted herself towards the said Bartolomeo Bergami, both in public and private, in various places and countries which her royal highness visited, with indecent and offensive familiarity and freedom; and carried on a licentious, disgraceful, and adulterous intercourse with the said Bartolomeo Bergami, which continued for a long period of time, during her royal highness's residence abroad; by which conduct of her said royal highness great scandal and dishonour have been brought upon your majesty's family and this kingdom. Therefore, to manifest our deep sense of such scandalous, disgraceful, and vicious conduct on the part of her said majesty, by which she has violated the duty she owed to your majesty, and has rendered herself unworthy of the exalted rank and station of queen-consort of this realm; and to evince our just regard for the dignity of the crown and the honour of the nation, we your

majesty's most dutiful and loyal subjects, the lords spiritual and temporal, and the commons in parliament assembled, do humbly entreat your majesty that it may be enacted—And be it hereby enacted, by the king's most excellent majesty, by and with the advice and consent of the lords spiritual and temporal, and the commons in this present parliament assembled, and by the authority of the same, that her said majesty Caroline Amelia Elizabeth, from and after the passing of this act, shall be and hereby is deprived of the title of queen, and of all the prerogatives, rights, privileges, and exemptions, appertaining to her as queen-consort of this realm; and that her said majesty shall from and after the passing of this act, for ever be disabled and rendered incapable of using, exercising, and enjoying the same, or any of them; and moreover, that the marriage between his majesty and the said Caroline Amelia Elizabeth be, and the same is hereby, henceforth and for ever wholly dissolved, annulled, and made void to all intents, constructions, and purposes whatsoever."

It was requisite that this bill should be read a first time, as a preliminary step to the introduction of evidence in support of the charges at the bar of their lordships' house; so that it was not until the 17th of August, that the trial of her majesty upon this bill may be said to have actually commenced. On that day there appeared in support of the bill:—Sir Robert Gifford, the king's attorney-general; Sir John Copley, the king's solicitor-general; Sir Christopher Robinson, the king's advocate-general; Doctor Adams, a civilian; and Mr Parke, an outer barrister. On the part of the queen appeared her majesty's attorney-general; Henry Brougham, Esq., her majesty's solicitor-general; Thomas Denman, Esq.; Dr Lushington, a civilian; and Messrs John Williams, Tindal, and Wilde, outer barristers. Mr Maule, solicitor to the treasury, assisted by Mr Powel, an attorney who had been employed at Milan in collecting the evidence, acted as agent for the bill, and Mr Vizard as agent for the queen.

During the proceedings in this trial, which occupied more than five months, the queen frequently attended the house of lords. She received numberless addresses; and, when she appeared in public, her carriage was constantly followed by an applauding multitude. The final abandonment of the bill of pains and penalties was celebrated as though it had been a national triumph; and the queen went to St Paul's, attended by a vast concourse of people, to return public thanks for her deliverance from "a conspiracy against her honour and life." The king, on the 23d of January, 1821, opened parliament in person, and recommended that a separate provision should be made for the queen; on her part, it was distinctly stated that she should decline any pecuniary grant till her name was restored to the liturgy. Ultimately, however, she thought proper to accept an income of £50,000 per annum, which parliament had voted her.

The ceremony of the king's coronation had been originally fixed for the 1st of August, in the year now passed: the return of her majesty had rendered this arrangement nugatory, and it had become a question, whether, in the existing state of the public mind, a coronation should take place or not. Early in the month of June, however, a proclamation was issued, announcing his majesty's pleasure, that this solemnity should take place on the 19th of July. On the 25th of June, a me-

morial was presented to the privy-council from her majesty, preferring a formal claim to be crowned in like manner with her royal predecessors. An answer was returned to her majesty, that the law-officers of the crown would be consulted on the subject. On the 3d of July a memorial was addressed by her majesty to the king, praying to be heard by her law-officers before the privy-council, which accordingly assembled at Whitehall for the purpose of hearing counsel on both sides. Mr Brougham contended for the queen's legal right to be crowned, resting his chief argument on the plea of long and uniform practice. Mr Denman followed Mr Brougham's argument in a very able speech, which, together with that of his colleague, occupied the attention of the council during two sittings. On the 9th, the council again assembled, and the attorney-general argued against the claim preferred by her majesty. He "admitted that usage would be evidence of a right; but if it could be shown that such usage had originated in the permission of another party, there would be an end of that right. There was evident distinction between the coronation of a king and that of a queen. The former was accompanied by important political acts,—the recognition of the people, and the engagement by the king to keep the laws; the latter was a mere ceremony. But even the coronation of the king was not necessary to his possession of the crown; that act emanated from himself, and he had the sole direction of the time, manner, and place of its performance. The right assumed, as inherent in the queen-consort, was not once alluded to by any writer on the law and constitution of the country, or by any of those who had treated of the privileges peculiar to the queen-consort. With respect to usage, the counsel on the other side must admit, that since the reign of Henry VIII. the majority of instances was against them; there were, since that period, seven instances of queens-consort who had not been crowned, and only six who had." The solicitor-general followed his learned colleague nearly in the same line of argument. The decision of the council, delivered at its next meeting, was, that "as it appeared to them that the queens-consort of this realm are not of right entitled to be crowned at any time, her majesty the queen is not of right entitled to be crowned at the time specified in his majesty's memorial."

When the queen, on the morning of the 11th of July, received this decision of the privy-council, she instantly returned an answer in her own name to Lord Sidmouth, stating to his lordship "her fixed determination of being present on the 19th, and, therefore, demanding that a suitable place might be appointed for her." His lordship, in answer, informed her majesty that he was commanded by the king to refer her majesty to the earl of Liverpool's letter, in which the earl had already stated "that the king, having determined that the queen should form no part of the ceremonial of his coronation, it was therefore his royal pleasure that the queen should not attend the said ceremony."

The coronation of the king was conducted with great pomp and splendour. His royal consort made an unsuccessful attempt to enter the abbey during the ceremony. These most unseemly altercations were, however, destined to be soon brought to a close. On the 31st of July her majesty was seized with inflammation of the bowels, of which she expired on the 7th of August. Her remains were conveyed to Brunswick, where they now repose between those of her father and brother.

Immediately after his coronation the king paid a visit to Ireland. He landed at Howth on the 13th of August, and made his public entry into Dublin on the 17th. His conduct while in Ireland was eminently judicious and conciliating. Shortly after his return to England he set out for Hanover, where he arrived on the 8th of October. During his absence abroad, which continued until November 11th, the sovereign authority was executed by a regency of lords' justices.

Early in 1822 Mr Peel succeeded Lord Sidmouth as secretary of state for the home department. About the middle of August the king paid a visit to Scotland, where he was received with flattering attention. On the 1st of September he returned to Carlton-house, and immediately afterwards Canning was appointed to the post of secretary of state for foreign affairs, recently held by the marquess of Londonderry.

In 1827 the king was much affected by the loss of his favourite brother, the duke of York; soon after whose decease the earl of Liverpool became totally incapacitated for public life, by a severe paralytic affection, and Mr Canning was appointed premier. Several of the ministers resigned, and a new cabinet was formed, which, however, had existed only three or four months, when its leader expired. Lord Goderich was then placed at the head of the administration; but he retained office only until the following year, when most of the leading Tories, with the duke of Wellington at their head, returned to power. The test and corporation acts were now repealed; and, in 1829, Catholic emancipation was brought forward as a ministerial measure, and after much clamour, and a most determined opposition, was triumphantly carried through both houses of parliament. This was the last important occurrence of the reign, and it is well known that the measure was forced upon the king.

During the last years of his life, George IV. was the prey of various maladies, with which a remarkably strong constitution enabled him to struggle until the spring of 1830. His corporeal sufferings may have been one cause of his almost entire seclusion at Windsor castle, where he was like the grand Lama of Thibet, unseeing and unseen, except by a chosen few; but it cannot be doubted that the knowledge of the unpopularity under which he certainly laboured, had some effect in producing the slight communication which took place between him and his subjects. So notorious was his aversion to making an appearance in London, that when he was first announced to be seriously indisposed, it was rumoured for a time that the sickness was fictitious,—a mere pretence to avoid holding a levee which had been fixed for a certain day in that month, and which was in consequence deferred. But before the period had arrived to which it was postponed, there was no longer a doubt that the angel of death was brandishing a dart, and that there was little chance of averting the fatal stroke. The bulletins which the royal physicians daily promulgated, though couched in equivocal and unsatisfactory terms, shadowed out an impending dissolution. The reason of the ambiguity was currently believed to be the circumstance, that the king insisted upon reading the newspapers in which they were published; whilst the medical attendants were anxious to withhold from him a knowledge of his true situation. Towards the end of May, his disorder, which was of a dropsical nature, was so far alleviated, that he transacted some public business; but a relapse speedily ensued, and he

became incapable of writing his name; an act of parliament was consequently passed, to legalize the sign-manual to public documents by means of a stamp. His medical advisers at length informed him that his case was hopeless; and he is said to have received the awful announcement with firmness and resignation. His breathing daily became more difficult, and the close of his earthly career was evidently fast approaching. On the 20th of June, about three o'clock in the morning, a blood-vessel burst in his stomach, while his attendants were removing him from his bed to a chair; aware that his dissolution was at hand, he exclaimed, "Oh God! this is death!" and almost immediately afterwards expired.

The political character of George IV. has been very ably and justly sketched by the reviewer of Croly's memoir in the 27th number of the 'Westminster Review.' "George IV.," says the anonymous writer in question, "was essentially a lover of personal ease: during the later years of his life, a quiet indulgence of certain sensual enjoyments seemed the sole object of his existence. Although the whole frame of his mind was of a haughty despotic character, and although, in consequence, he loved and sought obedience to his will, still the love of ease predominated over this and most of his other passions, and led him to take that middle course described above. A sort of compromise was made, his love of power was gratified by making those who approached him servile in their bearing and apparently the slaves of his will, while his ease was carefully preserved by attempting no very outrageous opposition to the public will. The mode of life he had pursued up to his regency, had deadened (if we may use the expression) the springs of his existence,—his energy both mental and bodily was destroyed, or nearly so,—as age crept upon him, the effects of his dissolute career became more and more apparent, by his increasing fear of any disturbance of his quiet,—his life in fact became that of an old man, who had lost all taste for boisterous animal indulgences, and who never had any mental ones. With this morbid love of ease, or fear of disturbance beginning to make its appearance, he came into power. For some years, though a strong, it was not the dominant feeling. In the years of the regency, therefore, he manifested a much stronger disposition to go to dangerous lengths in oppressing the people than in later times. In Lord Londonderry he had an active co-operator in any scheme proposed for maltreating the many; and while this minister lived there were few plans left unattempted to enslave the people throughout the whole of Europe. Though the name of the king of England was not with the Holy Alliance, his spirit, his good wishes were. While the members of that blessed fraternity were sedulously, though vainly, endeavouring to forge chains for the continental nations, the ministers of George IV. were equally busy in the same nefarious practices here. The Six Acts were passed,—the Manchester people were murdered,—plots were hatched to punish and get rid of the troublesome, and those who were not cut down by the swords of the dragoons, were judicially sacrificed: juries were packed to condemn those who exclaimed against these proceedings; spies were employed; terror reigned throughout the land; the confidence even of private life was shaken; and never were there seen in England times of greater misery, dread, and doubt. In a moment, auspicious for the people, Lord Londonderry committed sui-

cide, and the king, now robbed of the support of this bold bad minister, was still called upon to fight the battle of despotism. But age was now coming upon him, and his love of ease had been rapidly increasing. In the former contests with the people he found he had gained little more than universal dislike. His greatest admirers allow that he was exceedingly unpopular. (Such is the mild expression!) Whatever benefit the aristocracy had derived from these struggles, the consequence to himself, he but too plainly saw, was disagreeable, not to say dangerous. The public indignation grew every moment louder,—day by day the people becoming more instructed, grew in their demands more united, more steady, and more impatient of opposition. To stem this increasing torrent required one firm in purpose, quick in resources, careless of danger, careless of trouble. George IV. decrepit through a premature old age, was totally unequal to the task. He determined, as far as he was concerned, therefore, to pursue a different course, and avoid the dangerous encounter. His ministry in accordance with these wishes adopted milder measures, and as the aristocracy themselves had been alarmed by the fierce resistance of the people, little opposition was manifested towards these more peaceable proceedings. In this obedience to the popular will there is nothing to be admired, while in the previous despotism there is much deserving of the severest reprehension. The principle of the one portion of the king's conduct and of the other was the same; a desire for his own personal convenience led to both, the welfare of the people was considered in neither case."

We dare not claim a better private character for this sovereign than his public one; nay, we are compelled to confess that while in youth he countenanced by his deportment the extravagance and profligacy of all the youth of the kingdom, his old age furnished no more exemplary model for imitation; at the close of his career the man was the same he had been at its commencement. Yet it would be unjust to his memory to represent him as utterly destitute of any amiable qualities. We have already noticed his filial and paternal affection; he retained his private intimacy with not a few of his early friends, although they stood in opposition to his own ministry; to his servants he was ever kind and indulgent, and he is known to have performed several acts of great benevolence towards distressed individuals. It is related of him, that he restored a fatherless stable-boy, who had been discharged for purloining oats, to his employment, on the lad's expressing contrition and promising to amend. "Avoid evil company," said the prince on this occasion; "be diligent, be honest; recover your character, and you shall never be taunted by any person in my service for the offence which I have forgiven." A few years after he had become of age, the prince solicited the loan of £800 from a gentleman, in a manner so remarkably urgent, that the lender resolved, if possible, on ascertaining to what purpose the money was to be applied. With some difficulty he discovered that, having accidentally heard of the distressed situation of an officer, who was on the point of being compelled, by a clamorous creditor, to sell his commission, the prince had determined on saving him from utter ruin, by presenting him with the sum in question; which, in order to prevent any mistake, he himself carried to the officer's lodgings, in some obscure court in Covent Garden.

His literary taste was good ; his musical skill and science very considerable, his taste in architecture and the fine arts generally utterly contemptible. Nothing pleased him but glaring and costly ornaments, multitudinous details and gorgeous novelties. His conversational powers were very great, and often appeared to advantage when such men as Sheridan, Fox, Erskine, and Curran graced his board. His personal appearance was in his earlier years remarkably imposing and graceful ; towards the latter part of his life he got heavy and unwieldy, but he always retained the look and port of royalty.

The Princess Charlotte.

BORN A. D. 1796.—DIED A. D. 1817.

HER ROYAL HIGHNESS, the Princess Charlotte Caroline Augusta, was born at Carlton-house, on the 7th of January, 1796, and was the only child of the ill-starred marriage of the prince and princess of Wales. Her earliest years were spent under the domestic tuition of her royal mother, who was her principal instructress. It is said that she was very early distinguished for quick parts and an amiable disposition. In the private journal of Dr Beilby Porteous, late bishop of London, is the following entry : “ Yesterday (6th August, 1801) I passed a very pleasant day at Shrewsbury-house, Blackheath, the residence of the princess Charlotte of Wales. We saw a good deal of the young princess ; she is a most captivating and engaging child, and, considering the high station she may hereafter fill, a most interesting and important one. She repeated to me several of her hymns with great correctness and propriety ; and being told, when she went to Southend in Essex she would then be in my diocese, she fell down on her knees and begged my blessing.” Her health was for some years unconfirmed, and she spent several seasons on the sea-coast.

She was removed from the immediate guardianship of her mother, about the period when the delicate investigation of the charges made by Sir John and Lady Douglas against the princess of Wales took place, and was placed at Warwick-house, by command of George III., who had claimed the privilege of bringing her up under his own protection, as she was a child of the state. Queen Charlotte, whom the young princess appears to have disliked, exercised, it is said, a secret interference as to her studies, and employed Hannah More to write an elementary work for her use. On passing from the superintendence of her mother, she was placed under the care of the dowager Lady De Clifford, who was succeeded by the dowager duchess of Leeds. Her studies were also superintended by Dr Fisher, bishop of Salisbury, Dr Pott, and Dr Short. In 1814 she was placed under the charge of the dowager countess of Rosslyn, and the countess of Ilchester, at Cranbourne lodge ; and in order to prevent her having any intercourse with her mother, it was intimated to her that she should receive neither letters nor visits but by permission of her noble attendants. It is generally believed that this restriction was uncalled for ; although at an early period of life she had displayed much waywardness and caprice. The

constraint, however, roused her spirit, and she soon contrived to leave the house unperceived, and made her way to her mother's house at Blackheath, from which she was with difficulty prevailed upon to return.

On the 18th of May, 1815, the princess was presented at court. About the same period, the prince of Orange formally declared his intentions of aspiring to her hand; but the princess appears to have uniformly declined his advances. She had seen the prince Leopold, third brother of the duke of Cobourg, on his visit to this country in 1814, and from that period seems to have honoured him with her especial notice. In 1816, Leopold again visited England, and on the 2d of May in that year, the illustrious lovers were married by the archbishop of Canterbury, at Carlton-house. Parliament shortly after voted £60,000 as an outfit to the royal couple; and £50,000 per annum during the joint lives of the royal pair on the life of the survivor, with £10,000 per annum additional in name of pin-money for the bride. The princess's nuptials afforded general satisfaction to the country, and proved a source of great domestic felicity to herself. But Providence had ordained that the nation's hopes should soon be blasted. On the night of the 5th of November, 1817, her royal highness was delivered of a still-born male child, and at half-past two, on the morning of the 6th, she expired.

Her death, it has been truly said, "diffused throughout Great Britain a more general sorrow than had ever before been known in these kingdoms." All ranks,—all parties,—united in the same expressions of sorrow for the national loss, and of sympathy with her bereaved husband and parents. Her royal highness was of middle stature, inclining rather to *en bon point*; her complexion was unusually fair; her eyes were blue, large, and animated. Her passions were strong and ardent, but her general disposition was mild and amiable; all authorities concur in estimating her intellectual powers at a high standard.

Frederick, Duke of York.

BORN A. D. 1763.—DIED A. D. 1827.

FREDERICK AUGUSTUS, the second son and child of George III. and Queen Charlotte, was born on the 16th of August, 1763. He was educated along with his brother, the prince of Wales, but exhibited less talents than the companion of his studies. He entered into scenes of dissipation and intrigue, however, as readily as his elder brother, and promoted the stolen interviews of the prince of Wales and Mrs Robinson.

In November, 1784, he was created duke of York and Albany in Great Britain, and earl of Ulster in Ireland. In 1788 he delivered his maiden-speech in the house of peers in the debate on the regency question. In the following year he fought a duel with Colonel Lennox, afterwards duke of Richmond. The particulars of this transaction have been thus detailed by the seconds: "In consequence of a previous dispute, the duke of York, attended by Lord Rawdon, and Colonel Lennox, accompanied by the earl of Winchelsea, met at Wim-

bledon common. The ground was measured at twelve paces, and both parties were to fire at a signal agreed upon. The signal being given, Colonel Lennox fired, and the ball grazed his royal highness's curl. The duke of York did not fire. Lord Rawdon then interfered, and said, 'That he thought enough had been done.' Colonel Lennox observed, 'That the duke had not fired.' Lord Rawdon said, 'It was not the duke's intention to fire: his royal highness had come out upon the colonel's desire to give him satisfaction, and had no animosity against him.' Colonel Lennox pressed that the duke should fire, which was declined, upon a repetition of the reason. Lord Winchelsea then went up to the duke of York, and expressed a hope, 'That his royal highness could have no objection to say, that he considered Colonel Lennox as a man of honour and courage.' His royal highness replied, 'That he should say nothing: he had come out to give the colonel satisfaction, and did not mean to fire at him: if Colonel Lennox was not satisfied, he might fire again.' Colonel Lennox said, 'He could not possibly fire again at the duke, as his royal highness did not mean to fire at him.' On this, both parties quitted the ground. The seconds think it proper to add, that both parties behaved with the utmost coolness and intrepidity.—RAWDON, WINCHELSEA."

Towards the close of the year 1791, the duke married Charlotte Ulrica Catherine, eldest daughter of Frederick William, king of Prussia, a lady of many virtues and high accomplishments. On this occasion parliament voted the duke a sum of £30,000 per annum, which, with the revenues of the bishopric of Osnaburg—to which see the young prince had been elevated by his father in his third year!—placed the duke in possession of a most princely income; all, however, was insufficient to preserve him from pecuniary embarrassment, and his marriage proved nearly as unfortunate as that of his elder brother. Within six years from their union, the duke and duchess parted.

In 1793 the duke took the command of the British auxiliaries destined to act in concert with the prince of Saxe-Cobourg, against the forces of republican France. In this campaign his royal highness exhibited indubitable proofs of personal gallantry, but his attempt to invest Dunkirk was ill-planned, and ended in a precipitate abandonment of the siege. In the campaign of the next year a proposition was made that General Clairfait, an officer of great ability and experience, should command the auxiliary forces, and that the duke of York should act under his orders: this proposition, however, unfortunately for the interest of the allies, was peremptorily rejected by the duke. At Tournay, the duke defeated a corps of 35,000 men, but he was soon after compelled to retreat in the direction of Antwerp, and afterwards on Bois-le-Duc. The French forces, under Pichegru, advancing rapidly upon him, to the number of 80,000 men, about the middle of September, the duke crossed the Maese, and took a fresh position near Grave; at the beginning of October, he encamped under the walls of Nimeguen. The French, crossing the Maese, made an attack on the British posts in front of that town, and having obliged them to change their position, invested the place. Towards the end of the month his royal highness passed the Waal, leaving General Walmoden with a corps to cover the town of Nimeguen, which was evacuated in great confusion and with much loss on the 7th of November. Bois-le-Duc, Breda, and Grave,

were also successively reduced. Whilst Pichegru was in Dutch Flanders, the Austrian General, La Tour, was totally defeated by General Jourdan near Liege, which city, and those of Aix-la-Chapelle and Juliers, were occupied by the French. As soon as the frost had set in, Pichegru crossed the Waal, and the duke of York, chagrined at his disasters, and provoked at the apathy of the Dutch themselves, returned to England, leaving the English troops under the command of Sir Ralph Abercromby. Pressed upon by a far superior force they retired towards the German frontiers; and on the 27th and 28th of March the remains of this fine body of troops embarked on board transports lying ready to convey them from the Elbe to England.

In 1795, on Lord Amherst retiring from public life, the duke of York was appointed commander-in-chief and field-marshal-general of the forces in Great Britain.

Towards the close of the year 1799, the duke of York again entered Holland as commander-in-chief of the expedition for reinstating the Stadtholder. General Abercromby conducted the first division of the armament, and made good a landing near the shore of the Helder on the 27th of August. Next day the Dutch fleet in the Nieuve Diep, amounting to seven ships of war and thirteen Indiamen, surrendered to Admiral Mitchell, who, pursuing his course along the Texel, succeeded in securing the remainder of the Batavian naval force. On the 10th of September, a body of 12,000 French and Dutch attacked the British position on the Zuyp, but were repulsed with great loss. On the 13th his royal highness landed at the Helder, and proceeded to Sir Ralph Abercromby's quarters at Schagen. On the 19th the combined English and Russian forces moved, in four columns, upon the enemy's position.

"It is necessary to observe," says the duke in his despatch from Schagen-Burg, under date the 20th of September, "that the country in which we had to act presented in every direction the most formidable obstacles. The enemy upon their left occupied to great advantage the high sand-hills which extend from the sea in front of Petten to the town of Bergen, and were entrenched in three intermediate villages. The country over which the columns under Lieutenant-Generals Dundas and Sir James Pulteney had to move for the attack of the fortified posts of Walmenhuysen, Schoreldam, and the Lange Dyke, is a plain intersected every three or four hundred yards by broad deep wet ditches and canals. The bridges across the only two or three roads which led to these places were destroyed, and abbatis were laid at different distances. Lieutenant-General D'Hermann's column commenced its attack—which was conducted with the greatest spirit and gallantry—at half-past three o'clock in the morning, and by eight had succeeded in so great a degree as to be in possession of Bergen. In the wooded country which surrounds this village, the principal force of the enemy was placed; and the Russian troops, advancing with an intrepidity which overlooked the formidable resistance with which they were to meet, had not retained that order which was necessary to preserve the advantages they had gained; and they were in consequence, after a most vigorous resistance, obliged to retire from Bergen, (where, I am much concerned to state, Lieutenant-Generals D'Hermann and Tchertchekoff were made prisoners, the latter dangerously wounded.)

and fell back upon Schorel, which village they were also forced to abandon, but which was immediately retaken by Major-General Manners' brigade, notwithstanding the very heavy fire of the enemy. Here this brigade was immediately reinforced by two battalions of Russians, which had co-operated with Lieutenant-General Dundas in the attack of Walmenhuysen, by Major-General D'Oyley's brigade of Guards, and by the 35th regiment, under the command of his highness Prince William. The action was renewed by these troops for a considerable time with success; but the entire want of ammunition on the part of the Russians, and the exhausted state of the whole corps engaged in that particular situation, obliged them to retire, which they did in good order, upon Petten and the Zyper Sluys.

"As soon as it was sufficiently light, the attack upon the village of Walmenhuysen, where the enemy was strongly posted with cannon, was made by Lieutenant-General Dundas. Three battalions of Russians—who formed a separate corps, destined to co-operate from Krabbenham in this attack—commanded by Major-General Sedmoratzky, very gallantly stormed the village on its left flank, while at the same time it was entered on the right by the first regiment of Guards. The grenadier battalion of the Guards had been previously detached to march upon Schoreldam, on the left of Lieutenant-General D'Hermann's column, as was the third regiment of Guards, and the second battalion of the fifth regiment, to keep up the communication with that under Lieutenant-General Sir James Pulteney. The remainder of Lieutenant-General Dundas's column, which, after taking possession of Walmenhuysen, had been joined by the first battalion of the fifth regiment, marched against Schoreldam, which place they maintained under a very heavy and galling fire, until the troops engaged on their right had retired at the conclusion of the action.

"The column under Lieutenant-General Sir James Pulteney proceeded to its object of attack at the time appointed, and after overcoming the greatest difficulties, and the most determined opposition, carried by storm the principal post of Ouds Carspel, at the head of the Lange Dyke. This point was defended by the chief force of the Batavian army, under the command of General Daendels. The circumstances, however, which occurred on the right rendered it impossible to profit by this brilliant exploit, which will ever reflect the highest credit on the general officers and troops engaged in it; and made it necessary to withdraw Lieutenant-General Sir James Pulteney's column from the position which he had taken within a short distance of Alkmaar. The same circumstances led to the necessity of recalling the corps under Lieutenant-General Sir Ralph Abercromby, who had proceeded without interruption to Hoorne, of which city he had taken possession, together with its garrison. The whole of the army has therefore re-occupied its former position.

"The well-grounded hopes I had entertained of complete success in this operation,—and which were fully justified by the result of the three, and by the first successes of the fourth attack upon the right,—add to the great disappointment I must naturally feel on this occasion; but the circumstances which have occurred I should have considered of very little general importance, had I not to lament the loss of many brave officers and soldiers, both of his majesty's and the Russian troops, who

have fallen. The gallantry displayed by the troops engaged, the spirit with which they overcame every obstacle which nature and art opposed to them, and the cheerfulness with which they maintained the fatigues of an action which lasted without intermission from half-past three o'clock in the morning until five in the afternoon, are beyond my powers to describe or to extol. Their exertions fully entitle them to the admiration and gratitude of their king and country. Having thus faithfully detailed the events of this first attack, and paid the tribute of regret due to the distinguished merit of those who fell, I have much consolation in being able to state that the efforts which have been made, although not crowned with immediate success, so far from militating against the general object of the campaign, promise to be highly useful to our future operations. The capture of sixty officers and upwards of 3000 men, and the destruction of sixteen pieces of cannon, with large supplies of ammunition, which the intersected nature of the country did not admit of being withdrawn, are convincing proofs that the loss of the enemy in the field has been far superior to our own; and in addition to this it is material to state that nearly 15,000 of the allied troops had unavoidably no share in this action."

This despatch could scarcely be regarded as satisfactory; but on the 2d of October, a general attack was made upon the enemy's line, with better success, and on the 3d the British and Russian forces occupied the position of the Lange Dyke, Alkmaar, and Egmont. "My attention," says the duke in a despatch of the 4th of October, "is seriously engaged in making the arrangements which are necessary for occupying a forward position in front of Beverwyck and Wyk-op-Zee, to which line the enemy has retreated. I entertain no doubt that the extent of country which will now be under the protection of the allied army, and rescued from French tyranny, will afford an opportunity to its loyal inhabitants of declaring themselves. The town of Alkmaar, which is the seat of the states of North Holland, has opened its gates to our troops, and a considerable number of Dutch troops have come over to the Prince of Orange's standard."

On the 6th, a severe action took place which terminated rather favourably for the duke; but on the following day the enemy received a strong reinforcement, and being in possession of an almost impregnable position, it was deemed expedient by the English commander to fall back. On the 20th of October, his royal highness transmitted the following despatch to the secretary at war:—

"HEAD-QUARTERS, SCHAGEN-BURG, Oct. 20.

"SIR,—In my late communications I have represented to you the circumstances under which I found it expedient to withdraw the army from its forward position in front of Alkmaar, within that which it at present occupies, and which I trust will have appeared to his majesty sufficient to warrant the measure. The season of the year, which has already assumed here the aspect of winter, gave me, from day to day, additional reason to apprehend that any attempt towards a prosecution of the campaign in this country could not be attended with decisive advantages, whilst the impossibility of covering the troops in the narrow district of the country in our possession during the winter, and the precarious state of supplies to be expected in that season, added to the

conviction I felt, that the most advisable measure to be pursued was to remove with the army to England,—an operation which, although it might have exposed the army to some loss in its execution, I judged in my mind preferable to any other which could be adopted. Under this impression, and considering that serious loss might ensue from delay, I have been induced to conclude an armistice, in conjunction with Vice-admiral-Mitchell, with General Brune, commanding the French and Batavian armies, of which the conditions are enclosed, and which, although they provide for delivering up a large number of prisoners of war, now in our hands, yet I trust will not be thought by his majesty an inadequate compensation for many valuable lives which must have been lost, after the object which has hitherto directed them no longer promised success; and when the only means which presented themselves of insuring a secure retreat were those of resorting to the destructive measure of inundation from the sea, which, as it would have involved the inhabitants in the northern parts of this province in ruin for a series of years, must have been highly repugnant to the feelings as well as contrary to the character and practice of the British nation. I rest confident, that the motives which I have here detailed will excuse me to his majesty for having acted without waiting for previous instructions from home, and that I shall have the satisfaction of knowing that my conduct in this respect has met with his majesty's gracious approbation. I am, &c.

(Signed)

FREDERICK."

The principal articles in the accompanying document were: That the mounted batteries taken possession of at the Helder, or at other positions within the line, now occupied by the combined English and Russian army, shall be restored in the state in which they were taken, or (in case of improvement) in their present state, and all the Dutch artillery taken therein shall be preserved. That the combined English and Russian army shall embark as soon as possible, and shall evacuate the territory, coasts, islands, and internal navigation of the Dutch republic, by the 30th of November, 1799, without committing any devastation, by inundations, cutting the dykes, or otherwise injuring the sources of navigation. That eight thousand prisoners of war, French and Batavians, taken before the present campaign, and now detained in England, shall be restored without conditions to their respective countries. So ended this inglorious campaign, in which the duke gained no laurels as a soldier, though he won for himself the higher praise of humanity. It was undoubtedly in his power to have made good his position for an indefinite length of time, by cutting the dams and devastating the surrounding country; but such a mode of warfare could only have served to exasperate the minds of the Dutch, and cement their alliance with France.

The duke's reception in England was sufficiently cool, and for some years his name was seldom brought before the public. The affair of Mrs Anne Clarke unfortunately brought him again into notice under circumstances little calculated to soften the national feeling towards him. On the 28th of January, 1809, Colonel Wardle, member for Oakhampton, in a very able speech, moved for the appointment of a committee to inquire into the conduct of the commander-in-chief with

regard to promotion and exchanges in the army. In the course of his speech, the honourable member called the attention of the house to a splendid establishment in Gloucester-place, at the head of which was a lady of the name of Clarke, who lived under 'the protection' of the duke of York. To her influence he ascribed the "system of corruption that had so long prevailed in the military department of the government." He descanted upon the 'military negotiations' of this woman, and presented the house with a comparative statement of the regulated scale, and Mrs Clarke's scale of prices for commissions; he detailed several extraordinary cases of interference in the affairs of the war office; and concluded by moving the appointment of a committee of inquiry. The motion was not resisted by ministers, and a long investigation took place before a committee of the whole house. At the close of the evidence, on the 22d of February, 1809, the opinion of the general officers, who were members of the house, was asked with respect to the discipline and condition of the army, and whether the system of promotion had not been improved under the administration of the duke of York. Generals Norton and Fitzpatrick, the secretary-at-war, Sir Arthur Wellesley, and General Grosvenor, all answered these questions affirmatively, and pronounced high eulogiums on the character and conduct of his royal highness. During this inquiry, which was continued uninterruptedly for three weeks, Mary Anne Clarke was repeatedly examined at the bar. On the 23d of February the duke addressed the following letter to the house of commons, through the medium of the speaker.

" HORSE GUARDS, *Feb. 23, 1809.*

" SIR,—I have waited with the greatest anxiety until the committee appointed by the house of commons to inquire into my conduct, as commander-in-chief of his majesty's army, had closed its examinations, and I now hope that it will not be deemed improper to address this letter, through you, to the house of commons. I observe with the deepest concern, that, in the course of this inquiry, my name has been coupled with transactions the most criminal and disgraceful, and I must ever regret and lament, that a connection should ever have existed, which has thus exposed my character and honour to public animadversion. With respect to my alleged offences, connected with the discharge of my official duties, I do, in the most solemn manner, upon my honour as a prince, distinctly assert my innocence, not only by denying all corrupt participation in any of the infamous transactions which have appeared in evidence at the bar of the house of commons, or any connivance at their existence, but also the slightest knowledge or suspicion that they existed at all. My consciousness of innocence leads me confidently to hope, that the house of commons will not, upon such evidence as they have heard, adopt any proceeding prejudicial to my honour and character; but, if, on such testimony as has been adduced against me, the house of commons can think my innocence questionable, I claim of their justice, that I shall not be condemned without trial, or be deprived of the benefit and protection which is afforded to every British subject, by those sanctions under which alone evidence is received in the ordinary administration of the law.—I am, Sir, yours,

FREDERICK."

The house having closed its examination, Colonel Wardle moved an address to his majesty, stating that it had been proved to the satisfaction of the house that corrupt practices existed to a very great extent in the different departments of the military administration, and praying that his majesty would be graciously pleased to remove the duke of York from the command of the army. A keen debate ensued, and was maintained for six days. On the 17th of March, the chancellor of the exchequer brought forward a resolution modified in these terms:—"That this house having appointed a committee to investigate the conduct of the duke of York, as commander-in-chief, and having carefully considered the evidence which came before the said committee, and finding that personal corruption, and connivance at corruption, have been imputed to his said royal highness, find it expedient to pronounce a distinct opinion upon the said imputation, and are accordingly of opinion that it is wholly without foundation." This motion was carried by 278 against 196. Previously to the division it was generally understood that the duke had come to the determination to resign his office of commander-in-chief; and on the 20th the chancellor of the exchequer informed the house that his royal highness, having obtained a complete acquittal of the charges, was desirous of giving way to that public sentiment which, however ill-founded, they had unfortunately drawn down upon him; that, under these circumstances, he had tendered to his majesty his resignation of the office of commander-in-chief, which the king had been graciously pleased to accept. General Sir David Dundas was appointed his successor; and one of the first consequences of the investigation was the enactment of a law declaring the brokerage of offices, either in the army, the church, or the state, to be a crime highly penal.

It is said that these extraordinary investigations originated in the enmity of a person in obscure life, named M'Callum, who, conceiving himself to have been injured by the duke, adopted this method of traducing his character, and by his indefatigable diligence and great acuteness, succeeded in bringing together that evidence on which Colonel Wardle grounded his celebrated motion. The woman Clarke, who bore so conspicuous a part in the inquiry, was originally the daughter of a journeyman-printer, and married a journeyman-mason in early life, to whom she bore four children, before she entered upon the infamous line of life in which she afterwards procured such disgusting notoriety.

One of the earliest acts of the prince-regent was the reappointment of his brother as commander-in-chief, in 1812. From this period to the day of his death, the duke's official conduct was not only unimpeachable, but in many respects praiseworthy. He gave dissatisfaction, however, to the nation, by his accepting an allowance of £10,000 per annum as *custos* of the king's person, after the death of Queen Charlotte in 1818. His duchess, from whom he had long been living separated, died on the 6th of August, 1820.

One of the latest and also one of the most remarkable acts of the duke's public life, was his celebrated speech against Catholic emancipation, in the house of lords, on the evening of the 25th of April, 1826. It was as follows:—"My Lords, I present a petition to your lordships, praying that further concessions may not be made to the Roman catho-

lies. I so seldom address the house, that I shall probably take no part in the debate upon the relief bill. Allow me now, therefore, to declare my sentiments upon this most important matter. My lords, twenty-five years have now passed since measures of this nature were first contemplated, but professedly with ample securities for the established church: securities admitted and avowed to be necessary. What the effect of the proposal of such measures was, at that day, your lordships know. The fear that the sovereign might be called upon to differ from his parliament, in the discharge of his duty, to adhere to his coronation oath—the contract which he had made at the altar of God—led to affliction, and to the temporary dismissal of the best, the honestest, and the wisest minister the crown ever had. That minister always held out that there must be sufficient securities for the protestant establishment,—for the maintenance of those principles which placed the sovereign upon the throne,—and that, with such securities what ought to be satisfactory to the Roman catholics, might safely be granted. What is the case now, my lords? You are to grant all that can be asked, and without any satisfactory securities. I am a friend to complete toleration; but political power and toleration are perfectly different. I have opposed the concession of political power from the first moment in which it was proposed. I have so acted throughout, under a conviction, whenever I have been called upon to act, that I was bound so to act; I shall continue to oppose such concession to the utmost of my power. The church of England, my lords, is in connexion with the crown. The Roman catholics will not allow the crown or the parliament to interfere with their church: are they, nevertheless, to legislate for the protestant church of England? My lords, allow me to call your attention to what must be the state of the king upon the throne (here he read the coronation oath :) the dread of being called upon—of having it proposed to him, to act contrary to his understanding of that oath, led, or naturally contributed to his late majesty's sufferings, in the last ten years of his life. My lords, if you have taken oaths, and differ about their meaning, those who think the proposed measures contrary to their oaths, are overcome by a majority. They do their duty,—they act according to their oaths,—the measure is carried, without their violating their contract with God. But recollect it is not so with the king. He has a right, if he is convinced that it is his duty, to refuse his assent when the measure is proposed to him. His refusal is a constitutional bar to the measure. His consent, if given contrary to his understanding of his oath, is that for which he must ever be responsible. My lords, I know my duty, in this place, too well to state, what any other person may or may not feel, with respect to these measures;—what any other person may or may not propose to do, or to forbear doing. I speak for myself only—for myself only I declare an opinion and determination. But I apprehend I may, in this place, be allowed to call for your attention to what may be the state of the sovereign, to whom measures may be proposed, who is not to consider what oath might have been administered to him, and taken by him, but who has taken an oath, according to which, and by which, and to what may be his conviction as to the obligation which that oath has created, he must conceive himself bound to act, in consenting or withholding consent. My own opinions are well known: they have been carefully formed, and

I cannot change them. I shall continue to act conformably to them, in whatever circumstances and in whatever station I may be placed, so help me God!"

This speech, whatever might be thought of its reasoning, coming from one who stood so near to the throne as the duke, created a great sensation in the country. By the opponents of the proposed measure of relief, the duke was loaded with eulogy, and his oration printed in letters of gold, and hung up in their houses.

The duke's constitution first betrayed symptoms of breaking-up in the summer of 1826, and rapidly gave way under a confirmed dropsical affection. On the 19th of August he was pronounced in serious danger, and shortly afterwards had the sacrament administered to him by the bishop of London. He expired on the 5th of January, 1827.

Lord George Gordon.

BORN A. D. 1750.—DIED A. D. 1793.

THIS nobleman, the third son of the duke of Gordon, was born on the 19th of December, 1750. At an early age he entered the navy, but quitted the service during the American war in consequence of some real or imaginary injury from the admiralty.

He now resolved to devote himself to political life, and obtaining a seat for the borough of Ludgershall, he commenced a very declamatory if not brilliant career in the house of commons. He does not appear to have had any very settled principles; but signalized himself by his briskness in debate, and the freedom with which he attacked all parties. His repeated tirades against the Roman Catholics recommended him to the notice of the Protestant association, as it called itself; and in the disgraceful riots of 1780 he identified himself with the mob by appearing at their head when they took up their petition against the Catholic relief bill to the house of commons, and addressing them in terms well-calculated to inflame their passions and bigotry. For his conduct on this occasion he was committed to the Tower, and afterwards brought to trial in the court of King's bench, but obtained a verdict of acquittal chiefly through the powerful eloquence of Erskine.

In 1786 he was again called into King's bench, on an information for having written and published a pamphlet, entitled, 'A petition to Lord George Gordon from the prisoners in Newgate praying for his interference, and that he would secure their liberties, by preventing them from being sent to Botany Bay.' This strange performance appeared to be a farrago of vague reasoning and absurd reference, interlarded with a great number of scripture phrases. The passage quoted in the information was to the following purpose: "At a time when the nations of the earth endeavour wholly to follow the laws of God, it is no wonder that we, labouring under our severe sentences, should cry out from our dungeons and ask redress. Some of us are about to suffer execution without righteousness, and others to be sent off to a barbarous country. The records of justice have been falsified, and the laws profanely altered by men like ourselves. The bloody laws against us have been enforced under a nominal administration, by mere whitened

walls, men who possess only the show of justice, and who have condemned us to death contrary to law," &c. &c. The attorney-general opened the prosecution. His lordship conducted his defence himself. A petty fraud, he said, committed in his own family, had first drawn his attention to the laws against felony, when he found that it constituted a capital crime, though the sum taken was no more than eighteenpence. He then entered into a history of our criminal law, from the time of Athelstan, for the purpose of proving that code in its present state to be by much too sanguinary. This, he said, was a subject which struck his heart. He had communicated his ideas to Lord Mansfield, and to the Recorder, who had admitted their propriety, and to Judge Gould, who had desired him to put his thoughts on paper. This was all he had done in the present instance. His idea was only to enlarge the powers of the judges; though wicked lawyers had attributed to him another intention; and he assured the court, that if he had time to send for his books, he could show them that every word of his pamphlet was actually in the Bible! He complained very much of those vexatious prosecutions which were instituted against him. He quoted Blackstone's Commentaries, book iv. cap. 23, who says, "that informations filed *ex officio*, by the attorney-general, are proper only for such enormous misdemeanors as peculiarly tend to disturb or endanger the king's government, and in the punishment or prevention of which a moment's delay would be fatal." This, he said, had by no means appeared in his case, as one of the informations against him had been pending for ten, and the other for six months. This extraordinary mode was therefore a grievance on him, which was not justified, as it appeared, by any pressing necessity. He exhorted Judge Buller not to lose the present opportunity of instructing the jury on the disputed point, whether they were to judge of law as well as of fact. He then complained that spies had been set over him for several months; and concluded with repeating his declaration, that his object had been reformation, not tumult. The jury without hesitation returned their verdict, guilty.

A second information was then read, which stated, as libellous and seditious, two paragraphs which appeared in the Public Advertiser, relating the particulars of a visit paid by Count Cagliostro, accompanied by Lord George Gordon, to Monsieur Barthelemy, the French *chargé des affaires*, enlarging on the merits and sufferings of Count Cagliostro, and concluding with some severe reflections on the French queen as the leader of a faction, and on Comte D'Adhemar, the French ambassador, and Monsieur Barthelemy, as the insidious agents of the queen and her party. The attorney-general opened the case, by mentioning how necessary it was that all foreigners, particularly those in an official situation, should be protected equally in their property and character. The honour of the nation, he remarked, was concerned in this proceeding. If it was not effectual, no foreigner of distinction would visit a country where he was exposed without resource to indiscriminate and unmerited censures on his private conduct and character. The present publication, he observed, bore with it such a palpable tendency to affect in a dangerous degree the amity existing between the two nations, that the French ambassador had of himself taken up the business, when it was properly determined by his ma-

jesty's servants that it should be punished by an official prosecution. Lord George Gordon then entered on his defence, if such it could be called, as he contented himself with re-asserting and justifying every thing which he had written. There did, he said, exist a faction in Paris guided by the queen, and the Comte Cagliostro was actually persecuted for his adherence to the Cardinal de Rohan. Comte D'Adhemar, he proceeded to say, was a low man of no family, but yet possessed of some cleverness; in short, said his lordship, whatever Jenkinson is in England, Comte D'Adhemar is in France. (This allusion to Lord Hawkesbury created universal laughter.) The character of the French queen, he said, was as notorious as that of the empress of Russia. He was proceeding in this strain, until the court was again compelled to interfere. After a short charge from the bench, the jury instantly returned their verdict, guilty.

His lordship endeavoured to evade sentence by retiring to Holland, but he was sent back from that country to England, and apprehended at Liverpool while suffering under the initiatory rite of Judaism, which religion his lordship had seen proper to embrace. On being brought up to the bar of the court he was sentenced to three years' imprisonment in Newgate for the first libel; and to two years further, after the expiration of that time, for the second offence; also to pay a fine of £500, and find sureties for his good behaviour for the term of fourteen years. These sentences were perhaps unnecessarily severe; as his lordship's intellects were evidently impaired at the time, and he had ceased to be a formidable character as a public leader. They were however carried into execution, and his lordship was only relieved from imprisonment by the hand of death. He died in Newgate prison, after a delirious fever, on the 1st of November, 1793.

John Hely Hutchinson.

BORN A. D. 1715.—DIED A. D. 1794.

THIS extraordinary character was a native of Ireland, and educated at the university of Dublin. In 1748 he was called to the Irish bar, and soon obtained a silk-gown, having assumed a leading place from his first appearance amongst his brethren of the long robe. He materially increased his influence by marrying a rich heiress, whose name of Hutchinson he added to his own. In the Irish parliament he distinguished himself as the great antagonist of the eloquent and patriotic Flood.

In 1774 he was appointed secretary of state for Ireland, and provost of Trinity college, Dublin. From this period until his death in 1794, his career was marked by unquestionable talent, but an unblushing and unbounded rapacity for office and emolument. At a time when he was already in possession of several lucrative posts, he applied for some further emoluments to Lord Townshend, who jestingly told him that he had nothing to offer him, but a majority of dragoons; which the secretary, it is said, unblushingly accepted; and had its duties performed by a deputy, to whom he allowed such a remuneration as left a considerable surplus out of the pay. On his first attendance at a levee, in

England, the king asked Lord North who he was. "That is your majesty's principal secretary of state for Ireland," replied the witty premier, "a man, on whom if your majesty was pleased to bestow the united kingdom, would ask for the Isle of Man as a potato-garden."

A contemporary says of Mr Hutchinson: "He was a leading man in the senate, and commanded attention whenever he spoke. He had the clearest head that ever conceived, and the sweetest tongue that ever uttered the suggestions of wisdom: but he had his faults, and was always deemed what is understood by the world, a rank courtier. When he was appointed provost of the university of Dublin, which situation, since the reign of Elizabeth, who founded the college, was always filled by an unmarried man, the Celibacy of Fellows, who were interdicted from conjugal rites, rose up in arms against him. Some of the best satirical writings, in prose and verse, that the Irish ever read, made their appearance on this occasion, in the daily prints, and were afterwards published by the title of 'Pranceriania,' Mr Hutchinson for many antecedent years bearing the name of Prancer. The conflict in the university was so great after he became provost, that he procured a decree permitting the fellows to marry. This, however, did not answer; a most formidable party was raised against him. The press teemed with pasquinades, and even the sizars of the house insulted him.

"His power and his wealth gained him many adherents, and he stemmed the torrent of opposition with resolution and with success, as to strength of party; but on an examination for a fellowship, where he was to pass the first opinion, in respect to the answer given by one of the candidates to a question, he unfortunately said *Bene*, when all the senior fellows, who pronounced their decision afterwards, said *Non omnino*. In the university, as a man of literature, he was never esteemed; as a lawyer, an orator, and a good companion, he ranked highly in the estimation of his friends and the public.

"He was a man of high spirit and of undoubted courage, if setting no value upon life merits that honourable appellation. Although vested with an authority to superintend the education of the rising generation, and acting as provost, who ought to be a pattern of morality and virtue, he accepted of a challenge from a Mr Doyle, and fought him at a place called Summer Hill, a part of the suburbs of Dublin. No mischief ensued. Doyle was near-sighted, and the provost had a strong fit of the gout. The public papers, at this time, teemed with the most bitter invectives against Mr Hutchinson; and perhaps, in the annals of diurnal publications, even Junius not accepted, satire in its most pointed, classical, and beautiful dress, never came forward in greater perfection. The consequence of this was a pamphlet published by the provost, in which he defended his conduct; but this only served as food for his enemies. The pamphlet was turned grammatically into ridicule by an anonymous writer, under the signature of *Stultifex Academicus*, supposed to be Mr Malone the Shakspeare commentator, and a most humorous and excellent composition it was.

"The partizans of the provost, finding that this one particular daily paper, the 'Hibernian Journal,' then printed by a Mr Mills, was the particular vehicle of what militated against their patron, formed a plan, in which they succeeded, of forcibly taking this man from his house, and conveying him, at six o'clock in a winter's evening, to the univer-

sity, in defiance of the police. This they did; and putting him into the trough under the college pump, gave him the discipline of what they called a-ducking. The young agents in this business were soon discovered. Some of them fled, but of those that remained was Mr Brown, now a member in the Irish parliament, who was tried and convicted as one of the most active persons on the occasion; and received judgment accordingly.

“Soon after Mr Hutchinson obtained the situation of provost, he quarrelled with the then attorney-general, Mr Tisdal, a gentleman about seventy years of age, and sent him a challenge. Mr Tisdal replied by moving for an information against Mr Hutchinson, in the court of King’s bench, and a rule *nisi* was granted. Some of the ablest men at the bar offered their services to the attorney-general on this occasion, and the pleadings began. The provost undertook his own defence, and speaking for three days successively, when the term ended, the further consideration was adjourned to the following term, which was that after the long vacation. This business, however, never came on again, the attorney-general dying within the time, and the proceedings of course finally stopping.

“He was extremely severe on his enemies in the university; and having a particular dislike to a Mr Shewbridge, one of the then junior fellows, he absolutely refused him leave of absence to go into the country for the benefit of his health. The consequence of this (at least the scholars of the university reported it so) was, that in a short time after Mr Shewbridge died, and the college was in an uproar on the occasion. The provost gave orders that the great bell should not toll, and that the corpse should be privately interred at 6 o’clock in the morning, in the Fellows’ burial-ground. The students immediately posted up placards, insisting that the great bell should toll, and that the funeral should be by torch-light, at night; and they carried their point. Almost every student in the university attended the corpse to the grave, in scarfs and hat-bands, at their own expense: and when the funeral oration was pronounced, one spirit of revenge, in the manner of electricity, ran through them all; and they flew like lightning to the provost’s dwelling-house, bursting open his doors, and smashing to pieces all that obstructed their fury. Fortunately the provost had intelligence of this intended outrage, and he and his family had removed, in consequence, to his country-seat, about four miles from the metropolis, some hours antecedent to this business. It was several weeks before the tumult entirely subsided and the young gentlemen returned to their studies; but the fate of Shewbridge rankled in their bosoms for many years afterwards, although the faculty declared that this gentleman could not have survived, whether he went to the country or not, his disorder being of that nature which set all possibility of prolonging life at defiance.

“Mr Hutchinson was at one and the same time a privy-councillor; reversionary secretary of state; major of the 4th regiment of horse; provost of Trinity college, Dublin; and searcher, packer, and gauger of the port of Strangford!”

Edmund Burke.

BORN A. D. 1730.—DIED A. D. 1797.

EDMUND BURKE was a native of Ireland. His father was an attorney first in Limerick and afterwards in Dublin. Edmund, his second son, was born in the Irish capital on the 1st of January, 1730. After receiving some preliminary education in his own vicinage, he was sent to Ballytore, and placed under the tuition of Abraham Shackleton, a Quaker of considerable celebrity. At this respectable school several years of his life were spent; and the attachment of the master, and the gratitude of the pupil, reflect honour on both. The former lived to see his scholar attain a considerable degree of reputation; and the latter regularly spent a portion of his annual visit to Ireland at Ballytore. From this provincial seminary, Edmund was sent to the university of Dublin. Here, however, he does not appear to have been very highly distinguished either for application or talents. He is said, however, to have been fond of logic and metaphysics; and to have early planned a refutation of the systems of Berkeley and Hume. He indeed is said to have been a candidate in early life for the professorship of logic at the university of Glasgow. The immediate reason of his failure is not known; his youth, and the obscurity of his name and attainments, were such as to afford him no rational prospect of success.¹

After this, he repaired to the English metropolis, and enrolled his name as a student in the Inner Temple. It appears from his speeches, his writings, and his conversation, that he must have studied the grand outline of our municipal jurisprudence with particular attention; but it may be doubted whether he ever entered into the minuter and technical branches of the profession. The state of his finances called for immediate supplies, and instead of perusing the pages of Bracton, Flca, Littleton, and Coke, he was obliged to write essays, letters, and paragraphs, for the periodical publications of the day. But if these pursuits turned his attention from graver studies, they also conferred a facility of composition, and a command of style and of language, which proved eminently serviceable to him in his future life. Though Mr Burke, by the death of his elder brother, was to have succeeded to a very comfortable patrimony, yet, as his father was living, and had other children, it could not be supposed that his allowance was very ample. His first production we cannot exactly state; we have been informed that it was a poem, and that it was unsuccessful. This may seem paradoxical to some, considering the extent and variety of his talents, and above all the copious imagery with which his subsequent works and speeches abound; but history, and a closer observation of mankind, will furnish us with many cases in point. His first known publication was a work of much greater consequence, not only when we consider it as a work of fancy, but as an imitation of a first-rate original,—we allude to the

¹ It has been said that he quitted college without a degree: this, however, is contradicted by his biographer, Prior, who states that he commenced A. B. in February, 1747-8, and proceeded A. M. in 1751.

well-known pamphlet, entitled, 'A Vindication of Natural Society,' for some time supposed to be a posthumous work of Henry Lord Bolingbroke. To assume the style and character of such a writer, who had passed through all the high gradations of official knowledge for near half-a-century,—a fine scholar,—a most ready and eloquent speaker, and the most nervous writer of his time,—was perhaps one of the boldest attempts ever undertaken, particularly when it is considered by whom. By a young man, a stranger to the manners, habits, and college connexions of the literati of this country; who could have no near view of the great character he imitated, and whose time of life would not permit of those long and gradual experiments by which excellence of any kind is to be obtained; but great and extraordinary minds have a consciousness of their own strength, which is their best and truest adviser; and Burke felt himself equal to the task. When this publication first appeared, almost every body received it as a posthumous work of Lord Bolingbroke; and so far from being looked upon as one of those hasty sketches of his youth, or the gleanings of old age, it was praised up to the standard of his best writing. The critics knew the turn of his periods, his style, his phrases, and above all, the matchless dexterity of his metaphysical pen. Charles Macklin, with the pamphlet in his hand, used frequently to exclaim at the Grecian Coffee-house, (where he gave a kind of literary law to the young templars at that time,) "Sir, this must be Harry Bolingbroke; I know him by his cloven foot!" Even the earl of Chesterfield, who so intimately knew the noble lord, and has drawn such a masterly portrait of him in his letters, confessed that he was for some time deceived on this point; and a still better judge, Bishop Warburton, was at first so much deceived as to exclaim to a friend, "You see, Sir, the fellow's principles; they now come out in a full blaze." His 'Essay on the Sublime and Beautiful' attracted much notice, and acquired him considerable celebrity as a man of letters. It excited a desire in Sir Joshua Reynolds—already at the head of his profession—to become acquainted with the author, and a friendship ensued which continued uninterrupted during the life of the great painter, and was unequivocally testified by a handsome bequest in his will. Dr Johnson also sought and obtained acquaintance with him, and he now became the constant frequenter of two clubs composed of some of the most celebrated men of that day. He must at this early period have managed to acquire a prodigious amount of multifarious knowledge, for Johnson himself used to say: "Take up whatever topic you will, Burke is ready to meet you. If he were to go into a stable, and talk to the ostlers for a short time, they would venerate him as the wisest of human beings. No person of sense ever met him under a gateway to avoid a shower, who did not go away convinced that he was the first man in England."

A literary work on a new plan, first suggested in 1750, and by some attributed to the Dodsleys, and by others to Mr Burke, was for some time a considerable source of emolument to him. This was the 'Annual Register,' a publication which soon obtained considerable celebrity, and of which Burke had the superintendance for several years. He was at length called off from his literary labours by avocations of a far different kind. In 1761 a gentleman—afterwards well-known by the cognomen of 'Single-speech Hamilton'—having been appointed se-

cretary to the lord-lieutenant of Ireland, invited his friend Burke to accompany him thither. This offer he readily complied with, and although he appeared in no public station, yet he was rewarded with a pension of £300 per annum, which he soon after threw up on quarrelling with Hamilton. On his return to England he again betook himself to literary composition. A series of Essays written by him in a newspaper,² which at one time obtained great celebrity, attracted the notice of the marquess of Rockingham, who, on coming into office, appointed Burke his private secretary. As it was now necessary he should have a seat in parliament, Lord Verney got him returned for Wendover in 1765. He was already provided with all the necessary talents for a speaker in the house, and was only deficient in the forms of business. He had acquired celebrity as a debater at 'The Robinhood' before he attempted to speak in the British senate; and vanquished an eloquent baker ere he began to cope with the great orators of the nation.

Holding a confidential place under the Rockingham administration, he of course supported all its measures. A former ministry, anxious to increase its influence by means of increased imposts, had conceived the idea of taxing America through the medium of a parliament in which she was not represented. Having attempted to carry this into effect by means of the famous 'Stamp act,' the Americans, alarmed at what they conceived to be a flagrant violation of every principle of the English constitution, made such a spirited resistance to the measure that it was abandoned, and the Rockingham party readily consented to the repeal. After a remarkably brief existence, the Rockingham party retired from office: on which occasion Burke drew up a sort of manifesto, entitled, 'A Short Account of a late Short Administration.' About this time he purchased a villa near Beaconsfield, for which he gave a sum exceeding, it is supposed, £20,000. How he acquired so large a sum does not appear. While one set of his biographers assert that the money in question was nominally a loan, but in reality a gift, from his munificent friend, Lord Rockingham, it is contended by others that a part only of the amount was advanced by his patron, a considerable portion of it having been received under the wills of his father and elder brother. His old friend Johnson frequently visited him at Beaconsfield; and one day, after wandering over the grounds for some time, exclaimed in an animated manner, "Non equidem invideo, miror magis!" Burke was hostile to the expulsion of Wilkes,—an act which the house of commons afterwards rescinded from its records. On the application of the Dissenters for relief, he took up their cause, and expressed his resentment in very animated terms against that misguided policy which permits all those not within the pale of the establishment to enjoy liberty less by right than by connivance. But perhaps the noblest part of his political conduct consisted in his steady and uniform advocacy of the rights of the colonists, and opposition to the American war, and his marked and declared hostility to the abettors of it. His speech against the Boston Port-bill was one of the noblest specimens of eloquence ever listened to in the British senate; and on the 19th of April, 1774, on a motion for the repeal of the tea duty, he discovered

² The Public Advertiser.

such talents, that an old and respectable member exclaimed, "Good God! what a man is this!—How could he acquire such transcendent powers?" One of Burke's chief opponents in this memorable debate was Wedderburne, who had left the opposition, and accepted the place of solicitor-general; but this desertion was amply compensated by the accession of a youthful orator, who, spurning the trammels with which he had hitherto been surrounded and beset, started indignant from the treasury-bench, and ranged himself on the side of his country. Although Fox and Burke had often broken a lance with each other in the "wordy war," from opposite sides of the house, they now united in the most cordial bonds of friendship, and it had been happy, perhaps, for their country, and for themselves, if names which so long shared the joint applause of their fellow-citizens, had glided down the stream of time together.

On the dissolution of a parliament which had inflicted so many miseries on its country, Burke, who had hitherto represented Wendover, as the nominee of Lord Verney, was elected for Malton, by the appointment of the marquess of Rockingham. The city of Bristol soon afterwards did itself the honour to return him. The earl of Chatham had failed, notwithstanding his reputation for wisdom, in an attempt to adjust the troubles of the colonies by means of a conciliatory bill: but this circumstance, which would have appalled an inferior man, did not discourage the member for Bristol from a similar attempt in another place. On the 22d of March, 1775, he brought forward his thirteen celebrated propositions, which were intended to close the breach, and heal all the differences between the mother-country and her colonies. He began by asserting, that the plan about to be submitted to the consideration of the house, was founded on the sure and solid basis of experience; for neither the chimeras of imagination, abstract ideas of right, nor general theories of government, ought to be attended to on such an occasion as this. Governments, he observed, to be practicable and beneficial, should be adapted to the feelings, habits, and opinions of the governed, for without this every scheme of rule would prove ineffectual, and even dangerous, as despotism itself must bend to circumstances and situations. Disclaiming, therefore, every consideration of right, he wished to contemplate the whole merely as an object of policy. Without inquiring whether they had a right to render their people miserable, he would ask whether it was not their interest to make them happy? And instead of arguing with the lawyers what they could do, he deemed it more consonant to the principles of reason, humanity, and justice, to consult rather what they ought to do in an emergency like the present. After observing that the colonies, as they had hitherto been governed, were living monuments of the wisdom of our ancestors, he took a view of their origin and progress, their ardent love of liberty, the astonishing growth of their population, the rapid increase of their commerce, fisheries, and agriculture. He then pointed out the manner in which Wales, and the counties palatine of Chester and Durham had been admitted into "an interest in the constitution;" and endeavoured to deduce from these facts, that it had always been the grand principle of British policy to secure the attachment of all parts of the empire by similar means. To this good old principle he therefore wished to recur; he took the doctrine, language,

and mode of reasoning contained in former acts of parliament as his models, and on these he meant to establish the equity and justice of a taxation for America, by grant and not by imposition,—to mark the legal competency of the colonial assemblies for the support of their government in peace, and for public aids in times of war,—to acknowledge that this legal competency has had a dutiful and beneficial exercise, and that experience has shown the benefit of their grants, and the futility of parliamentary taxation, as a method of supply. His plan on this occasion, embraced not only an immediate conciliation; by a repeal of the late coercive acts, but also the creation of an independent judicature, and the regulation of the courts of admiralty. The whole however was quashed by a large majority³ on the side of the minister, who moved the previous question, and thus got rid of the subject.

Shortly before this Mr Burke's political character had been thus sketched by a contemporary: "We can have no doubt that he has enlisted himself a party-man,—perhaps more from conviction than his accidental introduction into public life. Be this as it may, he has acquitted himself as a most able, faithful, steady, and inflexible partizan. He has whitewashed the whigs, and absolved them of all their political transgressions since the accession of the house of Brunswick. He has not affirmed, in express terms, that the law for repealing the triennial act of William III., and for establishing septennial parliaments, was a wise measure; or supposing it to be proper then, that it should have been continued after the cause for which it was enacted ceased to exist; no, he tells you, in his new whig creed,⁴ that wise and able men have been of opinion, the inconveniences arising from short parliaments would more than counterbalance the advantages; and supported it with the following cogent reason within his own knowledge. I have observed—says he—that the members are always most independent in the middle of a session, the approaching election always rendering them more pliable and acquiescent to the prayers or mandates of the minister. We shall not trace out this gentleman's principles, and defence of the whigs, further than to observe, he has no objections to placemen, officers naval and military, in the house of commons, but he does not approve of pensioners. In short, he liked the government of the whigs very well, and Lord Rockingham's particular administration best of all. On the whole, it is sufficient to observe, that Mr Burke is the oracle of the party he so ably defends; that he is a zealous and an able advocate for the political and commercial rights of America,—a warm defender of the propriety of the repeal of the Stamp act,—and a professed opposer of every measure carried into execution respecting that country, but such as originated under the administration of his noble patron.

"No man in this country is so well-qualified, by nature and education, to be minister of the house of commons. Mr Burke's powers of

³ The numbers were, for the previous question	270
Against it	78

Majority for rejecting the first proposition . 192

The other propositions were put merely *pro forma*; the fate of the first having decided all the rest.

⁴ 'Thoughts on the National Discontents.'

persuasion would on some particular occasions be irresistible, if not counteracted or resisted by the weight and solidity of the precious metals. His sources of knowledge are inexhaustible and extensive; and his materials drawn forth with great judgment. His memory is faithful, and his mind teems with the most luxuriant imagery, clothed in the most elegant language, and apt and happy mode of expression. His details often are interesting and important, but always correct. His arguments are plausible, generally logical, replete with information, and never supported upon designed misrepresentation, or wild random assertions, to answer the temporary purposes of debate. His facts are seldom assumed; and when they are, he ingeniously founds them on certain current opinions, perhaps controverted, but known however to exist. This candour at once renders him the fairest adversary, and stamps his speeches with a certain air of credit, veracity, and authority seldom due to any of his contemporaries in either house of parliament. His knowledge of parliamentary business is so vast and multifarious, that there is no subject that comes under discussion, whether politics, finances, commerce, manufactures, internal police, &c. with all their divisions and subdivisions, which he does not treat in so masterly and technical a manner, as to induce such as hear him to imagine he had dedicated a considerable portion of his life to the investigation of that particular subject. Mr Burke is perhaps not so logical, convincing, judicious, and correct, as Lord Camden; nor so persuasive, graceful, and fascinating a speaker as Lord Mansfield; but in the laboured detail of office,—in connecting measures with the motives which brought them into existence,—in explanatory observations,—and in pursuing measures to the probable consequences arising from experience, and supported by rational deduction,—he has most undoubtedly no equal. If the impracticability of the American war, the interference of foreign powers, or any other accidental circumstance either within or without should happen, so as to render it absolutely necessary to change the system which has prevailed at St James's since the commencement of the present reign, it is very probable this gentleman might succeed to the chancellorship of the exchequer, and that for two reasons; because we think him the most capable man in England for the office, the present chancellor not excepted; and because—unless in the single instance of America and a double cabinet—the creed of the modern tories and modern whigs seem only to differ in name: nor can we discover a tittle in Mr Burke's political opinions—his personal attachment to Lord Rockingham only excepted—which would present a single obstacle to his accepting the chancellorship of the exchequer under any minister, who would consent to transfer the power of the junto to the responsible cabinet."

Mr Burke and the Rockingham party did every thing in their power to avert the fatal catastrophe which they saw was prepared for this country. At length, perceiving all their endeavours useless, they determined to cede from parliament. As this was a step equally novel and delicate, it was resolved that it should be accompanied by a declaration to the throne, showing the grounds of their conduct. A respectable party of the opposition, however, thought otherwise; for they remained at their posts, and contributed not a little to soften the rigour of many of the public proceedings; they refused, therefore, to join in

this public act of defiance, and it was not presented to the king, as had been originally intended. That his labours, however, might not be lost to the public, Burke contrived to infuse similar sentiments into a letter addressed to the sheriffs of Bristol, April 3d, 1777, which was published by them soon after; and no sooner was a message delivered from the throne, communicating a debt on the civil list of £618,340, and expressing a wish for its discharge, than the Rockingham party appeared once more within the walls of St Stephen's chapel.

Mr Burke at this period seems to have been actuated by more than common indignation; his speech was an admirable one. "The ministry have plunged us," said he, "into a dreadful war, which has already cost the nation twenty millions of money; they have severed the empire,—destroyed our commerce,—sank the revenue,—and given a mortal blow to public credit; we have lost thirteen flourishing and growing provinces, some of which were already in point of importance, if not of power, nearly equal to ancient kingdoms; and we are now engaged in a destructive and hopeless attempt to recover by force what our folly and violence have lost. Is this then a season—when we shall be under the necessity of taxing every gentleman's house in England, even to the smallest domestic accommodation, and to accumulate burthen upon burthen on a people already sinking under their load—to come and tell us that we have not hitherto made a provision for the crown adequate to its grandeur, and that we must now find new funds for the increase of its splendour? Is the real lustre, which it has unhappily lost, to be supplied by the false glare of profusion? and the ostensive expenses of government to increase in a due proportion to its poverty and weakness? It will be a new discovery in the policy of nations, that the only means of replacing the loss of half an empire is by the boundless prodigality of the remainder." He concluded by observing "that the debt incurred could not be for the royal dignity, but in ways not fit to be avowed by the ministry, and therefore very fit to be inquired into by the house." His eloquence however proved ineffectual: for the ministry not only carried their point, of providing for the payment of debts which they themselves were accused by him of contracting, but enabled, by an addition of £100,000 per annum to the department in question, to evince more liberality to their dependents.

Mr Burke had hitherto chiefly distinguished himself in opposition to the measures of others; but in 1780 he himself stood forth as the original author and proposer of a scheme which soon engaged the attention of the public, and appeared big with promise. Perceiving ministers obstinately bent on persisting in a dangerous war, and that the people were beginning to bend beneath the weight of the taxes exacted for its support, on the 11th of February, he brought in a bill "for the regulation of his majesty's civil establishment, and of certain public offices; for the limitation of pensions, and the suppression of sundry useless, expensive, and inconvenient places; and for applying the monies saved thereby to the public service." This scheme was manifestly founded on the reforms that had recently taken place in France; for, by an edict of the king, registered in the parliament of Paris, it appeared that he had suppressed no less than 406 places in his household by one regulation. The orator, with great judgment, fastened upon this fact, and endeavoured to make use of it as a plea for a similar attempt

here; he even called in national rivalry itself, by way of an inducement to consent to this sacrifice on the part of the crown. "Necker, the minister," said he, "who does these things, is a great man—but the king, who desires they should be done, is a far greater. We must do justice to our enemies—these are the acts of a patriot king! I am not in dread of the vast armies of France; I am not in dread of the gallant spirit of its brave and numerous nobility; I am not alarmed even at the great navy which has been so miraculously created. All these things Louis XIV. had before. With all these things the French monarchy has more than once fallen prostrate at the feet of the public faith of Great Britain. It was the want of public credit which disabled France from recovering after her defeats, or recovering even from her victories and triumphs. It was a prodigal court,—an ill-ordered revenue,—that sapped the foundation of all her greatness. Credit cannot exist under the arm of necessity. Necessity strikes at credit, I allow, with a heavier and quicker blow under an arbitrary monarchy, than under a limited and a balanced government: but still necessity and credit are natural enemies, and cannot be long reconciled in any situation. From necessity and corruption, a free state may lose the spirit of that complex constitution which is the foundation of confidence. On the other hand, I am far from being sure that a monarchy, when once it is properly regulated, may not for a long time furnish a foundation for credit upon the solidity of its own maxims, though it affords no ground of trust in its institutions. I am afraid I see in England and in France, something like a beginning of both these things. I wish I may be found in a mistake."

During the dreadful riots of 1780, occasioned by the zeal of certain associations whose object was to oppose the granting of any indulgences to Catholics, Burke—who had been one of the leading advocates of measures for Catholic relief in parliament—was caricatured as a friar, in the act of trimming the fires of Smithfield. He was nick-named Neddy St Omers, denounced as a jesuit in disguise, and repeatedly threatened with the vengeance of the fanatical rioters. It appears, however, from one of his own letters, that he one day had the courage to venture among a portion of the mob, openly avowing who he was. Some of the rioters, he states, were malignant; but he found friends among them, and suffered no injury. The disturbances were, at length, terminated, and several of the ringleaders taken, convicted, and sentenced to death. At this time, Burke wrote to the chief persons in power, entreating them to use their influence in saving as many of the misguided wretches from execution as possible. To Sir Grey Cooper he wrote as follows:—"For God's sake, entreat Lord North to take a view of the sum total of the deaths before any are ordered for execution! for, by not doing something of this kind, people are decoyed in detail into severities they never would have dreamed of, if they had had the whole in their view at once. The scene in Surrey would have affected the hardest heart that ever was in human breast. Justice and mercy have not such opposite interests as people are apt to imagine. I have ever observed," he adds, "that the execution of one man fixes the attention and excites awe; the execution of multitudes dissipates and weakens the effect; men reason themselves into disapprobation and disgust; they compute more as they feel less; and every several act which may only appear to be necessary is sure to be offensive." These tumults,

however, presented a most favourable opportunity for an unpopular administration to dissolve parliament. This was accordingly effected on the 1st of September, 1780. Burke immediately repaired to Bristol, but was not fortunate in his canvass; for he had by this time increased the number of his enemies among his constituents, and even weakened the interest of his friends, in consequence of certain parts of his conduct, which tended not a little to render it equivocal in their eyes. The disappointment that had occurred at Bristol is said to have made a deep impression on the mind of the orator; but this must have been obliterated by the important events that speedily ensued; for the minister now tottered on the treasury bench, being abandoned by many of his staunchest supporters, and but little confident in his own schemes, all of which had proved eminently unsuccessful. The opposition, having by this time increased to a formidable strength, unceasingly assailed him, until at length, March 28th, 1782, Lord North informed the house of commons that his administration was at an end. Burke was now made a privy-councillor, and invested with the lucrative appointment of paymaster-general of the forces. Ultimately, however, the reins of government were confided to the hands of the marquess of Lansdowne, then Earl Shelburne; and this event gave such offence to those who wished to place the duke of Portland at the head of affairs, that Fox, Lord John Cavendish, and Burke, immediately resigned office.

In the mean time the critical state of the English East India company had long agitated the public mind, and become occasionally a subject of discussion in parliament. The seizure, imprisonment, and confinement of Lord Pigott, by a faction in the council of Madras,—the outrageous conduct of Mr Hastings, in respect to several of the native powers,—the grand question of sovereignty, relative to the territorial possessions of the company in Asia,—all these subjects had, at different times, excited the attention of the nation. No sooner did Mr Fox behold himself and his friends in possession of power, than he brought in a bill to remedy the various abuses in the government of British India. Of this bill, Burke is well-known to have been the principal author; and upon this occasion he defended its principles and provisions with all the zeal of a parent. In a speech of considerable length he exhibited an able retrospect of the system, both political and commercial, of the company; he exposed the rapacity, speculation, and injustice, of its servants; and excited an universal burst of indignation against the character and conduct of the governor-general of Bengal. He then proceeded to state the benefit likely to result from the plan under contemplation, which he considered as calculated to effect “the rescue of the greatest number of the human race that ever were so grievously oppressed, from the greatest tyranny that ever was exercised.” In short, he contemplated it as a measure that would “secure the rice in his pot to every man in India.” “I carry my mind,” adds he, “to all people, and all the names and descriptions that, relieved by this bill, will bless the labours of this parliament, and the confidence which the best house of commons has given to him who best deserves it. The little cavils of party will not be heard where freedom and happiness will be felt. There is not a tongue, a nation, or religion in India, which will not bless the presiding care and manly beneficence of this house, and of him who proposes to you this great work. Your names will never be

separated before the throne of the Divine goodness, in whatever language, or with whatever rites, pardon is asked for sin, and reward for those who imitate the Godhead in his universal bounty to his creatures. These honours you desire, and they will surely be paid, when all the jargon of influence, and party, and patronage, are swept into oblivion."

This celebrated bill, notwithstanding much opposition both within and without, was carried triumphantly through the house of commons; but in the house of lords it experienced a far different fate; and with it fell the power and consequence of its authors, framers, and supporters. No sooner had Pitt—who even from his boyish days aspired to the supreme command of the empire—acquired the ascendancy, than a house of commons which had exhibited such a marked predilection for his rivals was dissolved, March 25th, 1784; and on the convocation of a new parliament, he was found to have a large majority on his side. This, however, did not deter the member for Malton from moving a series of resolutions relative to the late dissolution and the unconstitutional means by which, according to him, the memorable bill relative to India had been stopped in its progress. While in opposition, Burke's popularity somewhat declined; his speeches were often tedious, and failed to command the attention of the house. A member, entering the lobby one night, was met by such a number of members, that he was induced to inquire if the house was up? "No," replied one of the fugitives, "but Burke is." "Ask any well-informed public character," said General Fitzpatrick, "who is the best informed man in parliament, and the answer will certainly be, Burke; inquire who is the most eloquent, or the most witty, and the reply will be, Burke; then ask who is the most tiresome, and the response will still be, Burke—most certainly, Burke." On one occasion, having risen to speak with several documents in his hands, a plain county member presumed to inquire if the honourable gentleman meant to read his large bundle of papers, and to bore the house with one of his long speeches into the bargain. Never was the fable of the lion put to flight by the braying of an ass more completely realized: bursting with rage, yet incapable of uttering a word, Burke strode across the floor, and positively rushed out of the house.⁵

In the course of the next year—February 28th, 1785—he made a celebrated speech relative to the nabob of Arcot's debts; and depicted one of his creditors who had taken an active share in the late elections,

⁵ Goldsmith, who was on intimate terms with him, humorously sketched the weaker parts of Burke's character in the following sportive epitaph:—

"Here lies our good Edmund, whose genius was such,
We scarcely can praise it or blame it too much;
Who, born for the universe, narrow'd his mind,
And to party gave up what was meant for mankind;
Tho' fraught with all learning, kept straining his throat,
To persuade Tommy Townshend to lend him a vote;
Who, too deep for his hearers, still went on refining,
And thought of convincing, while they thought of dining;
Though equal to all things, for all things unfit,
Too nice for a statesman, too proud for a wit;
For a patriot too cool, for a drudge disobedient,
And too fond of the right to pursue the expedient;
In fine, 'twas his fate, unemploy'd or in pay, sir,
To eat mutton cold, and cut blocks with a razor."

“as a criminal who long since ought to have fattened the region kites with his offal; the old betrayer, insulter, oppressor, and scourge, of a country—Tanjore—which had for years been an object of an unremitted, but unhappily an unequal struggle, between the bounties of Providence to renovate, and the wickedness of mankind to destroy.” But there appeared to Burke to be a still greater delinquent, on whom he was determined to inflict all the wounds of his eloquence, and sacrifice, if possible, the powerful offender himself at the shrine of national vengeance. This was Mr Hastings; and soon after his arrival in England the orator gave notice of his intentions.⁶ On the 17th of February, 1785, he opened the accusation by a tremendous speech, in which he depicted the supposed crimes of the late governor-general in the most glowing colours.

During the debate on the commercial treaty with France—January 23d, 1787—the member for Malton exhibited an undiminished versatility of talents, and pointed his ridicule with no common success at Pitt, who, according to him, contemplated the subject with a narrowness peculiar to limited minds:—“He seems to consider it,” he said, “as an affair of two little counting-houses, and not of two great nations. He seems to consider it as a contention between the sign of the Fleur-de-lis and the sign of the old Red lion, for which should obtain the best custom.” “The love,” continues he, “that France bears to this country has been depicted in all the glowing colours of romance; nay, in order to win upon our passions at the expense of our reason, she has been personified,—decked out in all her lilies,—and endued with a heart incapable of infidelity, and a tongue that seems only at a loss to convey the artless language of that heart. She desires nothing more than to be in friendship with us. She has stretched forth her arms to embrace us; nay more, she has stretched them through the sea,—witness Cherbourg! Curiosity may be indulged without danger in surveying the pyramids of Egypt, those monuments of human power

⁶ On the day Mr Hastings arrived in London (in June 1785), Mr Burke notified to the house of commons, that early in the next sessions he would move an inquiry into the conduct of Mr Hastings. During the recess Mr Hastings was strenuously advised by men who well knew the nature of parliament, to pay no attention to this menace; or if he was determined to notice it, to come into parliament himself, and a seat was offered to him. He rejected the advice in both instances, declaring that he neither wished to court nor to elude the inquiry, still less was he disposed to owe his security to the forbearance of Mr Burke; he therefore expressly desired Major Scott to ask Mr Burke in his place, at the next meeting of parliament, whether he meant to institute the inquiry or not? To this question Mr Burke gave an evasive answer, but Mr Fox a direct one. Subsequent to this conversation in the house, a general meeting of the party in opposition assembled at Burlington-house. The question was debated, and great difference of opinion prevailed. The late Lord North, the present marquess of Hertford, the duke of Norfolk, then Lord Surrey, and many other gentlemen, were against any further proceedings; but Mr Fox, with an unjustifiable generosity, for which he has been amply repaid, supported Mr Burke; and, conceiving his character to be at stake, strenuously contended for the proceeding, and it was taken up as a party-measure. Mr Dempster, the late Colonel Cathcart, Mr Sloper, Mr Nichols, and a few other members, seceded; but the party in general went with Mr Fox. Two years were spent in the house of commons before the impeachment was voted. The trial lasted six years in Westminster-hall, and a seventh in the chamber of parliament; so that, if we reckon from 1785, when Mr Burke gave his notice, to 1795, when the acquittal was pronounced, this celebrated trial might vie for duration with the siege of Troy.—*Memoirs of Mr Hastings by Major John Scott.*

for no human purpose; would I could say the same of Cherbourg! We gaze at the works now carrying on in that harbour like the silly Trojans, who gazed at the wooden horse whose bowels teemed with their destruction."

The next public event of importance in which we find Mr Burke engaged, occurred in consequence of his majesty's indisposition. On this occasion he took an active part in the debates of the house of commons; and is supposed to have penned a letter for one and a speech for another branch of the royal family. When Pitt moved his declaratory resolutions relative to the provisional exercise of the royal authority, he attacked him with much asperity of language, and was particularly severe on the manner in which the royal assent was to be given to all future acts of parliament. The men who held most of the high places under government were treated as 'jobbers,' 'old hacks of the court,' and the 'supporters and betrayers of all parties;' and it was "a mock crown, a tinsel robe, and a sceptre from the theatre, lackered over and unreal," which were about to be conferred on the prince of Wales.

The opposition, lessened indeed by a few occasional desertions, had hitherto acted as a great public body, supposed to be united in general principles for the common welfare and prosperity of the state; but the French revolution thinned their ranks, dispelled their consequence, and by sowing jealousy between the chiefs, spread consternation and dismay among their followers. It was on the 2d of March, 1790, when Fox moved for leave to bring in a bill to repeal the corporation and test acts, that the disunion became evident; and soon after this Burke declared "that his honourable friend and he were separated in their politics for ever." All his speeches after this period were replete with acrimony against the French nation, and their supposed abettors in this country; and, not content with rhetorical flourishes, he at length introduced a practical trope, by drawing a dagger from his pocket, waving it in the air, and exclaiming, "that it was this they were to gain by an alliance with France!" At length, on the evening of the 4th of March, after Sheridan had moved for a committee to inquire into the seditious practices alleged to exist in the country, Burke, who had already withdrawn his name from the whig club, started up from his seat, ran towards the treasury-bench, and when he had got to the middle of the floor, surveying his former colleagues with an air of indignation, exclaimed, "I quit the camp! I quit the camp!"⁷ and seated himself by the side of his quondam adversaries. Curwen relates that one night, while he was waiting for his carriage, Burke came up to him and requested, as the night was wet, that he would set him down: "I could not refuse," continues Mr C. "though I felt a reluctance in complying. As soon as the carriage door was shut, he complimented me on being no friend to the revolutionary doctrines of the French, on which he spoke with great warmth for a few minutes, when he paused to afford me an opportunity of approving the view he had taken of those measures in the house. Former experience had taught me the consequences of differing from his opinions, yet, at the moment, I could not help feel-

⁷ Sheridan is reported to have said on this occasion "that he hoped, as the honourable gentleman had quitted the camp as a deserter, he would not return as a spy."

ing disinclined to disguise my sentiments. Mr Burke, catching hold of the check-string, furiously exclaimed, 'You are one of these people,—set me down!' With some difficulty I restrained him;—we had then reached Charing-cross—a silence ensued, which was preserved till we reached his house in Gerrard-street, when he hurried out of the carriage without speaking, and thus our intercourse ended."

The ministry now seemed anxious to provide for their new associate; and he, on his part, certainly appeared deserving of some remuneration at their hands, for he had abandoned all his old friends, and not a few of his old principles. In addition to this, his 'Reflections on the Revolution in France,'⁸ had afforded some degree of countenance, and even popularity to the measures of administration; and not content with his own exertions, he had enlisted his son on the same side, and even sent him to Coblenz. The royal munificence at length gratified his warmest wishes, for by a warrant, dated September 24th, 1795, and made to commence January 5th, 1793, he received a pension of £1,200 for his own life, and that of his wife, on the civil list; while two other pensions of £2,500 a year for three lives, payable out of the four and a half per cent. fund, dated October 24th, 1795, were made to commence from July 24th, 1793. Honours as well as wealth now seemed to await him, for he was about to be ennobled, and his family rendered one of the 'Corinthian capitals' of the British constitution, when the untimely death of an only child put an end to his dreams of ambition, and contributed not a little to hasten his own, which occurred at his house at Beaconsfield, July 8th, 1797.

The following sketch of his character, which appeared in the public prints immediately after his death, is supposed to have come from the pen of his friend Dr Laurence:—"His end was suited to the simple greatness of mind which he displayed through life: every way unaffected, without levity, without ostentation, full of natural grace and dignity. He appeared neither to wish nor to dread, but patiently and placidly to await the appointed hour of his dissolution. He had been listening to some essays of Addison's, in which he ever took delight: he had recommended himself in many affectionate messages to the remembrance of those absent friends whom he had never ceased to love; he had conversed some time with his accustomed force of thought and expression, on the awful situation of his country, for the welfare of which his heart was interested to the last beat; he had given with steady composure some private directions in contemplation of his approaching death; when, as his attendants were conveying him to his bed, he sunk down, and after a short struggle passed quietly and without a groan to eternal rest in that mercy, which he had just declared he had long sought with unfeigned humiliation, and to which he looked with a trembling hope.

"Of his talents and acquirements in general it is unnecessary to speak. They were long the glory of his country, and the admiration of Europe; they might have been (had it so consisted with the inscrutable counsels of divine Providence) the salvation of both. If not the most accomplished orator, yet the most eloquent man of his age; perhaps second to none in any age; he had still more wisdom than

eloquence. He diligently collected it from the wise of all times ; but what he had so obtained, he enriched from the vast treasury of his own observation ; and his intellect, active, vigorous, comprehensive, trained in the discipline of true philosophy to whatever subject he applied it, penetrated at once through the surface into the essential forms of things.

“ With a fancy singularly vivid, he, least of all men in his time, indulged in splendid theories. With more ample materials of every kind than any of his cotemporaries, he was the least in his own skill to innovate. A statesman of the most enlarged views,—in all his policy he was strictly practical, and in his practice he always regarded with holy reverence the institutions and manners derived from our ancestors. It seemed as if he had been endowed with such transcendent powers, and informed with such extensive knowledge, only to bear the more striking testimony, in these days of rash presumption, how much the greatest mind is singly inferior to the accumulated efforts of innumerable minds in the long flow of centuries.

“ His private conversation had the same tincture with his public eloquence. He sometimes adorned and dignified it with philosophy, but he never lost the charm of natural ease. There was no subject so trivial which he did not transiently illuminate with the brilliancy of his imagination. In writing, in speaking, in the senate, or round the table, it was easy to trace the operations of the same genius.

“ To the Protestant religion, as by law established, he was attached from sincere conviction ; nor was his a barren belief without influence of his moral conduct. He was rigid in the system of duties by which he regulated his own actions ; liberal in construing those of all other men ; warm but placable ; resenting more the offences committed against those who were dear to him than against himself ; vehement and indignant only where he thought public justice insulted ; compassionate to private distress ; lenient even to suffering guilt. As a friend, he was perhaps too partial to those whom he esteemed ; over-rating every little merit, overlooking all their defects ; indefatigable in serving them ; straining in their favour whatever influence he possessed ; and for their sakes more than his own, regretting that during so long a political life he had so seldom bore any share in power ; which he considered only as an instrument of more diffusive good. In his domestic relations he was worthy (and more than worthy he could not be) of the eminent felicity which for many years he enjoyed ; an husband of exemplary tenderness and fidelity ; a father fond to excess ; the most affectionate of brothers ; the kindest master ; and on his part, he has been often heard to declare, that in the most anxious moments of his public life, every care vanished when he entered his own roof.

“ One who long and intimately knew him, to divert his own sorrow, has paid this very inadequate tribute to his memory. Nothing which relates to such a man can be uninteresting or uninteresting to the public, to whom he truly belonged. Few, indeed, whom the Divine goodness has largely gifted, are capable of profiting by the imitation of his genius and learning ; but all mankind may grow better by the study of his virtues.”

The reader will be gratified by the insertion of Dr Parr's celebrated sketch of Burke, from his ‘ Preface to Bellendus : ’ “ There is, I am aware, a certain wordy speaker, who, for his readiness, and fluency,

and showy exertions, has obtained among the multitude the character of a consummate orator. Let the admirers of this man gnash their teeth with vexation while I speak, what my soul dictates, of the eloquence of Burke,—of Burke, by whose sweetness Athens herself would have been soothed, with whose amplitude and exuberance she would have been enraptured, and on whose lips that prolific mother of genius and science would have adored, confessed, the goddess of persuasion.

“ There were some among the Romans who esteemed a certain terseness and exility of style and sentiment, provided it were laboured, and polished, and elegant, as truly Attic; and held the more full, and grand, and commanding, and magnificent species of oratory in the highest contempt. Vain of their taste and their sagacity, and insensible to the gradations, the transitions, and the variety of the Athenian style, such men had the audacity to condemn the harangues of Cicero himself, as tumid, oriental, and redundant. Men have not been wanting with us, who have croaked the same dull note, and repeated the same lifeless criticism of the eloquence of Burke. But let these vain pretenders to Attic taste, without the robustness of mind to tolerate its beauties, learn to think more highly of our illustrious orator; let them know, that to imitate Burke is to speak Athenian-like and well; and that even to have attained a relish for his charms is greatly to have advanced in literature. Let me add, and it is much to the purpose, that Burke, on whatever topic he touches in the excursive range of his allusions, appears a master of the subject; and to have acquired a deep and thorough insight into whatever is excellent in elegant art or solid science. Critics there are who wish to separate eloquence from literature, and to ascribe the powers of the orator to a certain natural talent improved by habit. While we congratulate these original and unlettered speakers, let us admire in Burke a mind by nature formed for eloquence, and impregnated with every subsidiary aid, by sedulous and unwearied application. He applied himself to classic literature, because he knew that from that literature oratory was furnished with its choicest ornaments, and because he felt that it silently infused the habit of speaking even English well. Demosthenes is said to have been a reader, and even an auditor of Plato; and Cicero is confirmed in this opinion by the choice and grandeur of his style. How deeply read is Burke; what stores he has accumulated in his capacious memory from the orators and poets, is forcibly felt by every man of letters in that strong tincture of literature which pervades, with essential fragrance, all his compositions. His superior genius, like that of Phidias, was no sooner exhibited than felt; but observing how much the brightest talents have been obscured by negligence, he never relaxed his ardent assiduity a moment, nor suffered the extent of his attainments to damp his appetite for more.

“ Few have the opportunity or the power of forming a competent opinion of a speech delivered; but of Burke's eloquence there are specimens of which every one may judge. Look at what he has published, the charm equally of the world at large and of the ablest critics. Who is there among men of eloquence or learning more profoundly versed in every branch of science? Who is there that has cultivated philosophy, the parent of all that is illustrious in literature or exploit, with more felicitous success? Who is there that can transfer so happily the result of laborious and intricate research, to the most familiar and popu-

lar topics? Who is there that possesses so extensive yet so accurate an acquaintance with every transaction, recent or remote? Who is there that can deviate from his subject, for the purposes of delight, with such engaging ease, and insensibly conduct his readers from the severity of reasoning to the festivity of wit? Who is there that can melt them, if the occasion requires, with such resistless power to grief and pity? Who is there that combines the charm of inimitable grace and urbanity with such magnificent and boundless expansion? He that can do this, I affirm it again and again, has Attic powers, and speaks a language which, while it soothes the multitude by its sweetness, by its correctness and pregnancy will captivate the judgment of the severest critic.

“Many men, of more talent than erudition, have fancied that they could speak better than they could write; and flattered themselves with a reputation for eloquence which never stood the test of severe and critical examination. Many a speech has been received with infinite applause in the delivery, which, when handed about in print, has appeared poor, languid, and lifeless. Lord Chatham was a great man, a most animated and terrific orator, and eminently endued with the first qualifications of a great statesman; yet as a speaker, his fame, doubtless from the witchery of his manner, was greater than his power. Like Cromwell, he had that perspicacity of eye which pried into the inmost recesses of the soul, and detected all the thoughts and impressions, and hopes and fears, of his auditors. He had that too which Cromwell had not; for Cromwell, we are told, was slow in the conception of his ideas when he spoke, and diffuse and perplexed in the delivery. But in Chatham, when he rose to speak, there was a fervour and vehemence of imagination, a headlong torrent of words, and power of sound, which deafened, and stunned, and confounded his opponents. In the man himself, I well remember, there was a native dignity of form, which commanded reverence and faith; and by filling his hearers with holy awe, predisposed them to his purpose. With powers little calculated to instruct or to delight, there was a vehemence of contention, an awakening energy of manner, an impassioned ardour, a confident and boastful exultation, which victory only rendered more ferocious and ungovernable. He often rose to dignity in the donation of applause, still oftener blazed to fierceness in the fulmination of invectives; and sometimes, in the violence of altercation, stung with a poignancy of wit peculiarly his own. But take away these showy appendages of eloquence, which are included almost in the very name of Chatham; take away that which in the judgment of Demosthenes was the first, the second, the third qualification of an orator; and which, in Chatham, were displayed as they prevailed in so astonishing a measure, and with such felicity of success; take away the imposing dignity of his presence, the strength and grandeur of his voice, the elaborate vehemence of his gesticulation, worked up often to extravagance, and adapted rather to the drama than the senate; take these away, and in those very speeches which were extolled by his auditors as transcending far all praise, you will find nothing scarcely which forcibly strikes or sweetly soothes the ear; nothing which by its strength or clearness captivates the judgment; nothing which the intelligent reader in a cool and temperate hour will highly approve; or having once read, will eagerly demand again.

“Such, I confess, was the giant scale of Chatham’s mind, that he might well claim, and would assuredly fill with honour, the highest station to which a subject can aspire. To his other original and illustrious qualities was added that felicity of fortune which fills up the measure of all pre-eminent greatness. In his character as minister, such was the greatness and elevation of his spirit, that, like Scipio, he could revive expiring ardour, and fill men with a confidence of expectation which no mortal promises, nor the moral course of nature, ever did, or under any other auspices, ever ought to inspire. Those, however, who consider Chatham not as a first-rate orator, but as another Demosthenes, are greatly deceived. In Demosthenes, with a dignity which scarcely has been equalled, was combined a sagacity and coolness which can never be surpassed. He who aspires only to be rapid, vehement, and sonorous, without descending to plain narrative, cool statement, and close argument, sacrifices reason to passion, and touches on the precincts of a frantic eloquence. It was the lot of Chatham to owe whatever he possessed to a genius exercised by practice alone. The consequence was natural. With infinite fluency and animation he insured the fate of Galba, and while he breathed consuming fire as a speaker, all the force and all the blaze of his eloquence was extinguished upon paper. Far different is Burke. To wing his flight to the sublime of eloquence he has called in the labours of the closet. Burke would not that the fame of his powers should be circumscribed within the same poor limits that bound life; nor has he feared, most certainly he has not shunned, that solemn sentence which posterity, who ‘extenuate nothing, nor set down aught in malice,’ will hereafter pronounce upon his genius.

“There are many, I know, who, though well-convinced that the pen is the instructor of the tongue, and perfectly able to treat any subject upon paper with infinite correctness and art, yet, when drawn from the shade of studious retirement into action, are not only incapable of delivering with clearness what they have very justly conceived, but exhibit the spectacle of absolute helplessness and fatuity. But Burke, though fully satisfied that nothing contributes more to good speaking than good writing, is equally prepared for both. The same power of mind, the same divine and inextinguishable ardour which fires him in the senate, animates him in the solitude of composition; nor need he blush to say of his speeches what Thucydides has affirmed of his elaborate history, ‘I give it to the public as an everlasting possession, and not as a contentious instrument of temporary applause.’

“There is an unwillingness in the world to show that the same man has excelled in various pursuits; yet Burke’s compositions, diversified as they are in their nature, yet each excelling in its kind, who does not read with instruction and delight? I have hitherto surveyed the merits of the orator; let us now view him as a critic and philosopher.

“Criticism, which others would have been content to study as they found it, Burke has enlarged by his discoveries, illustrated by his multifarious learning, and treated with all the graces of a style most elegant and refined, yet not polished into insipidity by too curious a care. Often has it been lamented that the language of philosophers is usually so crabbed and uncouth as to deter readers of taste from the perusal of their labours. It fell to Burke, by his purity and grace, to purge off

the inveterate rust, and to adapt to the knottiest and the subtlest disquisitions, such a flowing ease, and fertility and lustre of style, as the world has never witnessed. With such illustrious proofs of his own powers, he has at once, by his precepts and his example, instructed others to excel: for whether he luxuriates in speeches replete with the choicest phraseology and happiest periods, or bends his keen and subtle intelligence on critical disquisition, such is the felicity of his labours, that he at once quickens the sagacity of his readers, while he stores their memory and fertilizes their fancy with invigorating and varied information.

“On the morals of a man most conspicuously endued with the more amiable and the severe virtues, I hold it needless to descant. The unspotted innocence, the firm integrity of Burke, want no emblazoning, and if he is accustomed to exact a rigorous account of the moral conduct of others, it is justified in one who shuns not the most inquisitorial scrutiny into his own.

“I know what unsafe and treacherous ground I tread. Objectors, I am aware, are not wanting, who will exclaim that I have lavished praise with too prodigal a hand; that I have been hurried away by my love and admiration of the man; and unblushing malice may insinuate even this—that I have studiously praised him for those qualities in which I knew he was deficient. I care not. The tribute I have paid him is little to his deserts; and would to God that this little had come from any one who could have more suitably expanded and adorned it! This, however, I deliberately and steadily affirm—that of all the men who are, or who ever have been eminent for energy and splendour of eloquence, or for skill and grace in composition, there is not one who in genius or erudition, in philanthropy or piety, or in any of the qualities of a wise and good man, surpasses Burke. Such is my opinion of one⁹ of these prominent and illustrious characters; and it is my wish that it should be considered less as the effusion of my regard, than as the sincere and settled conviction of my judgment.”

W. H. Lambton.

BORN A. D. 1764.—DIED A. D. 1797.

THIS young statesman, whose career was cut short by a premature death, was the son of General John Lambton, and Lady Susan Lyon, sister to the earl of Strathmore. He was born on the 15th of November, 1764. His predecessors had frequently represented the county and city of Durham in parliament, and his father had seated himself with considerable popularity for the latter, by asserting the privileges of the freemen in opposition to the usurpations of fictitious votes. The fond affection of a parent, hoping his son might one day hold a seat in the national councils, determined that no advantage of education should be wanting to render him worthy of the important trust. In conformity to this design, Mr Lambton was placed, at the early age of seven years,

⁹Lord North and Mr Fox were the two others to whom, with Mr Burke, this work of Bellendus was dedicated by Dr Parr.

at Wandsworth school, in Surrey, which was then regarded a nursery for Eton. To that seminary he was removed at twelve, and there discovered the dawnings of his genius, in passing through the different forms till he reached the sixth class. His reputation was deservedly high amongst the scholars of his day; and in the composition of Latin verses he particularly excelled. He was entered a fellow-commoner of Trinity college, Cambridge, in October, 1782, and continued there till July, 1784, pursuing the career of his studies, and unfolding the vigour of his mind. Among the companions of Mr Lambton's academic life were those steady opponents of corruption, Whitbread and Grey.

To give a polish to his early acquisitions, and extend his knowledge of the world and mankind, Mr Lambton proceeded, with a private tutor, to the continent. The extent of his tour embraced France and Switzerland, with a short excursion into Spain; but the principal places of his residence were Paris and Versailles. Soon after his return from the continent, Mr Lambton became a member of the British legislature, being returned, on the resignation of his father—in February 1787—for the city of Dublin, which place he continued to represent during the remainder of his life.

In the senate Mr Lambton soon distinguished himself as a speaker, in seconding the motion of Mr Fox, for a repeal of the shop-tax, on the 24th of April, and then afforded a very promising prospect of those talents which he afterwards on many occasions displayed. The questions to which, in the sequel, he principally directed his attention, were such as related to the constitution of his country, or in which the welfare of the public was materially concerned. As an orator, his elocution was clear and articulate, his language manly and energetic, his arguments pertinent and often cogent; in quotation he was apt, happy in his allusions, and in his manner graceful. During the agitation of various motions relative to the abolition of the slave trade, Mr Lambton always divided with the friends of humanity, in opposition to the continuance of that abominable traffic. But the most important features of his political conduct, were his attacks on the corruptions of parliament, and his vindications of the necessity of reform. In March, 1792, he ably exposed the corrupt practices of the agents of government in the Westminster election of 1788, in seconding a motion for an inquiry into that subject. In the following month his name appeared as an original member of the society of 'The Friends of the People, associated for the Purpose of obtaining a Parliamentary Reform;' and, as chairman, he signed their celebrated declaration and address of the 26th of April. This association being exposed to considerable obloquy, Mr Lambton came forward in defence of its principles and proceedings on various occasions in the house of commons, and once as a freeholder in the county of Durham. The proceedings in parliament, relative to the memorable state-trials of 1794, met with Mr Lambton's decided opposition, both before and after the acquittal of the prisoners; and the principles which actuated the whole tenor of his public life induced him to make his last effort in the service of his country, by opposing the bills for altering the treason and sedition laws in November 1795. It is impossible for the candid observer to attribute the spirited conduct of Mr Lambton to any other motive than a generous impulse of disinterested patriotism, for though the ardent attachment to the welfare of

his country induced him to exert himself in the great theatre of political transactions, his own conviction led him to place real happiness in the enjoyment of domestic life. By the death of his father, on the 23d of March, 1794, he became possessed of a very considerable fortune, together with the family estate of Lambton, beautifully situated on the banks of the Dear, about nine miles from Durham.

Mr Lambton had just completed his thirty-first year when his friends were alarmed by the symptoms of a consumption, a complaint which nearly at the same age had carried off his mother. Retiring to the north, from the bustle of parliamentary exertion, in December, 1795, he was unable to resume his seat after the winter recess. In the spring of 1796 he returned towards the south, for the advice of some distinguished physicians. Being advised to try the effects of a warmer climate, he embarked with his wife and family at Woolwich, on board a Swedish vessel, on the 29th of August, and after a two months' voyage landed at Naples, fortunately escaping the dangers and inconveniences to which even neutral vessels are exposed from the conflicts of contending nations. On his arrival in Italy, his health was so apparently recovered, that little doubt was entertained of his perfect restoration. From Naples Mr Lambton proceeded to Rome; but the return of his complaint put a period to his further prospects, and declining health convinced him of the approach of an early dissolution. In Rome his health was visibly impairing, and he departed thence to try the effects of a more congenial air in Tuscany. After being detained some days by illness at Sienna, he at length reached Pisa, where his life was closed on the 30th of November, at the early age of thirty-three years.

Lord Edward Fitzgerald.

BORN A. D. 1763.—DIED A. D. 1798.

THIS amiable nobleman was the fifth son of the first duke of Leinster, and of Lady Emilia Maria Lennox, daughter of Charles, second duke of Richmond. He was born on the 15th October, 1763. His father died in 1773; and his mother, not long after, married a Scottish gentleman of the name of Ogilvie, who treated his step-son with great affection, and was at pains to educate him for the military profession, to which the boy's taste strongly inclined.

He entered the army in his eighteenth year: a lieutenancy was procured for him in the 96th regiment of foot, from which he soon exchanged into the 19th, and sailed for America. In this his first active service he manifested great intrepidity combined with gentleness of character. Sir John Doyle, his superior officer, says of him at this period: "I never knew so loveable a person, and every man in the army, from the general to the drummer, would cheer the expression." He does not seem to have entertained any suspicion of the unjust nature of the contest with America; the germs of the future patriot were certainly not very clearly discernible in him at this period.

In 1783 he returned to Ireland, and was brought into the Irish parliament by his brother the duke of Leinster. Even in this situation he gave no indication of the latent energy of his temper, although his

name was always found in the small but liberal minority of the day. In 1786 he entered himself at Woolwich, with the view of studying more clearly the principles of his profession. In 1787 he visited Spain; and in 1788 he joined his regiment, the 54th, in Nova Scotia. His letters from this country to his mother are exceedingly interesting, and strikingly exhibit the gradual formation of that independence of character, and abhorrence of every species of restraint, which afterwards so remarkably distinguished him: "You may guess," he says in one of his letters to his mother, "how eager I am to try if I like the woods in winter as well as in summer. I believe I shall never again be prevailed on to live in a house. I long to teach you all how to make a good spruce bed. Three of the coldest nights we have had yet, I slept in the woods with only one blanket, and was just as comfortable as in a room. It was in a party with General Carleton; we went about twenty miles from this to look at a fine tract of land that had been passed over in winter. You may guess how I enjoyed this expedition, being where, in all probability, there had never been but one person before; we struck the land the first night and lay there; we spent three days afterwards in going over it. It will be now soon settled. I cannot describe all the feelings one has in these excursions, when one awakens,—perhaps in the middle of the night, in a fine open forest, all your companions snoring about you, the moon shining through the trees, the burning of the fire,—in short, every thing strikes you. Dearest, dearest mother, how I have thought of you at those times, and of all at dear Frescati! and after being tired of thinking, lying down like a dog, and falling asleep till day-break; then getting up, no dressing, or clothing, or trouble, but just giving oneself a shake, and away to the spring to wash one's face. I have had two parties with the savages, which are still pleasanter,—you may guess the reason,—there are *des dames*, who are the most comical creatures in the world."

Mr Moore thus traces the origin of Lord Edward's republican notions to his residence in New Brunswick: "Disappointment in—what, to youth, is everything—the first strong affection of the heart, had given a check to that flow of spirits which had before borne him so buoyantly along; while his abstraction from society left him more leisure to look inquiringly into his own mind, and there gather those thoughts that are ever the fruit of long solitude and sadness. The repulse which his suit had met with from the father of his fair relative had, for its chief grounds, he knew, the inadequacy of his own means and prospects to the support of a wife and family in that style of elegant competence to which the station of the young lady herself had hitherto accustomed her; and the view, therefore, he had been disposed naturally to take of the pomps and luxuries of high life, as standing in the way of all simple and real happiness, was thus but too painfully borne out by his own bitter experience of their influence. The conclusion drawn by Lord Edward in favour of savage life, from the premises thus, half truly, half fancifully, assumed by him,—much of the colouring which he gave to the picture being itself borrowed from civilization,—had been already, it is well known, arrived at, through all the mazes of ingenious reasoning, by Rousseau; and it is not a little curious to observe how to the very same paradox which the philosopher adopted in the mere spirit of defiance and vanity, a heart overflowing with affection and disappointment

conducted the young lover. Nor is Rousseau the only authority by which Lord Edward is kept in countenance in this opinion. From a far graver and more authentic source we find the same startling notion promulgated. The philosopher and statesman, Jefferson, who, from being brought up in the neighbourhood of Indian communities, had the best means of forming an acquaintance with the interior of savage life; declares himself convinced 'that such societies (as the Indians), which live without government, enjoy, in their general mass, an infinitely greater degree of happiness than those who live under the European government;' and in another place, after discussing the merits of various forms of polity, he does not hesitate to pronounce that it is a problem not clear in his mind that the condition of the Indians, without any government, is not yet the best of all. Thus, where the American president ended his course of political speculation, Lord Edward began,—adopting his opinions, not like Jefferson, after long and fastidious inquiry, but through the medium of a susceptible and wounded heart, nor having a thought of applying the principle of equality implied in them to any other relations or institutions of society than those in which his feelings were, at the moment, interested. This romance, indeed, of savage happiness was, in him, but one of the various forms which the passion now predominant over all his thoughts assumed. But the principle, thus admitted, retained its footing in his mind after the reveries through which it had first found its way thither had vanished; and though it was some time before politics,—beyond the range, at least, of mere party tactics,—began to claim his attention, all he had meditated and felt among the solitudes of Nova Scotia could not fail to render his mind a more ready recipient for such doctrines as he found prevalent on his return to Europe;—doctrines which, in their pure and genuine form, contained all the spirit, without the extravagance, of his own solitary dreams, and while they would leave man in full possession of those blessings of civilization he had acquired, but sought to restore to him some of those natural rights of equality and freedom which he had lost."

Soon after his return to Europe, his uncle, the duke of Richmond, introduced him to Mr Pitt, but the minister failed to secure the young politician for his side, or, perhaps deemed it not worth his trouble; he joined the party of Fox and Sheridan, and in their society 'found those political principles to which he now, for the first time, gave any serious attention, recommended at once to his reason and imagination by all the splendid sanctions with which genius, wit, eloquence, and the most refined good-fellowship could invest them.'¹ In the autumn of 1792, Lord Edward went to Paris, where he soon fraternized with the leading 'citoyens,' and at a dinner given by the English in Paris, in honour of the success of the French armies, formally renounced his title, and adopted that of 'Le citoyen Edouard Fitzgerald:' of course, the immediate result was his dismissal, without inquiry, from the English service. During his brief sojourn at Paris he saw, at one of the theatres, Pamela, the reputed daughter of Madame de Genlis by the duke of Orleans, and in somewhat less than a month he married her, and immediately brought her over to England, where her beauty and accomplishments reconciled his family to the match. From this period may be dated the commencement of his lordship's political career.

¹ Moore.

In 1791 was organized, chiefly by the energies of Theobald Wolfe Tone, the famous society of 'United Irishmen,' the growth and objects of which will be detailed in our notice of its founder. Lord Edward did not join this association till 1794, when he allowed himself to become deeply implicated in the conspiracy in which that society was engaged. "In order," says Mr Moore, "to settle all the details of their late agreement with France, and, in fact, enter into a formal treaty with the French Directory, it was thought of importance, by the United Irishmen, to send some agent, whose station and character should, in the eyes of their new allies, lend weight to his mission; and to Lord Edward Fitzgerald the no less delicate than daring task was assigned. It being thought desirable, too, that he should have the aid, in his negotiations, of the brilliant talents and popular name of Mr Arthur O'Connor, they requested likewise the services of that gentleman, who consented readily to act in concert with his friend. About the latter end of May, accompanied only by his lady, who was then not far from the period of her confinement, Lord Edward set out from Dublin on his perilous embassy,—passing a day or two in London, on his way, and, as I have been informed by a gentleman who was of the party, dining on one of those days at the house of Lord * * * *, where the company consisted of Mr Fox, Mr Sheridan, and several other distinguished whigs,—all persons who had been known to concur warmly in every step of the popular cause in Ireland, and to whom, if Lord Edward did not give some intimation of the object of his present journey, such an effort of reserve and secrecy was, I must say, very unusual in his character. From London his lordship proceeded to Hamburgh, and had already begun to treat with Rheynhart, the French agent at that place, when he was joined there by Mr O'Connor. Seeing reason, however, to have some doubts of the trust-worthiness of this person, they discontinued their negotiation with him, and leaving Lady Edward at Hamburgh, proceeded together to Basle, where, through the medium of the agent Barthelomen, they opened their negotiation with the French Directory. It was now known that General Hoche, the late conqueror and pacificator of La Vendée, was the officer appointed to take the command of the expedition to Ireland; and the great advantage of holding personal communication on the subject with an individual on whom the destinies of their country so much depended, was fully appreciated by both friends. After a month's stay at Basle, however, it was signified to them that to Mr O'Connor alone would it be permitted to meet Hoche as a negotiator,—the French government having objected to receive Lord Edward, 'lest the idea should get abroad, from his being married to Pamela, that his mission had some reference to the Orleans family.' Independently of this curious objection, it appears to have been strongly impressed upon Lord Edward, by some of his warmest friends, that he should, on no account, suffer his zeal in the cause to induce him to pass the borders of the French territory. Leaving to Mr O'Connor, therefore, the management of their treaty with Hoche, whom the French Directory had invested with full powers for the purpose, Lord Edward returned to Hamburgh,—having, unluckily, for a travelling companion, during the greater part of the journey, a foreign lady who had been once the mistress of an old friend and official colleague of Mr Pitt, and who was still in the habit

of corresponding with her former protector. Wholly ignorant of these circumstances, Lord Edward, with the habitual frankness of his nature, not only expressed freely his opinions on all political subjects, but afforded some clues, it is said, to the secret of his present journey, which his fellow-traveller was, of course, not slow in transmitting to her official friend."

The projected invasion was attempted in the following December, and signally failed; yet the conspiracy went on, and it appears, by the returns made to Lord Edward, as head of the military committee of the association, that, in February, 1798, a body of 300,000 men were armed and ready to rise at a moment's notice, although the government was not aware who the chief conspirators were. "It is indeed," says Mr Moore, "not the least singular feature of this singular piece of history, that with a government strongly intrenched both in power and will, resolved to crush its opponents, and not scrupulous as to the means, there should now have elapsed two whole years of all but open rebellion, under their very eyes, without their being able, either by force or money, to obtain sufficient information to place a single one of the many chiefs of the confederacy in their power. Even now, so far from their vigilance being instrumental in the discovery, it was but to the mere accidental circumstance of a worthless member of the conspiracy being pressed for a sum of money to discharge some debts, that the government was indebted for the treachery that at once laid the whole plot at their feet, delivered up to them at one seizure almost all its leaders, and thus, disorganizing by rendering it headless the entire body of the union, was the means, it is not too much to say, of saving the country to Great Britain. The name of this informer—a name in one country at least never to be forgotten—was Thomas Reynolds." Before the warrants were issued an opportunity of escape, through the connivance of government, was offered to Lord Edward; but on Mr Ogilvie urging him to avail himself of it, he replied: "It is now out of the question: I am too deeply pledged to these men to be able to withdraw with honour." He fled, however, into the country, and continued for some time engaged in concocting a general rising, but was at length apprehended at a friend's house in Dublin. In his resistance to the party which seized him he was severely wounded; he lingered in a hopeless way from the 18th of May to the 4th of June, when he expired in prison.

Lord Edward was a brave and an amiable man; but sanguine and uncalculating as a child, and ill-fitted to head such an enterprise as that which cost him his life. Whatever may be thought of the general merits of the cause to which he sacrificed himself, no one can attach to his memory the stain of interested or personal motives. The reader will be gratified to know that his late majesty George IV. ordered the reversal of Lord Edward Fitzgerald's attainder.

Caulfield, Earl of Charlemont.

BORN A. D. 1728.—DIED A. D. 1799.

THIS nobleman, son of Viscount Charlemont Baron Caulfield, was born in Dublin on the 18th of August, 1728. He succeeded to his

father's title and estates when only six years old. His education was rather desultory, and how his taste for literature was acquired it is not very easy to trace. In 1746 he went abroad, and attended the academy of Turin for one year. This was the only public school or university he ever attended, and yet he appears to have acquired a most respectable proficiency in letters and polite scholarship generally. He remained on the continent nine years, in the course of which period he extended his travels to Greece, Turkey, and Egypt, and formed an intimate acquaintance with David Hume, whom he met both at Turin and Paris, the President Montesquieu, the Marchese Maffei, and various other eminent personages, of whom a number of interesting reminiscences are preserved in the Memoirs of the Earl by Hardy.¹

In 1755 he returned to his native country, where he was courted by the ministry, but the first scene of court-intrigue which he witnessed so disgusted him that he resolved to be no party's man; and he kept his understanding in his own power to the day of his death. It had been his intention to remain a bachelor, until one day his brother, Major Caulfield, to whom he was pointing out the classical improvements he had made in his grounds, happened to remark, that when the property came into his hands, he should at once do away with its decorations, and devote the land to the more profitable purposes of growing corn and grazing cattle. This observation gave the future earl so much offence that he determined to marry; and, in July, 1768, he was united to Mary, the daughter of an officer on half-pay, named Hickman, who bore him several children. He took his seat in the Irish house of peers when about thirty years of age; and, subsequently, with some reluctance, accepted the earldom of Charlemont; annexing, however, to the patent of his creation, an apology to his successors, written by himself, for having consented to receive it at a time when such honours were obtained with extreme facility. It is sufficient for his memory to say that the title was conferred upon him, during the lieutenancy of the earl of Northumberland, without any solicitation; and that he was neither at that time nor at any other invested with any official situation.

In 1779 Earl Charlemont was declared commander-in-chief of the Irish association of volunteers. The history of this most anomalous political body has been very ably detailed by the writer of the article on Hardy's Life of Charlemont in the 19th volume of the 'Edinburgh Review.' "A Catholic bill," says the reviewer, "was carried in 1778, and about the same time, the whole strength and independent spirit of the nation was directed towards the obtaining a free trade, and the abolition of those laws by which the kingdom and parliament of Ireland had been rendered entirely dependent upon the parliament or cabinet of England. It is now universally admitted, however, that neither of these great objects would have been obtained, had it not been for the formidable array, and patriotic resolutions of the Associated Volunteers, who then covered the country. It is absolutely necessary, therefore, to explain, in a few words, the origin of this singular institution, which, to speak it in plain terms, effected a revolution in Ireland not less momentous and radical than that which was accomplished in England in 1688; and a revolution which, though carried through by the instru-

¹ London: 4to. 1810.

mentality of an armed force, was yet conducted with a temperance and moderation unexampled in the history of any such transaction.

“About the year 1777 a considerable alarm had been excited by the report of an invasion meditated by France upon several parts of the Irish shore; and as the country had been almost entirely stripped of its regular force, by the exigencies of the foreign service, very urgent applications were made to government for the means of defence. To these applications the government was constrained to reply, that it had no forces to spare for such a purpose; and that it trusted in a great degree to the vigilance of the navy, and to the valour and loyalty of the inhabitants. The inhabitants, thus left to their own exertions, were not slow in showing that these were sufficient for their security. Under the direction of a number of public-spirited gentlemen, a great variety of volunteer companies were raised, and trained to arms, in all the districts on the coast; and as they multiplied, and became better organized, were reunited into battalions and brigades. In a country overflowing with an ardent, idle, and spirited population, it is easy to conceive with what rapidity an institution of this kind was likely to diffuse itself. Independent of the patriotic motives which suggested the attempt, the gentry were vain of the numbers and discipline of those they could engage to serve under them;—and the peasantry were vain of their uniform, their band, the admiration they excited, and the importance to which they were raised. The institution spread from the coasts to the centre of the country; and before the end of the year 1780, there were upwards of 42,000 men arrayed and embodied in Ireland, commanded by officers of their own election; and free to lay down their arms, as they had taken them up, from the impulses of their own sense of duty or of honour.

“Important as the services were which this body rendered to the government and the country at their first institution, it is not possible that they should not have been regarded with considerable distrust and apprehension, from the moment that they began to communicate and be organized in large bodies,—to form encampments, and assemble for reviews, with a splendour, and in numbers, far exceeding any thing that had ever been displayed by the regular army in that country. Such, however, was their popularity,—such the unquestionable loyalty of all the men who possessed the chief influence among them,—and such, for a good while, the utter inoffensiveness of their deportment,—that, whatever jealousy was felt, none was manifested by any party in the state. The thanks of the government, and of both houses of parliament, were repeatedly voted to them, in terms of the highest approbation. They lined the streets through which the members proceeded to their places of assembly; and escorted, with their unbought battalions, the lord-lieutenant on his arrival or departure from the seat of government. Persons holding the first offices in the state, intrigued for commissions in their body;—and a vast self-created military force, seemed for a while to be regarded as a safe and ordinary ingredient in the frame of the constitution.

“It has been already observed, however, that just about the time when the exigencies of national defence led, accidentally as it were, to the formation of this great force, the body of the nation had been roused to an extraordinary degree of zeal for the recovery of their commercial

and political freedom. The sense of the country was so decidedly in favour of those claims, that it was not without great difficulty that the government could command a majority, even in the houses of parliament, where Flood and Grattan displayed an eloquence and a courage of which there was no example in the recent annals of their country;—while, out of doors, the sentiments of the nation were not only unanimous, but keen and enthusiastic, even beyond the common pitch of Irish impetuosity. It could not but happen, therefore, that the volunteers should participate in this spirit. Being taken indifferently from all ranks and descriptions of the community, and from all parts of the country, and commanded by officers who had been raised to that station, not by the favour of the court, but by their individual and local popularity and influence, from whatever source these might be derived,—they could not fail to represent very faithfully whatever sentiments or opinions were really prevalent among the body of the people, and to share in all the emotions by which they might happen to be inspired. It was almost as inevitable, that, when assembled in large bodies, the leading men among them should communicate and converse together upon those great topics of national interest; or that, when they had once felt their power and their popularity, they should not think of employing them in the support of this good cause.

“In those days, it was not illegal for persons associated for lawful purposes, to appoint delegates to take charge of their common interests, or for any body of men to petition parliament, or to express, in public resolutions, their determination to seek, by all constitutional means, an amelioration of their political condition. Those important points were accordingly discussed, with various degrees of temper, in various local assemblages; till, at last, one of the Armagh battalions, commanded by Lord Charlemont, appointed a full meeting of delegates from all the volunteer corps within the province of Ulster, to take place at Dunganon on the 15th of February, 1782, ‘then and there to deliberate on the present alarming situation of public affairs; and to determine, and to publish to the country, what may be the result of such meeting.’ On the day appointed, the representation of 143 corps accordingly assembled; and, after a good deal of discussion, adopted a variety of resolutions, by which they condemned, as grievances, and unconstitutional, the powers exercised by the privy-council, or parliament of England, under the law of Poynings, or of George I.; and also the various remaining obstructions that had been allowed to cramp the trade of Ireland;—and declared, that ‘they were determined to seek redress of these grievances by all constitutional means;—and pledged themselves, at every ensuing election, to support those only who had supported and would support them therein.’ They appointed a committee to call future meetings, and to act for them in the interim; and to communicate with such other volunteer associations as might think proper to adopt similar resolutions;—and, finally, they voted the following short and emphatic address to the minority in both houses of parliament, who had unsuccessfully supported the claims which they had then asserted:—

“My Lords and Gentlemen—We thank you for your noble and spirited, though hitherto ineffectual efforts, in defence of the great constitutional rights of your country. Go on! The almost unanimous voice of the people is with you; and in a free country, the voice of the

people must prevail. We know our duty to our sovereign, and are loyal. We know our duty to ourselves, and are resolved to be free. We seek for our rights, and no more than our rights; and, in so just a pursuit, we should doubt the being of a Providence if we doubted of success.' "

The appointment of a whig ministry, with Rockingham and Fox at the head of it, and of the duke of Portland as lord-lieutenant of Ireland, happened most providentially at this crisis. The wild and liberal measures of the new ministry satisfied the patriotic portion of the agitators, and none acted more cordially with ministers than the earl of Charlemont.

To the command of the old volunteer army of Ireland his lordship was for several years successively elected; nor did this relation cease until a difference of political opinion had arisen, which induced him to resign. That difference arose on the question of admitting the Catholics to participate in the power of the state. The idea was first broached in an address from the volunteers of Ulster to his lordship, after they had been reviewed by him in the neighbourhood of Belfast. He, in plain, but very polite and respectful terms, expressed his difference of opinion on that question. A discordance of sentiment, on a point of such moment, must have been fatal to that cordiality of affection which had alone reconciled him to the troublesome, though highly honourable, situation to which he had been raised: he therefore shortly afterwards resigned his command.

Of a reform in the representation his lordship had been long a friend, and was among the first of those noblemen and gentlemen who, when the question was agitated, and the great difficulty appeared to be how individuals should be satisfied for the annihilation of what they had been accustomed to regard as their property, made an offer of a voluntary surrender of their boroughs to the public. On the question of the regency, too, he adopted that side which alone was thought compatible with the independence of Ireland. He was one of those, who, in opposition to the partisans of Mr Pitt, asserted the right of that kingdom to appoint its own regent; and, as they constituted a majority in the two houses, they accordingly offered the regency to the heir-apparent. In a mind like that of his lordship, cultivated, vigorous, and pure, error is seldom a plant of perennial growth. The opinion which he so honestly entertained, and so boldly avowed to the volunteer army of 1784, he seems to have changed for those of a more liberal complexion, as he afterwards supported the Catholic claim to the elective franchise, which parliament acceded to in 1796, and became an advocate for Catholic emancipation. Of the system of coercion which preceded the insurrection in Ireland his lordship was uniformly the declared enemy. He, therefore, was one of the very few who supported Lord Moira in his parliamentary reprobation of these measures, and in recommending those of peace and conciliation.

Unexceptionable, however, as Lord Charlemont's political conduct has been, it is not as a politician that he is exclusively entitled to our regard. He is more highly estimable, perhaps, as a man of taste and literature. As a general scholar he had not his equal in the Irish peerage. Possessing a respectable knowledge of the learned languages, he was also intimately acquainted with those of modern Europe, par-

ticularly the Italian, in which he was an adept. To his love of letters Ireland owes in a great measure the establishment of the Royal Irish academy, which was incorporated by royal charter in 1786, and of which his lordship was elected president. Of this office he discharged the duties *con amore*, constantly attending its meetings, unless when ill health prevented, presiding with a father's care over its concerns, and occasionally contributing to fill the pages of its transactions. In these volumes his lordship published three essays, which are highly respectable,—one on a contested passage in Herodotus,—another on an ancient custom at Meteline, with considerations on its origin,—and a third on the antiquity of the woollen manufacture in Ireland, which he has proved from some passages in the Italian poets. Among the lovers and judges of the fine arts he held a conspicuous rank. At his house in Rutland-square, Dublin, was to be seen a most respectable collection of the great masters in painting and sculpture, both ancient and modern; and of his taste in architecture his temple of Marino, within a couple of miles of the Irish metropolis, is a beautiful specimen.

Viscount Howe.

BORN A. D. 1725.—DIED A. D. 1799.

THIS gallant officer was the second son of Lord Viscount Howe by a daughter of Baron Kilmanseck. He was educated at Eton school, which he left at the age of fourteen to enter on board the *Severn* of 50 guns, commanded by the Hon. Captain Legge, and which formed part of the squadron destined for the South seas under Commodore Anson. He next served on board the *Burford*, which was one of the squadron detached in 1743, from Sir Chaloner Ogle's fleet, to reduce the town of La Guyra on the coast of Caraccas. The *Burford* suffered much in this enterprise, and Captain Lushington was killed. Mr Howe was appointed acting-lieutenant by the commodore, and in a short time returned to England with his ship, but his commission not being confirmed by the admiralty, he returned to his patron in the West Indies.

Sir Chaloner appointed him lieutenant of a sloop of war; and being employed to cut out an English merchantman, which had been taken by a French privateer under the guns of the Dutch settlement of St Eustatia, he executed the difficult and dangerous enterprise in such a manner as to produce the most sanguine expectations of his future services. In 1745 Lieutenant Howe was with Admiral Vernon in the *Downs*, but was in a short time raised to the rank of commander, in the Baltimore sloop of war, which joined the squadron then cruising on the coast of Scotland under the command of Admiral Smith. During this cruise an action took place, in which Captain Howe gave a fine example of persevering intrepidity. The *Baltimore*, in company with another armed vessel, fell in with two French frigates of 30 guns, with troops and ammunition for the service of the Pretender, which she instantly attacked by running between them. In the action which followed, Captain Howe received a wound in his head which at first appeared to be fatal. He, however, soon discovered signs of life, and when the necessary operation was performed, resumed all his former

activity, continued the action if possible with redoubled spirit, and obliged the French ships, with their prodigious superiority in men and metal, to sheer off, leaving the Baltimore, at the same time, in such a shattered condition as to be wholly disqualified to pursue them. He was, in consequence of this gallant service, immediately made Post-captain, and on the 10th of April, 1746, was appointed to the Triton frigate, and ordered to Lisbon, where, in consequence of Captain Holbourne's bad state of health, he was transferred to the Rippon, destined for the coast of Guinea. But he soon quitted that station to join his early patron, Admiral Knowles in Jamaica, who appointed him first captain of his ship of 80 guns; at the conclusion of the war in 1748 he returned in her to England.

In March 1750-51 Captain Howe was appointed to the command of the Guinea station, in *La Gloire*, of 44 guns; when, with his usual spirit and activity, he checked the injurious proceedings of the Dutch governor-general on the coast, and adjusted the difference between the English and Dutch settlements. At the close of the year 1751 he was appointed to the *Mary* yacht, which he soon exchanged for the *Dolphin* frigate, in which he sailed to the Streights, where he executed many difficult and important services. Here he remained about three years; and soon after, on his return to England, he obtained the command of the *Dunkirk* of 60 guns, which was among the ships that were commissioned from an apprehension of a rupture with France. This ship was one of the fleet with which Admiral Boscawen sailed to obstruct the passage of the French fleet into the gulf of St Lawrence, when Captain Howe took the *Aleide*, a French ship of 64 guns, off the coast of Newfoundland. A powerful fleet being prepared, in 1757, under the command of Sir Edward Hawke, to make an attack upon the French coast, Captain Howe was appointed to the *Magnanime*, in which ship he battered the fort on the island of Aix till it surrendered. In 1758 he was appointed commodore of a small squadron which sailed to annoy the enemy on their coasts. This he effected with his usual success at St Malo, where an hundred sail of ships and several magazines were destroyed; the heavy gale blowing into shore, which rendered it impracticable for the troops to land, alone prevented the executing a similar service against the town and harbour of Cherbourg. On the 1st of July he returned to St Helen's. This expedition was soon followed by another, when Prince Edward—afterwards duke of York—was intrusted to the care of Commodore Howe, on board his ship the *Essex*. The fleet sailed on the 1st of August, 1758, and on the 6th came to an anchor in the bay of Cherbourg; the town was taken, and the bason destroyed. The commodore, with his Royal midshipman on board, next sailed to St Malo, and as his instructions were to keep the coast of France in continual alarm, he very effectually obeyed them. The unsuccessful affair of St Cas followed. But never was courage, skill, or humanity, more powerfully or successfully displayed than on this occasion. He went in person in his barge, which was rowed through the thickest fire, to save the retreating soldiers; the rest of the fleet, inspired by his conduct, followed his example; and at least seven hundred men were preserved, by his exertions, from the fire of the enemy or the fury of the waves.

In July, in the same year (1758), his elder brother, who was serving

his country with equal ardour and heroism in America, found an early grave. That brave and admirable officer was killed in a skirmish between the advanced guard of the French, and the troops commanded by General Abercromby, in the expedition against Ticonderoga. Commodore Howe succeeded to the titles and property of his family. In the following year (1759), Lord Howe was employed in the Channel, on board his old ship the *Magnanime*; but no opportunity offered to distinguish himself till the month of November, when the French fleet under Conflans was defeated. When he was presented to the king by Sir Edward Hawke on this occasion, his majesty said, "Your life, my lord, has been one continued series of services to your country." In March, 1760, he was appointed colonel of the Chatham division of marines; and in September following, he was ordered by Sir Edward Hawke to reduce the French fort on the isle of Dumet, in order to save the expense of the transports employed to carry water for the use of the fleet. Lord Howe continued to serve, as occasion required, in the channel; and in the summer of 1762 he removed to the *Princess Amelia*, of 80 guns, having accepted the command as captain to his royal highness the duke of York, now rear-admiral of the Blue, and serving as second in command under Sir Edward Hawke, in the channel. On the 23d of August, 1763, his lordship was appointed to the board of admiralty, where he remained till August, 1765; he was then made treasurer of the navy; and in October, 1770, was promoted to be rear-admiral of the Blue, and commander-in-chief in the Mediterranean. In March, 1775, he was appointed rear-admiral of the White; and was soon after chosen to represent the borough of Dartmouth in parliament. In the month of December, in the same year, he was made vice-admiral of the Blue. It was on one of these promotions that Lord Hawke, then first lord of the admiralty, rose in the house of peers, and said, "I advised his majesty to make the promotion. I have tried my Lord Howe on important occasions; he never asked me how he was to execute any service, but always went and performed it."

In 1778 France having become a party in the war, the French Admiral D'Estaing appeared, on the 11th of July, in sight of the British fleet at Sandy Hook, with a considerable force of line-of-battle-ships in complete equipment and condition. Most of the ships under Lord Howe had been long in service, were not well-manned, and were not line-of-battle-ships of the present day. The French admiral, however, remained seven days without making an attack, and by that time Lord Howe had disposed his inferior force in such a manner as to set him at defiance. On D'Estaing's leaving the Hook, Lord Howe heard of the critical situation of Rhode island, and made every possible exertion to preserve it. He afterwards acted chiefly on the defensive. Such conduct appears to have been required, from the state of his fleet, and the particular situation of the British cause in America. He, however, contrived to baffle all the designs of the French admiral; and may be said, considering the disadvantages with which he was surrounded, to have conducted and closed the campaign with honour. Lord Howe now resigned the command to Admiral Byron; and on his return to England in October, immediately struck his flag. In the course of this year he had been advanced to be vice-admiral of the White, and shortly after, to the same rank in the Red squadron. On the change of ad-

ministration in the year 1782, Lord Howe was raised to the dignity of a viscount of Great Britain, having been previously advanced to the rank of admiral of the Blue. He was then appointed to command the fleet fitted out for the relief of Gibraltar; and he fulfilled the important objects of this expedition. Peace was concluded shortly after Lord Howe's return from performing this important service; and in January, 1783, he was nominated first lord of the admiralty. That office, in the succeeding April, he resigned to Lord Keppel; but was re-appointed on the 30th of December in the same year. On the 24th of September, 1787, he was advanced to the rank of admiral of the White; and in July, 1788, he finally quitted his station at the admiralty. In the following August he was created an earl of Great Britain.

On the commencement of the war, in 1793, Earl Howe took the command of the western squadron at the particular and personal request of the king. On the 19th of May, 1794, his lordship being off Brest, it was discovered that the French fleet had put to sea; on the morning of the 28th, the enemy was discovered to windward, and some partial actions took place. "The weather-gage," says his lordship in his own despatch, "having been obtained in the progress of the last-mentioned day, and the fleet being in a situation for bringing the enemy to close action the 1st instant, the ships bore up together for that purpose, between seven and eight o'clock in the morning. The French, their force consisting of twenty-six ships of the line, opposed to his majesty's fleet of twenty-five, (the *Audacious* having parted company with the sternmost ship of the enemy's line, captured in the night of the 28th,) waited for the action, and sustained the attack with their customary resolution. In less than an hour after the close action commenced in the centre, the French admiral, engaged by the *Queen Charlotte*, crowded off, and was followed by most of the ships of his van in condition to carry sail after him, leaving with us about ten or twelve of his crippled or totally dismasted ships, exclusive of one sunk in the engagement. The *Queen Charlotte* had then lost her fore-top-mast, and the main-top-mast fell over the side very soon after. The greater number of the other ships of the British fleet were, at this time, so much disabled or widely separated, and under such circumstances with respect to those ships of the enemy in a state for action, and with which the firing was still continued, that two or three, even of their dismantled ships, attempting to get away under a spritsail singly, or smaller sail raised on the stump of the foremast, could not be detained. Seven remained in our possession, one of which, however, sunk before the adequate assistance could be given to her crew; but many were saved. The *Brunswick*, having lost her mizen-mast in the action, and drifted to leeward of the French retreating ships, was obliged to put away large to the northward from them. Not seeing her chased by the enemy, in that predicament, I flatter myself she may arrive in safety at Plymouth. All the other twenty-four ships of his majesty's fleet re-assembled later in the day; and I am preparing to return with them, as soon as the captured ships of the enemy are secured, for Spithead."

On the 13th of June Lord Howe arrived at Portsmouth, and on the 26th of the same month the king and queen, with three of the princesses, dined on board his ship, the *Queen Charlotte*, his majesty holding a naval levee on board, at which the victorious admiral was pre-

sented with a sword enriched with diamonds, and a gold chain and medal. The thanks of both houses of parliament were also voted to him. In the following year his lordship was made a knight of the Garter, and general of marines. He resigned the command of the fleet in 1797, but lived to perform another eminent service to his country in bringing the Spithead mutineers to terms, and prevailing on them to return to their duty. He died on the 5th of August, 1799.

Viscount Howe is allowed by all to have been an able seaman and most deservedly popular in the service. Yet, says Mason, "he had no spice of the Tar in his personal behaviour." He has been censured by some for inactivity after the famous engagement of the 1st of June, 1794. "If all had been properly managed," says Brenton, "he might have completed the greatest naval campaign recorded in history."

Admiral Barrington.

BORN A. D. 1729.—DIED A. D. 1800.

THE Honourable Samuel Barrington, senior admiral of the White, and general of his majesty's marine forces, was the fifth son of John, first Viscount Barrington, and was born in the year 1729. From his early youth he manifested an attachment to the naval service, and entered very young into the navy. In 1747 he commanded the Weasle sloop-of-war, whence he was removed to the Bellona frigate. Soon after this latter appointment he signalized himself by the capture of the Duc de Chartres, a French East-India ship of thirty guns. Towards the close of the same year he was promoted to the Romney of fifty guns.

After the peace of 1748, Captain Barrington had the command of the Seahorse, a twenty gun ship, on the Mediterranean station. In 1757 he was appointed to the Achilles of sixty guns. This ship was one of the squadron which took the Reasonable French man-of-war, in 1757; but the action was over before Captain Barrington could range up along-side of her. In 1759 he had an opportunity to signalize his courage in an engagement with the Count de St Florentin, French man-of-war, of equal force with the Achilles; she fought for two hours, and had 116 men killed or wounded, and all her masts shot away. The Achilles had twenty-five men killed or wounded. In the spring of 1761, Captain Barrington served under Admiral Keppel at the siege of Belleisle. To secure a landing for the troops, it became necessary to attack a fort and other works, in a sandy bay intended to be the place of debarkation. Three ships, one of which was the Achilles, were destined to this service. Captain Barrington got first to his station, and soon silenced the fire from the fort and from the shore, and cleared the coast for the landing of the troops. They were landed, but were soon obliged to re-embark, in which they were well-covered by the Achilles and other ships. Ten days after, however, they made good their landing at a place where mounting the rock was, as the commanders expressed it, barely possible, and Captain Barrington was sent home with the news.

After the peace of 1763, Captain Barrington had his turn of service;

and in 1768 he commanded the *Venus* frigate, in which ship the late duke of Cumberland was entered as a midshipman. In October Barrington left this ship, for a short time, in order that his royal highness might receive the rank of post-captain; and when the duke was made rear-admiral of the *Blue*, Barrington proceeded with him to Lisbon as his captain. Soon after his return, the dispute between Great Britain and Spain respecting Falkland's Island took place; and on the fitting out of the fleet, Captain Barrington was appointed to the command of the *Albion* of seventy-four guns, and soon after made colonel of marines. He found some little difficulty, from a scarcity of seamen, in manning his ship, and had recourse to a humorous experiment. He offered a bounty for all lamp-lighters, and men of other trades which require alertness, who would enter; and soon procured a crew, but of such a description that they were for some time distinguished by the title of Barrington's blackguards. He soon, however, changed their complexion. He had long borne the character of being a thorough-bred seaman, and a rigid disciplinarian; his officers under him were equally well-trained; and they soon succeeded in making the *Albion* one of the best-disciplined ships in the royal navy. The convention between the two courts putting an end to all prospect of hostilities, the *Albion* was ordered as a guardship to Plymouth; in which situation Captain Barrington commanded her for three years. While in this situation Captain Barrington made himself universally esteemed, and showed that he possessed those accomplishments which adorn the officer and the man.

On the breaking out of the war with France, Captain Barrington, having then been thirty-one years a post-captain in the navy, was promoted to the rank of rear-admiral of the *White*, and despatched with a squadron to the West Indies. He found himself, on his arrival, so much inferior to the enemy that he could not preserve Dominica from falling into their hands. However, before the French fleet, under D'Estaing, could reach the West Indies, he was joined at Barbadoes by the troops under General Grant, from America. He then immediately steered for St Lucia, and the British troops had gained possession of a part of the island, when the French fleet, under the command of D'Estaing, appeared in sight. Barrington lay in the Grand Cul de Sac, with only three ships of the line, three of fifty guns, and some frigates; and with this force, had not only to defend himself against ten sail of the line, many frigates and American armed ships, but also to protect a large fleet of transports having on board provisions and stores for the army, which there had not yet been time to land. During the night, the admiral caused the transports to be warped into the bay, and moored the men-of-war in a line without them. D'Estaing elated with the hopes of crushing this small naval force under Barrington, attacked him next morning, first with ten sail of the line; but failing, he made a second attack with his whole force, and was equally unsuccessful, being only able to carry off one transport, which the English had not time to warp within the line. This defence is among the first naval achievements of the war. In an attack by land, on General Meadow's intrenchments, the count was equally repulsed, and the island soon after capitulated. Admiral Byron shortly after arriving in the West Indies, Barrington became second in command only. In the action which

took place between the British fleet and the French on the 6th of July, 1775, Barrington, in the *Prince of Wales*, commanded the van-division. The enemy were much superior to the English, but this discovery was not made till it was too late to remedy it. Barrington, in the *Prince of Wales*, with the *Boyne* and *Sultan*, pressed forward, soon closed with the enemy's fleet, and bravely sustained their attack until joined by other ships. It was not, however, the intention of the French admiral to risk a general engagement, having the conquest of Grenada in view; and his ships being cleaner than those of the English, enabled him to choose his distance. The consequence was, that several of the British ships were very severely handled, whilst others had no share in the action. Barrington was wounded, and had twenty-six men killed, and forty-six wounded in his own ship.

Soon after this engagement, Admiral Barrington, on account of ill-health, returned to England. These two actions had established the admiral's reputation, and he was looked on as one of the first officers in the English navy; on his return, however, we do not find any mark of his sovereign's favour conferred on him, until Sandwich was driven from the admiralty, and Keppel succeeded him; Barrington now made one or two cruises as commander-in-chief. When Lord Howe sailed to the relief of Gibraltar, our admiral was again second in command; and in the slight action which his lordship had with the combined fleets on his return, Barrington behaved with his usual gallantry. This was the last action of the war, and on the close of it he retired to a private life. In 1787 he was promoted to the rank of admiral of the Blue, and soon after made lieutenant-general of marines, a post which he held till the death of Lord Howe; he then succeeded to the generalship. Since the peace of 1783, he lived in an honourable retirement. He died at Bath in 1800.

Sir Ralph Abercromby.

BORN A. D. 1738.—DIED A. D. 1801.

THIS gallant officer was the son of George Abercromby, Esq., of Tullibodie in Clackmannanshire, the representative of a very old Scottish family. He was born in 1738, and at the age of eighteen obtained a cornetcy in the 3d dragoon guards. In 1781 he was appointed colonel of the 103d regiment; and in the year 1787 he reached the rank of major-general.

In the expedition to Holland commanded by the duke of York, he acted with the local rank of lieutenant-general. On his return to England, in 1795, he was made a knight of the Bath, and, in the same year, succeeded Sir Charles Grey as commander-in-chief in the West Indies, where he took from the enemy in rapid succession Grenada, Demerara, St Lucia, St Vincent, and Trinidad. On the breaking-out of the Irish rebellion, Sir Ralph, having in the meantime returned to England, was sent to Ireland as commander-in-chief; but his expressed aversion to the service obtained his recall, and appointment to the chief command in Scotland. In 1799 he again attended the duke of York to Holland, and shared in the dangers of this equally disastrous campaign,

but obtained an increase of military reputation by the skill and presence of mind which he displayed on several critical occasions.

In 1801 he was appointed to the command of the English forces destined to relieve Egypt. On the 16th of March he forwarded the following despatch to the secretary-at-war from the camp before Alexandria:—

“ Sir, although it was not originally my intention to have commenced the operations of the British army in Egypt on the side of Alexandria, yet circumstances arose which induced me to change my opinion. We were much longer delayed on the coast of Asia Minor than we had at first any reason to apprehend; and we were ultimately obliged to sail from Marmorice in a very imperfect state of preparation. I am fully sensible of the exertions of his majesty’s ambassador at the Ottoman Porte, as well as of the quarter-master general, and the other officers who were sent forward to provide for the necessities of the army. Our delays originated from other causes. For a considerable time previous to our sailing the weather was extremely boisterous, and the winds contrary. The moment that it became practicable to sail with so large a fleet, Lord Keith put to sea; we left Marmorice on the 22d of February, and came in sight of Alexandria on the 1st of March.

“ On the 2d, the fleet anchored in Aboukir bay. Until the 7th, the sea ran high, and no disembarkation could be effected; on that day every arrangement was completed; and on the 8th, the troops forming the first division, consisting of the reserve under the command of Major-general Moore, the brigade of Guards under the Hon. Major-general Ludlow, and part of the first brigade under the command of Major-general Coote, got into the boats early in the morning: they had, in general, from five to six miles to row, and did not arrive at the point of landing till ten o’clock. The front of disembarkation was narrow, and a hill, which commanded the whole, seemed almost inaccessible. The enemy were fully aware of our intention, were in force, and had every advantage on their side. The troops, however, notwithstanding their being exposed to a very severe cannonade, and under the fire of grape-shot, made good their landing, ascended the hill with an intrepidity scarcely to be paralleled, and forced the enemy to retire, leaving behind him seven pieces of artillery and a number of horses. The troops that ascended the hill were the 23d regiment, and the four flank companies of the 40th, under the command of Colonel Spencer, whose coolness and good conduct Major-general Moore has mentioned to me in the highest terms of approbation. It is impossible to pass over the good order in which the 28th and 42d regiments landed, under the command of Brigadier-general Oakes who was attached to the reserve under Major-general Moore; and the troops in general lost not a moment in remedying any little disorder which became unavoidable in a landing under such circumstances. The disembarkation of the army continued on that and the following day. The troops which landed on the 8th advanced three miles the same day; and on the 12th the whole army moved forward, and came within sight of the enemy, who was formed on an advantageous ridge, with his right to the canal of Alexandria, and his left towards the sea. It was determined to attack them on the morning of the 13th, and, in consequence, the army marched in two lines by the left, with an intention to turn their right flank. The

troops had not been long in motion before the enemy descended from the heights on which they were formed, and attacked the leading brigades of both lines, which were commanded by Major-general Cradock and major-general the earl of Cavan.

“The 90th regiment formed the advanced guard of the front line, and the 92d that of the second; both battalions suffered considerably, and behaved in such a manner as to merit the praise both of courage and discipline. Major-general Cradock immediately formed his brigade to meet the attack made by the enemy; and the troops changed their position with a quickness and precision which did them the greatest honour. The remainder of the army followed so good an example, and were immediately in a situation not only to face, but to repel the enemy. The reserve, under the command of Major-general Moore, which was on the right, on the change of the position of the army, moved on in column, and covered the right flank. The army continued to advance, pushing the enemy with the greatest vigour, and ultimately forcing them to put themselves under the protection of the fortified heights which form the principal defence of Alexandria. It was intended to have attacked them in this their last position; for which purpose the reserve, under the command of Major-general Moore, which had remained in column during the whole of the day, was brought forward; and the second line, under the command of Major-general Hutchinson, marched to the left across a part of the lake Mariotis, with a view to attack the enemy on both flanks; but on reconnoitring their position, and not being prepared to occupy it after it should be carried, prudence required that the troops who had behaved so bravely, and who were still willing to attempt any thing, however arduous, should not be exposed to a certain loss, when the extent of the advantage could not be ascertained. They were therefore withdrawn, and now occupy a position with their right to the sea, and their left to the canal of Alexandria and lake Mariotis, about a league from the town of Alexandria. Our communication with the fleet is at present kept up by means of the lake of Aboukir. We have been fortunate enough to find water sufficient for the supply of the army; and we begin to derive some supplies from the country.”

On the 21st of March, General Menou arrived from Cairo, and with the whole disposable French force made a desperate attack upon the British lines. “The action,” says General Hutchinson, on whom the command devolved when Sir Ralph fell, “commenced about an hour before day-light, by a false attack on our left, which was under Major-general Cradock’s command, where they were soon repulsed. The most vigorous efforts of the enemy were however directed against our right, which they used every possible exertion to turn. The attack on that point was begun with great impetuosity by the French infantry, sustained by a strong body of cavalry, who charged in column. They were received by our troops with equal ardour, and the utmost steadiness and discipline. The contest was unusually obstinate; the enemy were twice repulsed, and their cavalry were repeatedly mixed with our infantry. They at length retired, leaving a prodigious number of dead and wounded on the field. While this was passing on the right, they attempted to penetrate our centre with a column of infantry, who were also repulsed, and obliged to retreat with loss. The French, during

the whole of the action, refused their right. They pushed forward however, a corps of light troops, supported by a body of infantry and cavalry, to keep our left in check, which certainly was, at that time, the weakest part of our line. We have taken about two hundred prisoners (not wounded); but it was impossible to pursue our victory, on account of our inferiority in cavalry, and because the French had lined the opposite hills with cannon, under which they retired. We also have suffered considerably; few more severe actions have ever been fought, considering the number engaged on both sides. We have sustained an irreparable loss in the person of our never-sufficiently-to-be-lamented commander-in-chief, Sir Ralph Abercromby, who was mortally wounded in the action, and died on the 28th of March. I believe he was wounded early, but he concealed his situation from those about him, and continued in the field, giving his orders with that coolness and perspicuity which had ever marked his character, till long after the action was over, when he fainted through weakness and loss of blood. Were it permitted for a soldier to regret any one who has fallen in the service of his country, I might be excused for lamenting him, more than any other person; but it is some consolation to those who tenderly loved him, that as his life was honourable, so was his death glorious. His memory will be recorded in the annals of his country,—will be sacred to every British soldier, and embalmed in the recollection of a grateful posterity."

Sir Ralph did not die on the field of battle, but was conveyed on board Admiral Keith's ship, where he lingered till the 28th, when he expired. His body was carried to Malta, and there buried under the walls of St Elmo. A monument was erected to his memory in St Paul's by order of the house of commons; and his widow was created Baroness Abercromby.

John, Earl of Clare.

BORN A. D. 1749.—DIED A. D. 1802.

JOHN FITZGIBBON, earl of Clare, was the eldest son of a respectable Irish barrister. His father was of course a staunch Protestant, as none but such were at this period called to the Irish bar; but the family originally was Roman Catholic, and, it is said, the elder Fitzgibbon was at first designed for the Catholic priesthood.

In 1763 the subject of this notice was entered a fellow-commoner of Trinity college, Dublin, where he was contemporary with Flood, and Grattan, and Foster; Grattan and he were constantly pitched against each other in their academical career, as they were destined to be afterwards in a more public and important sphere. Grattan, at first, took the lead; but Fitzgibbon ultimately gained upon his rival, and bore off every contested honour.

Having studied law at the Temple, he was called to the bar while yet a very young man. He undoubtedly commenced his career under very favourable external circumstances; but his professional exertions were prodigious, and to them he was indebted for his rapid and sure rise in public life. In February, 1777, he distinguished himself as

counsel for the university of Dublin against the election of Richard Hely Hutchinson; and on the return of the latter being annulled, Fitzgibbon was chosen university-representative in the Irish house of commons. From his first entrance into political life,—while yet certainly uninvited and unbought,—Fitzgibbon became a partizan of the court, a supporter of all the measures of the British parliament, and of course an opponent of the popular party. His services were rewarded with the place of attorney-general for Ireland, in which office he conducted himself with great energy, and a boldness amounting to audacity, of which the following is an instance. At a time when a popular ferment produced by various causes strongly prevailed in the metropolis of Ireland, a general meeting of the inhabitants was, at the requisition of several respectable persons, called by the sheriffs. His lordship, then attorney-general, and one of the most unpopular men in the kingdom, came to the meeting, accompanied only by one or two friends,—forced his way through the mob, who had some time been in the habits of offering personal insults to those whom they suspected of being adverse to their measures,—and getting upon the hustings, interrupted a popular orator in the midst of his harangue: he then told the sheriffs that they had acted illegally in convening the meeting, commanded them to leave the chair, and threatened them with an information *ex officio* if they presumed to continue it. He then left the astonished assembly amidst the hisses of the mob, and the sheriffs instantly dissolved the meeting.

The most remarkable era of his lordship's political life was the period of the very important and novel question respecting the regency, in 1789. It is well-known that the prevailing party in both houses of the Irish parliament contended for the right of that country to appoint its own regent. This very questionable proposition was resisted by the British cabinet, whose adherents in the Irish parliament insisted that, on legal as well as political grounds, the regent of Great Britain should also exercise that authority with respect to Ireland; on this occasion his lordship took a most decided part in favour of the British side of the question, and exerted his influence and all the energies of his mind on the occasion; and an opportunity soon after offering, on the demise of Lord Lifford, the zeal and fidelity of the subject of this memoir was rewarded, as well as full scope to the exertion of his professional talents given him, by his appointment to the office of lord-high-chancellor of Ireland: he was the first native of the country who ever filled the station. This office being generally accompanied by a peerage, he was, in June, 1789, created Baron Fitzgibbon of Lower Conello in the county of Limerick. His conduct in this very arduous department was such as uniformly reflected the greatest honour on himself, and was equally productive of benefit to his country. His activity and expedition made chancery suits cease to be almost an inheritance; his decisions might have been sometimes blamed as premature; but the paucity of appeals evince that such objections were not very seriously or extensively founded. According to Sir Jonah Barrington, his lordship collected facts with great rapidity and the nicest precision, and decided on them "with a prompt asperity;" but "depending too much on the strength of his own judgment, and the acuteness of his own intellect, he hated precedent and despised the highest judicial authorities because they were not his own."

On the 10th of June, 1795, this thorough-going partizan of the court was created earl of Clare; and on the 24th of September, 1799, he took his rank as an English peer with the title of Lord Fitzgibbon of Sudbury in Devonshire. He died on the 28th of January, 1802. His funeral sermon was preached by Dr Magee. We shall present the reader with an extract from this very eulogistic discourse:—

“Details of political conduct are not the proper subjects for this place; and perhaps, in all cases, the actions and motives of political men should be viewed from a distance, to reduce them from the exaggerated standard of party-feeling to their true and natural dimensions. This much suffice it to say, that having once chosen the line of his public exertions, his conduct was uniformly firm, manly, and consistent. Equally insensible to the acclamations and the menaces of popular zeal, he pursued undaunted his onward course; and it is not impossible, that an indignation conceived against the gross and often mischievous sacrifices to popularity, which in his political experience he must have too frequently witnessed, might have thrown the bias to the contrary side, and confirmed in him an indifference to popular opinion.

“That unshaken firmness which marked his character, and directed his steps through life, was discernible on particular occasions, in proportion as they brought with them the difficulty or the danger that called forth its display. Of these occasions, two may be sufficient to notice; one of them endangering his political, and the other his personal existence. On the former,¹ we behold him risking station, emolument, and power, in the cause of loyal attachment to his sovereign, and in the maintenance of his rights, at a time, when the hopeless recovery of the monarch could leave no expectation of recompense; at a time, when wily calculation repudiated the side of the crown, as a sinking cause; and when, in his most sanguine speculations, he could have looked to no other issue than that which must have dismissed him from political confidence. On the other occasion to which I allude, we behold him exposing himself to still more serious hazard, in the joint defence of the king and the constitution, against the furious onset of rebellion. We all may remember, that when treason wore the air of triumph, and the friends of loyalty and order hung their heads, he stood prominent and erect: when many, even of those whose fidelity was unimpeached, seemed to feel, that prudence required of them a more softened accent of reprobation, and reserving their tones of boldness until the danger had passed by, did not scruple to shrink from an open avowal of their sentiments: when many, even of unquestioned fortitude, deemed it not inconsistent with that fortitude, to seek a momentary shelter from the storm: when treason and loyalty hung trembling in doubtful scales, and not a few paused to see which would preponderate: when it appeared to many not unlikely, that rebellion might through success change its title to revolution:—in times, and under circumstances such as these, whilst he was known to be the object eminently selected for vengeance by the ferocity of an ensanguined rabble, he remained firm and unmoved: he stepped not, for a moment, from the post of duty and of danger; and sought no safety from the perils which

¹ The measure of the regency is that to which reference is here made.

assailed him, save what might arise from presenting to them a bold and manly front.

“ If from his political we pass to his judicial conduct, we shall find the firmness of the former equalled by the decision, the promptness, and the rectitude of the latter. Here indeed is the high ground of this distinguished character. Uniting an ardent love of justice with a rapid intuition of truth, he combined in himself the two great qualities of the judicial station, integrity and despatch; and thus, as far as lies in the power of man, he diminished the evils of litigation, by taking from law all its delay, and much of its uncertainty. Neither did the labours of his exalted station terminate with himself. His comprehensive view embraced the whole circle of the profession: and it was not more his study to discharge his own immediate duties with fidelity, than to enforce on others the due observance of theirs. To purify the courts of justice was with him an object of unremitting attention: and amongst the unprincipled part of the lower order of legal practitioners, it will not easily be forgotten, with what unwearied vigilance he detected and punished every attempt to defeat the claims of equity, by the technical dexterities of a fraudulent chicanery. Nor were the salutary effects of his superintending care confined to the subordinate ranks of the profession. To the honest exercise of that authority, which the eminence of his station and services must have secured to his official representations, we may, in no small degree, attribute that chasteness of selection, which is allowed for many years to have guided the judicial appointments. The disinterested friend of real talents and true legal knowledge, to the zeal and moment of his recommendations is the public in a great measure indebted for the many splendid ornaments of which the judicial bench of this country can boast; for it may safely be pronounced, that in a majority of instances at least, the wisdom of the government took the direction of its choice, from the opinions and views of him, whom all knew to be so well-qualified to discern, and so warmly interested to promote, what was most conducive to the respectability of the bar, and the interests of justice. An enemy to pretenders of all descriptions,—to those who, by indirect means, would intercept the rewards of professional ability and worth,—he must naturally have left behind him not a few who will labour to traduce his character and vilify his motives: but from all that is liberal, judicious, and respectable in the profession; from all who know how to appreciate the value of an upright and able dispensation of justice in the land; from the general voice of the nation, which may have long indeed to wait for a successor possessed of similar endowments; the most honourable and lasting testimony will be borne, not more to his excellencies as a judge, than to his beneficial exertions as superintendent of the whole department of the law.

“ On remaining particulars I must not too long detain your attention. As to his private life, it is well-known, that the same steadiness which sustained his public conduct governed his personal attachments. His friendships were sincere and fixed: and although in a character marked by such strength of features, the lineaments of the softer virtues could scarcely be expected to mix, yet they who knew him in the unbendings of his retirement have often witnessed the genuine indication of their existence, and can fully attest the spontaneous and animated

emotions of a latent tenderness, which it seemed as much his study carefully to conceal, as, in this age of affected sensibility, it is that of others to display. In this, indeed, as in other parts of his character, it is to be lamented, that an habitual disgust against all hypocritical appearances had so far wrought upon his mind, as to render him generally anxious to suppress, lest he might be supposed to affect, feelings and qualities the most honourable and endearing. The occasions, however, have not been few, in which, even to the public eye, the milder affections of his nature have broken through this restraint. And if the charities of domestic life be received as evidence of the kindly dispositions of the heart, perhaps in no case can such proofs be adduced more abundant and convincing.

“In all matters of pecuniary concern, his dealings were directed by a strict and punctual regard to his engagements; and, at the same time, distinguished by a liberality which, without indulging in those excesses that beget embarrassment and sacrifice independence, manifestly evinced a mind aloof from the sordid love of accumulation. In him, indeed, honesty and liberality can scarcely be said to have claimed the rank of virtues. They required no effort, and could boast no triumph, where a rooted contempt of wealth precluded all means of their counteraction. And it deserves to be remarked, that amongst the numerous calumnies which a vindictive malice has endeavoured to cast upon the fame of this distinguished person, the tongue of slander has never whispered the imputation of a single act of mercenary meanness.”

Francis, Duke of Bridgewater.

BORN A. D. 1736.—DIED A. D. 1803.

FRANCIS EGERTON, duke of Bridgewater, was born in 1736, and succeeded to the dukedom on the death of his elder brother John, in 1748. The chief merit of this nobleman consists in the impulse which he gave to the internal navigation of England: indeed, he may be regarded as the creator of that extensive system of canal-navigation by which the principal manufacturing towns and districts of England have been brought into such cheap and speedy communication with each other. His grace's plans were ably carried into execution by Brindley, the engineer, and have, in every instance, realized more than the advantages originally contemplated in them.

“Among other estates,” says the writer of a brief notice of the duke in the *Monthly Magazine* for April, 1803, “he had one at Worsley in the county of Lancaster, rich in coal mines, but which, on account of the expense of land-carriage, although the rich and flourishing town of Manchester was so near, was of little value. Desirous of working these mines to advantage, he formed the plan of a navigable canal from his own estate at Worsley to Manchester. For this purpose he consulted the ingenious Mr Brindley, who had already given some specimens of his wonderful abilities, on the probability of executing such a work. That artist, having surveyed the ground, at once pronounced it to be practicable. Accordingly, in the session of parliament 1758-9, the

duke applied for a bill to make a navigable canal from Salford, near Manchester, to Worsley. His grace met with great opposition in its passage through the two houses, and it would now appear inconceivable that such strong prejudices should have been entertained against a plan of public utility, so apparently advantageous. The duke however succeeded, and immediately set about his work, which appeared to promise so well, that the next year he applied for, and obtained another act to enable him to extend the line, and to pass from Worsley over the river Irwell, near Barton-bridge, to the town of Manchester. The duke of Bridgewater had not only the merit of having spirit to commence works of such immense magnitude, but also for having called into action the great abilities of the late Mr James Brindley, who, with little aid from education, and less knowledge of the mathematics, planned and executed works which would have done honour to the first and best of artists. The duke was repeatedly advised to drop the business, but confiding in the assurances of Mr Brindley, he persevered, and the aqueduct over the river Irwell will remain as a monument of the public spirit of the duke of Bridgewater, and the abilities of the artist, for ages. An idea may be formed of the immense profit arising from this undertaking by a recent event. When the loan, commonly called the loyalty loan, was negotiating, his grace was able to subscribe for, and actually paid down immediately, the sum of £100,000. Besides the duke's concern in this canal, he has been a liberal promoter of, and subscriber to that great work, the Grand Trunk-navigation, which extends from his own navigation at Preston-brook, to the river Trent near Derby. He was, indeed, so convinced of the utility of these kinds of undertakings, as to be always ready to assist with his parliamentary influence for the furthering of any well-digested plan. In politics, the duke of Bridgewater did not take any very active part. Yet we sometimes found him at his place in the house of peers. In 1762 his name is in the division on a motion to withdraw the British troops from Germany, and on the loss of the motion joining in a protest. When the repeal of the American Stamp-act was in agitation, his grace was a strong opposer of that measure; and in 1784, when a certain powerful interest was made use of to prevent Mr Fox's India-bill from passing into a law, the duke was active therein. In general his politics were guided by that of his noble brother-in-law the marquess of Stafford."

The duke's property in Lancashire was entailed on Earl Gower's second son. Dying unmarried, his title of duke became extinct, but that of earl of Bridgewater, with the other minor titles, descended to Major-general John William Egerton, eldest son of Dr Egerton, bishop of Durham, who also succeeded to his estates in Buckinghamshire, Shropshire, and Yorkshire, and a large portion of his funded property.

LLOYD, LORD KENYON.

BORN A. D. 1733.—DIED A. D. 1802.

LLOYD, LORD KENYON was born at Gredington, in Flintshire, in the year 1733. He was the eldest surviving son of Lloyd Kenyon, Esq., originally of Bryn, in the same county, and one of the younger sons

of the ancient family of Kenyon, of Peele in Lancashire. He received the elementary part of his education at Ruthin in Denbighshire, whence he was taken at an early age, and articled to Mr Tomlinson, an attorney, at Nantwich in Cheshire. On the expiration of his articles, Mr Kenyon determined to enter into a line which afforded a more ample scope to his industry and talents, and, accordingly, he became a member of the society of Lincoln's Inn, in Trinity term, 1754 and after a sedulous application to the requisite studies, was called to the bar in Hilary term, 1761.

In the early part of his professional career, the advancement of Mr Kenyon was but slow; he was unassisted by those means which powerful connexion and interest afford; added to this, the branch of his profession to which he chiefly applied himself, namely, that of conveyancing, was not calculated to bring him forward into public notice. But the sterling merit of genuine abilities and persevering industry were not to be overlooked. Mr Kenyon rose gradually into practice; few opinions at the bar, at that time, carried more weight and authority; and he was frequently resorted to as an advocate.

In 1773, Mr Kenyon formed a matrimonial connexion with his relative, Mary, the third daughter of George Kenyon, of Peele in Lancashire; and not long after, he contracted an intimacy with Mr afterwards Lord Thurlow. About this period too, and for some years after, his practice in the court of chancery was very extensive, and of the most lucrative kind. In 1780 a circumstance occurred which not a little contributed to establish his reputation as an advocate and public speaker, namely, his being employed as leading counsel for the defence of Lord George Gordon, on a charge of high treason. On this interesting occasion, Mr Kenyon's second was Mr Erskine, who on that day distinguished himself in such a manner as in a great degree laid the foundation of his future fame. In April, 1782, soon after the accession of the Rockingham party to ministerial power, Mr Kenyon was, without serving the intermediate office of solicitor, appointed to the important situation of attorney-general, and at the same time chief-justice of Chester. The circumstance of Mr Kenyon's direct promotion to the office of attorney-general was regarded as a singular case; similar promotions however had before occurred.

In parliament Mr Kenyon took a decided part in politics, warmly attaching himself to the party of Pitt, and he distinguished himself not a little by his speeches on the noted affair of the coalition, Mr Fox's India-bill, &c. He conducted the prosecution against Horne Tooke; and he opposed a motion for a committee to inquire into the administration of criminal justice. "If," said he, "we allow every pitiful patriot thus to insult us with ridiculous accusations, without making him pay forfeit for his temerity, we shall be eternally pestered with the humming and buzzing of these stingless wasps. Though they cannot wound or poison, they can tease and vex. I hope we shall now handle them so roughly, as to make this the last of such audacious attempts." He took an active part in a debate on the suspension of the habeas corpus act, in the course of which he exclaimed, "Treason and rebellion are properly and peculiarly the native growth of America!" One of the last occasions on which he spoke in the house of commons, was the debate on a bill for the relief of the Roman Catholics,—a measure

which he declared he had no intention to oppose. In March, 1784, he was appointed master of the rolls,—an office of high judicial dignity, and generally leading to still higher legal honours. However, its emoluments fell very far short of those which Mr Kenyon necessarily relinquished by discontinuing his professional pursuits as a counsel. About this time he was created a baronet. In this situation Sir Lloyd Kenyon continued until the latter end of May, 1788, when, on the resignation of the venerable Earl of Mansfield, who, for the long interval of thirty-two years, had held the office of chief-justice of the court of king's bench, he was appointed to succeed him, and at the same time was elevated to the peerage, by the title of Lord Kenyon, Baron of Gredington, in the county of Flint. He was now fixed in a situation which, though not nominally the highest, is perhaps the most important office in the administration of the law of this country; and Lord Kenyon furnished an instance nearly as striking as that of the illustrious Hardwicke, that the profession of the law is that which, of all others, affords the fairest opportunities for the exertion of genuine talent and persevering industry,—whether the object be the gratification of ambition in the attainment of the highest honours in the state, or the possession of abundant wealth. He was appointed one of the council to assist Queen Charlotte in the care of the king's person; and in 1796, was made *custos-rotulorum* and lord-lieutenant of his native county. He continued to exercise his functions as judge, and to take part in the principal political questions of the period, constantly voting with the tories, and opposing the liberal party, till his death, which took place on the 2d of April, 1802, at Bath.

Lord Kenyon merits praise for his noble, firm, and persevering exertions to keep the channels of the law clear and unpolluted by low and sordid practices, and which were particularly exemplified in the vigilant and salutary exercise of his authority over the attorneys of his own court. Another consideration which highly redounds to the honour of his lordship's magisterial character, is the strictness with which he administered the law against the pernicious tribe of gamblers of every description.

In private life the character of Lord Kenyon was amiable and praiseworthy. In his mode of living he was remarkably temperate and regular; but the gratuitous assistance, in his professional capacity, which it was well-known he had often afforded to necessitous and injured individuals, does away the imputation that a fondness for money was rather a prevailing trait in his character. Of his habits, when chief-justice, the following anecdote is related. A gentleman who had sold Lord Kenyon a cottage at Richmond, going into the neighbourhood, had a mind to take a view of his old residence; and, on application, was readily admitted by the housekeeper. Entering the principal room, he saw on the table some books, which proved to be the Bible, Epictetus, and the Whole Duty of Man. "Does my lord read this?" said the gentleman, taking up the Bible. "No sir," replied the woman, "he is always poring over this little book," pointing to Epictetus: "I don't know what it is," added she, "but my lady reads the other two. They come down here on a Saturday evening, bring a shoulder or leg of mutton with them, which serves for Sunday, and they leave me the remains, which serve me for the week."

Francis, Duke of Bedford.

BORN A. D. 1765.—DIED A. D. 1802.

FRANCIS, DUKE OF BEDFORD was born on the 23d of July, 1765; and upon the death of his grandfather in 1771, he succeeded to the title and fortunes of his family. His grace received the first rudiments of his education at Loughborough house, a seminary at that time much in fashion as a preparatory school. From this place he was removed at an early period to Westminster school, where, by the blow of a cricket-ball, he became subject to an inveterate hernia, which proved the ultimate cause of his premature death.

It is not understood, however, that his grace was a very deep proficient in the classics, and we believe he considered his own education as having been neglected; but this was amply compensated by the uncommon vigour of his mind, and his application to useful studies in his mature years. The turf seems to have engaged his early and most earnest attention; it was indeed the favourite pursuit of his grandfather, but his grace seems to have addicted himself to this sport rather from a predilection for the noble animal which is the object of it, than from the mere love of gambling. His attention was soon directed to a more important and patriotic object,—the general improvement of agriculture, and the encouragement of every art subservient to that truly meritorious science.

The late Mr Bakewell was one of his first instructors in the knowledge of cattle and the means of improving the breed. But he soon equalled, and was thought by some to have excelled, his master, both in what may be termed the theory and the practice. In whatever his grace engaged, two qualities generally insured success,—a clear judgment and indefatigable perseverance; while his large property amply furnished him with the means of procuring able assistance, and directing it in the most effectual manner in the pursuit of his end.

From his first outset in public life, he was connected with Mr Fox, and was a firm and disinterested supporter of whig principles. Yet it was long before his grace could so far overcome his natural diffidence as to be prevailed upon to speak in public. What the persuasions of those whose opinions he most respected could not effect, was unexpectedly produced by a momentary glow of indignation; he commenced his career as a public speaker, by what is generally considered as the most difficult effort of an orator—a reply. In a debate in the house of lords, his grace imagining himself personally alluded to by one of the speakers, rose and defended himself and his party in a most animated and able manner. From that period he occasionally spoke upon the most important questions that divided the house, and was constantly heard, even by his adversaries, with the most respectful attention. He opposed the war in its commencement, and predicted most of the calamities and miseries which ensued from it. With the rest of the whig party he seceded from parliament in 1796, and very seldom was seen in his place in the house till after the change of ministry in the beginning of 1801.

His grace died, after a brief illness, on the 2d of March, 1802. His person was tall and well-proportioned; his countenance corresponded with the frankness and liberality of his disposition,—it was handsome and had a pleasing expression. His external deportment was easy and unaffected.

Though better acquainted with matters of business in the detail than most men, yet a greatness of design is evident in all his plans; he never undertook any thing upon a small or trifling scale. The magnificence of the improvements on the Bloomsbury estate were correspondent to the taste of the proprietor. Had it pleased Providence to prolong his useful life, he would have probably effected more for the improvement of his country than any individual of the age, without excepting the duke of Bridgewater himself. He took an active and conspicuous share in every public institution for the promotion of those arts which are essential to the welfare of a country; and where his name and example could be of service, they were never withheld. Though his income was immense, he never thought of reserving any part of it; it was all consumed by his bounty and his improvements; and so great and extensive were his plans, that, in the words of Mr Fox, “his munificence might, if he had lived, have engaged him in expenses, to which even his princely fortune would have been found inadequate.”

Mr Fox, on moving the writ for Tavistock, consequent on the elevation of Lord John Russell to the dukedom, said:—“To appreciate his merits justly, we must consider, not only the advantages, but the disadvantages, connected with such circumstances. The dangers attending prosperity in general, and high situations in particular,—the corrupting influence of flattery, to which men in such situations are more peculiarly exposed,—have been the theme of moralists in all ages, and in all nations; but how are these dangers increased with respect to him who succeeds in his childhood to the first rank and fortune in a kingdom such as this,—and who, having lost his parents, is never approached by any being who is not represented to him as in some degree his inferior! Unless blessed with a heart uncommonly susceptible and disposed to virtue, how should he who has scarce ever seen an equal, have a common feeling and a just sympathy for the rest of mankind, who seem to have been formed rather for him, and as instruments of his gratification, than together with him for the general purposes of nature? Justly has the Roman satirist remarked,

*Rarus enim fermè sensus communis in illa
Fortuna.*——

This was precisely the case of the duke of Bedford, nor do I know that his education was perfectly exempt from the defects usually belonging to such situations; but virtue found her own way, and on the very side where the danger was the greatest was her triumph most complete. From the blame of selfishness no man was ever so eminently free. No man put his own gratification so low, that of others so high, in his estimation. To contribute to the welfare of his fellow-citizens was the constant unremitted pursuit of his life, by his example and his beneficence to render them better, wiser, and happier. He truly loved the public; but not only the public, according to the usual acceptation of the word,—not merely the body corporate (if I may so express myself)

which bears that name,—but man in his individual capacity,—all who came within his notice and deserved his protection, were objects of his generous concern. From his station, the sphere of his acquaintance was larger than that of most other men; yet in this extended circle few,—very few,—could be counted to whom he had not found some occasion to be serviceable. To be useful,—whether to the public at large,—whether to his relations and nearer friends,—or even to any individual of his species, was the ruling passion of his life. He died, it is true, in a state of celibacy; but if they may be called a man's children whose concerns are as dear to him as his own,—to protect whom from evil is the daily object of his care,—to promote whose welfare he exerts every faculty of which he is possessed,—if such, I say, are to be esteemed our children, no man had ever a more numerous family than the duke of Bedford. The only circumstance," continued the orator, "like a failing in this great character was, that while indulging his darling passion for making himself useful to others, he might be too regardless of future consequences to himself and family. The love of utility was indeed his darling, his ruling passion. Even in his recreations,—and he was by no means naturally averse to such as were suitable to his station in life,—no less than in his graver hours, he so much loved to keep this grand object in view, that he seemed by degrees to grow weary of every amusement which was not in some way connected with it. Agriculture he judged rightly to be the most useful of all sciences; and, more particularly, in the present state of affairs he conceived it to be the department in which his services to his country might be beneficial. To agriculture, therefore, he principally applied himself; nor can it be doubted but with his great capacity, activity, and energy, he must have attained his object, and made himself eminently useful in that important branch of political economy."

Mr Fox, in touching upon the political character of his noble friend, said:—"I believe few if any of us are so infatuated with the extreme notions of philosophy as not to feel a partial veneration for the principles,—some leaning even to the prejudices of ancestors, especially if they were of any note,—from whom we are respectively descended. Such biasses are always, as I suspect, favourable to the cause of patriotism and public virtue; I am sure, at least, that in Athens and Rome they were so considered. No man had ever less of family-pride, in the bad sense, than the duke of Bedford; but he had a great and just respect for his ancestors. Now, if, upon the principle to which I have just alluded, it was in Rome thought excusable for one of the Claudii to have, in conformity with the general manners of their race, something too much of an aristocratical pride and haughtiness,—surely in this country it is not unpardonable in a Russell to be zealously attached to the rights of the subject, and peculiarly tenacious of the popular parts of our constitution. It is excusable, at least, in one who numbers amongst his ancestors the great earl of Bedford,—the patron of Pym, and the friend of Hampden,—to be an enthusiastic lover of liberty; nor is it to be wondered at if a descendant of Lord Russell should feel more than common horror for arbitrary power, and a quick,—perhaps even a jealous discernment,—of any approach or tendency in the system of government to that dreaded evil."

William Woodfall.

BORN A. D. 1745.—DIED A. D. 1803.

THE following notice of this celebrated journalist and political printer appeared in the 'Monthly Magazine' for October, 1803, a few weeks after his death:—

"He was early placed by his father under Mr Baldwin, of Paternoster-row, to learn the art of printing; from whose house he went back to his father's office, and assisted in the printing and editing of a daily paper entitled 'The Public Advertiser.' Mr Woodfall became so warm an amateur of the drama, that, in his younger years, to gratify his penchant for the stage, he made an excursion into Scotland, and performed several times for his own amusement in the company of a Mr Fisher. He used to relate many pleasant anecdotes of this jaunt, the most fortunate event of which, however, was his marriage with a most amiable woman, with whom he returned to the metropolis about the year 1772, and then engaged himself as editor of 'The London Packet.' From this he was called by the proprietors of 'The Morning Chronicle' to the double station of printer and editor, which he filled with much credit to himself until the year 1789, when he commenced a paper called 'The Diary' on his own account. Mr Woodfall was the first writer who undertook to detail the reports of the debates in the two houses of parliament on the night of the proceeding. Before his time, a very short sketch of the debate was all that the newspapers attempted to give on the same night, and the more detailed reports were deferred to some subsequent day. Blessed with a most retentive memory, Mr Woodfall undertook the difficult task of giving a detail of the proceedings on the same night. Without taking a note to assist his memory,—without the use of an amanuensis to ease his labour,—he has been known to write sixteen columns, after having sat in a crowded gallery for as many hours, without any interval of rest. He even took no small pride in this exertion, which, however, brought him, it seems, more praise than profit. It, indeed, insensibly wore down his constitution, which was naturally a good one; and, when other papers, by the division of labour, produced the same length of details with an earlier publication, he reluctantly yielded the contest, and suffered his 'Diary' to expire. Since that time he employed his talents in various publications. He sought, in the decline of his life, to be appointed Remembrancer of the City,—an office for which he was allowed by all to be peculiarly qualified; but private friendships and superior interest prevailed here over modest merit. Mr Woodfall possessed all the virtues of private life that can endear a man to society, and was particularly distinguished for his literary talents. His memory was uncommonly retentive; indeed, were it not for this quality, he would probably have risen to affluence in a world upon which he certainly entered with a competence, but left in very humble circumstances. Aided and incited, however, by this advantage, he explored a path hitherto unknown, and commenced and finished a career of great but unprofitable labour. In this line he attained the highest degree of celebrity, as well for the fidelity of his

report, as the quantity and rapidity of his execution. In the year 1784 Mr Woodfall was invited to Dublin, to report the debates upon the Commercial propositions; at which time, so great was his fame, crowds followed him through the streets, eager to catch a glimpse of a man whom they considered as endowed with supernatural powers. Mr Woodfall was also devoted to the belles lettres; and, as such, was the intimate friend of Garrick, Goldsmith, Savage, &c. &c. He was so passionately fond of theatrical representations as never to have missed the first performance of a new piece for the last forty years; and the public entertained so high an opinion of his taste, that his criticisms were generally decisive of the fall or fortune of the piece and the performer. Unfortunately for himself and his family, Mr Woodfall had placed all his hopes on a most precarious species of property; he became the proprietor of a newspaper, which his talents, indeed, raised to eminence, but the talents of no individual could secure it a permanent station upon that eminence. The paper unfortunately fell, and with it fell all his hopes. Though disappointed, however, he was not to be diverted from his favourite pursuits. He was constant in his attendance at the bar of the house of lords, which he had visited so lately as the 27th of last July. Although far advanced in life, he was active, animated, and in full possession of his mental faculties, without the appearance of any considerable decay of his physical strength."

Adam, Viscount Duncan.

BORN A. D. 1731.—DIED A. D. 1804.

ADAM DUNCAN, the hero of Camperdown, was born at Dundee on the 1st of July, 1731. He was the second son of an old Scottish family, which had been, for a succession of generations, lairds of Lundie in Perthshire. Having, like most younger brothers, to push his way in the world by his own exertions, he made choice of the naval profession, and commenced his career as a seaman under Captain Haldane of the Shoreham frigate. In 1749 he served as a midshipman in the Centurion, under Keppel. In 1755 he became second lieutenant of the Norwich. He was next employed on board the Torbay, in which he was engaged in the attack on Goree. In 1759 he obtained the rank of commander; and in 1761 was appointed post-captain of the Valiant, in which he was present at the taking of the Havannah. On this latter occasion some discussion arising as to a few ships on the stocks, which the governor appears to have been desirous of saving, Duncan, it is said, "privately took a few persons on whom he could depend, and put an end to the controversy, by setting fire to the cause of it. This act," it is added, "was much approved by the besiegers, in both departments of the service, as the most expeditious mode of settling a troublesome dispute: for obvious reasons, however, the affair was kept extremely quiet; and it was known only to a very few persons, by what means this apparent accident so fortunately and critically happened."

In the battle between the British and Spanish fleets on the 16th of January, 1779, Duncan, in the Monarch of seventy-four guns, passed a-head of the other vessels, and commenced the action. The San

Augustin struck to the Monarch, but the rigging of the latter vessel had been so damaged in the contest, that Duncan was under the necessity of allowing another commander to take possession of his opponent. In 1782 he was appointed to the *Blenheim* of ninety guns. In 1787 he became rear-admiral of the Blue; in 1793 vice-admiral; and in 1795 he was appointed admiral of the Blue, and received the command of the northern squadron.

He was engaged blockading the Texel when the mutiny which had broken out in the Channel-fleet spread to his own, and he was left with only three ships to perform his arduous service. While in this situation, by constantly making signals as if there were ships in the offing, he deceived the Dutch into the belief that the whole of his squadron was at hand. Symptoms of mutiny at last appeared amongst his own crew. He immediately ordered the whole on deck, and firmly told them that he would, with his own hand, put to death the first man who should presume to display the slightest symptom of rebellion. Then, addressing himself to one of the disaffected, he asked, "Do you, sir, want to take the command of the ship out of my hands?" The man immediately replied in the affirmative; and Duncan would, as it is stated, have carried his threat into instant execution, had not his arm been arrested by the chaplain. He then exclaimed, in an agitated tone,— "Let those who will stand by me and my officers, pass over immediately to the starboard side of the ship, that we may see who are our friends, and who are our opponents!" The whole crew obeyed, with the exception of six, who were immediately seized and put in irons, but restored to liberty, after a brief confinement, on expressing contrition for their conduct.

Before having recourse to this stern measure, Admiral Duncan had addressed the assembled crew in the following admirable speech: "My lads,—I once more call you together with a sorrowful heart from what I have lately seen,—the disaffection of the fleets,—I call it disaffection, for the crews have no grievances. To be deserted by my fleet in the face of an enemy, is a disgrace which I believe never before happened to a British admiral; nor could I have supposed it possible. My greatest comfort under God is, that I have been supported by the officers, seamen, and marines, of this ship; for which, with a heart overflowing with gratitude, I request you to accept my sincere thanks. I flatter myself much good may result from your example, by bringing those deluded people to a sense of the duty which they owe not only to their king and country, but to themselves. The British navy has ever been the support of that liberty which has been handed down to us by our ancestors, and which I trust we shall maintain to the latest posterity; and that can only be done by unanimity and obedience. This ship's company, and others who have distinguished themselves by their loyalty and good order, deserve to be, and doubtless will be the favourites of a grateful country; they will also have from their inward feelings a comfort which will be lasting, and not like the fleeting and false confidence of those who have swerved from their duty. It has often been my pride with you to look into the Texel, and see a foe who dreaded coming out to meet us;—my pride is now humbled indeed!—my feelings are not easily to be expressed!—our cup has overflowed, and made us wanton. The all-wise Providence has given us this check as a warning,

and I hope we shall improve by it. On him then let us trust, where our only security can be found. I find there are many good men among us; for my own part I have had full confidence of all in this ship: and once more beg to express my approbation of your conduct. May God who has thus far conducted you, continue to do so; and may the British navy, the glory and support of our country, be restored to its wonted splendour, and be not only the bulwark of Britain, but the terror of the world. But this can only be effected by a strict adherence to our duty and obedience; and let us pray that the Almighty God may keep us in the right way of thinking. God bless you all!" This speech is said to have so affected the crew, that scarce a dry eye was to be seen on their retiring.

Shortly after this, Admiral Duncan was forced to put into Yarmouth to refit, leaving Captain Trollope on the look-out. De Winter, the Dutch admiral, seized the opportunity to put to sea, but intelligence being instantly conveyed to Duncan, he immediately sailed, and succeeded in placing his fleet between the Batavian fleet and the Texel. The following is the principal portion of the despatch to the admiralty in which Duncan announced his capture of the enemy's fleet:

" VENERABLE AT SEA, 13th October, 1797,
off the Coast of Holland.

" SIR,—Be pleased to acquaint the lords commissioners of the admiralty, that, judging it of consequence their lordships should have information as early as possible of the defeat of the Dutch fleet under the command of Admiral De Winter, I despatched the *Rose* cutter at three P. M. on the 12th (11th) instant, with a short letter to you immediately after the action was ended. I have now further to acquaint you, for their lordships' information, that in the night of the 10th instant, after I had sent away to you my letter of that date, I placed my squadron in such a situation as to prevent the enemy from returning to the Texel without my falling in with them. At nine o'clock in the morning of the 11th I got sight of Captain Trollope's squadron, with signals flying for an enemy to leeward; I immediately bore up, and made the signal for a general chase, and soon got sight of them, forming in a line on the larboard tack to receive us, the wind at N. W. As we approached near I made the signal for the squadron to shorten sail, in order to connect them; soon after I saw the land between Camperdown and Egmont, about nine miles to leeward of the enemy, and finding there was no time to be lost in making the attack, I made the signal to bear up, break the enemy's line, and engage them to leeward, each ship her opponent, by which I got between them and the land, whither they were fast approaching. My signals were obeyed with great promptitude, and Vice-admiral Onslow, in the *Monarch*, bore down on the enemy's rear in the most gallant manner, his division following his example, and the action commenced about forty minutes past twelve o'clock. The Venerable soon got through the enemy's line, and I began a close action, with my division on their van, which lasted near two hours and a half, when I observed all the masts of the Dutch admiral's ship to go by the board: she was, however, defended for some time in a most gallant manner; but being over-pressed by numbers, her colours were struck,

and Admiral De Winter was soon brought on board the Venerable. On looking around me I observed the ship bearing the vice-admiral's flag was also dismasted, and had surrendered to Vice-admiral Onslow; and that many others had likewise struck. Finding we were in nine fathoms water, and not farther than five miles from the land, my attention was so much taken up in getting the heads of the disabled ships off shore, that I was not able to distinguish the number of ships captured; and the wind having been constantly on the land since, we have unavoidably been much dispersed, so that I have not been able to gain an exact account of them, but we have taken possession of eight or nine; more of them had struck; but taking advantage of the night, and being so near their own coast, they succeeded in getting off, and some of them were seen going into the Texel the next morning." For this brilliant service Admiral Duncan was created Viscount Camperdown, and received the thanks of both houses, with a pension of £3000 per annum.

He resigned his command in the North sea in 1800, and passed the brief remainder of his life in retirement. In person Admiral Duncan was finely and majestically formed. He was above six feet three inches in height, with a character of muscular strength and proportions corresponding to such a stature. His private manners were amiable and unassuming; his public merits have been acknowledged by all who are acquainted with the elements necessary to the formation of a good naval commander.

Wedderburn, Earl Rosslyn.

BORN A. D. 1733.—DIED A. D. 1805.

THE Wedderburns were originally settled on the borders between England and Scotland. They afterwards spread over the counties of Forfar and Haddington, where they appear to have acquired considerable property; one of them received a patent of baronetage in 1671. Sir Peter Wedderburn was bred to the Scottish bar, and having been appointed a lord of session during the reign of Charles II., assumed the title of Lord Gossford, on his elevation, from an estate of that name which he happened to possess. His eldest son was a privy-counsellor, and member of parliament for Haddingtonshire; his second, Peter, married the heiress of Halkett; his third, Alexander, became a member of the faculty of advocates, and having exerted himself in favour of the union, received by way of recompence an appointment as a commissioner of excise. Peter Wedderburn, the son of this youngest brother, was father of the earl of Rosslyn. Like most of his ancestors, he was bred to the Scottish bar. Having practised for some years with considerable reputation as an advocate, in 1755 he was appointed a lord of session by George II. He died August 11th, 1756.

Alexander Wedderburn, his eldest son, and the subject of this memoir, was born February 13th, 1733. He studied at the university of Edinburgh, where he was lucky in associating with young men who aspired after fame and preferment: with Robertson, who afterwards excelled as a divine and historian,—with Blair, who distinguished himself

by his pulpit eloquence,—with Home, who, driven from the Scottish pulpit for writing a play, may be said to have taken refuge on the stage,—and with Adam Fergusson, a name that will long be respected and revered.

Having resolved on the study of the law, which his immediate ancestors had pursued with success during several generations, he was admitted a member of the faculty of advocates in 1752.

At this time Mr Lockhart, a very celebrated pleader—who, we believe, was afterwards elevated to the bench—bore away all the honours and all the emoluments of the bar. He appears to have excelled chiefly in the pathetic, and it was jocularly remarked of him, that the amount of his honorarium, or fee, could be easily discovered in his countenance; for if handsome, he appeared deeply affected at the justice of his client's case, but if unexpectedly great, he regularly melted into tears. Against such an antagonist Mr Wedderburn brought into the field a fine classical taste, considerable eloquence gradually improved by practice, and no small share of a happy versatility, which, like the former quality, was not suffered to abate by transposition. His prospects were fair, and he began to be considered as a youth of considerable promise, on whom the important office of lord-advocate would some day probably devolve. But an insult from the bench produced a sudden change in the determinations of this young and spirited advocate; who is said to have pulled off his gown in open court, and declared publicly, that, from that moment, he abandoned his country and profession for ever.

The fame and success of the earl of Mansfield, at this period in full possession of all his celebrity, and at the head of the law in England, as lord-chief-justice of the king's bench, no doubt excited the attention and the ambition of his countryman, while the rising influence of the earl of Bute pointed out a new avenue to power and emolument; nor was he deceived, for both these great men proved propitious to him, and were not wooed in vain. He repaired to London, and enrolled himself a member of the Inner Temple, May 8th, 1753. After eating commons, he was called to the bar, November 23d, 1757. At this period, notwithstanding the respectability of his family and connexions, his finances were far from being in a flourishing situation; yet he found means to retain the first masters of the day, on purpose to subdue the inveterate accent he had contracted at home, and which, by laying him open to ridicule, would have precluded his success at the English bar. The gentlemen in question were, Mr Sheridan the father of the celebrated member of that name, and Charles Macklin the comedian. They seem to have had great credit in their pupil: for one of them—Mr Sheridan—expresses himself in the following manner: "However, there are not wanting examples to stimulate those who are in pursuit of this object, and to insure success to their endeavours. There is, at this day, a gentleman of that country, now in London, in a high office of the law—Mr Wedderburn was at this time solicitor-general—who did not leave Scotland till after he had been some years advanced in manhood; and yet, after having received instruction for a few months only, according to the method laid down in this work, his speech was not to be distinguished from that of the most polished natives in England, both in point of pronunciation and intonation; and he is, perhaps, at

this day, the best pattern to be followed, with regard to both, whether in the house of commons or at the bar."

Having thus polished the weapons which he had before carefully prepared for the contest, Mr Wedderburn is said to have made his first efforts in Butcher-row, at the Robin Hood. It was there, too, he first fell in with a redoubted champion, whom he was fated sometimes to side with, and sometimes to contend against in another place,—Edmund Burke, who, having with some difficulty overcome an eloquent baker, the victor in the lists for many years before, was now preparing to exhibit his prowess on another stage, and reap those laurels that will for ever encircle his name as an orator.

As a lawyer, Mr Wedderburn in the course of a few years obtained great practice, notwithstanding he had to contend with men of no common talents: for Dunning was then in the flower of youth and reputation;—Thurlow had begun to rear his head above the gaping crowd of competitors at the chancery bar;—Wallace had already acquired the reputation of indefatigable diligence;—Kenyon, although considered as a dull man, had extensive chamber practice; while Buller, but just known as the author of a treatise on *NISI PRIUS*, was preparing to start at once on the bench, and become one of the youngest and ablest judges on record. In 1763 he obtained a silk gown as king's counsel; and on this occasion he became a bencher of Lincoln's Inn.

The first avowed patron of Mr Wedderburn was George Grenville, father of the marquess of Buckingham, who like himself had been bred to the bar. This young statesman had retired, or rather had been driven from the ministry, and was then in opposition; he was powerfully assisted, on this occasion, by Mr Wedderburn, who had been returned for Richmond. In 1788 he distinguished himself by a spirited opposition to the expulsion of John Wilkes. In the course of the next year, having married Miss Betty Anne, sole daughter and heiress of John Dawson, Esq., of Morley, in Yorkshire, he visited his new acquisitions in that quarter, and is said to have made a tour throughout the ridings, towns, and districts of that extensive county, on purpose to display the fervour of his patriotism, by warning the electors "of the danger with which they and all the freeholders of Great Britain were threatened, on account of the late unconstitutional, corrupt decision of the house of commons, in the affair of the Middlesex election." But when Wilkes afterwards moved to rescind this vote, Wedderburn, who was then in office, remained mute.

On the 9th of May, 1770, he uttered a very animated philippic against Lord Clare, afterwards Earl Nugent, whom he accused of "the most marked inconsistency between conduct and opinion." "From the short time it took his lordship and some other great ministers to settle these contrarieties," he added, "it was evident that the concealed authors of the present system of American measures had the address to unite persons and parties of the most contradictory opinions; and such being the case, he trusted it would likewise unite their opponents to pursue one steady plan of action, that of preventing the impending ruin of this country, by the total loss of its American dominions." He predicted, "that by the measures then pursuing, America, which in the reign of George II. constituted a part of the British empire, would in the reign of George III. be dis severed from it; as for the colonies, they

had already ceased to be British dominions, and were now no more so than Calais, which, as well as they, was once an English province." He then alluded to the recent creation of a new office, that of secretary of state for the colonies, which he insisted could never be legally nor constitutionally done;" and he concluded by observing, "that the precedent quoted from the reign of Edward VI. was a miserable pretext for evading a positive law, with the dark design of placing a favourite and obsequious willing slave at the head of the American department."

On the death of his friend Grenville, however, in 1770, the intensity of Mr Wedderburn's patriotism appears to have cooled; for in the course of Hilary term, 1771, he accepted the office of solicitor-general to the king and cofferer to her majesty. In the course of the next session we find him supporting the royal marriage bill. In 1773 he shielded Lord Hillsborough, whom he himself had before assailed, from the attacks of his adversaries, respecting the Carib lands in the island of St Vincent, and assisted Lord North in his bill for new-modelling the East India company,—the fruitful parent of Mr Fox's, Mr Pitt's, the declaratory, the explanatory, and some scores of acts of parliament.

On the 9th of March, 1774, the premier having moved several resolutions relative to the right of the legislature of Great Britain to bind America in all cases whatsoever, Mr Solicitor-general defended these propositions, in a most eloquent speech, and at the same time recommended some law which would effectually punish the authors and actors in the late riot at Boston; in consequence of which, the Boston Port, the administration of justice, the Quebec, the prohibitive, and the capture bills, were all severally enacted and carried into effect. It is at least candid to believe that Mr Wedderburn, upon this occasion, was actuated by the purest motives, and that a change so sudden, a conversion so instantaneous, originated in the most profound conviction. His enemies, however, were bitter in their resentment, and so illiberal in their animosity, that they would not allow the intervention of any one honourable principle. They carried their hatred to such a length, that they attacked his principles, his profession, and even his country. They observed, that while in opposition, he had frankly predicted the ruin like to ensue, in consequence of a contest with America; and yet, no sooner had he been invested with the office of solicitor-general, than he aided the minister in all his acts; and thus assisted with all his might to realize his own prophecy, "that the American colonies would in the reign of George III. be dissevered from the British empire."

Having complained, in the course of a reply—Feb. 6th, 1775—"that the rebellious disposition of the Americans had been encouraged by those who avowed their cause in England," Colonel Barre immediately rose to answer him: "He allowed the Americans might well be encouraged by their confidence in having friends at home, when they recollected that the honourable gentleman's voice was made hoarse in condemning the measures of this country towards America; and had never been louder than in his invective against Lord Hillsborough—the then secretary of state—for the letter which he insisted deserved impeachment."

Having in the course of the same session entered into an elaborate defence of the measure of garrisoning Gibraltar and Minorca with Hanoverians, founded on the precedent that foreign troops had been

introduced into the kingdom without the consent of parliament, and moved the previous question, he was replied to by Burke, who observed, "That the learned gentleman had ransacked history, statutes, and journals, and had taken a very long journey—as was usual with him—through which he did not wish to follow him; but he was always glad to meet him on his return home. Let us—said he—strip off this learned foliage entirely from his argument; let us unswathe this Egyptian corpse, and bereave it of its salt, gum, and mummy, and see what sort of a dry skeleton it is underneath—nothing but a precedent! The gentleman asserts that a bill only can declare the consent of parliament,—not an address,—not a resolution of the house; yet he thinks that a resolution of the house would, in this case, be better than a bill of indemnity; so that we find a bill is nothing, a resolution is nothing,—nay, I fear our liberty is nothing; and that ere long our rights, freedom, and spirit, nay, this house itself, will vanish in a previous question."

In respect to his profession it was observed, in the periodical productions of the day, "that the patriotism of a lawyer is always problematical," and that "having been accustomed, in the courts below, to plead for or against, according to his brief, he had carried the same facility of disposition up stairs with him." His early education was also said to have been unfavourable to liberty; he had been bred to the practice of a jurisprudence bottomed on civil law,—at a tribunal founded on a French model,—and in a country where there was no grand jury in any or jury at all in civil cases; while in criminal ones unanimity was not required.

The following sketch of Wedderburn appeared in 1777: "Mr Solicitor-general, it must be confessed, is a correct, methodical, plausible speaker. His matter is always judiciously selected, and well-arranged. It has the air of logical justness and argumentative precision. He never rambles from his subject from a want of redundancy of matter. His oratory is usually chaste, his pronunciation distinct, his emphasis well-placed, and his voice well-managed. He is fond of detail, and conveys it to his auditors in a clear, unembarrassed, comprehensive manner. His language, though sometimes stiff, and approaching to that of a law-pedant, is always nervous, technical, and pointed; and he has one advantage over almost every man in either house, which is, though his speeches bear the appearance of uncommon industry and great art, yet he speaks with so much fluency, avoiding the extremes of a rapid utterance, or of hesitation and absence of mind, that every thing he offers seems to flow from a knowledge of the subject, well-digested, and leading directly to the clearest principles of self-conviction and self-approbation. With all this high cultivation, the joint effect of a good deal of judgment and immense labour, the soil which he has thus so studiously sought to improve, is far from being naturally fertile. His talents are restrained within narrow bounds,—we mean in point of native oratory. He never reaches the heart; nor makes a single proselyte to his opinions through that channel, like several others of his contemporaries we could mention. His logic is strongly tinctured with sophism; and his arguments, like several others, not occupying responsible offices, thick sown with confident assertions, confident predictions, and confident promises, never meant to be fulfilled, but merely to answer the temporary purposes of debate."

In Trinity term, 1778, Mr Wedderburn was nominated attorney-general, in consequence of the elevation of Lord Thurlow to the chancery bench, of which his former colleague had now also a nearer view than before. In this situation—notwithstanding the critical posture of the times might as usual be pleaded—it does not appear he exercised the office of prosecutor for the crown with any extraordinary degree of asperity. On the contrary, we believe, that when compared with any of his successors, his official conduct was mild and meritorious. In the mean time he persevered in supporting the measures of Lord North, which were intended to reduce America to a state of unconditional submission. So strenuous was the zeal of some individuals at this period, that they offered to subscribe money and raise regiments for the purpose of coercing the colonies. Mr Dunning, afterwards Lord Ashburton—who was considered to be the soundest constitutional lawyer of that day—objected to the propriety of this measure; which was, however, defended by the attorney-general, on the ground, that a negative was lodged with the parliament which could at any time interfere by means of the annuity mutiny bill, if necessary.

At length the time arrived, when Mr Wedderburn was to receive an ample reward for all his services, as well as a remuneration for the abuse which had been so copiously lavished upon him; for in Trinity term, 1780, he was nominated to the important office of chief-justice of the common pleas. On this occasion he had a powerful competitor, in his contemporary at the bar, Sir Fletcher Norton, afterwards Lord Grantley; and the contest was, not unaptly, compared to the struggle between Ajax and Ulysses for the shield of Achilles. On the same day that he was invested with the dignity of the coif, a barony was conferred on him by patent; in consequence of which he was called to the house of peers, by the style and title of Alexander, Lord Loughborough, Baron Loughborough in the county of Leicester.

No sooner was his lordship invested with his new office, than an opportunity unfortunately occurred for the exercise of its functions: this was in consequence of the riots that took place during the summer of 1780, and were suffered, by the most culpable negligence, to attain a most alarming aspect. His charge to the grand jury, assembled for the purpose of finding the bills upon this occasion, has always been considered as a masterly specimen of juridical eloquence.

While Lord Loughborough presided in the common pleas, a prodigious influx of suitors crowded into that court; and his lordship, in particular, afforded relief to a body of men who had solicited elsewhere either in vain or under considerable disadvantages. The class we allude to was composed of seafaring men, who, in the course of long voyages to the East Indies, America, and the coast of Africa, were not unfrequently exposed to cruelty and injustice on the part of their officers, while they were not always able to contend, on their return, with the real or supposed offenders by means of an expensive suit at law. Several noted cases of this kind were tried before his lordship; and the damages awarded tended not a little to check brutal usage on the part of commanders and inferior officers. While invested with this office, a circumstance occurred, which was supposed to have brought some obloquy upon the premier of the day. This was the augmentation of the salary of the chief-justice of the common pleas. Mr Fox,

who mentioned the business in the house of commons, contended that such a proceeding tended to violate the integrity and independence of the judges. It was not sufficient for this purpose that they should be immovable at the pleasure of the crown; for it ought also to be impossible to seduce, or at least warp them by means of donatives. He therefore inferred that in this, and all similar cases, application ought to be made to parliament.

Lady Loughborough having died February 15th, 1781, his lordship in 1782 married the honourable Charlotte Courtney. In the course of the same year, the seals being in abeyance, he was placed at the head of the commissioners appointed to transact the business of chancellor.

No sooner had the celebrated coalition taken place, than Lord Loughborough once more sided with his old friend, Lord North,—supported him during his short-lived administration, in conjunction with Mr Fox,—and ranged himself again on the side of opposition when he retired from power. In the course of the regency business he was frequently consulted.

In 1791, we find his lordship strongly objecting to the Russian armament. He reprobated the idea of hostilities, in the most forcible terms, and “desired the ministry to lay their hands to their hearts, and say whether this was a war of the public? Did they desire it? On the contrary, were they not already so heavily oppressed with the number and the weight of taxes, as to be unable to contribute any further to the exigencies of the government? Look around (added he) for the resources! See what petty methods had been adopted to swell the revenue! View the sacred deposits in the bank, which, for the first time in fourscore years, had become the object of finance; behold every avenue to industry choked with the enormity of the taxes, which will speedily be impossible to be borne! It was a matter of most serious consideration to every noble lord, by what fatality it was, that year after year, we were to be involved in disputes with every power, in every quarter of the world. Were they to travel on in this course of blind and irrational confidence; yielding an implicit obedience to every scheme of ministers, what must be the result to the kingdom? He did not hesitate to say, that this measure, unexplained as it was, amounted directly to an aggression against Russia; for his majesty, it seems, had sent a mandate to the court of St Petersburg, to which the empress had not thought proper to yield. He was now to enforce that mandate by arms. If she persisted in refusing his mediation, the kingdom was either to retreat, or to follow up the imperious menace by a war. But it was fortunate for us that we were yet upon the brink of the precipice, and before we plunged into the abyss we ought to pause and look around us. What were the commercial and political purposes we had in view, to justify a breach with the empress; a breach which he was afraid had been widened, from the intolerable arrogance of the language held to her, and which that high spirited princess could never brook? Was it intended that while the British fleet entered the Baltic, a Prussian army was to march through Livonia to the gates of St Petersburg? But if even St Petersburg were taken, would it end the war? Would they pursue their victory to Moscow? In short, it was impossible to see the end of the calamities to which this unfortunate dispute might lead.” Toward the conclusion of his speech, his

lordship observed, "that he did not wish to enter into any detail or eulogium on the measures of the national assembly of France; but surely their magnanimous and truly political declaration that they would for ever avoid wars on speculative and theoretical points, ought to have suggested to us a wiser and more elevated system than that we had lately pursued. The revolution in France presented to us the means of reducing our establishments, of easing the people, and of securing to them for a series of years the blessings of peace."

In the course of the same year, Lord Loughborough in a long and able speech condemned the conduct of ministers relative to the war with Tippoo, "who had been stated a tyrant and a barbarian, but whose conduct to the troops taken at Daraporam, surpassed even the general notions of European politeness." On the renewal of the question relative to the trial of Mr Hastings, he boldly contended, "that impeachments did not abate on a dissolution," and observed, "that this was the opinion in those times when the constitution was best understood, and law prevailed. The original jurisdiction of their lordships was superior to the technical forms of the courts below. These abatements and discontinuances, which had their origin chiefly in the fiscal necessity of former times, and resulted only from the profits of the crown, by sending the parties back to a new suit, were now declining with the gradual advancement of liberty and understanding." His lordship also controverted the doctrine laid down by the lord-chancellor; and asserted that the commons did impeach in the name and on the behalf of all the people of England. He observed that every thing judicial was vested in the house of peers, while every thing of a legislative nature was divided between the two; and this it was which gave the poise and character to our constitution,—a monarchy something of aristocracy, and a sober and temperate democracy.

An event occurred soon after this, which seems to have neutralized all his lordship's hatred to the ministers then in power, and enabled him to accept a place at the council-board:—this was the war with France, which was productive of a variety of changes, both political and moral. Whether Lord Loughborough was actuated by a fear of revolution, combined with a salutary dread and horror of the enemy, or influenced by the motives ascribed to him in the letters addressed by the earl of Lauderdale to the peers of Scotland,—is a question not easily to be determined. But on January 27th, 1793, his lordship was invested with the important office of lord-high-chancellor of Great Britain, and supported the ministry with the same share of talents and abilities during the French, as he had before done throughout the American war. To him also was attributed the unfortunate declaration relative to an attempt on Dunkirk.

On October 31st, 1795, he was by a second patent created Loughborough, of Loughborough, in the county of Surrey, "with remainders severally and successively to Sir James St Clair Erskine, Bart., and to John Erskine his brother." In April 1801 he was by a third patent created earl of Rosslyn, in Mid Lothian, "with remainder to the heirs lawfully begotten, of the body of his sister, Lady Jane Erskine, deceased." The king at the same time directed and ordained by his royal sign-manual, that his niece should enjoy the same place and precedence as the daughter of an earl.

Lord Rosslyn, we believe, never published but one work, to which his name was affixed; this made its appearance in 1793, and was entitled, 'Observations on the State of the English Prisons, and the means of improving them; communicated to the Rev. Henry Zouch, a Justice of the Peace, by the Right Hon. Lord Loughborough, now Lord-high-chancellor of Great Britain.'

His lordship feeling the infirmities of age coming fast upon him, retired from the post of chancellor in 1801, with a pension, and was succeeded by Sir John Scott, now Lord Eldon. By sobriety, regularity, and temperance, he doubtless prolonged a feeble existence, but at length died suddenly at Baileys, on January 3d, 1805, in the seventy-second year of his age.

His lordship never had but one child, a son, born October 2d, 1793, who died soon after. The earldom was therefore extinct, but the barony descended, in compliance with the tenor of the patent, on his nephew Sir James St Clair Erskine.

According to Mr C. Bulla, his lordship was a great benefactor to the French emigrants. On being told one day that the chancellor of France was distressed by not being able to procure the discount of a foreign bill, he observed: "The chancellor of England is the only person to whom the chancellor of France should apply to discount his bills." The money was immediately sent, and Lord Rosslyn remitted annually to the French chancellor a sum of equal amount.

Charles, Marquess Cornwallis.

BORN A. D. 1738.—DIED A. D. 1805.

THE family of Cornwallis, or Cornwalleys, has been settled during many centuries in the county of Suffolk, and appears, like many other of our noble houses, to have originally derived its wealth from commerce. Thomas Cornwalleys, to whom we trace it, was a merchant, and sheriff of London during the 14th century. The martial spirit which has distinguished this family appears to have been elicited during the wars with France; John, who accompanied the lord-high-admiral, Surrey, to the continent, and distinguished himself greatly before Morlaix, was dubbed a knight-banneret in the field of battle, in the presence of the whole English army. It is this promising officer, we believe, who is praised by Sir Richard Baker in his 'Chronicles of the Kings of England,' for his extraordinary gallantry and good conduct.

Charles, the sixth baron, second earl, and first Marquess Cornwallis, was born December 31, 1738. After receiving the necessary degree of instruction to enable him to be sent to a public school, he became a member of Eton, from which seminary he went to the university of Cambridge, and was entered of St John's college, by the name and title of Lord Brome. Little is recorded of his early years, except that having, while intoxicated, told Rigby, secretary to the earl of Sandwich, in the pit of the opera-house, that his noble employer was a pickpocket, he was compelled to atone for his offence, by making an apology in Hyde park the next morning. He obtained a stand of colours when

seventeen or eighteen years of age, and was soon after raised to the rank of lieutenant, and became a captain in Craufurd's light infantry by the time he had attained his twentieth year.

His birth, rank, and connexions in life, of course opened the way for him to very rapid advancement, and accordingly we find him, in 1761, acting under the marquis of Granby, as one of his aides-de-camp, with the rank of major. In consequence of his good conduct, he was soon after promoted to be lieutenant-colonel of the 12th regiment of foot, and on his return was appointed aid-de-camp to the king, which gave him the rank of colonel in the line. Anterior to this he had obtained a seat in the house of commons for his patrimonial borough of Eye. On the demise of his father, in 1762, he of course vacated his seat in the house of commons, and became an earl of Great Britain. Three years after, he was appointed one of the lords of the bed-chamber. In 1766 he received a regiment,—the 33d foot; on the 14th of July, 1768, he married Jemima, daughter of James Jones, Esq., by whom he had two children.

Lord Cornwallis at an early period of life displayed the independence of his character, for he carefully and judiciously distinguished between his duties as a peer of parliament, and his professional avocations as an officer in the army. From the very beginning he exhibited the greatest reluctance to the contest with our colonies in America; and he was one of four peers who joined Earl Camden in opposing the bill for extending the legislative power of Great Britain to our transatlantic provinces. It was on this measure that Mansfield, the chief-justice, is said to have sneeringly observed, "Poor Camden could only get four boys to join him!" In the case of Wilkes, the subject of this memoir protested against the vote by which privilege was taken away in the case of libel. But notwithstanding Lord Cornwallis had set his face against those coercive measures which led to the fatal contest with America, he yet deemed it his duty to repair thither when called upon in an official capacity. Accordingly, no sooner was his regiment ordered for embarkation, than he took leave of a most virtuous and affectionate wife, who, through the intervention of his uncle, Frederic Cornwallis, archbishop of Canterbury; had obtained for him the king's special leave of absence. In 1776 we find him detached at the head of a body of troops against Fort Lee, with the rank of major-general. Finding that place evacuated, he penetrated into the country, and took possession of New Jersey; but as the hearts of the people were averse to the cause,—which they considered as that of the British ministry rather than of the British nation,—he repaired to New York, at the end of the campaign, with the view of returning home and explaining the nature of those obstacles which precluded the possibility of subjugation. He was detained, however, by the disasters that occurred at Trenton, whither General Washington had repaired at a period when his army was supposed to be annihilated and his cause desperate, and by one bold and decisive action balanced the fate of his native country. Having collected a body of troops, Lord Cornwallis immediately marched against that wary commander, who no sooner received notice of his approach than he made preparations to decamp during the night, subsequent to a slight cannonade. After having surprised an American post, and displayed several other brave but ineffectual efforts of gallantry, Lord

Cornwallis embarked with the English commander-in-chief for the Chesapeake, and remained for some time with the body of the army when it had obtained possession of Philadelphia,—a conquest to which he himself contributed not a little by his gallant conduct at the passage of the Brandy-wine.

The subsequent period of the war proved uncommonly barren of incident: having, however, in the mean while, acquired the rank of lieutenant-general, he embarked under Sir Harry Clinton—who had succeeded Lord Howe—for Charlestown, which soon after surrendered to his Britannic majesty's arms. The command of the whole province of South Carolina now devolved upon him; but by this time the war had become hopeless, for Burgoyne had surrendered at Saratoga, and the king of France was immediately after prevailed upon to declare himself the ally of the United States. No sooner did General Gates learn that so important a city as Charlestown had fallen into the hands of the English, than, alarmed for the fate of the Southern states, he immediately collected a body of troops, and advanced against the victors. This officer, who had already overcome one army, flattered himself with the hopes of being able to surprise another; but he was mistaken, for Lord Cornwallis, instead of waiting for, advanced against him with an inferior force; after a sharp but ineffectual discharge of musketry, the English advanced with fixed bayonets, and broke and routed the enemy; seven pieces of cannon, a multitude of baggage-waggons, and a thousand prisoners, served in a military point of view to palliate the convention of Saratoga. Yet, on the other hand, abstracted from the particular merits of the army, our victory served only to perpetuate the delusion at home, and finally led to the most fatal as well as melancholy results. The enemy having been thus driven out of the province, the victorious general was occupied during a considerable period in arranging its administration, and regulating the different departments, so as to render South Carolina once more a British colony. It was upon this occasion that he first developed those powers for the management of civil affairs which afterwards constituted so conspicuous a feature in his character.

Congress having recalled General Gates, General Greene was despatched with a view of restoring the province to the dominion of the United States. It was with this view the latter advanced with a formidable body of troops; but he was met, and beaten in a decisive engagement, at Guildford Court-house. The British commander, flattered by this new success, now determined to act on the offensive. He accordingly took the necessary measures on purpose to form a junction with Arnold, who, having declared for the English, had become one of the most formidable partizans with whom America had now to contend. This having been accordingly effected by means of Simcoe and Tarleton, it was hoped that they would be able, with their joint forces, to capture the Marquess de la Fayette, who had unsheathed the maiden-sword of a French noble in behalf of American liberty. But this being found impossible in consequence of his sudden retreat, Lord Cornwallis withdrew, and soon unhappily found that this very fate was reserved for himself and the troops under his command. By an unfortunate series of events, supplies having failed, and a retreat being considered as impossible, this gallant commander was at length obliged to capitulate.

late at Yorktown. The following is a copy of a letter from Earl Cornwallis to Sir Henry Clinton on this occasion :—

“ YORK TOWN, VIRGINIA, *October 20th, 1781.*

“ SIR,—I have the mortification to inform your Excellency, that I have been forced to give up the posts of York and Gloucester, and to surrender the troops under my command, by capitulation, on the 19th instant, as prisoners of war, to the combined forces of America and France.

“ I never saw this post in any very favourable light: but when I found I was to be attacked in it in so unprepared a state, by so powerful an army and artillery, nothing but the hopes of relief would have induced me to attempt its defence; for I would either have attempted to escape to New York by rapid marches from the Gloucester side, immediately on the arrival of General Washington's troops at Williamsburgh, or I would, notwithstanding the disparity of numbers, have attacked them in the open field, where it might have been just possible that fortune would have favoured the gallantry of the handful of troops under my command: but being assured by your Excellency's letters; that every possible means would be tried by the navy and army to relieve us, I could not think myself at liberty to venture upon either of these desperate attempts; therefore, after remaining for two days in a strong position, in front of this place, in hopes of being attacked, upon observing that the enemy were taking measures which could not fail of turning my left flank in a short time, and receiving on the second evening your letter of the 12th of September, informing me that the relief would sail about the 5th of October, I withdrew within the works on the night of the 29th of September, hoping, by the labour and firmness of the soldiers, to protract the defence until you could arrive. Every thing was to be expected from the firmness of the troops; but every disadvantage attended their labour, as the work was to be continued under the enemy's fire, and our stock of entrenching tools, which did not much exceed four hundred when we began to work, in the latter end of August, was now much diminished.

“ The army broke ground on the night of the 30th, and constructed on that night and the two following days and nights, which, with some works that had belonged to our outward position, occupied a gorge between two creeks or ravines, which came from the river on each side of the town. On the night of the 6th of October they made their first parallel, extending from its right on the river to a deep ravine on the left, nearly opposite to the centre of this place, and embracing our whole left, at the distance of six hundred yards. Having perfected this parallel, their batteries opened on the evening of the 9th, against our left; and other batteries fired at the same time against a redoubt, over a creek, on our right, and defended by about one hundred and twenty men of the 23d regiment and marines, who maintained that place with uncommon gallantry. The fire continued incessant, from heavy cannon, and from mortars and howitzers, throwing shells from eight to sixteen inches, until all our guns on the left were silenced, our work much damaged, and our loss of men considerable.

“ On the night of the 11th they began their second parallel, about three hundred yards nearer to us,” &c. &c. &c.

After detailing the particulars of an attempt to escape, by means of sixteen boats, to the Gloucester side, in consequence of the progress of the enemy, Lord Cornwallis proceeds as follows:—

“ Our works in the mean time were going to ruin, and not being able to strengthen them by abbatis, nor in any other manner than by a slight fraizing, which the enemy’s artillery were demolishing whenever they fired, my opinion entirely coincided with that of the engineer and principal officers of the army, that they were in many places assailable in the forenoon, and that by the continuance of the same fire for a few hours longer they would be in such a state as to render it desperate, with our numbers, to attempt to maintain them. We at that time could not fire a single gun; only one eight inch, and a little more than a hundred cohorn shells remained; a diversion by the French ships of war that lay at the mouth of York river was also to be expected. Our numbers had been diminished by the enemy’s fire, but particularly by sickness; and the strength and spirits of those in the works were much exhausted by the fatigue of constant watching and unremitting duty.

“ Under all these circumstances, I thought it would have been wanton and inhuman to the last degree to sacrifice the lives of this small body of gallant soldiers, who had ever behaved with so much fidelity and courage, by exposing them to an assault which, from the numbers and precaution of the enemy, could not fail to succeed. I therefore proposed to capitulate; and I have the honour to enclose to your Excellency the copy of the correspondence between General Washington and me on that subject, and the terms of the capitulation agreed on,” &c.

But the capture of a second army did not put an end to the contest; and it might have been as long and as inveterate perhaps as that waged by Spain against Holland, had not the minority in parliament at length triumphed, and Lord North been forced to resign all those official situations which had enabled him to continue the struggles in express opposition to the wishes of the people.

Lord Cornwallis was well-received on his return to England, where he soon after obtained the honourable and respectable situation of Constable of the Tower. During the interval of peace that followed the American war, the noble earl may be said to have remained in a state of domestic privacy, if this can be properly observed of a man who, in addition to the duties of a legislator, was invested with an important official employment. He, however, was destined soon after to be again called into a more public line of action, and this too in a different hemisphere to that on which he had hitherto distinguished himself.

The East India company, from factors, had become sovereigns in India, and at this period may be said to have possessed more subjects than the king of Great Britain, under whom they held their charter. But as the possessions extended their difficulties increased; and while they were threatened on one hand with a combination of the native princes, they were supposed, on the other, to suffer not a little from the peculations and mismanagement of their own servants. To remedy these evils, it was determined by the government, if possible, to select a chief, who, to military talents, added a knowledge of business, and united with an unimpeachable integrity, a firmness of conduct that might atone, and at the same time appal abuse and defy treachery. It was on this occasion that the eyes of all men were turned on Lord

Cornwallis, who was accordingly nominated to the important situation of governor-general of Bengal.

On his arrival, he commenced his labours by carrying on the most difficult and dangerous of all wars,—that waged against abuse, mismanagement, and corruption. While occupied in useful and important reforms, Tippoo Sultan, who had been intriguing at the durbars of the neighbouring princes in Asia, and had also entered into a correspondence with the court of France, commenced his intended operations by an attack on one of our allies.

The Madras government, from its proximity to the scene of action, was at first intrusted with the management of the war; but no sooner did affairs begin to assume a serious aspect than the governor-general took the field in person, toward the latter end of 1790. Having now assumed the command of the grand army, and formed a confederacy of the country-powers, he determined to carry hostilities into the dominions of Mysore, with a view of preventing those dangerous inroads which had taken place during the reign of Hyder Ally. To effect this, it was necessary to enter either through the Barampal valley or the Muglee pass; and the latter was pitched upon. Tippoo, thus taken by surprise, did not appear with his troops until the British army was almost in sight of Bangalore, the fort of which was invested, and taken after a short siege, while the town was stormed in the course of the succeeding day. After his junction with the Nizam, the governor-general marched against Seringapatam, but partly in consequence of a deficiency in respect to provisions, and partly from the season of the year, he was obliged to desist. Nay, so critical had his situation become, that he was obliged to destroy his battering train, and retire to Bangalore, in the neighbourhood of which he was joined by a large body of Mah-rattahs.

The triumph of Tippoo—if triumph it could be called—was not, however, of long duration; for, on the return of spring, Lord Cornwallis again appeared before the capital of Mysore, and obliged the sultan, by a treaty dated March 19th, 1792, to accede to the most humiliating terms; for half of his dominions were ceded to the English and their allies, while a large portion of treasure was stipulated for, and two of the young princes were delivered up as hostages for the fulfilment of the conditions.

On his return Earl Cornwallis was created a marquess, and nominated to the important office of master-general of the ordnance, in consequence of which he had a seat in the cabinet. But he did not remain long in England, for by this time the affairs of Ireland began to assume a very melancholy aspect, and the inhabitants—who had demanded and been denied Catholic emancipation by the very ministers who afterwards resigned because they could not accomplish that measure, too tardily acceded to on their part—were not likely to be conciliated by free quarters and military executions. On the arrival of Lord Cornwallis, in 1798, a new system was adopted; for, although bred to arms from his youth, his noble heart had ever been averse from blood and proscription. A few days after being invested with the viceroyal dignity, he informed the house of commons by a message, that he had “his majesty’s orders to acquaint them, that he had signified his gracious intention of granting a general pardon for all offences com-

mitted previously to a certain time, upon such conditions and with such exceptions as might be compatible with the public safety;” and it was very properly added, “that these offers of mercy were not to preclude measures of vigour against the obstinate.”

Soon after this proposition, which gained the hearts while it disarmed the hands of the chief insurgents, a body of about 900 French troops were landed from three frigates at Killala bay, in the county of Mayo. General Humbert, leaving a small garrison under Colonel Charost behind him, clothed and armed a few of the natives who had repaired to his standard, and then marched to Castlebar, where he defeated a body of troops posted there. Amidst the consternation occasioned by his victory he advanced to Tuam. But his prosperous career was instantly put a stop to by the lord-lieutenant, who advanced by forced marches, and having come up with the rear of the retreating enemy at Ballinamuck, the French surrendered, after having been some little time in possession of Connaught.

Soon after this the English ministers conceived the idea of an union with Ireland, and that measure was carried into execution during the viceroyship of Marquess Cornwallis: it has been denied, however, and his character seems fully to justify the supposition, that he had any share in those corrupt schemes said to be resorted to for insuring an event so highly desirable of itself, and which such a crooked policy could alone render disgusting.

In 1801, after a residence of three years in Ireland, his lordship resigned his high office, and was succeeded by the earl of Hardwicke. As he had now attained the sixty-third year of his age, it was supposed that the Marquess Cornwallis, after negotiating the definitive treaty of peace at Amiens, March 22d, 1802, would spend the remainder of his life in his native country. But it was otherwise decreed; for the affairs of the East India company became embarrassed as usual by new acquisitions, and our territorial possessions in Asia required the presence of a nobleman distinguished alike for his integrity and moderation. In 1805 he accordingly repaired thither a second time, in quality of governor-general, and commander-in-chief of his majesty's and the company's land-forces. After having made a variety of arrangements, tending to introduce economy into the civil department, he determined to place himself at the head of the army, in order, by an union of firmness and conciliation, to attain, what was always the end and aim of all his labours, an honourable peace. But his constitution had been by this time undermined by bodily fatigues, mental exertions, and perhaps also by the extremities of heat and cold in two distant quarters of the globe; his digestive powers in particular failed him in an extraordinary degree, and he was obliged to perform his journey by slow and easy stages. Nature, at length, became so completely exhausted, that he died on the 5th of October, 1805, at Ghazepoor, in the province of Benares, before he was able to reach the head-quarters.

He was buried with great pomp. Minute guns, to the number of sixty-six, corresponding with the years of his age, were fired from the ramparts of Fort William, and a studied eulogium published in an extraordinary gazette. The inhabitants of the other presidencies also endeavoured, by every mark of esteem, to testify their regard: those of Calcutta voted a mausoleum, and those of Bombay a statue.

Thus died Charles, Marquess Cornwallis, a nobleman whose name will be long remembered in the remotest portions of Asia, not as a merciless and unprincipled spoiler, but as a man who practised all the offices of humanity, and a governor who, while he supported the interests of his own country, forgot not the claims and pretensions of the native princes. All persons and all parties concurred in lamenting the death of a chief who, in his own person, so eminently combined the remote and too often discordant qualities of a statesman and a general, and on no occasion prostituted his authority to the dishonour of the British name. Napoleon Bonaparte, in his conversations with Barry O'Meara, declared that Lord Cornwallis, by his integrity, fidelity, frankness, and the nobleness of his sentiments, was the first who had impressed upon him a favourable opinion of Englishmen. "I do not believe," said the ex-emperor, "that he was a man of first-rate abilities; but he had talent, great probity, sincerity, and never broke his word. Something having prevented him from attending at the Hotel de Dieu to sign the treaty of Amiens, pursuant to appointment, he sent word to the French ministers that they might consider it completed, and that he would certainly execute it next morning. During the night, he received instructions to object to some of the articles; disregarding which, he signed the treaty as it stood, observing that his government, if dissatisfied, might refuse to ratify it; but that having once pledged his word, he felt bound to abide by it.—'There was a man of honour!' added Napoleon, 'a true Englishman!'

Horatio, Viscount Nelson.

BORN A. D. 1758.—DIED A. D. 1805.

HORATIO NELSON was born at Burnham-Thorpe, a village in Norfolk, of which his father was rector. His health was feeble during childhood, but he exhibited early traces of that daring and inflexible spirit by which he was afterwards so eminently distinguished. At the age of twelve he made a voyage, in a merchantman, to the West Indies, and on his return was received on board the *Triumph*, a guard-ship in the Thames, commanded by his uncle. In 1772 he accompanied Captain Phipps's expedition of discovery in the Northern seas. He next served on board the *Seahorse* on the East India station. After holding several inferior appointments he obtained the command of a war-sloop in 1778; and in June 1779 attained the rank of post-captain. At the conclusion of the war, in 1783, Nelson went to reside at St Omer in France, finding his income too limited for England. He soon, however, obtained an appointment to the *Boreas* of twenty-eight guns, in which he proceeded to the West India station; and in 1787 he married, at Nevis, a physician's widow.

In 1793 he obtained the command of the *Agamemnon* of sixty-four guns, in which charge he highly distinguished himself at the taking of Toulon and the siege of Bastia. The victory off Cape St Vincent, on the 13th of February, 1797, was mainly owing to Nelson's unparalleled bravery and audacity. Disobeying the admiral's signals, he bore gallantly down upon seven of the enemy's fleet; on being asked if he had

reckoned them, replied, "No; it will be time enough to do that when they have struck." After having attacked the Santissima Trinidada of one hundred and thirty-six guns, he passed on to the San Nicholas of eighty guns, and, compelling her to surrender, proceeded from her deck to board the San Josef of one hundred and twelve guns, which speedily submitted. For his brilliant services on this occasion, he was made a knight of the Bath, rear-admiral of the Blue, and appointed to the chief command of the inner squadron at the blockade of Cadiz; where he was attacked one night in his barge, by a Spanish launch, which, however, although her crew amounted to double the number of his own, he succeeded in taking. In the following July he commanded the expedition sent against Santa Cruz; while heading a midnight attack on the mole, he received a shot in his elbow which compelled him to return to his ship; and the expedition entirely failed in its object. On his return to England, however, he was presented with the freedom of the cities of London and Bristol; and on account of his having been compelled to suffer the amputation of his arm, obtained a pension of £1,000 per annum.

In 1798 he hoisted his flag on board the Vanguard, and was detached by Earl St Vincent to watch the enemy's fleet in Toulon. While proceeding thither, he narrowly escaped shipwreck in the gulf of Lyons, and the French armament in the meanwhile put to sea. Nelson followed in search of them, and after much inquiry, on the 1st of August, 1798, discovered the enemy. It had been his practice, during the whole of his cruise, whenever the weather and circumstances would permit, to have his captains on board the Vanguard, where he fully developed to them his own ideas of the different and best modes of attack, and such plans as he proposed to execute upon falling in with the enemy, whatever their position or situation might be. With the masterly ideas of their admiral, therefore, on the subject of naval tactics, every one of the captains of his squadron was most thoroughly acquainted; and upon surveying the situation of the enemy, they knew with precision what were the ideas and intentions of their commander, without the aid of any further instructions, by which means signals became almost unnecessary, much time was saved, and the attention of every captain could almost undistractedly be paid to the conduct of his own particular ship.

Had he fallen in with the French fleet at sea, that he might make the best impression upon any part of it that might appear the most vulnerable, or the most eligible for attack, he divided his force into three sub-squadrons, two of which were to attack the ships of war, while the third was to pursue the transports, and to sink and destroy as many as it could. The destination of the French armament was involved in doubt and uncertainty; but it forcibly struck Nelson, that, as it was commanded by the man whom the French had dignified with the title of the 'Conqueror of Italy,' and as he had with him a very large body of troops, an expedition had been planned, which the land-force might execute without the aid of their fleet, should the transports be permitted to make their escape, and reach in safety their place of rendezvous; it therefore became a material consideration with the admiral, so to arrange his force, as at once to engage the whole attention of their ships of war, and at the same time materially to annoy and injure their con-

voy. It is unnecessary to explain his projected mode of attack at anchor, as that was minutely and precisely executed in the action which we now come to describe. These plans, however, were formed two months before an opportunity presented itself of executing any of them, and the advantage now was, that they were familiar to the understanding of every captain in the fleet. The Pharos of Alexandria was seen at noon on the 1st of August. The Alexander and Swiftsure had been detached a head on the preceding evening to reconnoitre the ports of Alexandria, while the main body of the squadron kept in the offing. The enemy's fleet was first discovered by the Zealous, Captain Hood, who immediately communicated by signal the number of ships, sixteen, lying at anchor in line-of-battle, in a bay upon the larboard bow, which was afterwards found to be Aboukir bay. The admiral hauled his wind that instant, a movement which was immediately observed and followed by the whole squadron; and at the same time he recalled the Alexander and Swiftsure. The wind was at this time N. N. W. and blew what seamen called a top-gallant breeze. The admiral then made the signal to prepare for battle, and intimated that it was his intention to attack the enemy's van and centre as they lay at anchor, and according to the plan before developed. His idea in this disposition of his force was, first, to secure the victory, and then to make the most of it as circumstances might permit. A bower cable of each ship was immediately got out abaft, and bent forward. "We continued," says an eye-witness, "carrying sail, and standing in for the enemy's fleet in a close line of battle. As the officers of our squadron were totally unacquainted with Aboukir bay, each ship kept sounding as she stood in. The enemy appeared to be moored in a strong and compact line of battle, close in with the shore,—their line describing an obtuse angle in its form, flanked by numerous gun-boats, four frigates, and a battery of guns and mortars on an island in their van. This situation of the enemy seemed to secure to them the most decided advantages, as they had nothing to attend to but their artillery, in their superior skill in the use of which the French so much pride themselves, and to which indeed their splendid series of land-victories was in general chiefly to be imputed. The position of the enemy presented the most formidable obstacles: but the admiral viewed these with the eye of a seaman determined on attack; and it instantly struck his eager and penetrating mind, that where there was room for an enemy's ship to swing, there was room for one of ours to anchor. No further signal was necessary than those which had already been made. The admiral's designs were as fully known to his whole squadron, as was his determination to conquer or perish in the attempt. The Goliath and Zealous had the honour to lead inside, and to receive the first fire from the van-ships of the enemy, as well as from the batteries and gun-boats with which their van was strengthened. These two ships, with the Orion, Audacious, and Thesens, took their stations inside the enemy's line, and were immediately in close action. The Vanguard anchored the first on the outer side of the enemy, and was opposed within half-pistol shot to Le Spartiate, the third in the enemy's line. In standing in, our leading ships were unavoidably obliged to receive into their bows the whole fire of the broadsides of the French line, until they could take their respective stations; and it is but justice to observe, that the enemy

received us with great firmness and deliberation, no colours having been hoisted on either side, nor a gun fired, till our van-ships were within half-gun shot. At this time the necessary number of our men were employed aloft in furling sails, and on deck in hauling the braces, &c. preparatory to our casting anchor. As soon as this took place, a most animated fire was opened from the Vanguard, which ship covered the approach of those in the rear, which were following in a close line. The Minotaur, Defence, Bellerophon, Majestic, Swiftsure, and Alexander, came up in succession, and passing within hail of the Vanguard, took their respective stations opposed to the enemy's line. All our ships anchored by the stern, by which means the British line became inverted from van to rear. Captain Thompson of the Leander, of fifty guns, with a degree of judgment highly honourable to his professional character, advanced towards the enemy's line on the outside, and most judiciously dropped his anchor athwart hawse of Le Franklin, raking her with great success; the shot from the Leander's broadside, which passed that ship, all striking L'Orient, the flag-ship of the French commander-in-chief.

“The action commenced at sun-set, which was at thirty-one minutes past six P.M., with an ardour and vigour which it is impossible to describe. At about seven o'clock total darkness had come on; but the whole hemisphere was, with intervals, illuminated by the fire of the hostile fleets. Our ships, when darkness came on, had all hoisted their distinguishing lights, by a signal from the admiral. The van-ship of the enemy, Le Guerrier, was dismantled in less than twelve minutes; and in ten minutes after, the second ship, Le Conquerant, and the third, Le Spartiate, very nearly at the same moment were also dismantled. L'Aquillon and Le Souverain Peuple, the fourth and fifth ships of the enemy's line, were taken possession of by the British at half-past eight in the evening. Captain Berry at that hour sent Lieutenant Galway, of the Vanguard, with a party of marines, to take possession of Le Spartiate, and that officer returned by the boat the French captain's sword, which Captain Berry immediately delivered to the admiral; who was then below, in consequence of the severe wound which he had received in the head during the heat of the attack. At this time it appeared that victory had already declared itself in our favour; for although L'Orient, L'Heureux, and Tonnant, were not taken possession of, they were considered as completely in our power, which pleasing intelligence Captain Berry had likewise the satisfaction of communicating in person to the admiral.

“At ten minutes after nine, a fire was observed on board L'Orient, the French admiral's ship, which seemed to proceed from the after-part of the cabin, and which increased with great rapidity, presently involving the whole of the after-part of the ship in flames. This circumstance Captain Berry immediately communicated to the admiral, who, though suffering severely from his wound, came upon deck, where the first consideration that struck his mind, was concern for the danger of so many lives; to save as many as possible of whom, he ordered Captain Berry to make every practicable exertion. A boat, the only one that could swim, was instantly despatched from the Vanguard, and other ships that were in a condition to do so immediately followed the example; by which means, from the best possible information, the lives

of above seventy Frenchmen were saved. The light thrown by the fire of L'Orient upon the surrounding objects enabled us to perceive with more certainty the situation of the two fleets, the colours of both being clearly distinguishable. The cannonading was still partially kept up to leeward of the centre till about ten o'clock, when L'Orient blew up with a most tremendous explosion. An awful pause and death-like silence for about three minutes ensued, when the wreck of the masts, yards, &c. &c. which had been carried to a vast height, fell down into the water and on board the surrounding ships. A port fire from L'Orient fell into the main royal of the Alexander, the fire occasioned by which was however extinguished in about two minutes, by the active exertions of Captain Ball. After this awful scene, the firing recommenced with the ships to leeward of the centre till twenty minutes past ten, when there was a total cessation of firing for about ten minutes; after which it was revived till about three in the morning, when it again ceased.

"After the victory had been secured in the van, such British ships as were in condition to move had gone down upon the fresh ships of the enemy. At five minutes past five in the morning, the two rear ships of the enemy, Le Guillaume Tell and the Genereux, were the only French ships of the line that had their colours flying. At fifty-four minutes past five a French frigate, L'Artemise, fired a broadside and struck her colours; but such was the unwarrantable and infamous conduct of the French captain, that after having thus surrendered, he set fire to his ship, and with part of his crew, made his escape on shore. Another of the French frigates, La Serieuse, had been sunk by the fire from some of our ships; but as her poop remained above water, her men were saved upon it, and were taken off by our boats in the morning. The Bellerophon, whose masts and cables had been entirely shot away, could not retain her situation abreast of L'Orient, but had drifted out of the line to the lee side of the bay, a little before that ship blew up. The Audacious was in the morning detached to her assistance. At eleven o'clock, Le Genereux and Guillaume Tell, with the two frigates La Justice and La Diane, cut their cables and stood out to sea, pursued by the Zealous, Captain Hood, who, as the admiral himself has stated, handsomely endeavoured to prevent their escape; but as there was no other ship in a condition to support the Zealous, she was recalled.

"The whole day of the 2d was employed in securing the French ships that had struck, and which were now all completely in our possession, Le Tonnant and Timoleon excepted; as these were both dismasted, and consequently could not escape, they were naturally the last of which we thought of taking possession. On the morning of the 3d, the Timoleon was set fire to, and Le Tonnant had cut her cable and drifted on shore; but that active officer Captain Miller, of the Theseus, soon got her off again, and secured her in the British line. The British force engaged consisted of twelve ships of seventy-four guns, and the Leander of fifty. From the over-anxiety and zeal of Captain Trowbridge to get into action, his ship, the Culloden, in standing in for the van of the enemy's line, unfortunately grounded upon the tail of a shoal running off from the island, on which were the mortar and gun-batteries of the enemy; and notwithstanding all the exertions

of that able officer and his ship's company, she could not be got off. This unfortunate circumstance was severely felt at the moment by the admiral and all the officers of the squadron; but their feelings were nothing compared to the anxiety and even anguish of mind which the captain of the Culloden himself experienced for so many eventful hours. There was but one consolation that could offer itself to him in the midst of the distresses of his situation—a feeble one it is true—that his ship served as a beacon for three other ships, viz., the Alexander, Theseus, and Leander, which were advancing with all possible sail set close in his rear, and which otherwise might have experienced a similar misfortune, and thus in a greater proportion still, have weakened our force. It was not till the morning of the 2d, that the Culloden could be got off, and it was found she had suffered very considerable damage in her bottom; that her rudder was beat off, and the crew could scarcely keep her afloat with all pumps going. The resources of Captain Trowbridge's mind availed him much, and were admirably exerted upon this trying occasion. In four days he had a new rudder made upon his own deck, which was immediately shipped; and the Culloden was again in a state for actual service, though still very leaky.

“The admiral, knowing that the wounded of his own ships had been well taken care of, bent his first attention to those of the enemy. He established a truce with the commandant of Aboukir, and through him made a communication to the commandant of Alexandria, that it was his intention to allow all the wounded Frenchmen to be taken ashore to proper hospitals, with their own surgeons to attend them: a proposal which was well-received by the French, and which was carried into effect on the following day. The activity and generous consideration of Captain Trowbridge were again exerted at this time for the general good. He communicated with the shore, and had the address to procure a supply of fresh provisions, onions, &c. which were served out to the sick and wounded, and which proved of essential utility. On the 2d, the Arabs and Mamelukes, who during the battle had lined the shores of the bay, saw with transport that the victory was decisively ours,—an event in which they participated with an exultation almost equal to our own; and on that and the two following nights, the whole coast and country were illuminated as far as we could see, in celebration of our victory. This had a great effect upon the minds of our prisoners, as they conceived that this illumination was the consequence not entirely of our success, but of some signal advantage obtained by the Arabs and Mamelukes over Buonaparte.

“Although it is natural to suppose that the time and attention of the admiral, and all the officers of his squadron, were very fully employed in repairing the damages sustained by their own ships, and in securing those of the enemy, which their valour had subdued, yet the mind of that great and good man felt the strongest emotions of the most pious gratitude to the Supreme Being, for the signal success which, by his divine favour, had crowned his endeavours in the cause of his country, and, in consequence, on the morning of the 2d, he issued the following memorandum to the different captains of his squadron:

‘VANGUARD, off the Mouth of the Nile, 2d day of August, 1798.

‘Almighty God having blessed his majesty's arms with victory, the

admiral intends returning public thanksgiving for the same at two o'clock this day; and he recommends every ship doing the same as soon as convenient.

'To the respective Captains of the Squadron.'

"At two o'clock accordingly on that day public service was performed on the quarter-deck of the Vanguard, by the Rev. Mr Comyn, the other ships following the example of the admiral, though perhaps not all at the same time. This solemn act of gratitude to heaven seemed to make a very deep impression upon several of the prisoners, both officers and men, some of the former of whom remarked, 'that it was no wonder we could preserve such order and discipline, when we could impress the minds of our men with such sentiments after a victory so great, and at a moment of such seeming confusion.' On the same day the following memorandum was issued to all the ships, expressive of the admiral's sentiments of the noble exertions of the different officers and men of his squadron:

'VANGUARD, 2d day of August, 1798, off the Mouth of the Nile.'

"The admiral most heartily congratulates the captains, officers, seamen, and marines, of the squadron he has the honour to command, on the event of the late action; and he desires they will accept his most sincere and cordial thanks for their very gallant behaviour in this glorious battle. It must forcibly strike every British seaman, how superior their conduct is, when in discipline and good order, to the riotous behaviour of lawless Frenchmen. The squadron may be assured the admiral will not fail, with his despatches, to represent their truly meritorious conduct in the strongest terms to the commander-in-chief.

'To the Captains of the Ships of the Squadron.'

"Immediately after the action, some Maltese, Genoese, and Spaniards, who had been serving on board the French fleet, offered their services to ours, which were accepted; and they expressed the greatest happiness at thus being freed, as they themselves said, from the tyranny and cruelty of the French. On the fourth day after the action, Captain Berry of the Vanguard sailed in the Leander of fifty guns, with the admiral's despatches to the commander-in-chief, Earl St Vincent, off Cadiz, containing intelligence of the glorious victory which he had obtained."

Nothing could surpass the national joy on intelligence of this great success of our naval arms. Nelson himself was loaded with honours both at home and abroad. He was created a baron, with a pension of £2000 per annum; he received a sword from the fleet under his command,—a valuable piece of plate from the Turkey company, and another from the city of London,—and a present of £10,000 from the East India company. The Turkish sultan also presented him with some splendid gifts, and the czar of Russia, and king of Sardinia, sent him their respective portraits in gold boxes set with diamonds.

On the seventeenth day after the battle, Nelson set sail for Naples, then threatened by the French. The Neapolitan court was ultimately compelled to take refuge in Palermo, where the presence of a British naval force under Nelson afforded them protection. This was the most

inglorious period of our naval hero's life; it was at this time he formed that intimacy with Lady Hamilton which sullied both his public honour and private faith. By the king of Naples Nelson was created duke of Bronte, with a revenue of about £3000 a-year. From Italy Nelson returned, through Germany, to England, where he was received by his countrymen with rapturous enthusiasm.

In March, 1801, he sailed for the Baltic, as second in command under Sir Hyde Parker; and on the 2d of April he conducted the attack on the ~~Danish fleet at Copenhagen~~. Nothing could be more formidable than the means of defence which the Danes had collected, or more gallant than the style in which they employed them; but the ardour of British seamen, guided by the skill and determined courage of Nelson, overcame all opposition, and, after several hours' hard fighting, his Danish majesty agreed to an armistice of fourteen weeks, during which the treaty of armed neutrality, so far as related to Denmark, was of course suspended. In the heat of this engagement, Nelson is reported to have exclaimed: "It is warm work; this day will be the last to many of us; but I would not be elsewhere for thousands!" Sir Hyde Parker, being prevented by the wind and tide from coming to his assistance, and feeling alarmed at the duration of the contest, at length made the signal for retreat; but Nelson exclaimed, "Leave off action now! d— me if I do! I have only one eye,—I have a right to be blind sometimes." Then, putting the glass to his blind eye, he added, "I really do not see the signal." Shortly afterwards, he vociferated, "D— the signal!—keep mine for closer battle flying! That's the way I answer such signals. Nail mine to the mast!" In half an hour from this time the Danes began to slacken their fire, and several of their ships were forced to strike. Nelson, seeing that his boats were fired upon when they went to take possession of the prizes, wrote a note to the crown-prince, stating, "that he was commanded to spare Denmark, —that the line of defence which covered her shores had struck to his flag; but that if the firing was continued on the part of Denmark, he must fire the prizes, and the crews must inevitably perish." A wafer being brought, he called for sealing-wax; but a ball struck off the head of the boy who was bringing the candle. Nelson, however, ordered another to be brought, and sealed the note with the accustomed formalities, observing, that to show confusion and want of calmness, even in trifles, at such a crisis, might be attended with ~~injurious~~ results. An answer consenting to a truce was returned; and, on the 9th of April, Nelson landed to conclude the terms. On one point neither party would yield, and a Dane talked of renewing hostilities: "We are ready at a moment—ready to bombard this very night," was the reply of Nelson; and, as he passed through the state-rooms, for the purpose of discussing the subject with the crown-prince, he observed to the officer on whose arm he was leaning, "Though I have only one eye, I can see that all this will burn well." For his services on this occasion, Nelson had the title of Viscount conferred upon him.

~~Early in 1803~~ Nelson was appointed to the command of the Mediterranean fleet. He took his station off Toulon, and watched the French fleet in that harbour from May 1803 to March 1805. On the 31st of the latter month the enemy got to sea unobserved, and, passing the straits of Gibraltar, effected a junction with the Spanish fleet at Cadiz,

Quoted

Nelson
in letters
received from
London

Nelson was now employed to pursue, and, if possible, bring them to an action. On the 14th of September his lordship embarked on board the *Victory* in Portsmouth harbour, and on the following day sailed for the coast of Spain. The following letter, written by Nelson shortly before his embarkation, to his friend Alexander Davison, Esq., is eminently characteristic of the man and the hero: "Day by day, my dear friend, I am expecting the fleet to put to sea, every day, hour, and moment; and you may rely, that if it is within the power of man to get at them, that it shall be done; and I am sure that all my brethren look to that day as the finish of our laborious cruise. The event no man can say exactly, but I must think, or render great injustice to those under me, that, let the battle be when it may, it will never have been surpassed. My shattered frame, if I survive that day, will require rest, and that is all I shall ask for. If I fall on such a glorious occasion, it shall be my pride to take care that my friends shall not blush for me—these things are in the hands of a wise and just Providence, and his will be done. I have got some trifle, thank God, to leave to those I hold most dear, and I have taken care not to neglect it. Do not think I am low-spirited on this account, or fancy any thing is to happen to me; quite the contrary. My mind is calm, and I have only to think of destroying our inveterate foe. I have two frigates gone for more information, and we all hope for a meeting with the enemy. Nothing can be finer than the fleet under my command. Whatever be the event, believe me ever, my dear Davison, your much obliged and sincere friend,—NELSON AND BRONTE."

On the 6th of November the following despatch was received at the admiralty from Vice-admiral Collingwood:—

"EURYALUS, off Cape Trafalgar, October 22d, 1805.

"SIR,—The ever-to-be-lamented death of Vice-admiral Lord-viscount Nelson, who, in the late conflict with the enemy, fell in the hour of victory, leaves to me the duty of informing my lords commissioners of the admiralty, that on the 19th instant it was communicated to the commander-in-chief from the ships watching the motions of the enemy in Cadiz, that the combined fleet had put to sea. As they sailed with light winds westerly, his lordship concluded their destination was the Mediterranean, and immediately made all sail for the Straits' entrance, with the British squadron, consisting of twenty-seven ships, three of them sixty-four's, where his lordship was informed by Captain Blackwood, (whose vigilance in watching, and giving notice of the enemy's movements, has been highly meritorious,) that they had not yet passed the Straits.

"On Monday the 21st instant at day-light, when Cape Trafalgar bore E. by S. about seven leagues, the enemy was discovered six or seven miles to the eastward, the wind about west, and very light: the commander-in-chief immediately made the signal for the fleet to bear up in two columns, as they are formed in order of sailing,—a mode of attack his lordship had previously directed, to avoid the inconvenience and delay in forming a line of battle in the usual manner. The enemy's line consisted of thirty-three ships, (of which eighteen were French, and fifteen Spanish,) commanded in chief by Admiral Villeneuve: the Spaniards, under the direction of Gravina, wore with their heads to the

northward, and formed their line of battle with great closeness and correctness; but as the mode of attack was unusual, so the structure of their line was new,—it formed a crescent convexing to leeward, so that in leading down to their centre, I had both their van and rear abaft the beam. Before the fire opened, every alternate ship was about a cable's length to windward of her second a-head and a-stern, forming a kind of double line; and appeared, when on their beam, to leave a very little interval between them; and this without crowding their ships. Admiral Villeneuve was in the Bucentaure in the centre, and the prince of Asturias bore Gravina's flag in the rear; but the French and Spanish ships were mixed without any apparent regard to order of national squadron.

“As the mode of our attack had been previously determined on, and communicated to the flag-officers and captains, few signals were necessary, and none were made, except to direct close order as the lines bore down. The commander-in-chief in the *Victory* led the weather-column, and the *Royal Sovereign*, which bore my flag, the lee. The action began at twelve o'clock, by the leading ships of the columns breaking through the enemy's line,—the commander-in-chief about the tenth ship from the van,—the second in command about the twelfth from the rear,—leaving the van of the enemy unoccupied; the succeeding ships breaking through, in all parts, astern of their leaders, and engaging the enemy at the muzzles of their guns. The conflict was severe; the enemy's ships were fought with a gallantry highly honourable to their officers, but the attack on them was irresistible, and it pleased the Almighty disposer of all events to grant his majesty's arms a complete and glorious victory. About three P. M. many of the enemy's ships having struck their colours, their line gave way; Admiral Gravina, with ten ships joining their frigates to leeward, stood towards Cadiz. The five headmost ships in their van tacked, and standing to the southward, to windward of the British line, were engaged, and the sternmost of them taken; the others went off, leaving to his majesty's squadron nineteen ships of the line, (of which two are first-rates, the *Santissima Trinidad*, and the *Santa Anna*,) with three flag-officers, viz. Admiral Villeneuve, the commander-in-chief; Don Ignatio Maria d'Aliva, vice-admiral; and the Spanish rear-admiral, Don Baltazar Hidalgo Cisneros.

“After such a victory, it may appear unnecessary to enter into encomiums on the particular parts taken by the several commanders; the conclusion says more on the subject than I have language to express; the spirit which animated all was the same; when all exert themselves zealously in their country's service, all deserve that their high merits should stand recorded; and never was high merit more conspicuous than in the battle I have described. The *Achille*, (a French seventy-four,) after having surrendered, by some mismanagement of the Frenchmen, took fire and blew up; 200 of her men were saved by the tenders. A circumstance occurred during the action, which so strongly marks the invincible spirit of British seamen, when engaging the enemies of their country, that I cannot resist the pleasure I have in making it known to their lordships. The *Temeraire* was boarded by accident, or design, by a French ship on one side and a Spaniard on the other; the contest was vigorous; but in the end the combined ensigns were torn from the poop, and the British hoisted in their places.

“Such a battle could not be fought without sustaining a great loss

of men. I have not only to lament, in common with the British navy and the British nation, in the fall of the commander-in-chief, the loss of a hero whose name will be immortal, and his memory ever dear to his country; but my heart is rent with the most poignant grief for the death of a friend, to whom, by many years' intimacy, and a perfect knowledge of the virtues of his mind, which inspired ideas superior to the common race of men, I was bound by the strongest ties of affection; a grief to which even the glorious occasion in which he fell does not bring the consolation which perhaps it ought. His lordship received a musket-ball in his left breast, about the middle of the action, and sent an officer to me immediately with his last farewell,—and soon after expired. I have also to lament the loss of those excellent officers, Captains Duff of the Mars and Cooke of the Bellerophon; I have yet heard of none others.

“I fear the numbers that have fallen will be found very great when the returns come to me; but it having blown a gale of wind ever since the action, I have not yet had it in my power to collect any reports from the ships. The Royal Sovereign having lost her masts, except the tottering foremast, I called the Euryalus to me, while the action continued, which ship lying within hail, made my signals,—a service Captain Blackwood performed with great attention. After the action, I shifted my flag to her, that I might more easily communicate my orders to, and collect the ships, and towed the Royal Sovereign out to seaward. The whole fleet were now in a very perilous situation,—many dismasted,—all shattered, in thirteen fathom water off the shoals of Trafalgar,—and when I made the signal to prepare to anchor, few of the ships had an anchor to let go, their cables being shot; but the same good Providence which aided us through such a day, preserved us in the night, by the wind shifting a few points, and drifting the ships off the land, except four of the captured dismasted ships, which are now at anchor off Trafalgar, and I hope will ride safe until those gales are over.

“Having thus detailed the proceedings of the fleet on this occasion, I beg to congratulate their lordships on a victory which, I hope, will add a ray to the glory of his majesty's crown, and be attended with public benefit to our country. I am, &c.—C. COLLINGWOOD.”

It appears that Nelson was very deeply impressed with the idea that this action was to be his last. After all the necessary preparations for battle were completed, he retired to his cabin and prepared a sort of testamentary document in which he recommended Lady Hamilton, and his adopted daughter, to the gratitude of his country. On the morning of the 21st he put on the stars of all the different orders with which he had been invested; and on his secretary and chaplain remonstrating with him on the additional danger to which his life would be exposed if he appeared on deck with these insignia visible upon him, he replied: “In honour I gained them; and in honour I will die with them.” When Captain Blackwood took leave of him to proceed on board his own ship, Nelson shook him by the hand, saying, “God bless you, Blackwood! I shall never see you again.” At a little after twelve his flag-ship, the *Victory*, opened her fire from both sides, and ran on the *Redoubtable*, from the main-top of which Nelson soon after received a musket-ball in the left breast, and fell. Two of his crew having lifted

him up, he exclaimed, "They have done for me at last; my back-bone is shot through." Yet such was the presence of mind he still retained in his mortal agony that, as they were carrying him down the ladder, he ordered the tiller-ropes, which had been shot away, to be replaced; and covered, with his handkerchief, his face and stars that the sight of him might not damp the spirits of the crew. On being told that the surgeon was about to examine his wound, he said, "It is of no use: he can do nothing for me, he had better attend to others." He then eagerly inquired how the day was going; and when informed that none of his ships had struck, he said, "I am a dead man; I am going fast; let my dear Lady Hamilton have my hair, and all other things belonging to me." He soon afterwards said, "The pain is so great that I wish I was dead;—yet I should like to live a little longer!—What would become of poor Lady Hamilton, if she knew my situation?" On hearing that fourteen or fifteen of the enemy had struck, he directed his captain, Hardy, to bring the fleet to anchor. "I suppose," replied Hardy, "Collingwood, my dear lord, is to command." "Never!" exclaimed Nelson, "whilst I live." He spoke of his interment, and desired to be buried by the side of his parents, unless the king should order differently. After having again mentioned Lady Hamilton, and desired Hardy to kiss his cheek, he said to the chaplain, "Doctor, I have not been a great sinner." He then kept on repeating, "Thank God, I have done my duty!" and, after having heard the last guns which were fired, he expired at a quarter past four o'clock in the afternoon.

Twenty of the enemy's ships struck; but some of them escaped, and others were destroyed. The honours and rewards that his country would have rejoiced to have bestowed upon him, were conferred upon his relatives. Mrs Matcham and Mrs Bolton, his sisters, were voted £10,000 each; and his elder brother, the Rev. William Nelson, D. D., obtained an earldom, with a grant of £6,000 a-year, and the sum of £100,000 for the purchase of an estate.

Charles, Duke of Richmond.

BORN A. D. 1734.—DIED A. D. 1806.

CHARLES LENNOX, Duke of Richmond, succeeded to his father's titles and estate at the age of sixteen, and soon after entered the army. He was present at the battle of Minden, where he conducted himself with so much gallantry as to obtain the special notice of the commander-in-chief. In 1756 he took his seat in the house of peers, and attached himself to the whig interest. On the accession of George III. he was appointed a lord of the bed-chamber, but was soon after dismissed, for a reason highly honourable to himself, namely, his having boldly expostulated with the young monarch for his marked attention to his sister, Lady Sarah Lennox.

To the administration of Bute, and of his successor Grenville, the duke was a firm and active opponent. On the ministerial arrangement which took place under Lord Rockingham and the old whigs, supported by the duke of Cumberland, his grace was appointed ambassador

to the court of France. In May, 1766, he was appointed secretary-of-state for the Southern department, in which post he remained till succeeded by Lord Shelburne, who went in on the 2d of August the same year with the earl of Chatham.

“From that remarkable period,” says a contemporary, “his grace has continued uniformly in opposition, and that on the broadest foundation. He does not confine his disapprobation to men only, nor yet to particular measures; but he grounds it on the cause, the motives, and the views which have brought in such men, which have produced such measures,—a secret, overruling, hidden influence, directed to the introduction of a nefarious court-system,—a system of simple favouritism, by which every thing in cabinet, parliament, and elsewhere, is to be conducted and tried by the test of private judgment, in contradistinction to, and in defiance of, public opinion. To pursue his grace through the wide circle of parliamentary opposition is not our intention; the main object of these inquiries being chiefly to connect the conduct of public men with the affairs of America, we shall consider his grace’s, for the greater part, in that point of view.

“Lord Hillsborough, in the year 1768, wrote two official letters, which, perhaps, in a great measure, howsoever well-intended, have sown the seeds of the present unhappy civil war. One of them contained instructions to Governor Bernard to dissolve the assembly of Massachusetts Bay; the other directing the several American governors to assure the respective assemblies in the provinces where they presided, that no further taxes were meant to be laid on America; and that such as were already laid on would be repealed on commercial principles: these letters being further accompanied by private confidential assurances from administration, in some instances; and in others, as personally coming from the king; one of them indeed so strong that his majesty was made to say, ‘that he would rather lose his crown than preserve it by deceit.’¹ Thus the Americans were taught by one letter to perceive that the future freedom of the deliberation of the assembly of Massachusetts Bay, and consequently of every other assembly on the continent, depended on their resolution to resist a menace which presented the alternative of either submitting to the mandate of a British secretary-of-state, or to a temporary suspension tending to terminate in a total dissolution of civil government. By means such as these the colonies were taught by administration to hold the British parliament in contempt, when they found the king in one instance, and his ministers in the other, pledging themselves for the eventual resolutions of that degenerate and prostitute assembly. Such endeavours suggested besides, to those who saw farther, that when it should be found necessary to employ parliament for the purpose, those promises on the part of the crown might be disclaimed or controlled by the legislature; and the ministerial authority on which the circular letter was written might be disavowed by succeeding ministers, as a rash ill-judged promise, which neither their successors in office or parliament were by any means bound to perform or fulfil. What foundation there might have been for the preceding observations we do not pretend to determine; we

¹ Lord Bottaetourt’s speech to the assembly of Virginia, in explanation of the circular letter here adverted to.

only meant to state them shortly, as being the substance of the eighteen celebrated resolutions moved for by his grace in the house of lords, on the 18th of May, 1770, which produced one of the most extraordinary debates that we ever remember to have been present at. The whole of the misconduct of ministers in relation to America, for the four preceding years, was laid open in the most pointedly severe terms; the then state of that country was most strikingly depicted; and the dis-severation of it (to use one of Mr Solicitor's technical expressions) was predicted in terms the most confident and unconditional; yet administration remained in a kind of political apathy. Lord Hillsborough rather palliated the measures on the stale doctrine of state-necessity, than offered to defend either himself or his colleagues; and very modestly, though he owned himself 'the culprit' [his own words], moved for an adjournment.

"We find his grace, as often as an opportunity offered, continually recurring to the same ground, and as continually overpowered by numbers. His repeated contests with administration the whole of the spring session seventy-five will bear testimony what his opinions have uniformly been on the present disputes subsisting between this country and America. His grace distinguished himself particularly in opposing the Prohibitory fishery bill, and in supporting the petition from his majesty's natural-born subjects residing in Canada, praying that the law passed the preceding session, for regulating the government of Quebec, might be repealed. Time only can discover whether his grace has not been as able a politician, as he has uniformly proved himself to be a sound, at least a sincere and steady, patriot. On the opening of the last session, (1776,) administration began to feel him a most weighty as well as warm antagonist. Besides his general grounds of opposition he opened several new ones. He proved that the nation had been led imperceptibly into the present unnatural civil war; that ministers answered for matters of which they were entirely ignorant, and deceived parliament with a previous intention of doing so. He pointed particularly at the first lord of the admiralty, who, in the preceding session assured the house, that 22,000 seamen and marines would answer all the purposes of home-protection and American hostility, and who, the first day of next session, had the temerity to tell parliament, that he knew the force was not sufficient, but he concealed his knowledge of it for fear the measure at large would not meet with their concurrence and support. His grace took a very warm and active part in the motions of the duke of Manchester, on the introduction of the Hanover troops into Gibraltar and Minorca; and the duke of Grafton's, relative to the number of British troops serving in America, and those in the provincial service. He moved for the examination of Mr Penn, relative to the petition of the congress, and to the general state and disposition of the people of America; by which he proved this very important point, that whatever the intentions might be of a few ambitious fiery spirits in all parts of America, or of the Northern colonies, that a very great majority of all degrees of people totally disapproved of any attempt to render themselves independent of the parent state.—His grace abounds with information well-selected. He arranges his matter judiciously, and seldom brings any thing forward that does not immediately concern the subject of debate, and is likewise important in itself. He

is able in reply, and never fails to point out and detect, wherever his adversaries endeavour to palliate, falsify, or misrepresent. This, joined to his great sources of information, his personal boldness, his warmth of expression, his energy on some occasions, and his coolness and recollection on others, unite to render him a most useful speaker and formidable antagonist. On the other hand, his tedious, unmarked manner of speaking, his slow costive delivery, his frequent pauses and want of recollection, leave him far behind several as a public speaker, who are destined to follow him on the same side. In fine, it is his matter, and his sincerity, not his oratory, that renders him at present so valuable to the English nation,—so prized by his party,—so detested by the junto,—so feared by the ostensible ministers,—and so obnoxious to a certain great man. The duke of Richmond, as one of the leaders of a powerful party, as a public man and peer of parliament, is one out of the very few who has preserved an uniformity of conduct; has been steady in his principles, open and undisguised in his sentiments, inflexible in his opinions, unremitting in his opposition to what he thought was wrong; staunch, sincere, and unmoved by any extrinsic consideration in support of whatever he imagined was right. His opposition has been uniform,—never languid; it is not mixed with indolence, inattention, and a certain tone of pliability,—a certain air of political charity,—a certain trimming, lukewarm disposition. No; the duke of Richmond has not attended his duty in parliament merely to give a silent vote! He has not absented himself on purpose to create an apology for his non-attendance. He has not delivered his sentiments by halves, in order to let one part of the measure pass unnoticed, and the other unproved, in the terms it deserved. He has not spared ministers when they deserved it, out of a mixture of court and parliamentary complaisance. Though bred and educated a modern whig, he has not learned the whole of their creed by heart; nor brought himself up to the docility of practising a fifth of it."

When the duke's party was again called into office his grace was made a knight of the Garter, and master-general of the ordnance. Soon after the breaking up of the coalition ministry we find his grace strenuously advocating the necessity of parliamentary reform, and he for some time presided over the 'Constitutional Society' established to effect this purpose.

In 1795 the duke resigned the master-generalship, and obtained the command of the Horse-guards. He died in 1806.

Lord Thurlow.

BORN A. D. 1736.—DIED A. D. 1806.

LORD THURLOW was the son of a clergyman at Ashfield in Suffolk. When some one was endeavouring to trace his descent to Thurloe, Cromwell's secretary, he interrupted the speaker by observing: "There were two Thurlows in my county,—Thurlow the secretary, and Thurlow the carrier,—I am descended from the latter." He studied at Cambridge, and, having become a member of the Inner Temple, was called to the bar in 1758. Sir Fletcher Norton, afterwards Lord

Grantley, at this period was the most prominent lawyer at the English bar. As his old antagonist, Serjeant Davy, was no more, and Dunning had scarcely yet disclosed those great talents which at length placed him at the top of the profession, it was difficult, in the language of the day, to pit any one against him. Thurlow, who was better known at this period at Nando's than at Westminster hall, had, however, found means to distinguish himself among his friends; and as his figure, his voice, and his manner, were known to be efficient, it was at last determined by a resolute attorney to intrust the conduct of an important cause to his care. It was on this occasion,—which probably proved decisive of his fate,—that he entered the lists with a veteran who had hitherto been considered as the boldest practitioner at the English bar, and came off victorious.

The Douglas cause—on which occasion Mr Thurlow happened to be on the fortunate side—opened a still wider field for his talents and abilities. He had then to contend in a great and popular cause, in behalf of the claims of a minor, in opposition to one of the most illustrious families in North Britain; and he acquitted himself in such a manner as to enhance his reputation in no common degree. He deemed it necessary, however, in vindicating the legitimate pretensions of his noble client, to attack a gentleman, engaged on the other side, with some degree of asperity, and a challenge, followed by a meeting in the field, was the consequence. The reputation of Mr Thurlow was thus raised suddenly, yet his practice was not, at that or any other time, considerable; and he would never have attained, perhaps, the honours that now awaited him, but for the political influence of the Bedford party. The patronage of the duchess of Queensborough obtained for him a silk gown; and in the year 1770, on Dunning's resignation, he was appointed solicitor-general. The next year he succeeded Sir William de Grey as attorney-general, and was returned to parliament for Tamworth.

Thurlow's style of speaking in the house of commons was coarse, vehement, and overbearing. The positions too which he defended were little calculated to win him popular favour. He strenuously defended the current doctrine as to libels, and spoke of the institution of a jury in terms of no measured contempt. He spoke of the freedom of the press as a pernicious thing, and in the debate on the Massachusetts bill boldly asserted the right of the mother country to tax the colonists, and urged the most vigorous measures against the Americans, of whom he spoke in the most unmeasured terms of contempt. "Treason and rebellion," he exclaimed in the debate for suspending the habeas corpus act, "are properly and peculiarly the native growth of America." Lord North rewarded Thurlow, for the support which he had received from him during the contest with America, by promoting him to the woolsack on the retirement of Lord Bathurst, on the 2d of June, 1778. He was also raised to the peerage by the title of Baron Thurlow of Ashfield. On this occasion, Cowper, the poet, who had been Thurlow's fellow-student in the Temple, addressed to him some elegant complimentary verses.

The personal regard of the king preserved Thurlow in the cabinet on the accession of the marquess of Rockingham to the premiership. But he was ultimately expelled by the coalition ministry in 1783.

He still, however, retained the confidence of the king, and is supposed to have been his majesty's secret adviser during the existence of the opposition in power. When Pitt assumed the reins of government, the great seal was instantly replaced in Thurlow's hands. Yet it is notorious that he played a double part on the regency question, and consented to negotiate with the leaders on the prince's side. Pitt soon discovered this double dealing, and in the session of 1792 came to an open rupture with the chancellor. It is probable that Thurlow had over-estimated the value which the king had set upon his services, and deceived himself into the belief that when his majesty should have to choose betwixt the resignation of his chancellor or that of his premier, he would accept the latter alternative. If such were his calculations, the event disappointed him; for on Pitt representing to the king the impossibility of his remaining in office in conjunction with Thurlow, the great seal was demanded from his lordship, and put into commission.

From this period Thurlow's public life may be said to have closed. He occasionally spoke in parliament, but he never again held office. Meanwhile having purchased an estate in the neighbourhood of Dulwich, Lord Thurlow ordered a house to be built on a rising ground for his accommodation. A regular estimate was accordingly made out by an eminent architect, and the mansion completed, but the final charge was so-disproportionate to the sum originally proposed, that the noble lord exclaimed, "that he would never either enter or pay for it, but remain in his farm-house to the day of his death." As he had exhibited great attachment to the king during the discussion of the regency bill, so he afterwards enjoyed the intimacy and the confidence of the prince of Wales, and is supposed to have been the adviser of his royal highness on many critical and important occasions. For several years his lordship divided his time between Dulwich and Brighton; at the latter of which he usually spent some of the summer months, during which he rode on the fine Sussex downs, enjoyed the bracing air of the sea, and occasionally saw and conversed with the heir to the crown. He died at Brighton on the 12th of September, 1806. Sir Nathaniel Wraxall says: "As speaker of the upper house, Lord Thurlow fulfilled all the expectations previously entertained of him. His very person, figure, voice, and manner were formed to lend dignity to the wool-sack,—of a dark complexion, and harsh but regular features, with a severe and commanding demeanour which might be sometimes denominated stern, he impressed his auditors with awe before he opened his lips. Energy, acuteness, and prodigious powers of argument characterized him in debate." Nathaniel adds that "his temper was morose, sullen, and untractable, sometimes mastering his reason." Of his eloquence, Mr Butler in his 'Reminiscences,' gives us the following account: "At times Lord Thurlow was superlatively great. It was the good fortune of the reminiscient to hear his celebrated reply to the duke of Grafton during the inquiry into Lord Sandwich's administration of Greenwich hospital. His grace's action and delivery, when he addressed the house, were singularly dignified and graceful; but his matter was not equal to his manner. He reproached Lord Thurlow with his plebeian extraction, and his recent admission into the peerage: particular circumstances caused Lord Thurlow's reply to make a deep impression on the reminiscient. His lordship had spoken too often, and

began to be heard with a civil but visible impatience. Under these circumstances he was attacked in the manner we have mentioned. He rose from the woosack, and advanced slowly to the place from which the chancellor generally addresses the house, then fixing on the duke the look of Jove when he grasps the thunder, 'I am amazed'—he said, in a level tone of voice—'at the attack the noble duke has made on me. Yes, my lords,' considerably raising his voice, 'I am amazed at his grace's speech. The noble duke cannot look before him, behind him, or on either side of him, without seeing some noble peer who owes his seat in this house to his successful exertions in the profession to which I belong. Does he not feel that it is as honourable to owe it to these, as to being the accident of an accident? To all these noble lords the language of the noble duke is as applicable and as insulting as it is to myself. But I don't fear to meet it single and alone. No one venerates the peerage more than I do;—but, my lords, I must say, that the peerage solicited me, not I the peerage. Nay more, I can say, and will say, that as a peer of parliament, as speaker of this right honourable house, as keeper of the great seal, as guardian of his majesty's conscience, as lord-high-chancellor of England, nay, even in that character alone in which the noble duke would think it an affront to be considered,—as a man, I am at this moment as respectable,—I beg leave to add,—I am at this time as much respected, as the proudest peer I now look down upon.' The effect of this speech both within the walls of parliament and out of them, was prodigious. It gave Lord Thurlow an ascendancy in the house which no chancellor had ever possessed: it invested him, in public opinion, with a character of independence and honour; and this, though he was ever on the popular side in politics, made him always popular with the people." In appearance Lord Thurlow was stern of aspect, with harsh but regular and strongly marked features. His eyebrows were large and shaggy, protruding over his penetrating eyes which gleamed with intellect. Lavater said, on seeing a portrait of him: "Whether this man be on earth or in hell, I know not; but wherever he is, he is a tyrant, and will rule if he can."

The following sketch of Thurlow, when attorney-general, appeared in 1777: "Mr Thurlow's political character is little known; though his political conduct, and private and professional character, are pretty notorious. On the resignation of Mr Dunning in 1770, he succeeded that gentleman, under the patronage of the house of Bedford, as solicitor-general; and early in the ensuing year, within the period of ten months, he succeeded Sir William de Grey, appointed chief-justice of the common-pleas, in the office of attorney-general. Two circumstances attended the sudden elevation of Mr Thurlow, very uncommon, and we believe unprecedented; which were, that he was appointed solicitor-general from a state of some degree of professional obscurity, and before he was so much as known or matriculated within the hallowed walls of St Stephen; and that of course he arrived to the high post he now occupies, before he had any striking opportunity of displaying his talents in the lucrative trade of parliamentary warfare. Mr Attorney's operative or active principles are, we presume, well-known,—so well, that we take the liberty to think that there is not a man in England of any party, size of understanding,

or political complexion, whose business, views, or amusements, have led him to speculations of this kind, that is not firmly persuaded, and satisfactorily informed, of the steadiness, uniformity, and inflexibility of the overruling principle which governs and directs this great officer's conduct. Though earth, hell, and heaven were to club their influences, and unite in threatening him with worldly disgrace, future punishment, and eternal reprobation, they must carry their threats into actual execution, before they could intimidate him from pursuing the great principle of his nature. There is, however, something bold, explicit, decisive, and open in his public conduct, which many of his partisans, who make high pretensions to public virtue and political perfection, are total strangers to. Whether it were the shutting up the port of Boston, or blowing it up, and rasing it to its lowest foundations, by a globe of compression,²—whether it were to establish the Turkish, the Gentoo, or the Romish religion in the province of Canada,—whether it were to bring criminals home to England to be tried for offences committed in America, or hang them by the more expeditious method of martial law, accompanied, for the sake of variety, by the knout or bow-string,—whether it were to prevent the descendants of George II. from marrying before their cogitative and generative faculties were arrived at their full growth, or to pass an edict for their castration,—whether it were to new-model the charters of the East India company, or annihilate them by proclamation,—or whether to pass a law to extirpate rebellion in America, or for extirpating the inhabitants,—we presume would make very little difference with this great lawyer and statesman, provided he were fully persuaded that such measures would redound to the honour of his royal master, the prosperity of his country, the security of the constitution, and the preservation of the state. After this open, candid, and Thurlowan manner of delineating this gentleman's character, developing his political opinions, and tracing his motives to their true source, it will be needless to add any more than that he promises fair to be shortly placed in a situation where he will be intrusted with the use, keeping, and direction of the king's conscience.

“Mr Thurlow, among so numerous a body as the house of commons is composed of,—in such an assemblage of different sentiments, principles and interests,—in such a conflict or combustion of wits, arguments, faction, and absurdity,—must, for many reasons, be always considered as a first-rate speaker. Probably the public may imagine, that we have misplaced him in this noble and honourable catalogue. It may be so; but after the testimony of impartiality we have just given, our judgment alone we presume will remain to be impeached. Such as it is, however, we must follow it; as it is the only guide we have hitherto permitted to lead us, or mean in future to follow. On this ground therefore we are not ashamed to affirm, that Mr Thurlow is by much the most useful speaker and forcible and powerful orator on the part of administration in the house of commons. He combats his adversaries with almost every species of argument,—from the naked, unqualified, unsupported flat assertion, or round contradiction, down to the sarcastic joke. He is always plausible, and is the best advocate in a weak cause we ever remember to have heard. Without the graces of

² See Romanzow's account of the storm of Bender by the Russians.

elocution, a chosen arrangement of words, a harmony of voice, or diversity of cadence, there is an expression of countenance denoting a conviction of truth, a manner of pressing his arguments seemingly arising from the same source, accompanied by a certain energy of expression, which united, render him most formidable and powerful in the line of parliamentary persuasion. Were his speeches to be committed to paper,—were time given to separate the corn from the chaff and dust which he scatters around in order to blind his auditors,—were they to be naturally tried by the touchstone of truth, sought through the medium of reason and sober investigation,—they would often appear in all their naked deformity; sophistry would be too often found substituted for argument, and mere confident assertion for indisputable facts; but in the blind heat of debate,—where the attack and defence is sudden and unforeseen,—where majorities are to be soothed, hurried, misled, or furnished with plausible apologies for their voting against their own conviction,—where it is the business, nay, employment of the advocate to conceal, exaggerate, or explain away,—where the speaker, from his particular situation, is far removed from any degree of responsibility for his assertions, opinions, or public counsels,—where few are capable of judging, fewer to detect, and where complete detection would be the work of as many days, as the mode of parliamentary discussion affords hours,—Mr Thurlow is not only a first-rate orator, but, to borrow an expression from himself, he is an orator of the first impression."

A very amusing account of Thurlow and Lord Rosslyn, then attorney and solicitor-general, is given in Gibbon's posthumous works, where that author very appropriately describes them, as the lion and the unicorn supporting the king's arms, represented by Lord North, who generally sat between them in a drowsy state, unless roused by the thunders of Thurlow's stentorian voice. The department of apologies and excuses was generally consigned to the smooth tongued, supple Wedderburn, while the more arduous task of beating down young prattling members, or bullying the experienced practitioners, was intrusted to the stern and threatening Thurlow. It was owing to this latter circumstance, that Lord North usually distinguished him by the striking appellation of the *masque de fer*,—a personage who at that time occupied the attention of most of the historians of Europe. To Lord Thurlow was committed the difficult task of defending the ministers for the innumerable blunders in America. To a friend, who asked him what possible justification he could offer for a repetition of the same mistakes, he replied: "Oh! that is very easy. Because one fool did a foolish thing, that's the best reason in the world why another fool should do another foolish thing." "I like Thurlow," said Dr Johnson, "he always sets to work at an argument like a man who is in earnest;" and so he really did: it formed the leading feature of his character. Lord Thurlow expressed a wish to meet Mr Horne Tooke, and they dined together at a mutual friend's house. The latter was ill, out of spirits, and cut no great figure, and they parted with no very high opinion of each other. After dinner Mr Tooke having observed, that notwithstanding the English constitution had been so dreadfully mangled, there was yet enough left to make it well worth any man's while to die on the scaffold in its defence. "Perhaps so," replied Thurlow, "but

you must not talk in that manner, Mr Tooke, or your friend Sir Francis will laugh at you." In a word, the character which Lord Clarendon has drawn of one of the statesmen of his time, has a good deal of resemblance to that of Lord Thurlow. "Of a morose and cynical temper, just in his administration, but vicious under the appearances of virtue, learned beyond any man of his profession, but intractable, stiff, and obstinate, proud, and jealous." It has been said that Lord Thurlow never trembled but once in his life, and that memorable event occurred when he took his seat on the chancery bench. While the oaths were administering, he showed evident signs of confusion, pulling out alternately two large gold snuffboxes, which he usually carried in his waistcoat pockets, until at last his hand shook so much, that he could not put on the lids, the boxes fell into the middle of the court, and his state-ropes were covered with snuff; nor was it until an oath was seen quivering on his lips, like the muttering of distant thunder, that he regained his composure.

George, Marquess Townshend.

BORN A. D. 1723.—DIED A. D. 1807.

GEORGE, fourth viscount and first Marquess Townshend, was born on the 28th of February, 1723, and named after his godfather George I.

After having distinguished himself at the battles of Dettingen, Fontenoy, Culloden, and Laffeldt, he was employed in 1759, being then a brigadier-general, as third in command of the expedition against Quebec. In the decisive battle fought on the heights above the town, he was actively engaged at the head of the left wing, until informed that the chief command had devolved on him; Wolfe being killed and Monckton severely wounded.

Townshend was subsequently engaged at Fellinghausen, and served a campaign in Portugal under Count de la Lippe Buckbourg. From 1747, until his accession to the peerage, on the death of his father in 1764, he represented his native county, Norfolk, in parliament, of which he was a particularly active and distinguished member. In 1767 he was appointed lieutenant of Ireland, in which office, however, he was superseded by Lord Harcourt, who, it is said, on arriving at the castle, about three o'clock in the morning found his predecessor carousing with a few jovial companions. "Well, my lord," said Townshend, after congratulating his successor, "though you did come upon us very unexpectedly, you must do us the justice to admit that you have not found us napping." In 1772 he was promoted from the post of lieutenant-general of the ordnance, to the head of that department; and in 1787 the king raised him to a marquissate. At the time of his death, which occurred on the 14th September, 1807, he was a field-marshal, colonel of the second regiment of dragoon-guards, governor of Jersey, lord-lieutenant of Norfolk, high-steward of Tamworth, Yarmouth, and Norwich, and D. C. L. He had been twice married: first, to a daughter of the earl of Northampton; and secondly, to a daughter of Sir William Montgomery, by both of whom he had children. His brother, who died chancellor of the exchequer at an early age, was more eloquent;

but Lord Townshend spoke often, and was always heard with particular attention.

Lord Townshend was, as his ancestors were, a whig—that is, a firm friend to those principles which were established at the revolution. In parliament he acted an independent part; and though himself an officer in the standing army, he had, by his perseverance, a principal share in carrying a bill for the establishment of a constitutional militia. He sometimes voted against the king's ministers, but oftener with them. In private as in public life Lord Townshend was a man of the strictest honour; he had a sound strong understanding, with a vein of humour peculiar to himself. His manners were frank and open; and in the various situations of his life, his benevolence and his humanity were as conspicuous as his firmness and his courage.

Carleton, Lord Dorchester.

BORN A. D. 1722.—DIED A. D. 1808.

THIS veteran soldier was one of the oldest officers in the British army. He was descended from an ancient family residing many ages at Carleton in Cumberland, whence the survivors removed to Ireland. Of the family, three brothers, who espoused the royal cause in the 17th century, lost their lives at the battle of Marston-moor; a fourth, who survived the restoration, was rewarded for his loyalty with the bishopric of Bristol. From this prelate his lordship was directly descended.

He was born in the year 1722, and at an early period entered the guards, in which corps he continued until the year 1748, when he was promoted to be lieutenant-colonel of the 72d regiment. Upon the breaking out of the seven years war, his professional knowledge was put to an honourable test. In 1758 he embarked with General Amherst for the siege of Louisburg, where his active exertions obtained him considerable reputation. In the next year he was at the siege of Quebec under Wolfe; where his important services did not escape the notice of his superiors. He was singled out as a proper officer to be detached with an adequate force to secure a post on the western point of the Isle d'Orleans, a service which he effectually performed. Some time after he was again detached to dislodge the French from Point-au-Trempe, twenty miles distant from Quebec, where he was equally successful. The next service in which Colonel Carleton was engaged, was at the siege of Belleisle, where he acted in the capacity of brigadier-general, having been honoured with that rank on the spot on which he received his first wound from the enemy. The public despatches of General Hodgson, who commanded on this expedition, spoke in terms highly flattering of the conduct of the brigadier. In February, 1762, he was promoted to the rank of colonel in the army, and soon afterwards embarked for the siege of Havannah. In this arduous enterprise our hero had his full share of honourable toil. On the 10th of June he was detached from the camp into the woods between Coximar and Moro, with a body of light infantry and grenadiers, who invested the Moro castle; and on the 11th he carried the Spanish redoubt upon Moro hill.

The peace which took place after the end of this campaign interrupted the career of this aspiring soldier, and he remained several years without any opportunity of exerting his military talents. He was not, however, altogether idle; when General Murray was recalled from Quebec, he was appointed lieutenant-governor of that province, and when it was determined that the general should not return, he was promoted to the government in his room; and he continued in this station for many years. In 1772 he was advanced to the rank of major-general in the army, and appointed colonel of the 47th regiment of foot. In addition to these favours conferred upon him by his sovereign, he had the happiness to receive the hand of Lady Mary Howard, sister to the earl of Effingham. When the contest between Great Britain and the American colonies began to wear a serious aspect, the ministry called on General Carleton for his advice; and it is supposed that it was upon his suggestions they brought forward the celebrated Quebec bill. During the agitation of this measure in the house of commons, the general was examined at the bar, and his evidence satisfying both sides of the house of the expediency of the measure, it tended of course to accelerate its adoption. After the passing of the Quebec bill he immediately repaired to his government, and had a difficult task to perform. He had few troops in the province, and one of the first attempts made by the Americans was, with a powerful army, to gain possession of it. They had surprised Ticonderoga and Crown Point. General Carleton formed a plan for the recovery of these posts; but for want of British troops, and the cordial co-operation of the Canadians, his design failed. The general had also the mortification to be defeated in the field, and it was not without great difficulty and address that he escaped in a whale-boat into the town of Quebec. Here his energy of mind became conspicuous; being almost destitute of regular troops, he trained the inhabitants to arms, and soon put the place in such a posture of defence as to defeat General Montgomery in his attempt to storm it, although that brave officer led the forlorn hope in person. In the first discharge of a well-directed fire from the British battery, that intrepid American fell, with a considerable number of his men. The assailants, thus deprived of their gallant leader, paused but did not retreat, and they sustained a galling fire for half an hour longer from cannon and musketry, before they finally withdrew from the attack. Quebec was thus preserved till the arrival of reinforcements from England. As soon as he had received these, he drove the enemy from his province, and prepared to take revenge for his previous disappointments. For this purpose he endeavoured to engage the Indians in the English interest; but, from the well-known humanity of his disposition, we have reason to conclude he never approved of the shocking enormities which they perpetrated when not under his personal observation. He advanced with a powerful army towards the lakes, to obtain the complete command of which it became necessary to equip some armed vessels which had been constructed in England; but this took up so much time that the season was far advanced before they were completed. When this was done, he immediately attacked the American flotilla on Lake Champlain, under the command of General Arnold, and totally defeated it; but the lateness of the season obliged him to abandon further operations, and to return into Canada for winter-quarters.

It was expected that General Carleton would have been employed in the ensuing campaign, but it is believed he declined so hazardous a service with the small number of troops that were allowed. The fate of General Burgoyne, under that foreseen disadvantage, justified General Carleton's refusal. On Burgoyne's arrival to supersede him, General Carleton evinced no censurable jealousy; on the contrary, he exerted himself to the utmost to enable his successor to take the field to advantage. He then resigned his government to General Halde-
mand and returned to England, where his merit, in so ably and effectually defending Quebec, procured him a red ribbon.

In 1781 he was appointed to succeed Sir Henry Clinton as commander-in-chief in America, and on his arrival at New York he began and completed many excellent reforms. He broke up the band of American loyalists, whose conduct had given umbrage to the well-disposed. He checked the profuse and useless expenditure of money in several departments, and restrained the rapacity of commissaries; he had the credit also of having done every thing in his power to soften the rigours of war, and to conciliate the minds of the Americans. In this situation he continued until peace was established between the two countries, when, after an interview with General Washington, he evacuated New York and returned to England.

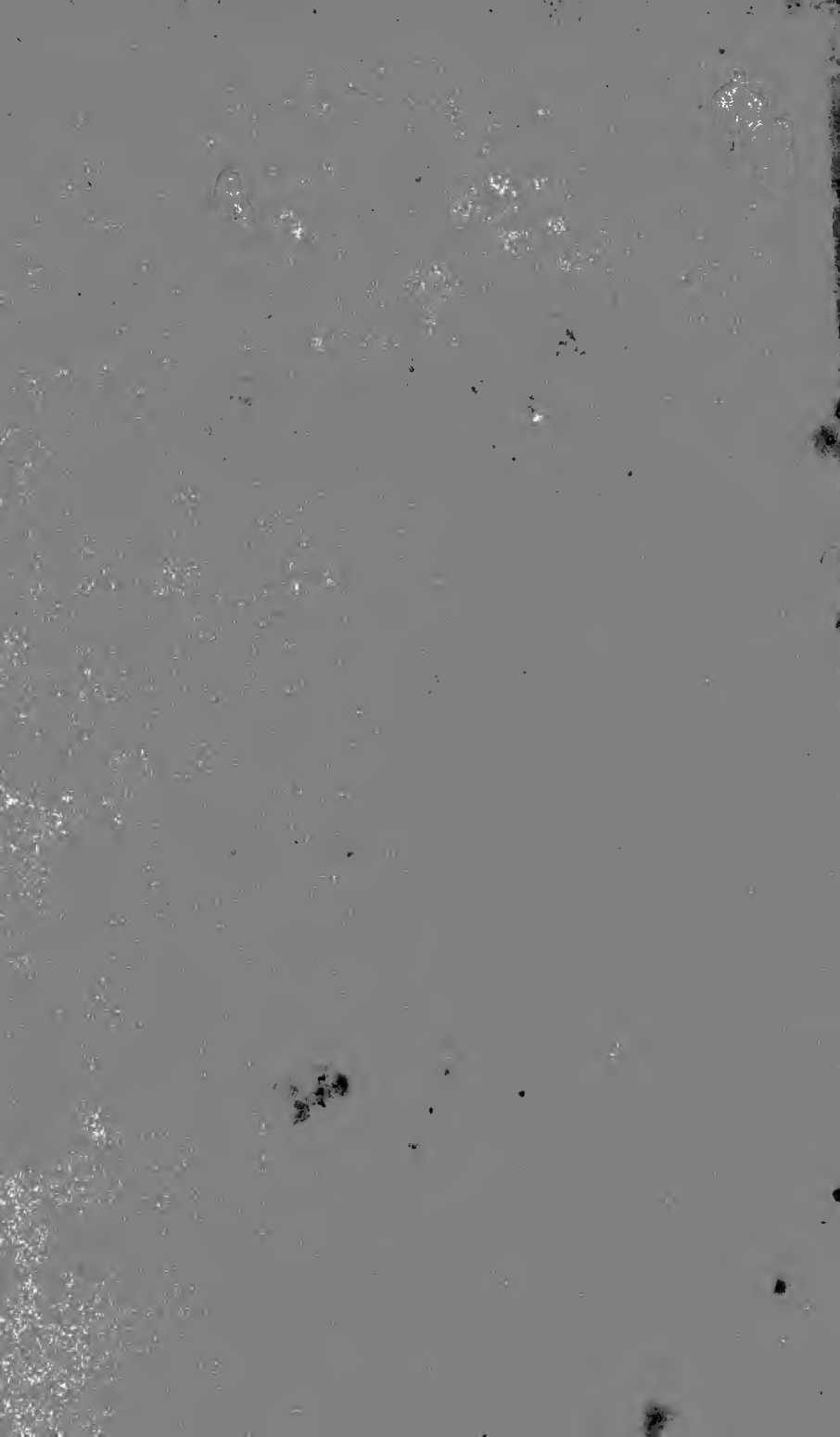
During his residence in London, before his last appointment, he acted as one of the commissioners of public accounts. He retained the command of the forty-seventh regiment of foot until 1790, when he was promoted to that of the fifteenth dragoons. It having been resolved to put the British possessions in North America under the direction of a governor-general, Sir Guy Carleton, now created Lord Dorchester, was appointed to that powerful and important office, having under his authority all the northern settlements, except Newfoundland. In this situation and government he remained several years, still acquiring fresh reputation. After his return to England his lordship led a very retired life, chiefly residing in the country. He died in 1808, and was succeeded in his title and estate by his eldest son Thomas, a general in the army.

THE END OF VOL. VI.

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